

Soluzioni ai problemi proposti nell'Eserciziario

Capitolo 1

- 1.1 Il numero di massa è il numero dei protoni e dei neutroni. Il numero atomico è il numero dei protoni ed è identico per tutti gli isotopi.
- Numero dei protoni = numero atomico per O = 8
 - Numero dei neutroni = numero di massa – numero atomico
 - Numero degli elettroni = numero dei protoni
 - Il numero di gruppo è lo stesso per tutti gli isotopi
- 1.2 I legami ionici si formano quando un elemento della parte sinistra della tavola periodica trasferisce un elettrone ad un elemento della parte destra della tavola periodica. I legami covalenti si originano quando due atomi condividono elettroni
- 1.3 Atomi con 1, 2 o 3 elettroni di valenza formano 1, 2 o 3 legami rispettivamente. Atomi con quattro o più elettroni di valenza formano $[8 - (\text{numero degli elettroni di valenza})]$ legami
- 1.4 Usare le regole di formazione dei legami della risposta 1.2.
- 1.5 [1]. Sistemare gli atomi con gli idrogeni sull'esterno
- [2]. Contare gli elettroni di valenza
- [3]. Sistemare gli elettroni attorno agli atomi. Assegnare prima due elettroni agli idrogeni, poi completare gli ottetti degli altri atomi.
4. Assegnare le cariche formali (Sezione 1.3C)
- 1.6 Segui il procedimento della risposta 1.5
- 1.7 Carica formale = numero di elettroni di valenza – [numero di elettroni non condivisi + $\frac{1}{2}$ (numero di elettroni condivisi)]
- 1.8
- 1.9
- 1.10 Carica formale = numero di elettroni di valenza – [numero di elettroni non condivisi + $\frac{1}{2}$ (numero di elettroni condivisi)]. Il C è nel gruppo 4A.
- 1.11 Carica formale = numero di elettroni di valenza – [numero di elettroni non condivisi + $\frac{1}{2}$ (numero di elettroni condivisi)]. L'N è nel gruppo 5A e l'O nel gruppo 6A.
- 1.12 Seguire i passaggi della risposta 1.4 per disegnare le strutture di Lewis.
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- 1.14 Due differenti definizioni:

. Gli isomeri hanno la stessa formula molecolare ed una *differente* posizione degli atomi.

. Le strutture di risonanza hanno la stessa formula molecolare e la stessa posizione degli atomi.

1.15 La notazione della freccia curva mostra il movimento di una coppia elettronica. La coda si posiziona presso una coppia elettronica (un legame o una coppia solitaria) e la testa punta dove gli elettroni si devono muovere. Confrontare le strutture di risonanza per vedere quali elettroni si sono “mossi”. Usare la freccia curva per mostrare il movimento di ogni coppia elettronica.

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Usare una freccia curva per mostrare il movimento di ogni coppia elettronica.

1.17 Per disegnare un'altra struttura di risonanza, muovere solamente gli elettroni dei legami multipli e le coppie solitarie e mantenere costante il numero degli elettroni spaiati.

1.18 Per disegnare un ibrido di risonanza:

. Usare linee intere per i legami che sono presenti in entrambe le strutture di risonanza e linee tratteggiate per i legami che sono presenti in una sola delle strutture di risonanza.

. Usa cariche parziali quando la carica è su più atomi nelle strutture di risonanza.

1.19 Una struttura di risonanza “migliore” è quella che presenta un numero maggiore di legami ed un numero minore di cariche. La struttura “migliore” è il maggior contribuente, mentre le altre sono contribuenti minori. Per disegnare l'ibrido di risonanza, usare le regole della risposta 1.13.

1.20 Gli isomeri devono avere una diversa posizione degli atomi.

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1.22 Usare la definizione di isomeri e di strutture di risonanza della risposta 1.14.

1.23 Usare la definizione di isomeri e di strutture di risonanza della risposta 1.14.

1.24 Confrontare le strutture di risonanza per vedere quali elettroni si sono “mossi”.
Usare una freccia curva per mostrare il movimento di ogni coppia elettronica.

1.25 La notazione della freccia curva mostra il movimento di una coppia elettronica. La coda comincia presso una coppia elettronica (un legame o una coppia

elettronica solitaria) e la testa punta nella direzione del movimento elettronico.

1.26 Usare le regole della risposta 1.17.

1.27 Per disegnare un ibrido di risonanza, usare le regole della risposta 1.18.

1.28 Per i composti per cui non è data la struttura, prima disegnare una struttura di Lewis.

Successivamente usare le regole della risposta 1.17.

1.29 Per disegnare un ibrido di risonanza, usare le regole della risposta 1.18.

1.30 Una struttura di risonanza "migliore" è quella che presenta maggior numero di legami e minor numero di cariche. La migliore struttura rappresenta il contribuente maggiore e tutte le altre i contribuenti minori.

1.31 Seguire i passaggi della risposta 1.5 per disegnare le strutture di Lewis.

1.32 Tutte le rappresentazioni presentano un carbonio con due legami nel piani della pagina, uno verso l'osservatore (linea a cuneo) ed uno verso il retro della pagina (linea tratteggiata). Quattro possibilità:

1.33 Per predire la geometria attorno ad un atomo, **conta il numero dei gruppi (atomi + coppie solitarie)**, facendo attenzione a disegnare ogni coppia solitaria necessaria o atomi di idrogeno: 2 gruppi = lineare, 3 gruppi = trigonale planare, 4 gruppi = tetraedrico.

1.34 Per predire l'angolo di legame attorno ad un atomo, **contare il numero dei gruppi (atomi + coppie solitarie)**, facendo attenzione a disegnare ogni coppia solitaria necessaria o atomi di idrogeno: 2 gruppi = 180° , 3 gruppi = 120° , 4 gruppi = $109,5^\circ$.

1.35 Per predire la geometria attorno ad un atomo, usare le regole della risposta 1.33.

1.36 Usare le regole della risposta 1.34

1.37 Per predire la geometria attorno ad un atomo, usare le regole della risposta 1.33.

1.38 Ogni carbonio presenta due legami nel piano della pagina, uno davanti alla pagina (cuneo solido) ed uno dietro la pagina (linea tratteggiata).

1.39 Andando da destra a sinistra, disegna la molecola come una struttura di Lewis. Controlla sempre che il carbonio abbia quattro legami e tutti gli eteroatomi abbiano l'ottetto, aggiungendo se necessario le dovute coppie elettroniche libere.

1.40 Nelle strutture segmentate, tutte le giunzioni o estremità di ogni segmento rappresentano atomi di carbonio. I carboni sono tutti tetravalenti.

- 1.41 Nelle strutture segmentate, tutte le giunzioni o estremità di ogni segmento rappresentano atomi di carbonio. Convertire scrivendo tutti i carboni, e successivamente aggiungendo gli atomi di idrogeno per rendere i carboni tetravalenti.
- 1.42 Una carica presente su un atomo prende il posto di un atomo di idrogeno. Un C carico negativamente presenta una coppia libera, un C carico positivamente non ne ha.
- 1.43
- 1.44 Nelle strutture segmentate, tutte le giunzioni o termini di riga rappresentano atomi di carbonio. I carboni sono tutti tetravalenti.
- 1.45 Nelle strutture segmentate, tutte le giunzioni o termini di riga rappresentano atomi di carbonio. Convertire scrivendo tutti i carboni, e successivamente aggiungendo gli atomi di idrogeno per rendere i carboni tetravalenti.
- 1.46 Nelle strutture segmentate, non disegnare i carboni e gli idrogeni eccetto quelli legati ad eteroatomi.
- 1.47 Relativamente alle strutture di Lewis, tutti gli atomi compresi gli H e tutte le coppie solitarie devono essere disegnate.
- 1.48 Una carica su un atomo di C prende il posto di un atomo di H. Un C carico negativamente presenta una coppia libera, ed un carbonio carico positivamente non ne presenta nessuna.
- 1.49 Per determinare gli orbitali usati nei legami, contare il numero dei gruppi (atomi + coppie solitarie): 4 gruppi = sp^3 , 3 gruppi = sp^2 , 2 gruppi = sp , atomo di idrogeno = $1s$ (nessuna ibridazione). Tutti i legami singoli covalenti sono σ , e tutti i doppi legami contengono un legame σ ed uno π .
- 1.50 [1] Disegnare una valida struttura di Lewis per ogni molecola.
- [2] Contare il numero dei gruppi attorno ad ogni atomo: 4 gruppi = sp^3 , 3 gruppi = sp^2 , 2 gruppi = sp , atomo di idrogeno = $1s$ (nessuna ibridazione).
- Nota: Be e B (Gruppi 2A e 3A) non hanno sufficienti elettroni di valenza per formare un ottetto, e non formano un ottetto in molecole neutre.*
- 1.51 Per determinare l'ibridazione attorno agli atomi indicati, usare le procedure della risposta 1.54.
- 1.52 Per determinare quali orbitali sono coinvolti nei legami, usare la procedura della risposta 1.49.

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1.54 Per determinare l'ibridazione, **contare il numero dei gruppi** attorno ad ogni atomo: 4 gruppi = sp^3 , 3 gruppi = sp^2 , 2 gruppi = sp , atomo di idrogeno = $1s$ (nessuna ibridazione).

1.55 Tutti i legami singoli sono σ . I legami multipli contengono un legame σ , e tutti gli altri sono legami π .

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1.58 Lunghezza di legame e forza di legame sono inversamente proporzionali: **legami più lunghi sono legami più deboli**. I legami singoli sono più deboli e più lunghi di quelli doppi, che sono più deboli e più lunghi di quelli tripli.

1.59 Lunghezza di legame e forza di legame sono inversamente proporzionali: **legami più lunghi sono legami più deboli**. I legami singoli sono più deboli e più lunghi di quelli doppi, che sono più deboli e più lunghi di quelli tripli. L'aumento del carattere s aumenta la forza di legame e diminuisce la lunghezza.

1.60 Per determinare le lunghezze di legame relative, usare le regole della risposta 1.59.

1.61 Per determinare le lunghezze di legame relative, usare le regole della risposta 1.59.

1.62 La percentuale di carattere s determina la lunghezza di un legame. Maggiore la percentuale di carattere s , minore la lunghezza del legame. In relazione a questa domanda, determinare la percentuale di carattere s attraverso l'individuazione dell'ibridazione di ogni atomo coinvolto nel legame. $sp = 50\%$ di carattere s , $sp^2 = 33\%$ di carattere s ; $sp^3 = 25\%$ di carattere s .

1.63 Usare la regola della percentuale del carattere s e della lunghezza di legame della risposta 1.66 e ricordare che legami più corti sono legami più forti. Un legame formato da due C ibridi sp^2 è più forte di un legame σ formato da due C ibridi sp^3 perchè i C ibridi sp^2 presentano un orbitale a maggior carattere s .

1.64 La percentuale di carattere s determina la forza di un legame. Maggiore la percentuale di carattere s di un orbitale usato nella formazione di un legame, maggiore la forza del legame.

1.65 **L'elettronegatività aumenta lungo una riga della tavola periodica e diminuisce lungo una colonna**. Controllare la posizione relativa degli atomi per determinare la loro elettronegatività relativa.

1.66 L'elettronegatività aumenta lungo una riga della tavola periodica e diminuisce lungo una colonna. Controllare la posizione relativa degli atomi per determinare la loro elettronegatività relativa.

1.67 Le molecole polari si originano dalla presenza di un dipolo netto. Per determinare la polarità, disegnare la molecola in tre dimensioni attorno ad ogni legame polare, disegnare i dipoli, e cercare di vedere se i dipoli si sommano o si sottraggono.

Nota: bisogna disegnare la molecola tridimensionalmente per osservare il dipolo. Nella struttura di Lewis, sembra che i dipoli si sottraggano, quando in realtà si sommano e formano una molecola polare.

1.68 I dipoli si originano da una ripartizione disuguale degli elettroni nei legami covalenti. Gli atomi più elettronegativi attraggono la densità elettronica verso di loro, originando un dipolo. Le frecce del dipolo sono dirette dalla densità elettronica più bassa (δ^+) a quella più alta (δ^-).

1.69 Usare le indicazioni della risposta 1.67.

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1.76 I legami polari si originano da una non uguale ripartizione degli elettroni nei legami covalenti. Normalmente noi pensiamo che gli atomi più elettronegativi “attraggano” la densità elettronica verso di loro, originando un dipolo. Osservando un legame Csp^2-Csp^3 , l'atomo con una maggior percentuale di carattere s “attrarrà” maggiormente la densità elettronica verso di sé, originando un piccolo dipolo.

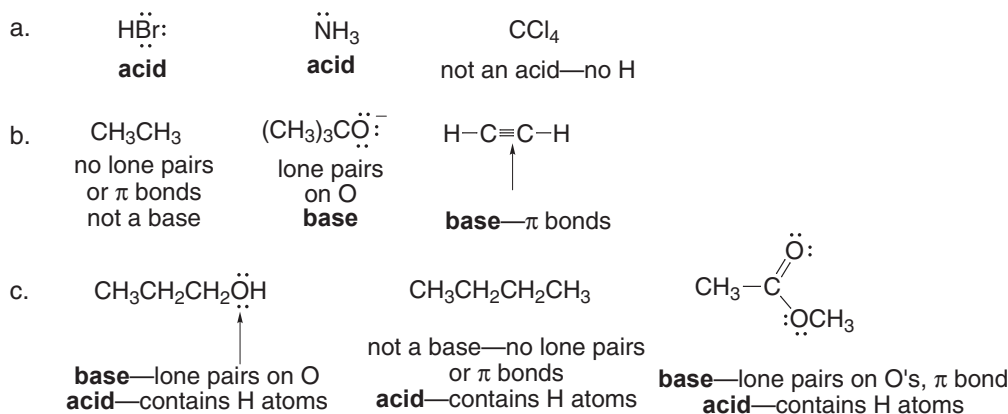
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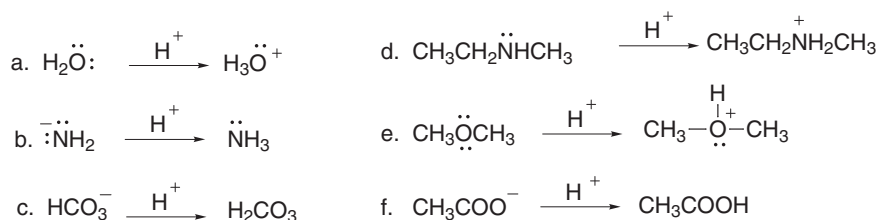
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Capitolo 2

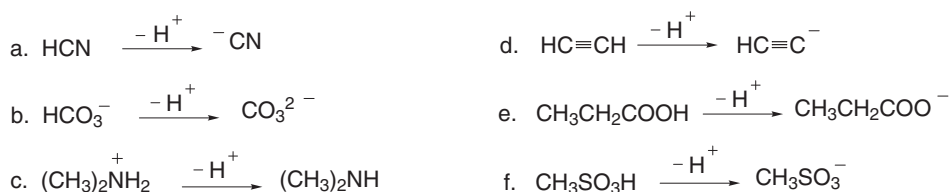
2.1 Gli acidi di Brønsted–Lowry sono donatori di protoni e devono contenere un atomo di idrogeno. **Le basi di Brønsted–Lowry sono accettori di protoni** e devono avere una coppia di elettroni disponibile (sia una coppia solitaria che un legame π).



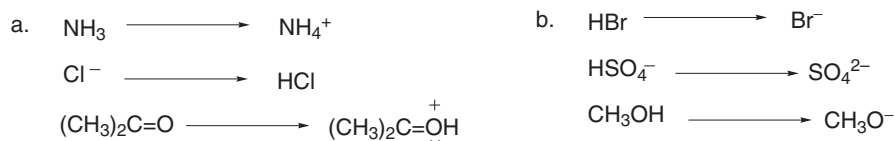
2.2 Per disegnare l'acido coniugato di una base di Brønsted–Lowry, aggiungere un protone alla base.



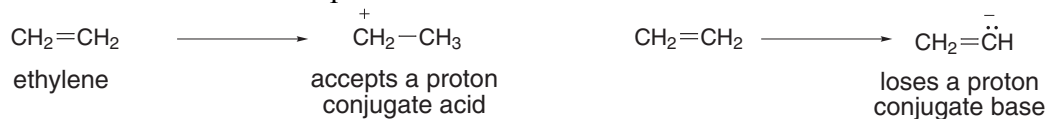
2.3 Per disegnare la base coniugata di un acido di Brønsted–Lowry, rimuovere un protone dall'acido.



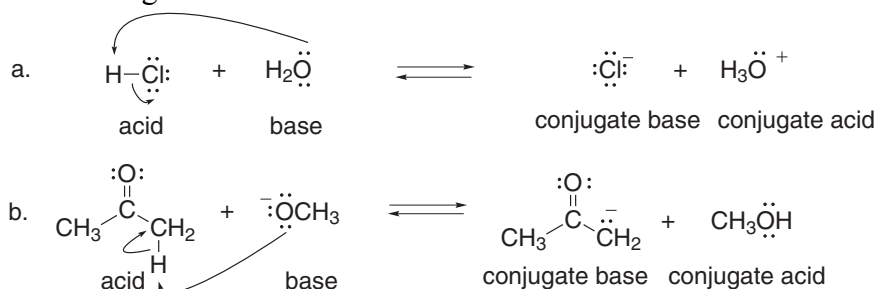
2.4 Una base di Brønsted–Lowry accetta un protone per formare l'acido coniugato. Un acido di Brønsted–Lowry perde un protone per formare la base coniugata.



2.5 Usare le definizioni della risposta 2.2.

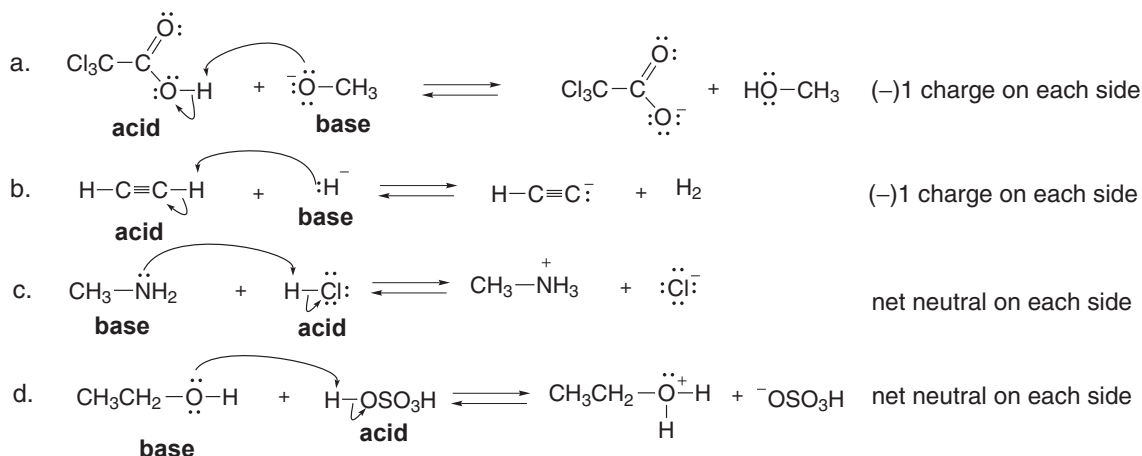


2.6 La base di Brønsted–Lowry accetta un protone per formare l'acido coniugato. L'acido di Brønsted–Lowry perde un protone per formare la base coniugata. Usare le frecce curve per mostrare il movimento di elettroni (*NON di protoni*). Se necessario ridisegnare il materiale di partenza per chiarire il movimento degli elettroni.

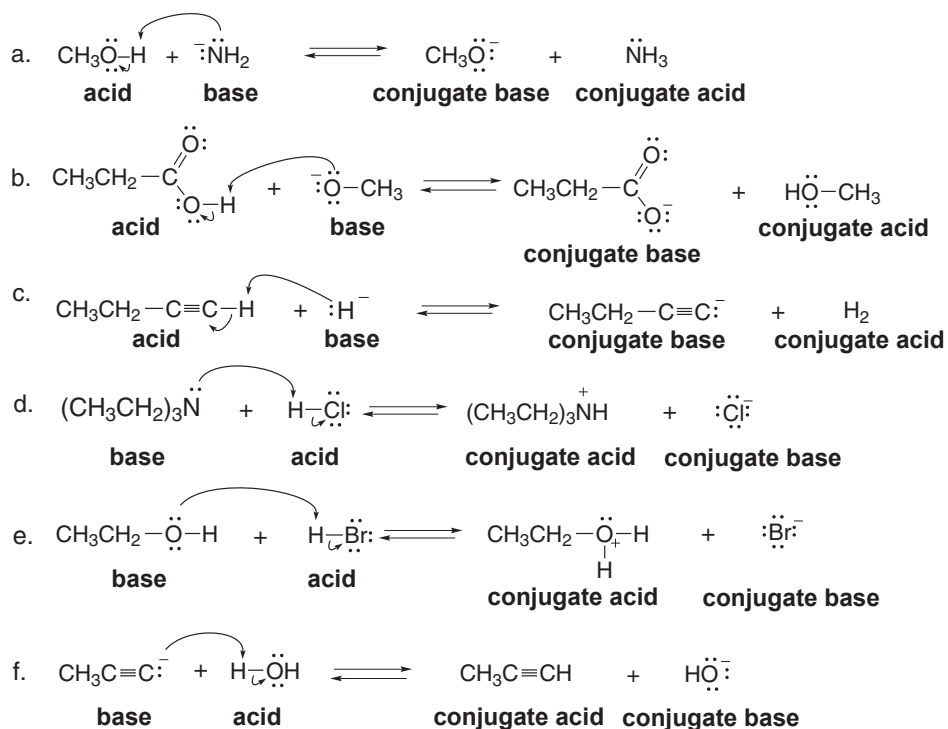


2.7 Per disegnare i prodotti:

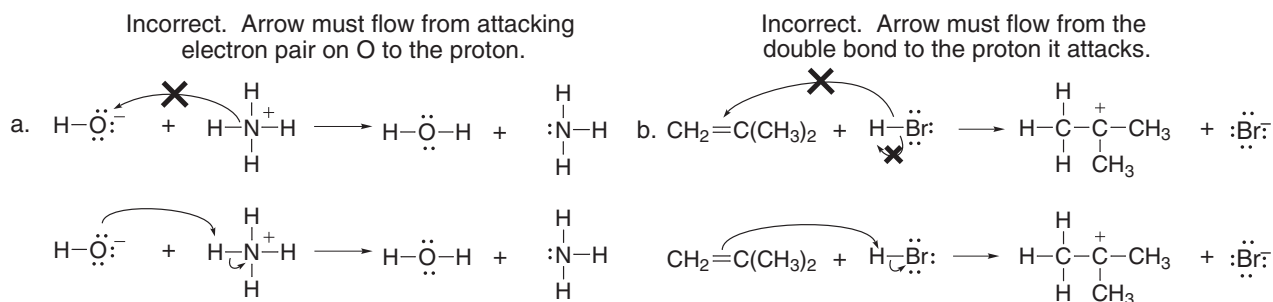
- [1] Individuare l'acido e la base.
- [2] Trasferire un protone dall'acido alla base.
- [3] Controllare che le cariche su ogni lato delle frecce siano bilanciate.



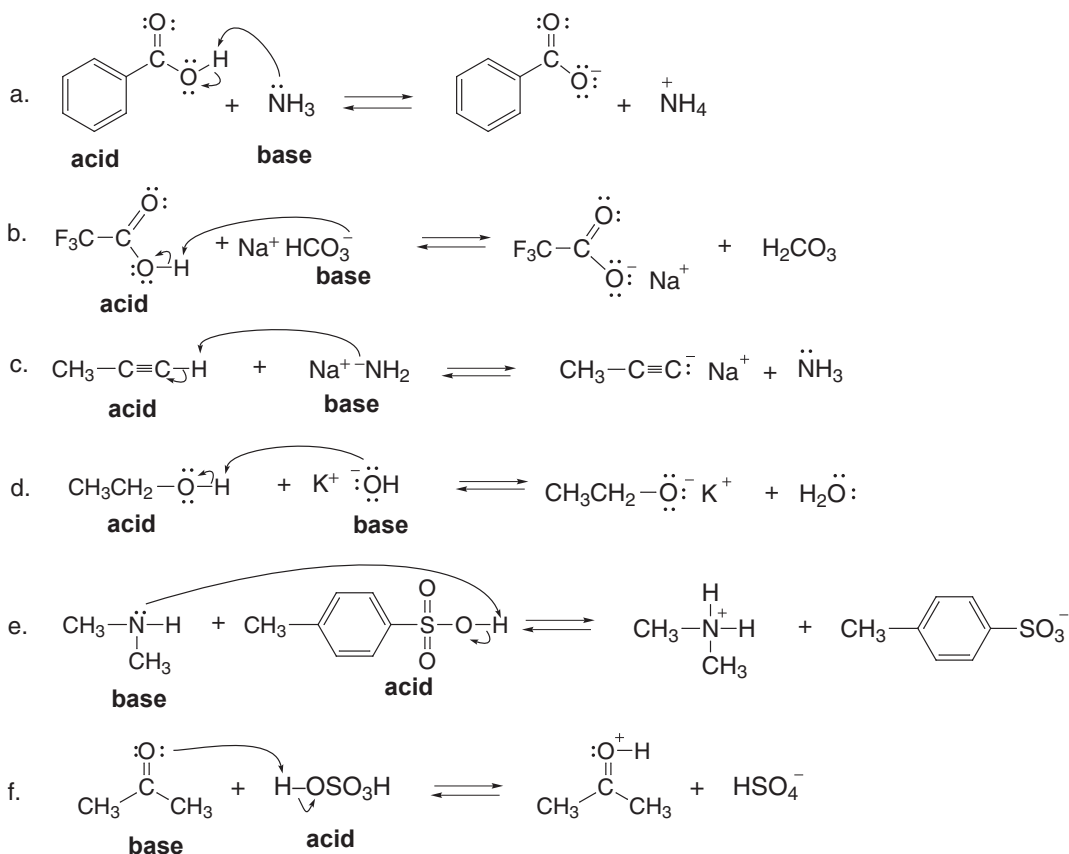
2.8 Individuare l'acido di Brønsted–Lowry e la base di Brønsted–Lowry nei composti di partenza e **trasferire un protone dall'acido alla base** per i prodotti.



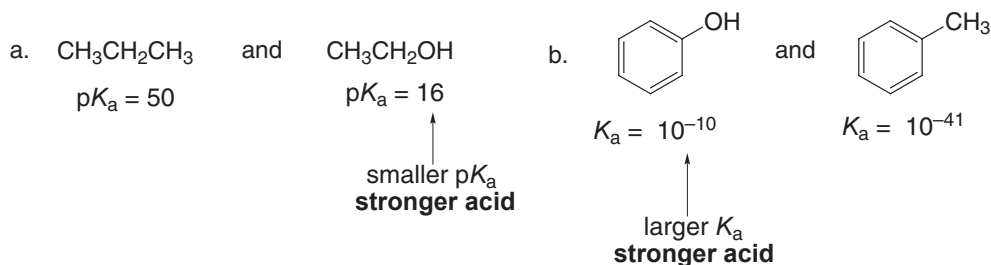
2.9 Le frecce curve mostrano il movimento degli elettroni, dalla coppia di elettroni.



2.10 Individuare l'acido e la base nei composti di partenza e quindi disegnare i prodotti di trasferimento del protone dall'acido alla base.

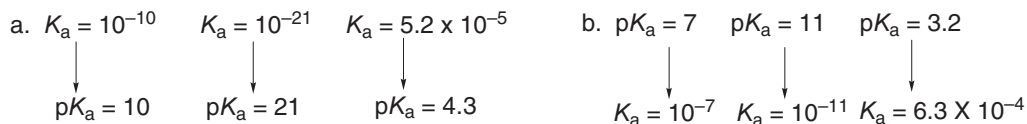


2.11 Più piccolo è il valore di pK_a , più forte è l'acido. Più grande è il K_a , più forte è l'acido.

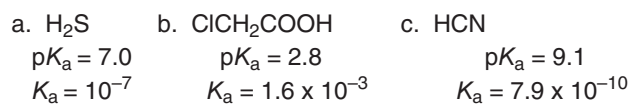


2.12 Per convertire K_a a pK_a , considerare il (-) log della K_a . **$pK_a = -\log K_a$**

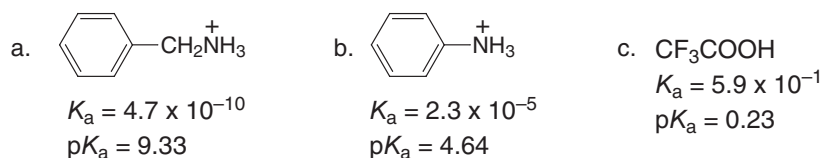
Per convertire pK_a a K_a , considerare l'antilog di (-) pK_a .



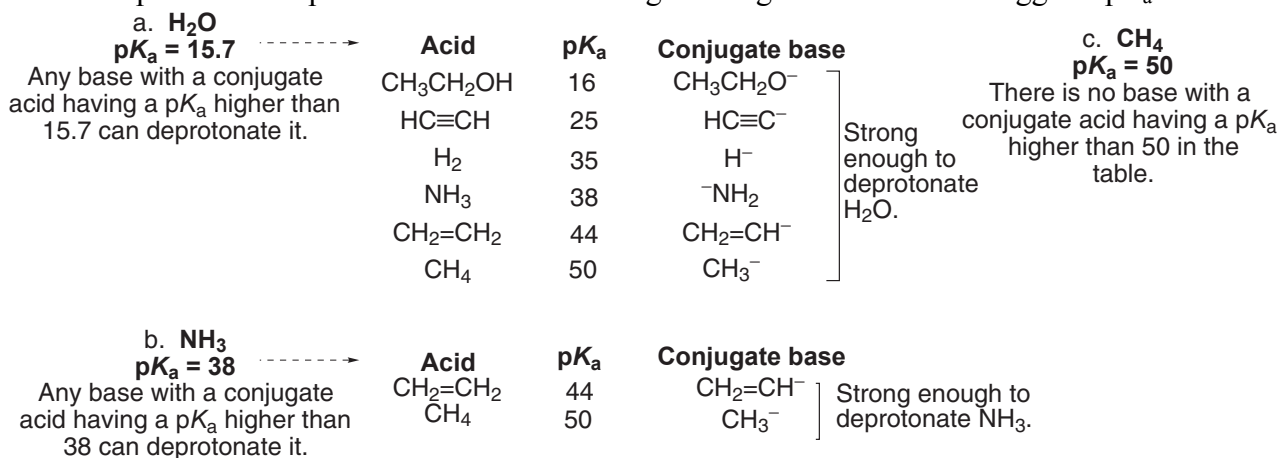
2.13 Per convertire pK_a in K_a , considerare l'antilog di (-) il pK_a .



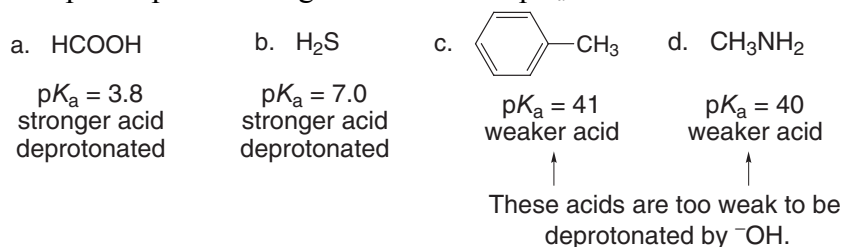
2.14 Per convertire da K_a in pK_a , considerare il (-) log di K_a . **$pK_a = -\log K_a$**



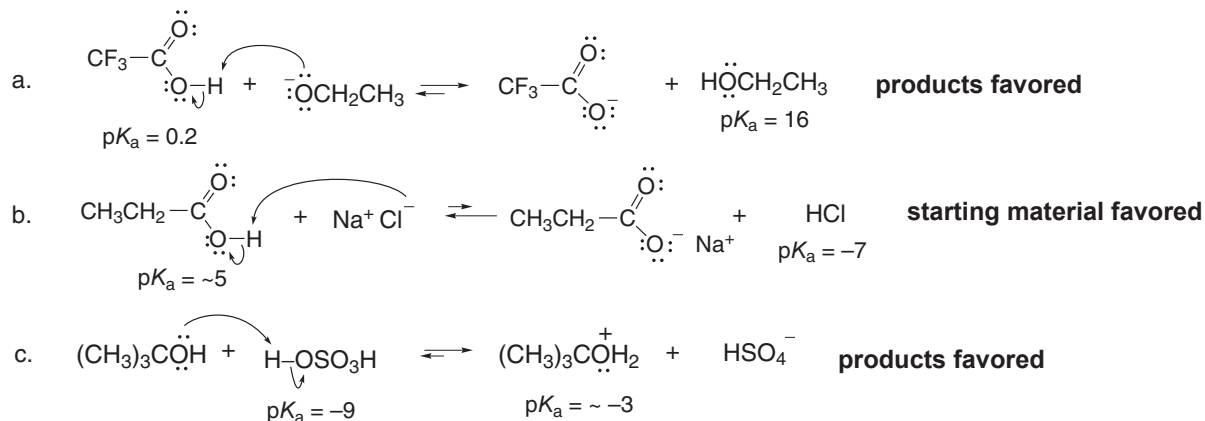
2.15 Un acido può essere deprotonato dalla base coniugata di ogni acido con un maggiore pK_a .

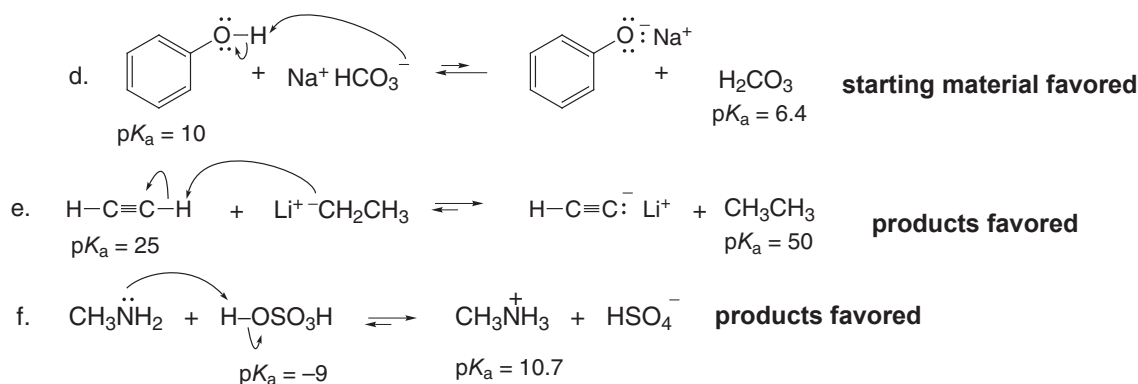


2.16 ^-OH può deprotonare ogni acido con un $pK_a < 15.7$.

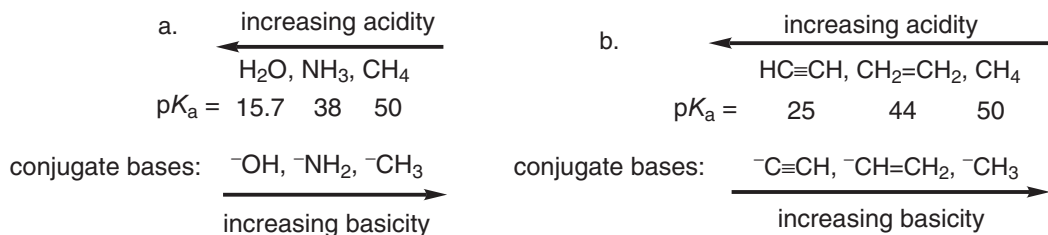


2.17 Disegnare i prodotti e quindi confrontare il pK_a dell'acido a sinistra, e l'acido coniugato a destra.
L'equilibrio è spostato verso la parte che ha l'acido con il maggiore pK_a (acido più debole).

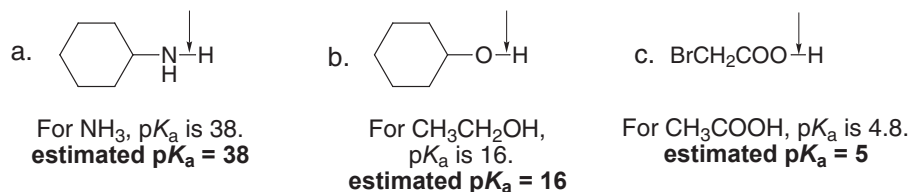




2.18 Poiché **acidi forti formano basi coniugate deboli**, la basicità delle basi coniugate aumenta all'aumentare del pK_a dei loro acidi. Trovare il pK_a di ogni acido in Tabella 2.1 e quindi ordinare gli acidi in ordine di pK_a crescente. Questo sarà anche l'ordine di basicità crescente delle loro basi coniugate.

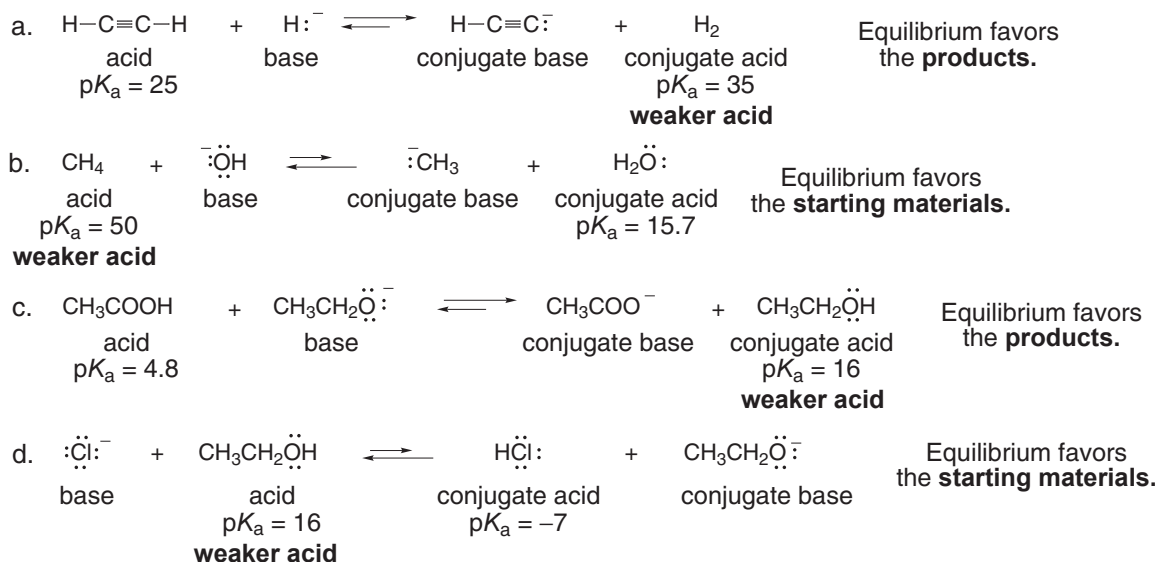


2.19 Per valutare il pK_a dei legami indicati, individuare un legame simile nella Tabella dei valori di pK_a (H legati allo stesso atomo con la stessa ibridazione).

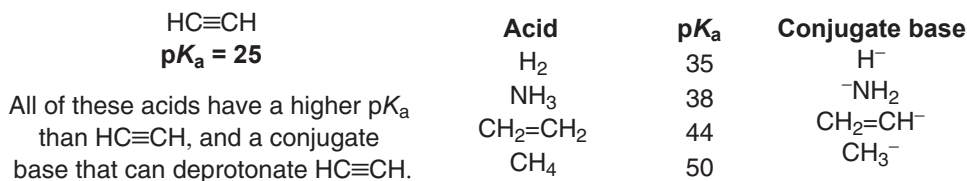
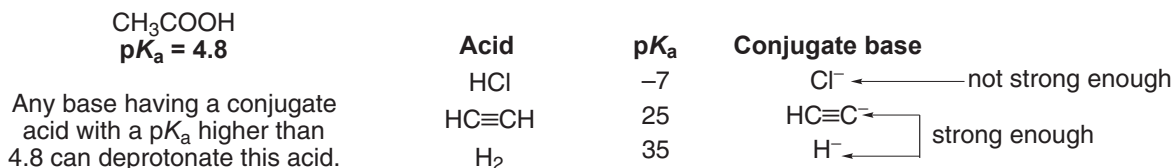


2.20 Individuare l'acido e la base e quindi trasferire un protone dall'acido alla base. Per determinare se la reazione procede come scritto, confrontare il pK_a dell'acido a sinistra con l'acido coniugato a destra.

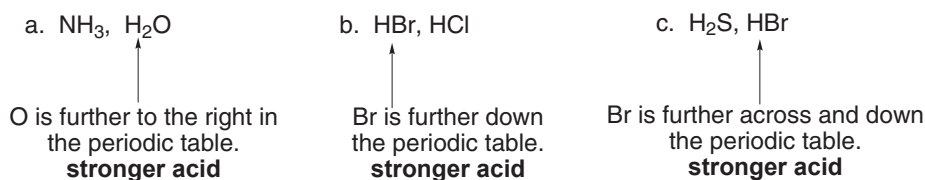
L'equilibrio favorisce sempre la formazione dell'acido più debole e della base più debole.



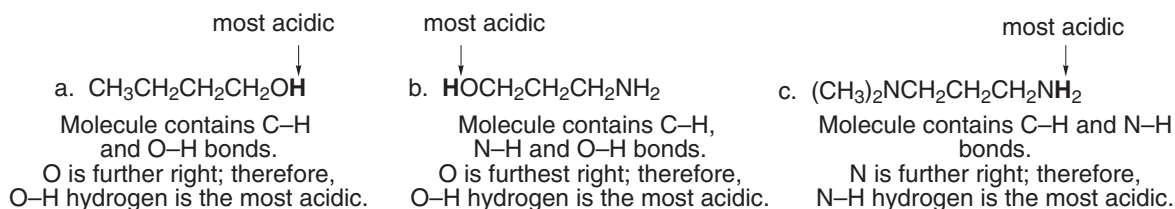
2.21 Un acido può essere deprotonato dalla base coniugata di ogni acido con un pK_a maggiore.



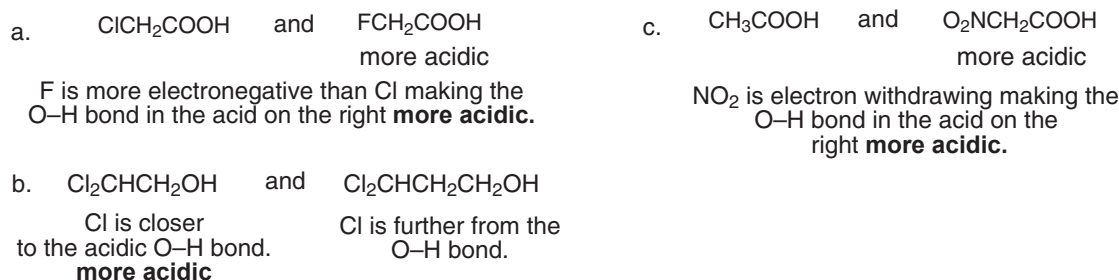
2.22 L'acidità di H-Z aumenta attraverso una riga e scendendo lungo una colonna nella tavola periodica.



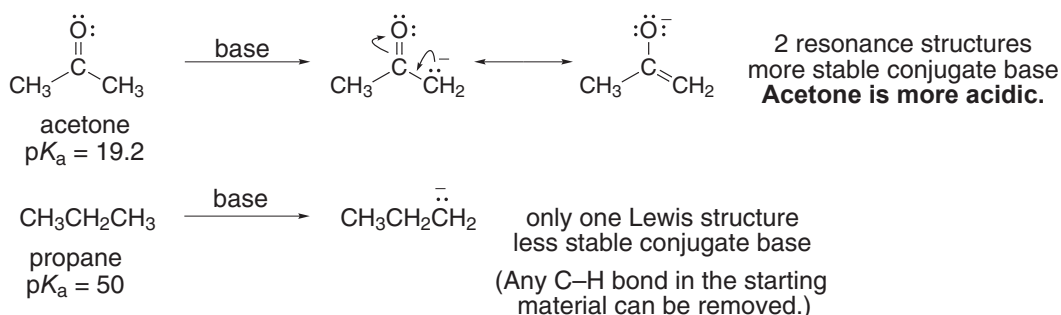
2.23 Considerare l'elemento legato all'H acido e stabilire la sua acidità in base agli andamenti nella tavola periodica. Sono più acidi quelli su elementi più a destra e più in basso nella tavola periodica.



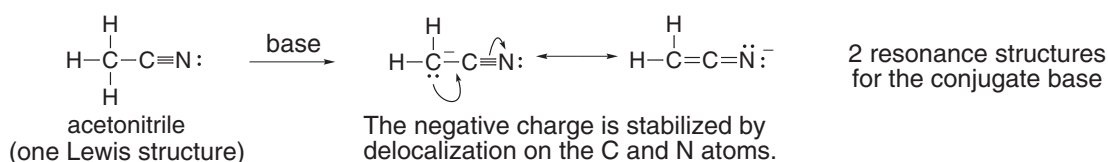
2.24 Gruppi più elettronegativi stabilizzano la base coniugata, rendendo l'acido più forte. Confrontare i gruppi elettron attrattori negli acidi seguenti per decidere quale è l'acido più forte. (**gruppi più elettronegativi = più acido**).



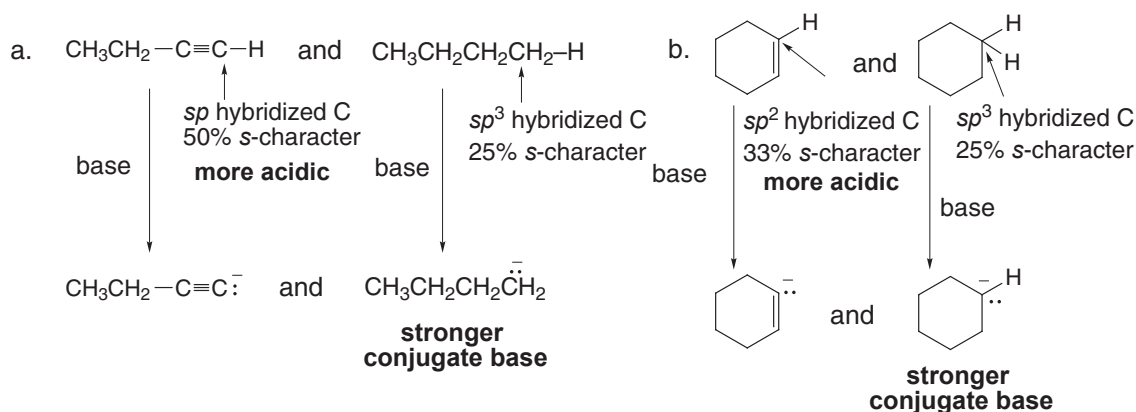
2.25 L'acidità di un acido aumenta quando la base coniugata è stabilizzata per risonanza. Confrontare le basi coniugate dell'acetone e del propano per spiegare perché l'acetone è più acido.



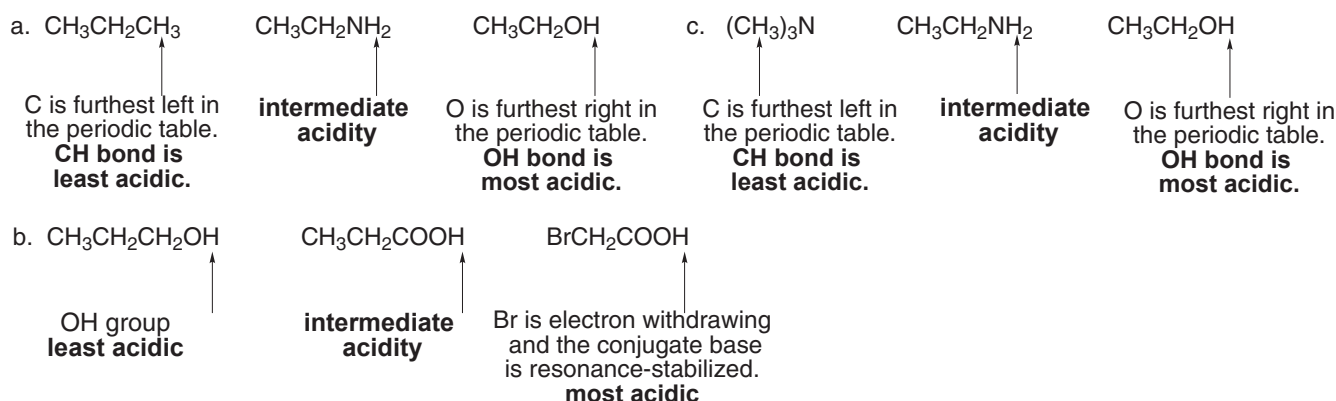
2.26 L'acidità di un acido aumenta quando la base coniugata è stabilizzata per risonanza. L'acetonitrile ha una base coniugata stabilizzata per risonanza, che spiega la sua acidità.



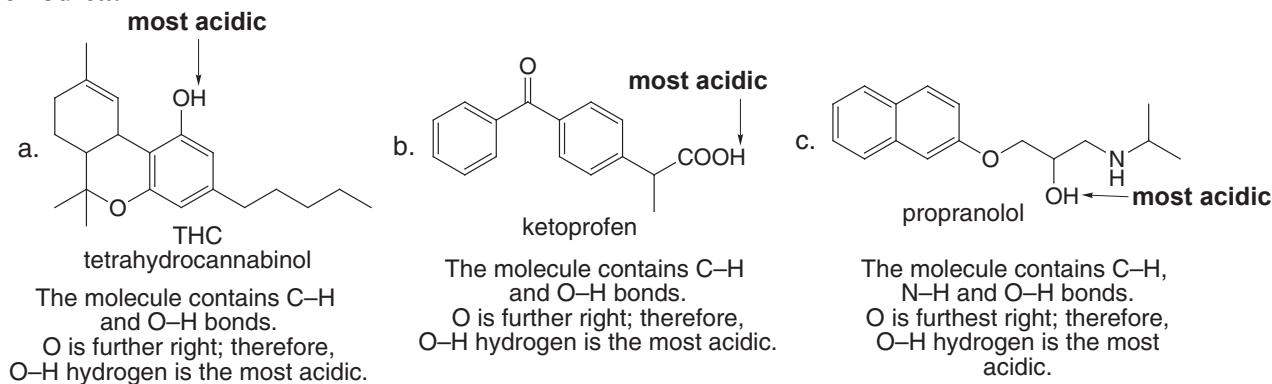
2.27 L'aumento della percentuale di carattere s rende un acido più acido. Paragonare la percentuale di carattere s degli atomi di carbonio in ciascuno dei legami C–H in questione. Un acido più forte ha una base coniugata più debole.



2.28 Per confrontare gli acidi, prima **considerare gli effetti dell'elemento**. Quindi identificare i gruppi elettron attrattori, la risonanza o le differenze di ibridazione.



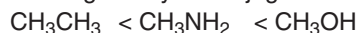
2.29 Guardare l'elemento legato all'H acido e stabilire la sua acidità in base agli andamenti nella tavola periodica. **Sono più acidi quelli su elementi più a destra e più in basso nella tavola periodica.**



2.30 Individuare l'acido e la base nei reagenti e quindi disegnare i prodotti di trasferimento di protoni dall'acido alla base.

a. Draw the conjugate acid.

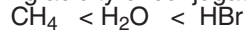
Increasing acidity of conjugate acids:



increasing basicity: $\text{CH}_3\text{O}^- < \text{CH}_3\text{NH}^- < \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2^-$

b. Draw the conjugate acid.

Increasing acidity of conjugate acids:



increasing basicity: $\text{Br}^- < \text{HO}^- < \text{CH}_3^-$

c. Draw the conjugate acid.

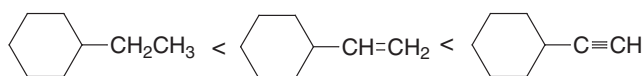
Increasing acidity of conjugate acids:



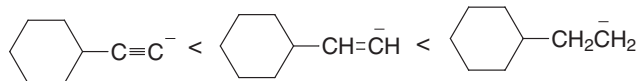
increasing basicity: $\text{ClCH}_2\text{COO}^- < \text{CH}_3\text{COO}^- < \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{O}^-$

d. Draw the conjugate acid.

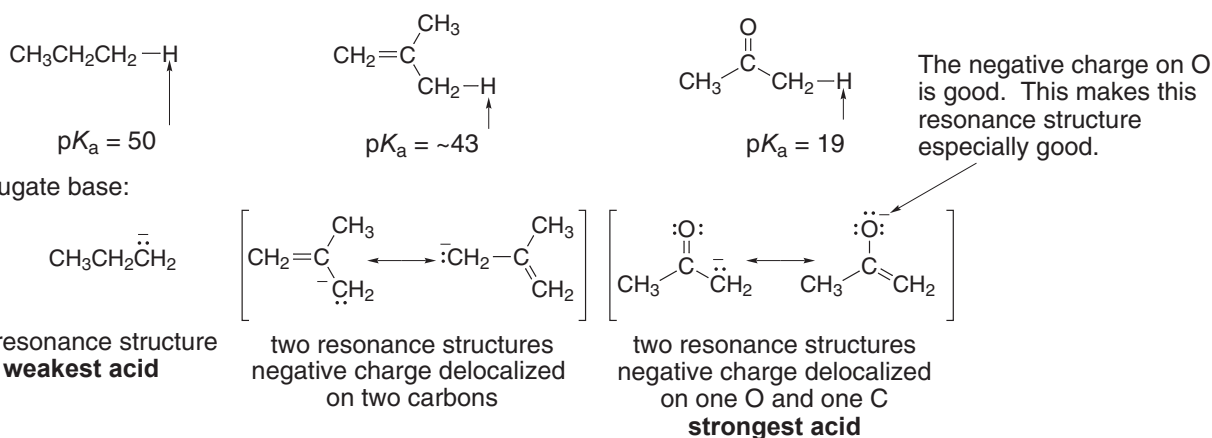
Increasing acidity of conjugate acids:



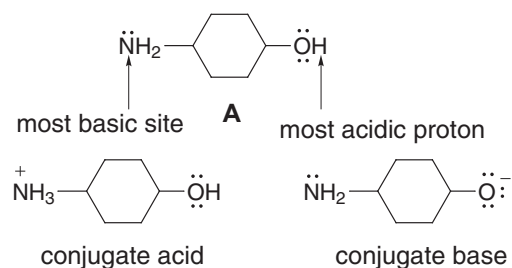
increasing basicity:



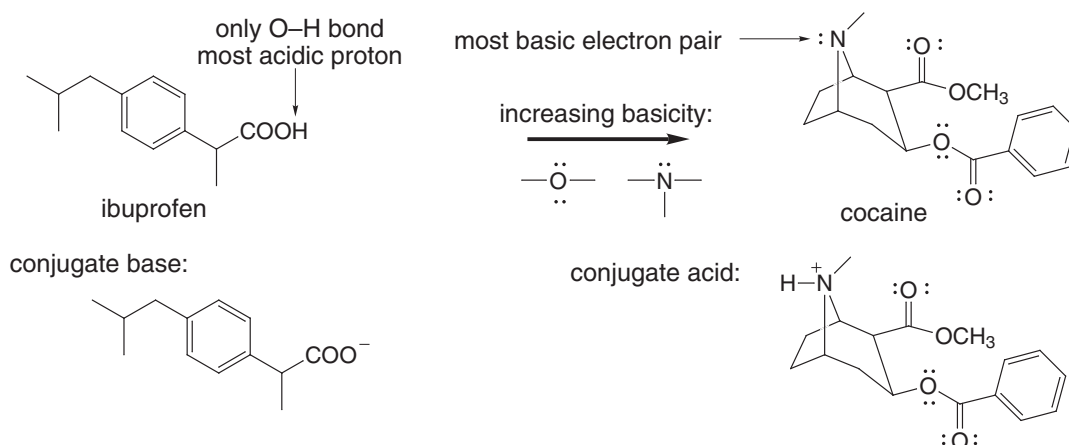
2.33



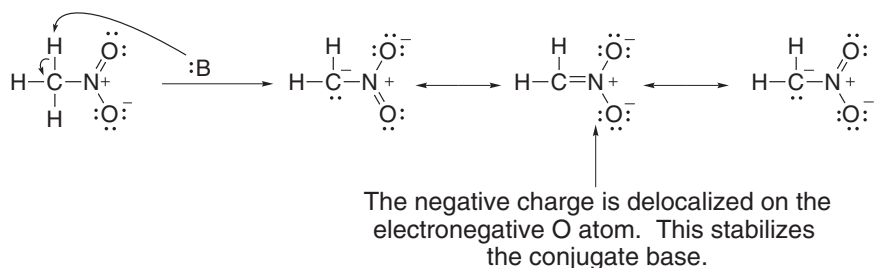
2.34 Per disegnare l'acido coniugato, individuare il punto più basico e protonarlo. Per disegnare la base coniugata, individuare il punto più acido e rimuovere un protone.



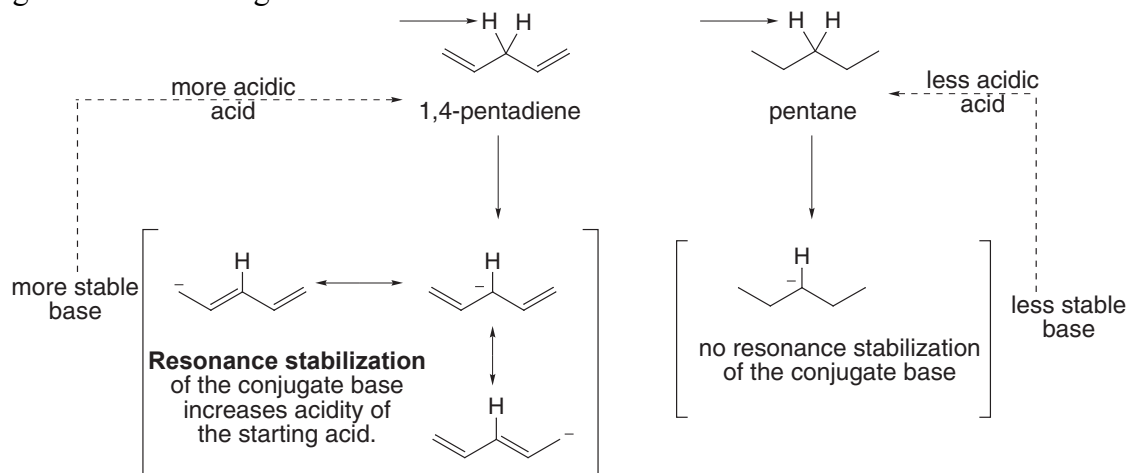
2.35 Rimuovere il protone più acido per formare la base coniugata. Protonare la coppia elettronica più basica per formare l'acido coniugato.



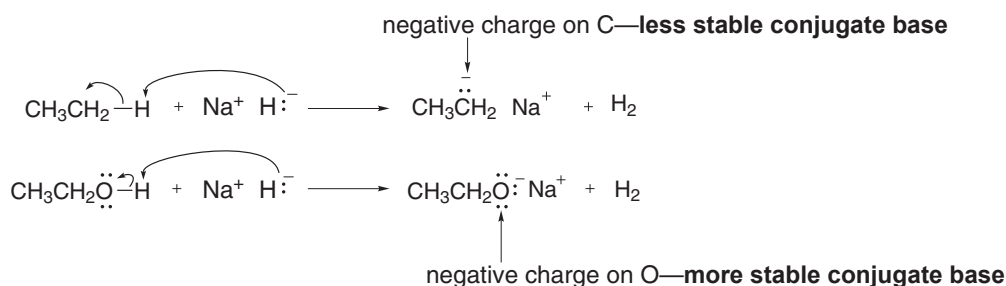
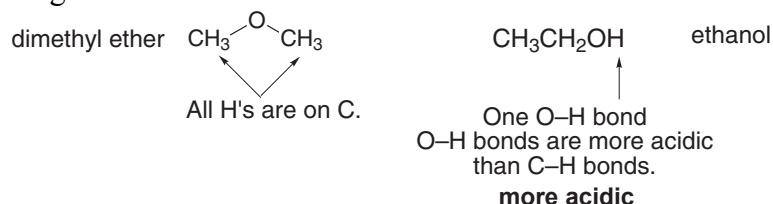
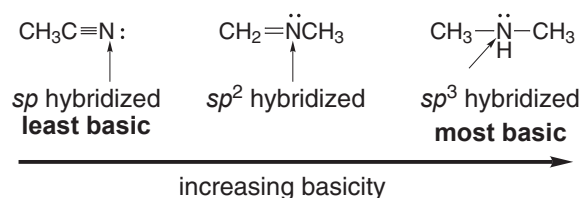
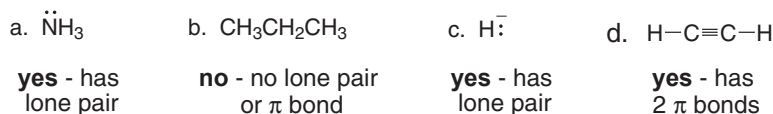
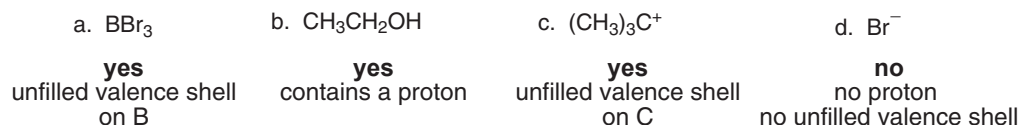
2.36 Un basso valore di pK_a significa acido più forte. Il pK_a è basso per il legame C–H in CH_3NO_2 a causa della stabilizzazione per risonanza della base coniugata.

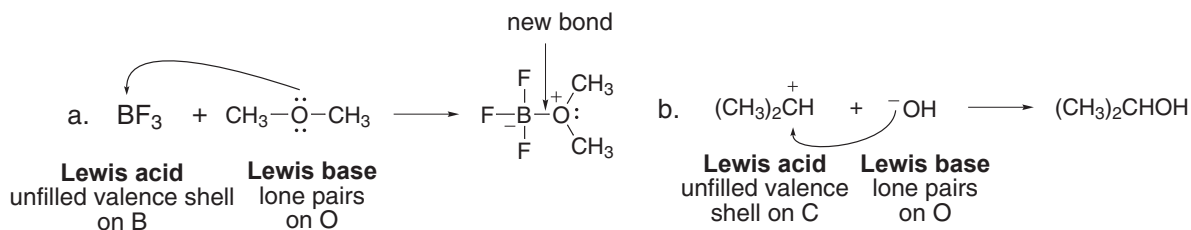


2.37 Disegnare le basi coniugate e confrontarle.



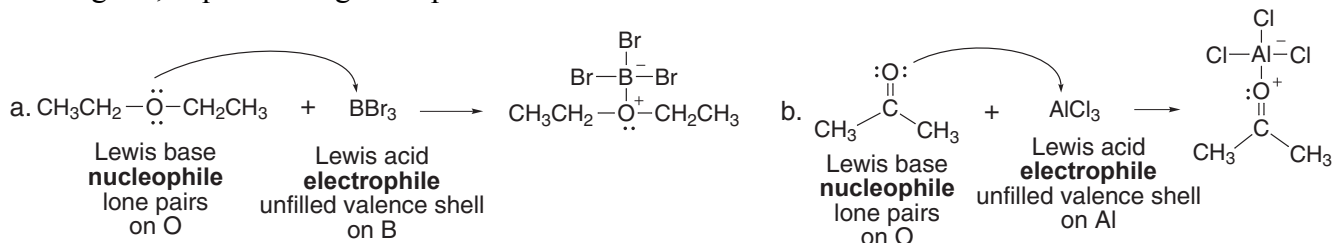
2.38 Confrontare $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$ e CH_3CH_3 . La reazione di NaH avverrà più facilmente con un acido più forte. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$ ha un legame O–H più acido, mentre CH_3CH_3 ha solo legami C–H. Quindi, questa reazione avverrà più velocemente rispetto alla reazione con CH_3CH_3 .

**2.39** Confrontare gli isomeri.**2.40** Ricordare che per un atomo A passando da ibridazione sp a sp^2 e sp^3 , H—A diventa meno acido e A^- diventa più basico.**2.41** Le basi di Lewis sono donatori di una coppia di elettroni: esse contengono una coppia solitaria o un legame π .**2.42** Gli acidi di Lewis sono accettori di una coppia di elettroni. La maggior parte di acidi di Lewis contiene un protone o un livello di valenza non completo di elettroni.**2.43** Individuare l'acido di Lewis e la base di Lewis, e disegnare le frecce curve.



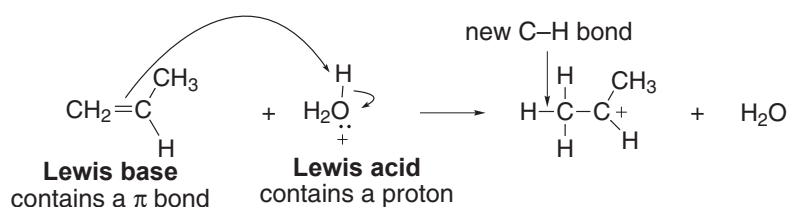
2.44

Un acido di Lewis è chiamato anche un **elettrofilo**. Quando una base di Lewis reagisce con un elettrofilo diverso da un protone, è chiamata anche un **nucleofilo**. Individuare l'elettrofilo e il nucleofilo nei reagenti, e quindi disegnare i prodotti.

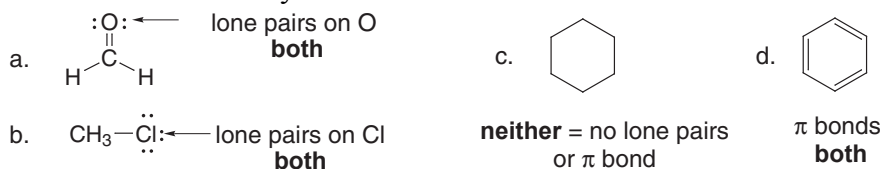


2.45

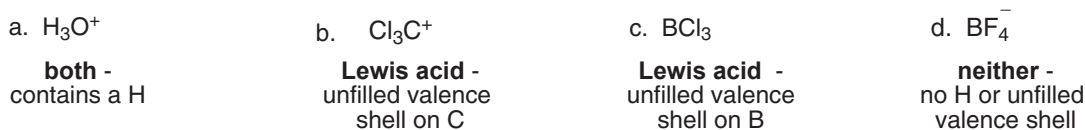
Le frecce curve iniziano dalla base di Lewis e sono dirette verso l'acido di Lewis.



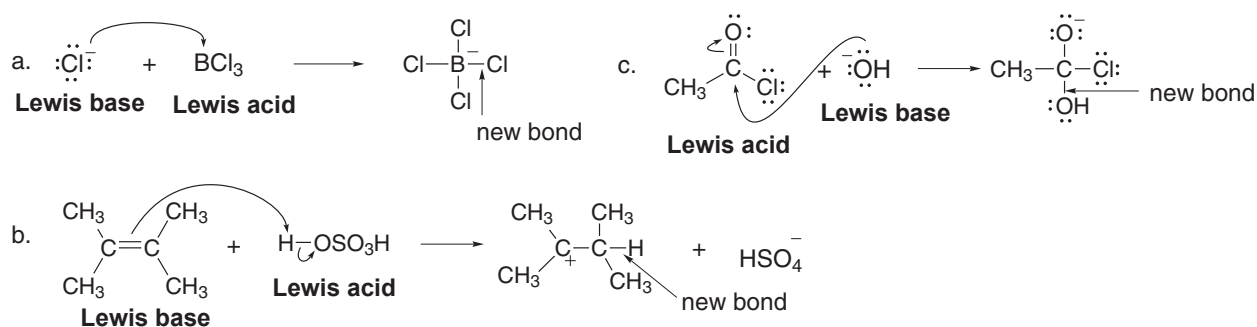
2.46 Le basi di Lewis sono donatori di una coppia di elettroni: contengono una coppia solitaria o un legame π . **Le basi di Brønsted–Lowry sono accettori di protoni:** per accettare un protone hanno bisogno di una coppia solitaria o di un legame π . Questo significa che tutte le basi di Lewis sono basi di Brønsted–Lowry.



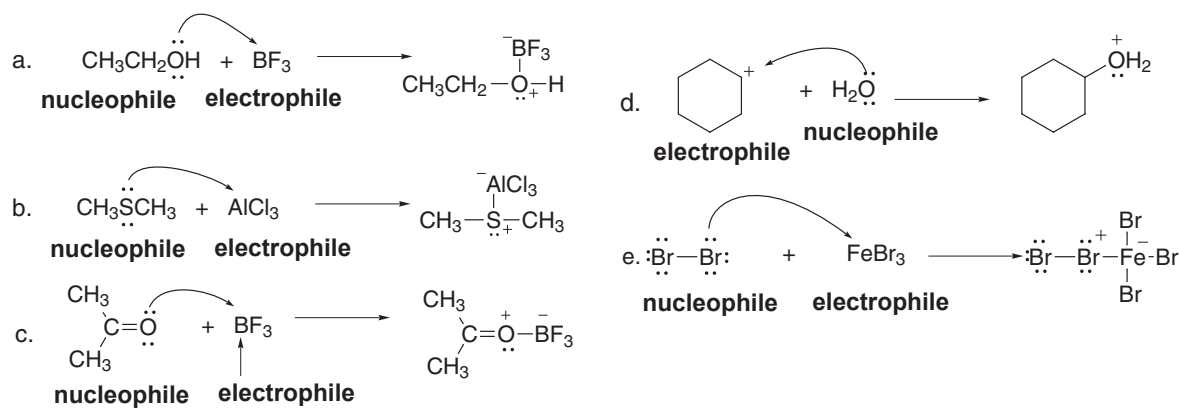
2.47 Un acido di Lewis è un accettore di una coppia di elettroni e generalmente contiene un protone o un livello di valenza non completo di elettroni. **Un acido di Brønsted–Lowry è un donatore di protoni** e deve contenere un atomo di idrogeno. Tutti gli acidi di Brønsted–Lowry sono acidi di Lewis, ma il contrario non è sempre vero.



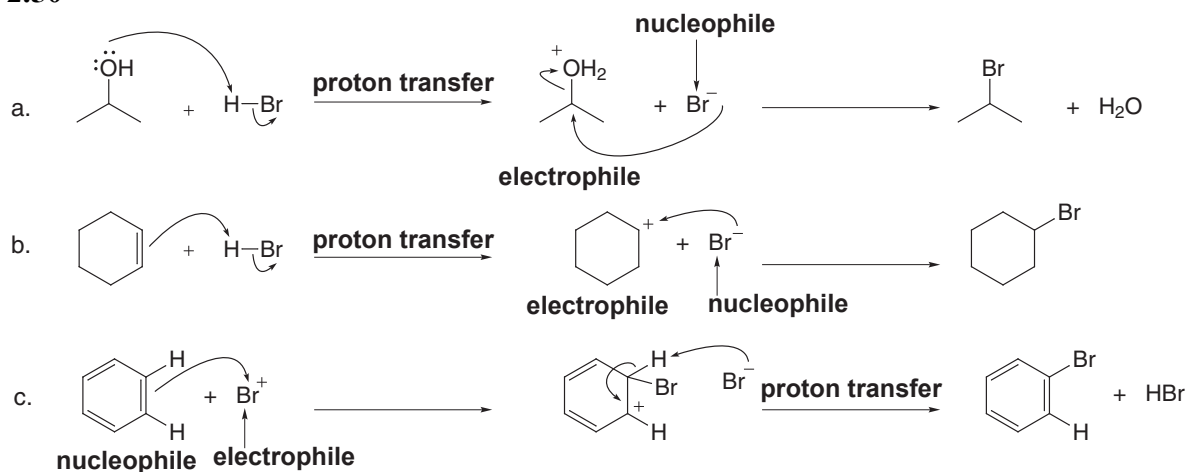
2.48 Individuare l'acido di Lewis e la base di Lewis, e quindi disegnare i prodotti.



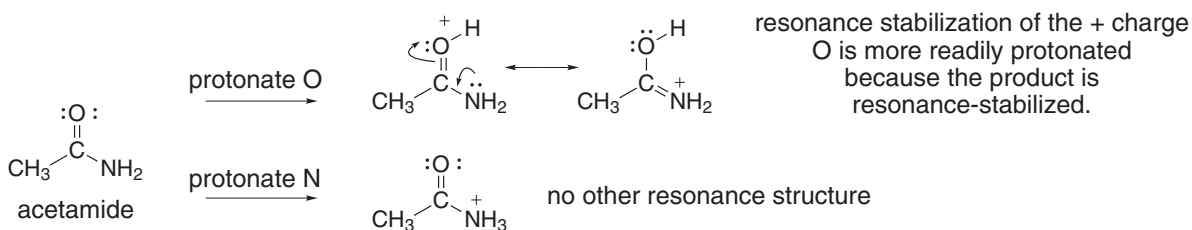
2.49 Un acido di Lewis è chiamato anche un **elettrofilo**. Quando una base di Lewis reagisce con un elettrofilo diverso da un protone, è chiamata anche un **nucleofilo**. Individuare l'elettrofilo e il nucleofilo nei composti di partenza, e quindi disegnare i prodotti.



2.50

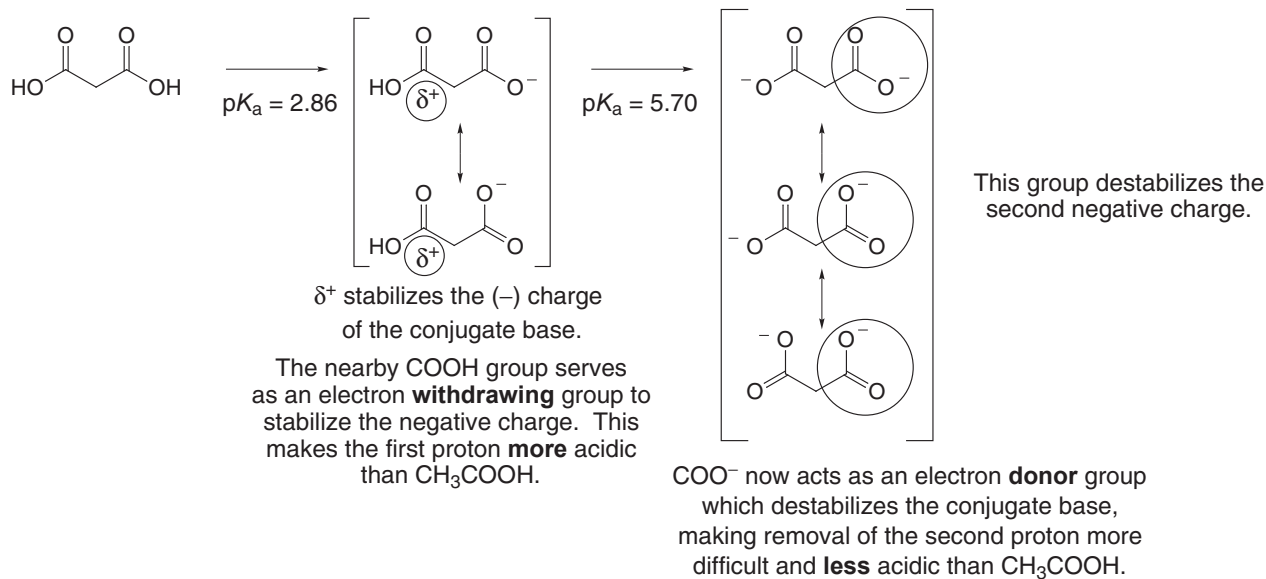


2.51 Disegnare i prodotti di protonazione sia di O che di N e confrontare gli acidi coniugati.



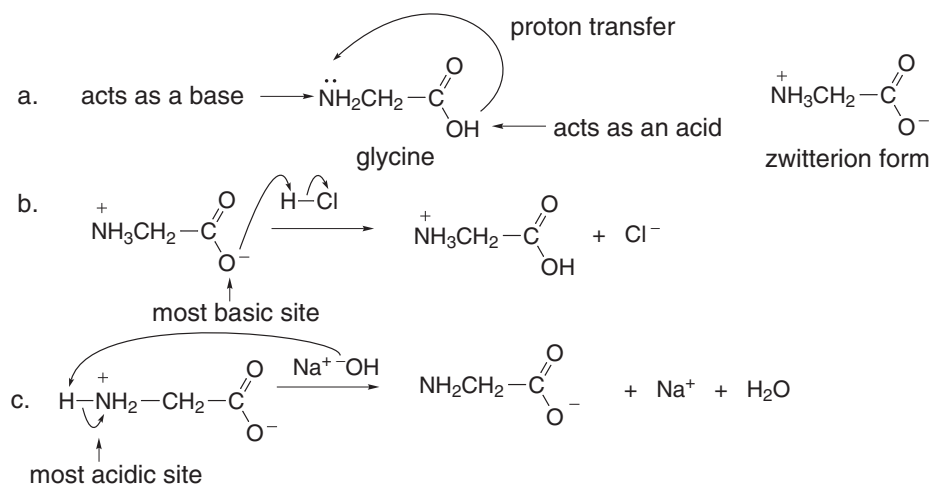
When acetamide reacts with an acid, the O atom is protonated because it results in a resonance-stabilized conjugate acid.

2.52

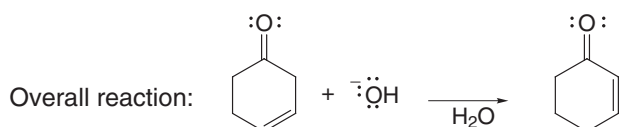


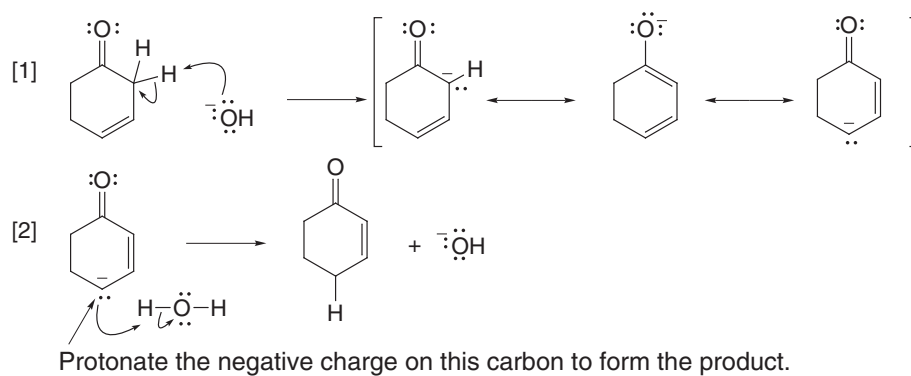
2.53

The COOH group of glycine gives up a proton to the basic NH_2 group to form the zwitterion.

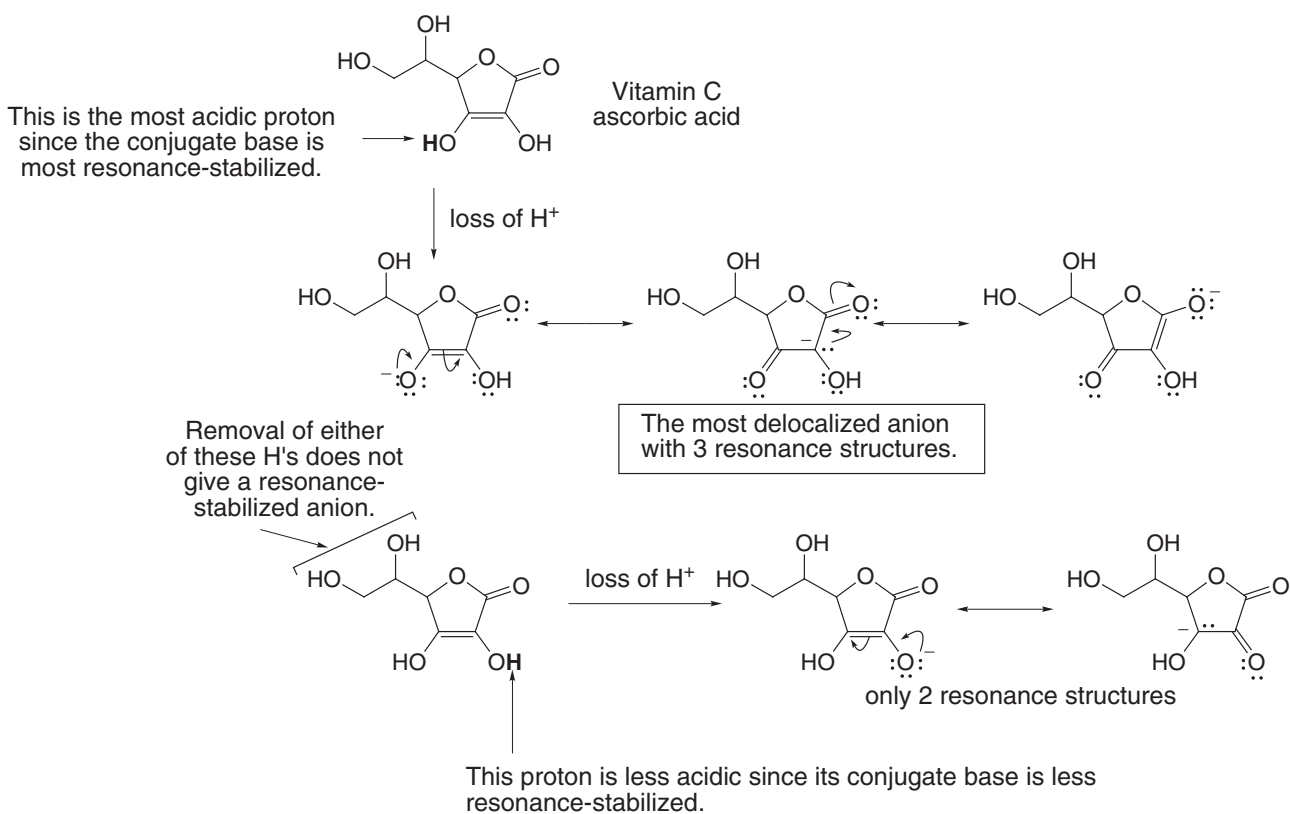


2.54 Usare le frecce curve per mostrare come avviene la reazione.



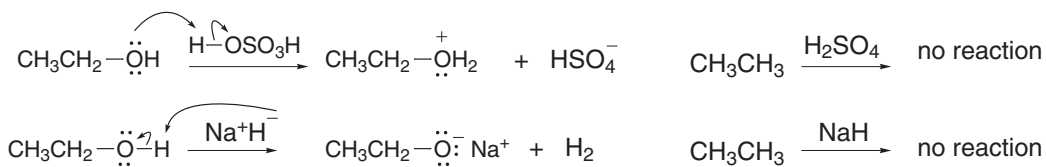


2.55 Confrontare i legami OH nella Vitamina C e decidere quale è il più acido.

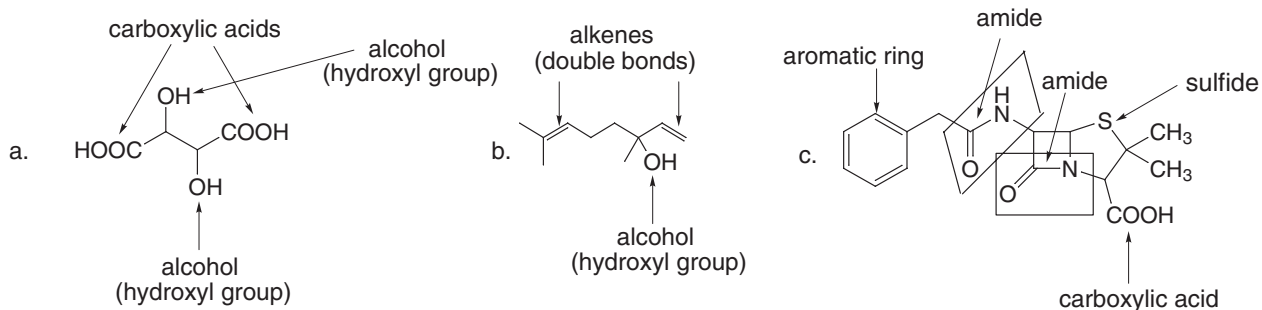


Capitolo 3

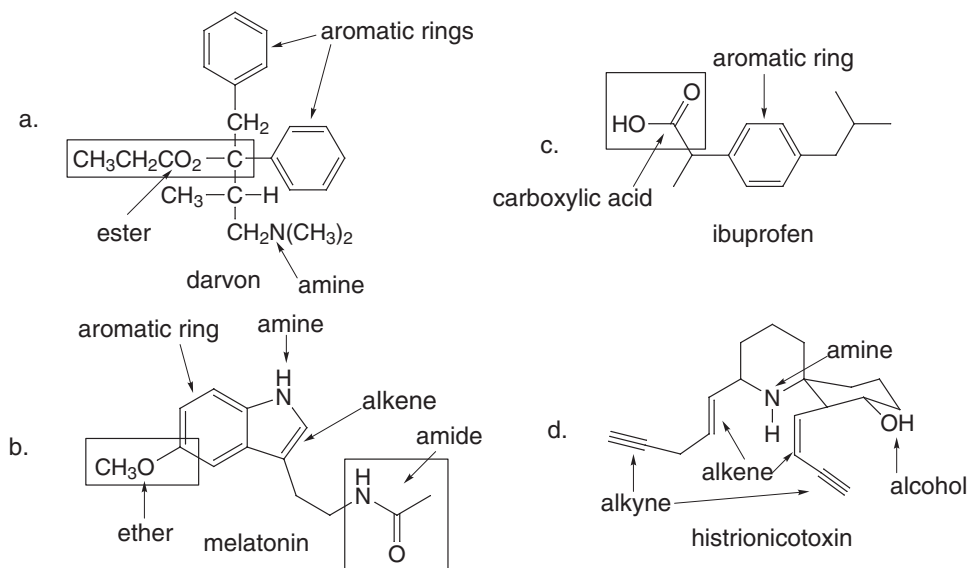
3.1



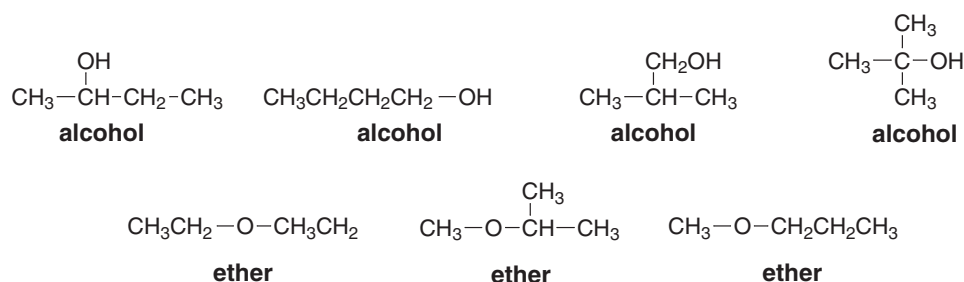
3.2 Identificare i gruppi funzionali basandosi sulle tabelle 3.1, 3.2 e 3.3.



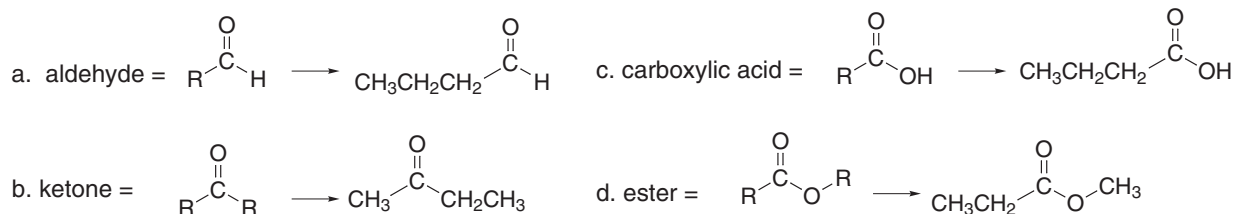
3.3 Identificare i gruppi funzionali facendo uso delle tabelle 3.1, 3.2 e 3.3.



3.4

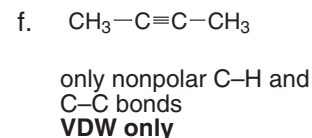
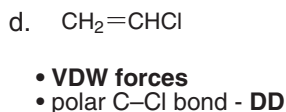
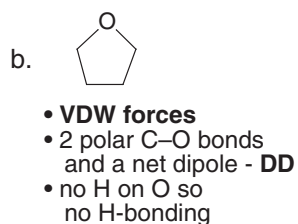
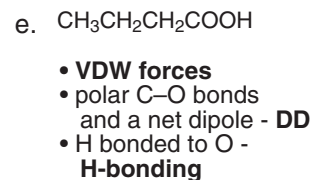
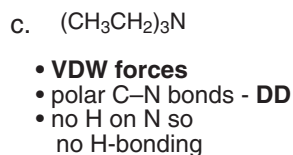
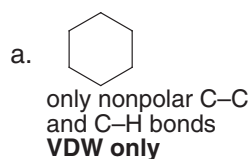


3.5 Una possibile struttura per ogni gruppo funzionale:

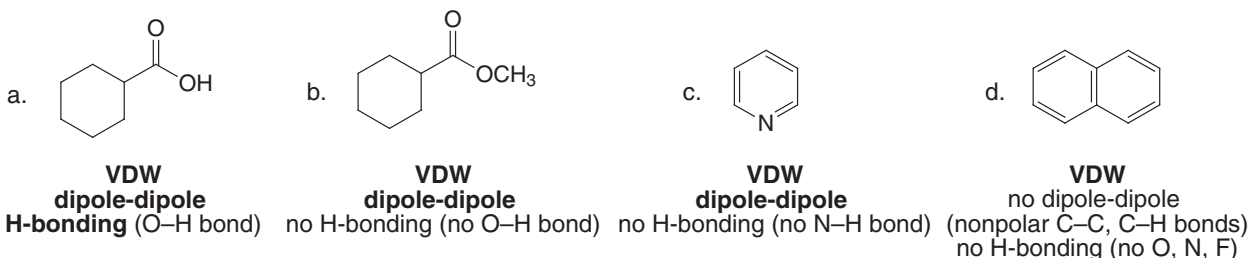


3.6 Riassunto delle forze:

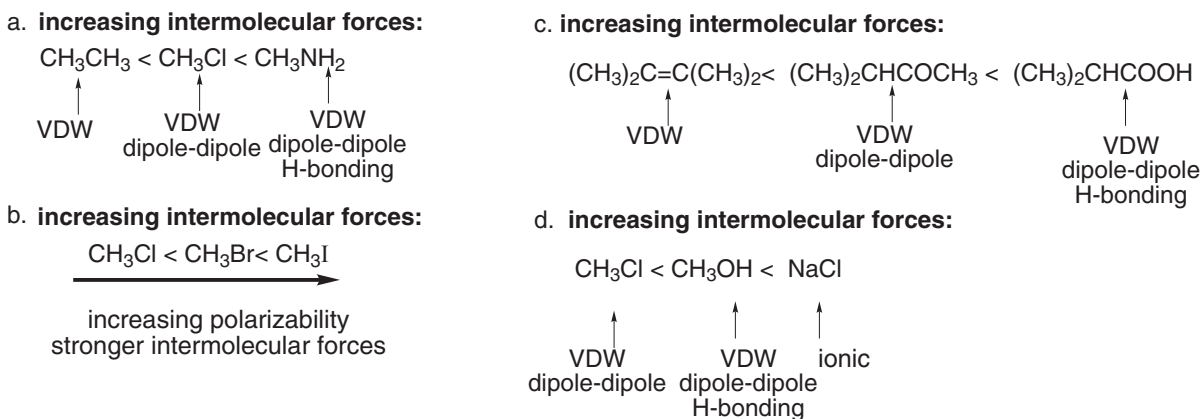
- **Tutti i composti mostrano forze di van der Waals (VDW).**
- **Le molecole polari presentano interazioni dipolo-dipolo (DD).**
- **I legami idrogeno (legami H) si possono formare solo quando un H è legato ad un O, N, o F.**



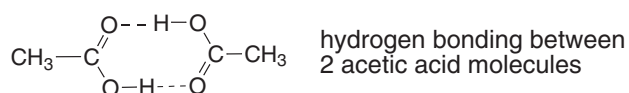
3.7 Usare le regole della risposta 3.3.



3.8 Aumento delle forze intermolecolari: van der Waals < dipolo-dipolo < legame H



3.9



3.10 **A** = forze di VDW; **B** = legami H; **C** = interazioni ione-ione; **D** = legami H ; **E** = legami H ; **F** = forze di VDW.

3.11 Un principio governa i punti di ebollizione:

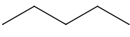
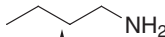
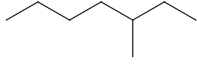
- **Forze intermolecolari più forti = maggior p.e.**
Aumento delle forze intermolecolari: van der Waals < dipolo-dipolo < legame idrogeno

Due fattori influenzano la forza delle forze di van der Waals , influenzando così i p.e.:

- **Aumento dell'area della superficie = aumento del p.e.**
Molecole più lunghe hanno maggior area superficiale. Ogni ramificazione diminuisce l'area superficiale di una molecola.
- **Aumento della polarizzabilità = aumento del p.e.**

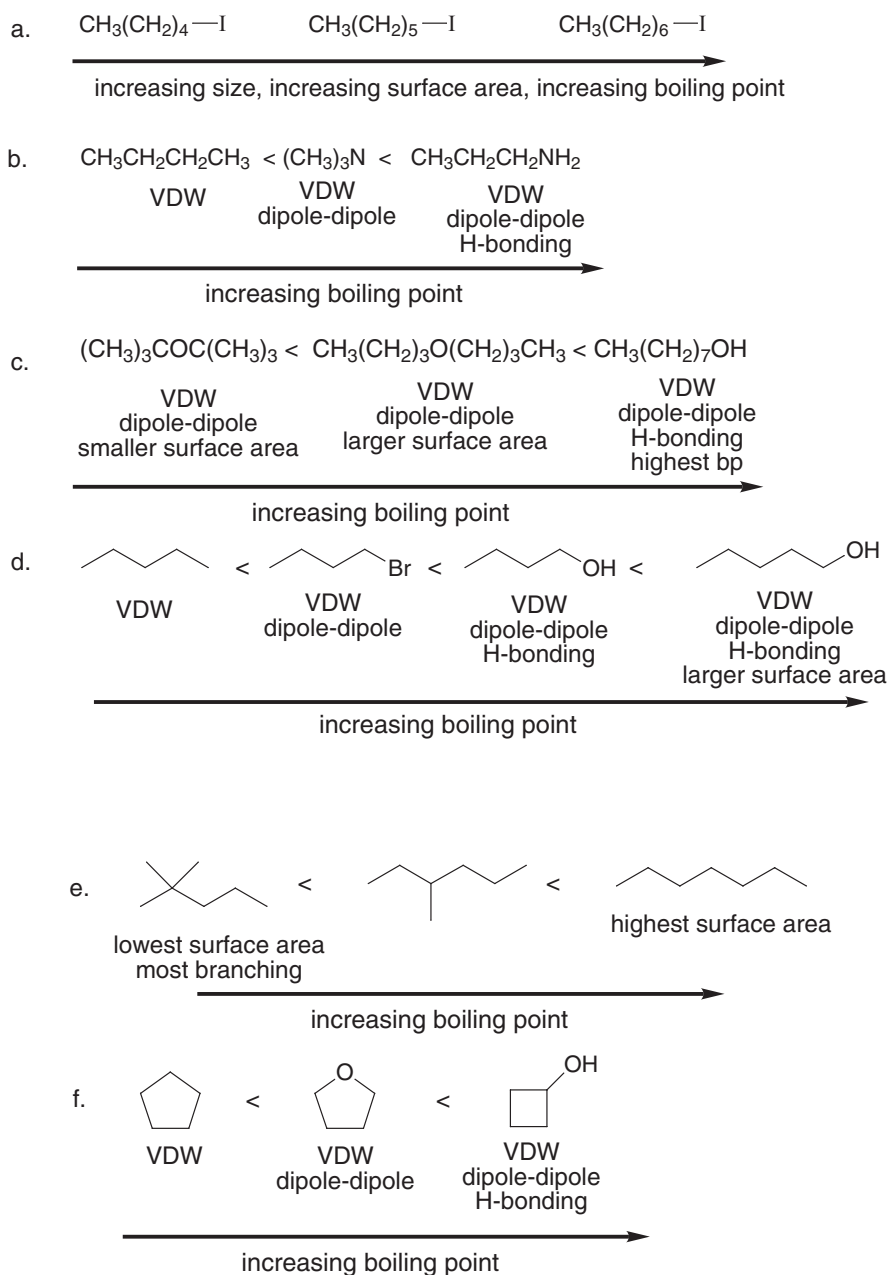
- a. $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{C}=\text{CH}_2$ and $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{C}=\text{O}$
 ↑ only VDW ↑ VDW and DD
 polar, stronger intermolecular forces
higher boiling point
- b. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{COOH}$ and $\text{CH}_3\text{COOCH}_3$
 ↑ VDW, DD, and H-bonding ↑ no H-bonding
 stronger intermolecular forces
higher boiling point
- c. $\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_4\text{CH}_3$ and $\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_5\text{CH}_3$
 ↑ longer molecule, more surface area
higher boiling point
- d. $\text{CH}_2=\text{CHCl}$ and $\text{CH}_2=\text{CHI}$
 ↑ I is more polarizable.
higher boiling point

3.12

- a.  and 
 ↑ more polar
 stronger intermolecular forces (H-bonding)
higher mp
- b.  and 
 ↑ more spherical
 packs better
higher mp

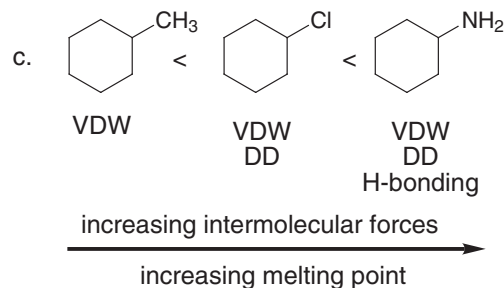
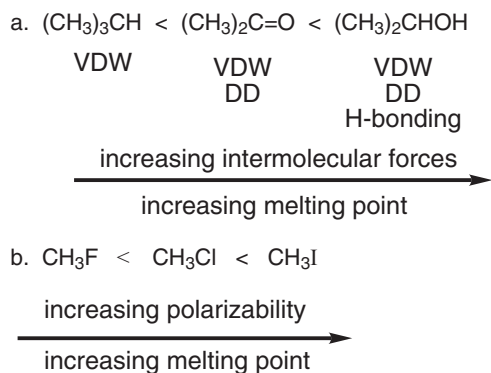
3.13 Nella fase solida che è più ordinata, le molecole sono molto più vicine l'una all'altra rispetto alla fase liquida meno ordinata. La forma di una molecola determina quanto si disponga ordinatamente in fase solida rendendo importante la simmetria. Nella fase liquida, le molecole sono più distanti tra loro, quindi la simmetria è meno importante e non influenza il punto di ebollizione.

3.14 Usare i concetti della risposta 3.4.

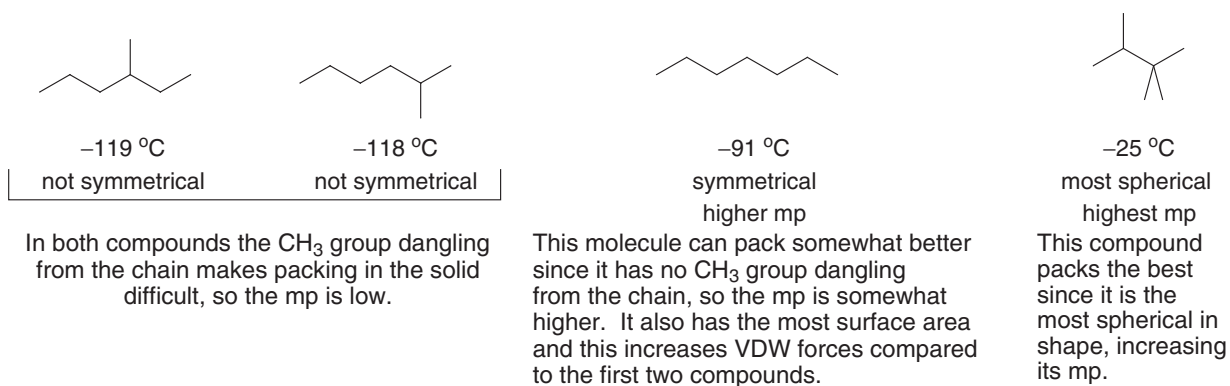


3.15 In $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{NHCH}_3$, è presente un legame N–H e conseguentemente la molecola mostra un legame idrogeno intermolecolare, mentre in $(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{N}$ l'N è legato solo al carbonio, e nessun legame idrogeno. Il legame idrogeno in $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{NHCH}_3$ fa sì che le **forze intermolecolari siano più forti** che in $(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{N}$. All'aumentare delle forze intermolecolari, il punto di ebollizione di una molecola con lo stesso peso molecolare aumenta.

3.16 Forze maggiori, maggior p.f. Maggior simmetria dei composti, maggior p.f.

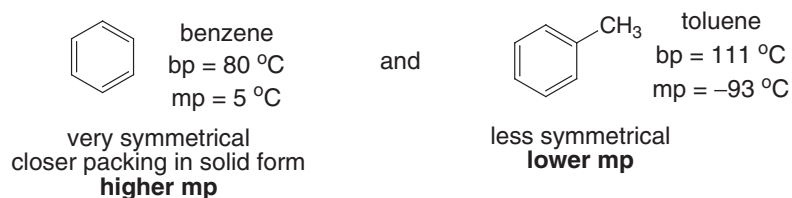


3.17



3.18 Il punto di ebollizione è determinato solamente dall'intensità delle forze intermolecolari.

Poiché il benzene ha una dimensione più piccola, presenta una minor area superficiale e interazioni VDW più deboli, e conseguentemente un punto di ebollizione minore del toluene. L'aumento del punto di fusione per il benzene può essere spiegato dalla simmetria: il benzene è molto più simmetrico del toluene. Molecole più simmetriche so possono impacchettare più strettamente, con aumento del punto di fusione. La simmetria non ha nessun effetto sul punto di ebollizione.



3.19 Un composto è solubile in acqua se è ionico oppure se possiede un atomo di O o uno di N e ≤ 5 Carboni.

These can H-bond to another molecule like itself:

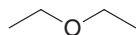
Both compounds have N–H bonds.
b. CH_3NH_2 , e. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CONH}_2$

These can H-bond with water:

All of these molecules have an O or N atom.
b. CH_3NH_2 , c. CH_3OCH_3 , d. $(\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2)_3\text{N}$,
e. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CONH}_2$, g. CH_3SOCH_3 ,
h. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{COOCH}_3$

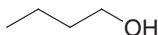
3.23 Disegnare la molecola in oggetto e individuare le forze intermolecolari coinvolte.

no H bonded to O



diethyl ether

VDW forces
dipole-dipole forces



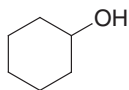
1-butanol

VDW forces
dipole-dipole forces
H-bonding

H bonded to O:
hydrogen bonding

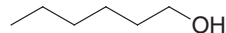
- Both have ≤ 5 C's and an electronegative O atom, so they can H-bond to water, making them soluble in water.
- Only 1-butanol can H-bond to another molecule like itself, and this increases its boiling point.

3.24



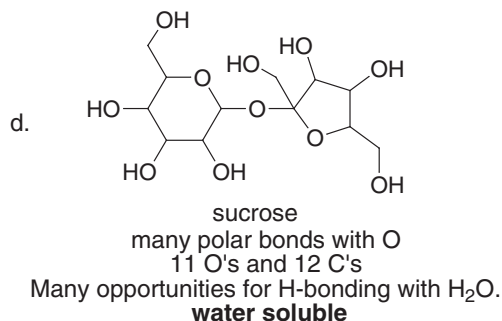
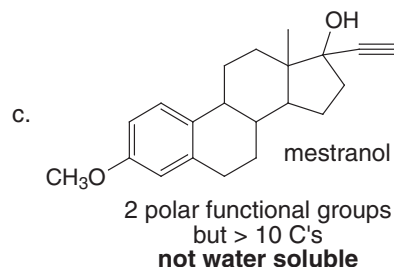
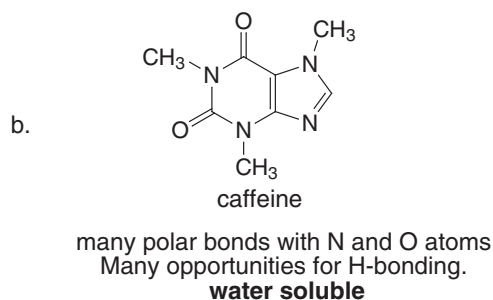
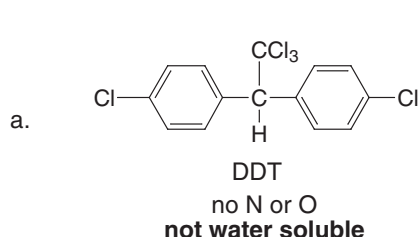
cyclohexanol

The nonpolar hydrocarbon part is more compact, so it is easier for the OH group to solubilize it in water.

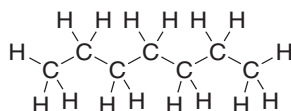


1-hexanol

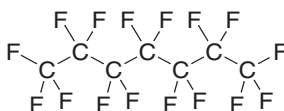
3.25 Usare la regola della solubilità della risposta 3.7.



3.26



heptane
bp = 98°C

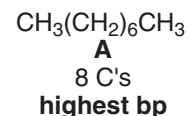
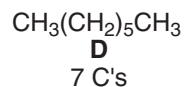
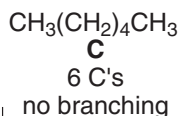
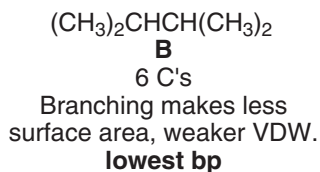


perfluoroheptane
bp = 82–84°C

molecular weight = 100 g/mol molecular weight = 388 g/mol

F atoms are very electronegative and small, and their electron clouds are held tightly making them very poorly polarizable. This means there is little force of attraction between polyfluorinated molecules, giving them much lower bp's than you would expect based on their molecular weights.

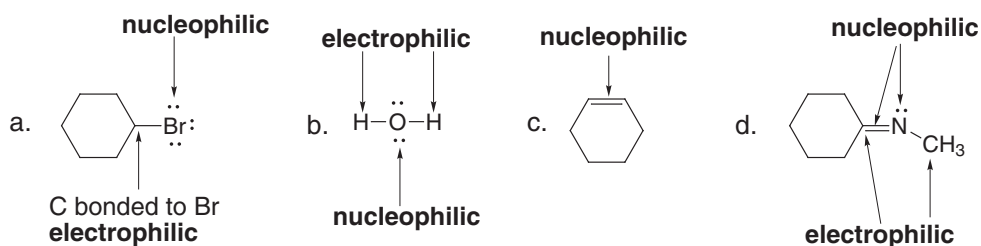
3.27



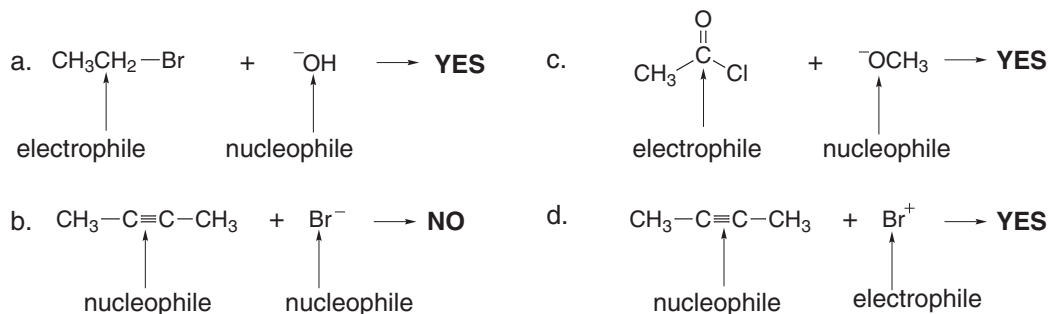
C, D, and A are all long chain hydrocarbons,
but the size increases from **C** to **D** to **A**, increasing
the VDW forces and increasing bp.

3.28 Eteroatomi elettronegativi come N, O o X fanno di un carbonio un *elettrofilo*.

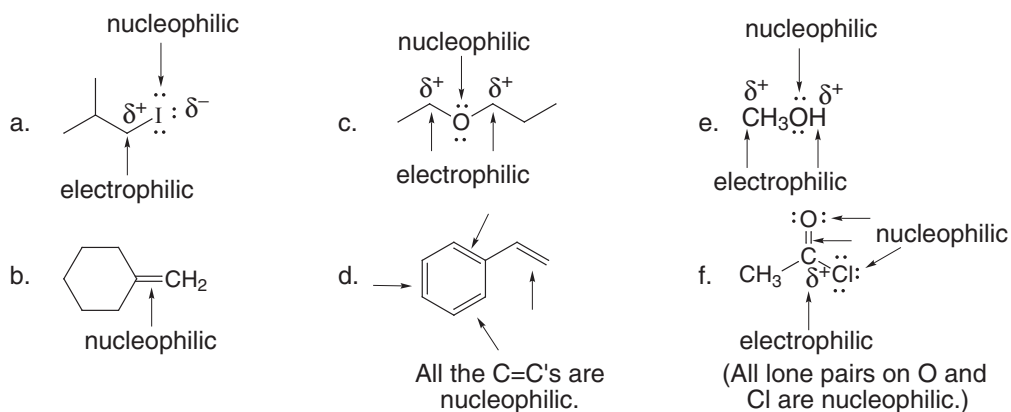
Una coppia elettronica solitaria su un eteroatomo lo rende basico e nucleofilo. I legami π creano siti *nucleofili* e sono più facilmente scissi dei legami σ .



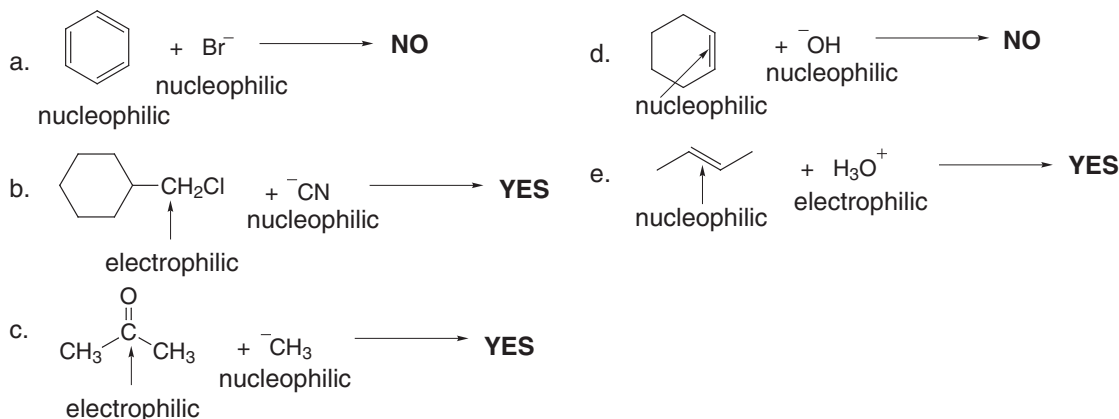
3.29 Gli elettrofili ed i nucleofili reagiscono l'uno con l'altro.



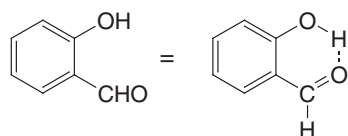
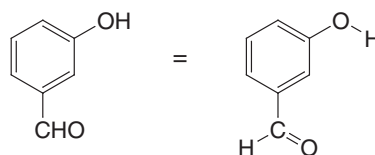
3.30 Usare la regola della risposta 3.12.



3.31



3.32

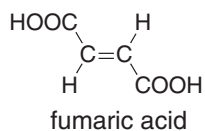
**A****B**

These two functional groups are close enough that they can intramolecularly H-bond to each other. Since the two polar functional groups are involved in intramolecular H-bonding, they are less available for H-bonding to H₂O. This makes **A** less H₂O soluble than **B**, whose two functional groups are both available for H-bonding to the H₂O solvent.

The OH and the CHO are too far apart to intramolecularly H-bond to each other, leaving more opportunity to H-bond with solvent.

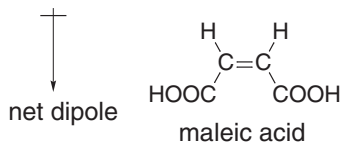
3.33

a. melting point



Fumaric acid has its two larger COOH groups on opposite ends of the molecule, and in this way it can pack better in a lattice than maleic acid, giving it a **higher mp**.

b. solubility



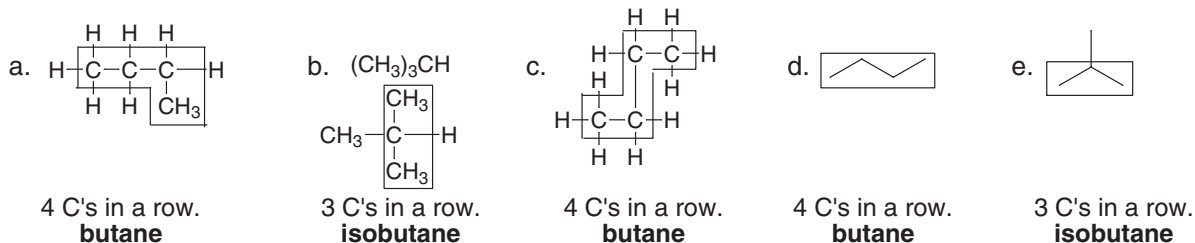
Maleic acid is more polar, giving it greater **H₂O solubility**.

Capitolo 4

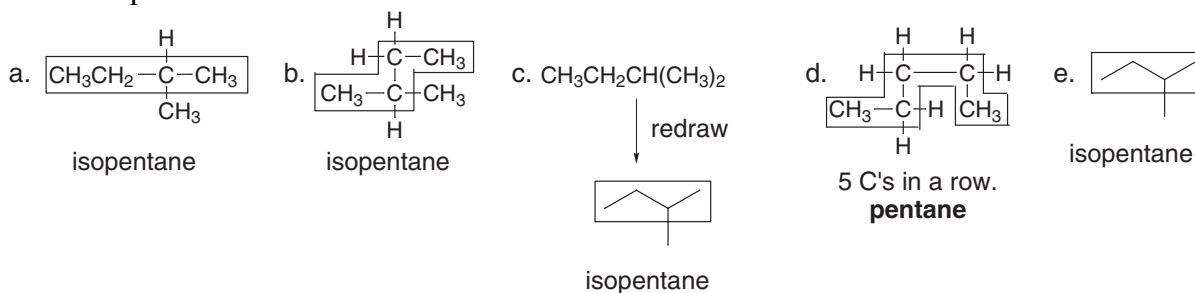
4.1 La formula generale per un alcano aciclico è C_nH_{2n+2} .

a. $C_{12}H_{26}$	b. C_8H_{16}	c. $C_{30}H_{64}$
$2n + 2 = \# \text{ H's}$ $2(12) + 2 = 26$	$2n + 2 = \# \text{ H's}$ $2(8) + 2 = 18$	$2n + 2 = \# \text{ H's}$ $2(30) + 2 = 62$
yes	no	no

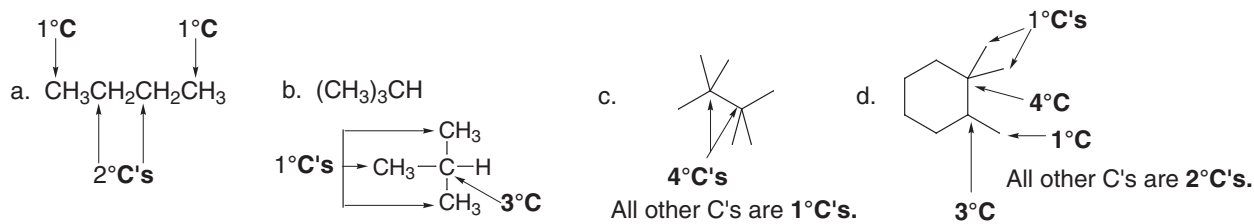
4.2 Il butano ha 4 Carboni in fila. L'isobutano ha 3 Carboni in fila ed 1 carbonio in catena laterale.



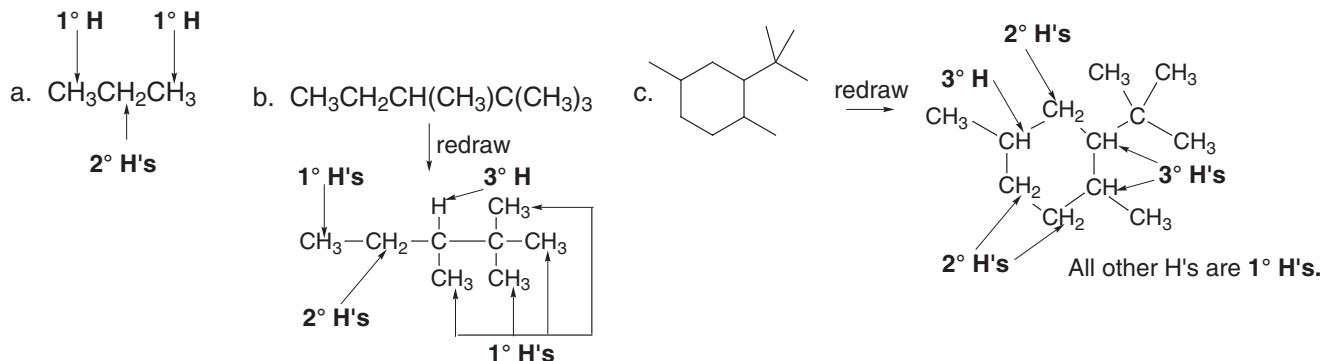
4.3 L'isopentano ha 4 carboni in fila ed 1 carbonio in catena laterale.



4.4 Per classificare un atomo di carbonio come 1°, 2°, 3° o 4° **determinare a quanti atomi di carbonio è legato** (1° C = legato ad un altro C, 2° C = legato a due altri C, 3° C = legato a tre altri C, 4° C = legato a quattro altri C). Ridisegnare se necessario per osservare ogni carbonio chiaramente.



4.5 Per classificare un atomo di idrogeno come 1°, 2°, or 3°, **determinare se è legato ad un carbonio 1°, 2° o 3° C (un H 1° è legato ad un C 1°, un H 2° è legato ad un C 2°, un H 3° è legato ad un C 3°)**. Ridisegnare se necessario.

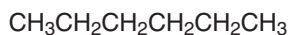


4.6 Gli isomeri costituzionali differiscono nel modo in cui gli atomi sono legati tra di loro. Per disegnare tutti gli isomeri costituzionali:

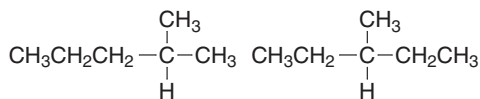
- [1] Disegnare tutti i carboni della catena principale.
- [2] Togliere un C ed usarlo come sostituito. (Non aggiungerlo al carbonio terminale: questo rigenera la catena precedente.)
- [3] Togliere due C ed usarli come sostituenti, etc.

Five **constitutional isomers** of molecular formula C_6H_{14}

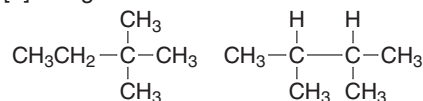
[1] long chain



[2] with one C as a substituent

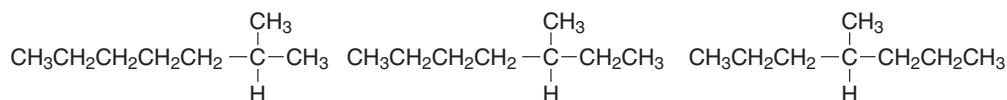


[3] using 2 C's as substituents

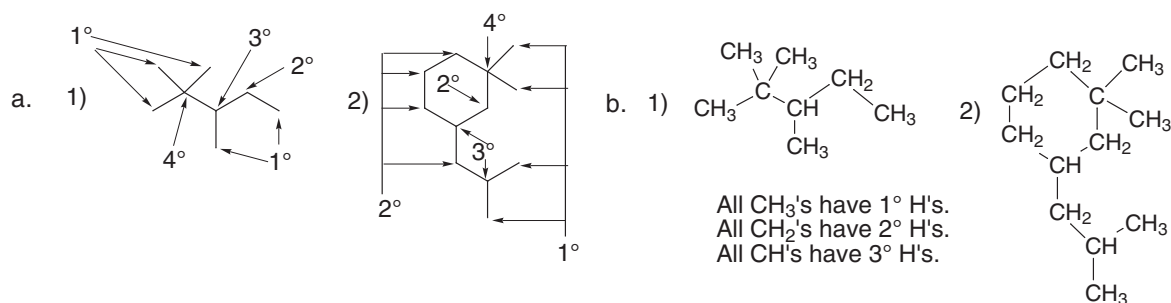


4.7

Molecular formula C_8H_{18} with one CH_3 substituent.

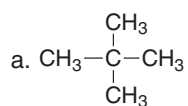


4.8 Usare le regole delle risposte 4.4 e 4.5.

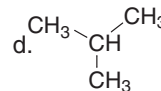
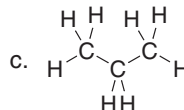


4.9

One possibility:



b.



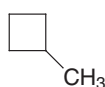
4.10 Usare i passaggi della risposta 4.6 per disegnare gli isomeri costituzionali.

Five **constitutional isomers** of molecular formula C₅H₁₀ having one ring

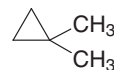
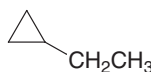
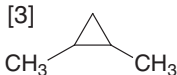
[1]



[2]

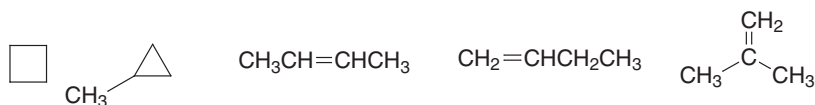


[3]

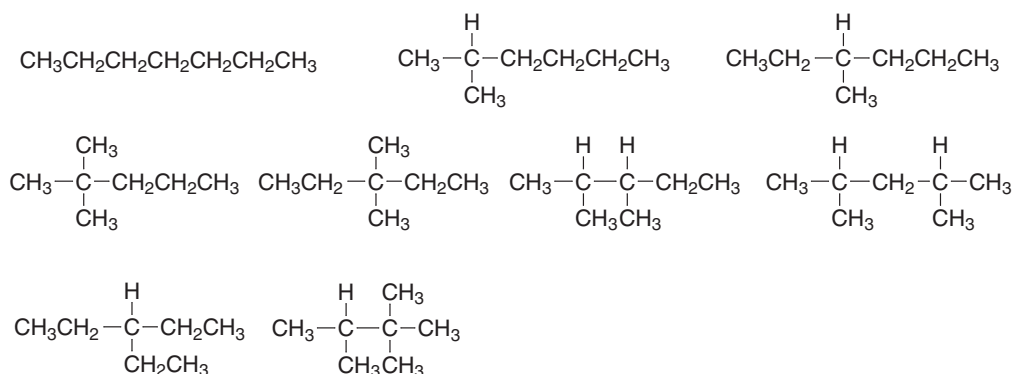
4.11 I cicloalcani hanno formula molecolare C_nH_{2n}. Per un cicloalcano con 288 carboni, ci sarebbero 2(288) = 576 H. Formula molecolare = C₂₈₈H₅₇₆.

4.12

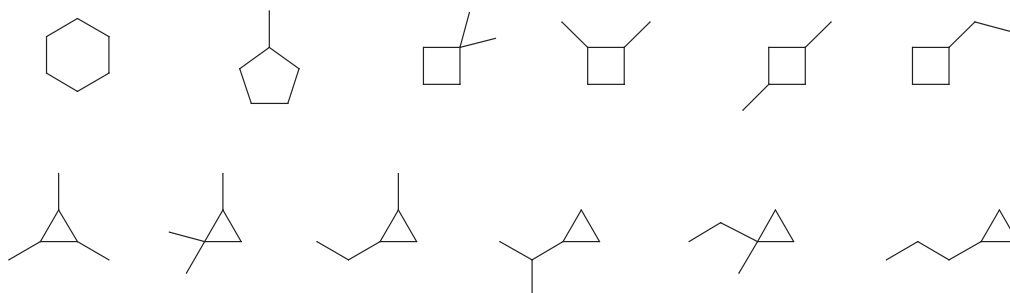
a. Five constitutional isomers of molecular formula C_4H_8 :



b. Nine constitutional isomers of molecular formula C_7H_{16} .

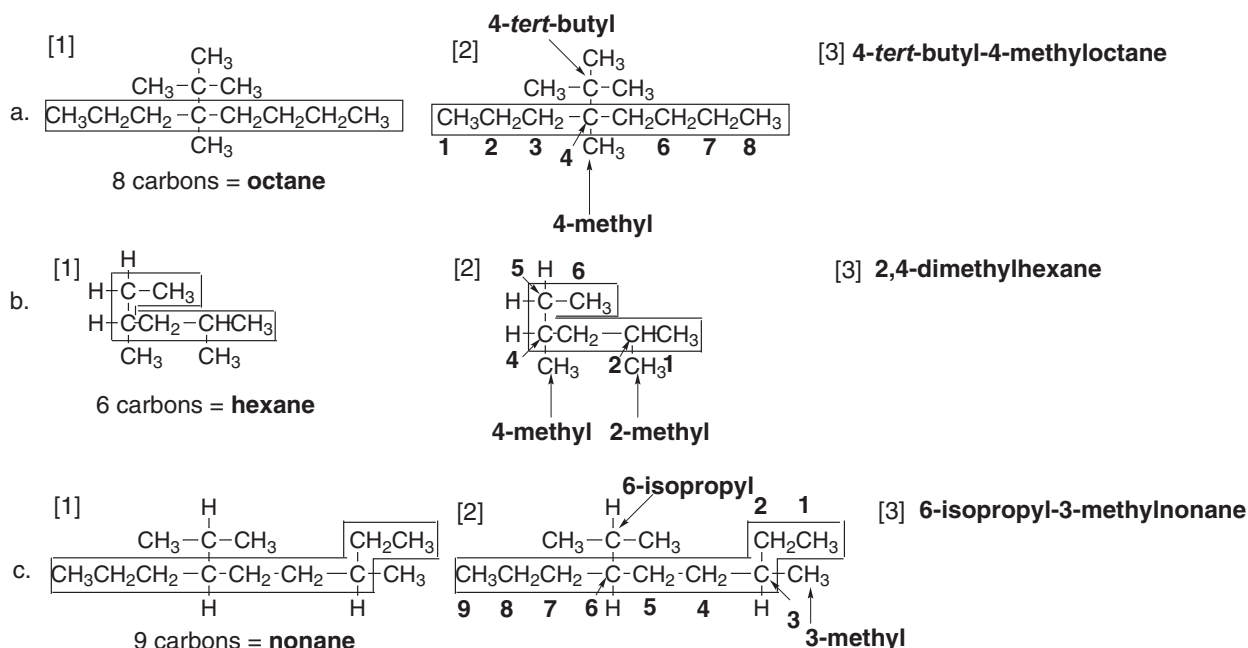


c. Twelve constitutional isomers of molecular formula C_6H_{12} containing one ring.

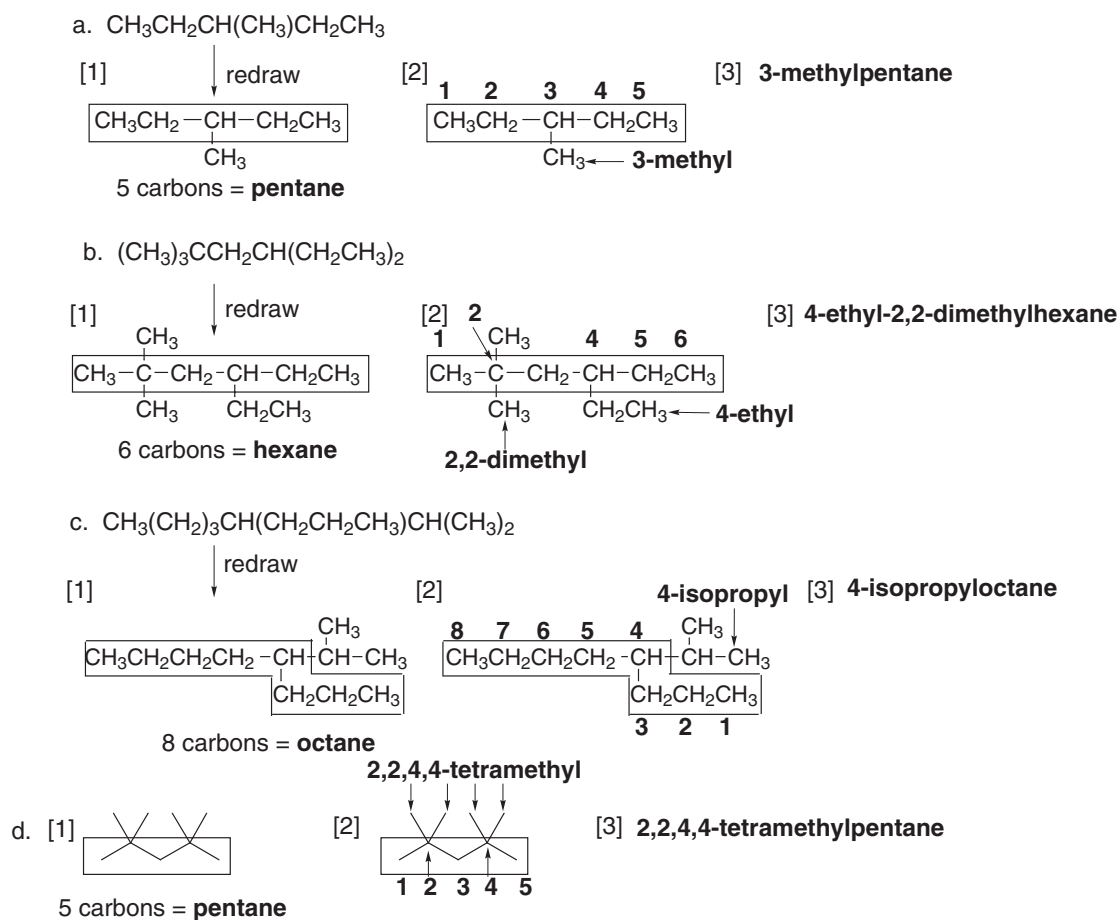


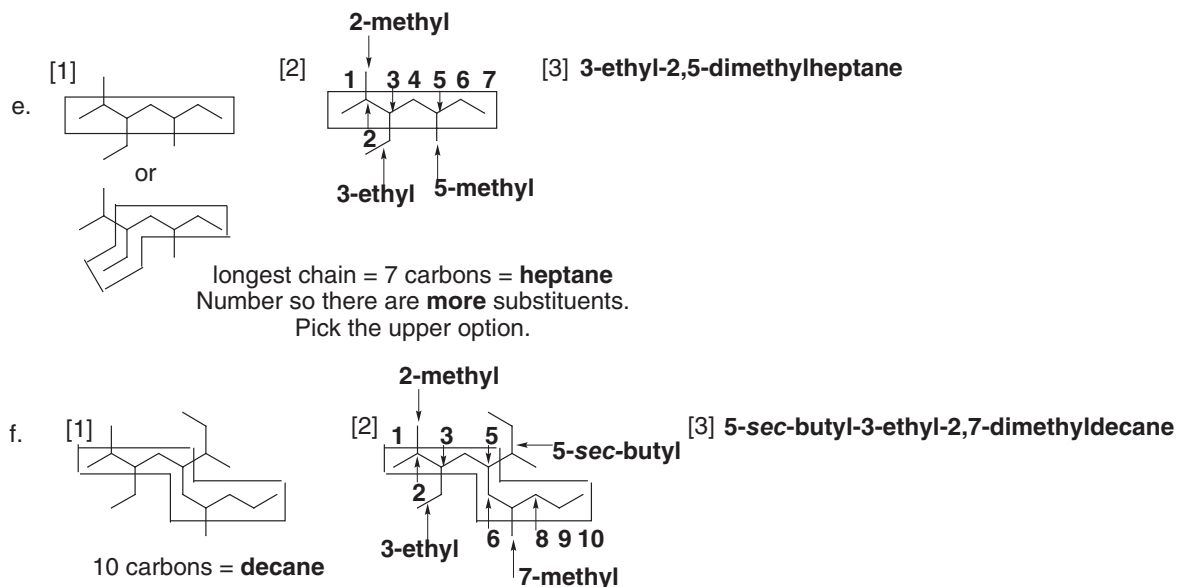
4.13 Seguire questi passaggi per attribuire il nome ad un alcano:

- [1] **Attribuire il nome alla catena principale** attraverso l'individuazione della catena carboniosa più lunga.
- [2] **Numerare la catena** in modo che il primo sostituito abbia il numero più basso.
Successivamente **nominare e numerare tutti i sostituenti**, assegnando a sostituenti simili un prefisso (di, tri, etc.).
- [3] **Combinare tutte le parti**, ordinando sostituenti in ordine alfabetico, ignorando tutti i prefissi eccetto *iso*.



4.14 Usare i passaggi della risposta 4.10 per assegnare il nome ad ogni alcano.



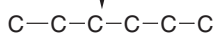


4.15 Per disegnare una struttura dal nome:

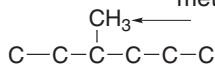
- [1] Trovare la radice corrispondente e disegnare il numero di atomi di carbonio. Usare il suffisso per identificare il gruppo funzionale. (**-ano = alcano**)
- [2] Numerare arbitrariamente gli atomi di C nella catena. Aggiungere i sostituenti ai carboni appropriati.
- [3] Ridisegnare con gli H in modo che i carboni abbiano 4 legami.

a. 3-methyl**hexane**

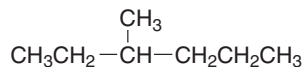
[1] 6 carbon alkane



[2] methyl on C3

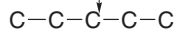


[3]

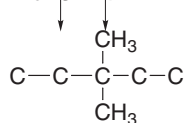


b. 3,3-dimethyl**pentane**

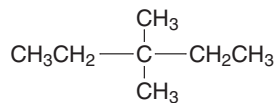
[1] 5 carbon alkane



[2] methyl groups on C3

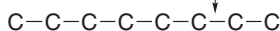


[3]

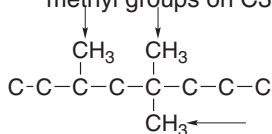


c. 3,5,5-trimethyl**octane**

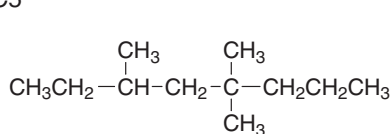
[1] 8 carbon alkane



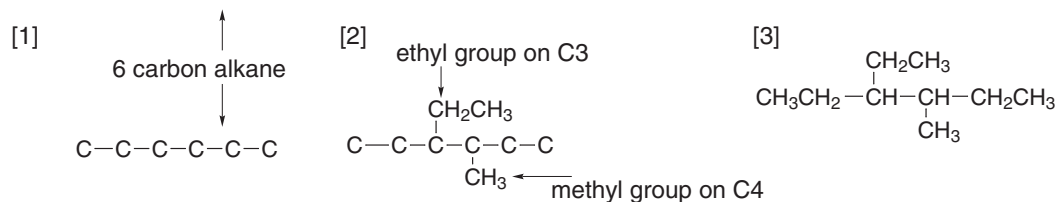
[2] methyl groups on C3 and C5



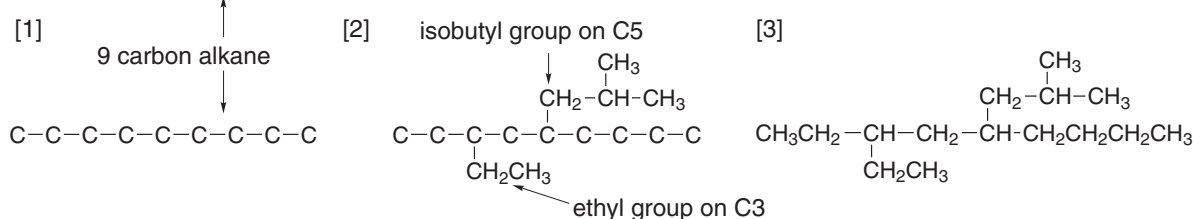
[3]



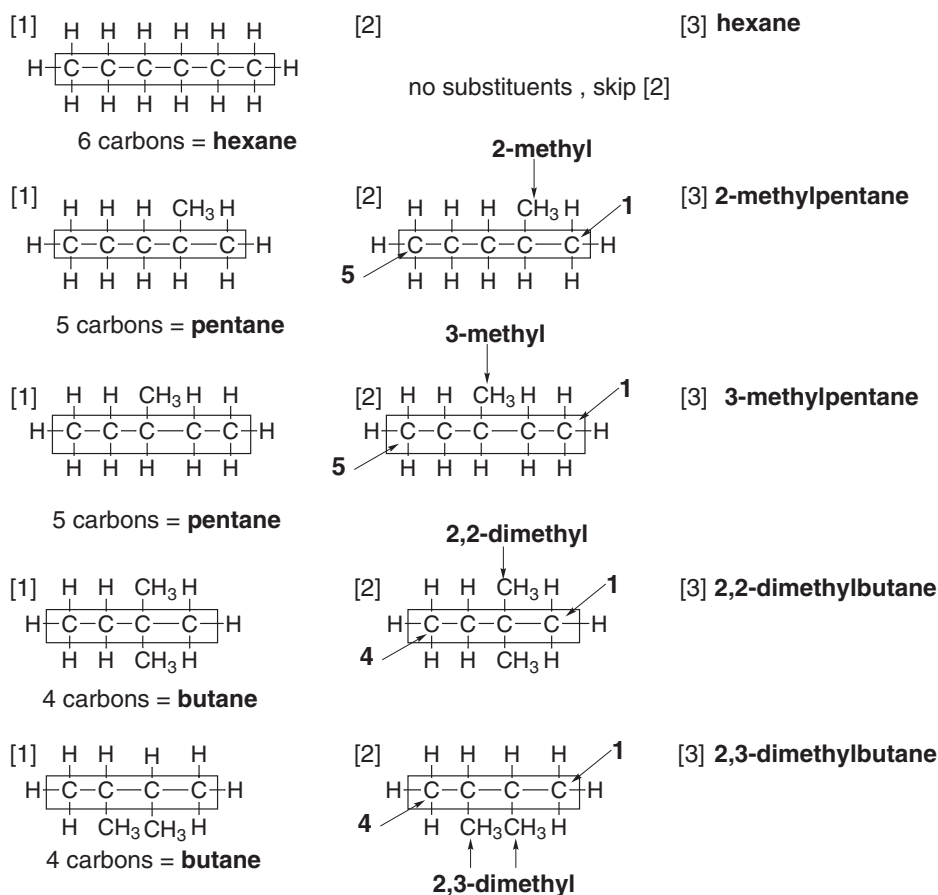
d. 3-ethyl-4-methylhexane



e. 3-ethyl-5-isobutylnonane



4.16 Usare i passaggi della risposta 4.10 per assegnare il nome ad ogni alcano.



4.17 Seguire questi passaggi per assegnare il nome ad un cicloalcano:

[1] Assegnare il nome alla radice del cicloalcano contando i carboni dell'anello ed aggiungendo ciclo-.

[2] **Numerazione:**

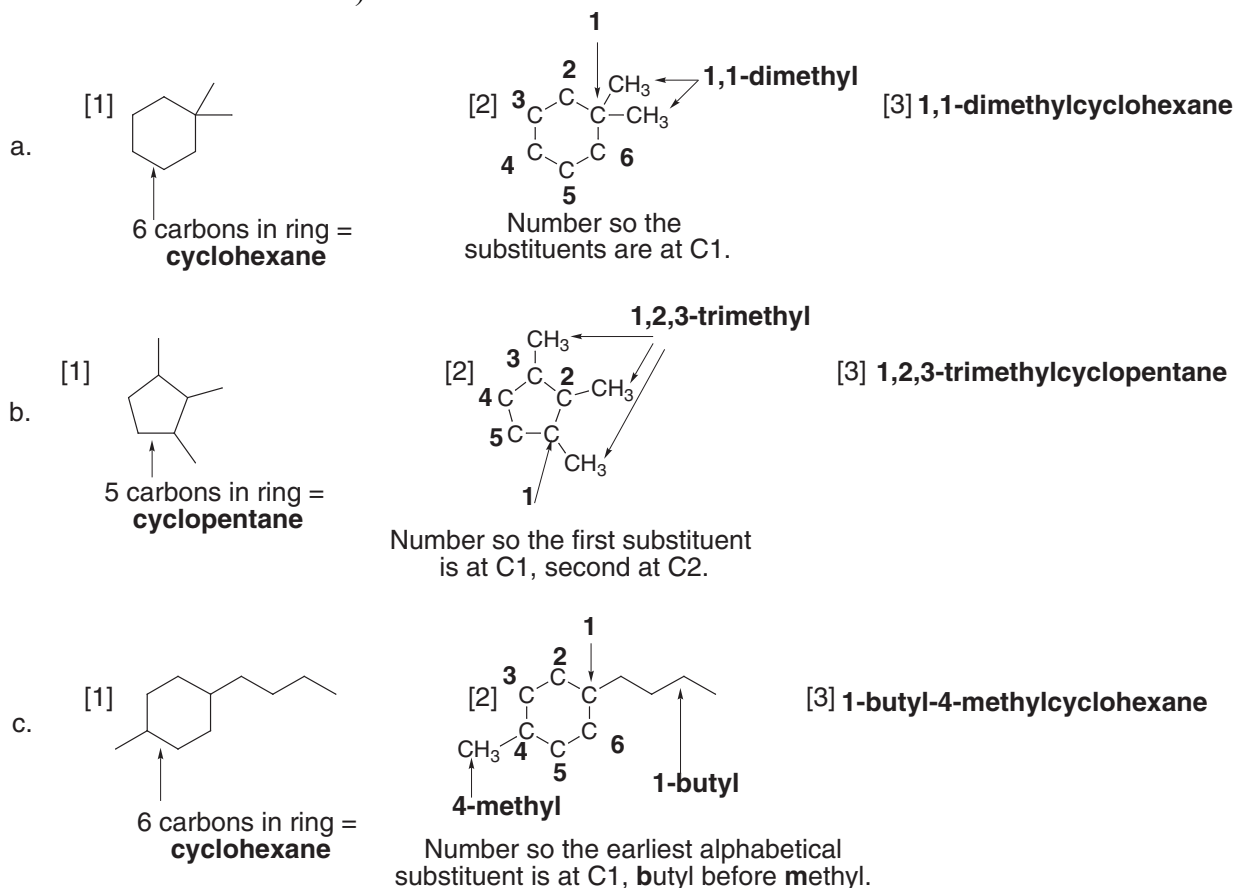
[2a] Numerare l'anello iniziando da un sostituito e assegnando al secondo sostituito il numero più basso.

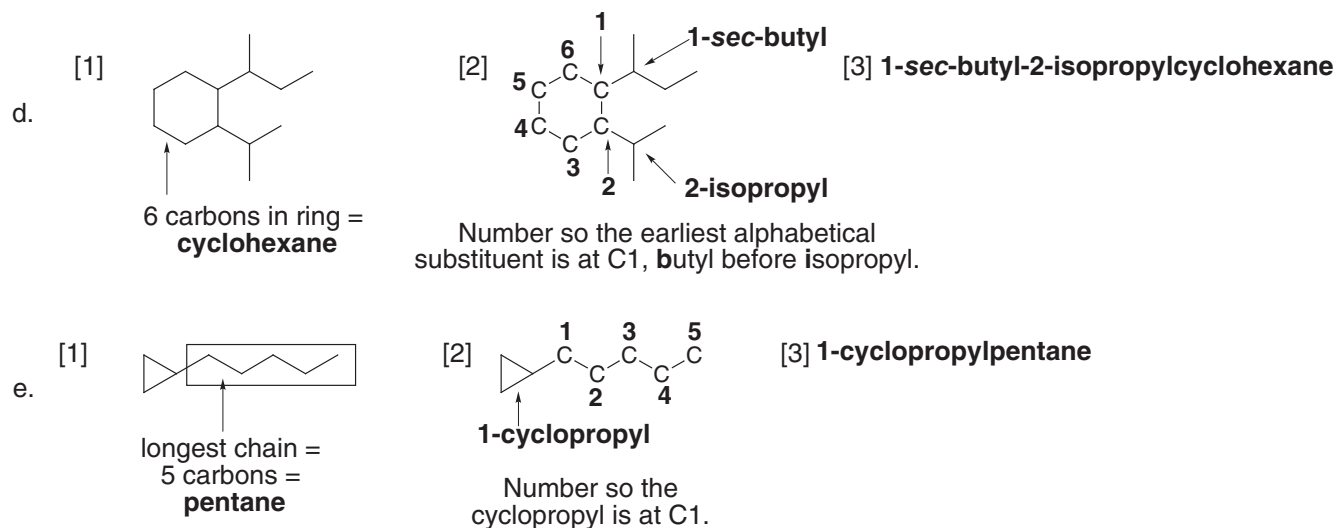
[2b] Assegnare il numero più basso al sostituito che precede in ordine alfabetico.

[2c] Denominare e numerare tutti i sostituenti, assegnando ai sostituenti uguali un prefisso (di, tri, ecc.).

[3] Combinare tutte le parti, disponendo in ordine alfabetico tutti i sostituenti, ed ignorando tutti i prefissi ad eccezione di *iso*.

(Ricordare: se una catena carboniosa ha più carboni dell'anello, la catena diventa la radice e l'anello un sostituito.)





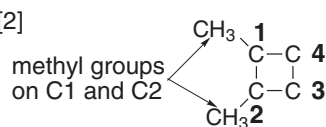
4.18 Per disegnare le strutture, usare i passaggi della risposta 4.15.

a. 1,2-dimethylcyclobutane

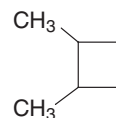
[1] 4 carbon cycloalkane



[2]



[3]

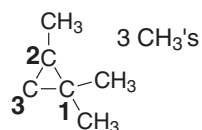


b. 1,1,2-trimethylcyclopropane

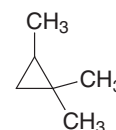
[1] 3 carbon cycloalkane



[2]



[3]

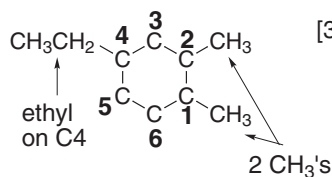


c. 4-ethyl-1,2-dimethylcyclohexane

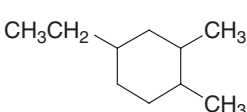
[1] 6 carbon cycloalkane



[2]



[3]

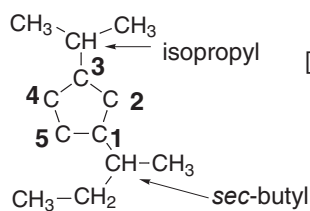


d. 1-sec-butyl-3-isopropylcyclopentane

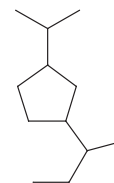
[1] 5 carbon cycloalkane



[2]

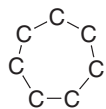


[3]

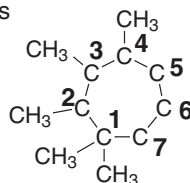


e. 1,1,2,3,4-pentamethylcycloheptane

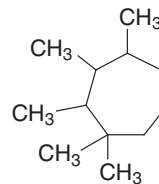
[1] 7 carbon cycloalkane



[2] 5 CH₃'s



[3]



4.19 Per assegnare il nome ai cicloalcani, usare i passaggi della risposta 4.17.

[1] 5 carbons in ring = **cyclopentane**

[1] 4 carbons in ring = **cyclobutane**

[2] [3] **methylcyclobutane**

[1] 3 carbons in ring = **cyclopropane**

[2] [3] **1,2-dimethylcyclopropane**

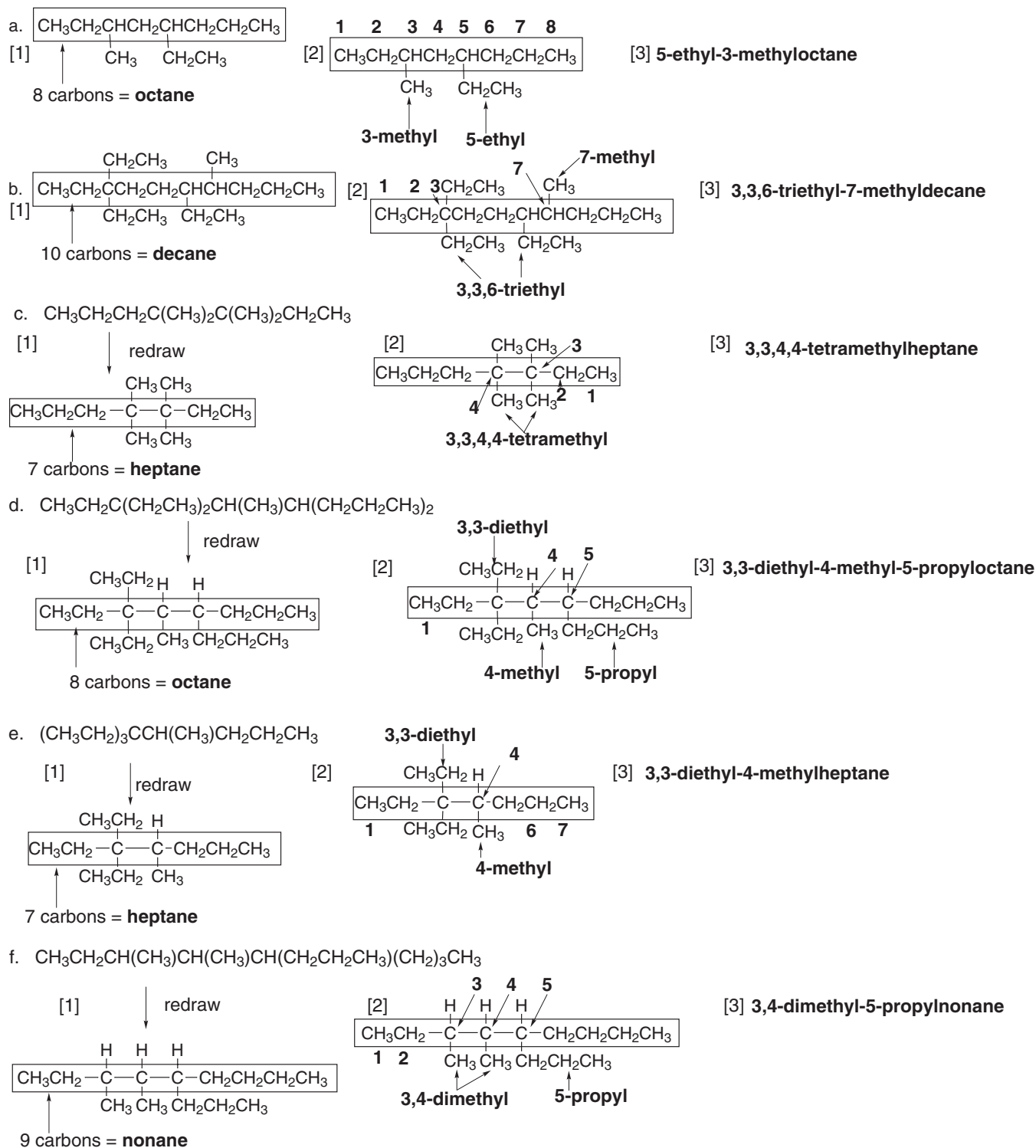
[1] 3 carbons in ring = **cyclopropane**

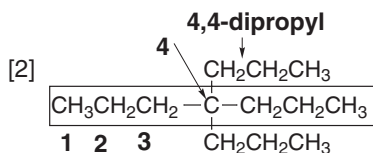
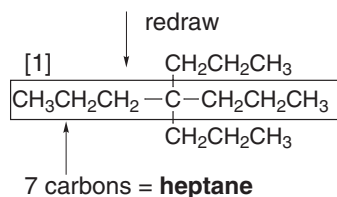
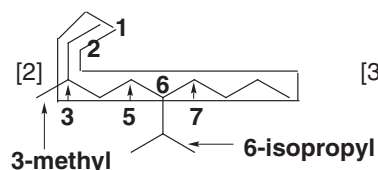
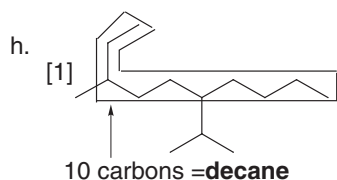
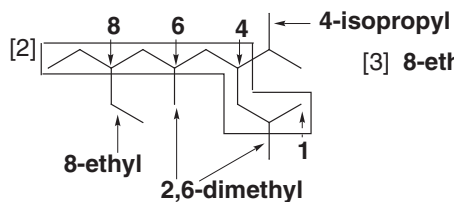
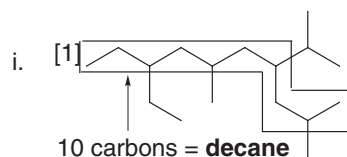
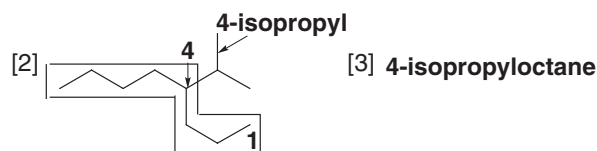
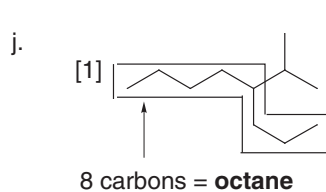
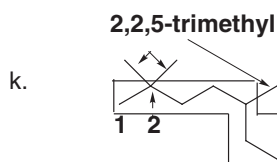
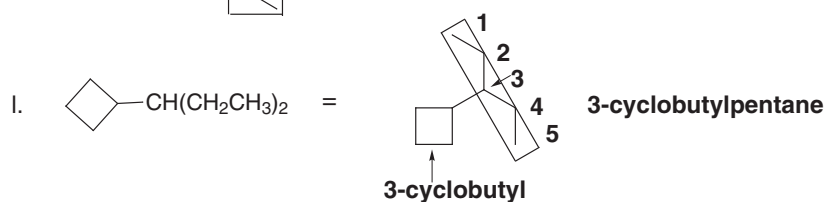
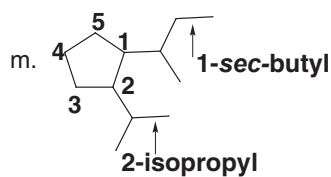
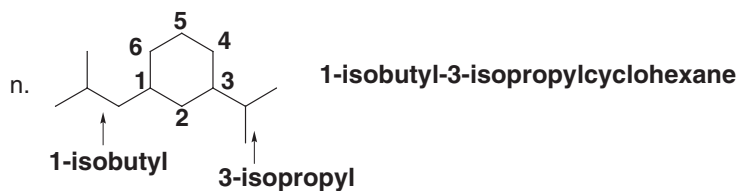
[2] [3] **ethylcyclopropane**

[1] 3 carbons in ring = **cyclopropane**

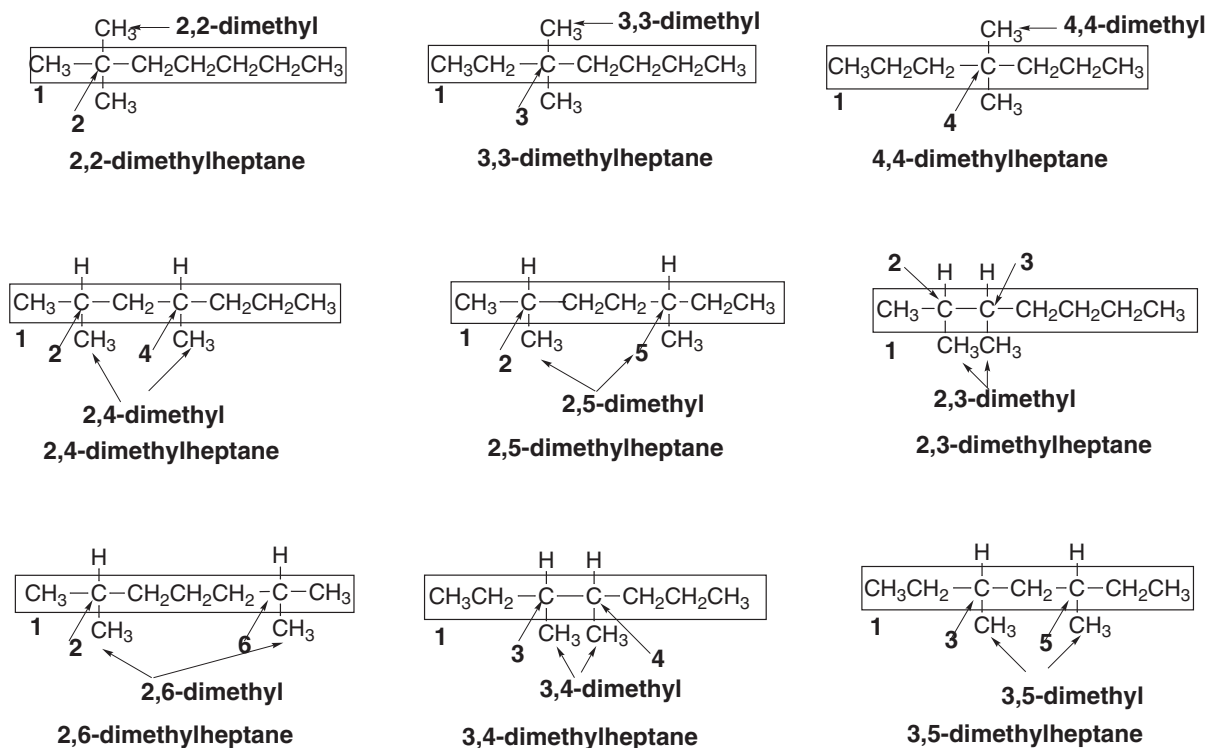
[2] [3] **1,1-dimethylcyclopropane**

4.20 Usare I passaggi delle risposte 4.13 e 4.17 per dare il nome agli alcani.



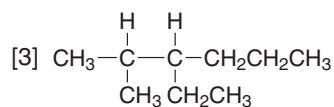
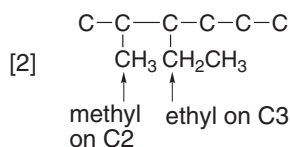
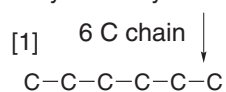
g. $(\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2)_4\text{C}$ [3] **4,4-dipropylheptane**[3] **6-isopropyl-3-methyldecane**[3] **8-ethyl-4-isopropyl-2,6-dimethyldecane**[3] **4-isopropyloctane****2,2,5-trimethylheptane****3-cyclobutylpentane****1-sec-butyl-2-isopropylcyclopentane****1-isobutyl-3-isopropylcyclohexane**

4.21

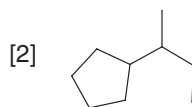
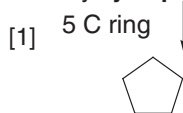


4.22 Usare i passaggi della risposta 4.15 per disegnare le strutture.

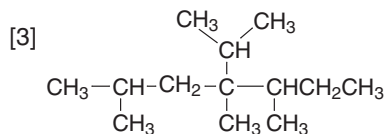
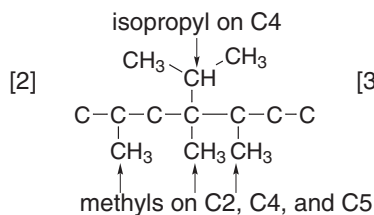
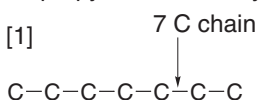
a. 3-ethyl-2-methylhexane



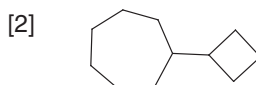
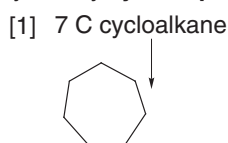
b. sec-butylcyclopentane



c. 4-isopropyl-2,4,5-trimethylheptane



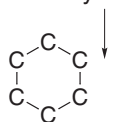
d. cyclobutylcycloheptane



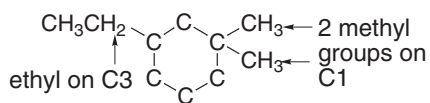
e. 3-ethyl-1,1-dimethyl**cyclohexane**

[1]

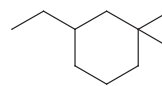
6 C cycloalkane



[2]

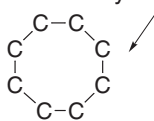


[3]

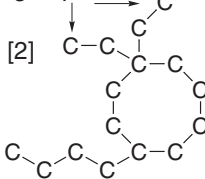
f. 4-butyl-1,1-diethyl**cyclooctane**

[1]

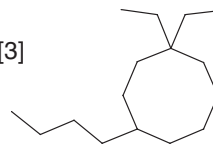
8 C cycloalkane



2 ethyl groups

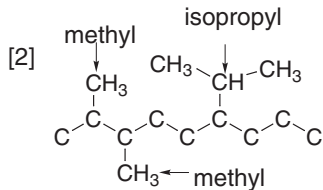
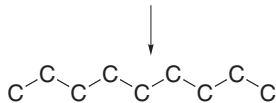


[3]

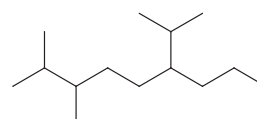
g. 6-isopropyl-2,3-dimethyl**nonane**

[1]

9 C alkane

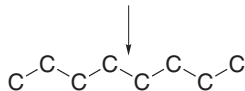


[3]

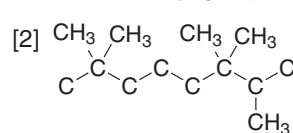
h. 2,2,6,6,7-pentamethyl**octane**

[1]

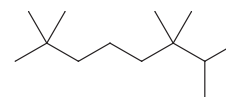
8 C alkane



5 methyl groups



[3]

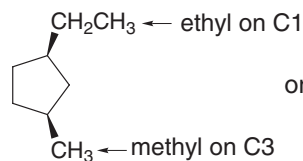
i. *cis*-1-ethyl-3-methyl**cyclopentane**

[1]

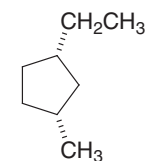
5 C ring



[2]



or

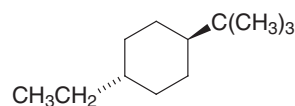
j. *trans*-1-*tert*-butyl-4-ethyl**cyclohexane**

[1]

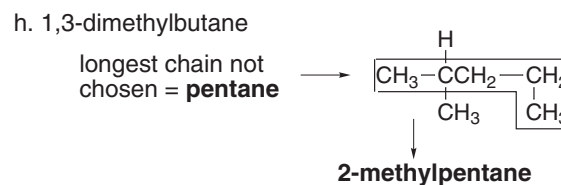
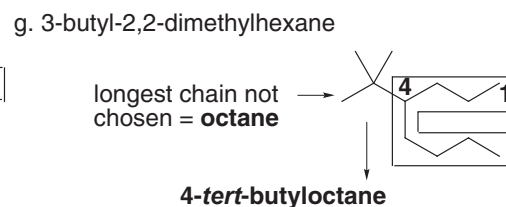
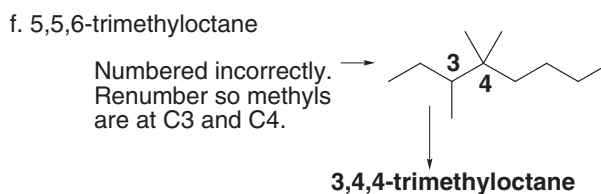
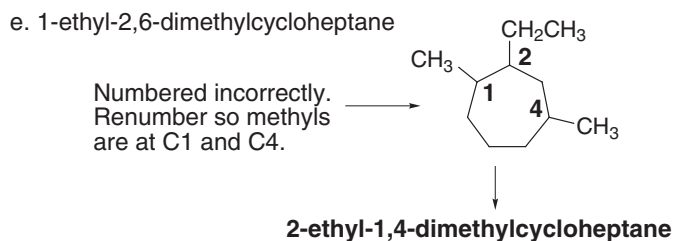
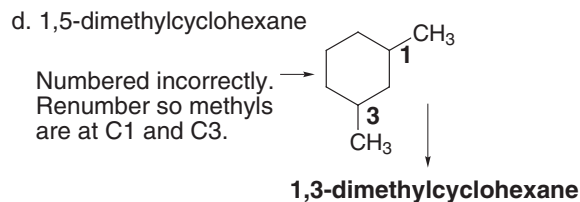
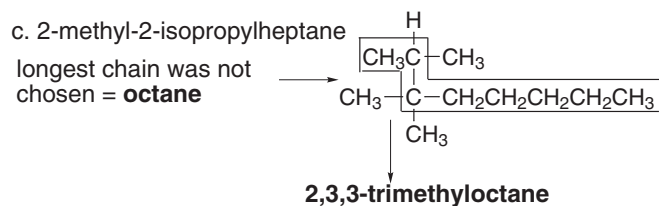
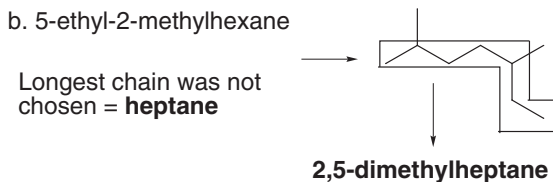
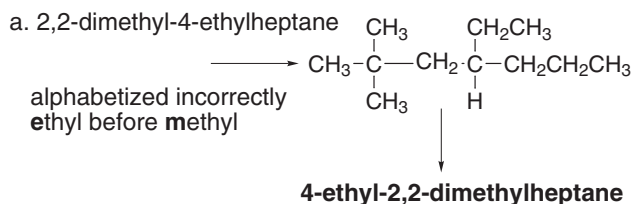
6 C ring



[2]



4.23 Disegnare i composti.



4.24 Confrontare i pesi molecolari per determinare i punti di ebollizione relativi.

gasoline: C_5H_{12} - $\text{C}_{12}\text{H}_{26}$

lowest molecular weight:
lowest boiling point

kerosene: $\text{C}_{12}\text{H}_{26}$ - $\text{C}_{16}\text{H}_{34}$

middle molecular weight:
intermediate boiling point

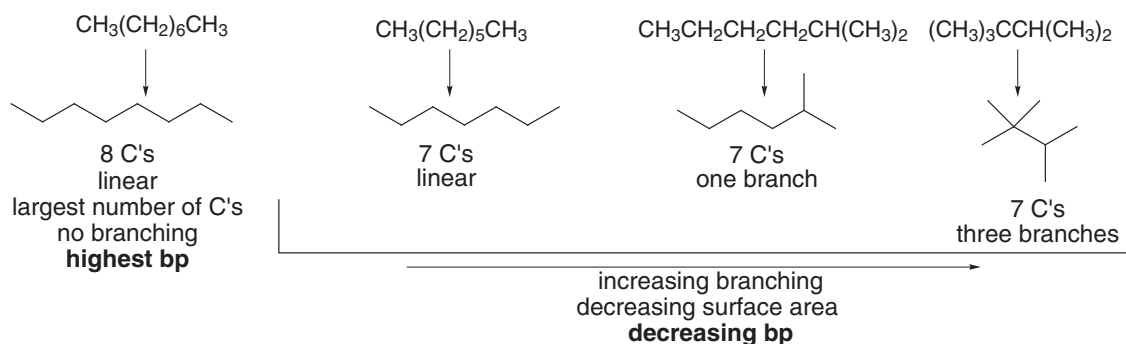
diesel fuel: $\text{C}_{15}\text{H}_{32}$ - $\text{C}_{18}\text{H}_{38}$

highest molecular weight:
highest boiling point

4.25 Confrontare i numeri dei carboni e l'area superficiale per determinare i punti di ebollizione relativi. Regole:

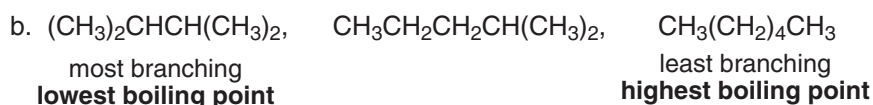
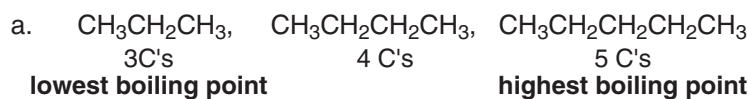
[1] Aumento del numero dei carboni = aumento del punto di ebollizione.

[2] Aumento dell'area superficiale = aumento del punto di ebollizione (la ramificazione diminuisce l'area superficiale).

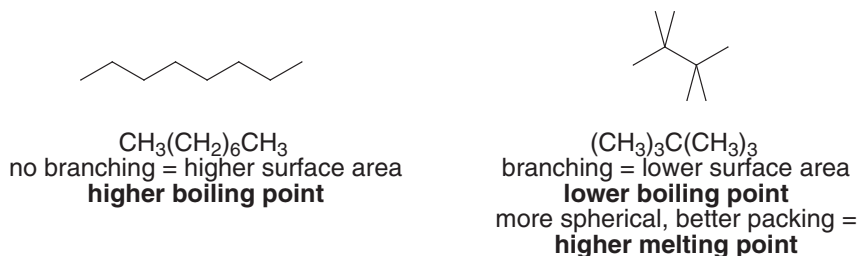


increasing boiling point: $(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{CCH}(\text{CH}_3)_2 < \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2 < \text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_5\text{CH}_3 < \text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_6\text{CH}_3$

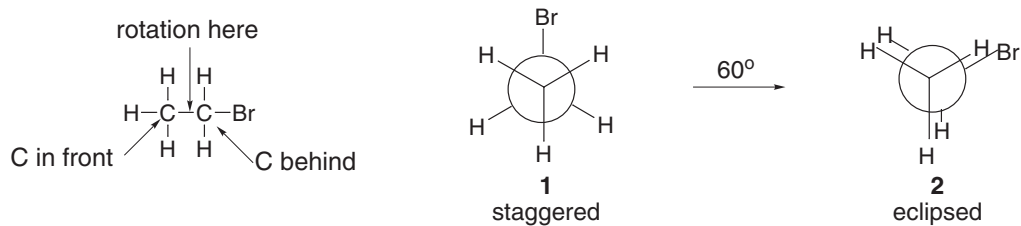
4.26 Usare le regole della risposta 4.25.



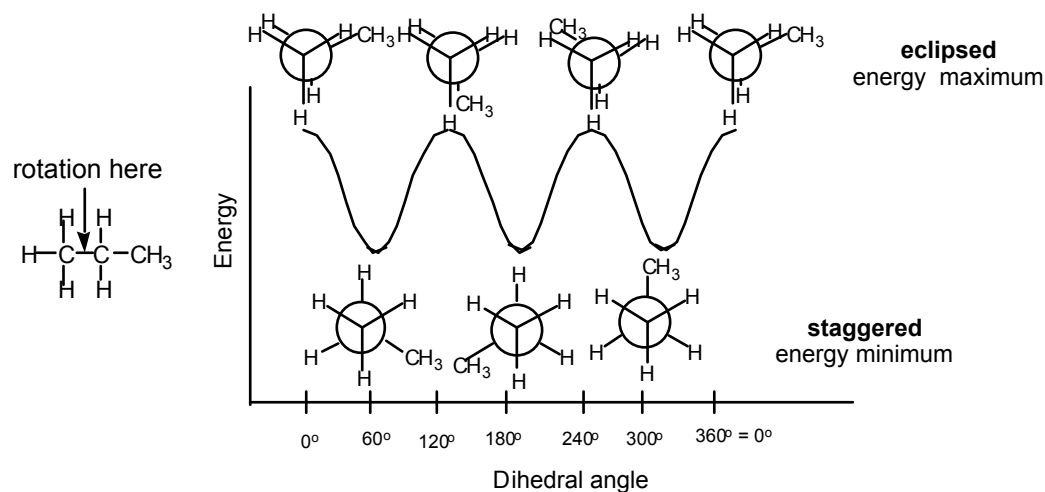
4.27



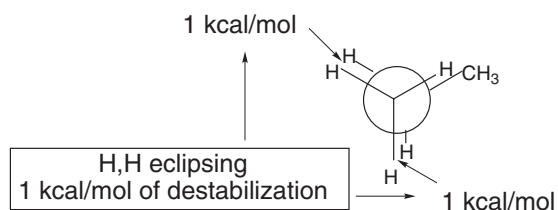
4.28 Per disegnare una proiezione di Newman, visualizzare i carboni come uno davanti ed uno dietro rispettivamente. Il legame C–C non viene disegnato. C'è una sola conformazione sfalsata ed una eclissata.



4.29 Le conformazioni sfalsate sono più stabili delle conformazioni eclissate.



4.30



To calculate H,CH₃ destabilization:

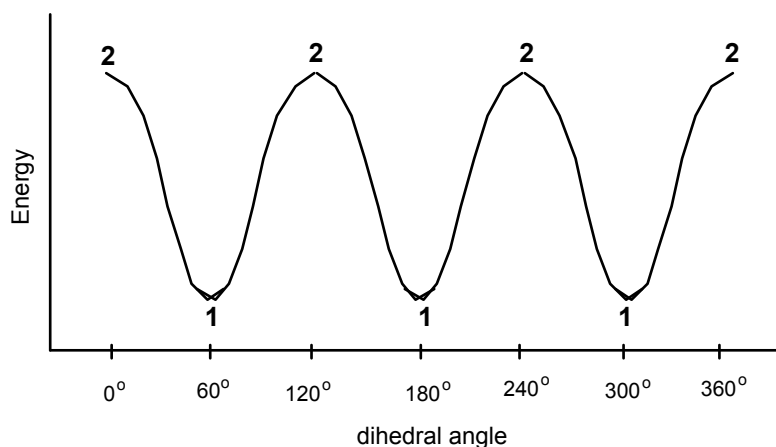
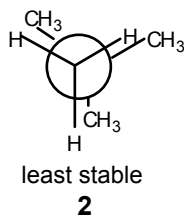
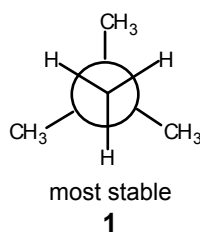
$$\begin{aligned}
 &3.5 \text{ kcal/mol (total)} - \\
 &2 \text{ kcal/mol for 2 H,H eclipsing interactions} \\
 &= \mathbf{1.5 \text{ kcal/mol}} \text{ for one H,CH}_3 \text{ eclipsing interaction}
 \end{aligned}$$

4.31 Per determinare l'energia dei conformeri ricordare due fattori:

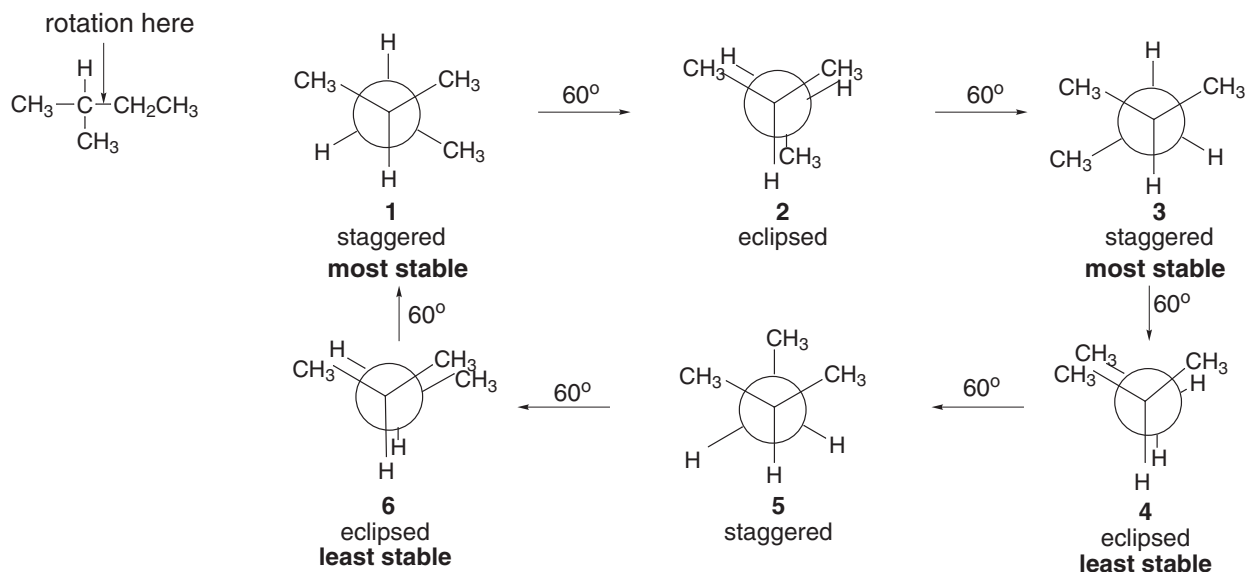
[1] I conformeri eclissati sono più stabili di quelli eclissati.

[2] Minimizzare le interazioni steriche mettendo i gruppi più ingombranti lontano uno dall'altro.

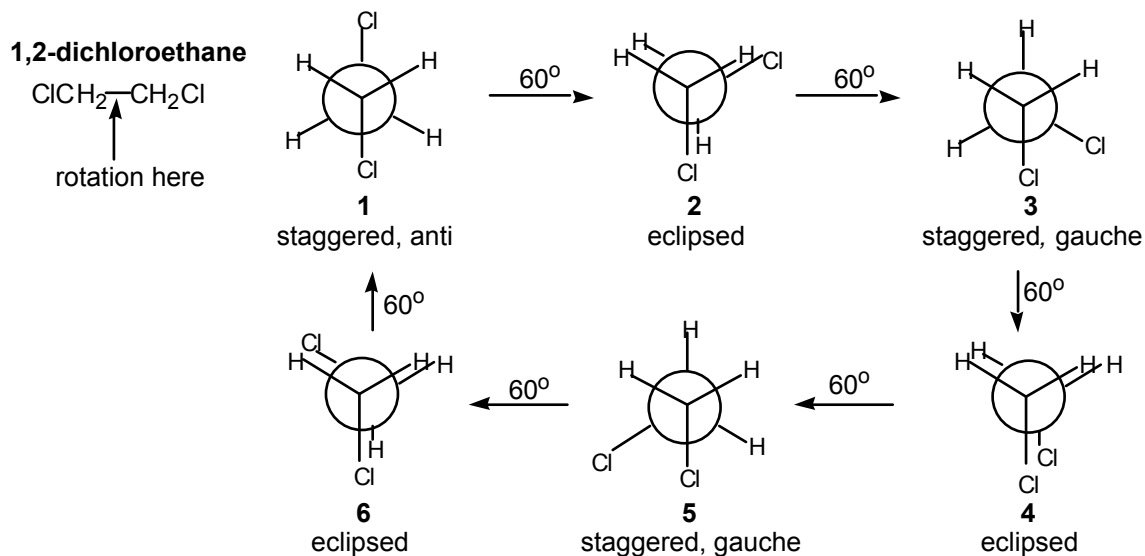
La conformazione a più alta energia è la conformazione eclissata in cui i due gruppi più ingombranti sono eclissati. La conformazione a minore energia è la configurazione sfalsata in cui i due gruppi più ingombranti sono anti.

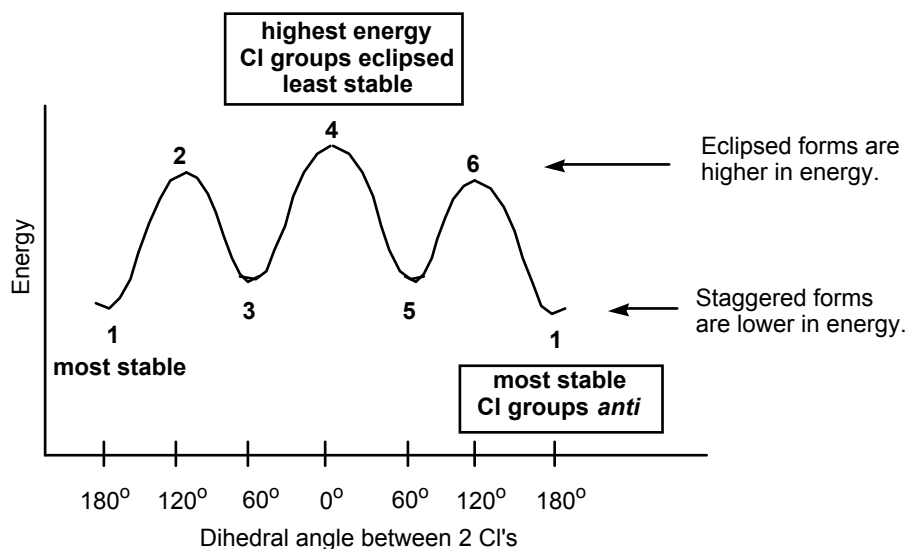


4.32 Per determinare i conformeri più stabili e quelli meno stabili, usare le regole della risposta 4.31.

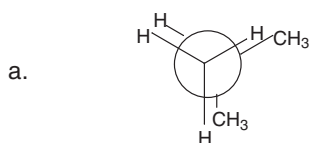


4.33 Per determinare i conformeri più stabili e quelli meno stabili, usare le regole della risposta 4.31.

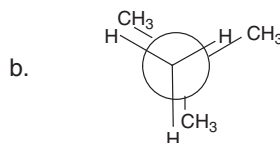




4.34 Aggiungere l'aumento di energia per ogni interazione eclissata per determinare la destabilizzazione.

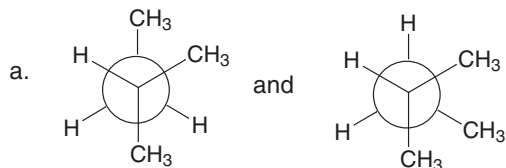


$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 1 \text{ H,H interaction} & = & 1 \text{ kcal/mol} \\
 2 \text{ H,CH}_3 \text{ interactions} & & \\
 (2 \times 1.5 \text{ kcal/mol}) & = & 3 \text{ kcal/mol} \\
 \hline
 \text{Total destabilization} & = & 4 \text{ kcal/mol}
 \end{array}$$



$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 3 \text{ H,CH}_3 \text{ interactions} & & \\
 (3 \times 1.5 \text{ kcal/mol}) & = & 4.5 \text{ kcal/mol} \\
 \hline
 \text{Total destabilization} & &
 \end{array}$$

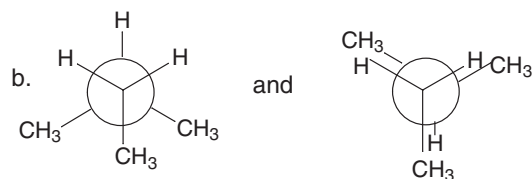
4.35



$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 1 \text{ gauche CH}_3, \text{CH}_3 & & \text{higher energy} \\
 = 0.9 \text{ kcal/mol} & & 2 \text{ gauche CH}_3, \text{CH}_3 \\
 \text{of destabilization} & & 0.9 \text{ kcal/mol} \times 2 = 1.8 \text{ kcal/mol} \\
 & & \text{of destabilization}
 \end{array}$$

Energy difference =

$$1.8 \text{ kcal/mol} - 0.9 \text{ kcal/mol} = \boxed{0.9 \text{ kcal/mol}}$$

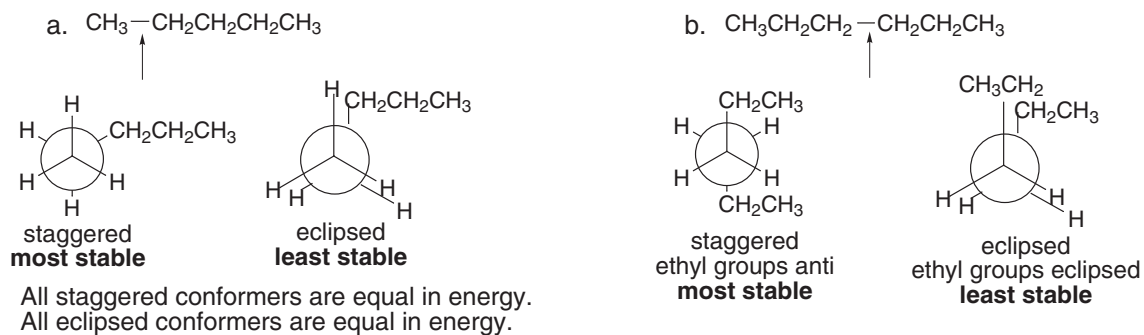


$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 2 \text{ gauche CH}_3, \text{CH}_3 & & \text{higher energy} \\
 0.9 \text{ kcal/mol} \times 2 = & & 3 \text{ eclipsed H,CH}_3 \\
 1.8 \text{ kcal/mol} & & 1.5 \text{ kcal/mol} \times 3 = 4.5 \text{ kcal/mol} \\
 \text{of destabilization} & & \text{of destabilization}
 \end{array}$$

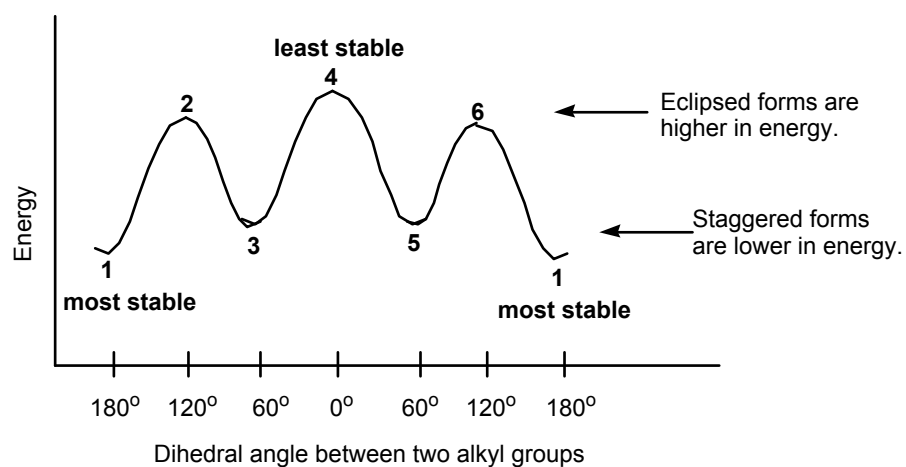
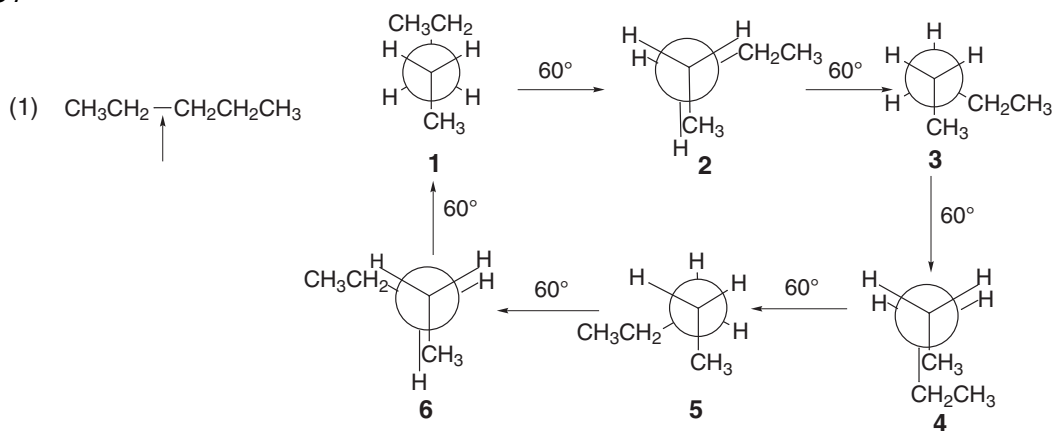
Energy difference =

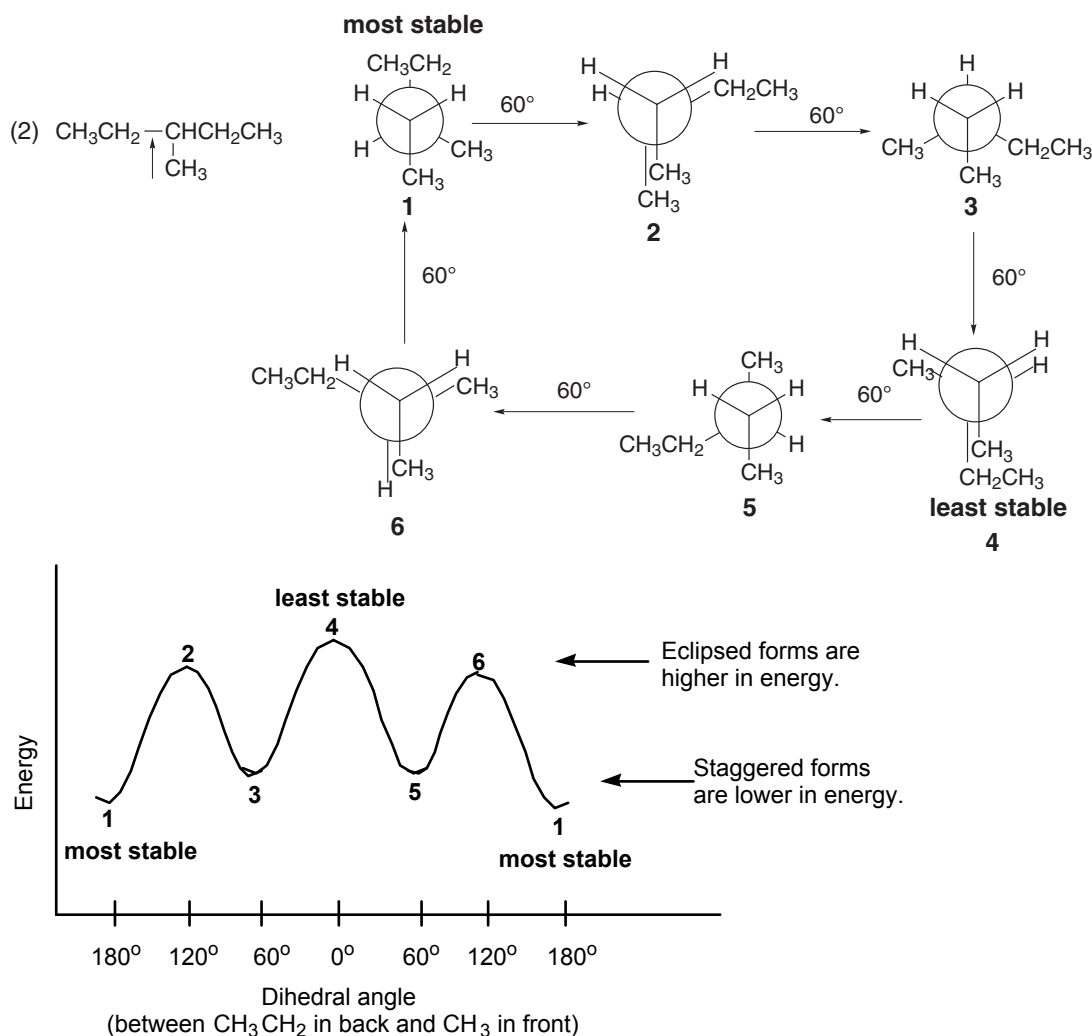
$$4.5 \text{ kcal/mol} - 1.8 \text{ kcal/mol} = \boxed{2.7 \text{ kcal/mol}}$$

4.36 Usare le regole della risposta 4.31 per determinare i conformeri più stabili e meno stabili.



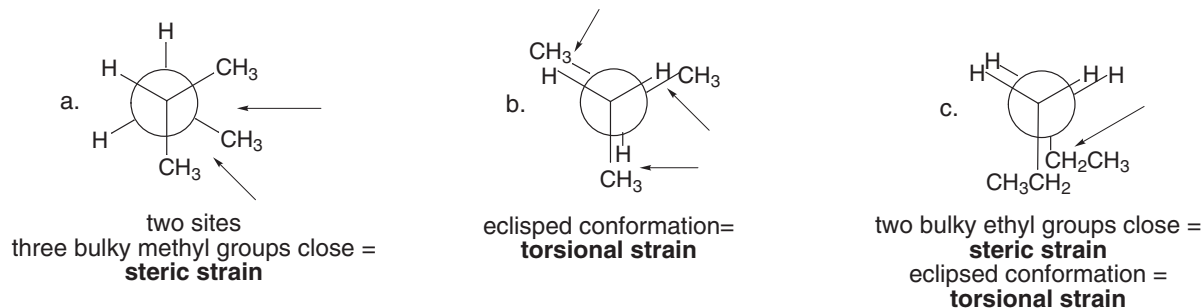
4.37



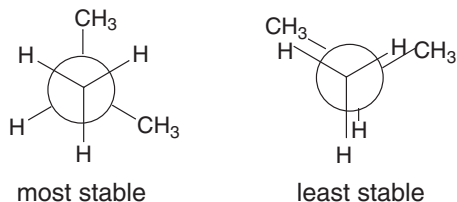
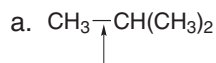


4.38 Due tipi di tensione:

- *La tensione torsionale* è dovuta a gruppi eclissati su atomi di carbonio adiacenti.
- *La tensione sterica* è dovuta a sovrapposizione delle nuvole elettroniche di gruppi voluminosi (es: interazioni gauche).



4.39 La barriera di energia rotazionale è uguale alla differenza di energia tra la più alta energia eclissata e la più bassa energia sfalsata della molecola.

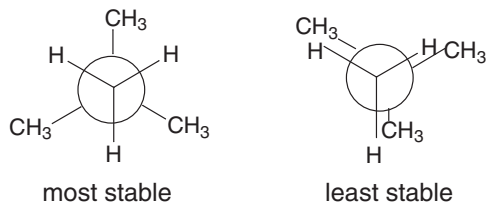
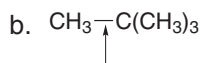


Destabilization energy =

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 2 \text{ H,CH}_3 \text{ eclipsing interactions} & & \\ 2(1.5 \text{ kcal/mol}) & = & 3 \text{ kcal/mol} \\ 1 \text{ H,H eclipsing interaction} & = & 1 \text{ kcal/mol} \end{array}$$

Total destabilization = **4 kcal/mol**

4 kcal/mol = rotation barrier



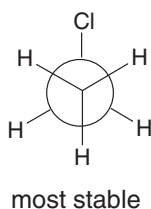
Destabilization energy =

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 3 \text{ H,CH}_3 \text{ eclipsing interactions} & & \\ 3(1.5 \text{ kcal/mol}) & = & 4.5 \text{ kcal/mol} \end{array}$$

Total destabilization = **4.5 kcal/mol**

4.5 kcal/mol = rotation barrier

4.40



$$2 \text{ H,H eclipsing interactions} = 2(1 \text{ kcal/mol}) = 2 \text{ kcal/mol}$$

Since the barrier to rotation is 3.7 kcal/mol, the difference between this value and the destabilization due to H,H eclipsing is the destabilization due to H,Cl eclipsing.

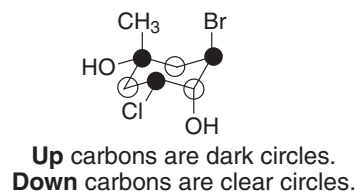
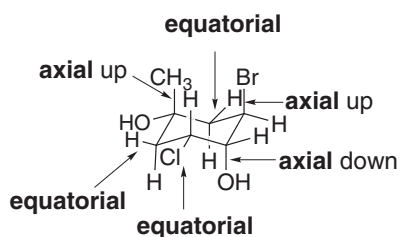
$$3.7 \text{ kcal/mol} - 2 \text{ kcal/mol} = \mathbf{1.7 \text{ kcal/mol}}$$

destabilization due to H,Cl eclipsing

4.41 Il conformero gauche può formare un legame idrogeno intramolecolare, che lo rende il conformero più stabile.

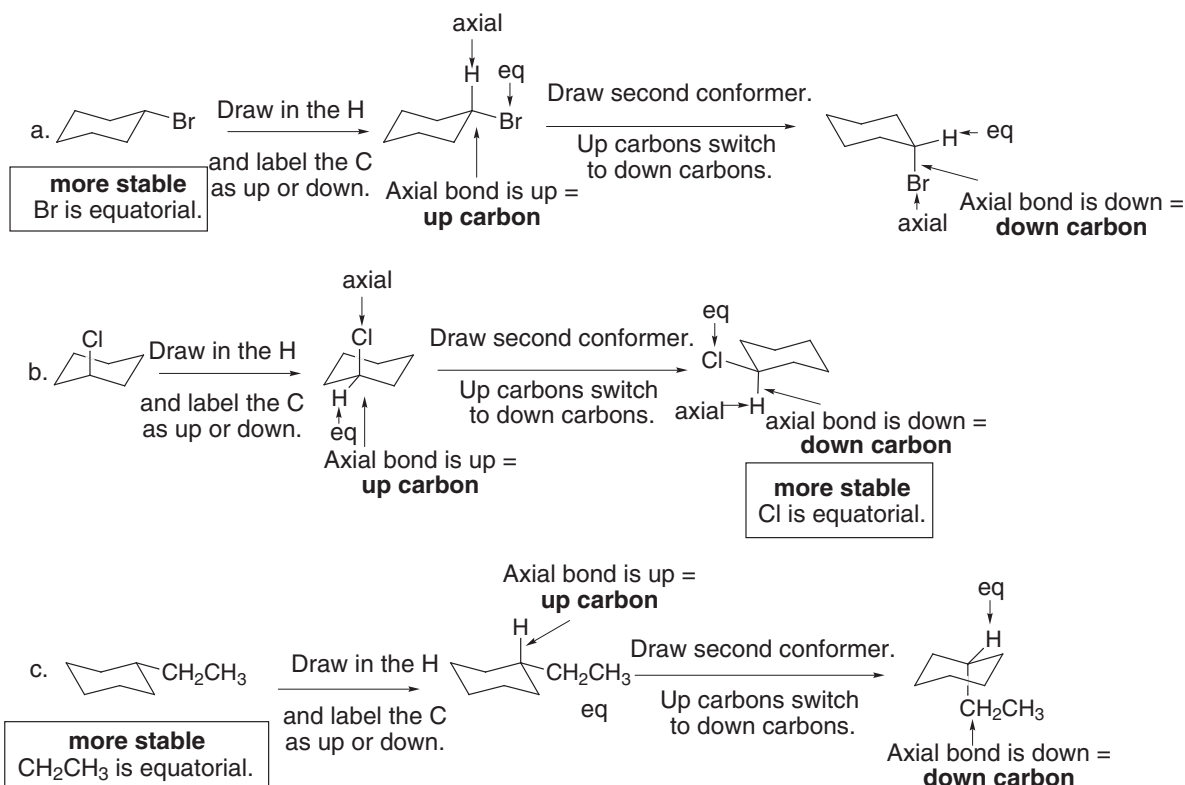
4.42 Due punti:

- I legami assiali sono direzionati in alto o in basso, mentre quelli equatoriali verso l'esterno.
- Un carbonio *in alto* ha un legame assiale *in alto*, ed un carbonio *in basso* ha un legame assiale *in basso*.

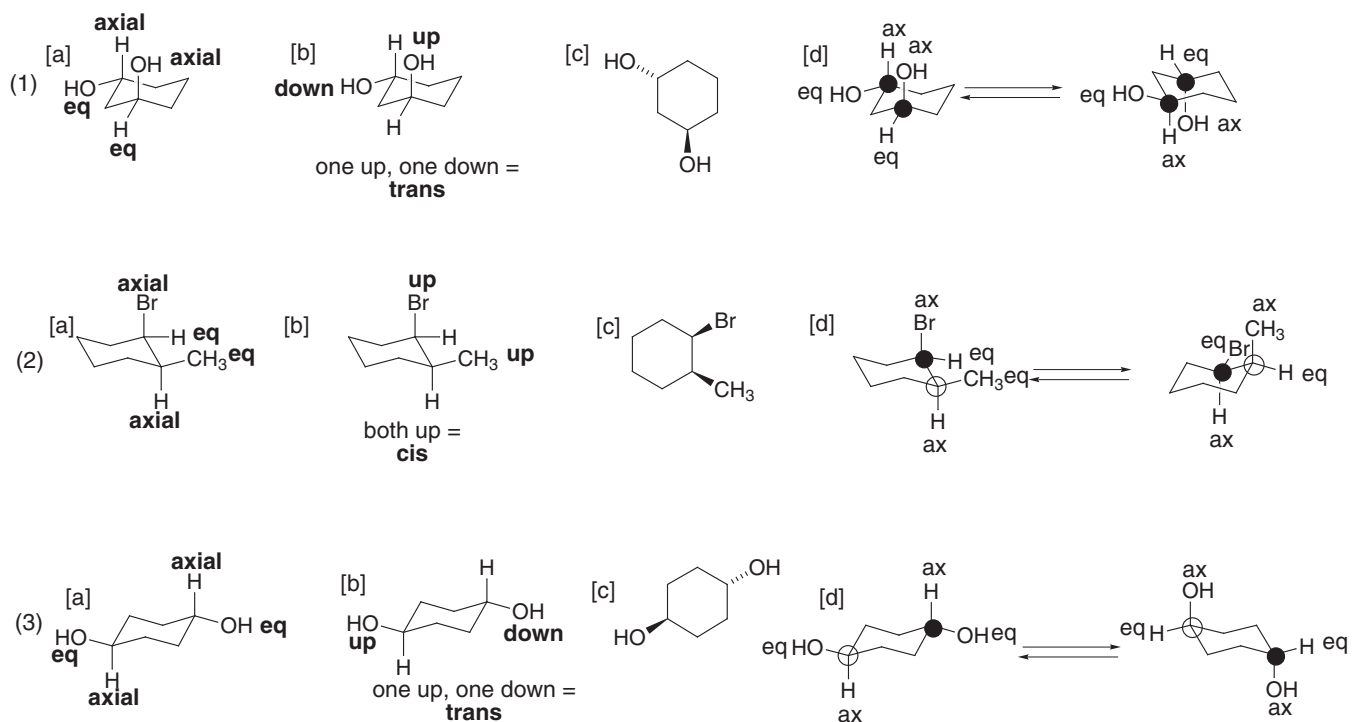


4.43 Disegnare un secondo conformero a sedia per inversione dell'anello.

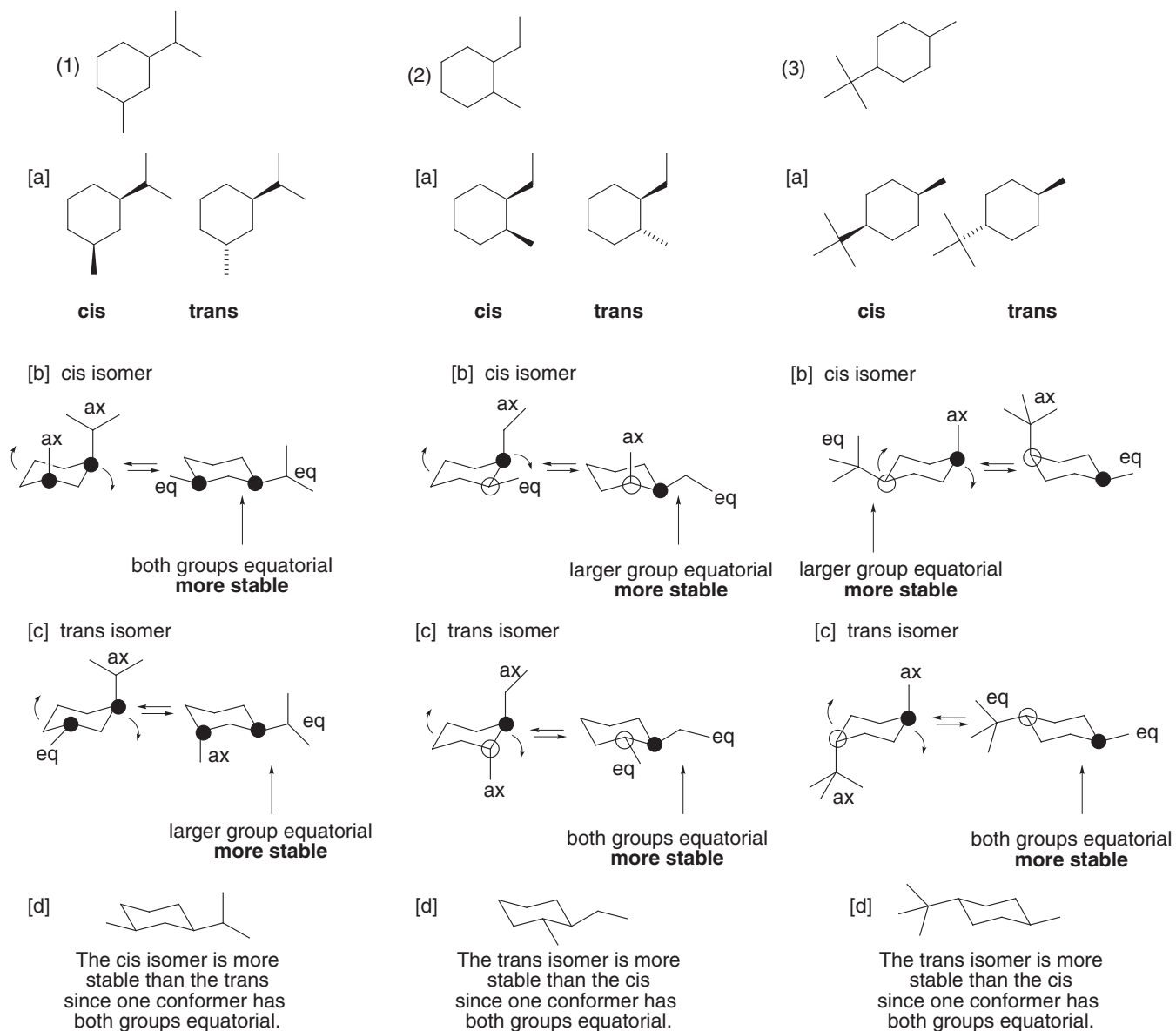
- I carboni *in alto* diventano carboni *in basso*, e i legami assiali diventano legami equatoriali.
- I legami assiali diventano equatoriali, ma i legami *in alto* rimangono *in alto*; cioè un legame assiale *in alto* diventa un legame equatoriale *in alto*.
- Il conformero con i gruppi più ingombranti in posizione equatoriale è più stabile ed è presente in maggior concentrazione all'equilibrio.



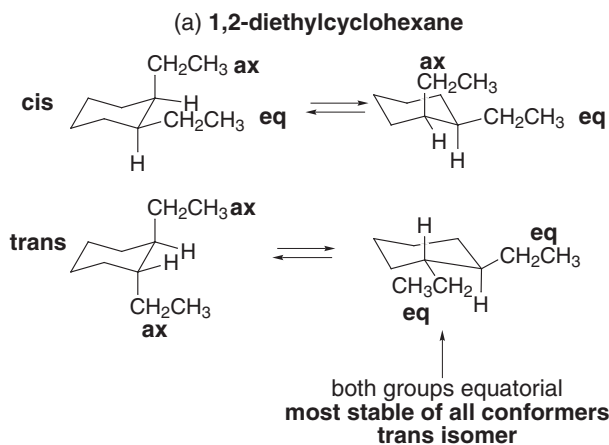
4.44



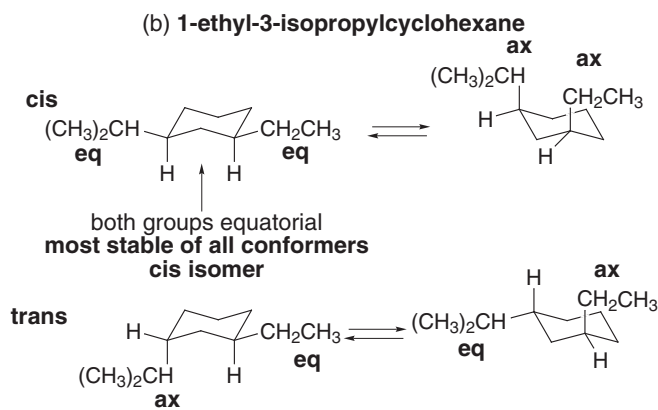
4.45 Un **isomero cis** ha due gruppi dalla **stessa parte** dell'anello. I due gruppi possono essere disegnati entrambi su sia entrambi giù. Viene rappresentata solo una possibilità. Un **isomero trans** ha un gruppo su una parte dell'anello ed uno dalla parte opposta. Ciascun gruppo può essere disegnato da ciascun lato. Viene rappresentata solo una possibilità.



4.46 Confrontare gli isomeri disegnandoli nella conformazione a sedia. I sostituenti equatoriali sono più stabili. Confrontare le definizioni del problema 4.53.



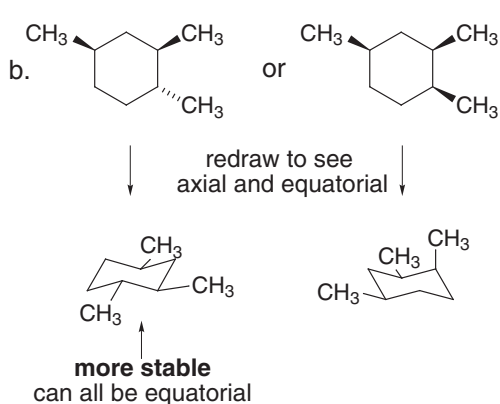
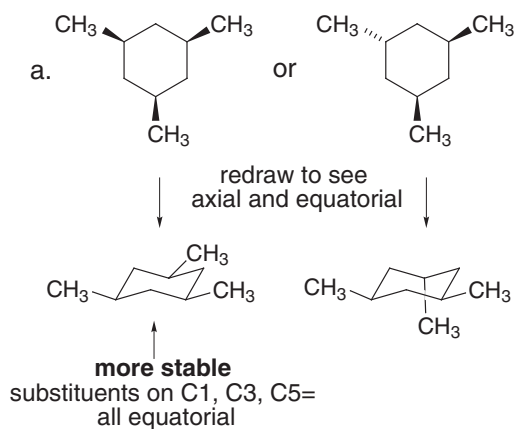
The trans isomer is more stable than the cis isomer because its more stable conformer has two groups equatorial.



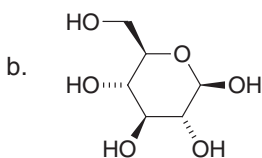
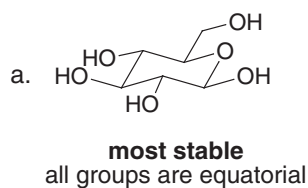
The cis isomer is more stable than the trans isomer because its more stable conformer has two groups equatorial.

4.47

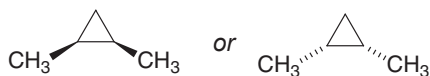
Only the more stable conformer of each compound is drawn.



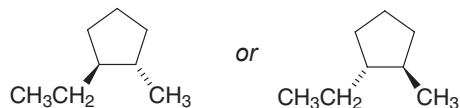
4.48



4.49 I cunei indicano gruppi “sopra” alla pagina, e i trattini sono “sotto” dietro alla pagina.
I gruppi cis sono dalla stessa parte dell’anello, i gruppi trans da parti opposte.

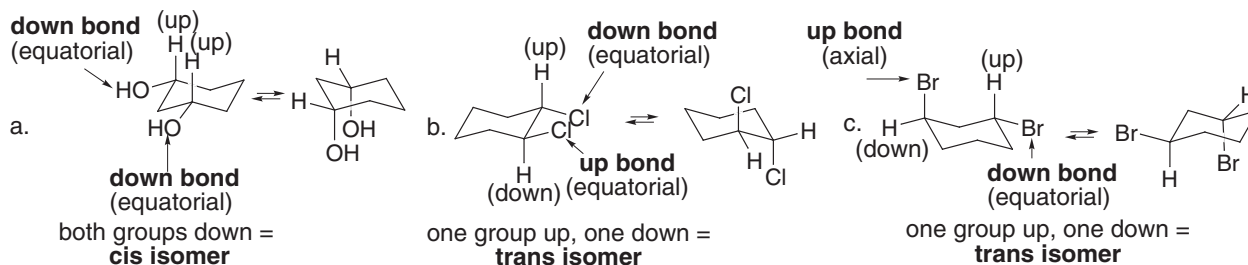
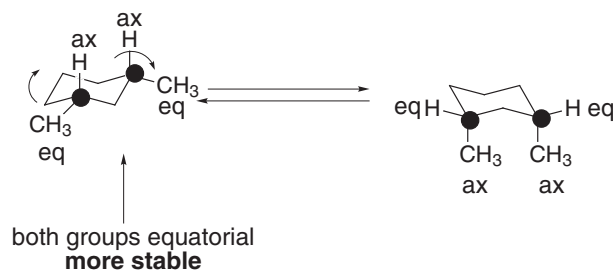
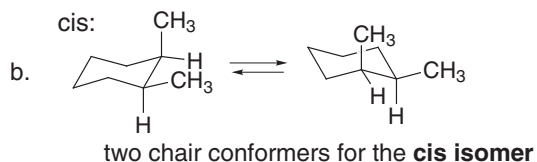
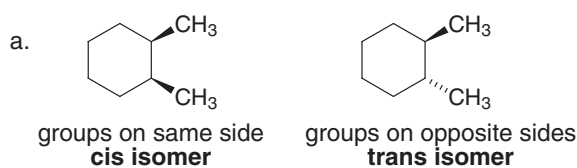
cis-1,2-dimethylcyclopropane

cis = same side of the ring
both groups on wedges or
both on dashes

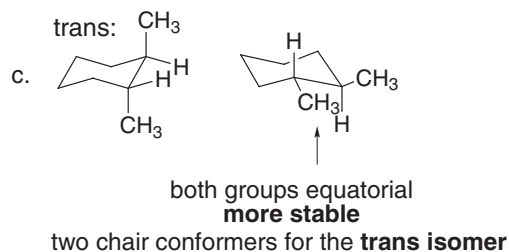
trans-1-ethyl-2-methylcyclopentane

trans = opposite sides of the ring
one group on a wedge,
one group on a dash

4.50 Per classificare un composto come isomero cis o trans, **classificare ogni gruppo diverso dall'idrogeno come su o giù. Gruppi dalla stessa parte = isomero cis, gruppi da parti opposte = isomero trans.**

**4.51****4.52**

Same stability since they are identical groups with one equatorial, one axial.



d. The **trans isomer is more stable** because it can have both methyl groups in the more roomy **equatorial** position.

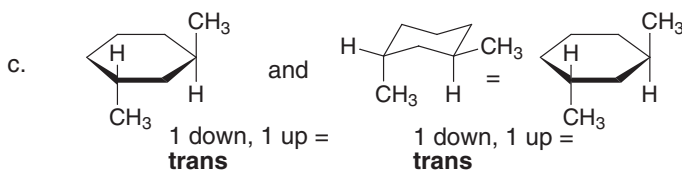
4.53



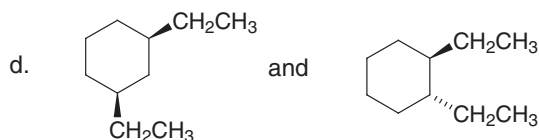
same molecular formula C_4H_8
different connectivity
constitutional isomers



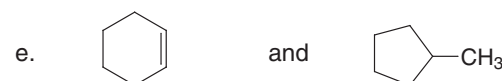
different arrangement in three dimensions
stereoisomers



same arrangement in three dimensions
identical



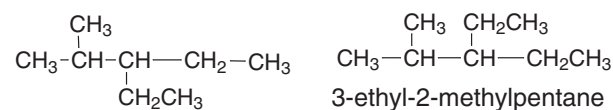
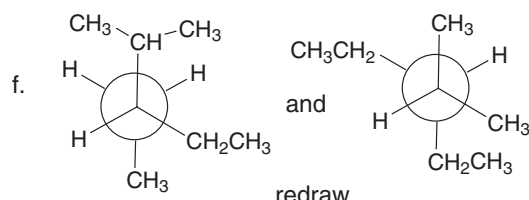
same molecular formula $C_{10}H_{20}$
different connectivity
constitutional isomers



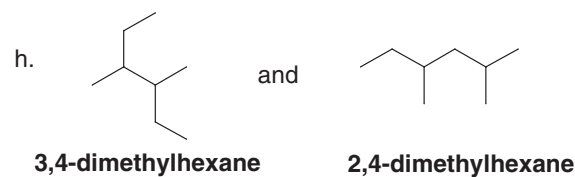
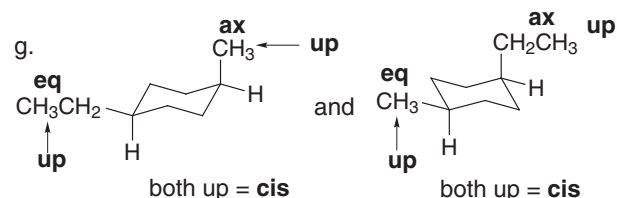
molecular formula: C_6H_{10}

molecular formula: C_6H_{12}

different molecular formulas
not isomers



same molecular formula
same name
identical molecules



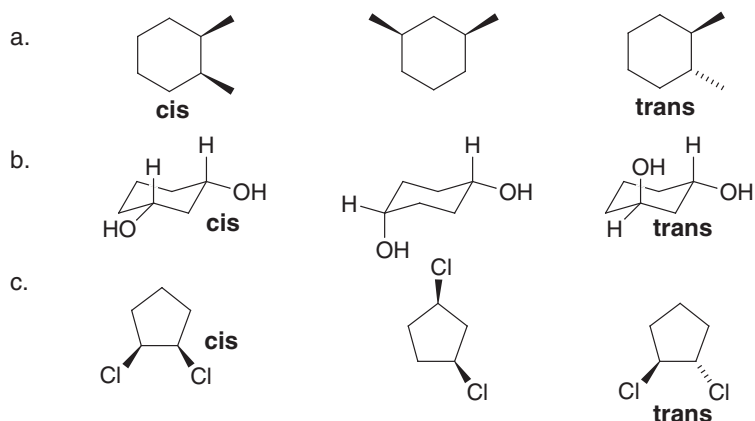
same molecular formula C_8H_{18}
different IUPAC names
constitutional isomers

4.54

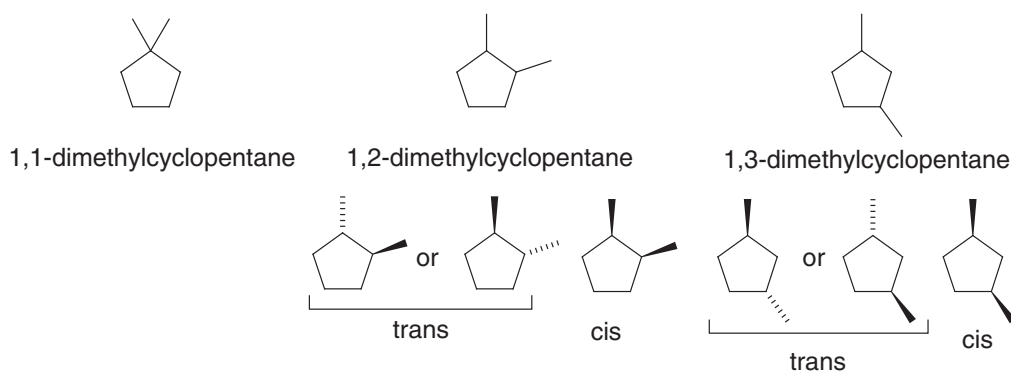
One possibility:

constitutional isomer

stereoisomer

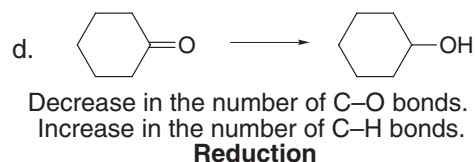
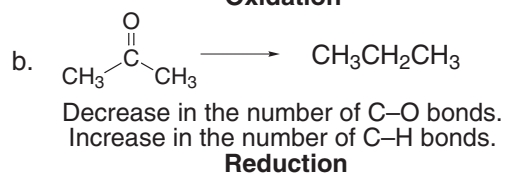
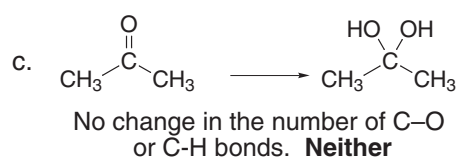
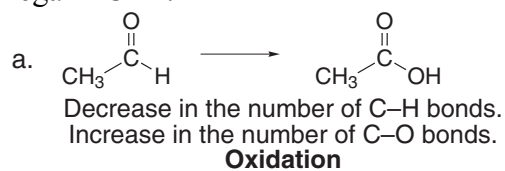


4.55

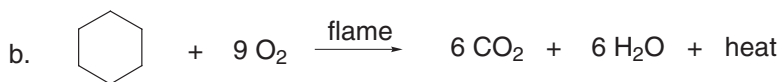
Three constitutional isomers of C_7H_{14} :

4.56 *L'ossidazione* provoca un *aumento* del numero di legami C–Z, o in una *diminuzione* del numero di legami C–H.

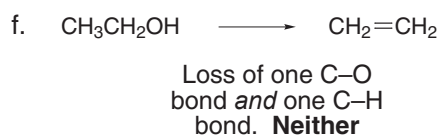
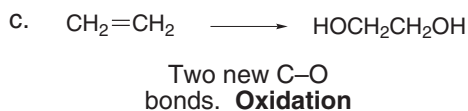
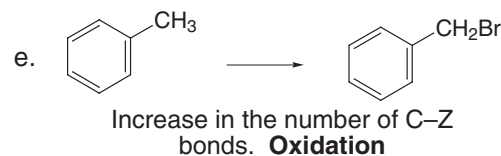
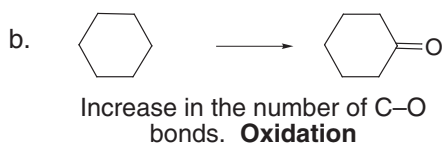
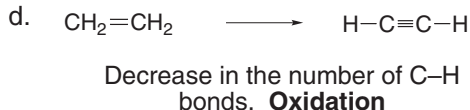
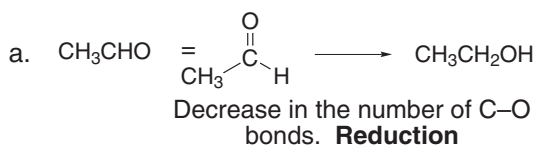
La riduzione provoca una *diminuzione* del numero di legami C–Z, o un *aumento* del numero di legami C–H.



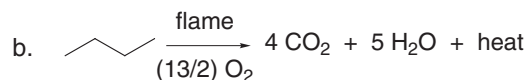
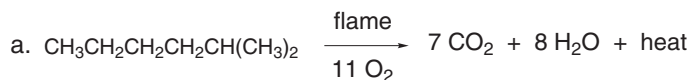
4.57 I prodotti della combustione di un idrocarburo sono sempre gli stessi: CO_2 e H_2O .



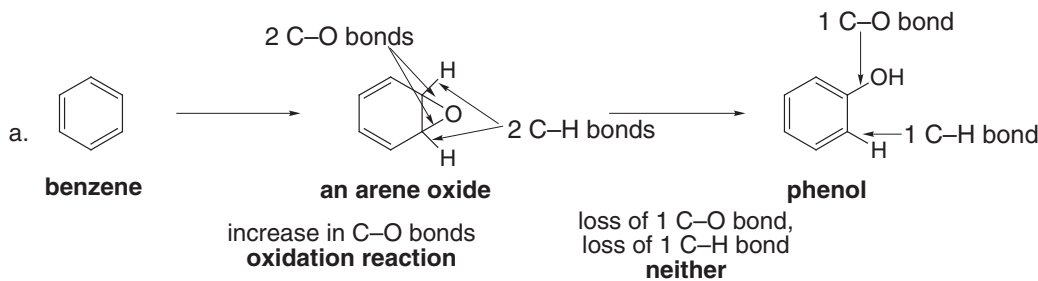
4.58 Usare le definizioni della risposta 4.56 per classificare le reazioni.



4.59 Usare la regola della risposta 4.57.

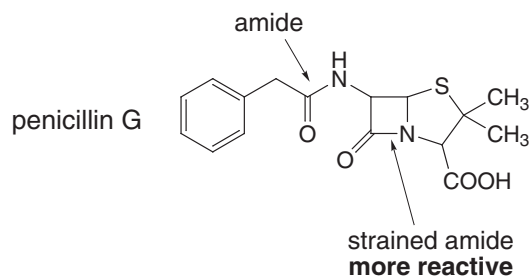


4.60

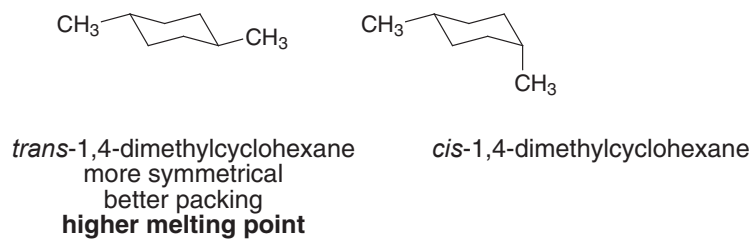


b. Phenol is more water soluble than benzene because it is **polar (contains an O–H group) and can hydrogen bond with water**, whereas benzene is nonpolar and cannot hydrogen bond.

4.61 L'ammide del ciclo a quattro termini ha angoli di legame a 90° che originano tensione angolare, e quindi è più reattiva.

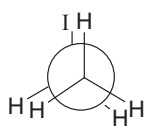
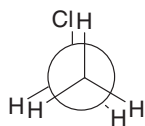


4.62

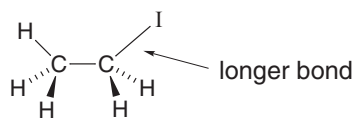
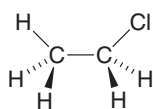


4.63

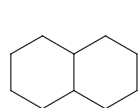
Example:



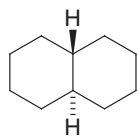
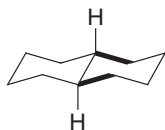
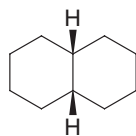
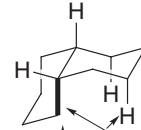
Although I is a much bigger atom than Cl, the C–I bond is also much longer than the C–Cl bond. As a result the eclipsing interaction of the H and I atoms is not very much different from the H,Cl eclipsing interaction in magnitude.



4.64



decalin

*trans*-decalin*trans**cis*-decalin*cis*

The *trans* isomer is more stable since the carbon groups at the ring junction are both in the favorable equatorial position.

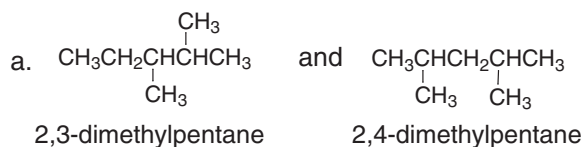
This bond is axial, creating unfavorable 1,3-diaxial interactions.

Capitolo 5

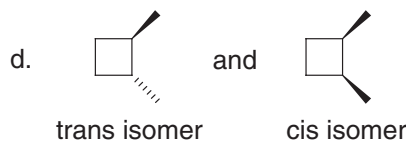
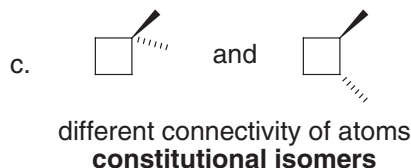
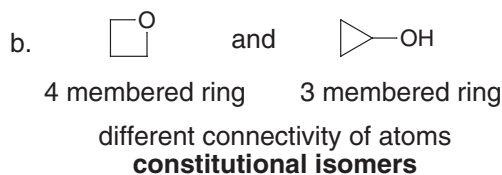
5.1

5.2 Gli isomeri costituzionali hanno atomi legati d atomi diversi.

Gli stereoisomeri differiscono nella disposizione tridimensionale degli atomi.

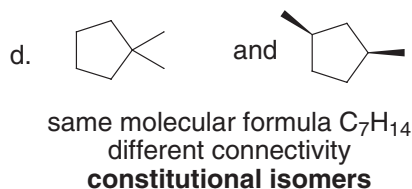
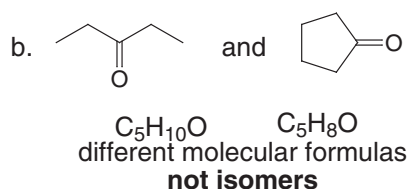
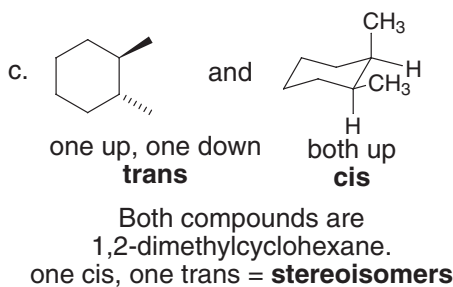
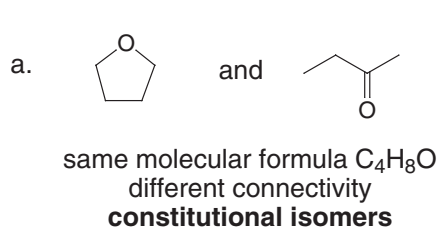


different connectivity of atoms
 different names
constitutional isomers

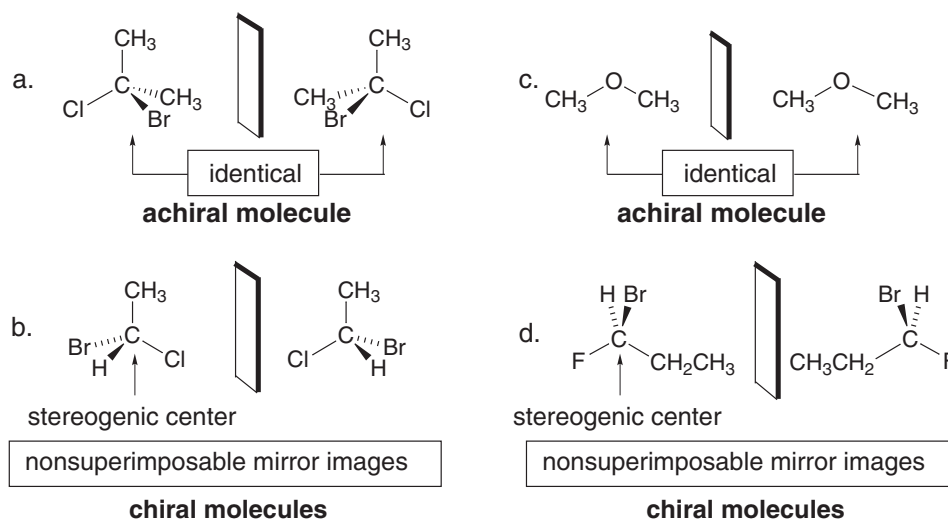


Both are 1,2-dimethylcyclobutane,
 but the CH_3 groups are oriented differently.
stereoisomers

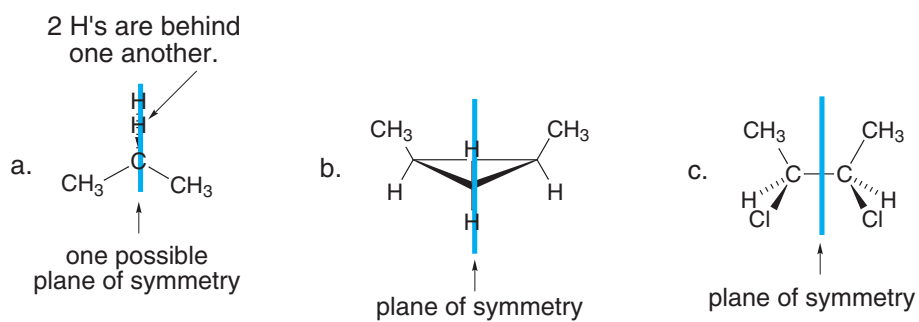
5.3 Usare le definizioni della risposta 5.1.



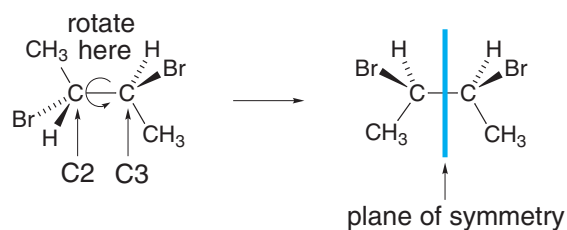
5.4 Disegnare l'immagine speculare di ogni molecola disegnando un piano di simmetria e disegnare la molecola riflessa. **Una molecola chirale è una molecola che non è sovrapponibile alla sua immagine speculare.** Una molecola con un centro stereogenico è sempre chirale. Una molecola con nessun centro stereogenico non è chirale (in generale).



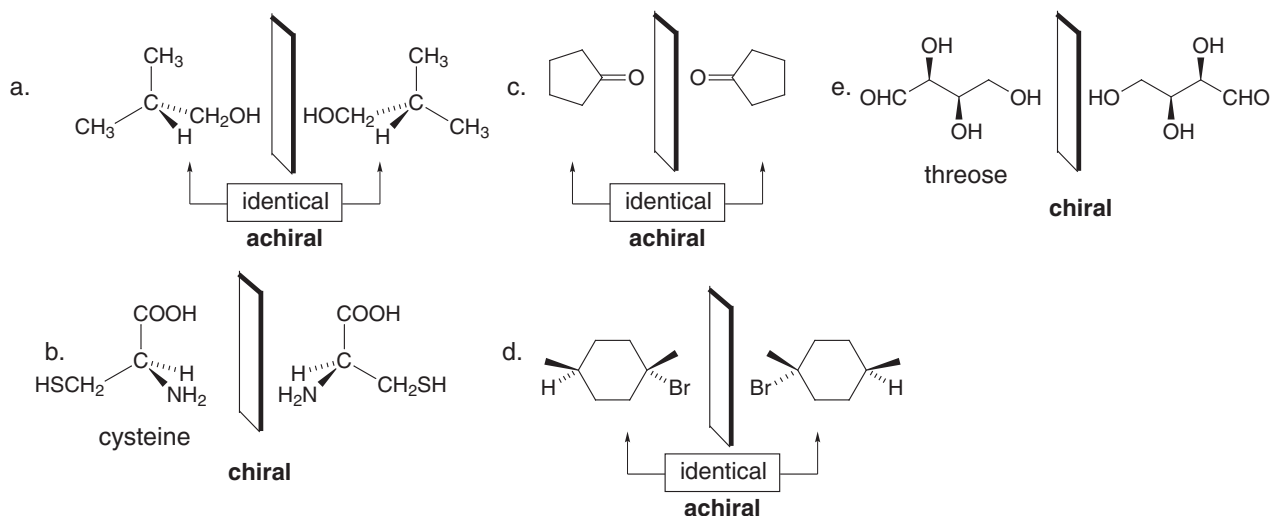
5.5 Il piano di simmetria divide la molecola in due metà identiche.



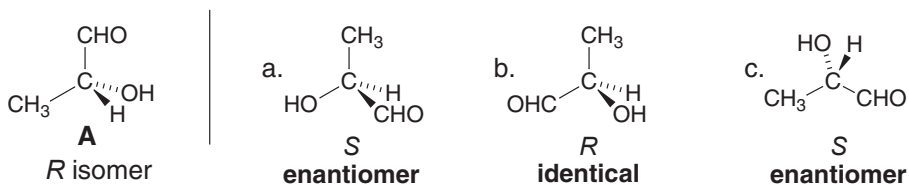
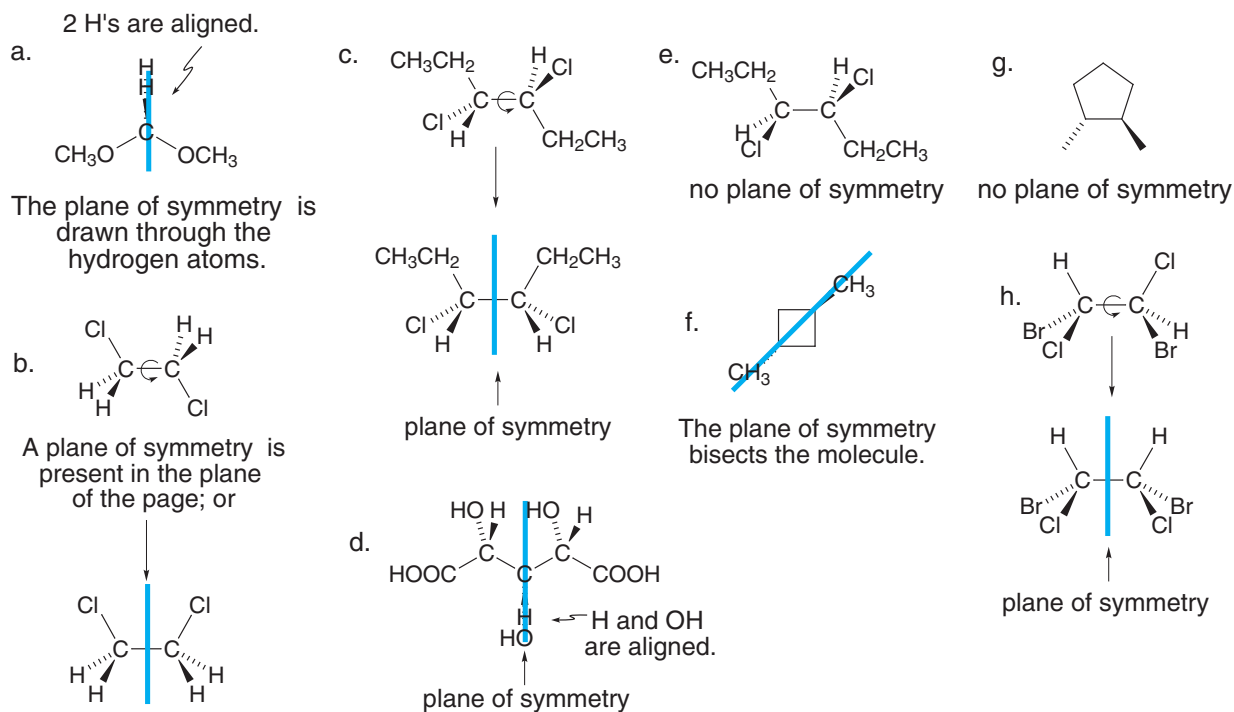
5.6 Ruotare attorno al legame C–C centrale così che i gruppi Br siano eclissati.

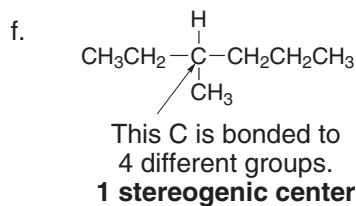
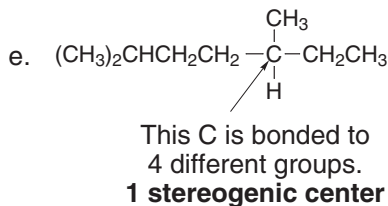
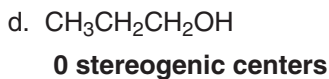
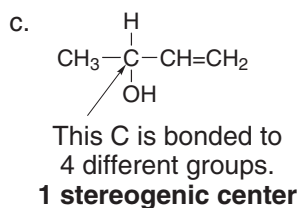
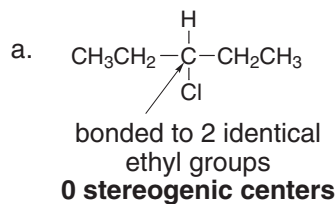
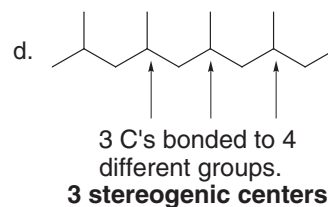
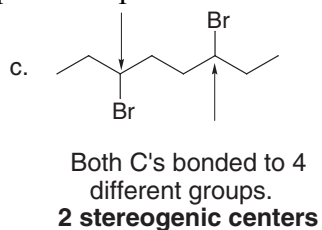
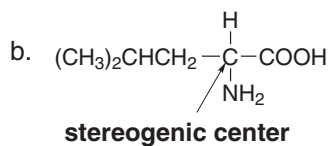
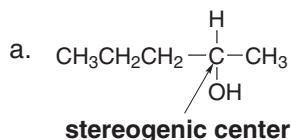
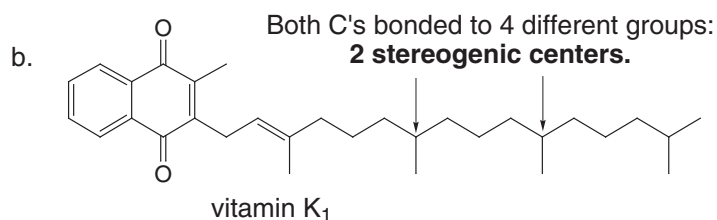
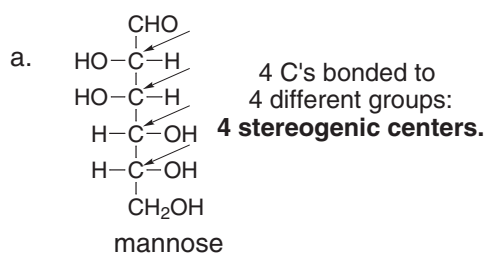


5.6 Usare le definizioni della risposta 5.3.

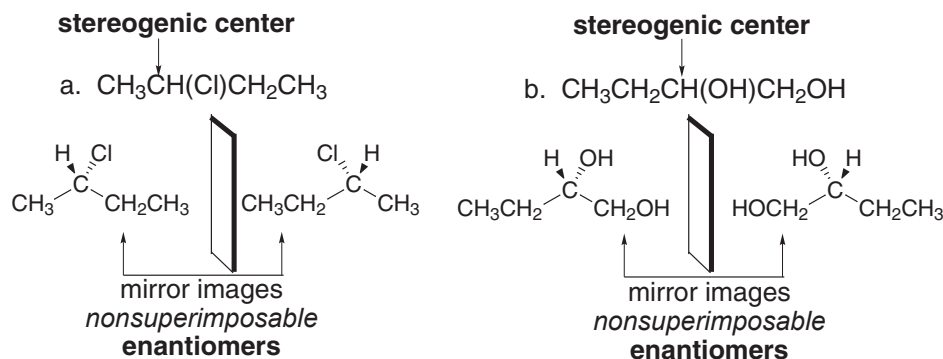


5.7

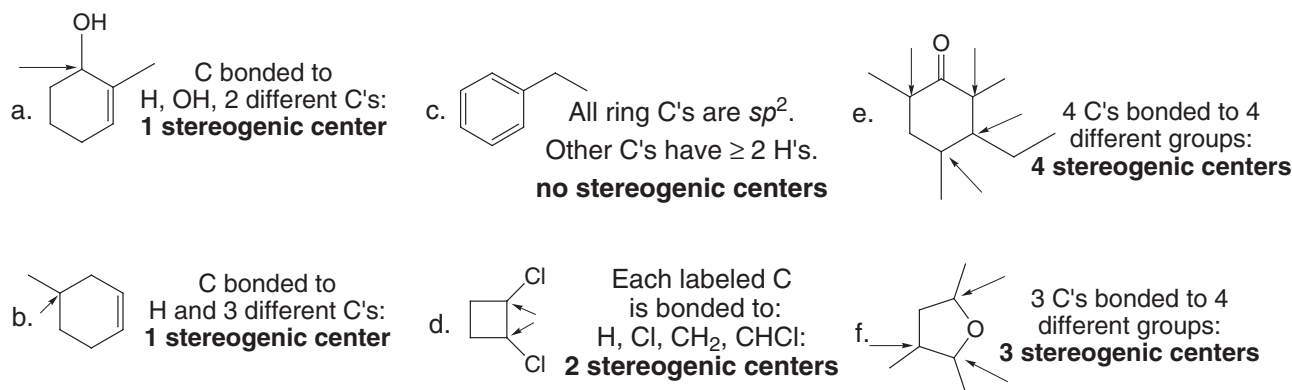
5.8 Il piano di simmetria divide la molecola in **due metà identiche**.

5.9 Per individuare un centro stereogenico, non considerare:Tutti i carboni con 2 o più H, tutti gli atomi ibridi sp e sp^2 , e tutti gli eteroatomi.Successivamente valutare tutti gli atomi rimanenti: uno stereocentro tetraedrico presenta un carbonio legato a **quattro gruppi differenti**.**5.10** Usare i suggerimenti della risposta 5.6 per individuare i centri stereogenici.**5.11** Usare i suggerimenti della risposta 5.6 per individuare i centri stereogenici.

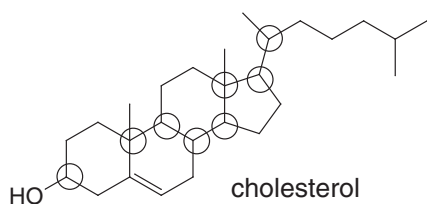
5.12 Individuare il C legato a 4 gruppi differenti in ogni molecola. Al centro stereogenico, disegnare due legami nel piano della pagina, uno verso l'osservatore (un cuneo) ed uno dietro (tratteggiato). Successivamente disegnare l'immagine speculare (enantiomero).



5.13 Usare i suggerimenti della risposta 5.6 per individuare i centri stereogenici..



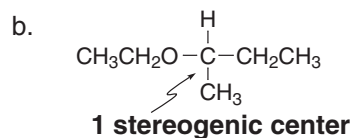
5.14



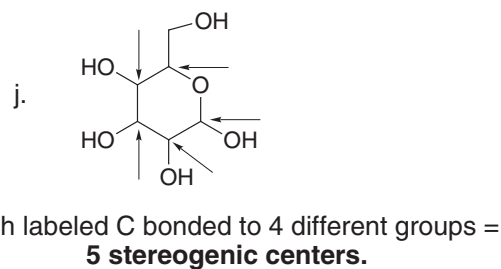
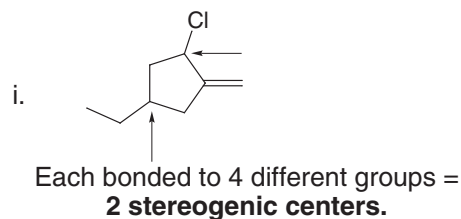
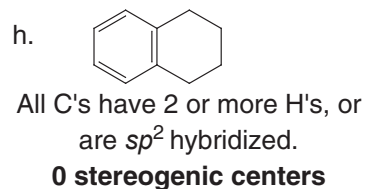
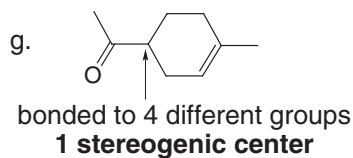
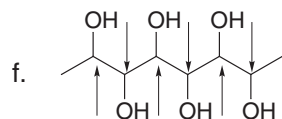
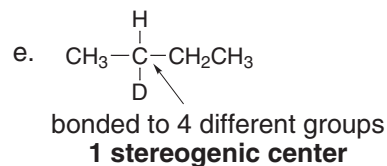
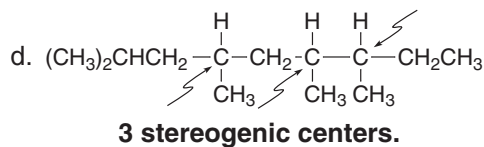
All stereogenic C's are circled. Each C is sp^3 hybridized and bonded to 4 different groups.

5.15 Usare i suggerimenti della risposta 5.9 per assegnare i centri stereogenici.

- a. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$
All C's have 2 or more H's.
0 stereogenic centers

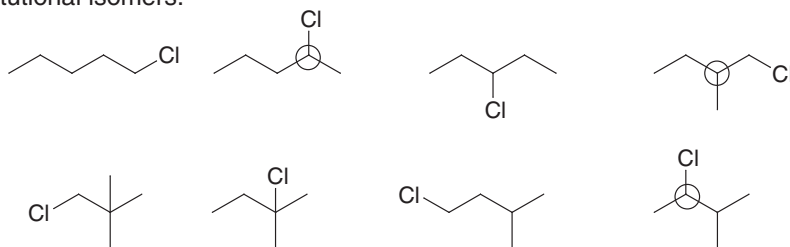


- c. $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{CHCH}(\text{OH})\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$
0 stereogenic centers

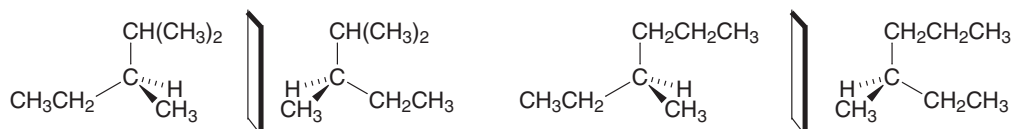


5.16 I centri stereogenici sono cerchiati.

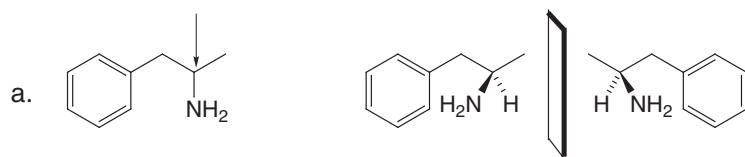
Eight constitutional isomers:



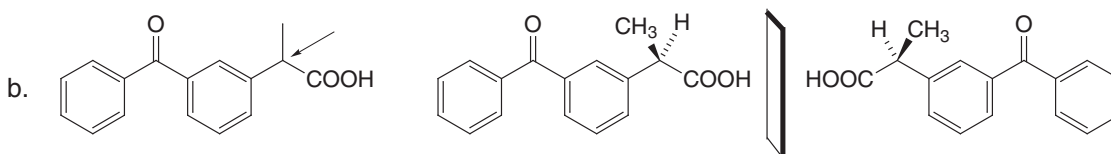
5.17



5.18

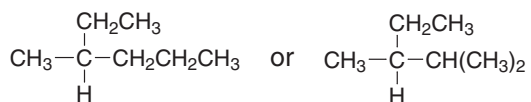


amphetamine

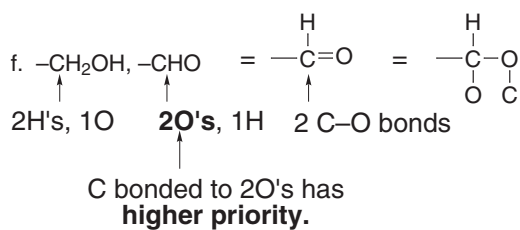
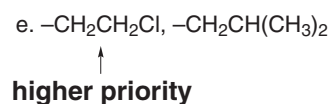
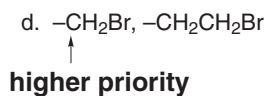
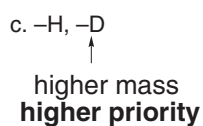
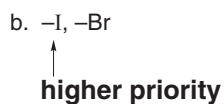
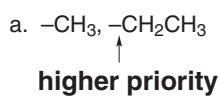


ketoprofen

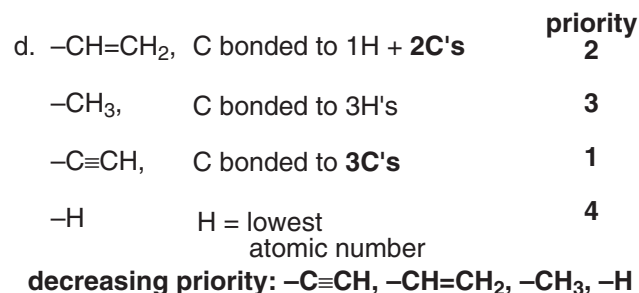
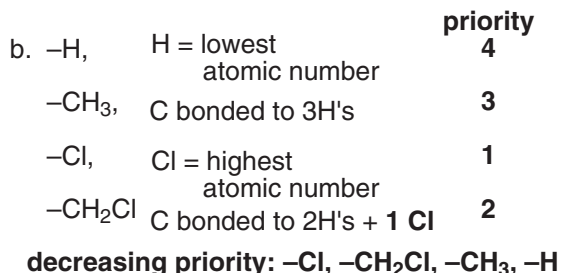
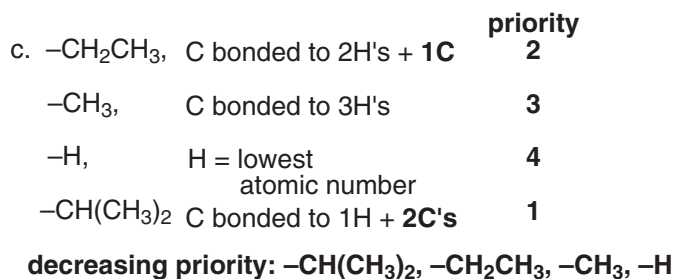
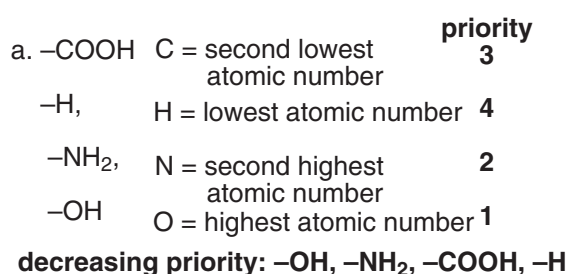
5.19



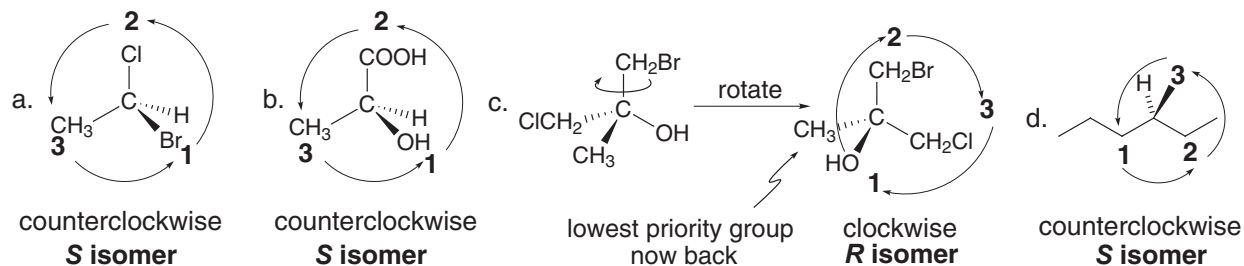
5.20 Assegnare la priorità attraverso i numeri atomici: atomi con maggior numero atomico hanno priorità maggiore. Se due atomi sono uguali, osservare gli atomi a cui sono legati ed assegnare la priorità in base al numero atomico di questi atomi.



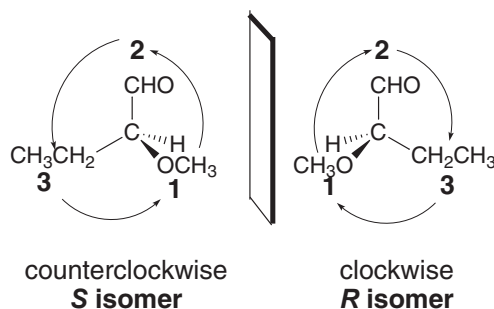
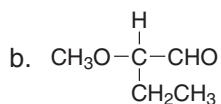
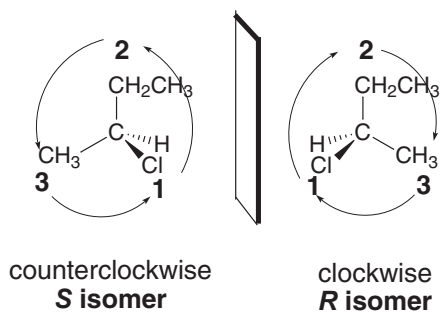
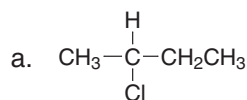
5.21 Ordinare secondo la priorità decrescente. Minor numero atomico = minore priorità.

Lowest priority = 4, Highest priority = 1

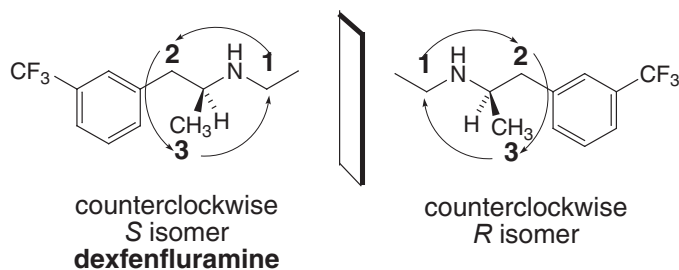
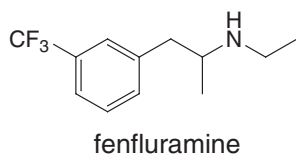
5.22 Per assegnare *R* o *S* ad una molecola, prima ordinare i gruppi. Il gruppo a priorità più bassa deve essere orientato dietro la pagina. Se tracciando un cerchio da (1) → (2) → (3), si procede in direzione oraria, il centro stereogenico sarà chiamato *R*; se il cerchio è in direzione antioraria, è chiamato *S*.



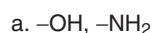
5.23



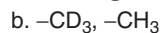
5.24



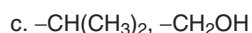
5.25 Assegnare la priorità in base alle regole della risposta 5.20.



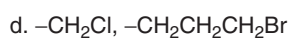
↑
higher atomic number
higher priority



↑
D higher mass than H
higher priority



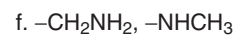
↑
C bonded to O
higher priority



↑
C bonded to Cl
higher priority

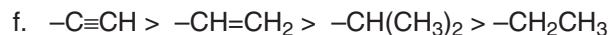
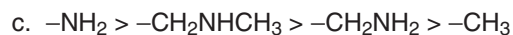
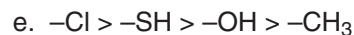
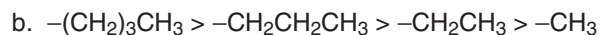
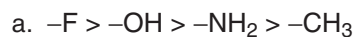


↑
C has 3 bonds to O
higher priority

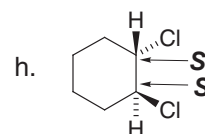
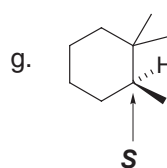
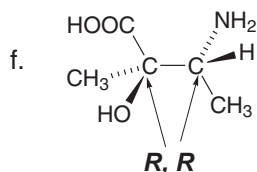
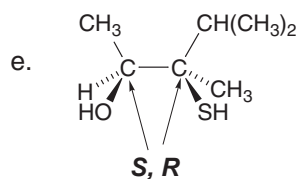
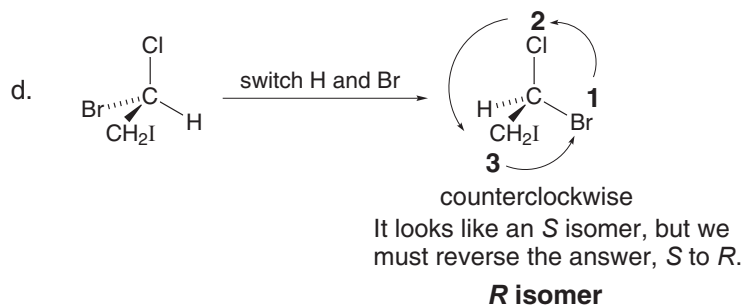
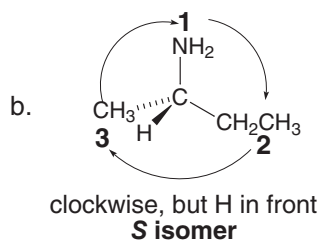
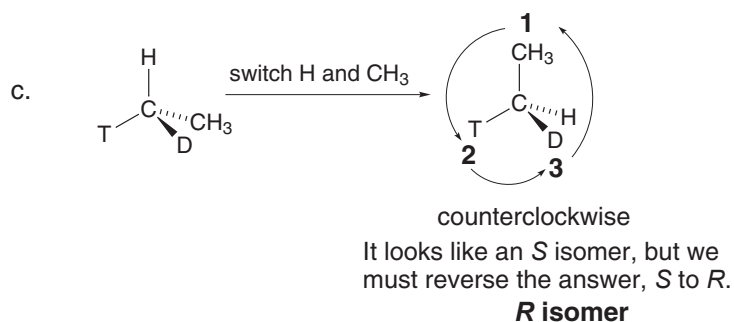
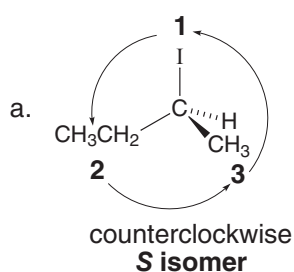


↑
higher atomic number
higher priority

5.26 Assegnare la priorità in base alle regole della risposta 5.20.

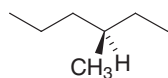


5.27 Usare le regole della risposta 5.22 per assegnare R o S ad ogni centro stereogenico.

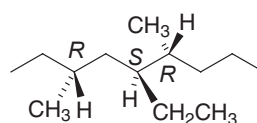


5.28

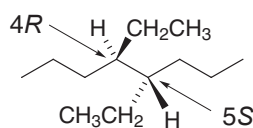
a. (3R)-3-methylhexane



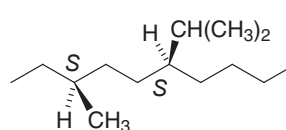
c. (3R,5S,6R)-5-ethyl-3,6-dimethylnonane



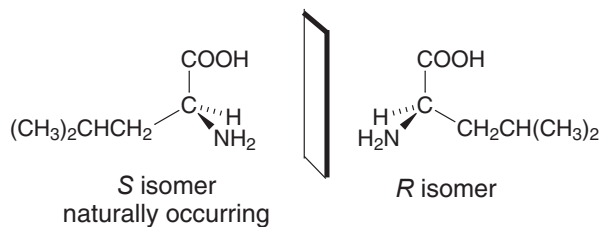
b. (4R,5S)-4,5-diethyloctane



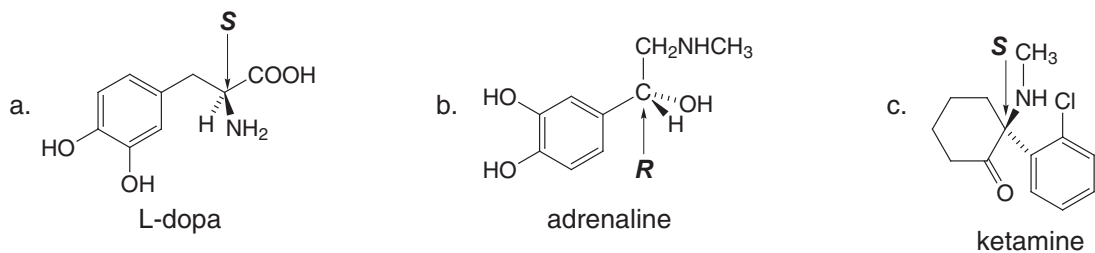
d. (3S,6S)-6-isopropyl-3-methyldecane



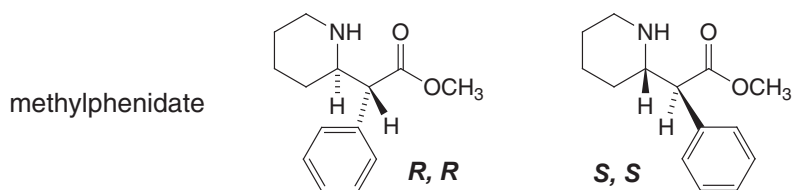
5.29 I due enantiomeri dell'ammino acido leucina.



5.30



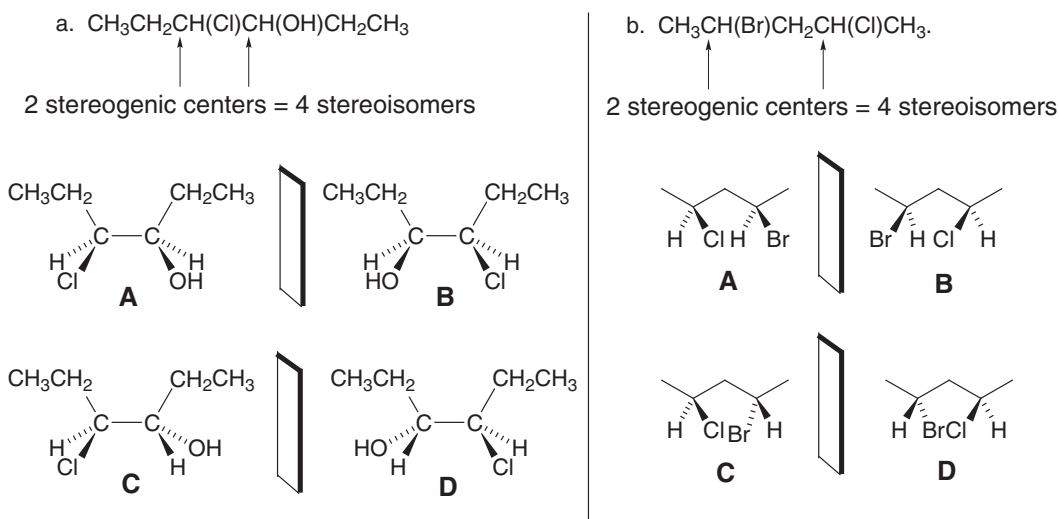
5.31

5.32 Massimo numero di stereoisomeri = 2^n dove n = numero di centri stereogenici.

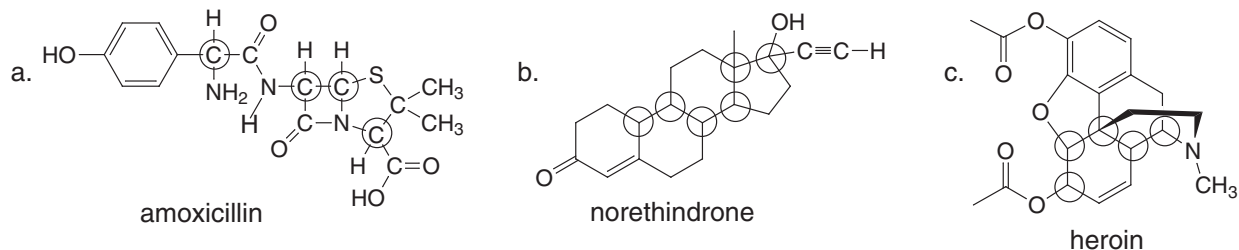
3 stereogenic centers
 $2^3 = 8$ stereoisomers

8 stereogenic centers
 $2^8 = 256$ stereoisomers

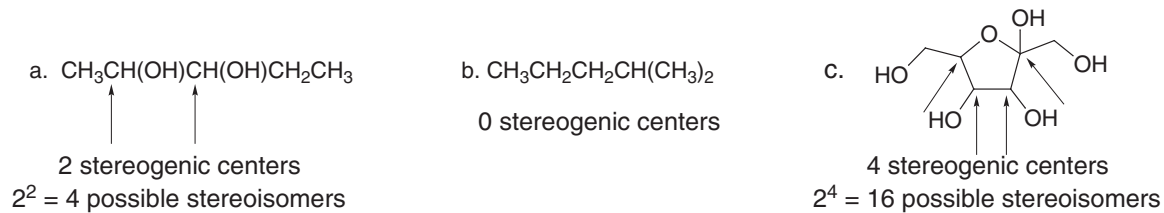
5.33



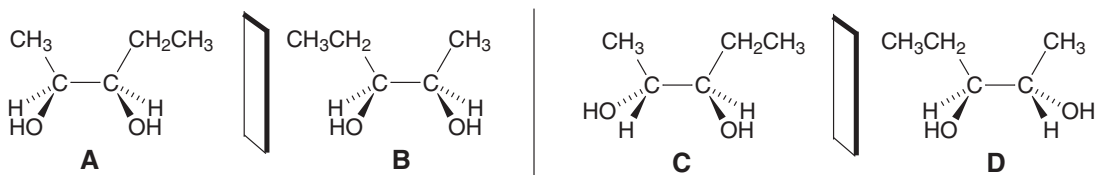
5.34



5.35

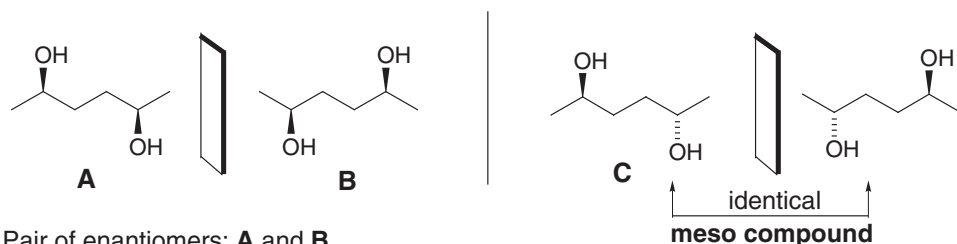
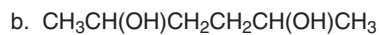


5.36



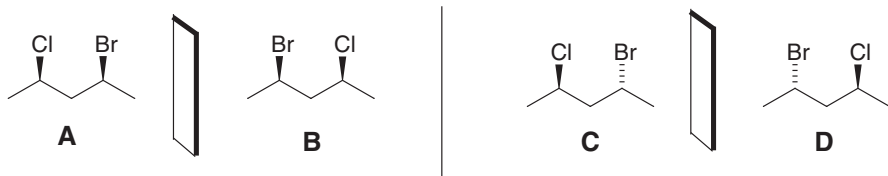
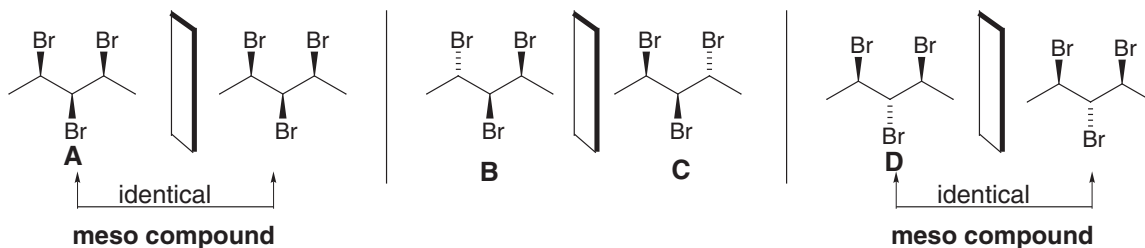
Pairs of enantiomers: **A** and **B**, **C** and **D**.

Pairs of diastereomers: **A** and **C**, **A** and **D**, **B** and **C**, **B** and **D**.

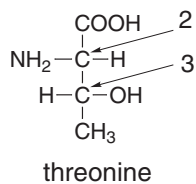


Pair of enantiomers: **A** and **B**.

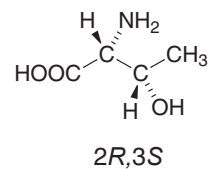
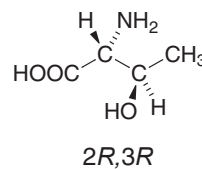
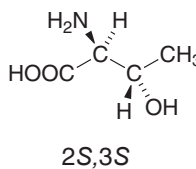
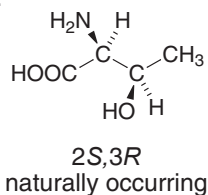
Pairs of diastereomers: **A** and **C**, **B** and **C**.

Pairs of enantiomers: **A** and **B**, **C** and **D**.Pairs of diastereomers: **A** and **C**, **A** and **D**, **B** and **C**, **B** and **D**.Pair of enantiomers: **B** and **C**.Pairs of diastereomers: **A** and **B**, **A** and **C**, **A** and **D**, **B** and **D**, **C** and **D****5.37**

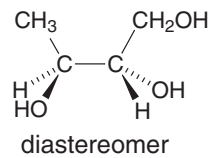
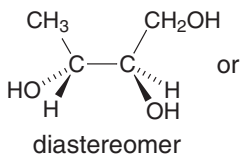
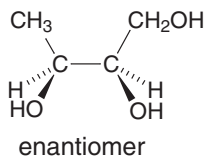
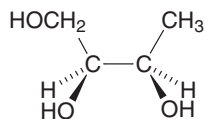
a.



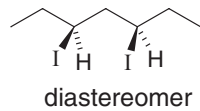
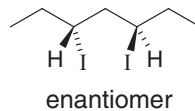
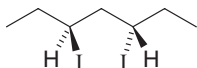
b. and c.

**5.38**

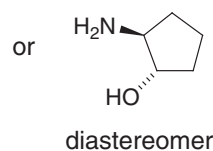
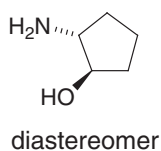
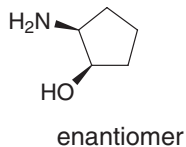
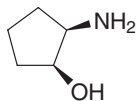
a.



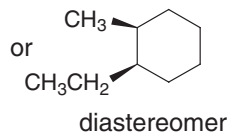
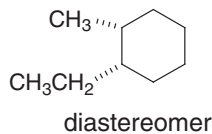
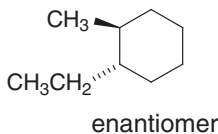
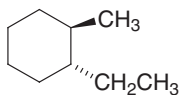
b.



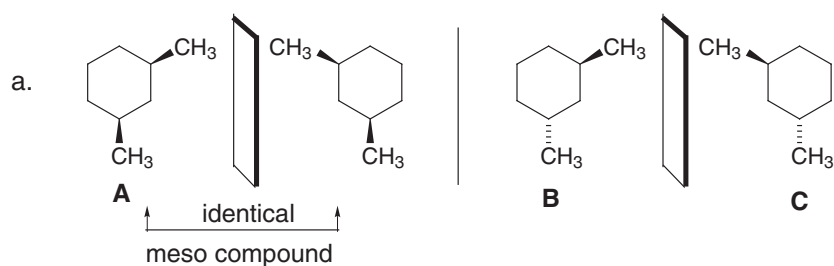
c.



d.

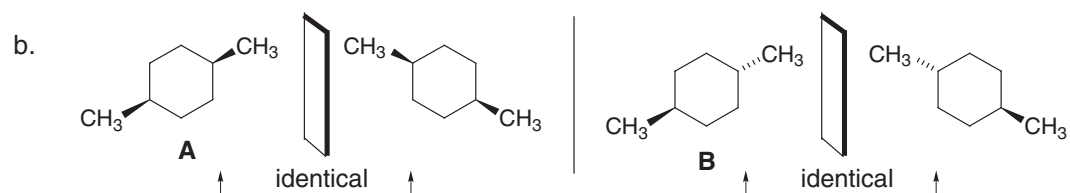


5.39

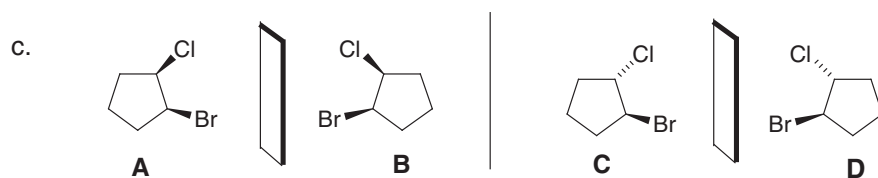


Pair of enantiomers: **B** and **C**.

Pairs of diastereomers: **A** and **B**, **A** and **C**.



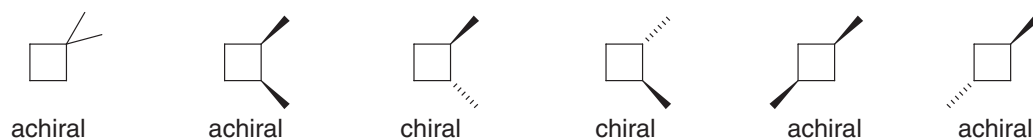
Pair of diastereomers: **A** and **B**.



Pairs of enantiomers: **A** and **B**, **C** and **D**.

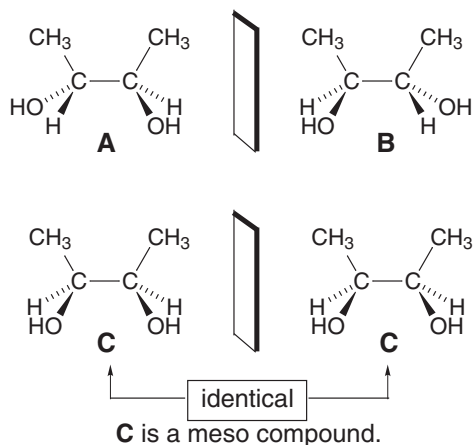
Pairs of diastereomers: **A** and **C**, **A** and **D**, **B** and **C**, **B** and **D**.

5.40



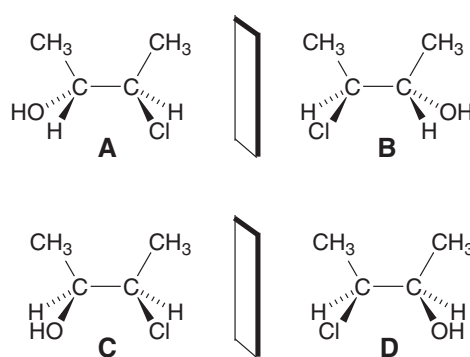
5.41

a. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}(\text{OH})\text{CH}(\text{OH})\text{CH}_3$
 2 stereogenic centers = 4 possible stereoisomers



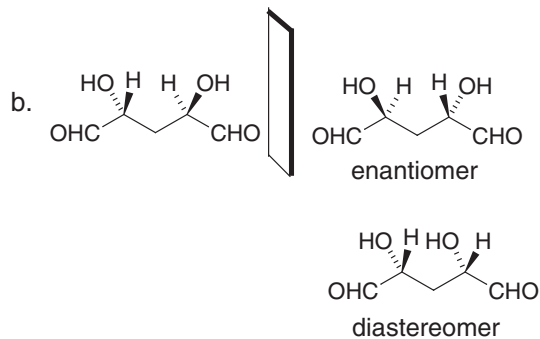
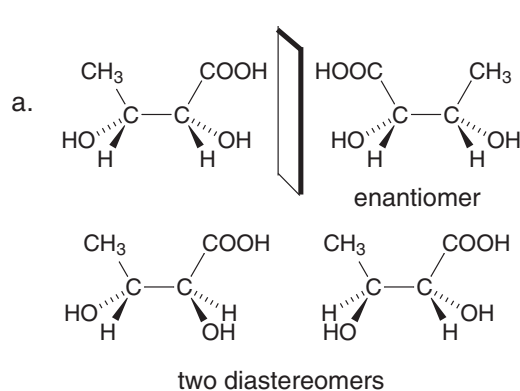
C is a meso compound.
 A and B are enantiomers.
 Pairs of diastereomers: A and C, B and C.

b. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}(\text{OH})\text{CH}(\text{Cl})\text{CH}_3$
 2 stereogenic centers = 4 possible stereoisomers

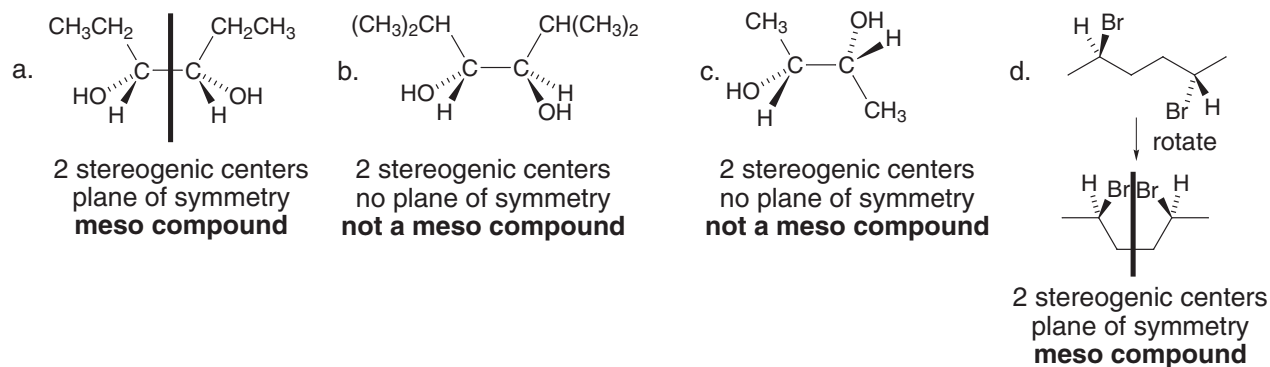


Pairs of enantiomers: A and B, C and D.
 Pairs of diastereomers: A and C, A and D, B and C, B and D.

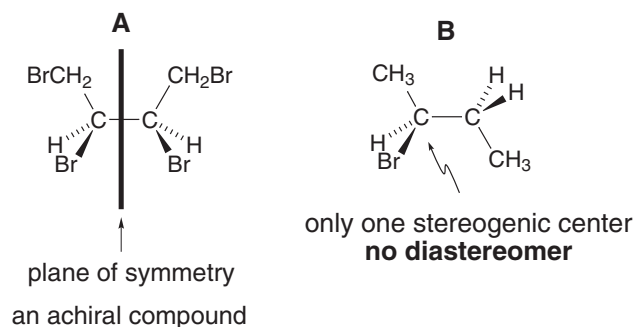
5.42 Un **enantiomero** è uno stereoisomero che non è sovrapponibile alla sua immagine speculare. Un **diastereomero** è uno stereoisomero che non è un'immagine speculare.



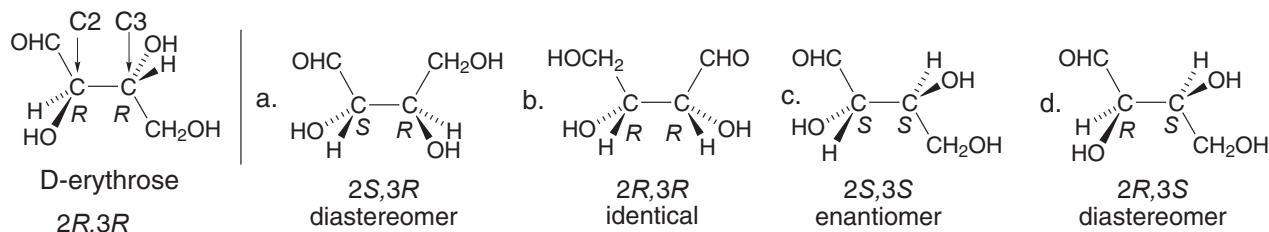
5.43 Un **composto meso** deve avere almeno 2 centri stereogenici ed un piano di simmetria. E' possibile che si debba fare una rotazione attorno al legame C–C per individuare il piano di simmetria chiaramente.



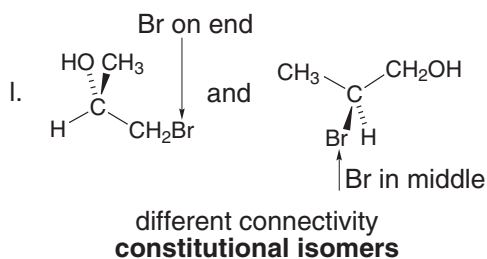
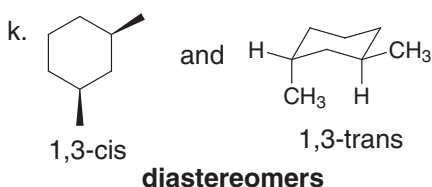
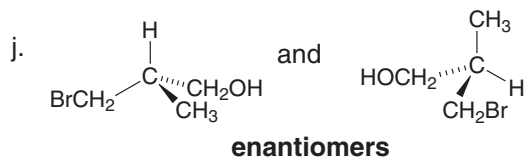
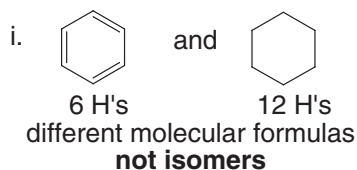
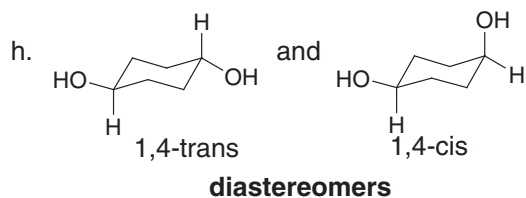
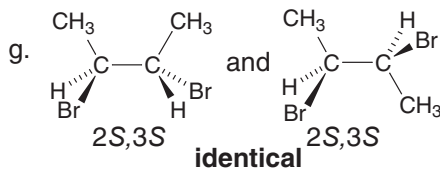
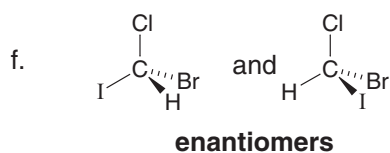
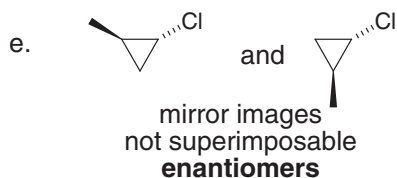
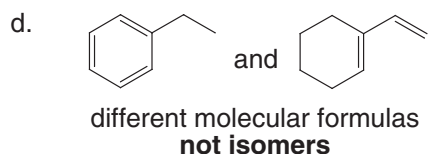
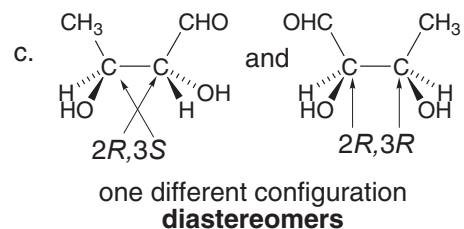
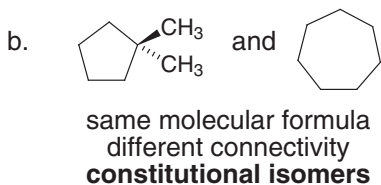
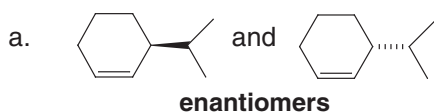
5.44 **A** presenta due centri stereogenici ed un piano di simmetria, che lo rende un composto meso achirale. Poiché è sovrapponibile alla sua immagine speculare, non presenta enantiomeri. **B** presenta un solo centro stereogenico. I suoi due possibili stereoisomeri sono una coppia di enantiomeri, ma non diastereomeri.



5.45



5.46



5.47 L' enantiomero deve avere configurazioni *R,S* esattamente opposte. Diastereomeri con due centri stereogenici hanno un centro con configurazione uguale ed uno diverso.

If a compound is ***R,S***:

Its enantiomer is: ***S,R*** ← Exact opposite: *R* and *S* interchanged.

Its diastereomers are: ***R,R* and *S,S*** ← One designation remains the same, the other changes.

5.48 L' enantiomero deve avere le configurazioni *R,S* esattamente opposte. Per i diastereomeri, almeno una delle configurazioni *R,S* è la stessa, ma non tutte.

- a. (2*R*,3*S*)-2,3-hexanediol and (2*R*,3*R*)-2,3-hexanediol

One changes; one remains the same:

diastereomers

- b. (2*R*,3*R*)-2,3-hexanediol and (2*S*,3*S*)-2,3-hexanediol

Both *R*'s change to *S*'s:

enantiomers

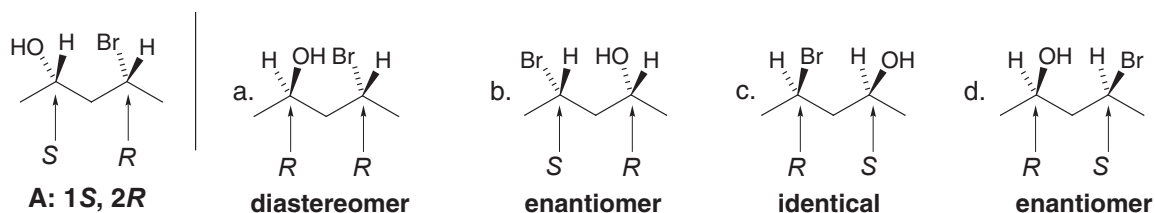
- c. (2*R*,3*S*,4*R*)-2,3,4-hexanetriol and (2*S*,3*R*,4*R*)-2,3,4-hexanetriol

Two change; one remains the same:

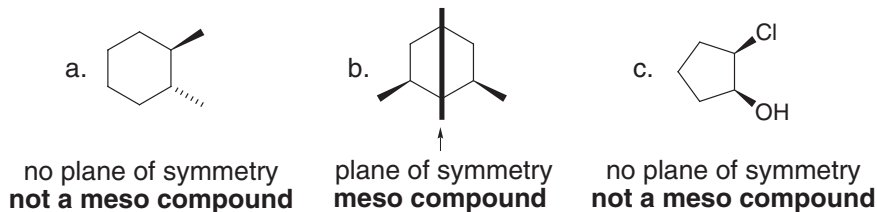
diastereomers

5.49 Per decidere la relazione fra i composti, indicare tutti i centri stereogenici.

- Molecole **identiche** avranno le stesse configurazioni *R,S*.
- Gli **enantiomeri** avranno configurazioni *R,S* opposte.
- I **diastereomeri** avranno almeno una configurazione *R,S* uguale, ma non tutte.



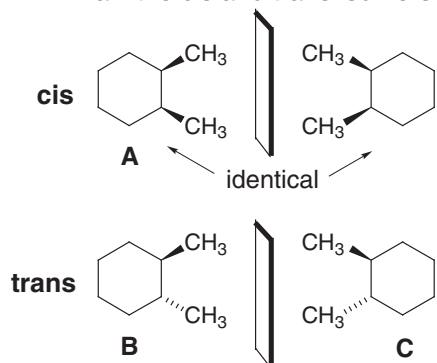
5.50 Tutti i composti meso avranno un piano di simmetria. Essi non possono avere un solo centro stereogenico.



5.51

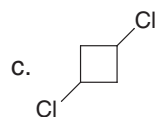


Draw the cis and trans isomers:

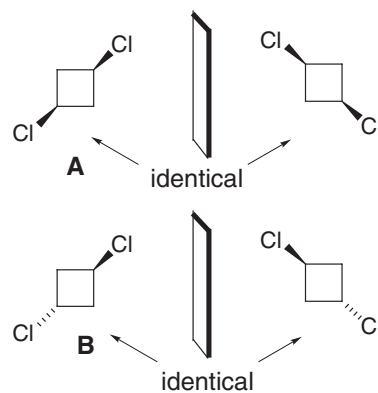


Pair of enantiomers: **B** and **C**.
Pairs of diastereomers: **A** and **B**, **A** and **D**.

Only 3 stereoisomers exist.

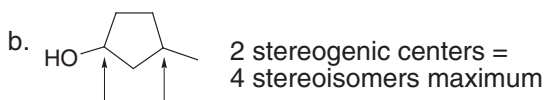


Draw the cis and trans isomers:

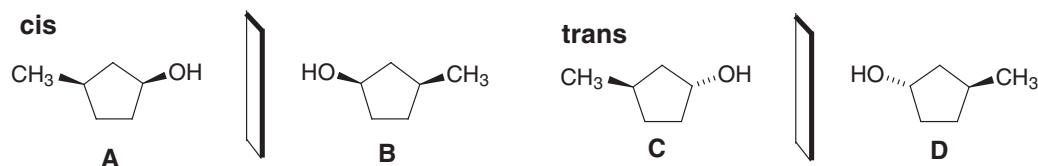


Pair of diastereomers: **A** and **B**.

Only 2 stereoisomers exist.



Draw the cis and trans isomers:

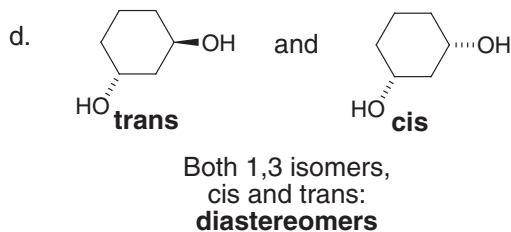
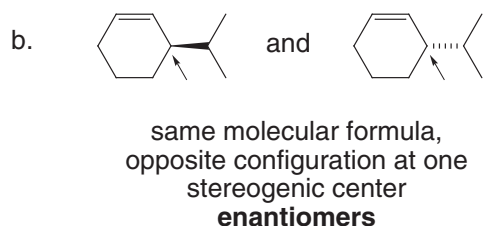
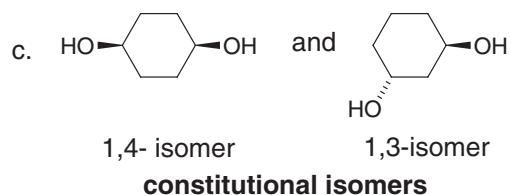
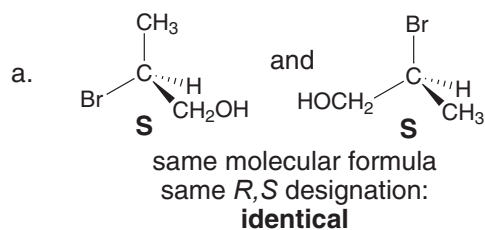


Pairs of enantiomers: **A** and **B**, **C** and **D**.
Pairs of diastereomers: **A** and **C**, **A** and **D**,
B and **C**, **B** and **D**.

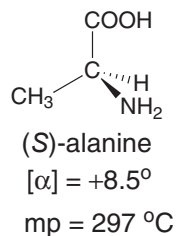
All 4 stereoisomers exist.

5.52 Quattro concetti:

- Gli **enantiomeri** sono isomeri che sono immagini speculari.
- I **diastereomeri** sono stereoisomeri che non sono immagini speculari.
- Gli **isomeri costituzionali** hanno la stessa formula molecolare ma gli atomi legati in maniera diversa.
- Gli **isomeri cis e trans** sono sempre diastereomeri.



5.53



- Mp = same as the *S* isomer
- The mp of a racemic mixture is often different from the melting point of the enantiomers.
- −8.5°, same as *S* but opposite sign
- 0°
- Solution of pure (*S*)-alanine: **optically active**
Equal mixture of (*R*) and (*S*)-alanine: **optically inactive**
75% (*S*) and 25% (*R*)-alanine: **optically active**

5.54

$$[\alpha] = \frac{\alpha}{l \times c}$$

α = observed rotation
l = length of tube (dm)
c = concentration (g/mL)

$$[\alpha] = \frac{10^\circ}{1\text{dm} \times (1\text{g}/10\text{mL})} = +100^\circ = \text{specific rotation}$$

5.55 Eccesso enantiomerico = ee = % di un enantiomero – % dell'altro enantiomero.

a. 95 – 5 = **90% ee**

b. 85 – 15 = **70% ee**

5.56

- 90% ee means 90% excess of **A**, and 10% racemic mixture of **A** and **B** (5% each).
Therefore, **95% A and 5% B**
- 99% ee means 99% excess of **A**, and 1% racemic mixture of **A** and **B** (0.5% each).
Therefore, **99.5% A and 0.5% B**.
- 60% ee means 60% excess of **A**, and 40% racemic mixture of **A** and **B** (20% each).
Therefore, **80% A and 20% B**

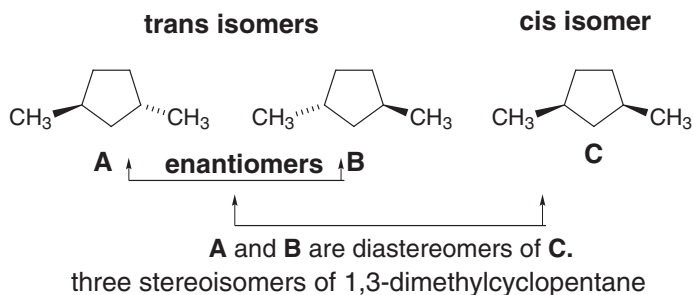
5.57

$$ee = \frac{[\alpha] \text{ mixture}}{[\alpha] \text{ pure enantiomer}} \times 100\%$$

- $\frac{15}{25} \times 100\% = 60\% \text{ ee}$
- $80\% = \frac{[\alpha]}{25} \times 100\% \quad [\alpha] = +20^\circ$

5.58 • Gli enantiomeri hanno le stesse proprietà fisiche (pf, pe, solubilità), e ruotano il piano della luce polarizzata dello stesso angolo ma di verso opposto.

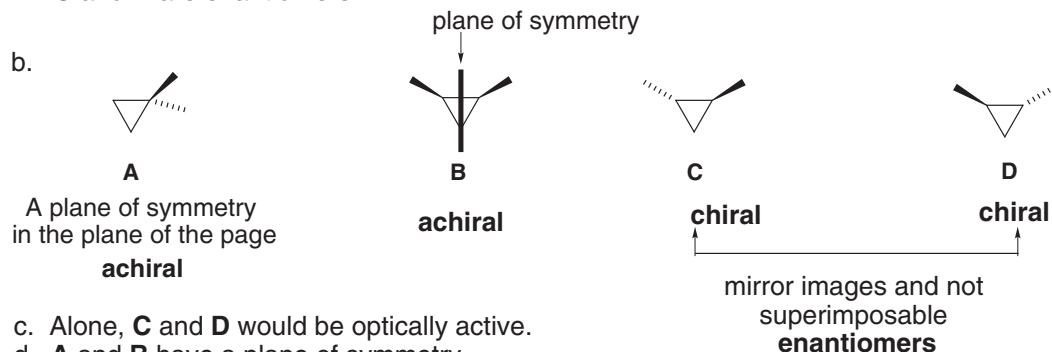
- I diastereomeri hanno proprietà fisiche diverse.**
- Una miscela racemica è otticamente inattiva.**



- The bp's of **A** and **B** are the same. The bp's of **A** and **C** are different.
- Pure **A**: optically active
 Pure **B**: optically active
 Pure **C**: optically inactive
 Equal mixture of **A** and **B**: optically inactive
 Equal mixture of **A** and **C**: optically active
- There would be two fractions: one containing **A** and **B** (optically inactive), and one containing **C** (optically inactive).

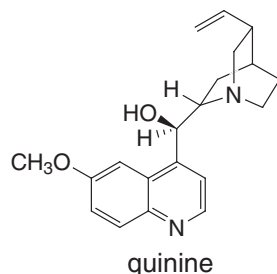
5.59

- a. **A** and **B** are constitutional isomers.
A and **C** are constitutional isomers.
B and **C** are diastereomers (cis and trans).
C and **D** are enantiomers.



- c. Alone, **C** and **D** would be optically active.
d. **A** and **B** have a plane of symmetry.
e. **A** and **B** have different boiling points.
B and **C** have different boiling points.
C and **D** have the same boiling point.
f. **B** is a meso compound.
g. An equal mixture of **C** and **D** is optically inactive because it is a racemic mixture.
An equal mixture of **B** and **C** would be optically active.

5.60

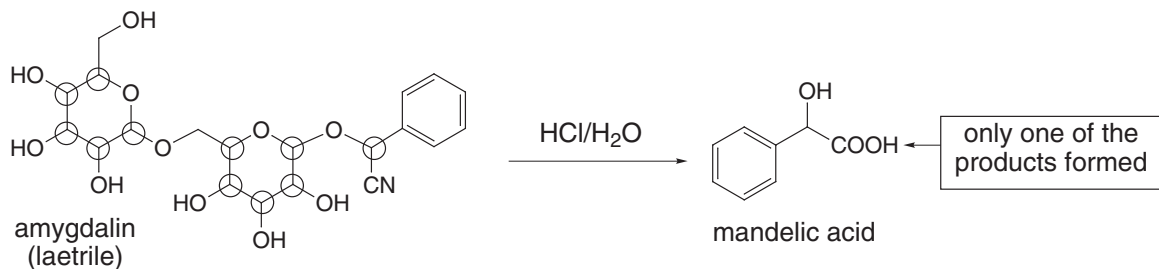


$$ee = \frac{[\alpha] \text{ mixture}}{[\alpha] \text{ pure enantiomer}} \times 100\%$$

quinine = **A**
quinine's enantiomer = **B**

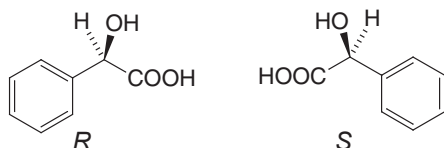
- a.
- $$\frac{-50}{-165} \times 100\% = 30\% ee$$
- b. 30% ee = 30% excess one compound (**A**)
remaining 70% = mixture of 2 compounds (35% each **A** and **B**)
Amount of **A** = 30 + 35 = **65%**
Amount of **B** = **35%**
- 50% ee = 50% the excess one compound (**A**)
remaining 50% = mixture of 2 compounds (25% each **A** and **B**)
Amount of **A** = 50 + 25 = **75%**
Amount of **B** = **25%**
- 73% ee = 73% excess of one compound (**A**)
remaining 27% = mixture of 2 compounds (13.5% each **A** and **B**)
Amount of **A** 73 + 13.5 = **86.5%**
Amount of **B** = **13.5%**
- c. $[\alpha] = +165^\circ$
d. $80\% - 20\% = 60\% ee$
- e. $60\% = \frac{[\alpha] \text{ mixture}}{-165^\circ} \times 100\%$
 $[\alpha] \text{ mixture} = -99^\circ$

5.61



a. The 11 stereogenic centers are circled. Maximum number of stereoisomers = $2^{11} = 2048$

b. Enantiomers of mandelic acid:



c. $60\% - 40\% = 20\%$ ee

$$20\% = [\alpha]_{\text{mixture}} / -154^\circ \times 100\%$$

$$[\alpha]_{\text{mixture}} = -31^\circ$$

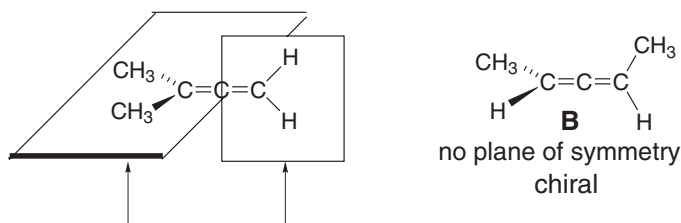
$$\text{d. ee} = \frac{+50^\circ}{+154^\circ} \times 100\% = 32\% \text{ ee}$$

32% excess of the *S* enantiomer
68% of racemic *R* and *S* = 34% *S* and 34% *R*

$$[\alpha] \text{ for } (S)\text{-mandelic acid} = +154^\circ$$

S enantiomer: $32\% + 34\% = 66\%$
R enantiomer = 34%

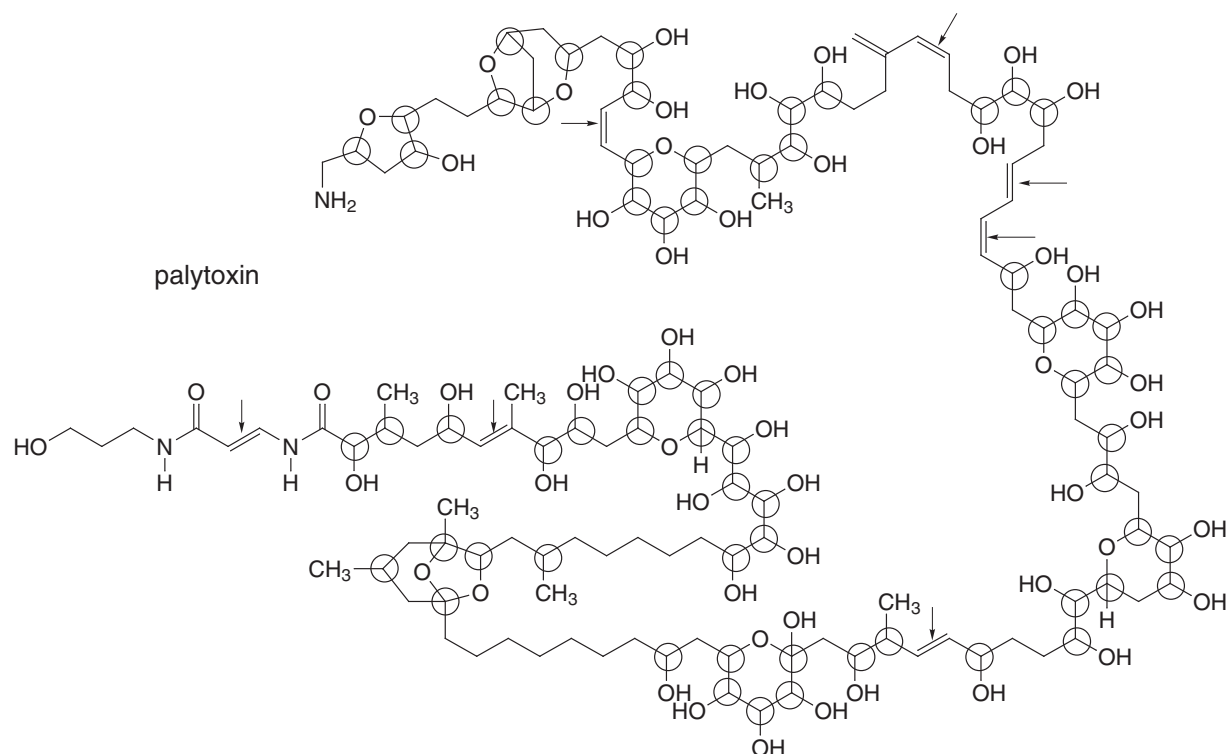
5.62 Gli alleni contengono un carbonio ibrido *sp* legato doppiamente a due altri carboni. Questo rende i doppi legami dell'allene perpendicolari fra loro. Quando ogni carbonio terminale dell'allene ha due sostituenti uguali, l'allene presenta due piani di simmetria ed è achirale. Quando ogni carbonio terminale dell'allene ha due gruppi diversi, l'allene non ha piani di simmetria e diventa chirale.



These two substituents are at 90° to these two substituents.

Allene **A** contains two planes of symmetry, making it **achiral**.

5.63



- a. I 64 centri stereogenici tetraedrici sono cerchiati.
- b. A causa della rotazione ristretta attorno ad un doppio legame C=C, i gruppi sul doppio legame non possono interconvertirsi. Tutte le volte che i sostituenti su ciascun carbonio terminale di un doppio legame sono diversi l'uno dall'altro, il doppio legame è un sito stereogenico. Conseguentemente, i seguenti composti con un doppio legame sono isomeri:

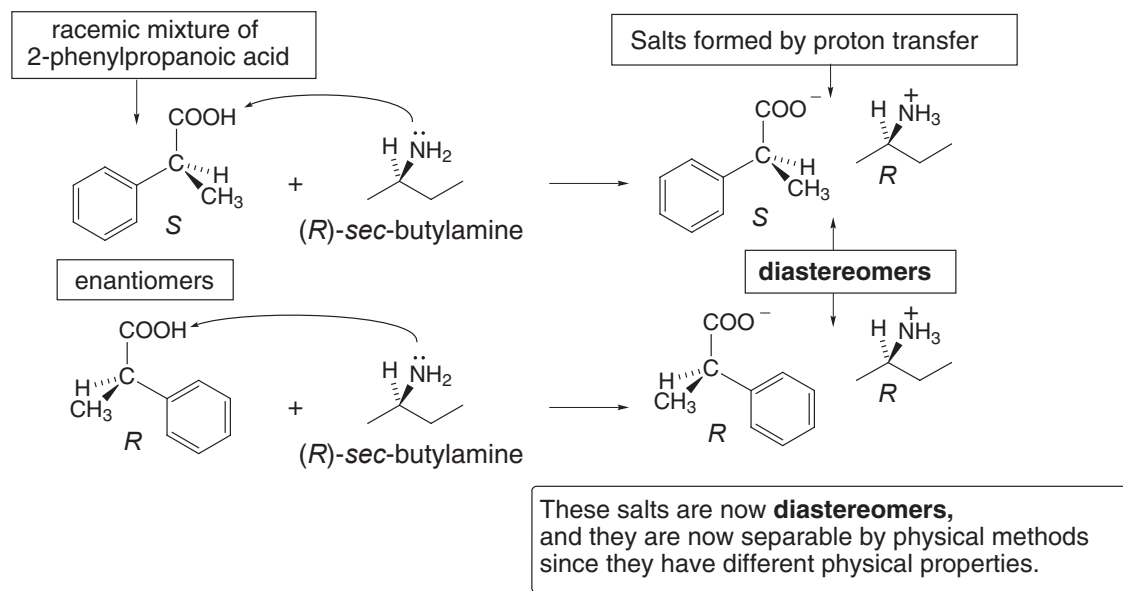


These compounds are isomers.

I doppi legami nella palitossina che sono sostituiti da un atomo di carbonio da entrambi i lati sono stereogenici. Ci sono sette doppi legami stereogenici nella palitossina, individuati con le frecce.

- c. Il massimo numero di stereoisomeri della palitossina deve includere i 64 centri stereogenici tetraedrici ed i sette doppi legami. Massimo numero di stereoisomeri = $2^{71} = 2.4 \times 10^{21}$.

5.64

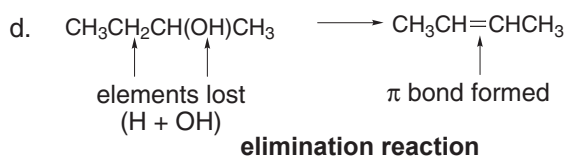
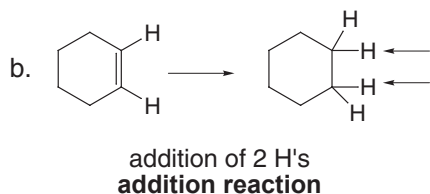
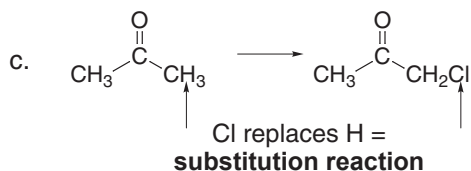
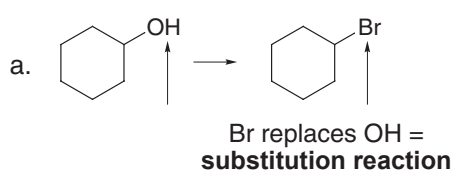


Capitolo 6

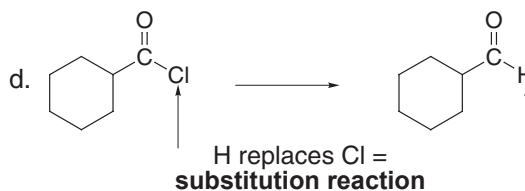
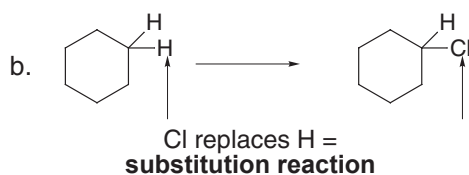
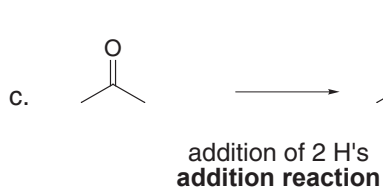
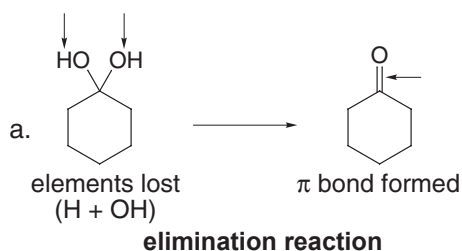
6.1 [1] In una **reazione di sostituzione**, un gruppo sostituisce un altro.

[2] In una **reazione di eliminazione**, elementi del materiale di partenza vengono perduti e si forma un legame π .

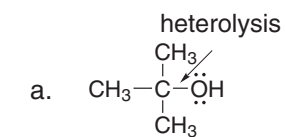
[3] In una **reazione di addizione**, elementi vengono aggiunti al materiale di partenza.



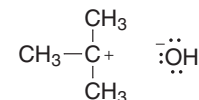
6.2 Usare i suggerimenti della risposta 6.1.



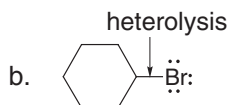
6.3 Eterolisi significa che quando si rompe un legame un atomo prende entrambi gli elettroni. Un carbocatione è un C con una carica positiva, ed un carbanione è un C con una carica negativa.



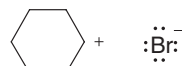
Electrons go to the more electronegative atom, O.



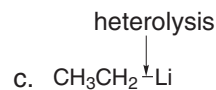
carbocation



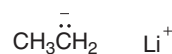
Electrons go to the more electronegative atom, Br.



carbocation

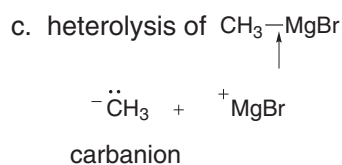
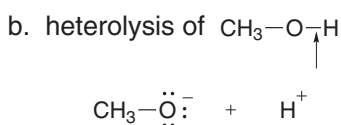
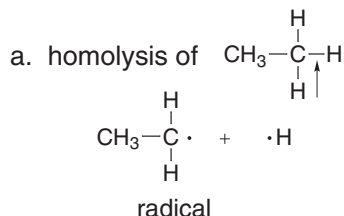


Electrons go to the more electronegative atom, C.

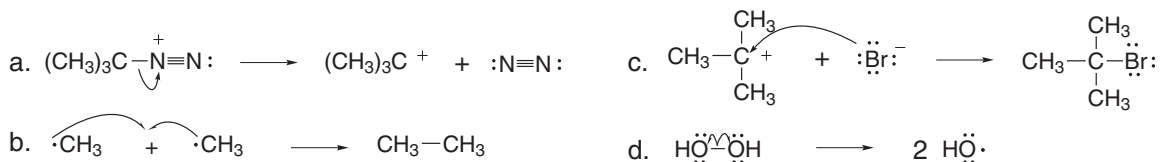


carbanion

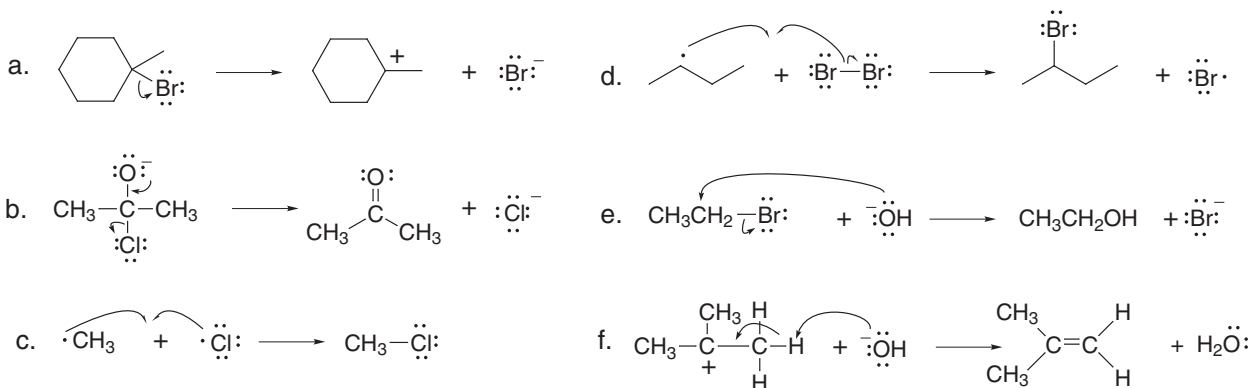
6.4



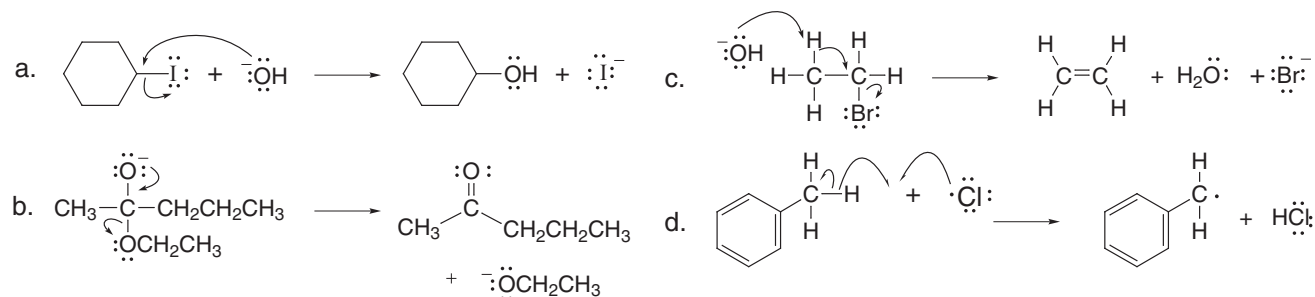
6.5 Usare **frecce a punta intera** per mostrare il movimento di coppie elettroniche, e **frecce a semi punta** per mostrare il movimento di singoli elettroni.



6.6 Usare le regole della risposta 6.5 per disegnare le frecce.

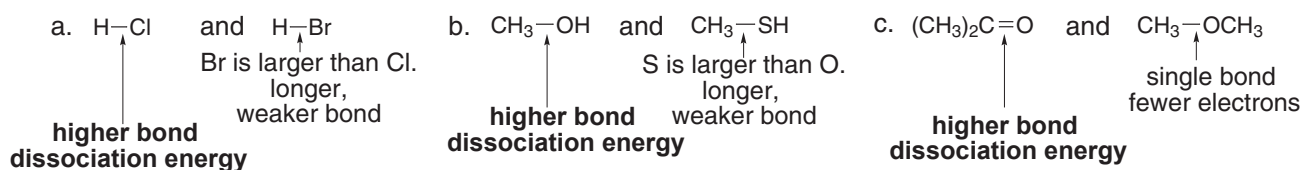


6.7

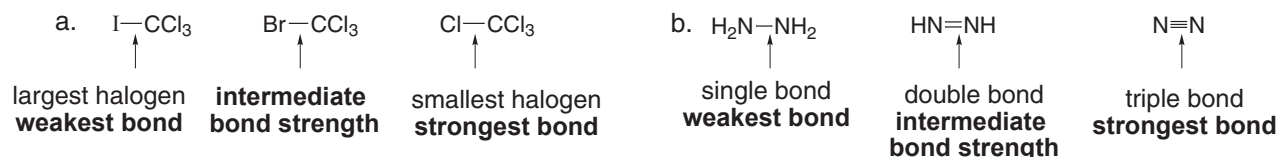


6.8 Aumento del numero di elettroni tra atomi = aumento della forza di legame = aumento dell'energia di dissociazione = diminuzione della lunghezza di legame.

Aumento della grandezza di un atomo = aumento della lunghezza di legame = diminuzione della forza di legame.



6.9 Usare le regole della risposta 6.8.



6.10 Per determinare il ΔH° di una reazione (usare i valori in Tabella 6.2):

[1] Sommare le energie di dissociazione di tutti i legami scissi nell'equazione (valori +).

[2] Sommare le energie di dissociazione per tutti i legami formati nell'equazione (valori -).

[3] *Sommare le energie insieme* per ottenere il ΔH° della reazione.

Un ΔH° positivo significa che la reazione è *endotermica*. Un ΔH° negativo significa che la reazione è *esotermica*.



[1] Bonds broken

	ΔH° (kcal/mol)
$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{—H}$	+ 98
Br—Br	+ 46
Total	+ 144 kcal/mol

[2] Bonds formed

	ΔH° (kcal/mol)
$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{—Br}$	– 68
H—Br	– 88
Total	– 156 kcal/mol

[3] Overall $\Delta H^\circ =$

+ 144 kcal/mol
– 156 kcal/mol
ANSWER: – 12 kcal/mol



[1] Bonds broken

	ΔH° (kcal/mol)
$\text{CH}_3\text{—H}$	+ 104 kcal/mol

[2] Bonds formed

	ΔH° (kcal/mol)
H—OH	– 119 kcal/mol

[3] Overall $\Delta H^\circ =$

+ 104 kcal/mol
– 119 kcal/mol
ANSWER: – 15 kcal/mol



[1] Bonds broken

	ΔH° (kcal/mol)
$\text{CH}_3\text{—OH}$	+ 91
H—Br	+ 88
Total	+ 179 kcal/mol

[2] Bonds formed

	ΔH° (kcal/mol)
$\text{CH}_3\text{—Br}$	– 70
H—OH	– 119
Total	– 189 kcal/mol

[3] Overall $\Delta H^\circ =$

+ 179 kcal/mol
– 189 kcal/mol
ANSWER: – 10 kcal/mol



[1] Bonds broken

	ΔH° (kcal/mol)
$\text{CH}_3\text{—H}$	+ 104 kcal/mol

[2] Bonds formed

	ΔH° (kcal/mol)
$\text{CH}_3\text{—Br}$	– 70 kcal/mol

[3] Overall $\Delta H^\circ =$

+ 104 kcal/mol
– 70 kcal/mol
ANSWER: + 34 kcal/mol

6.11

propane



$\Delta H^\circ = 85 \text{ kcal/mol}$

propene

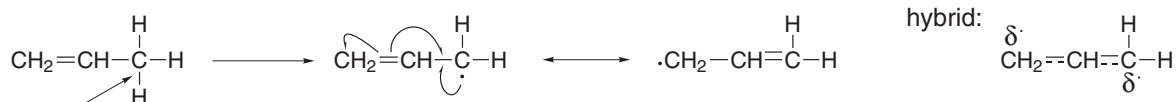


$\Delta H^\circ = 92 \text{ kcal/mol}$

$\text{CH}_2=\text{CH}\cdot$ ha un elettrone spaiato su un C che è parte di un doppio legame. Questo C deve avere una maggior percentuale di carattere *s* nei suoi orbitali ibridi rispetto al C con un elettrone spaiato in $\cdot\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$, e conseguentemente l'elettrone spaiato è trattenuto più vicino al nucleo in $\cdot\text{CH}=\text{CH}_2$, rendendolo meno stabile. [Notare: l'ibridizzazione dei radicali viene discussa nel Capitolo 13. Ma

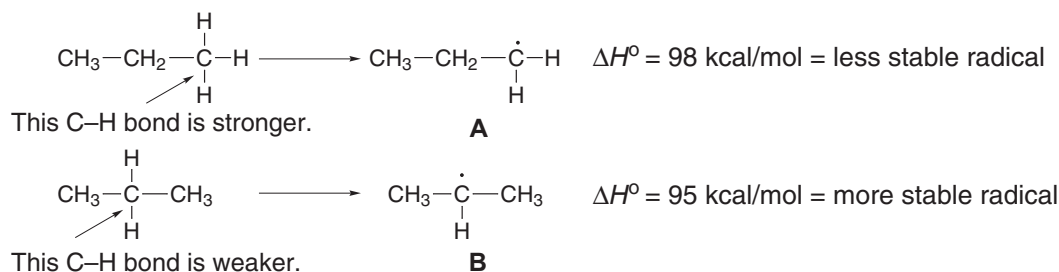
poiché $\bullet\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$ presenta l'elettrone spaiato su un carbonio legato a tre altri atomi, e $\bullet\text{CH}=\text{CH}_2$ ha l'elettrone spaiato su un carbonio legato solo a due altri atomi, quest'ultimo C deve avere una maggior percentuale di carattere s nei suoi orbitali ibridi.]

6.12



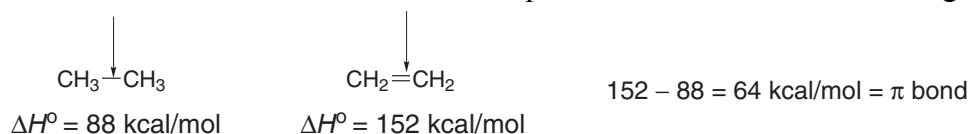
6.13

The more stable radical is formed by a reaction with a smaller ΔH° .



Since the bond dissociation for cleavage of the C-H bond to form radical **A** is higher, more energy must be added to form it. This makes **A** higher in energy and therefore less stable than **B**.

6.14 Usare l'energia di dissociazione del legame σ C-C dell'etano come stima della forza del legame σ nell'etilene. Successivamente si può anche stimare la forza del legame π .



6.15 Usare le seguenti relazioni per rispondere alle domande:

$K_{\text{eq}} = 1$ quindi $\Delta G^\circ = 0$; $K_{\text{eq}} > 1$ quindi $\Delta G^\circ < 0$; $K_{\text{eq}} < 1$ quindi $\Delta G^\circ > 0$

- Un valore negativo di ΔG° significa che l'equilibrio favorisce il prodotto e $K_{\text{eq}} > 1$. Quindi la risposta è $K_{\text{eq}} = 1000$.
- Un valore minore di ΔG° significa un maggior valore di K_{eq} , e i prodotti sono favoriti $K_{\text{eq}} = 10^{-2}$ è più grande di $K_{\text{eq}} = 10^{-5}$, e quindi ΔG° è minore.

6.16 Usare le relazioni della risposta 6.15.

- $K_{\text{eq}} = 5.5$. $K_{\text{eq}} > 1$ significa che l'equilibrio favorisce i **prodotti**.
- $\Delta G^\circ = 10.3 \text{ kcal}$. Un valore positivo di ΔG° significa che l'equilibrio favorisce il **materiale di partenza**.

6.17 Quando il prodotto è a minore energia rispetto al materiale di partenza, l'equilibrio favorisce il prodotto.

Quando il materiale di partenza è a minore energia rispetto al prodotto, l'equilibrio favorisce il materiale di partenza.

- Se ΔG° è **positivo** l'equilibrio favorisce il materiale di partenza. Quindi il *materiale di partenza ha energia minore del prodotto*.
- Se $K_{eq} > 1$ l'equilibrio favorisce il prodotto. Perciò il *prodotto ha energia minore dei reagenti*.
- Se ΔG° è **negativo** l'equilibrio favorisce i prodotti. Quindi i *prodotti hanno energia minore del materiale di partenza*.
- Se $K_{eq} < 1$ l'equilibrio favorisce il materiale di partenza. Perciò i *reagenti hanno energia minore dei prodotti*.

6.18 a. **falso**. La reazione è endotermica.

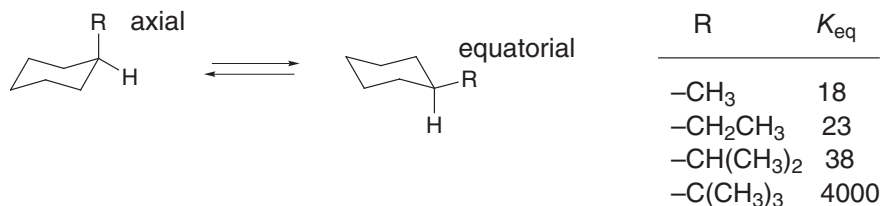
b. **vero**. Questo assume che ΔG° è approssimativamente uguale a ΔH° .

c. **falso**. $K_{eq} < 1$

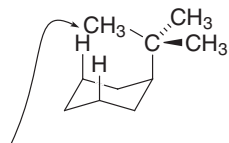
d. **vero**

e. **falso**. Il materiale di partenza è favorito all'equilibrio.

6.19

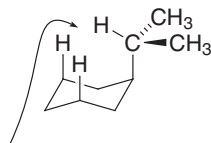


- Il conformero equatoriale è sempre presente in quantità maggioritaria all'equilibrio poiché la K_{eq} per tutti i gruppi R è maggiore di 1.
- Il cicloesano con il gruppo $-\text{C}(\text{CH}_3)_3$ avrà la maggior presenza di conformero equatoriale all'equilibrio poiché questo gruppo presenta la maggior K_{eq} .
- Il cicloesano con il gruppo $-\text{CH}_3$ avrà la maggior presenza di conformero assiale all'equilibrio poiché questo gruppo presenta la minor K_{eq} .
- Il cicloesano con il gruppo $-\text{C}(\text{CH}_3)_3$ avrà il ΔG° più negativo poiché ha la maggior K_{eq} .
- Più è grande il gruppo R, più è favorito il conformero equatoriale.
- La K_{eq} per il *tert*-butilcicloesano è più grande perché è più ingombrante degli altri gruppi. Con un gruppo *tert*-butile, un gruppo CH_3 è sempre orientato sopra l'anello quando il gruppo è assiale, originando forti interazioni 1,3-diassiali. Con tutti gli altri sostituenti, il gruppo CH_3 più grande può essere orientato lontano dall'anello, mettendo un H sopra l'anello, rendendo le interazioni 1,3-diassiali meno intense. Confrontare:

tert-butylcyclohexane

severe 1,3-diaxial interactions with the CH_3 groups and the axial H

isopropylcyclohexane



less severe 1,3-diaxial interactions

6.20 Usare le regole della risposta 6.17.

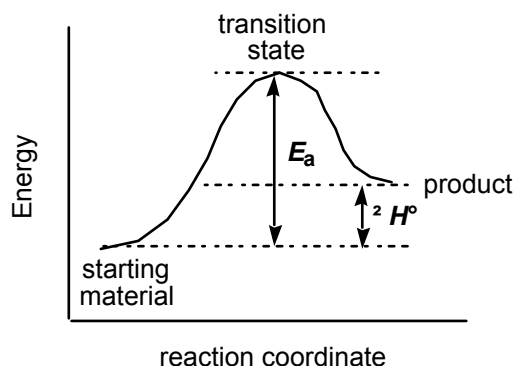
- $K_{\text{eq}} = 0.5$. K_{eq} è minore di uno così i prodotti di partenza sono favoriti.
- $\Delta G^\circ = -25 \text{ kcal/mol}$. ΔG° è minore di 0 così i prodotti sono favoriti.
- $\Delta H^\circ = 2.0 \text{ kcal/mol}$. ΔH° è positivo, così i prodotti di partenza sono favoriti.
- $K_{\text{eq}} = 16$. K_{eq} è maggiore di uno così i prodotti sono favoriti.
- $\Delta G^\circ = 0.5 \text{ kcal/mol}$. ΔG° è maggiore di zero così i prodotti di partenza sono favoriti.
- $\Delta H^\circ = 100 \text{ kcal/mol}$. ΔH° è positivo così i prodotti di partenza sono favoriti.
- $\Delta S^\circ = 2 \text{ cal/K}\cdot\text{mol}$. ΔS° è maggiore di zero, e così i prodotti sono più disordinati e favoriti.
- $\Delta S^\circ = -2 \text{ cal/K}\cdot\text{mol}$. ΔS° è minore di zero così i materiali di partenza sono più disordinati e favoriti.

- 6.21**
- Un ΔG° negativo deve avere $K_{\text{eq}} > 1$. $K_{\text{eq}} = 10^2$.
 - $K_{\text{eq}} = [\text{prodotti}]/[\text{reagenti}] = [1]/[5] = 0.2 = K_{\text{eq}}$. ΔG° è positivo.
 - Un ΔG° negativo ha $K_{\text{eq}} > 1$, ed un ΔG° positivo ha $K_{\text{eq}} < 1$. $\Delta G^\circ = -2 \text{ kcal/mol}$ avrà una maggior K_{eq} .

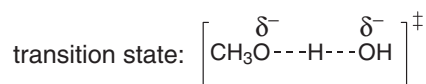
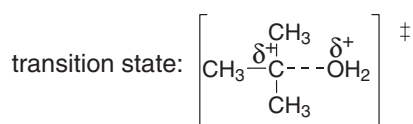
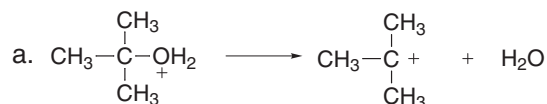
6.22 Reazioni che presentano un aumento di entropia sono favorite. Quando una molecola singola forma due molecole, c'è un aumento di entropia.

- increased number of molecules
 ΔS° is positive.
products favored.
- decreased number of molecules
 ΔS° is negative.
starting material favored.
- increased number of molecules
 ΔS° is positive.
products favored.
- no change in the number of molecules
neither favored

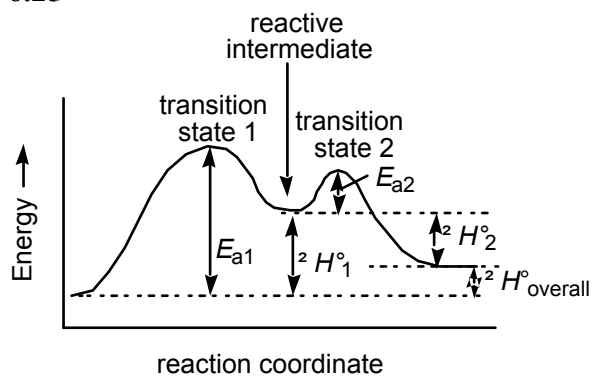
6.23



6.24 Uno stato di transizione è disegnato con linee tratteggiate per indicare i legami parzialmente rotti e parzialmente formati. Ogni atomo che guadagna o perde una carica contiene una carica parziale nello stato di transizione.

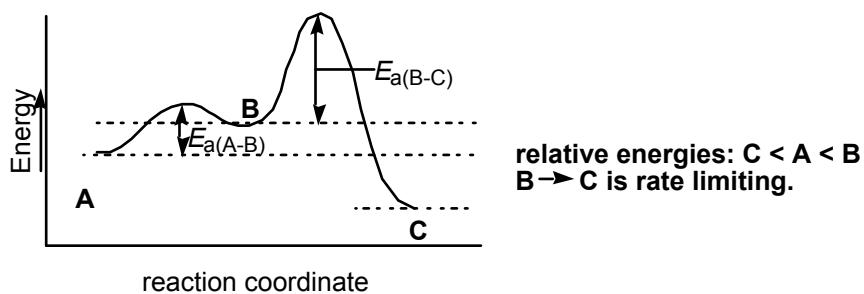


6.25

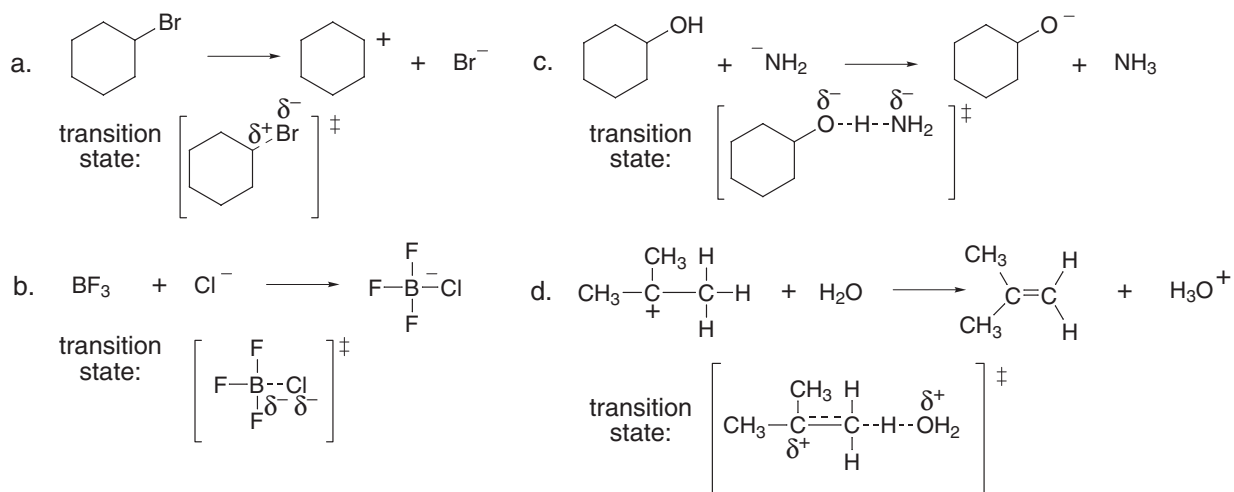


- Due stadi, perché ci sono due barriere di energia.
- Vedi le annotazioni sul diagramma.
- Vedi le annotazioni sul diagramma.
- E' formato un intermedio reattivo (vedi annotazioni).
- Il primo stadio è lo stadio lento dal momento che il suo stato di transizione è a più alta energia.
- La reazione complessiva è endotermica poiché l'energia dei prodotti è maggiore dell'energia dei reagenti.

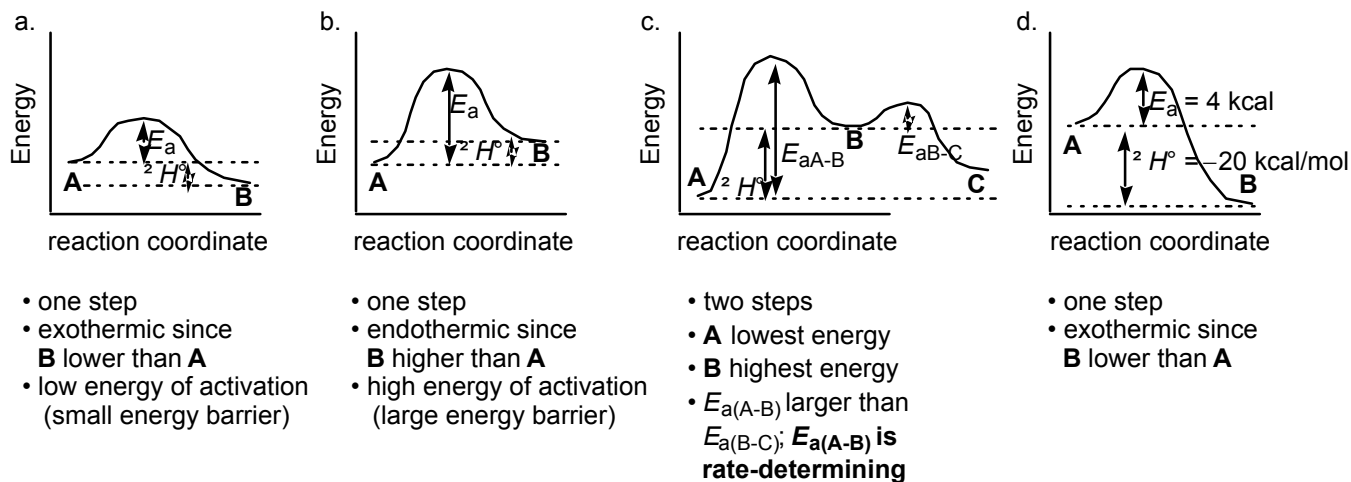
6.26



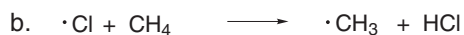
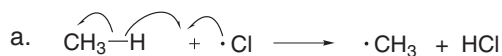
6.27 Usare i suggerimenti della risposta 6.24 per disegnare lo stato di transizione.



6.28



6.29



[1] Bonds broken

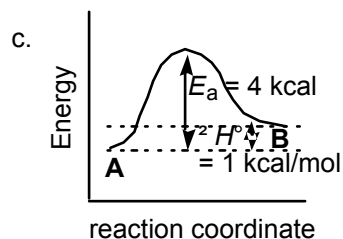
ΔH° (kcal/mol)	
$\text{CH}_3\text{—H}$	+ 104 kcal/mol

[2] Bonds formed

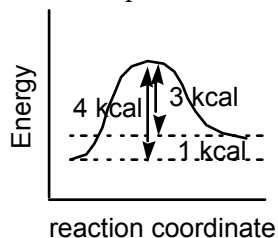
ΔH° (kcal/mol)	
H—Cl	– 103 kcal/mol

[3] Overall $\Delta H^\circ =$

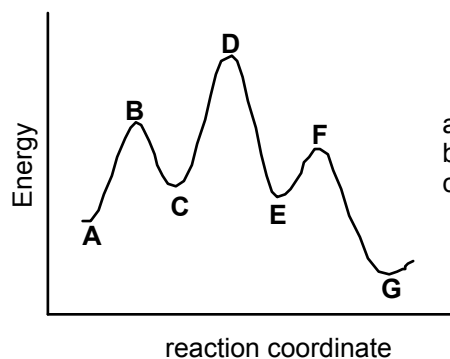
+ 104 kcal/mol
– 103 kcal/mol
ANSWER: + 1 kcal/mol



d. La E_a per la reazione inversa è la differenza di energia tra i prodotti e lo stato di transizione, 3 kcal.

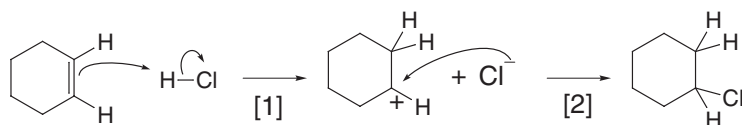


6.30

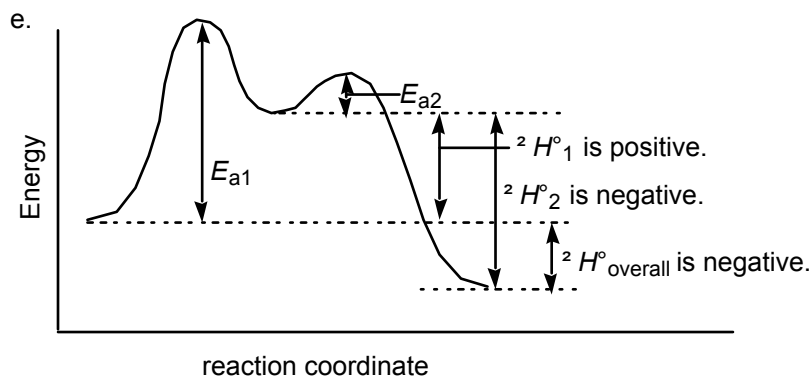
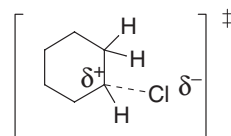
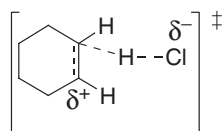


- a. **B, D and F** are transition states.
 b. **C and E** are reactive intermediates.
 c. The overall reaction has **3 steps**.

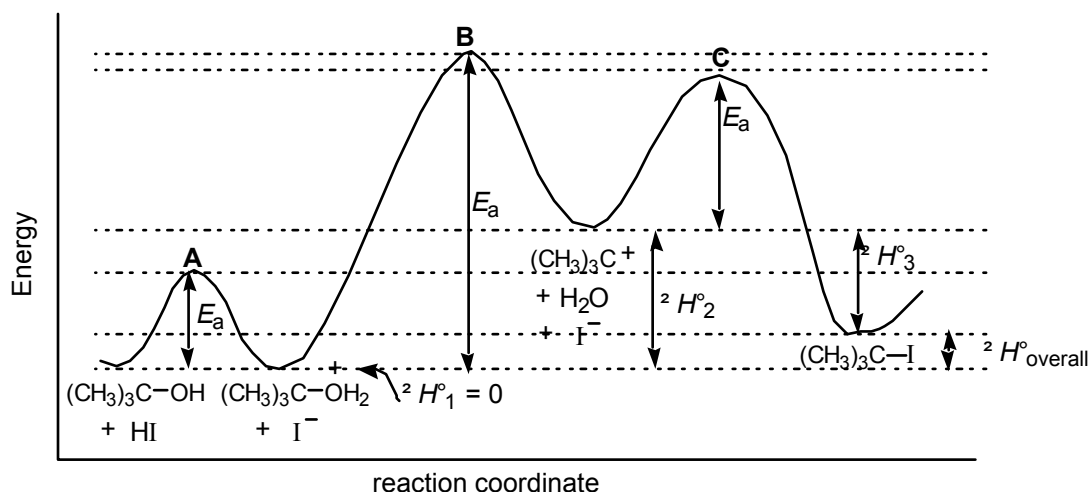
6.31



- a. Nello stadio [1] si scinde un legame π e il legame H–Cl, e si forma un legame C–H. Il ΔH° per questo stadio dovrebbe essere positivo poiché sono scissi più legami di quanti se ne formano.
 b. Nello stadio [2] si forma un legame. Il ΔH° per questo passaggio dovrebbe essere negativo poiché si forma un legame e non se ne scinde nessuno.
 c. Lo stadio [1] è lo stadio lento poiché è il più difficile.
 d. Stato di transizione per lo Stadio [1]: Stato di transizione per lo Stadio [2]:



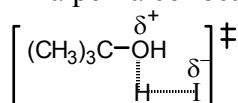
6.32



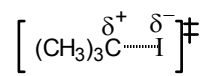
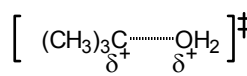
a. La reazione presenta tre stadi, poiché ci sono tre barriere di energia.

b. Vedi sopra.

c. Stato di transizione A (vedi diagramma per la collocazione):



Stato di transizione B: Stato di transizione C:



e. Lo stadio 2 è lo stadio lento poiché questo stadio presenta lo stato di transizione a maggior energia.

6.33 E_a , concentrazione e temperatura influiscono sulla velocità di reazione. ΔH° , ΔG° , e K_{eq} non influiscono sulla velocità di reazione.

a. $E_a = 1 \text{ kcal}$ corrisponde a una reazione più veloce.

b. Una temperatura di **25 °C** avrà una maggior velocità di reazione poiché un'alta temperatura corrisponde a una reazione più veloce.

c. **Nessun cambiamento:** K_{eq} non influisce sulla velocità di reazione.

d. **Nessun cambiamento:** ΔH° non influisce sulla velocità di reazione.

6.34 Tutti i reagenti nell'equazione di velocità determinano la velocità della reazione.

(1) velocità = $k[\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{Br}][\text{OH}^-]$

a. Triplicando la concentrazione del solo $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{Br} \rightarrow$ **La velocità è triplicata.**

b. Triplicando la concentrazione del solo $\text{OH}^- \rightarrow$ **La velocità è triplicata.**

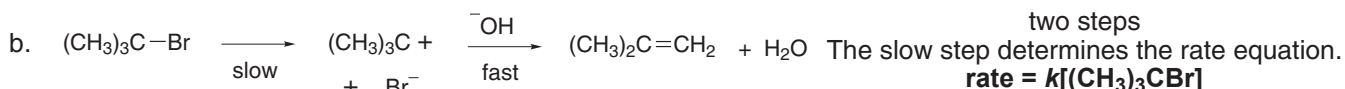
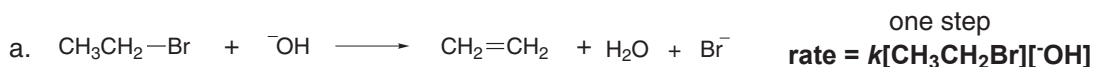
(2) velocità = $k[(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{COH}]$

a. Raddoppiando la concentrazione di $(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{COH} \rightarrow$ **La velocità è raddoppiata.**

b. Aumentando la concentrazione di $(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{COH}$ di un fattore 10 $\rightarrow$ **La velocità**

- c. Triplicando la concentrazione di entrambi $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{Br}$ e $^-\text{OH} \rightarrow$ **La velocità è aumentata di un fattore 9 ($3 \times 3 = 9$).** | **è aumentata di un fattore 10.**

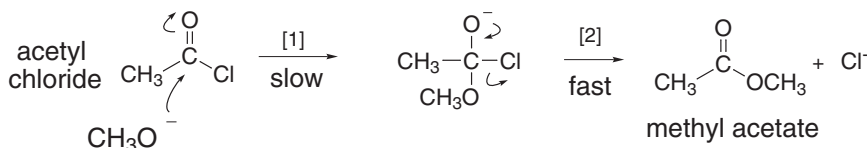
6.35 L'equazione di velocità è determinata dallo stadio lento.



6.36 L' E_a , la concentrazione, i catalizzatori, la costante di velocità e la temperatura influenzano la velocità di reazione e così c, d, e, g ed h influenzano la velocità.

- 6.37** a. **velocità = $k[\text{CH}_3\text{Br}][\text{NaCN}]$**
 b. Raddoppiare $[\text{CH}_3\text{Br}] =$ **raddoppia la velocità.**
 c. Dimezzare $[\text{NaCN}] =$ **dimezza la velocità.**
 d. Aumentare sia $[\text{CH}_3\text{Br}]$ che $[\text{NaCN}]$ di un fattore 5 = $[5][5] =$ **la velocità aumenta di un fattore 25.**

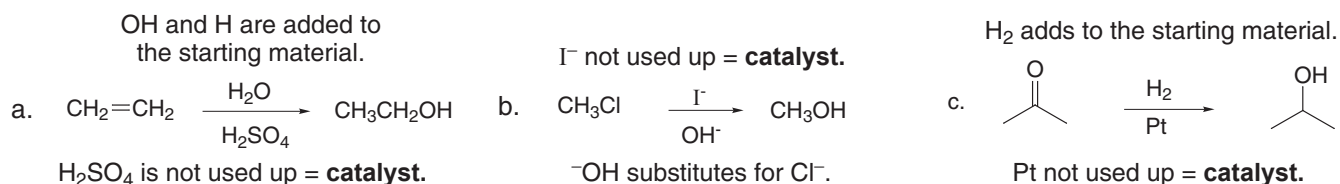
6.38



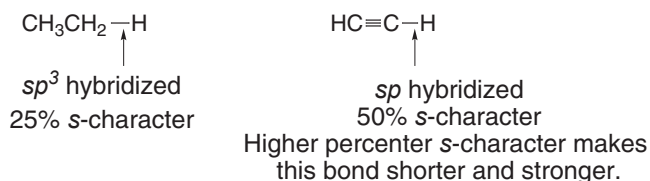
- a. Solo lo stadio lento è incluso nell'equazione della velocità di reazione: **Velocità = $k[\text{CH}_3\text{O}^-][\text{CH}_3\text{COCl}]$**
 b. CH_3O^- è presente nell'espressione della velocità. Aumentare la sua concentrazione di 10 volte aumenterà la velocità di **10 volte**.
 c. Quando entrambe le concentrazioni dei reagenti sono aumentate di 10 volte, la velocità aumenta di **100 volte ($10 \times 10 = 100$)**.
 d. Questa è una reazione di sostituzione (OCH_3 sostituisce Cl).
- 6.39** a. **Vero:** l'aumento della temperatura aumenta la velocità di reazione.
 b. **Vero:** se una reazione è veloce, ha un costante di velocità grande.
 c. **Falso: Corretto** – Non c'è nessuna relazione tra ΔG° e la velocità di reazione.
 d. **Falso: Corretto** – Quando E_a è grande, *la costante di velocità è piccola*.
 e. **Falso: Corretto** – Non c'è nessuna relazione tra K_{eq} e la velocità di reazione.
 f. **Falso: Corretto** – L'aumento della concentrazione di un reagente aumenta la velocità di reazione *solo se il reagente appare nell'equazione della velocità*.

- 6.40** a. Il primo meccanismo è a singolo stadio: **velocità** = $k[(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{CI}][^-\text{OH}]$
 b. Il secondo meccanismo è a due stadi, ma solo il primo stadio sarà presente nell'espressione della velocità poiché è quello lento e conseguentemente quello che determina la velocità: **velocità** = $k[(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{CI}]$
 c. La possibilità [1] è del secondo ordine; la possibilità [2] è di primo ordine.
 d. Queste espressioni di velocità possono essere usate per mostrare quale meccanismo è corretto attraverso il cambiamento della concentrazione di ^-OH . Se ciò influenza la velocità, la possibilità [1] è corretta. Se non influenza la velocità, la possibilità [2] è corretta.

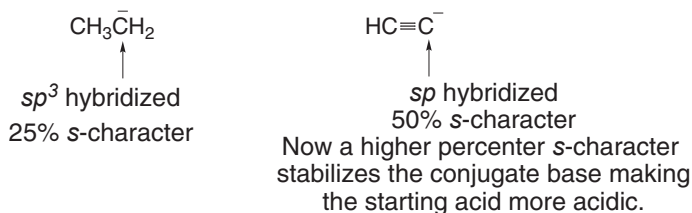
6.41 Un catalizzatore non è consumato né cambiato alla fine della reazione. Serve solo per aumentare la velocità della reazione.



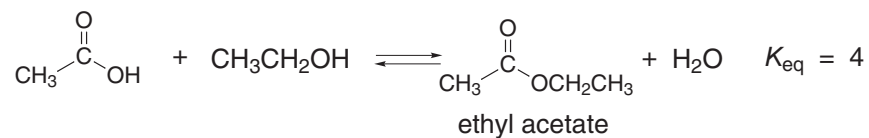
6.42 La differenza sia nell'acidità che nella dissociazione del legame di CH_3CH_3 nei confronti di $\text{HC}\equiv\text{CH}$ è dovuta allo stesso fattore: per cento di carattere *s*. La differenza si origina nel fatto che un processo è omolitico e l'altro eterolitico
 Energia di dissociazione del legame:



Acidità. Per confrontare l'acidità, si deve confrontare la stabilità delle basi coniugate:



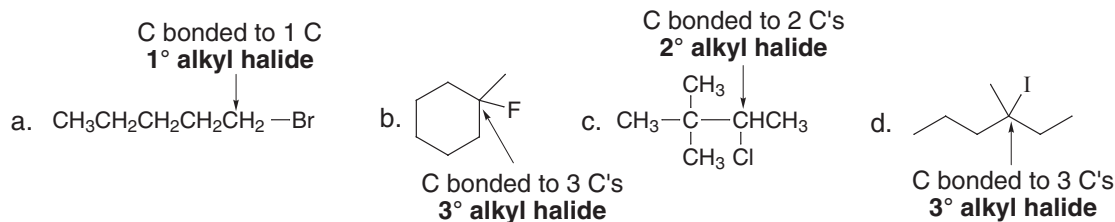
6.43 Nella reazione [1], il numero di molecole dei reagenti e dei prodotti resta costante, così l'entropia non è un fattore. Nella reazione [2], una singola molecola di materiale di partenza forma due molecole di prodotto, con conseguente aumento di entropia. Questo rende il ΔG° più favorevole, aumentando così la K_{eq} .

6.44

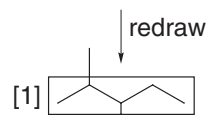
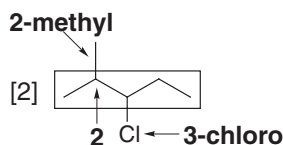
To increase the yield of ethyl acetate, H_2O can be removed from the reaction mixture, or there can be a large excess of one of the starting materials.

6.45 Dal momento che gli atomi di ossigeno sono più elettronegativi di tutti gli altri atomi ad eccezione di F, ogni O nel legame O–O sposta la densità elettronica verso sé stesso. Gli atomi di O sono meno “pronti” a condividere densità elettronica in un legame a due elettroni, e ciò indebolisce il legame.

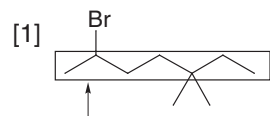
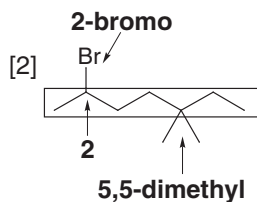
Capitolo 7

7.1 Classificare l'alogenuro alchilico come 1°, 2° o 3° **contando il numero di carboni direttamente legati al carbonio legato all'alogeno.**

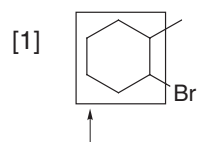
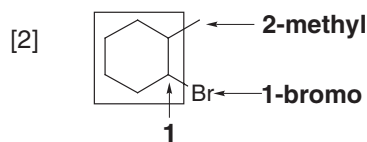
7.2 Per assegnare il nome ad un composto secondo il sistema IUPAC:

[1] **Nominare la catena principale** individuando la catena carboniosa più lunga.[2] **Numerare la catena** in modo che il primo sostituito abbia il numero più basso.Successivamente **nominare e numerare tutti i sostituenti**, assegnando a sostituenti simili un prefisso (di, tri, ecc.). **Per nominare il sostituto alogeno, cambiare il suffisso -uro in -o.**[3] **Combinare tutte le parti**, ordinando in ordine alfabetico, ed ignorando tutti i prefissi ad eccezione di iso.5 carbon alkane = **pentane**[3] **3-chloro-2-methylpentane**

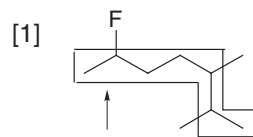
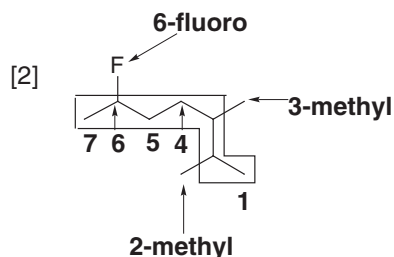
b.

7 carbon alkane = **heptane**[3] **2-bromo-5,5-dimethylheptane**

c.

6 carbon cycloalkane = **cyclohexane**[3] **1-bromo-2-methylcyclohexane**

d.

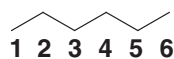
7 carbon alkane = **heptane**[3] **6-fluoro-2,3-dimethylheptane**

7.3 Per individuare la struttura dal nome:

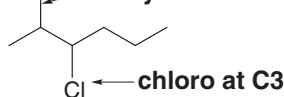
- [1] Trovare il nome della catena principale e disegnare quel numero di carboni. Usare il suffisso per identificare il gruppo funzionale. (**-ano = alcano**)
 [2] Numerare arbitrariamente i carboni della catena. Aggiungere i sostituenti sul carbonio appropriato.

a. 3-chloro-2-methyl**hexane**

[1] 6 carbon alkane

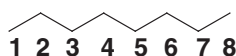


[2] methyl at C2

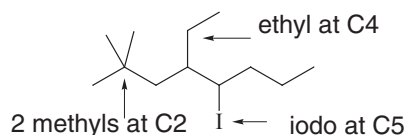


b. 4-ethyl-5-iodo-2,2-dimethyl**octane**

[1] 8 carbon alkane



[2]

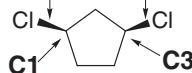


c. *cis*-1,3-dichloro**cyclopentane**

[1] 5 carbon cycloalkane



[2] chloro groups at C1 and C3, both on the same side

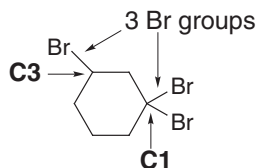


d. 1,1,3-tribromo**cyclohexane**

[1] 6 carbon cycloalkane

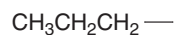


[2]

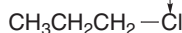


e. **propyl** chloride

[1] 3 carbon alkyl group

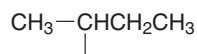


[2] **chloride on end**

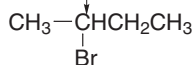


f. **sec-butyl** bromide

[1] 4 carbon alkyl group

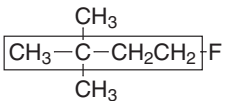
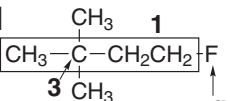
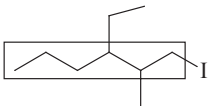
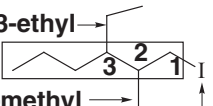
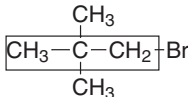
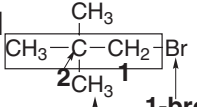
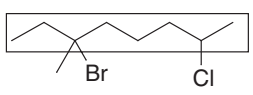
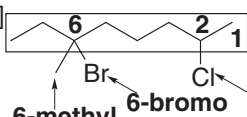
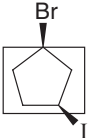
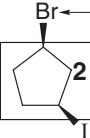
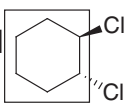
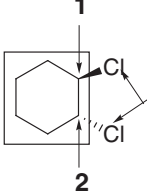
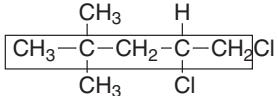
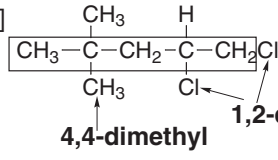
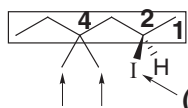
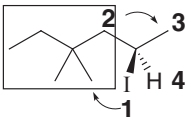


[2] **bromide**

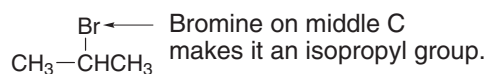
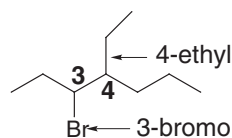
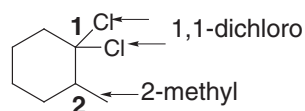
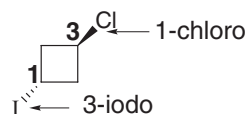
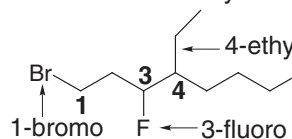


7.4 Usare i suggerimenti della risposta 7.2 per assegnare il nome ai composti.

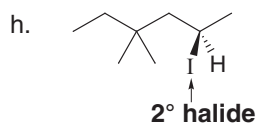
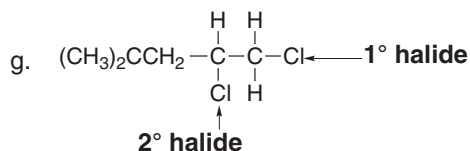
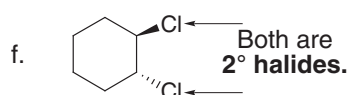
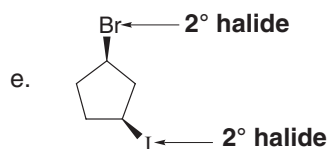
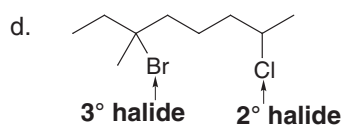
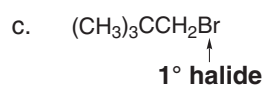
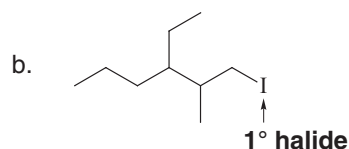
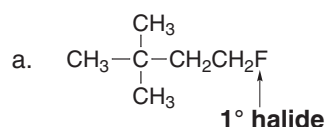
7.4 Usare i suggerimenti della risposta 7.2 per assegnare il nome ai composti.

- a. [1]  [2]  [3] **1-fluoro-3,3-dimethylbutane**
4 carbon alkane = **butane**
3,3-dimethyl
1-fluoro
- b. [1]  [2]  [3] **3-ethyl-1-iodo-2-methylhexane**
6 carbon alkane = **hexane**
3-ethyl
2-methyl
1-iodo
- c. [1] $(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{CCH}_2\text{Br}$
 [2]  [3] **1-bromo-2,2-dimethylpropane**
3 carbon alkane = **propane**
2,2-dimethyl
1-bromo
- d. [1]  [2]  [3] **6-bromo-2-chloro-6-methyloctane**
8 carbon alkane = **octane**
6-methyl
6-bromo
2-chloro
- e. [1]  [2]  [3] **cis-1-bromo-3-iodocyclopentane**
5 carbon cycloalkane = **cyclopentane**
1-bromo
3-iodo
- f. [1]  [2]  [3] **trans-1,2-dichlorocyclohexane**
6 carbon cycloalkane = **cyclohexane**
trans-1,2-dichloro
- g. [1] $(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{CCH}_2\text{CH}(\text{Cl})\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}$
 [2]  [3] **1,2-dichloro-4,4-dimethylpentane**
5 carbon alkane = **pentane**
4,4-dimethyl
1,2-dichloro
- h. [1]  [2]  [3] **(R)-2-iodo-4,4-dimethylhexane**
6 carbon alkane = **hexane**
(Indicate the *R/S* designation also)
4,4-dimethyl
(*R*)-2-iodo
 Clockwise
R

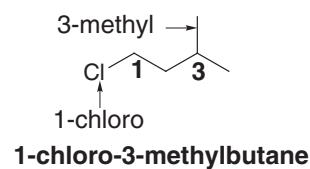
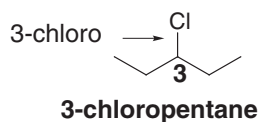
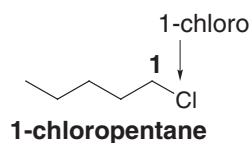
7.5 Per disegnare la struttura, usare i suggerimenti della risposta 7.3.

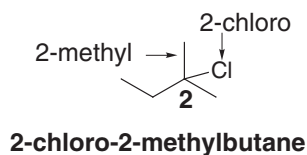
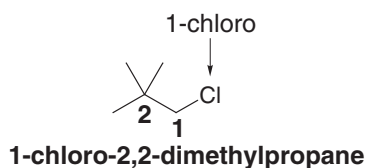
a. **isopropyl** bromideb. **3-bromo-4-ethylheptane**c. **1,1-dichloro-2-methylcyclohexane**d. **trans-1-chloro-3-iodocyclobutane**e. **1-bromo-4-ethyl-3-fluorooctane**

7.6

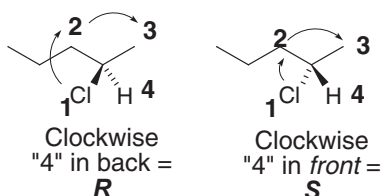
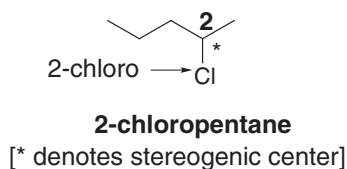


7.7

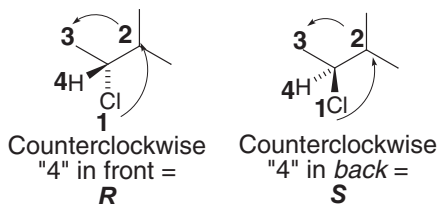
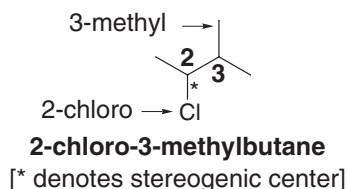




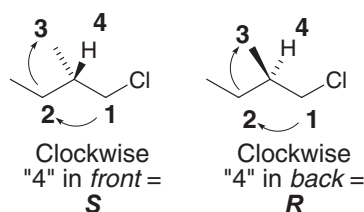
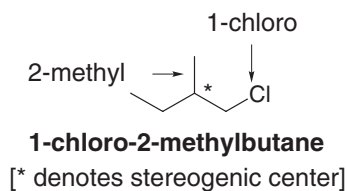
Two stereoisomers



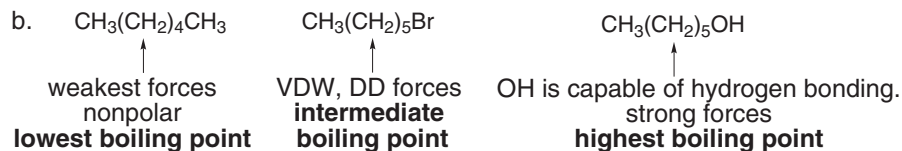
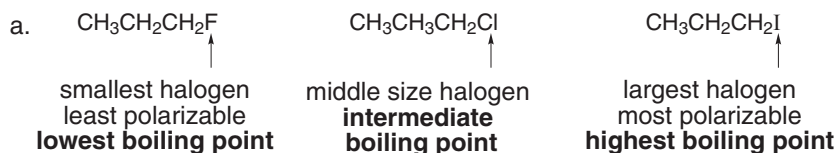
Two stereoisomers



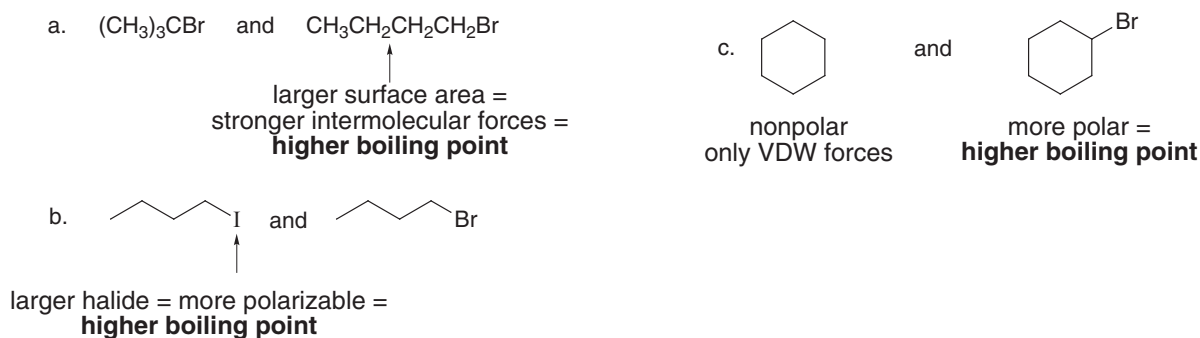
Two stereoisomers



7.8 I punti di ebollizione degli alogenuri alchilici aumentano all'aumentare del volume (e della polarizzabilità) di X. Ricordare: **forze intermolecolari maggiori = maggior punto di ebollizione.**

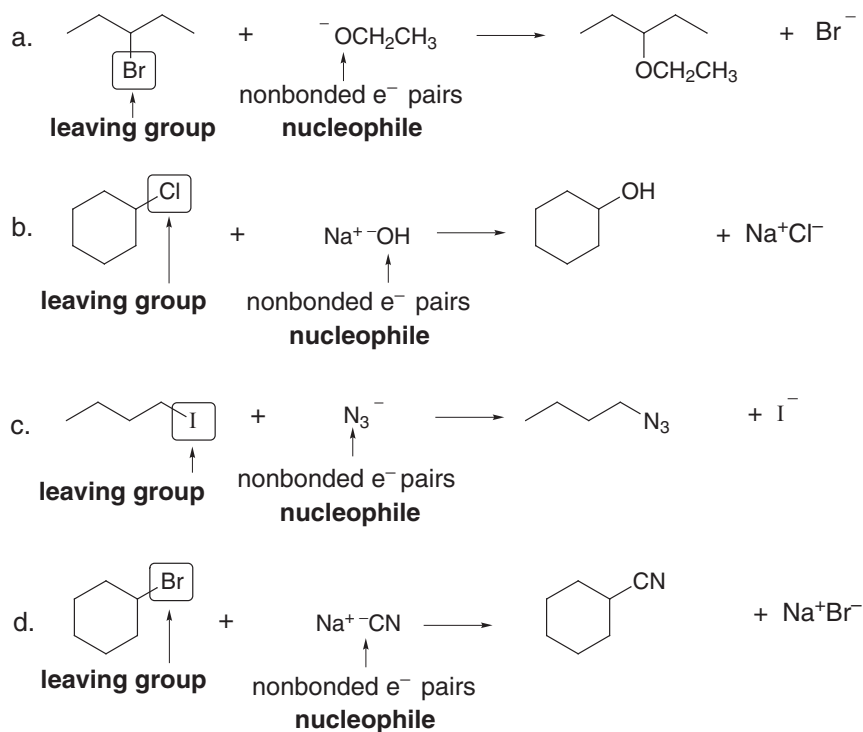


7.9 Usare i suggerimenti della risposta 7.8.

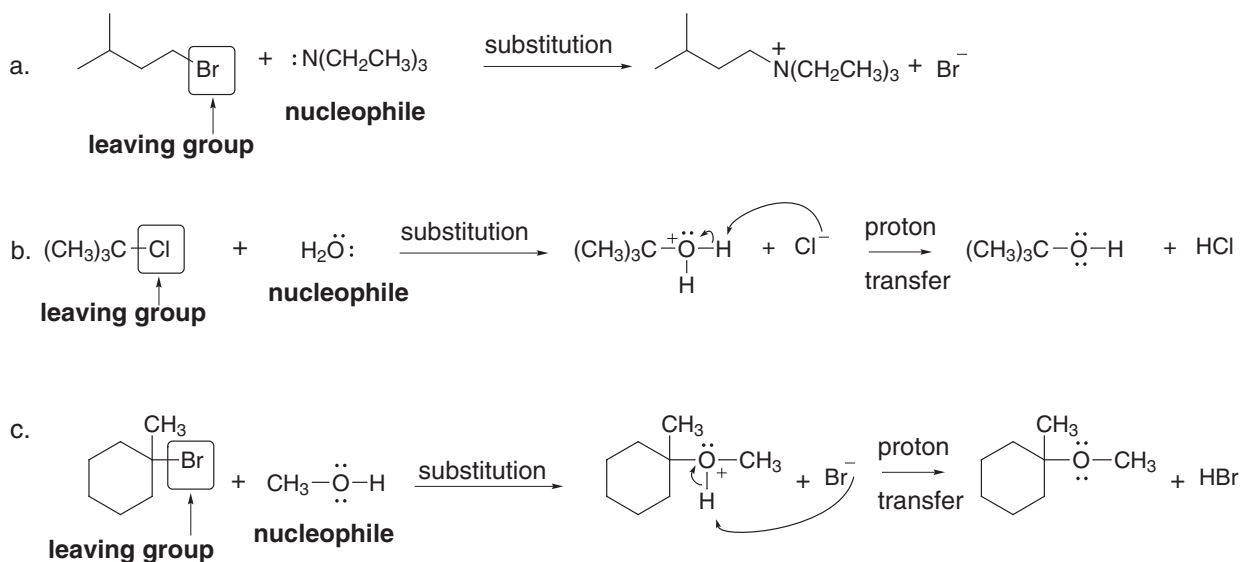


7.10 Per disegnare i prodotti di una reazione di sostituzione nucleofila:

- [1] **Trovare il carbonio elettrofilo ibrido sp^3** con un gruppo uscente.
- [2] **Trovare il nucleofilo** con coppie elettroniche solitarie o legami π .
- [3] **Sostituire il nucleofilo al posto del gruppo uscente** sul carbonio elettrofilo.

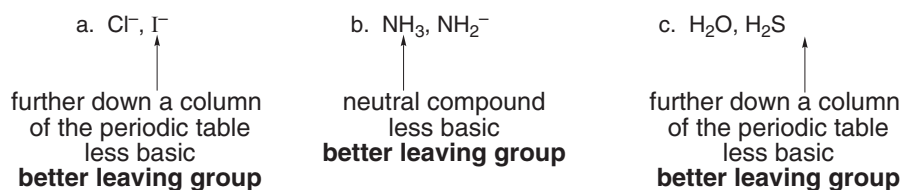


7.11 Usare i passaggi della risposta 7.10 e successivamente disegnare il trasferimento del protone.

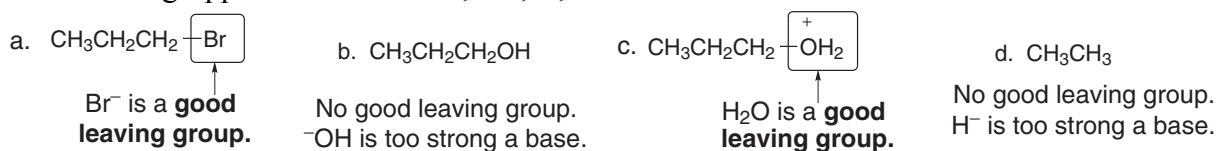


7.12 Confrontare i composti in base alla tendenza di questi gruppi ad agire da gruppi uscenti:

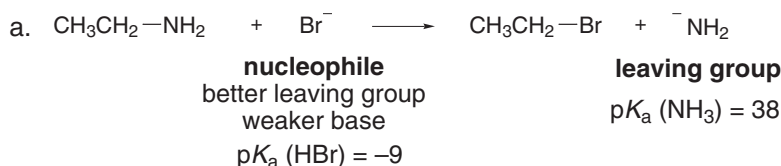
- I migliori gruppi uscenti sono le basi più deboli.
- Un gruppo uscente neutro è sempre migliore della sua base coniugata.



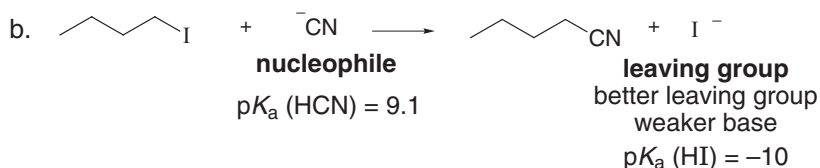
7.13 Buoni gruppi uscenti sono Cl^- , Br^- , I^- , H_2O .



7.14 Per decidere se l'equilibrio favorisce i materiali di partenza o i prodotti, **confrontare il nucleofilo ed il gruppo uscente**. La reazione procede verso la formazione della base più debole.



Reaction favors starting material.



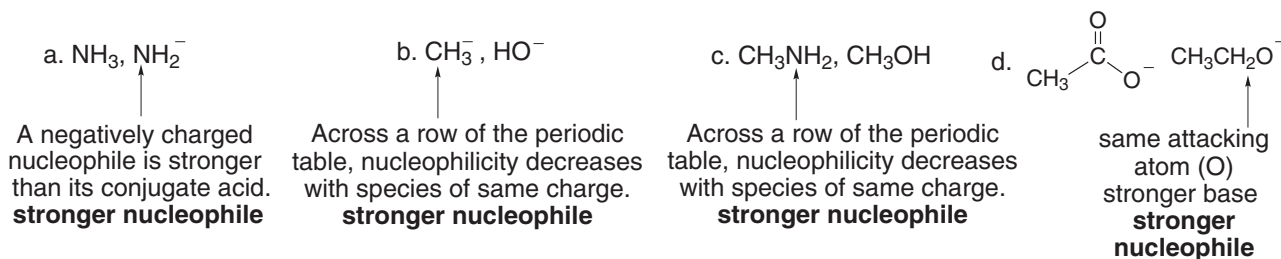
Reaction favors product.

7.15 Usare queste tre regole per trovare in ogni coppia il nucleofilo più forte:

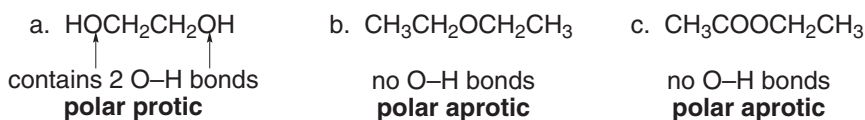
[1] Confrontare due nucleofili che hanno lo stesso atomo che attacca: **la base più forte è il nucleofilo più forte.**

[2] **I nucleofili carichi negativamente sono sempre più forti dei loro acidi coniugati.**

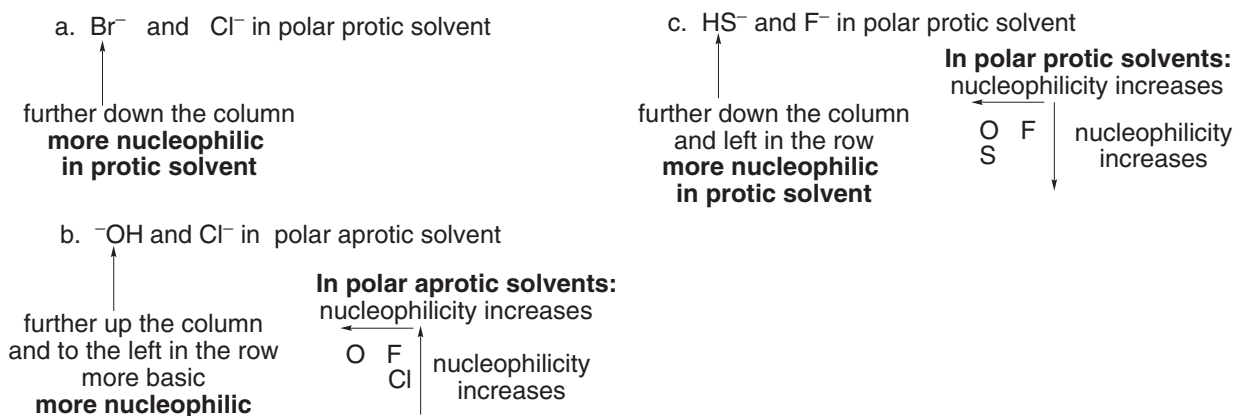
[3] **Attraverso una riga della tavola periodica, la nucleofilicità decresce** confrontando specie di carica simile.



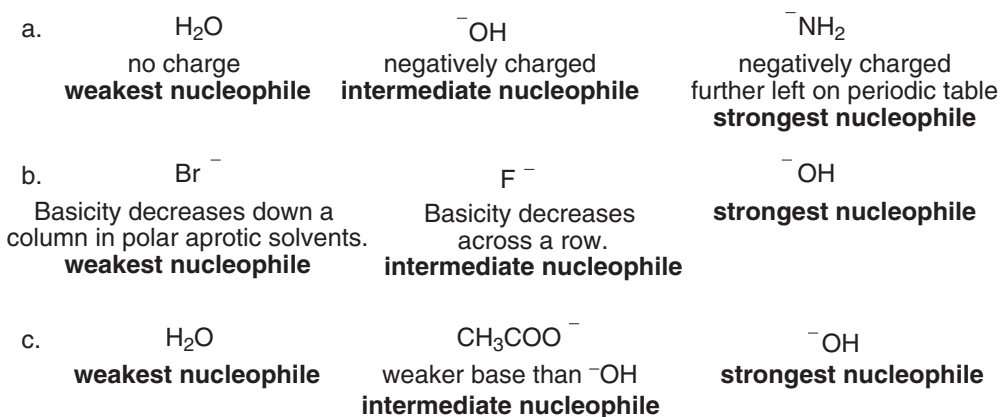
7.16 *Solventi polari protici* possono dare legami idrogeno, e perciò devono contenere un **H legato ad un O o N elettronegativo**. *Solventi aprotici polari* non possono dare legami idrogeno, e perciò non contengono nessun legame O—H o N—H.



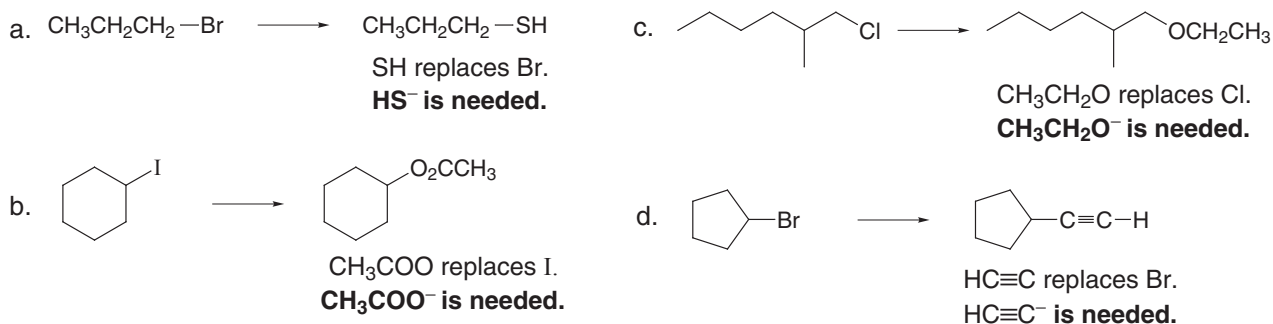
- 7.17**
- Nei *solventi polari protici*, l'andamento della nucleofilicità è opposto a quello della basicità lungo una colonna della tavola periodica, così la nucleofilicità aumenta.
 - Nei *solventi polari aprotici*, l'andamento è identico alla basicità così la nucleofilicità decresce lungo una colonna.



7.18 Più forte è una base più forte è il nucleofilo eccetto che in solventi polari protici dove la nucleofilicità aumenta lungo una colonna. Per altre regole vedere le risposte 7.11 e 7.13.



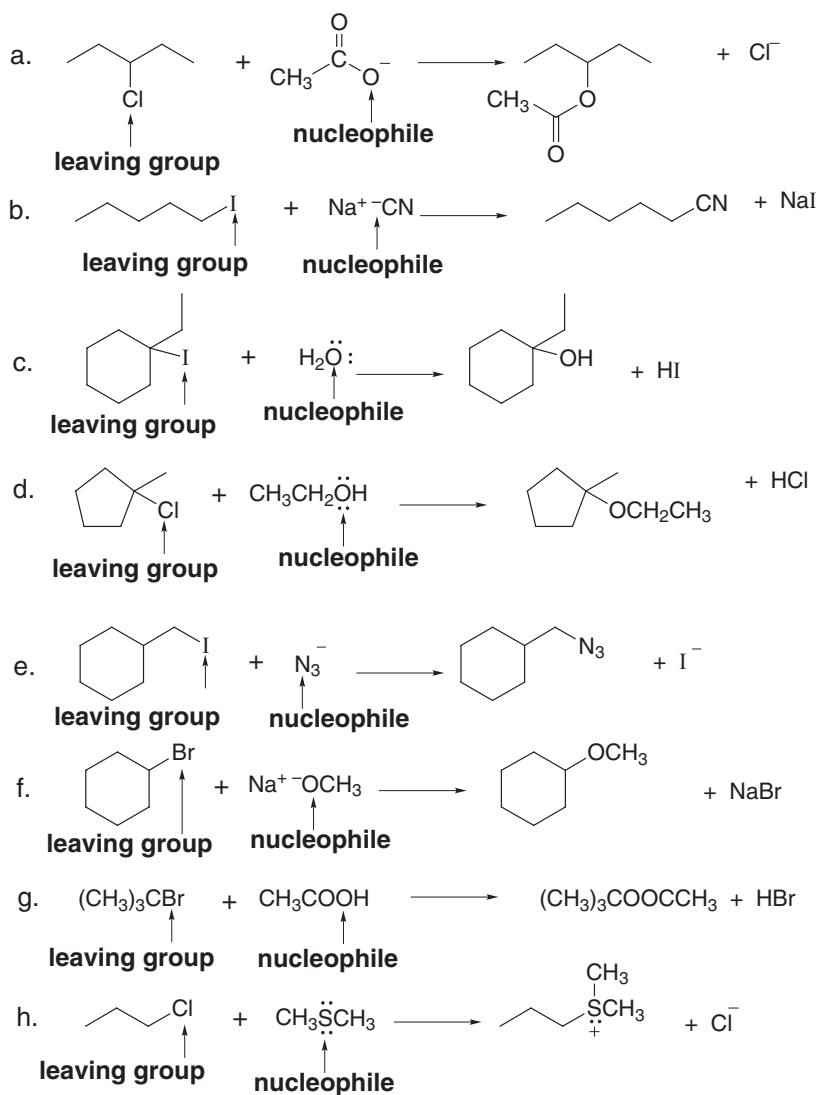
7.19 Per determinare quale nucleofilo è necessario per condurre ciascuna reazione, osservare il prodotto per vedere che cosa ha rimpiazzato il gruppo uscente.



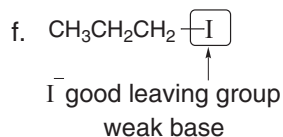
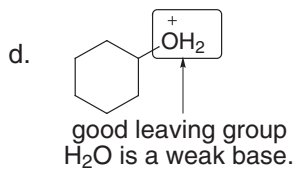
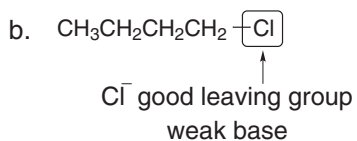
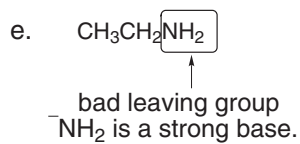
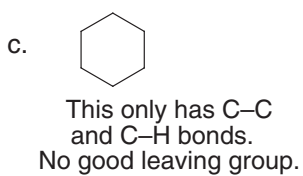
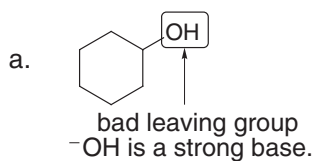
7.20

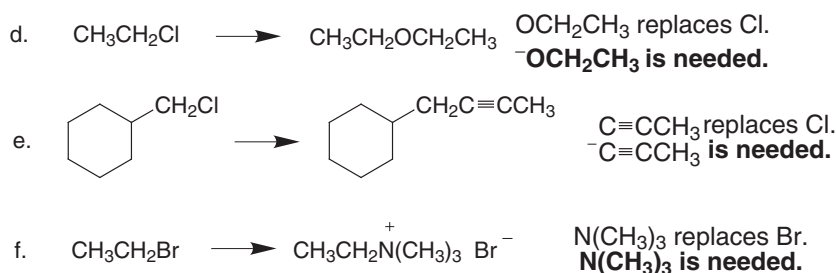
- a. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{Br} + \text{OH}^- \longrightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH} + \text{Br}^-$
- b. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{Br} + \text{SH}^- \longrightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{SH} + \text{Br}^-$
- c. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{Br} + \text{CN}^- \longrightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CN} + \text{Br}^-$
- d. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{Br} + \text{OCH}(\text{CH}_3)_2^- \longrightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OCH}(\text{CH}_3)_2 + \text{Br}^-$
- e. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{Br} + \text{C}\equiv\text{CH}^- \longrightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{C}\equiv\text{CH} + \text{Br}^-$
- f. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{Br} + \text{H}_2\ddot{\text{O}}: \longrightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}_2^+ + \text{Br}^- \longrightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH} + \text{HBr}$
- g. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{Br} + \text{NH}_3 \longrightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{NH}_3^+ + \text{Br}^- \longrightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{NH}_2 + \text{HBr}$
- h. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{Br} + \text{Na}^+ \text{I}^- \longrightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{I} + \text{Na}^+ \text{Br}^-$
- i. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{Br} + \text{Na}^+ \text{N}_3^- \longrightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{N}_3 + \text{Na}^+ \text{Br}^-$

7.21 Usare i passaggi della risposta 7.10 e successivamente disegnare la reazione di trasferimento protonico, quando necessario.



7.22 Un buon gruppo uscente è una base debole.





7.26 Usare i suggerimenti della risposta 7.18.

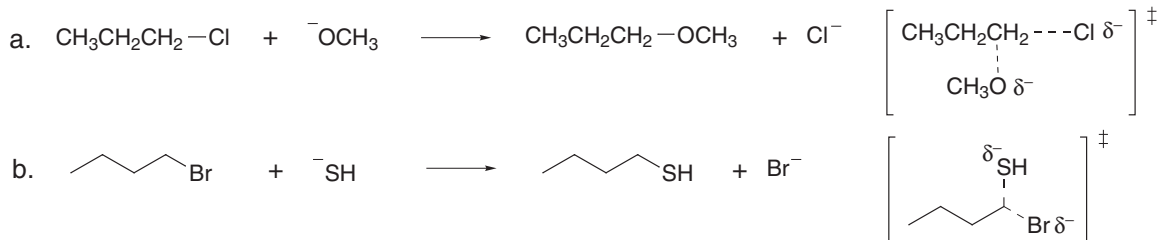
- a. Across a row of the periodic table nucleophilicity decreases.
 $-\text{OH} < -\text{NH}_2 < \text{CH}_3^-$
- b. • In a **polar protic solvent** (CH_3OH), nucleophilicity *increases down a column* of the periodic table, so: $-\text{SH}$ is more nucleophilic than $-\text{OH}$.
 • *Negatively charged species* are more nucleophilic than neutral species so $-\text{OH}$ is more nucleophilic than H_2O .
 $\text{H}_2\text{O} < -\text{OH} < -\text{SH}$
- c. • In a **polar protic solvent** (CH_3OH), nucleophilicity *increases down a column* of the periodic table, so: $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{S}^-$ is more nucleophilic than $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{O}^-$.
 • For two species with same attacking atom the more basic is more nucleophilic so $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{O}^-$ is more nucleophilic than CH_3COO^- .
 $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^- < \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{O}^- < \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{S}^-$
- d. Compare the nucleophilicity of N, S and O. In a polar aprotic solvent (acetone), nucleophilicity parallels basicity.
 $\text{CH}_3\text{SH} < \text{CH}_3\text{OH} < \text{CH}_3\text{NH}_2$
- e. In a **polar aprotic solvent** (acetone), nucleophilicity parallels basicity. Across a row and down a column of the periodic table nucleophilicity decreases.
 $\text{Cl}^- < \text{F}^- < -\text{OH}$
- f. Nucleophilicity decreases across a row so $-\text{SH}$ is more nucleophilic than Cl^- . In a **polar protic solvent** (CH_3OH), nucleophilicity increases down a column so Cl^- is more nucleophilic than F^- .
 $\text{F}^- < \text{Cl}^- < -\text{SH}$

7.27 Gli ioni alogenuro in fase gassosa non risentono di effetto solvente. Conseguentemente, l'andamento sarà lo stesso di quello della basicità – una base più forte è un nucleofilo più forte. Così $\text{F}^- > \text{Cl}^- > \text{Br}^- > \text{I}^-$.

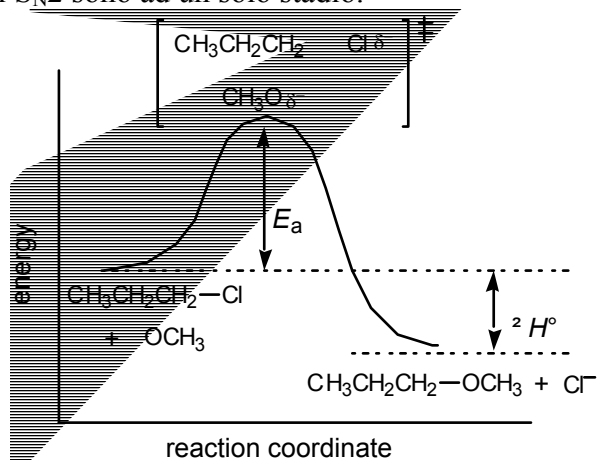
7.28 **Solventi polari protici sono capaci i legami idrogeno**, e perciò devono contenere un H legato ad un atomo elettronegativo di O o N. **Solventi polari aprotici sono incapaci di legami idrogeno**, e perciò non contengono nessun legame O–H o N–H.

- | | | |
|---|---|--|
| a. $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{CHOH}$
contains O–H bond
protic | c. CH_2Cl_2
no O–H or N–H bond
aprotic | e. $\text{N}(\text{CH}_3)_3$
no O–H or N–H bond
aprotic |
| b. CH_3NO_2
no O–H or N–H bond
aprotic | d. NH_3
contains N–H bond
protic | f. HCONH_2
contains an N–H bond
protic |

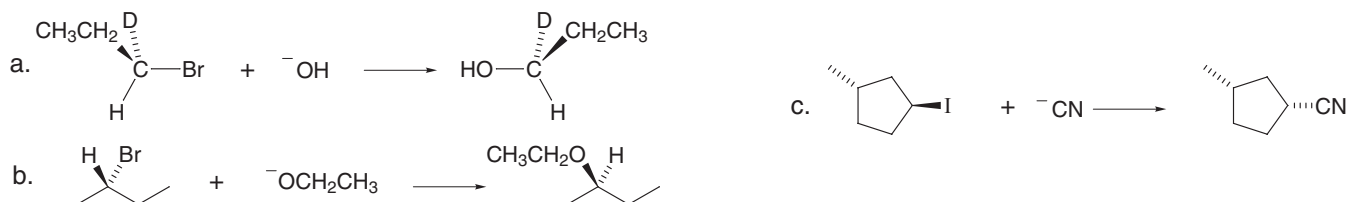
7.29 Lo stato di transizione di una reazione S_N2 che presenta **legami tratteggiati sia con il nucleofilo che con il gruppo uscente**, deve contenere cariche parziali.



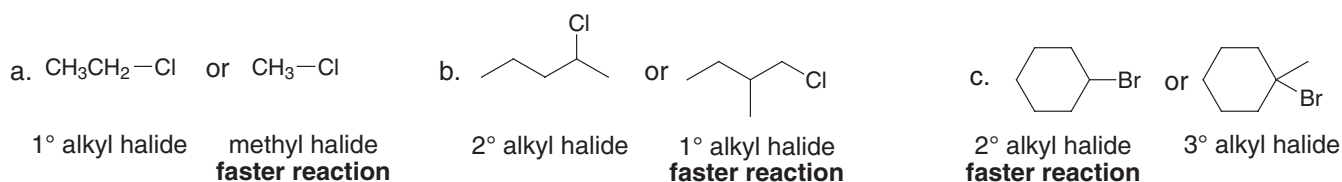
7.30 Tutte le reazioni S_N2 sono ad un solo stadio.



7.31 Per disegnare i prodotti di una reazione S_N2 , **sostituire il gruppo uscente con il nucleofilo, e poi disegnare la stereochimica con inversione di configurazione al centro stereogenico.**

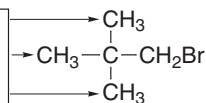


7.32 *L'aumento del numero di gruppi R aumenta l'affollamento dello stato di transizione e decresce la velocità di una reazione S_N2.*

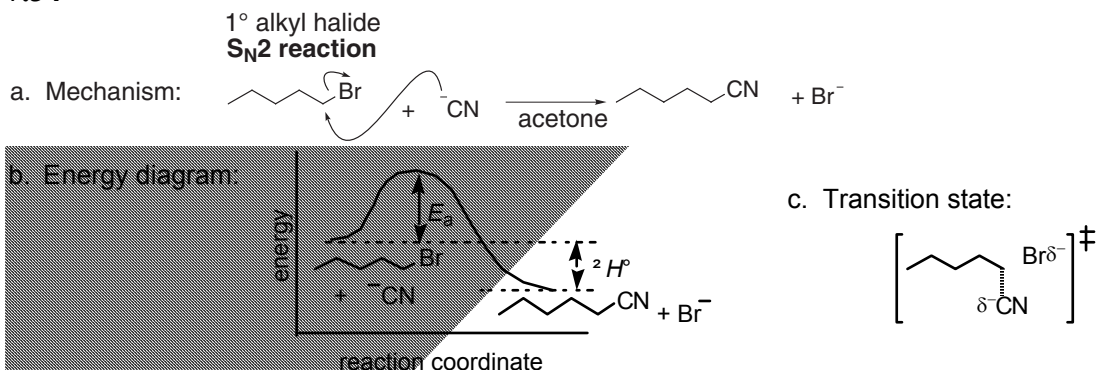


7.33

These 3 methyl groups make the alkyl halide sterically hindered. This slows the rate of an S_N2 reaction even though it is a 1° alkyl halide.



7.34



d. Rate equation: one step reaction with both nucleophile and alkyl halide in the only step:

$$\text{rate} = k[\text{R-Br}][\text{CN}^-]$$

e. [1] The leaving group is changed from Br^- to I^- :

Leaving group becomes less basic $\rightarrow$ a better leaving group $\rightarrow$ faster reaction.

[2] The solvent is changed from acetone to $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$:

Solvent changed to polar protic $\rightarrow$ decreases reaction rate.

[3] The alkyl halide is changed from $\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_4\text{Br}$ to $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{Br})\text{CH}_3$:

Changed from 1° to 2° alkyl halide $\rightarrow$ the alkyl halide gets more crowded and the reaction rate decreases.

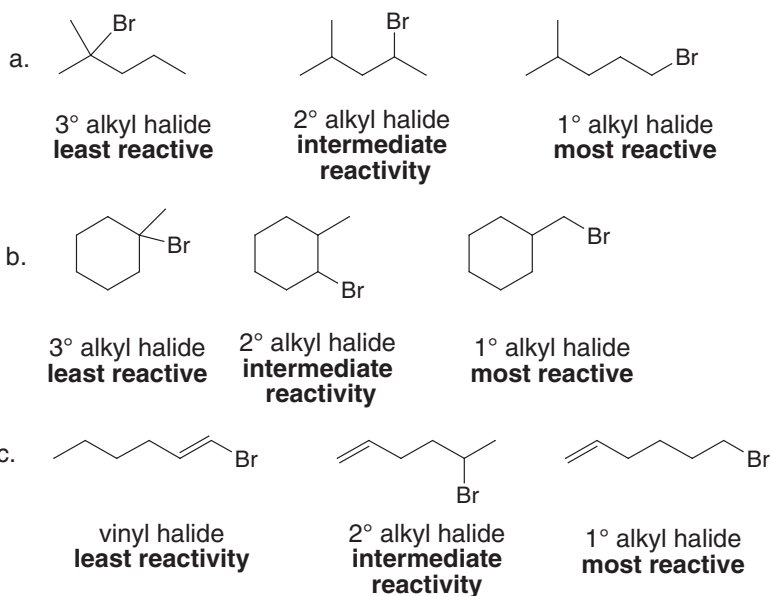
[4] The concentration of CN^- is increased by a factor of 5.

Reaction rate will increase by a factor of five.

[5] The concentration of both the alkyl halide and CN^- are increased by a factor of 5:

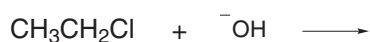
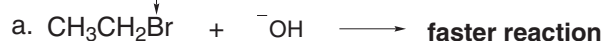
Reaction rate will increase by a factor of 25 ($5 \times 5 = 25$).

7.35 Usare i suggerimenti della risposta 7.32.

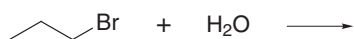
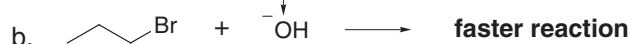


7.36

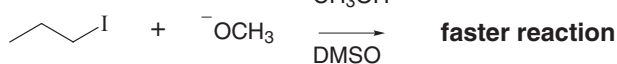
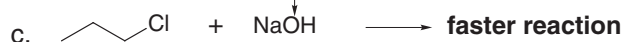
better leaving group



stronger nucleophile

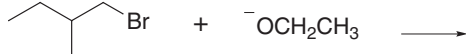
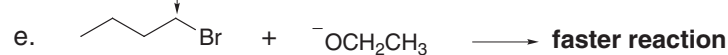


stronger nucleophile

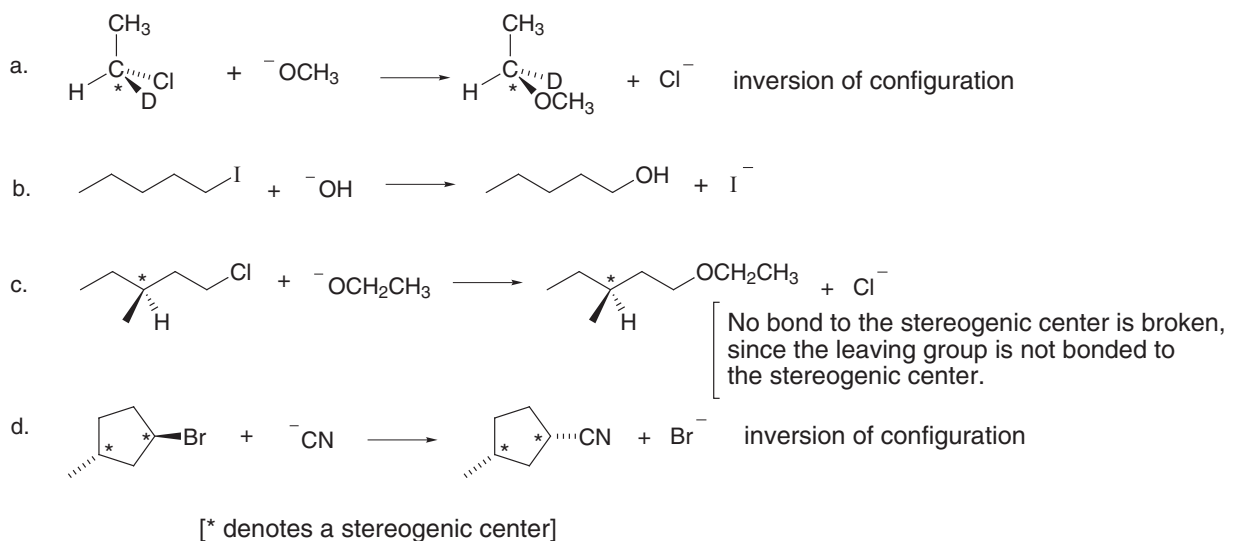


polar aprotic solvent

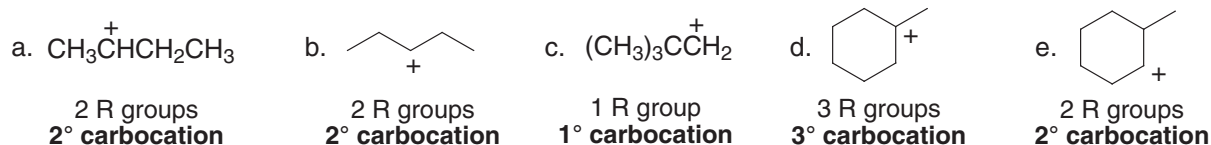
less steric hinderance



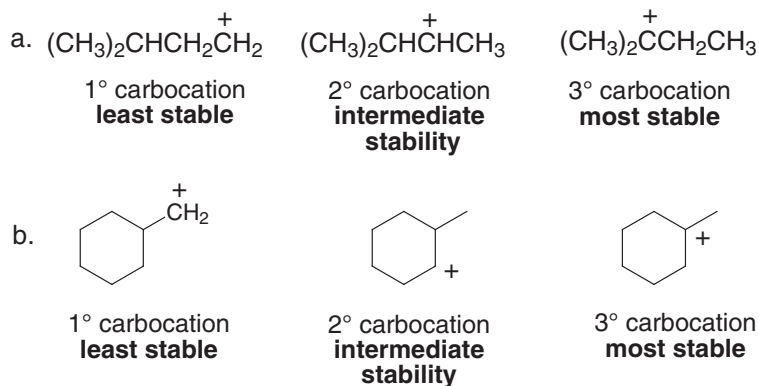
7.37 Tutte le reazioni $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$ procedono attraverso attacco da retro del nucleofilo. Quando l'attacco nucleofilo avviene su un centro stereogenico, si ha inversione di configurazione.



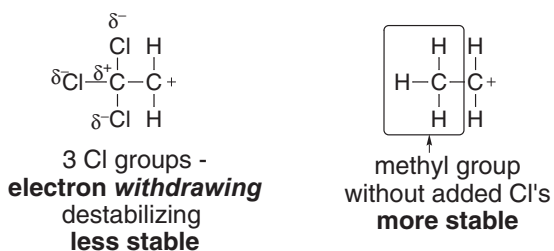
7.38 I carbocationi sono classificati attraverso il numero dei gruppi R legati al carbonio: 0 gruppi R = metile, 1 gruppo R = 1°, 2 gruppi R = 2°, e 3 gruppi R = 3°.



7.39 Per i carbocationi: Aumento del numero di gruppi R = Aumento della stabilità.

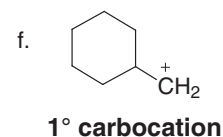
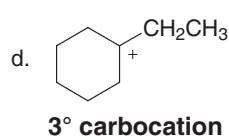
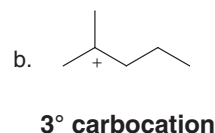
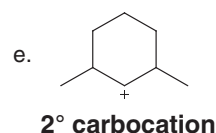
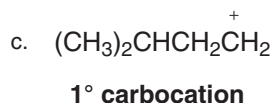
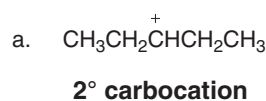


7.40

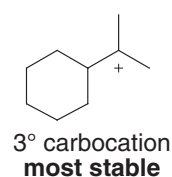
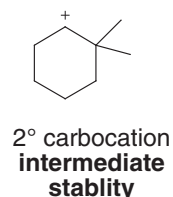
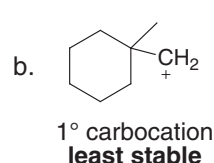
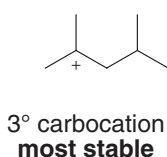
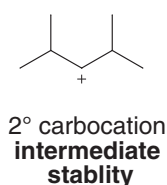
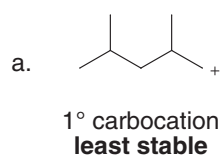


In $Cl_3CCH_2^+$, i tre atomi di Cl elettroni attrattori posizionano una parziale carica positiva sul carbonio adiacente al carbocatione, destabilizzandolo.

7.41 Seguire le definizioni della risposta 7.38.



7.42 Per i carbocationi: **Aumento del numero di gruppi R = Aumento della stabilità.**

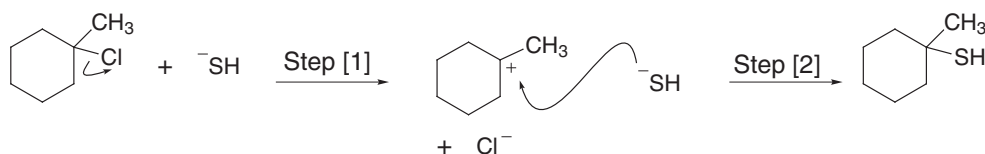


7.43 In una reazione del primo ordine, **la velocità cambia con ogni cambiamento di [RX]**. La velocità è indipendente da ogni cambiamento di [nucleofilo].

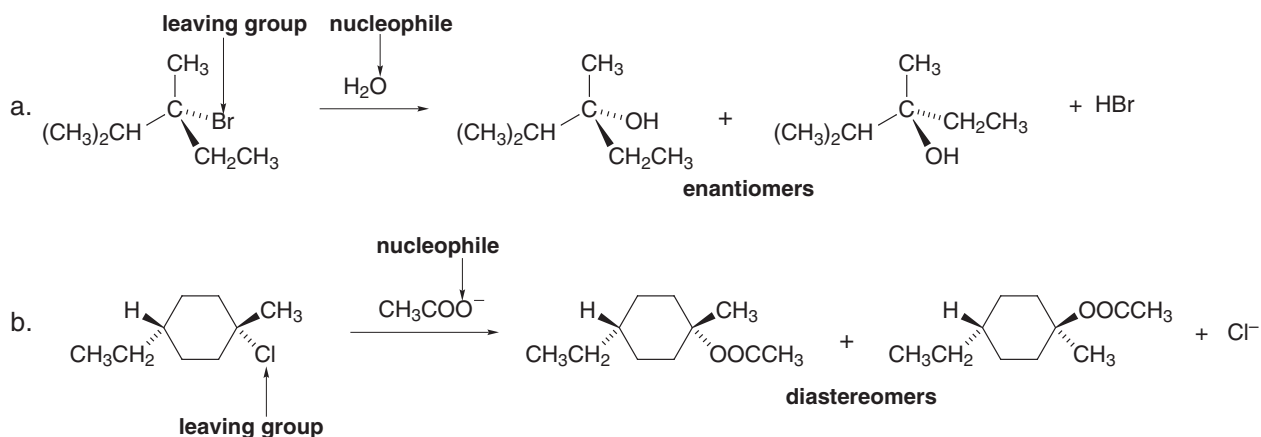
- Se [RX] viene triplicata, e [:Nu⁻] resta uguale: **la velocità triplica.**
- Se sia [RX] che [:Nu⁻] vengono triplicate: **la velocità triplica.**
- Se [RX] viene dimezzata, e [:Nu⁻] resta uguale: **la velocità si dimezza.**
- Se [RX] viene dimezzata, e [:Nu⁻] viene raddoppiata: **la velocità si dimezza.**

7.44 I due passaggi di una reazione S_N1 sono:

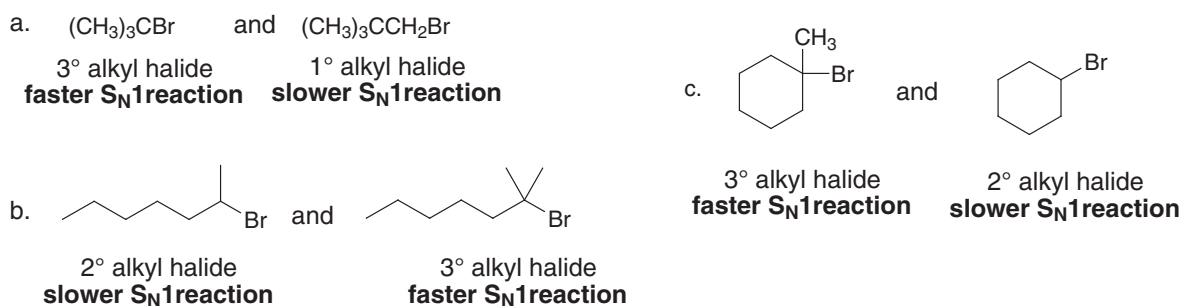
- [1] Rottura del legame C–Z per formare un carbocatione (Z = gruppo uscente).**
- [2] Formazione del legame C–Nu.**



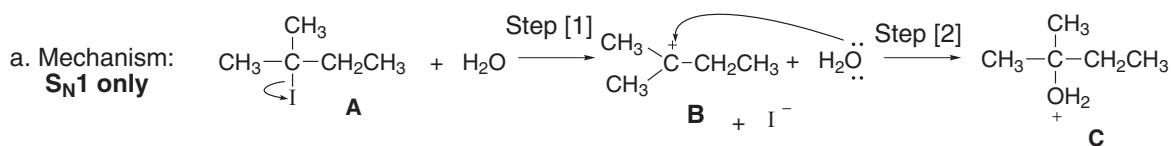
7.45 In reazioni S_N1, avviene sempre **racemizzazione di un centro stereogenico**. Disegnare i due prodotti, con le due possibili configurazioni del centro stereogenico.



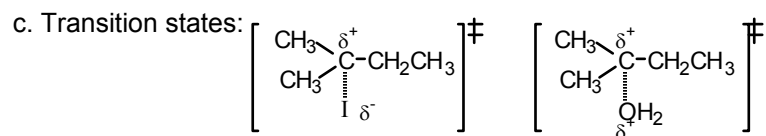
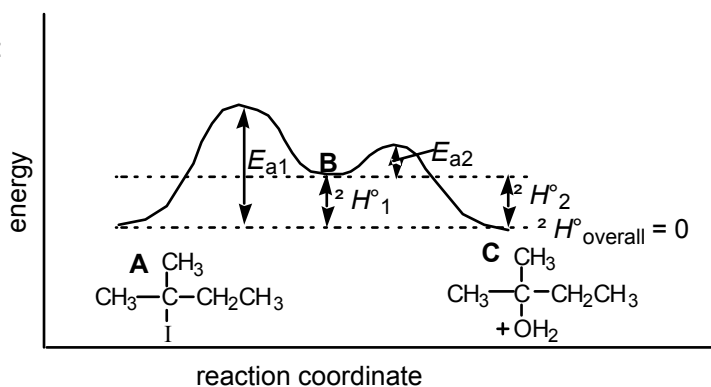
7.46 La velocità di reazione aumenta all'aumentare della sostituzione alchilica.



7.47



b. Energy diagram:



d. rate equation: **rate** = $k[(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{CICH}_2\text{CH}_3]$

e. [1] Leaving group changed from I^- to Cl^- : **rate decreases** since I^- is a better leaving group.

[2] Solvent changed from H_2O (polar protic) to DMF (polar aprotic):

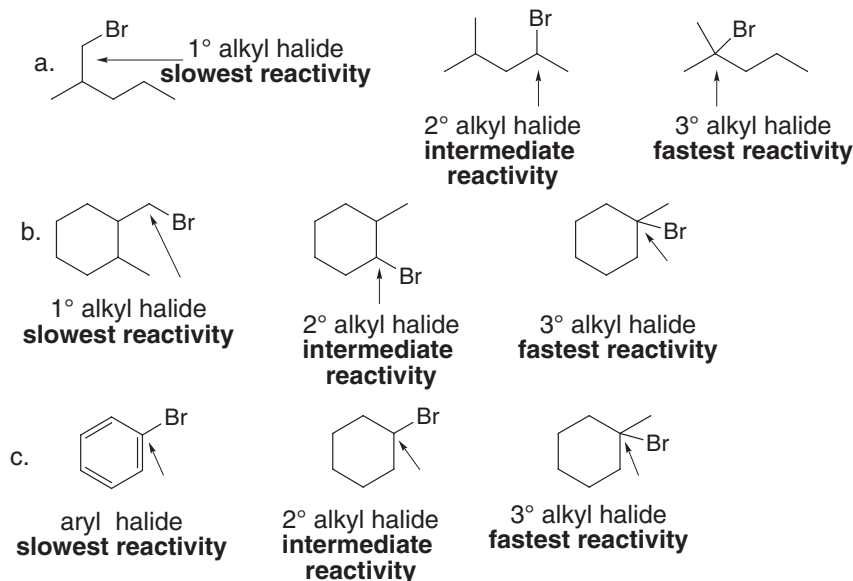
rate decreases since polar protic solvent favors $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1$.

[3] Alkyl halide changed from 3° to 2° : **rate decreases** since 2° carbocations are less stable.

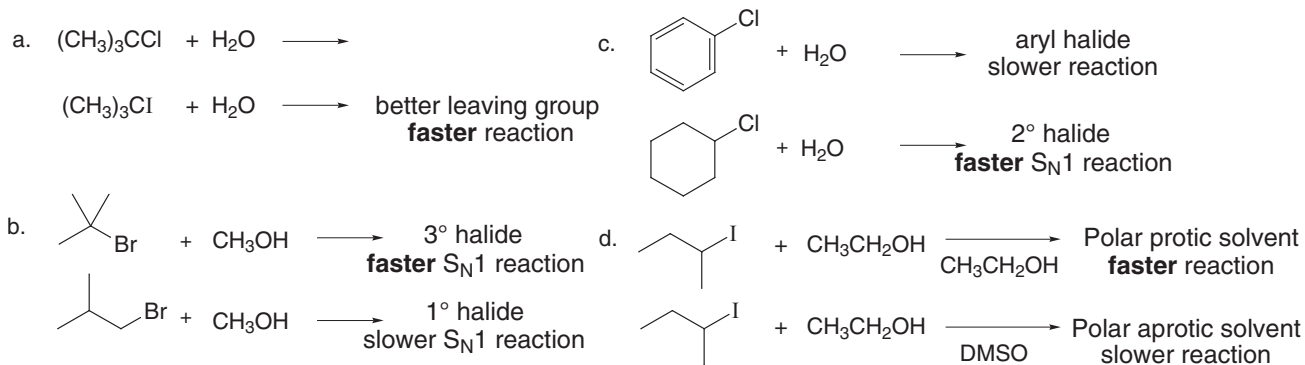
[4] $[\text{H}_2\text{O}]$ increased by factor of five: **no change in rate** since H_2O is not in rate equation.

[5] $[\text{R-X}]$ and $[\text{H}_2\text{O}]$ increased by factor of five: **rate increases** by a factor of five. (Only the concentration of R-X affects the rate.)

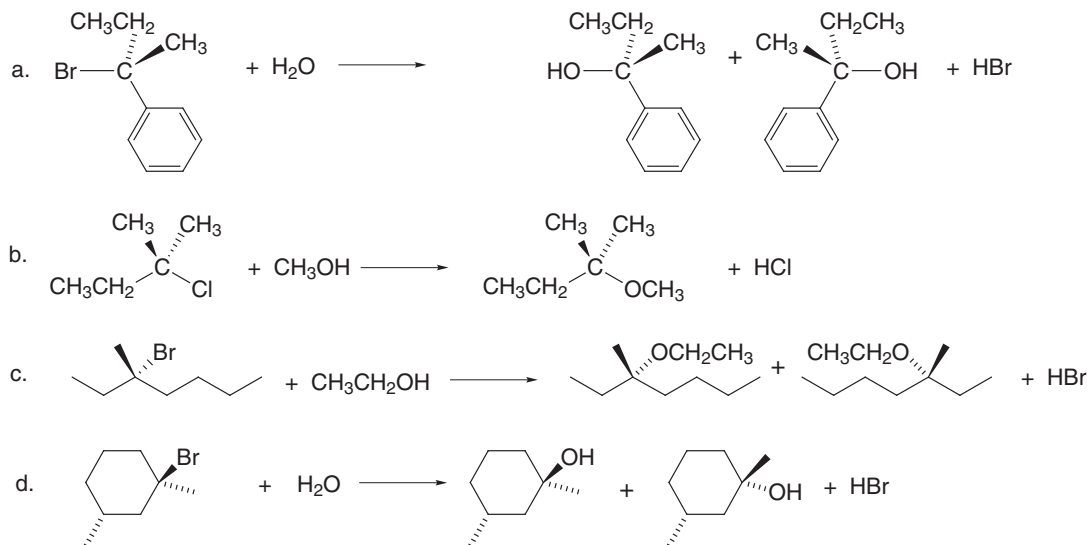
7.48 La velocità della reazione $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1$ aumenta con l'aumentare della sostituzione alchilica.



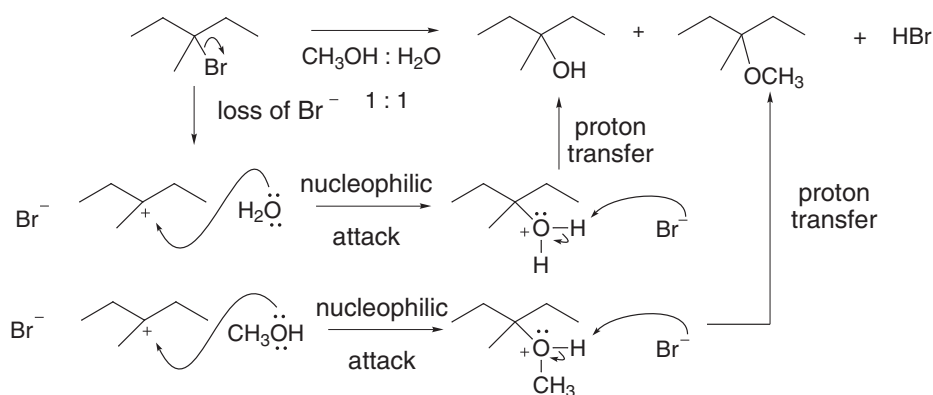
7.49 La velocità della reazione $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1$ aumenta con l'aumentare della sostituzione alchilica, solventi polari protici, e migliori gruppi uscenti.



7.50

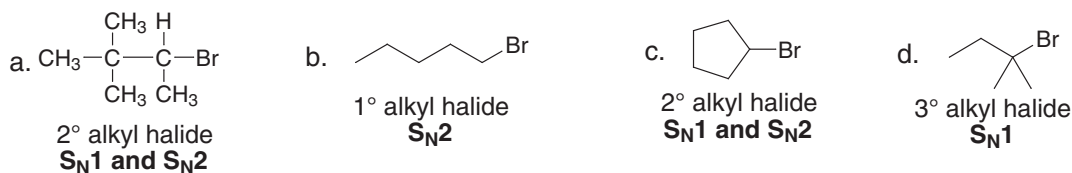


7.51



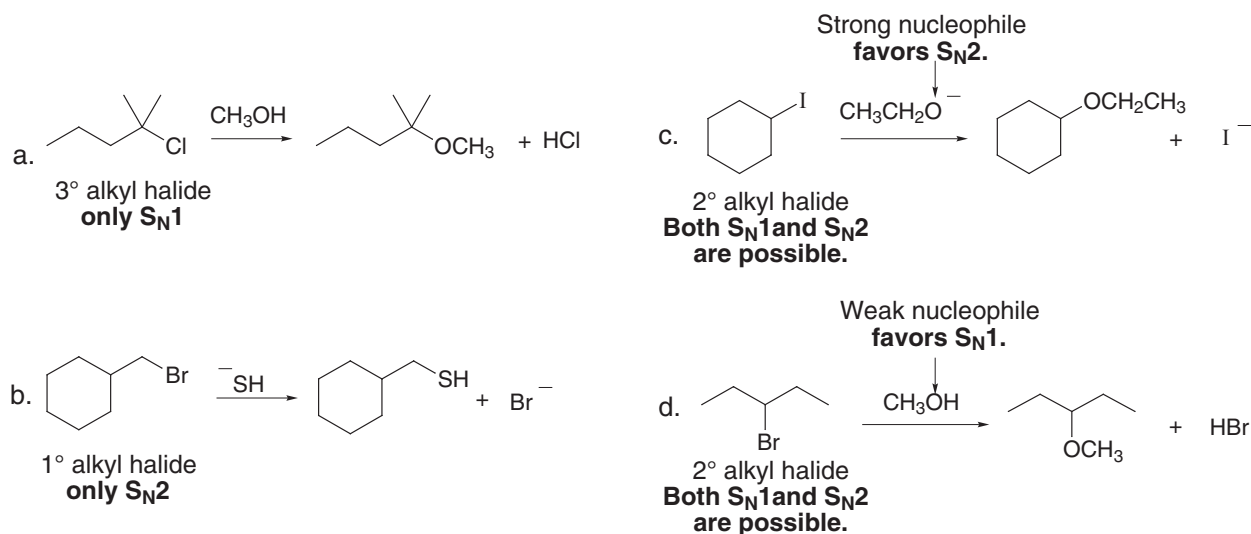
7.52 Solventi più polari favoriscono le reazioni S_N1 attraverso la stabilizzazione del carbocatione intermedio. Diminuzione della polarità del solvente diminuisce la velocità della reazione S_N1 rendendo l' *E_a* più elevata.

- 7.53**
- Per **alogenuri alchilici metilici e 1°**, si avrà solo S_N2.
 - Per **alogenuri alchilici 2°**, si avrà S_N1 e S_N2.
 - Per **alogenuri alchilici 3°**, si avrà solo S_N1.

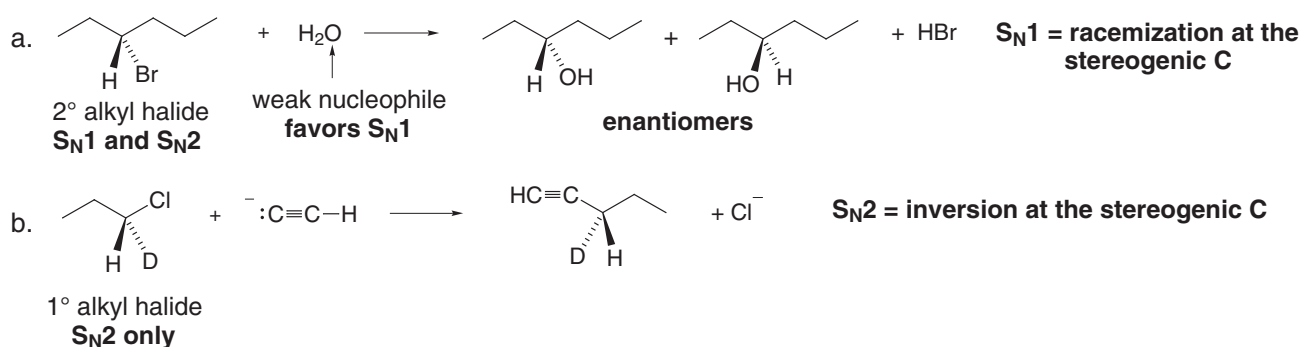


7.54 • Per **alogenuri alchilici metilici e 1°**, si avrà solo S_N2.

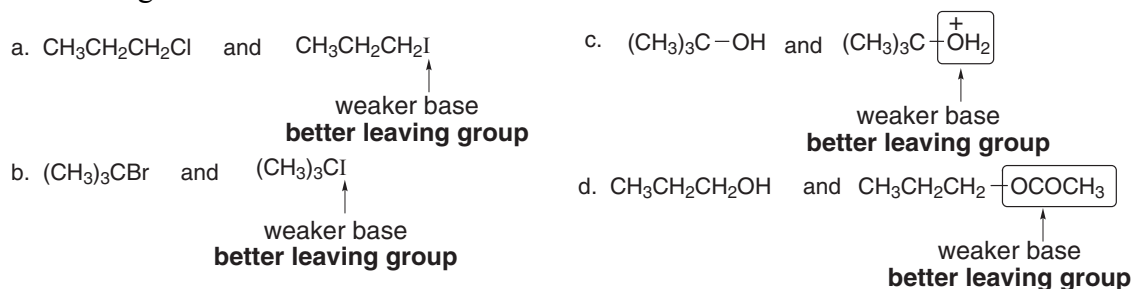
- Per **alogenuri alchilici 2°**, si avrà S_N1 e S_N2 ed altri fattori determineranno quale meccanismo sarà operante.
- Per **alogenuri alchilici 3°**, si avrà solo S_N1 .



7.55 Prima decidere se la reazione procede *via* un meccanismo S_N1 o S_N2 . Quindi disegnare il prodotto, con la stereochimica.



7.56 I composti con gruppi uscenti migliori reagiscono più velocemente. Basi più deboli sono gruppi uscenti migliori.



7.57 • Solventi polari protici favoriscono il meccanismo S_N1 attraverso la solvatazione del carbocatione intermedio e dell'alogenuro.

• **Solventi polari aprotici** favoriscono il meccanismo S_N2 rendendo il nucleofilo più forte.

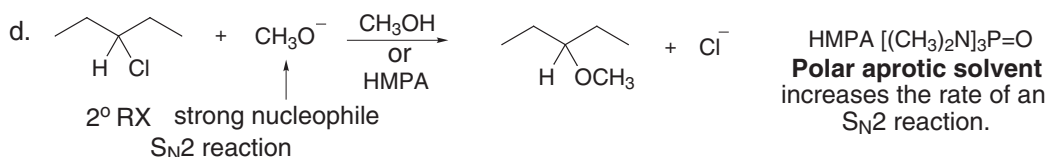
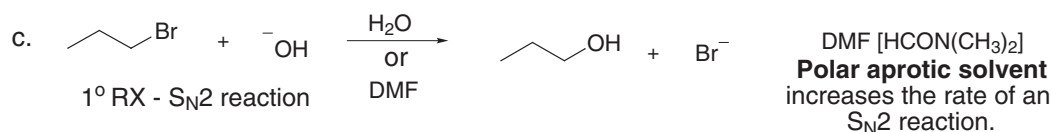
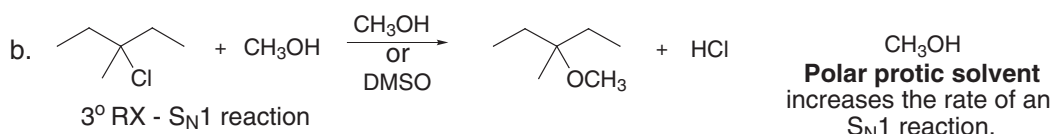
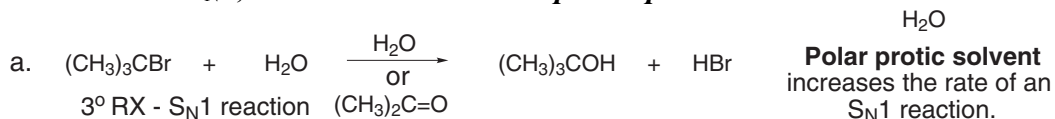
a. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$
polar protic solvent
contains an O—H bond
favors S_N1

b. CH_3CN
polar aprotic solvent
no O—H or N—H bond
favors S_N2

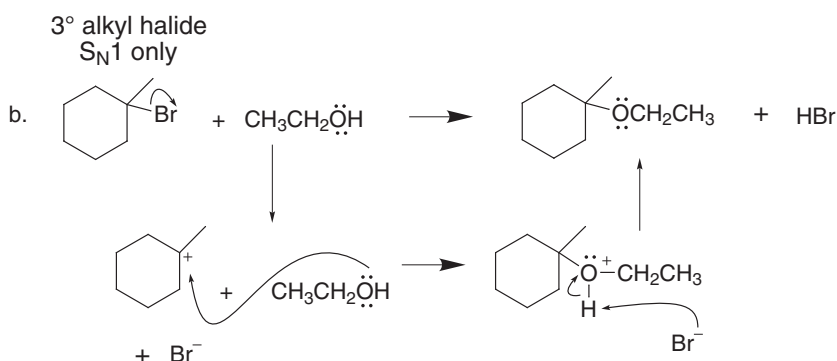
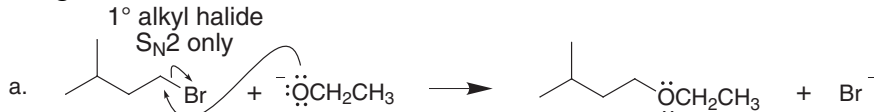
c. CH_3COOH
polar protic solvent
contains an O—H bond
favors S_N1

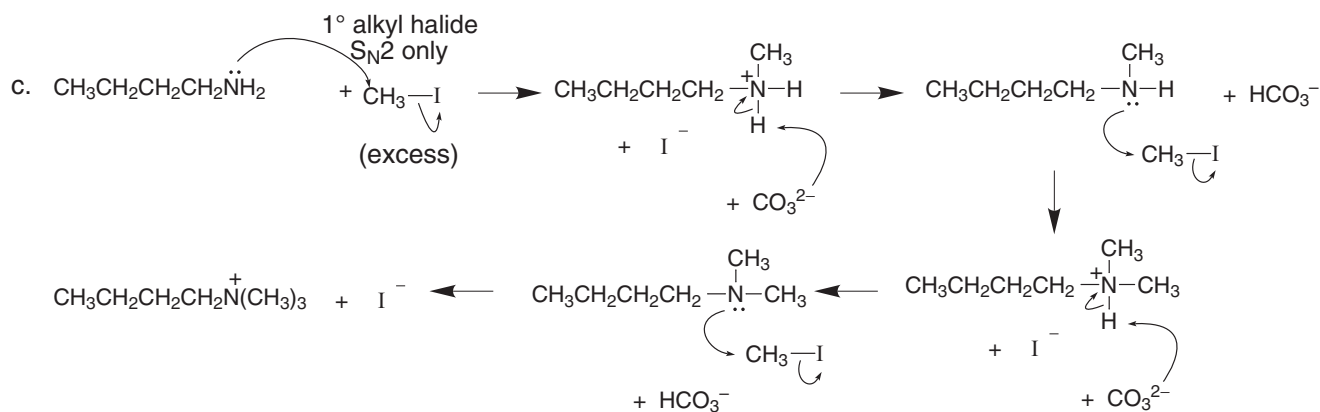
d. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_3$
polar aprotic solvent
no O—H or N—H bond
favors S_N2

7.58 Confrontare i solventi nelle reazioni seguenti. **Perché un solvente aumenti la velocità di reazione di una reazione S_N1 , il solvente deve essere polare protico.**

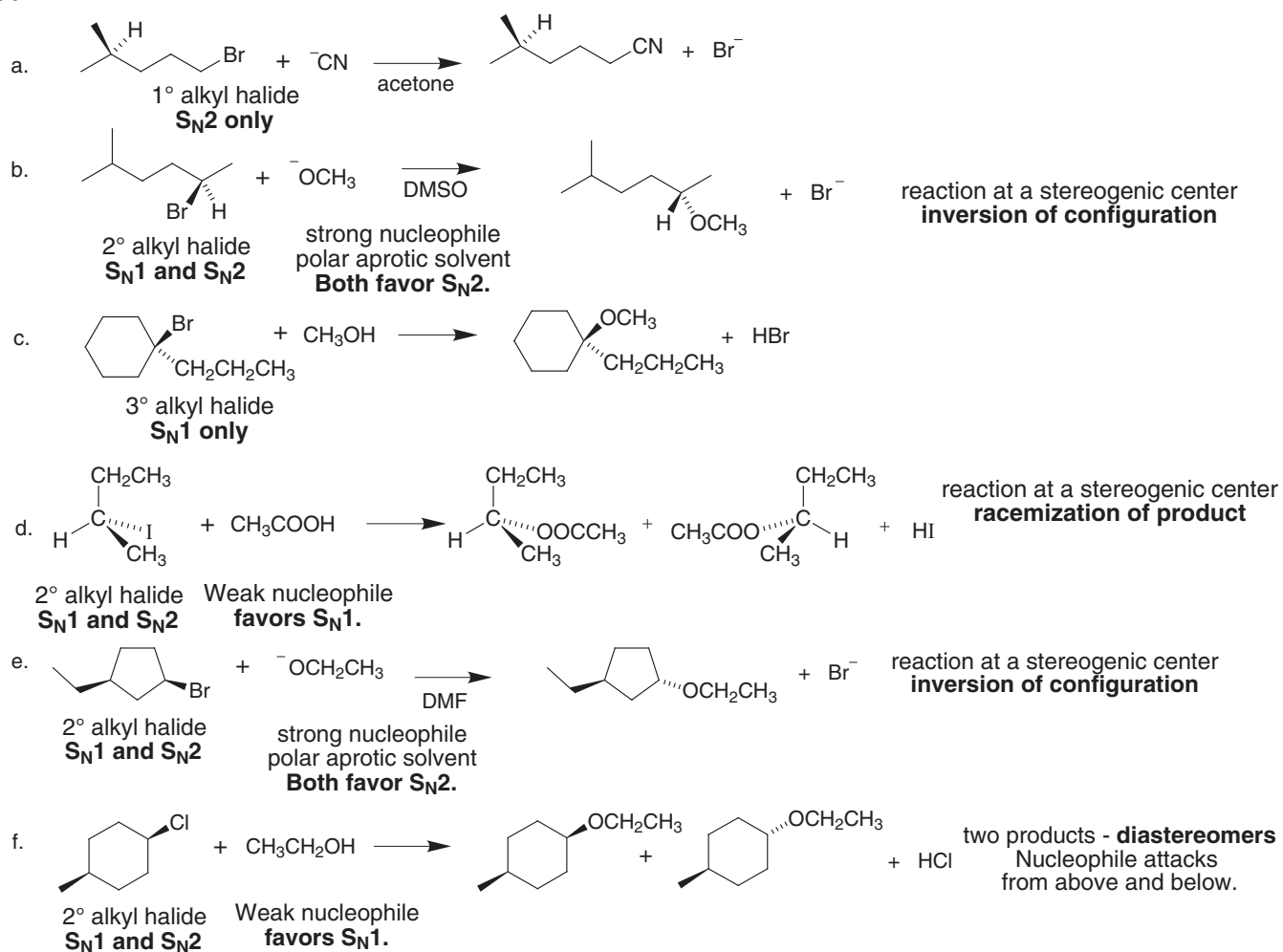


7.59 Prima decidere se la reazione procederà con meccanismo S_N1 o S_N2 (Risposta 7.36), e successivamente disegnare il meccanismo.

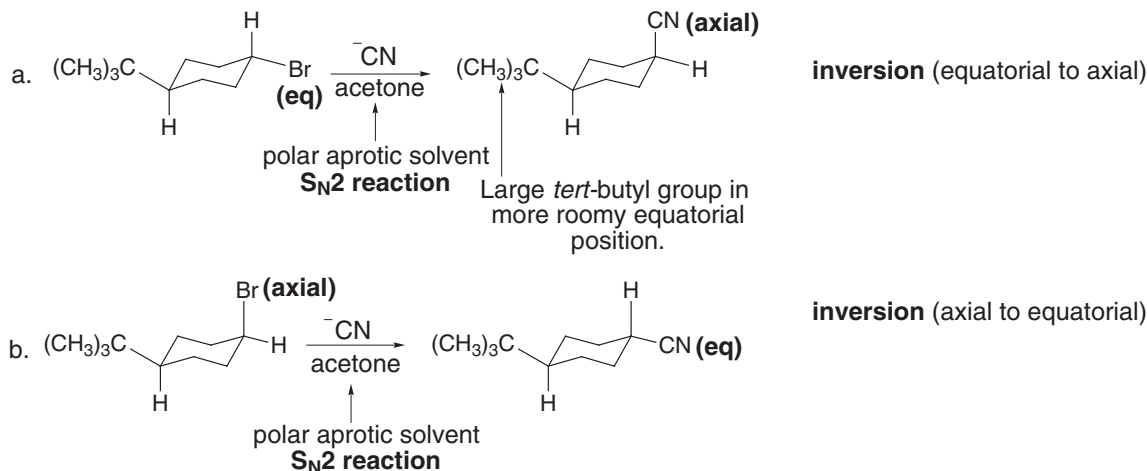




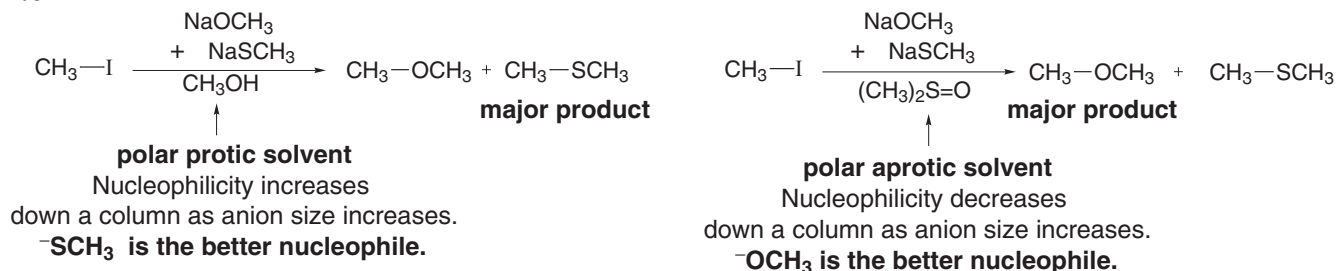
7.60



7.61



7.62



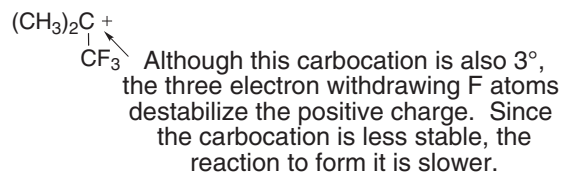
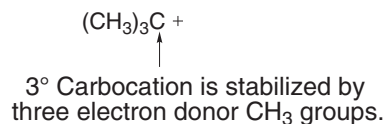
7.63

a. Hexane is nonpolar and therefore few nucleophiles will dissolve in it.

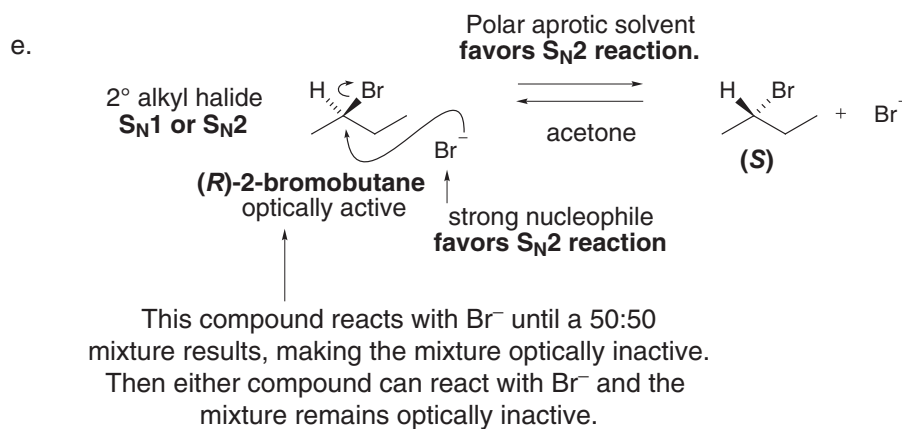
b. $(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{CO}^-$ is a stronger base than $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{O}^-$:

↑
The three electron donating CH_3 groups add electron density to the negative charge of the conjugate base, destabilizing it and making it a stronger base.

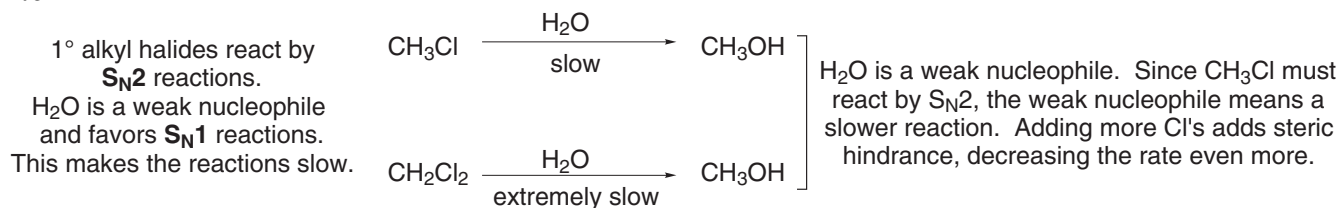
c. By the Hammond postulate, the $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1$ reaction is faster with RX that form more stable carbocations.



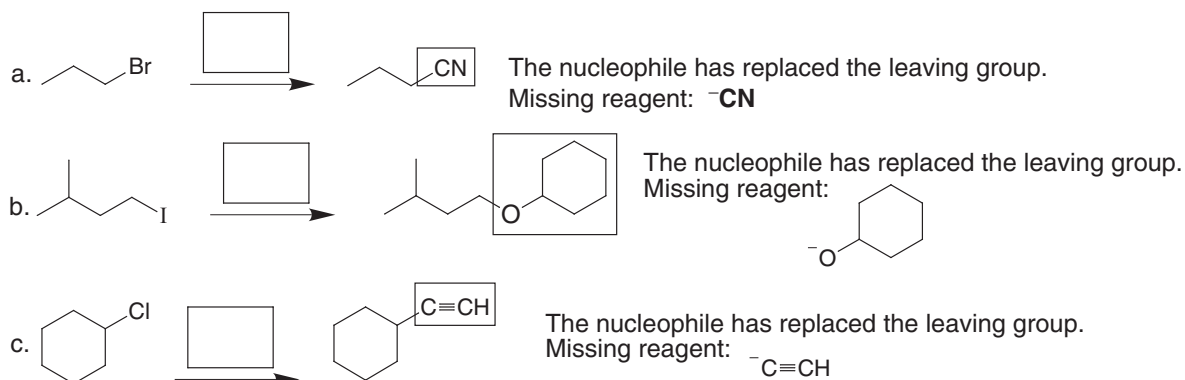
d. The identity of the nucleophile does not affect the rate of $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1$ reactions since the nucleophile does not appear in the rate-determining step.

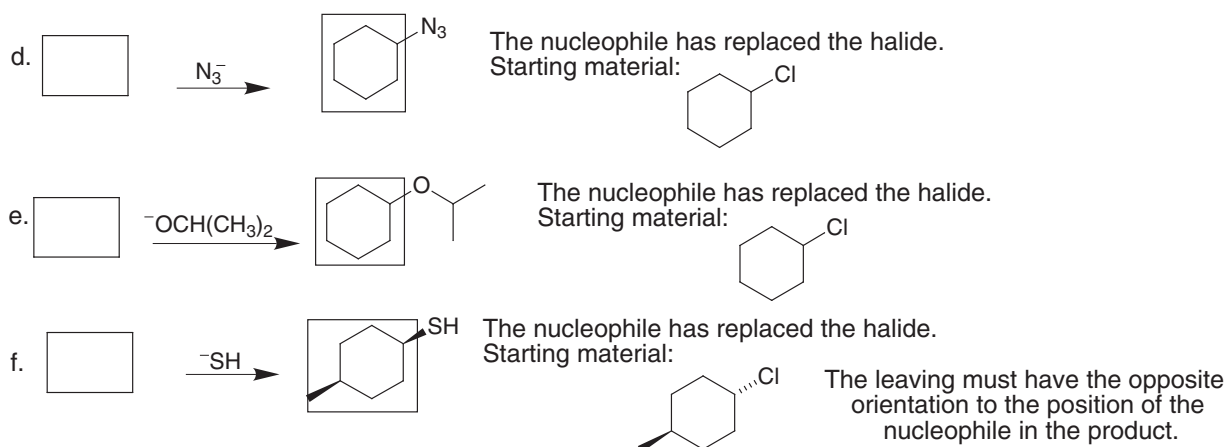


7.64

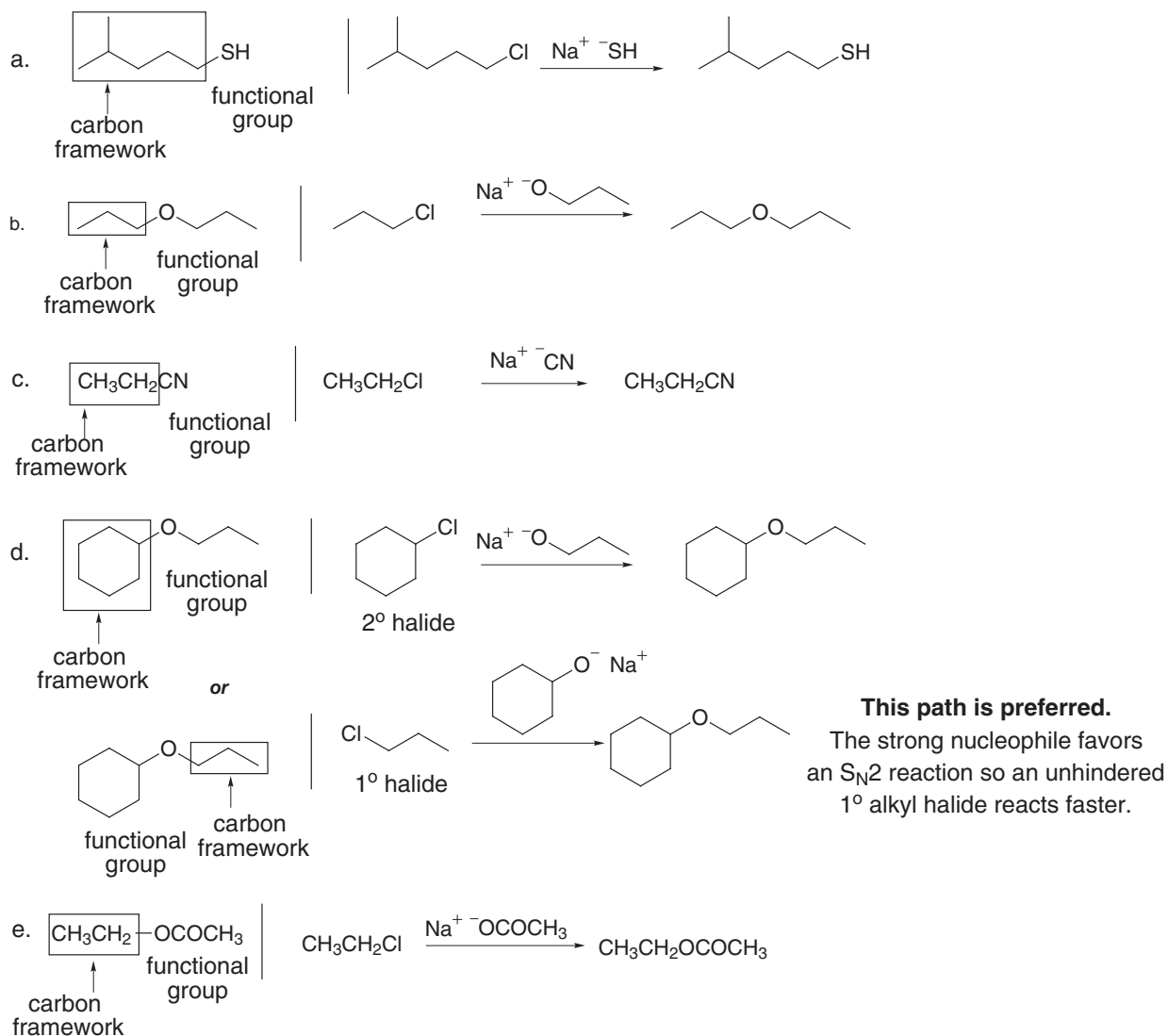


7.65

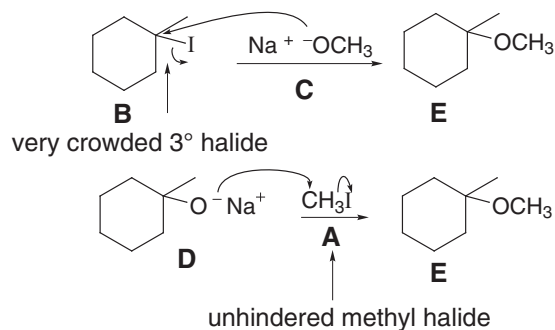




7.66 Per individuare una sintesi, individuare la frazione carboniosa ed il gruppo funzionale del prodotto. La frazione carboniosa deriva dall'alogenuro alchilico ed il gruppo funzionale da nucleofilo.



7.67

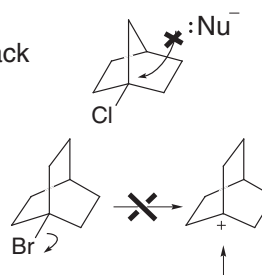


preferred method
The strong nucleophile favors $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$ reaction so the alkyl halide should be unhindered for a faster reaction.

7.68

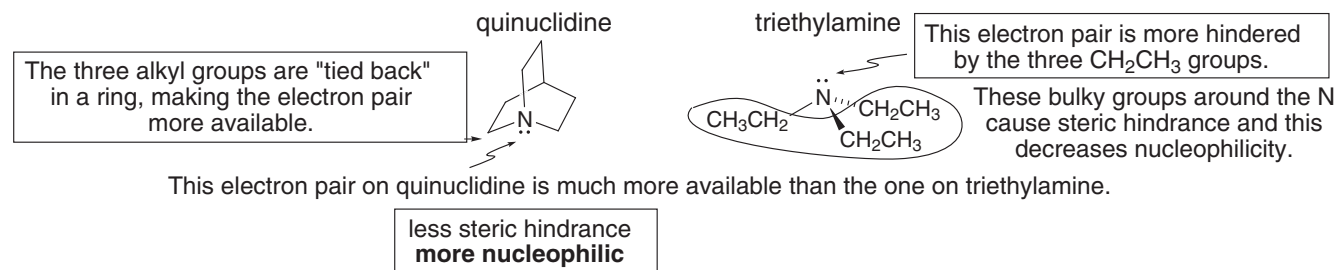
A and **B** can't react by an $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$ mechanism because the backside attack of the nucleophile is blocked:

The $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1$ reaction would require a planar carbocation, and geometry doesn't allow this to occur. The resulting carbocation cannot adopt the needed trigonal planar geometry and thus it does not form.

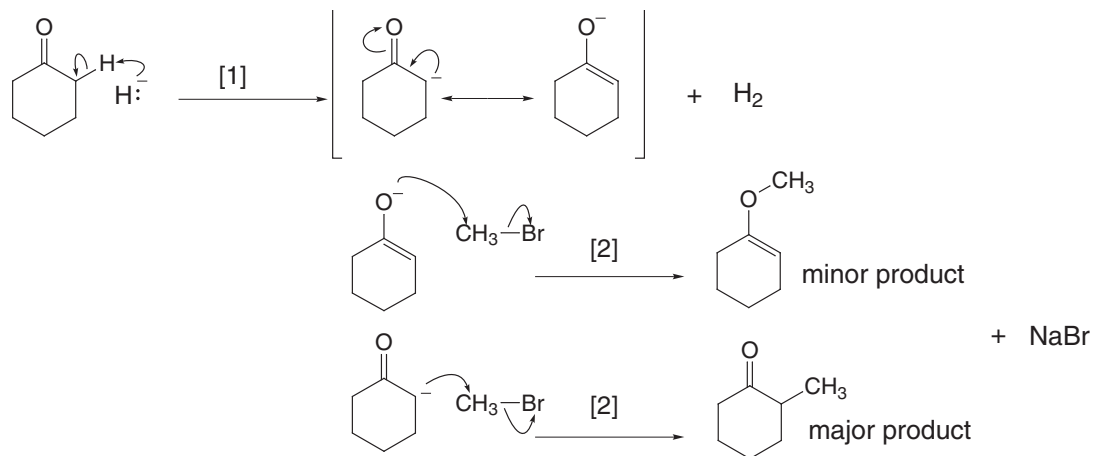


This carbocation cannot adopt a trigonal planar geometry.

7.69 L'ingombro sterico diminuisce la nucleofilicità.

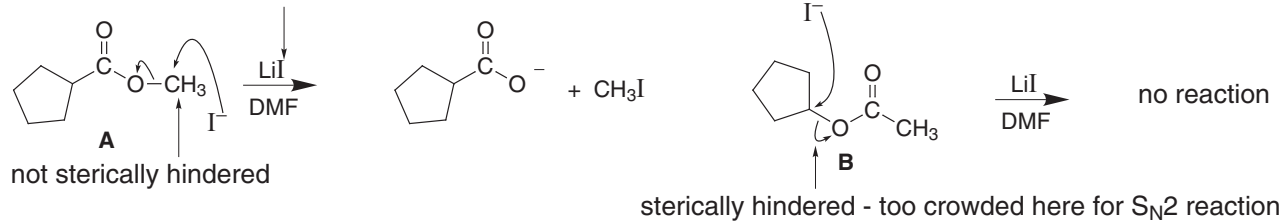


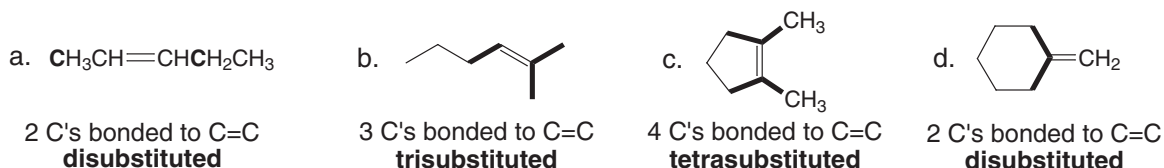
7.70



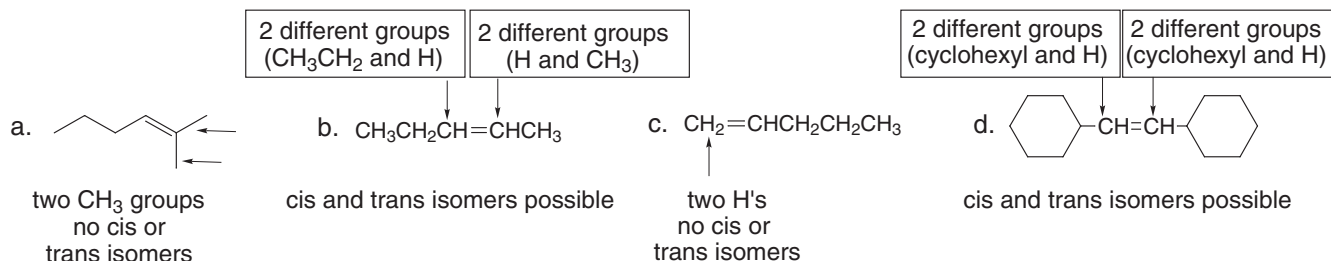
7.71

I^- can act as a nucleophile, but it needs to attack at an unhindered site.



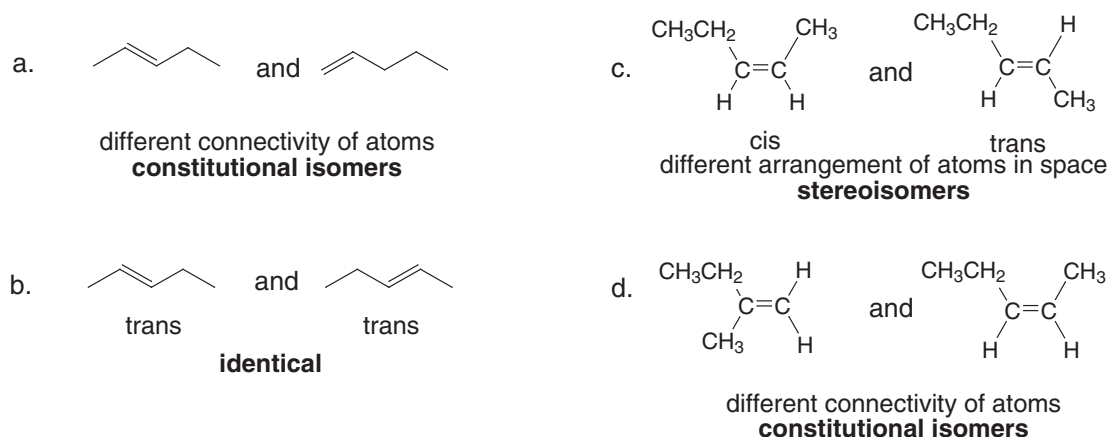


8.5 Perché esistano isomeri cis e trans, i due gruppi su ciascun carbonio terminale del doppio legame devono essere diversi tra loro.



8.6 Due definizioni:

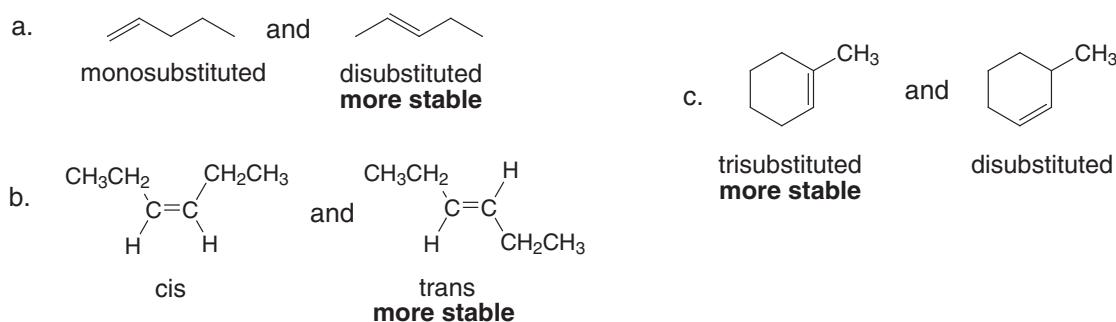
- **Gli isomeri costituzionali** differiscono nell'ordine in cui gli atomi sono legati fra loro.
- **Gli stereoisomeri** differiscono solo nella disposizione 3-D degli atomi nello spazio.



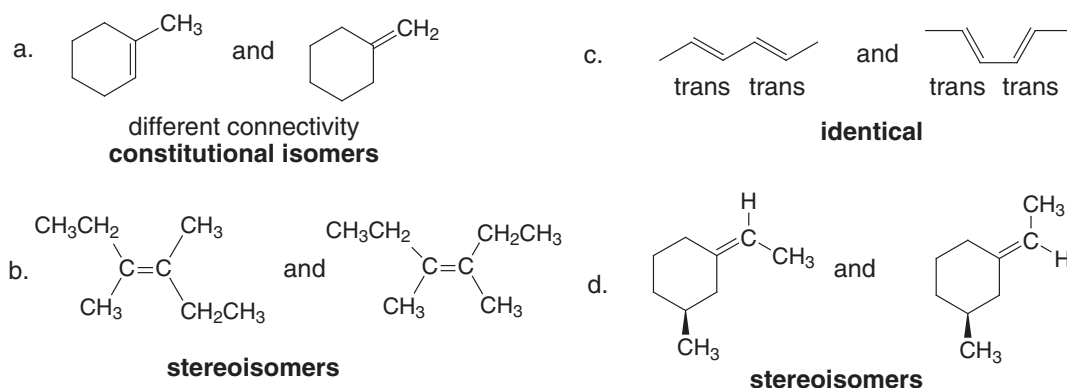
8.7 Due regole per predire la stabilità relativa degli alcheni:

[1] Gli alcheni trans sono più stabili di quelli cis.

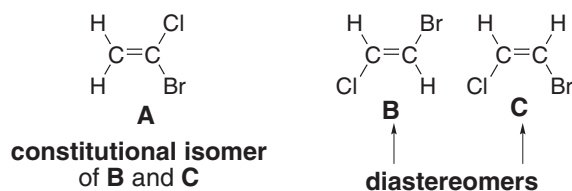
[2] La stabilità di un alchene aumenta all'aumentare dei gruppi R sul doppio legame C=C.



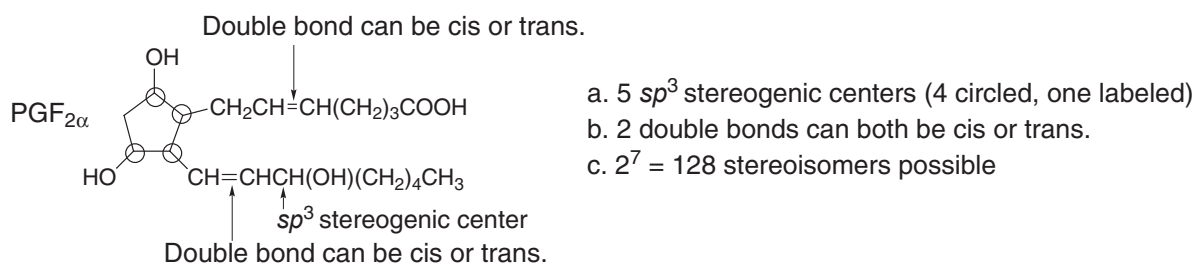
8.8 Usare le definizioni della risposta 8.6.



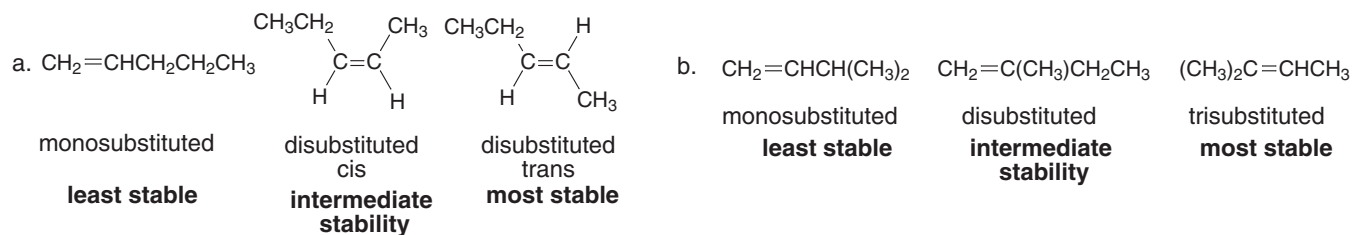
8.9 Ci sono tre isomeri diversi. Gli isomeri cis e trans sono diastereomeri.



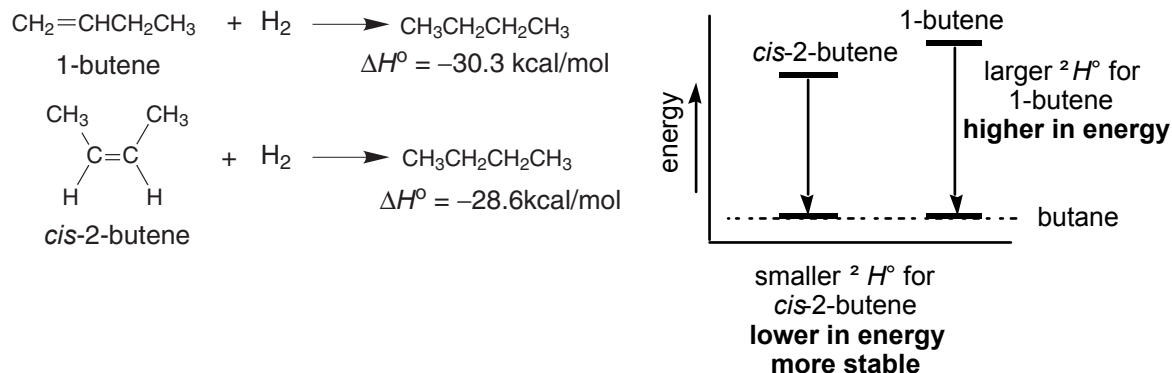
8.10



8.11 Usare le regole della risposta 8.5 per ordinare gli alcheni.

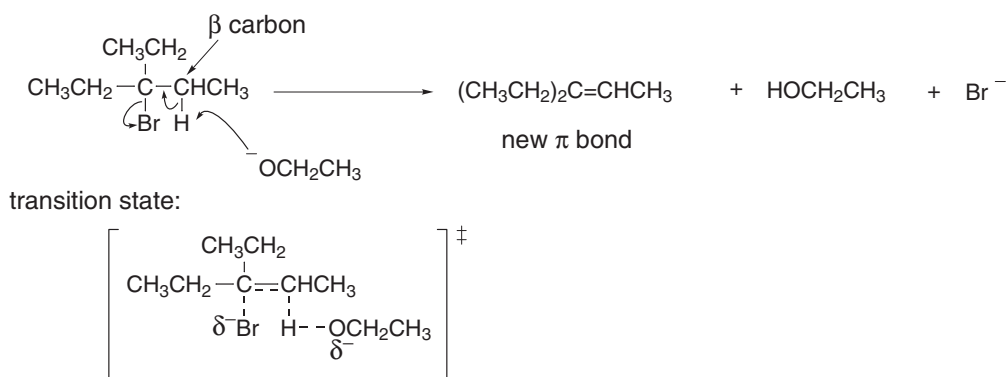


8.12 Un valore più negativo di ΔH° significa che la reazione è più esotermica. Poiché sia l'1-butene che il *cis*-2-butene formano lo stesso prodotto (butano) questo dato mostra che l'1-butene presenta un'energia più elevata, **dal momento che viene rilasciata più energia nella reazione di idrogenazione.**

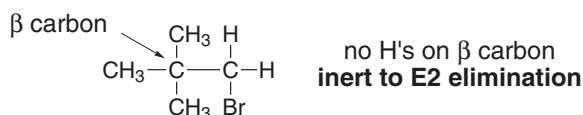


8.13 In un meccanismo E2, quattro legami sono coinvolti in un singolo passaggio. Usare le frecce curve per mostrare queste azioni simultanee:

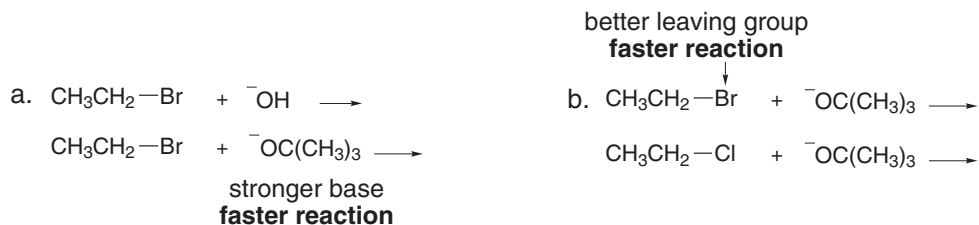
- [1] La base attacca un idrogeno su un carbonio β .
- [2] Si forma un legame π .
- [3] Il gruppo uscente viene allontanato.



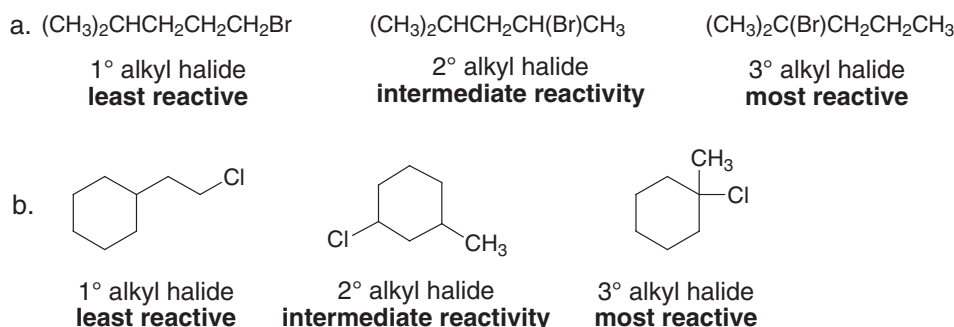
8.14 Perché possa avvenire una eliminazione E2 è necessaria la presenza di almeno un idrogeno su un carbonio β .



8.15



8.16 All'aumentare dei gruppi R sul carbonio che porta il gruppo uscente, la velocità di una reazione E2 aumenta.



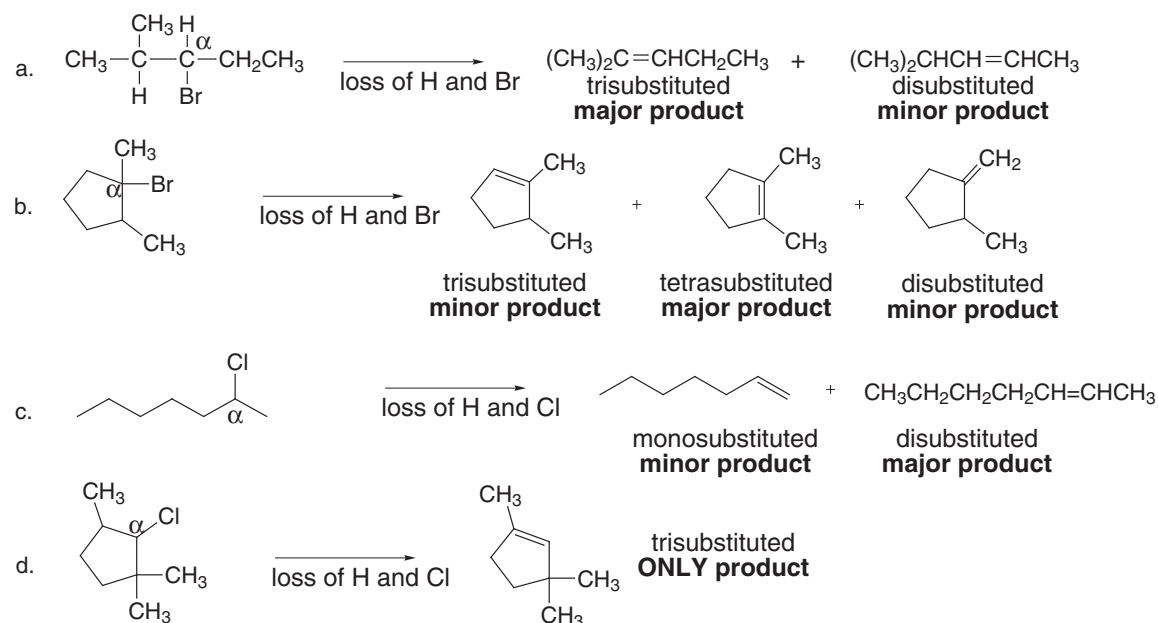
8.17 Usare le seguenti caratteristiche di una reazione E2 per rispondere alle domande:

- [1] Le reazioni E2 sono del secondo ordine ed ad un singolo stadio.
- [2] Gli alogenuri più sostituiti reagiscono più velocemente.
- [3] Le reazioni con basi forti o gruppi uscenti migliori sono più veloci.
- [4] Le reazioni con solventi polari aprotici sono più veloci.

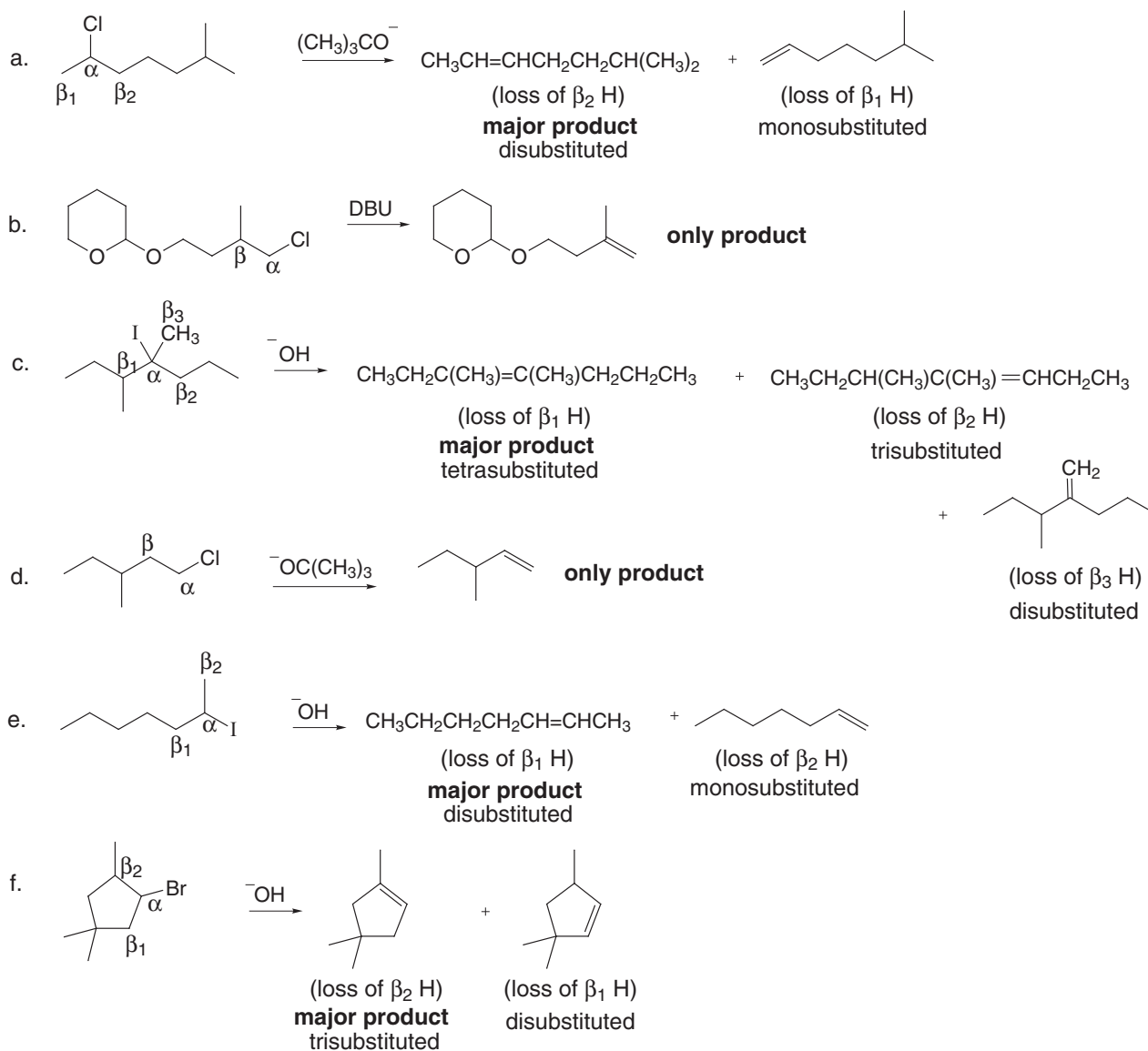
Equazione della velocità: velocità = $k[\text{RX}][\text{Base}]$

- a. triplicare la concentrazione dell'alogenuro alchilico = **la velocità triplica**
- b. dimezzare la concentrazione della base = **la velocità dimezza**
- c. cambiare il solvente da CH_3OH a DMSO = **la velocità aumenta** (Un solvente polare aprotico è migliore per l'E2.)
- d. cambiare il gruppo uscente da I^- a Br^- = **la velocità decresce** (I^- è un gruppo uscente migliore.)
- e. cambiare la base da OH^- a H_2O = **la velocità decresce** (base più debole)
- f. cambiare l'alogenuro alchilico da $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{Br}$ a $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{CHBr}$ = **la velocità aumenta** (Gli alogenuri più sostituiti reagiscono più velocemente).

8.18 La regola di Zaitsev stabilisce: In una reazione di β -eliminazione, il prodotto maggioritario ha il doppio legame più sostituito.

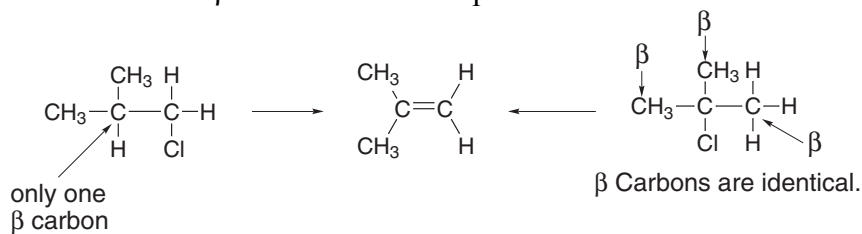


8.19

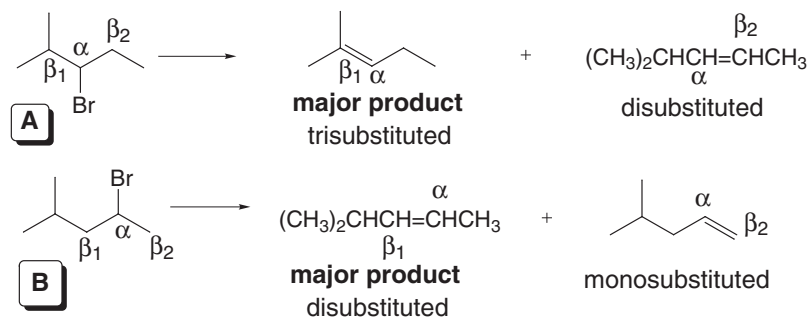


8.20 Per dare un alchene solo come prodotto dell'eliminazione, l'alogenuro alchilico deve avere alternativamente:

- Solo un carbonio β con un atomo di idrogeno.
- Tutti i carboni β identici così che i prodotti dell'eliminazione risultano identici.



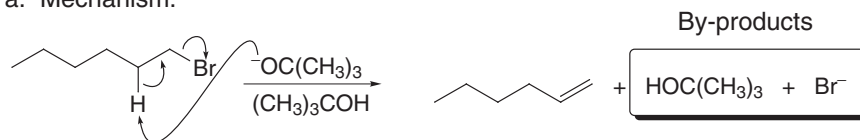
8.21 Disegnare i prodotti della reazione E2 e confrontare il numero dei carboni legati al C=C.



A fornisce un alchene trisostituito come prodotto maggioritario ed un alchene disostituito come prodotto secondario. **B** fornisce un alchene disostituito come prodotto maggioritario ed un alchene monosostituito come prodotto secondario. Poiché sia il prodotto maggioritario che quello secondario formati da **A** hanno più gruppi alchilici (e sono quindi più stabili) di quelli formati da **B**, **A** reagisce più velocemente in una reazione di eliminazione.

8.22

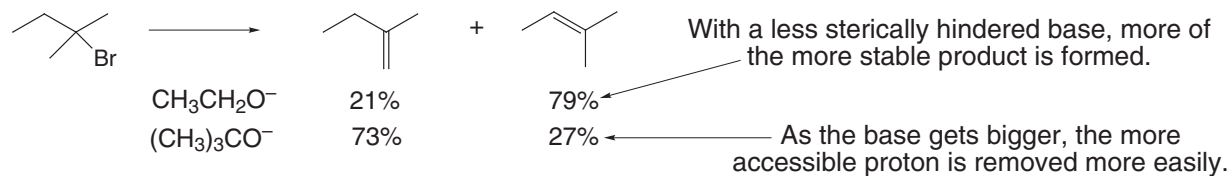
a. Mechanism:



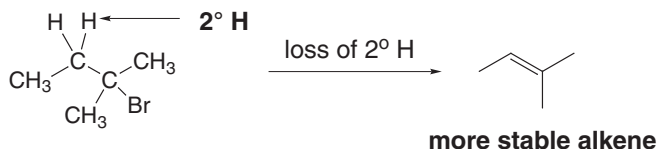
b. $\text{Rate} = k[\text{R-Br}][^-\text{OC(CH}_3)_3]$

1. Solvent changed to DMF (polar aprotic) = **rate increases**
2. $[^-\text{OC(CH}_3)_3]$ decreased = **rate decreases**
3. Base changed to ^-OH = **rate decreases** (weaker base)
4. Halide changed to 2° = **rate increases** (More substituted RX reacts faster.)
5. Leaving group changed to I^- = **rate increases** (better leaving group)

8.23

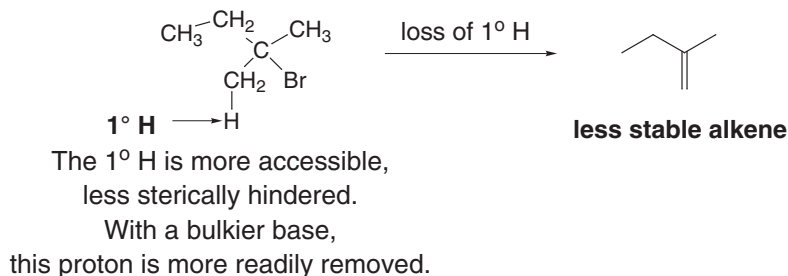


Removal of the less accessible 2° H gives the more substituted, more stable alkene.



This pathway is usually **favoured**, as is the case with $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{O}^-$ as base.

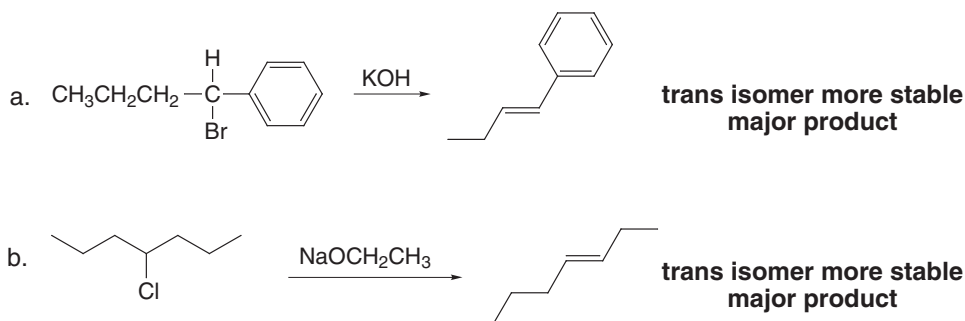
Removal of the more accessible 1° H gives the less substituted, less stable alkene.



As the base gets **bulkier**, the more accessible proton is removed faster; thus, the 1° H reacts faster than the 2° H, and the less stable alkene predominates.

Explanation: 1° H's are more easily removed than 2° H's with sterically hindered bases.

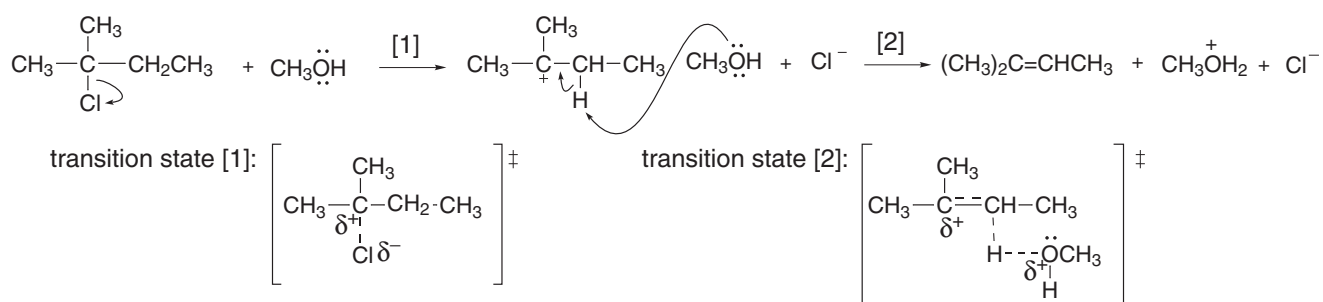
8.24



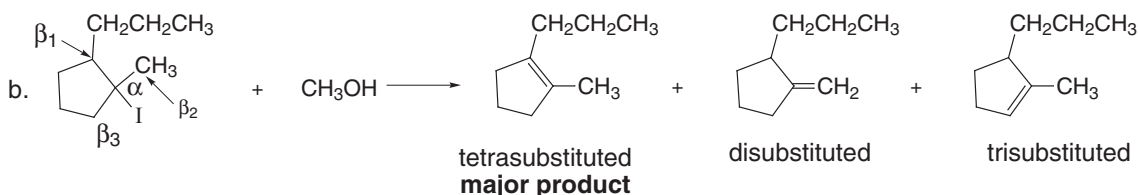
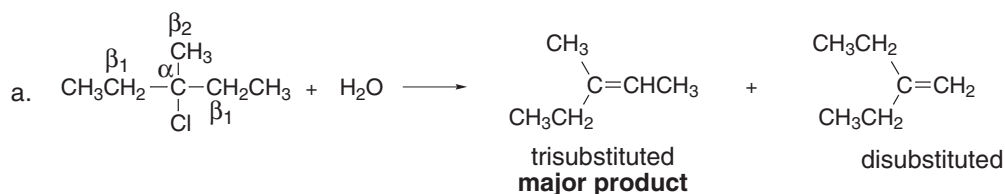
8.25 Un meccanismo E1 presenta due stadi:

[1] Il gruppo uscente si distacca, originando un carbocatione.

[2] Una base estrae un protone da un carbonio β, e si forma un legame π.



8.26 La regola di Zaitsev stabilisce: In una reazione di β-eliminazione, il prodotto maggioritario ha il doppio legame più sostituito.



8.27 Usare le seguenti caratteristiche di una reazione **E1** per rispondere alle domande:

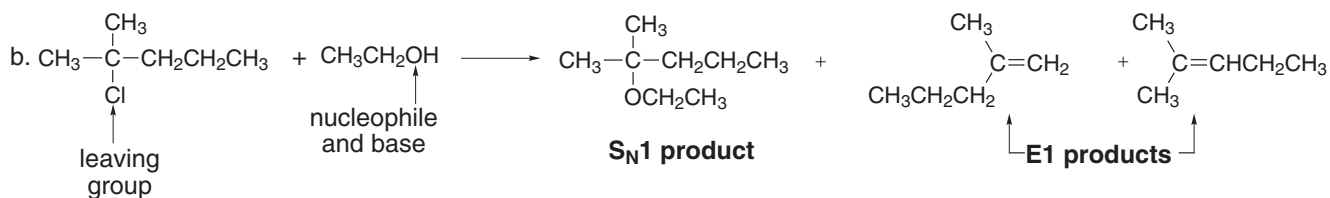
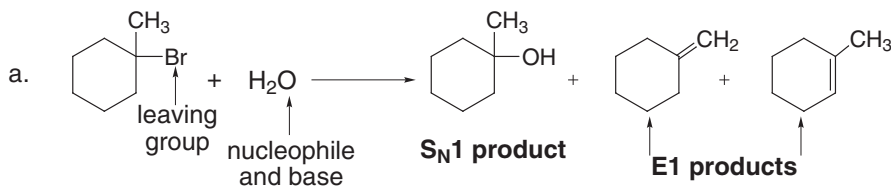
- [1] Le reazioni E1 sono del primo ordine ed a due stadi.
- [2] Alogenuri più sostituiti reagiscono più velocemente.
- [3] Sono preferite basi più deboli.
- [4] Le reazioni con migliori gruppi uscenti sono più veloci.
- [5] Le reazioni in solventi polari protici sono più veloci.

Equazione della velocità: velocità = $k[\text{RX}]$ La base non influenza la velocità.

- a. Raddoppio della concentrazione dell'alogenuro alchilico = **la velocità raddoppia**
- b. Raddoppio della concentrazione della base = **nessun cambiamento** (La base non è presente nell'equazione della velocità.)
- c. cambiare l'alogenuro alchilico da $(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{CBr}$ a $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{Br}$ = **la velocità decresce** (Alogenuri più sostituiti reagiscono più velocemente.)

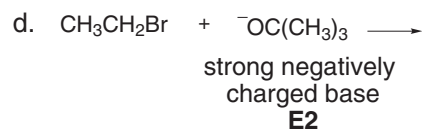
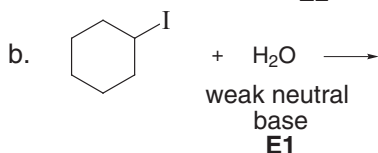
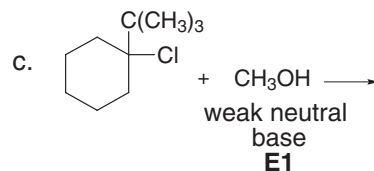
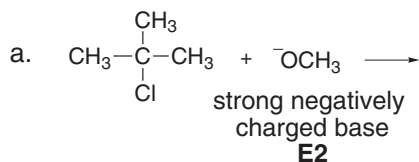
8.28 Sia la reazione $\text{S}_\text{N}1$ che quella E1 procedono attraverso la formazione di un carbocatione. Per disegnare i prodotti:

- [1] **Per la reazione $\text{S}_\text{N}1$** , sostituire il nucleofilo al gruppo uscente.
- [2] **Per la reazione E1**, rimuovere un protone da un carbonio β e creare un nuovo legame π .

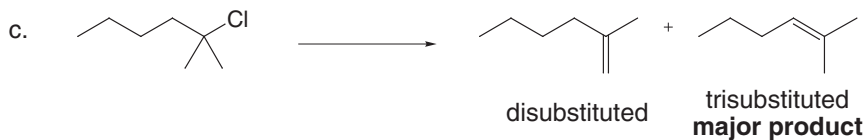
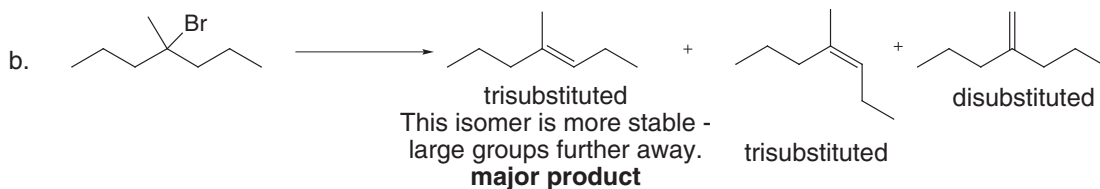
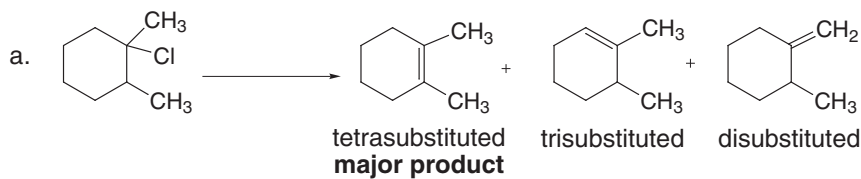


8.29 Le reazioni E2 sono favorite da basi con una forte carica negativa ed avvengono con alogenuri 1°, 2° e 3°, essendo i 3° i più reattivi.

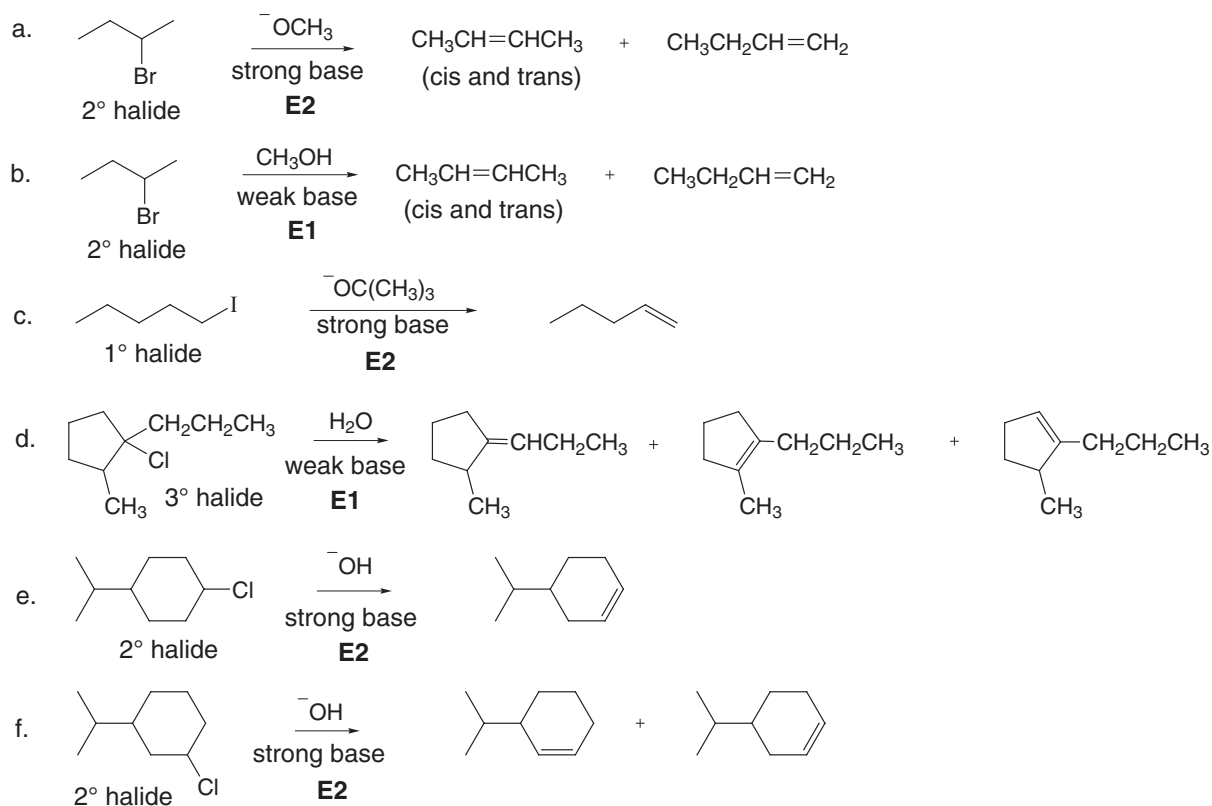
Le reazioni E1 sono favorite da basi neutre più deboli e non avvengono con alogenuri 1° poiché essi formano carbocationi molto instabili.



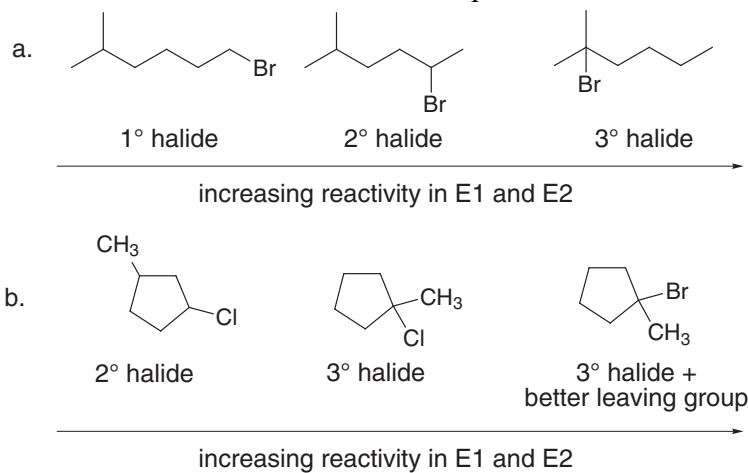
8.30



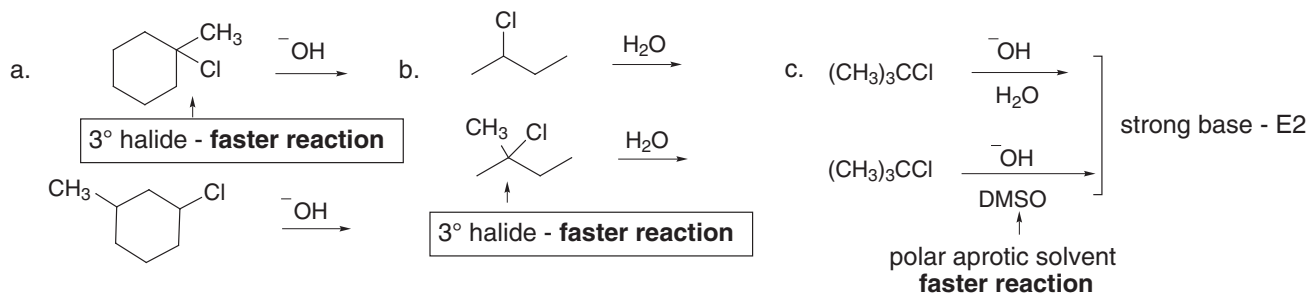
8.31 Usare le regole della risposta 8.29.



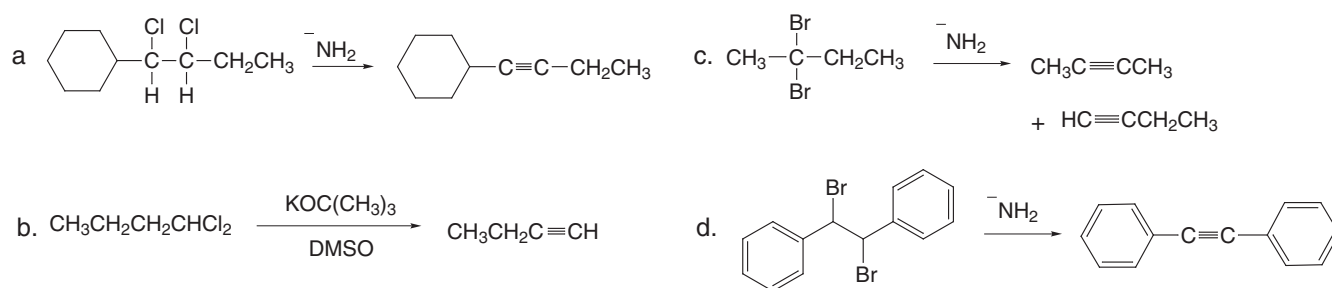
8.32 L'ordine di reattività è lo stesso sia per E2 che E1: $1^\circ < 2^\circ < 3^\circ$



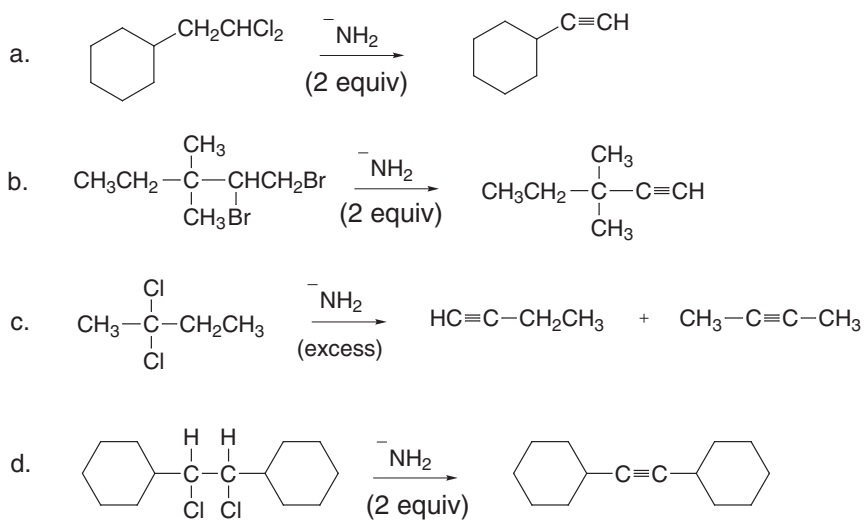
8.33



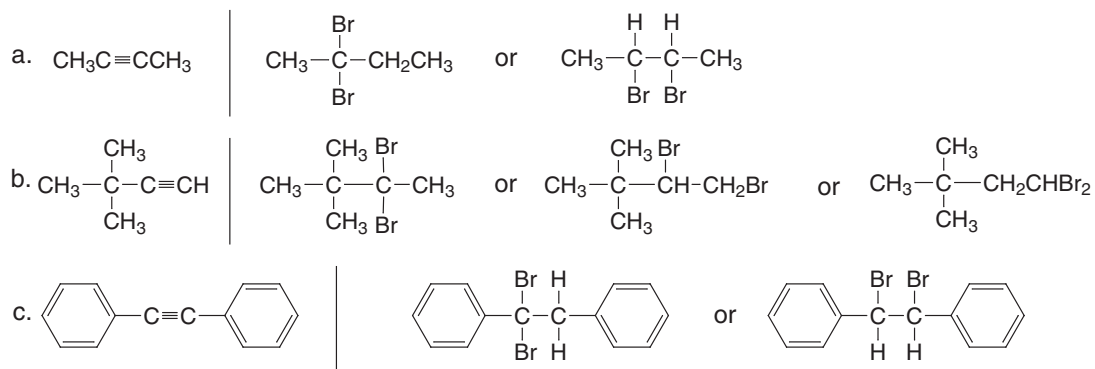
8.34 Disegnare gli alchini che si formano per eliminazione di due equivalenti di HX.



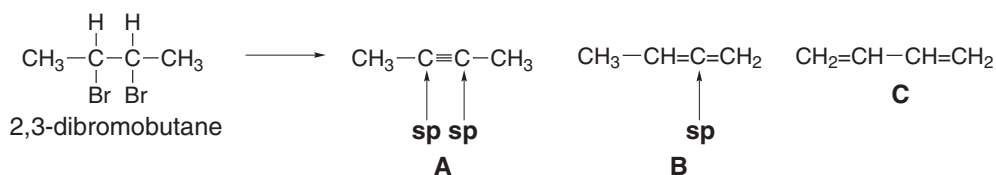
8.35



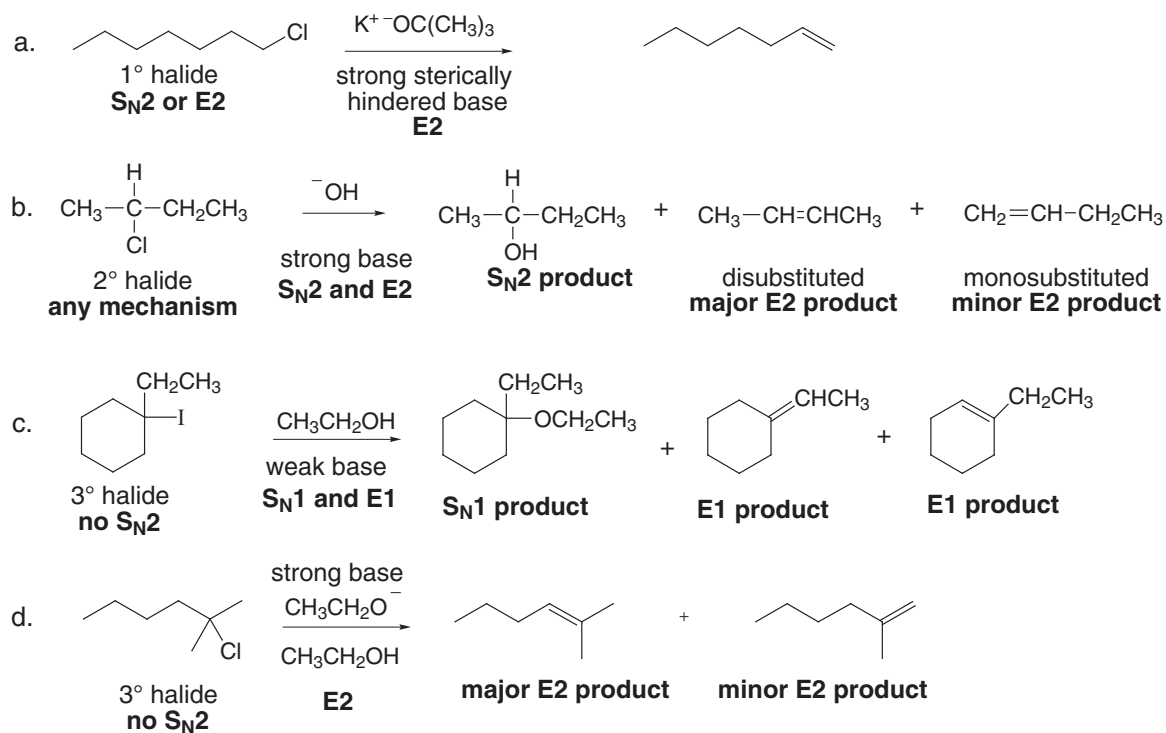
8.36



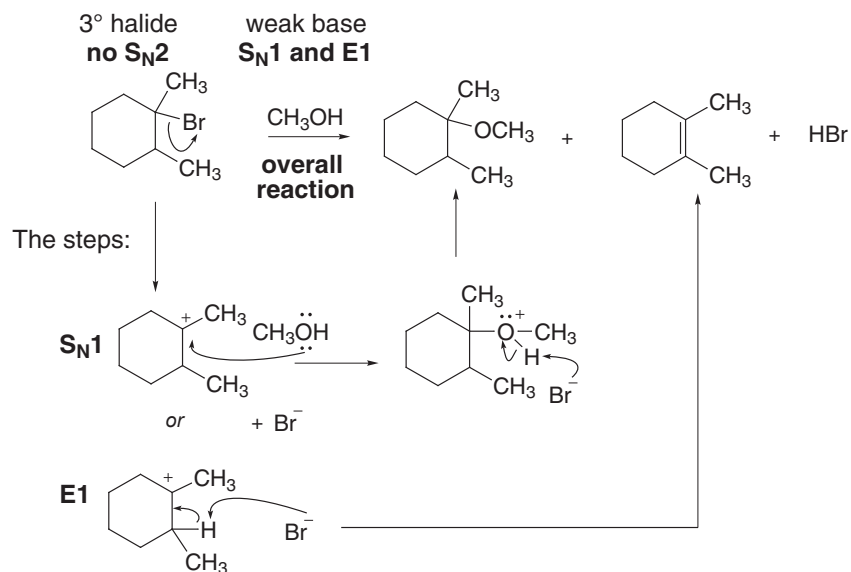
8.37



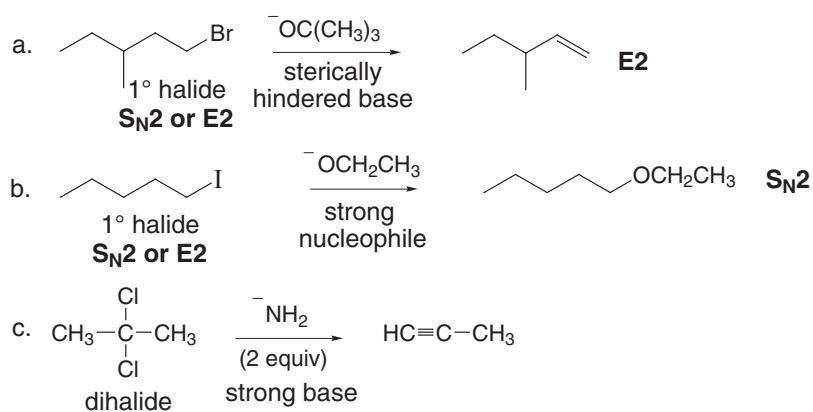
8.38

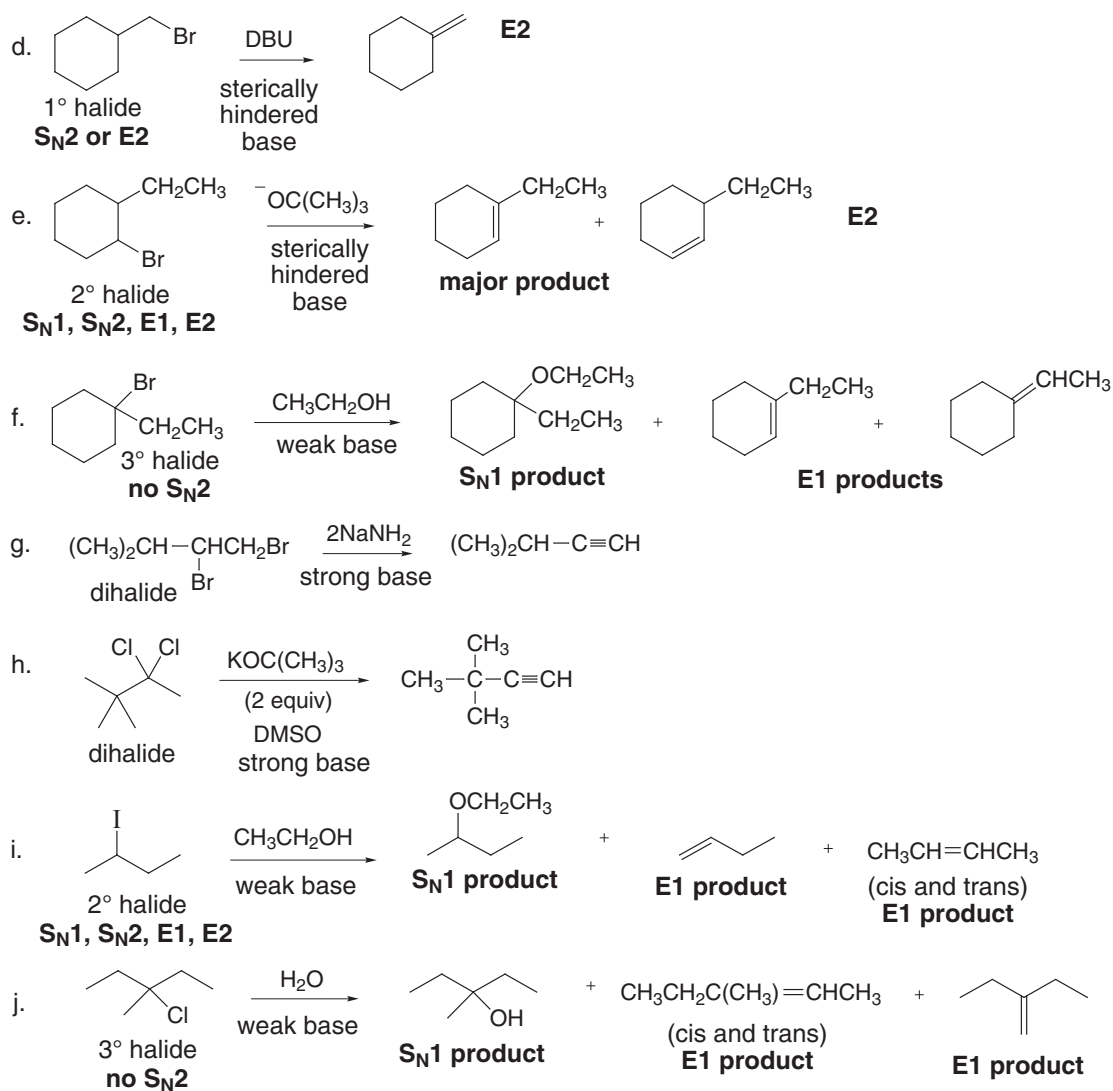


8.39

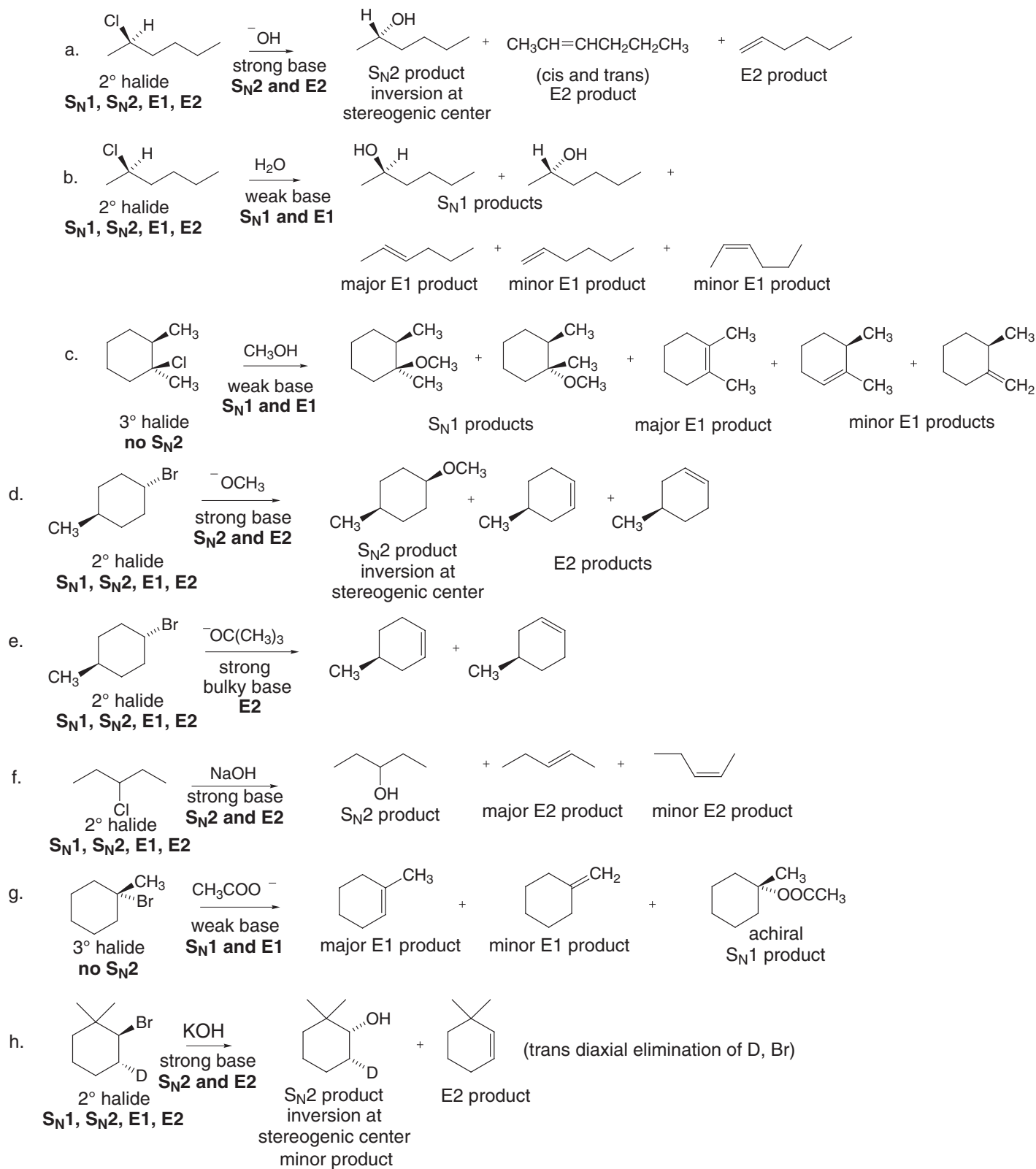


8.40

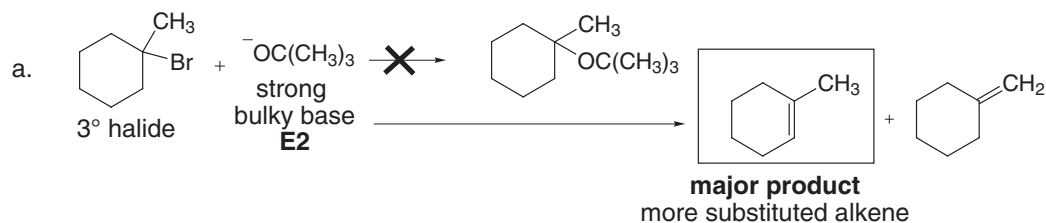




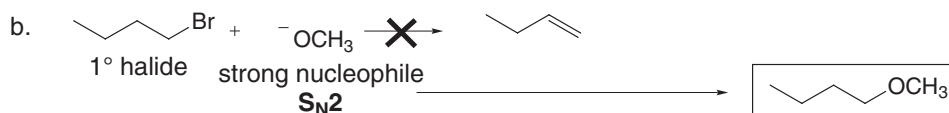
8.41



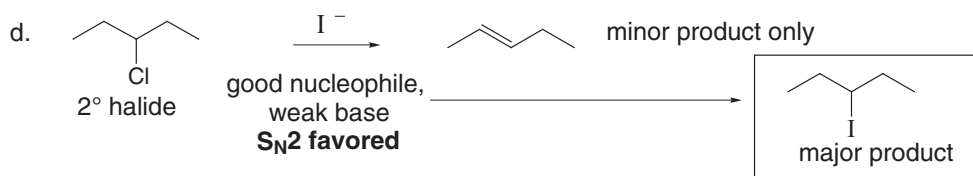
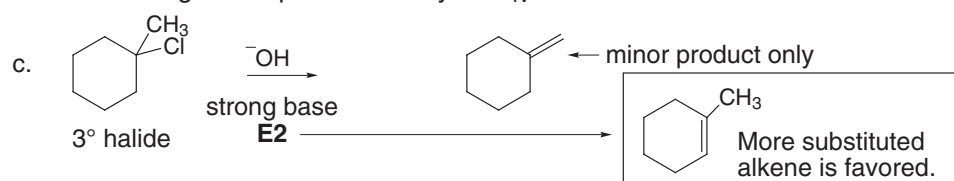
8.42



No substitution occurs with a strong bulky base and a 3° RX. The C with the leaving group is too crowded for an $\text{S}_\text{N}2$ substitution to occur. Elimination occurs instead by an E2 mechanism.

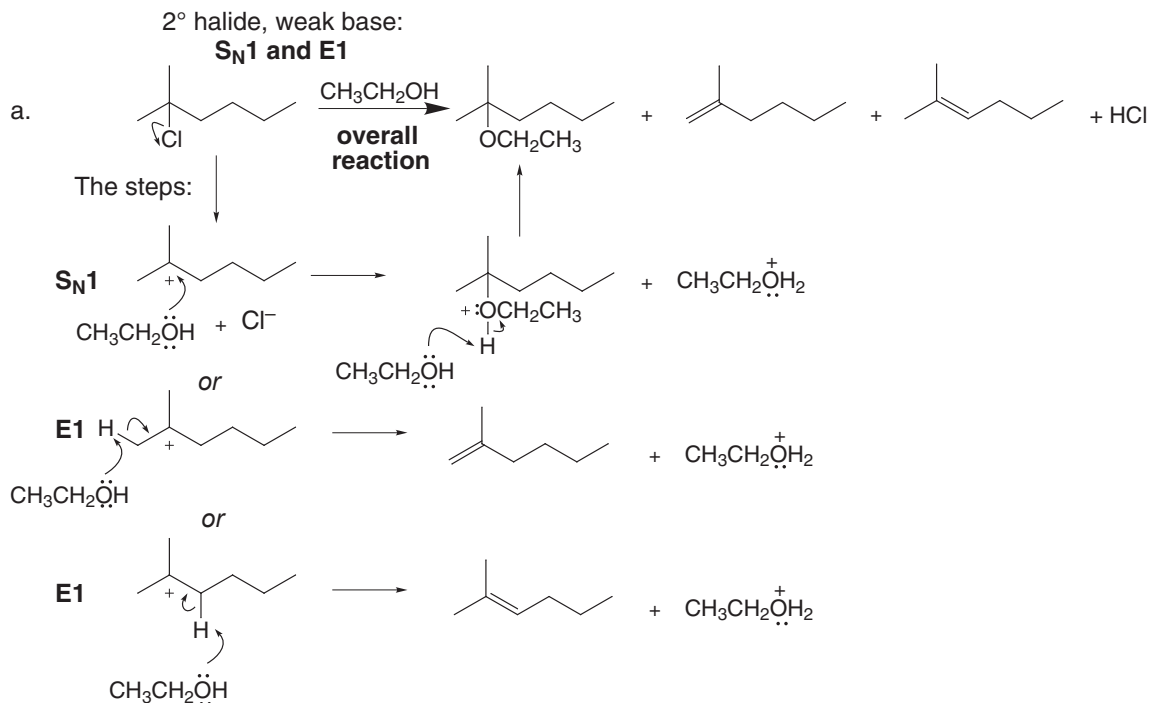


All elimination reactions are slow with 1° halides. The strong nucleophile reacts by an $\text{S}_\text{N}2$ mechanism instead.

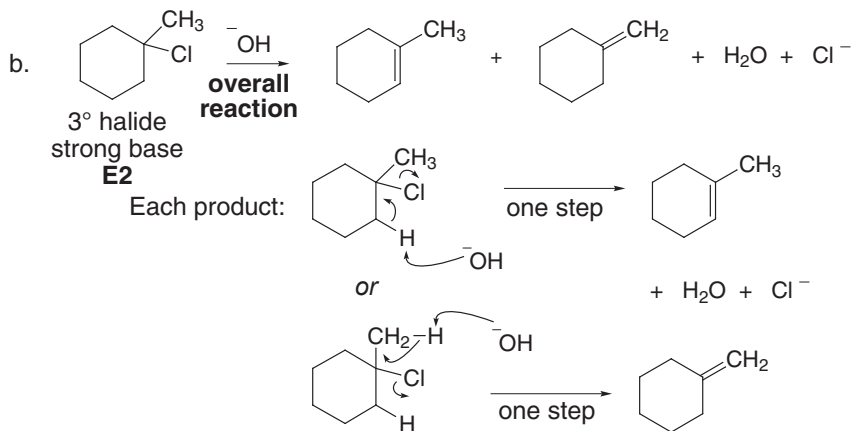


The 2° halide can react by an E2 or $\text{S}_\text{N}2$ reaction with a negatively charged nucleophile or base. Since I^- is a weak base, substitution by an $\text{S}_\text{N}2$ mechanism is favored.

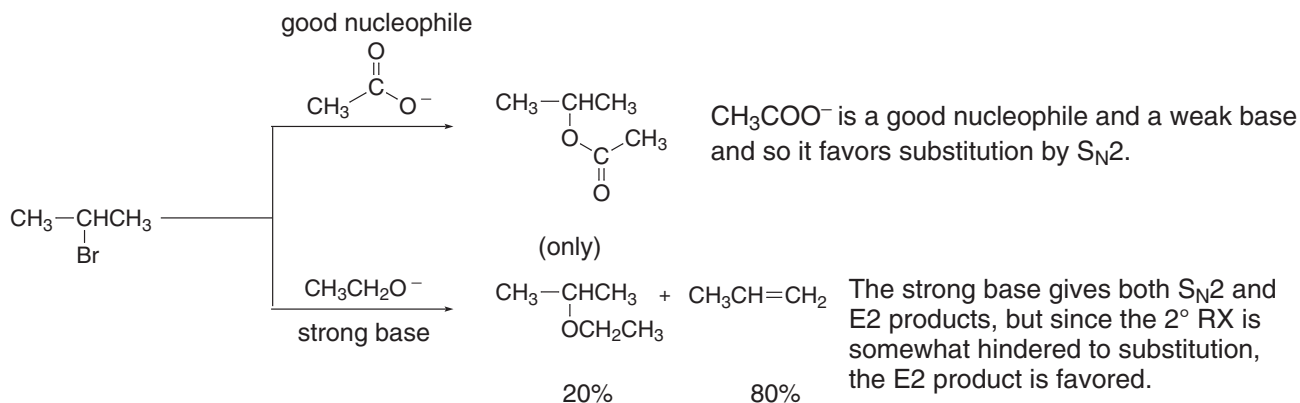
8.43



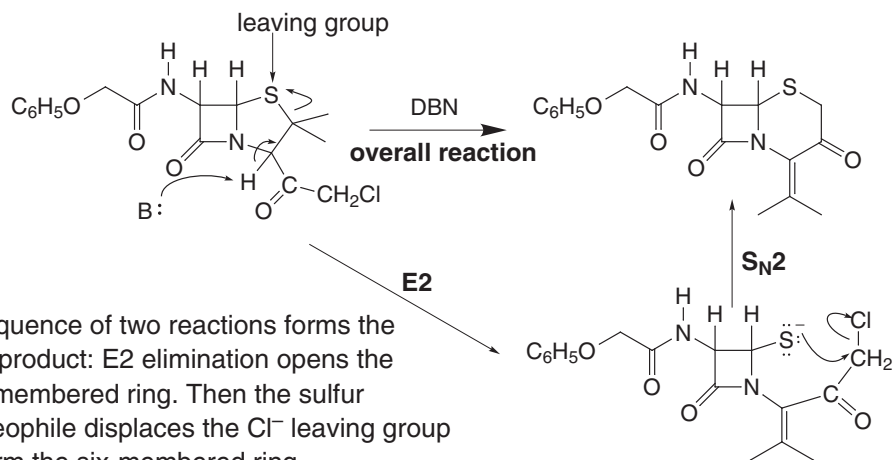
Any base (such as $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$ or Cl^-) can be used to remove a proton to form an alkene. If Cl^- is used, HCl is formed as a reaction by-product. If $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$ is used, $(\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}_2)^+$ is formed instead.



8.44



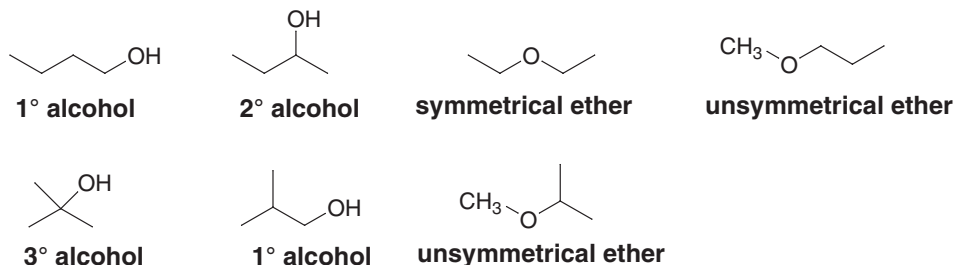
8.45



A sequence of two reactions forms the final product: E2 elimination opens the five-membered ring. Then the sulfur nucleophile displaces the Cl⁻ leaving group to form the six-membered ring.

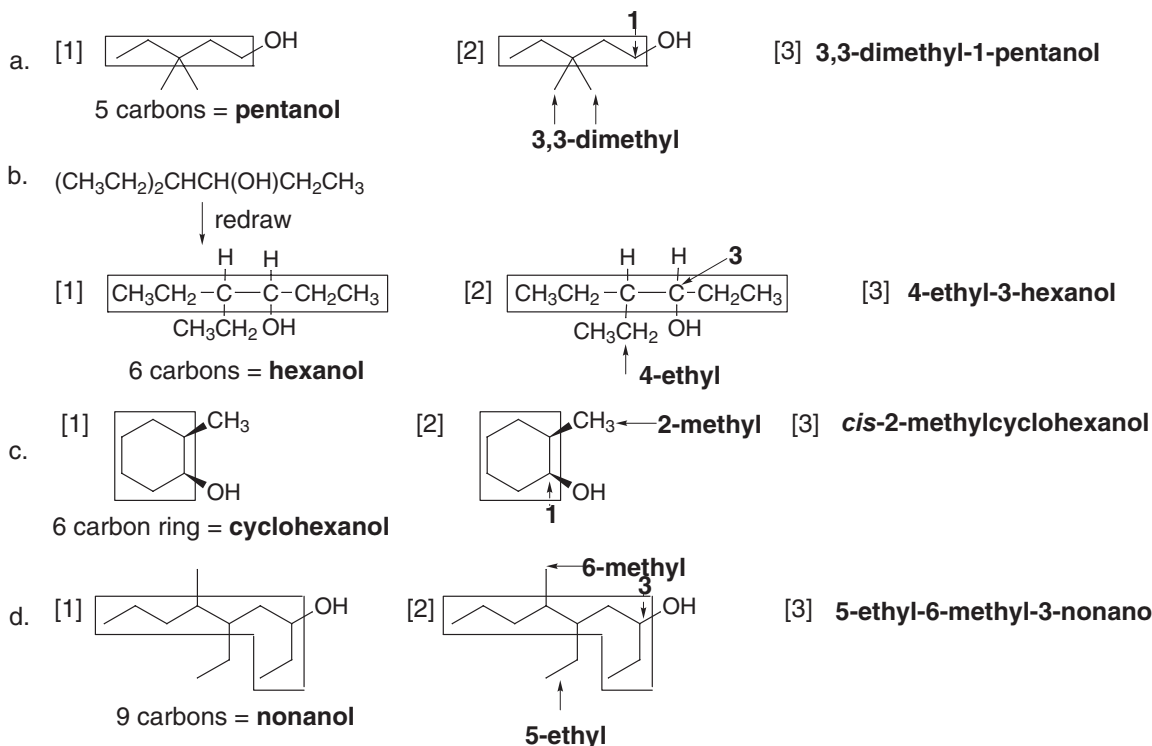
Capitolo 9

- 9.1**
- **Gli alcoli** sono classificati come 1°, 2° or 3°, dipendentemente dal numero degli atomi di carbonio legati al carbonio con il gruppo OH.
 - **Gli eteri simmetrici** hanno due gruppi R identici, e gli **eteri asimmetrici** hanno gruppi R che sono diversi.



9.2 Per dare il nome all'alcol:

- [1] **Individuare la catena più lunga che porta il gruppo OH come sostituyente.** Assegnare il nome alla molecola come derivato di quel numero di carboni cambiando il suffisso **-e** dell'alcano con il suffisso **-ol**.
- [2] **Numerare la catena carboniosa assegnando al carbonio con il gruppo OH il numero più basso.** Quando il gruppo OH è legato ad un ciclo, l'anello viene numerato cominciando dal carbonio con il gruppo OH, e il numero "1" viene generalmente omissso.
- [3] Applicare le altre regole di nomenclatura per completare il nome.

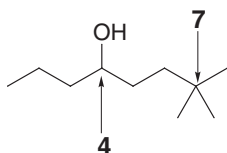


9.3 Per scrivere il nome dalla struttura:

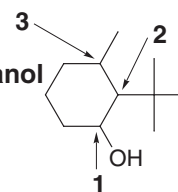
[1] Trovare il nome della catena più lunga e disegnare la struttura.

[2] Aggiungere i sostituenti alla catena principale.

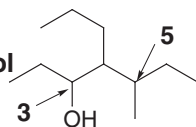
a. 7,7-dimethyl-4-octanol



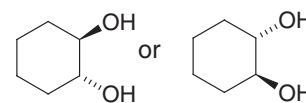
c. 2-tert-butyl-3-methylcyclohexanol



b. 5-methyl-4-propyl-3-heptanol



d. trans-1,2-cyclohexanediol

**9.4 Per assegnare il nome ad eteri semplici:**

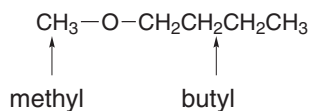
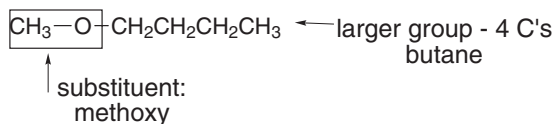
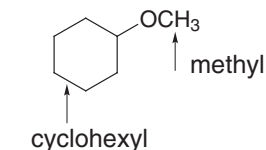
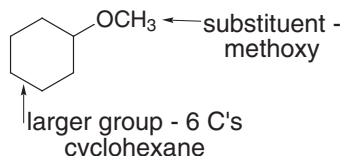
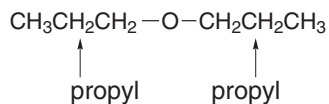
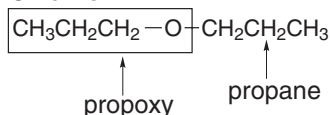
[1] Assegnare il nome ad entrambi i gruppi alchilici legati all'ossigeno.

[2] Ordinare questi nomi in ordine alfabetico e poi aggiungere la parola **etere**. Per eteri simmetrici, assegnare il nome al gruppo alchilico ed aggiungere il prefisso **di**.

Per assegnare il nome agli eteri con il sistema IUPAC:

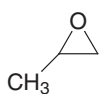
[1] Individuare i due gruppi alchilici legati all'ossigeno dell'etere. La catena più corta diventa il sostituito, nominato come gruppo alcossi.

[2] Numerare la catena per assegnare il numero più basso al primo sostituito.

a. **common name:****butyl methyl ether****IUPAC name:****1-methoxybutane**b. **common name:****cyclohexyl methyl ether****IUPAC name:****methoxycyclohexane**c. **common name:****dipropyl ether****IUPAC name:****1-propoxypropane****9.5 Tre modi di assegnare il nome agli epossidi:**

- [1] Gli epossidi sono nominati come derivati dell'ossirano, l'eossido più semplice.
- [2] Gli epossidi possono essere nominati considerando l'ossigeno un sostituito chiamato gruppo **eossi**, legato ad una catena idrocarburica. Usare due numeri per indicare a quali atomi l'ossigeno è legato.
- [3] Gli epossidi possono essere nominati come **alchene ossidi** rimpiazzando mentalmente l'ossigeno epossidico con un doppio legame. Assegnare il nome all'alchene (Capitolo 10) ed aggiungere la parola **ossido**.

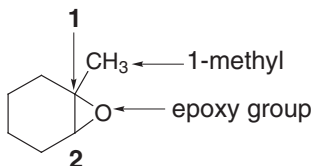
a.



Three possibilities:

- [1] **methyloxirane**
[2] **1,2-epoxypropane**
[3] **propene oxide**

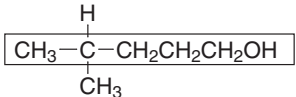
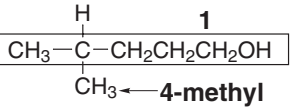
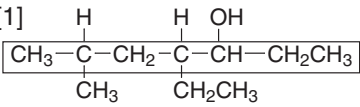
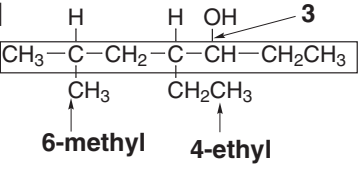
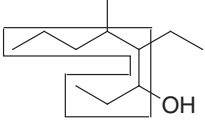
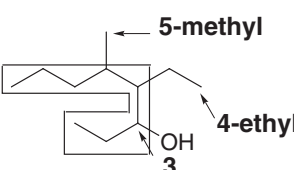
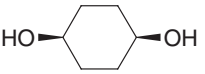
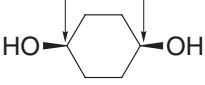
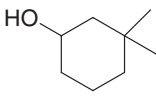
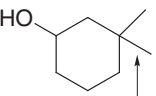
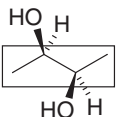
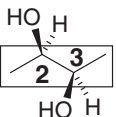
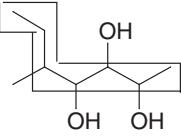
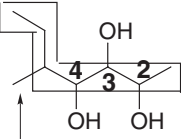
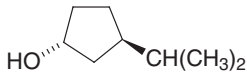
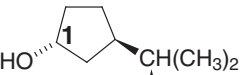
b.



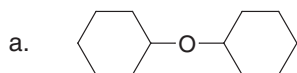
One possibility:

6 carbons = cyclohexane
1,2-epoxy-1-methylcyclohexane

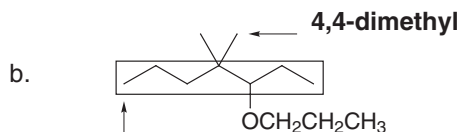
9.6 Usare i suggerimenti della risposta 9.2.

- a. $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{CHCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$
- [1] 
5 carbons = **pentanol**
- [2] 
4-methyl-1-pentanol
- b. $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{CHCH}_2\text{CH}(\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3)\text{CH}(\text{OH})\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$
- [1] 
7 carbons = **heptanol**
- [2] 
4-ethyl-6-methyl-3-heptanol
- c. 
- [1] 8 carbons = **octanol**
- [2] 
4-ethyl-5-methyl-3-octanol
- d. 
- [1] **cyclohexanediol**
- [2] 
cis
- e. 
- [1] 6 carbons = **cyclohexanol**
- [2] 
3,3-dimethyl
- f. 
- [1] 4 carbons = **butanediol**
- [2] 
2R, 3R
- g. 
- [1] 7 carbons = **heptanetriol**
- [2] 
5-methyl
- h. 
- [1] 5 carbons = **cyclopentanol**
- [2] 
3-isopropyl

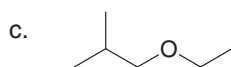
9.7 Usare le regole delle risposte 9.4 e 9.5.



common name: **dicyclohexyl ether**

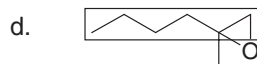


IUPAC name: **4,4-dimethyl-3-propoxyheptane**

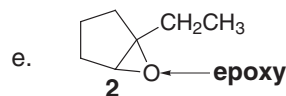


common name: **ethyl isobutyl ether**

IUPAC name: **1-ethoxy-2-methylpropane**

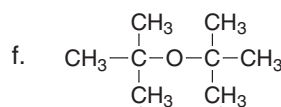


1,2-epoxy-2-methylhexane
or **1-butyl-1-methyloxirane**
or **2-methylhexene oxide**



5 carbons = cyclopentane

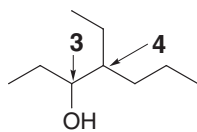
IUPAC name: **1,2-epoxy-1-ethylcyclopentane**



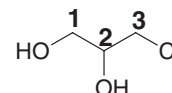
tert-butyl tert-butyl
common name: **di-tert-butyl ether**

9.8 Usare i suggerimenti della risposta 9.3.

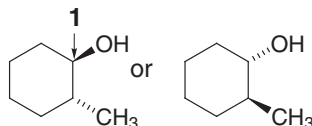
a. 4-ethyl-3-**heptanol**



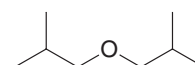
e. 3-chloro-1,2-**propanediol**



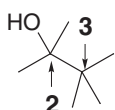
b. *trans*-2-methyl**cyclohexanol**



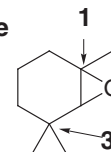
f. diisobutyl ether



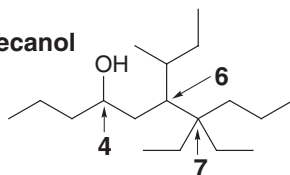
c. 2,3,3-trimethyl-2-**butanol**



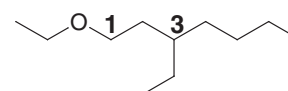
g. 1,2-epoxy-1,3,3-trimethyl**cyclohexane**



d. 6-sec-butyl-7,7-diethyl-4-**decanol**

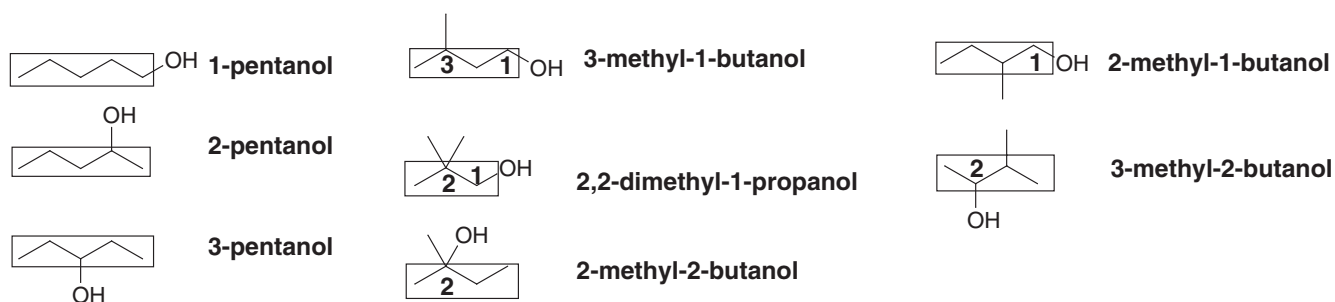


h. 1-ethoxy-3-ethyl**heptane**



9.9

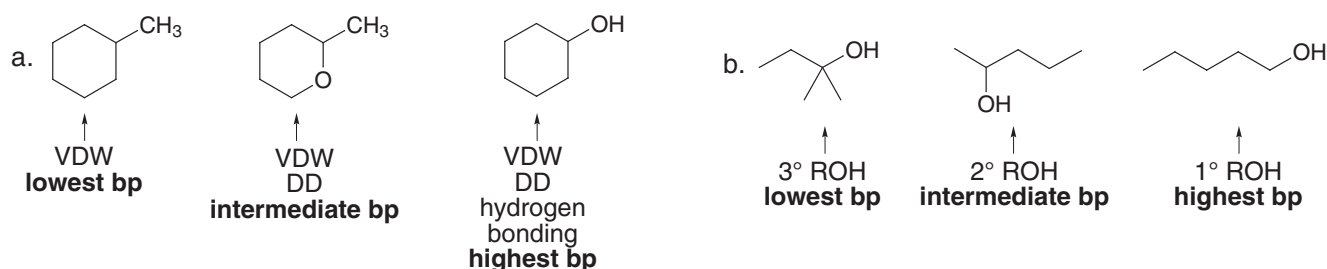
Eight constitutional isomers of molecular formula $C_5H_{12}O$ containing an OH group:



9.10 Due regole per i punti di ebollizione:

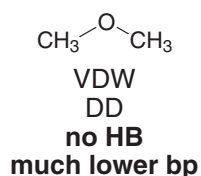
[1] **Più intense le forze più alto il p.e.**

[2] **Il p.e. aumenta all'aumentare dei legami idrogeno.** Per gli alcoli con lo stesso numero di atomi di carbonio: legami idrogeno e p.e. aumentano: $3^\circ \text{ ROH} < 2^\circ \text{ ROH} < 1^\circ \text{ ROH}$.

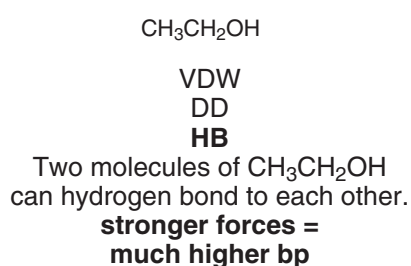


9.11 Disegnare il dimetil etere e l'etanolo ed analizzare le loro forze intermolecolari per spiegare la tendenza osservata.

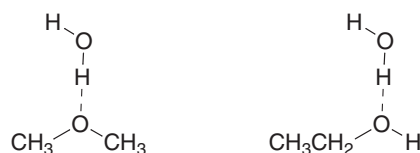
dimethyl ether



ethanol



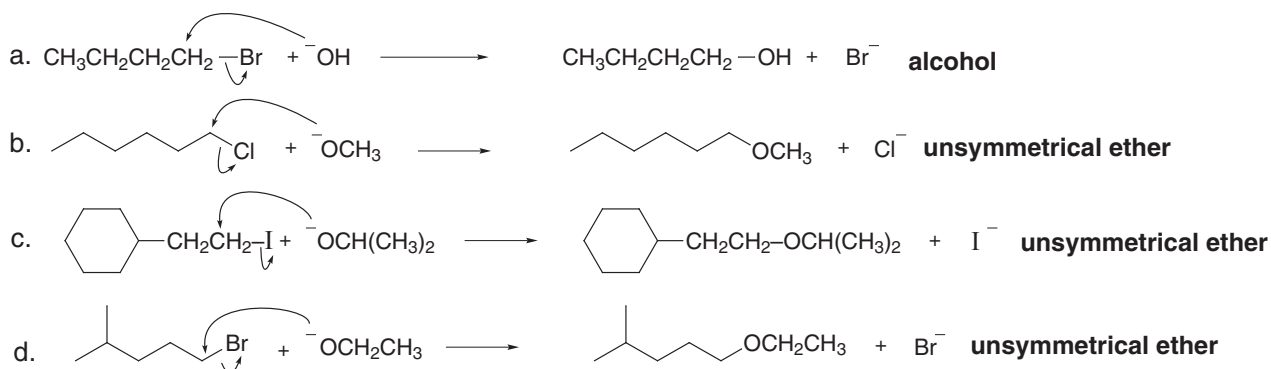
Both molecules contain an O atom and can hydrogen bond with water. They have fewer than 5 C's and are therefore **water soluble**.



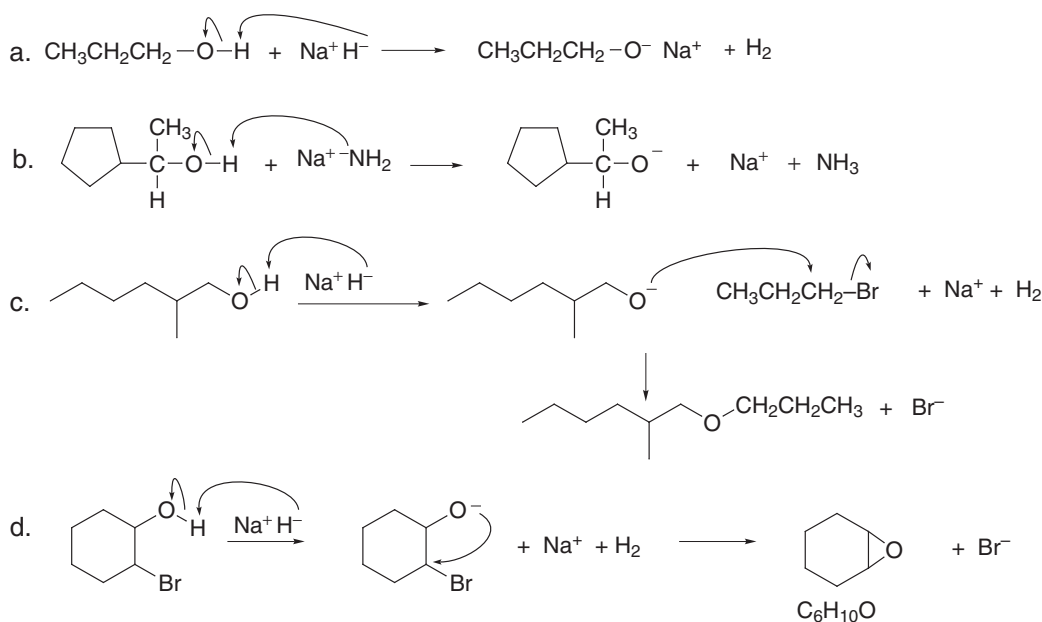
9.12 Usare le regole dei punti di ebollizione della risposta 9.10.

- a. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OCH}_3$ (ether) no hydrogen bonding **lowest bp** $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{CHOH}$ (2° alcohol) hydrogen bonding **intermediate bp** $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$ (1° alcohol) hydrogen bonding **highest bp**
- b. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$ (no OH group) **lowest water solubility** $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$ (one OH group) **intermediate water solubility** $\text{HOCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$ (two OH groups) **highest water solubility**

9.13 Disegnare i prodotti della sostituzione nella seguente reazione sostituendo l' $^- \text{OH}$ o $^- \text{OR}$ al posto di X nei prodotti di partenza.



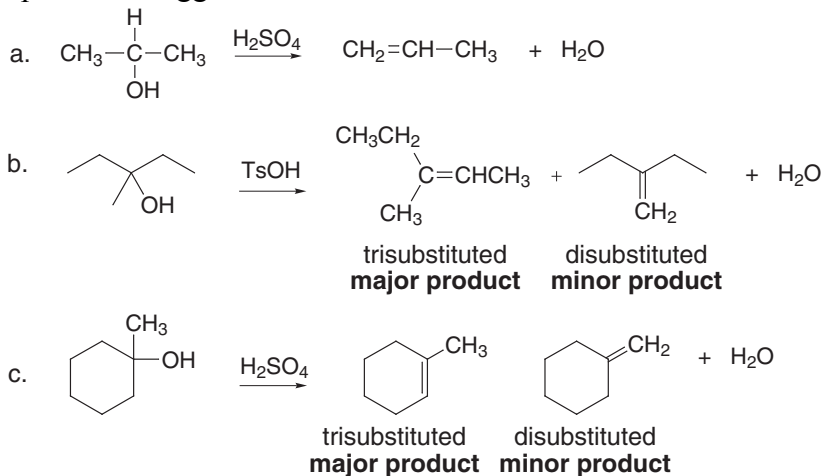
9.14 NaH e NaNH_2 sono basi forti che possono rimuovere un protone da un alcol, creando un nucleofilo.



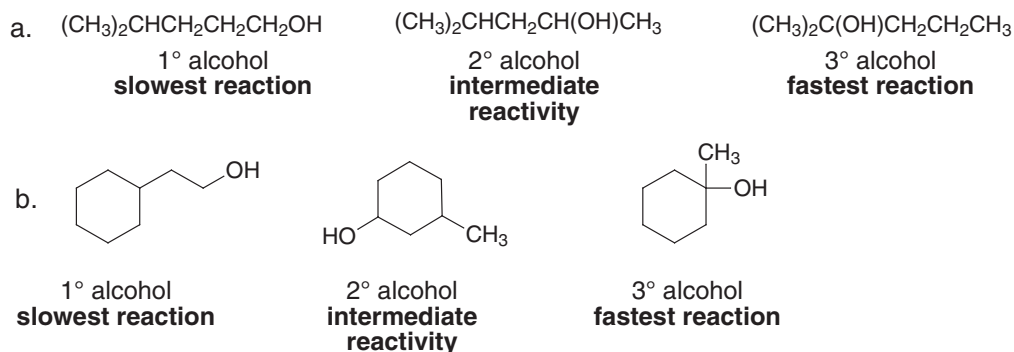
9.15 Solo gli acidi che hanno pK_a inferiore a -2 sono abbastanza forti per protonare un alcol.

- a. HF ($pK_a = 3$) = above -2 ; **not strong enough**
- b. HClO_4 ($pK_a = -10$) = below -2 ; **strong enough to protonate an alcohol.**
- c. $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{SO}_3\text{H}$ ($pK_a = -7$) = below -2 ; **strong enough to protonate an alcohol.**
- d. CH_3COOH ($pK_a = 5$) = above -2 ; **not strong enough**

9.16 La disidratazione segue la regola di Zaitsev, così l'alchene più stabile, e più sostituito è il prodotto maggioritario.

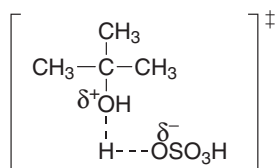


9.17 La velocità della disidratazione aumenta all'aumentare del numero dei gruppi R.

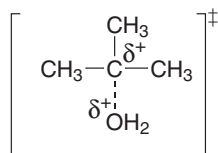


9.18 Ci sono tre stadi nel meccanismo E1 per la disidratazione degli alcoli, e tre stati di transizione.

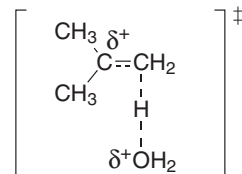
transition state [1]:



transition state [2]:

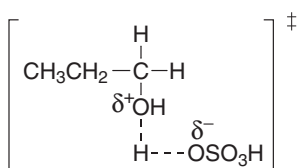


transition state [3]:

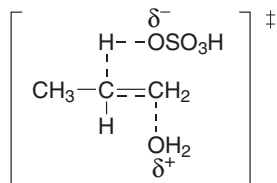


9.19

transition state [1]:



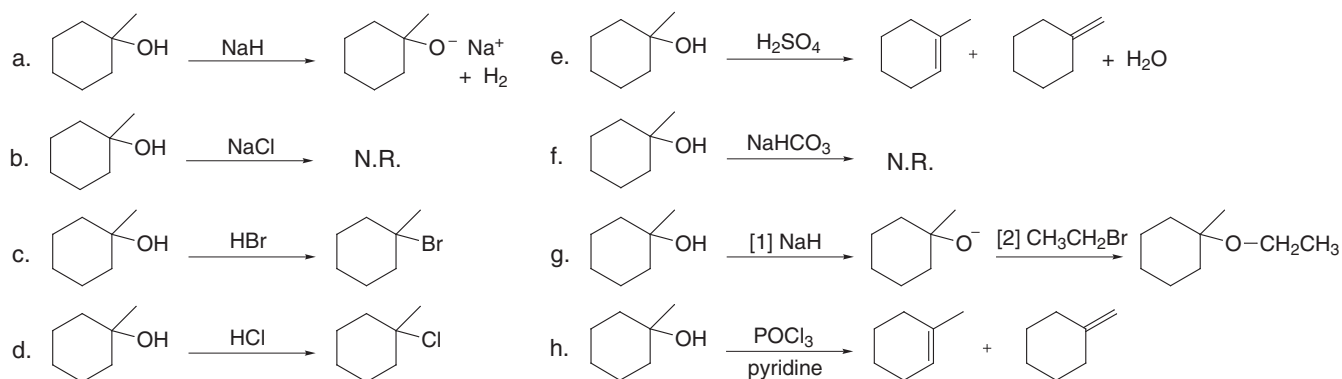
transition state [2]:



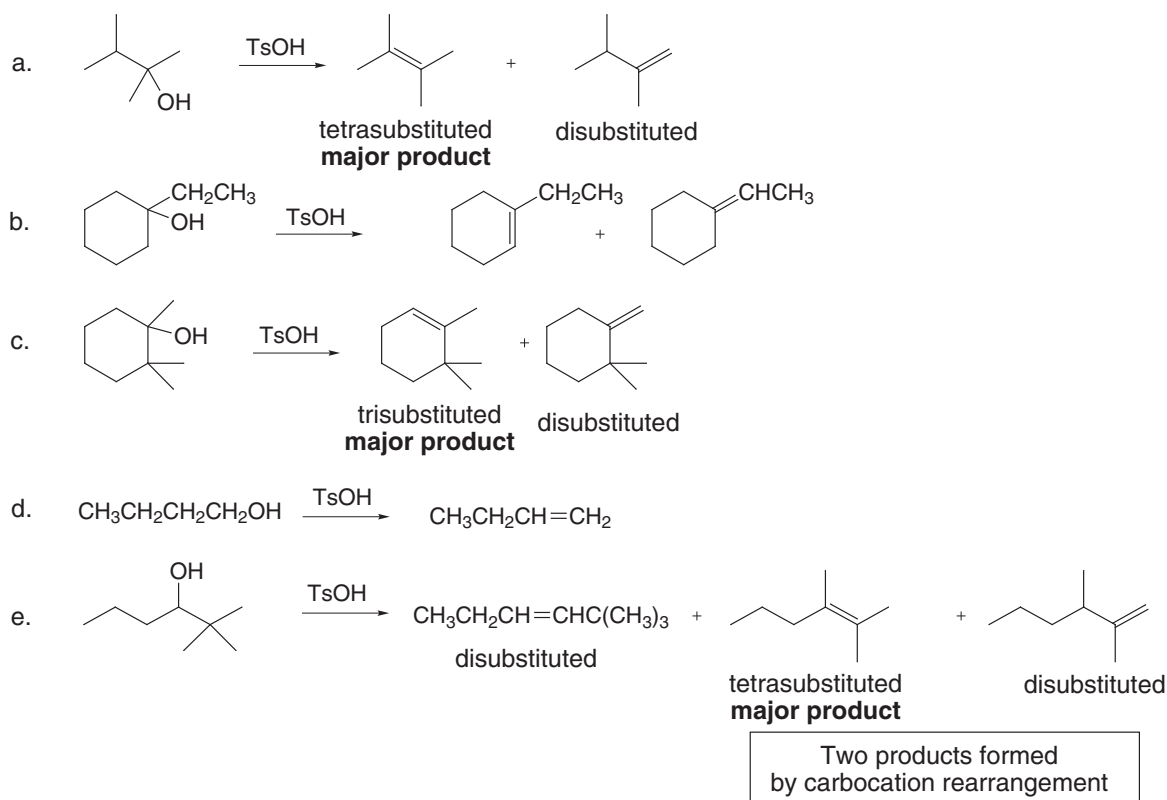
9.20

- a. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH} \xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4} \text{CH}_3\text{CH}=\text{CH}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
- b. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH} \xrightarrow{\text{NaH}} \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{O}^- \text{Na}^+ + \text{H}_2$
- c. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH} \xrightarrow[\text{ZnCl}_2]{\text{HCl}} \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{Cl} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
- d. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH} \xrightarrow{\text{HBr}} \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{Br} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
- e. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH} \xrightarrow[\text{pyridine}]{\text{SOCl}_2} \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}$
- f. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH} \xrightarrow{\text{PBr}_3} \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{Br}$
- g. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH} \xrightarrow[\text{pyridine}]{\text{TsCl}} \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OTs}$
- h. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH} \xrightarrow{[1] \text{NaH}} \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{O}^- \text{Na}^+ \xrightarrow{[2] \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{Br}} \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_3$
- i. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH} \xrightarrow{[1] \text{TsCl}} \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OTs} \xrightarrow{[2] \text{NaSH}} \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{SH}$

9.21

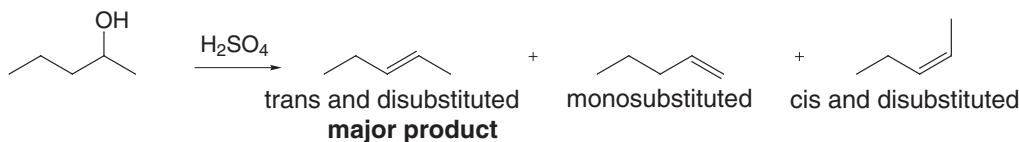


9.22 La disidratazione segue la regola di Zaitsev, e l'alchene più stabile e più sostituito è il prodotto maggioritario.

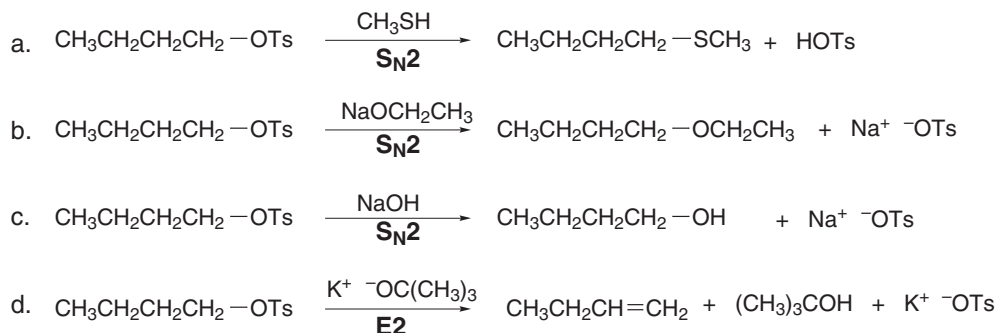


L'alchene più stabile è il prodotto principale.

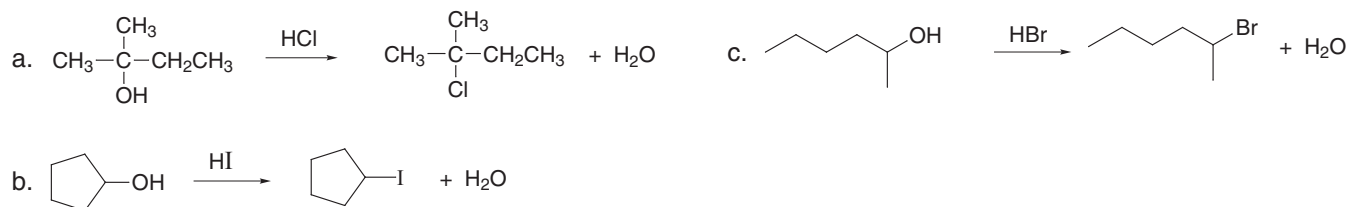
9.23



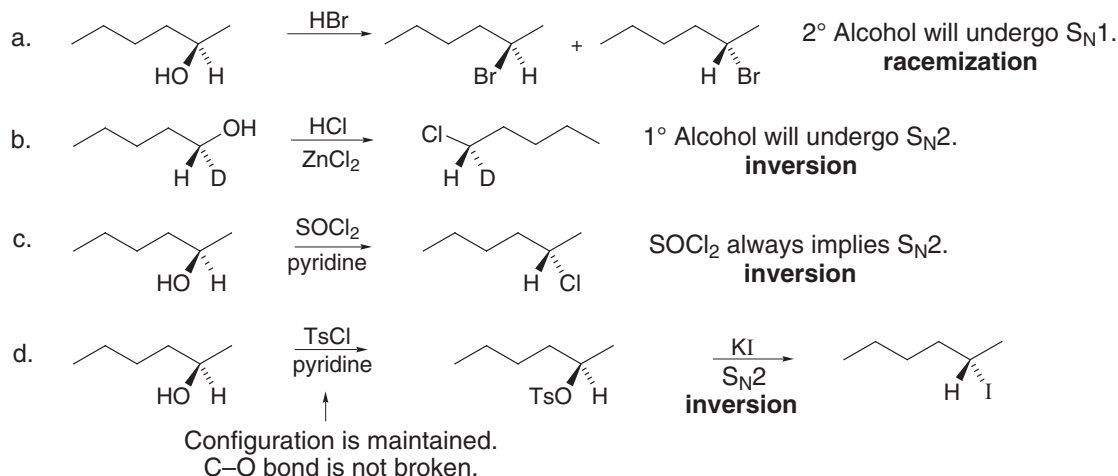
9.24 OTs è un buon gruppo uscente e sarà sostituito da un nucleofilo facilmente. Disegnare i prodotti sostituendo il nucleofilo al posto dell' OTs nel materiale di partenza.



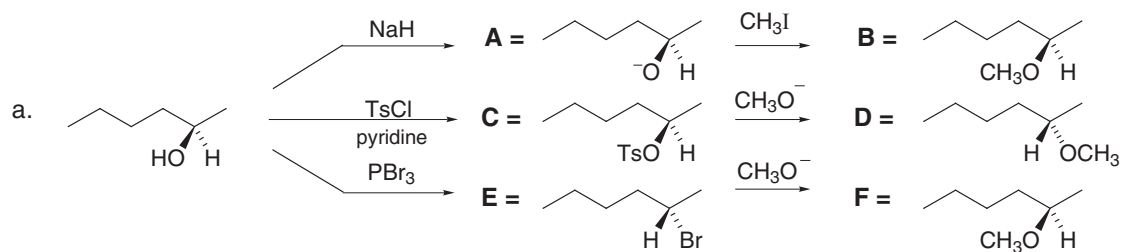
9.25



9.26



9.27

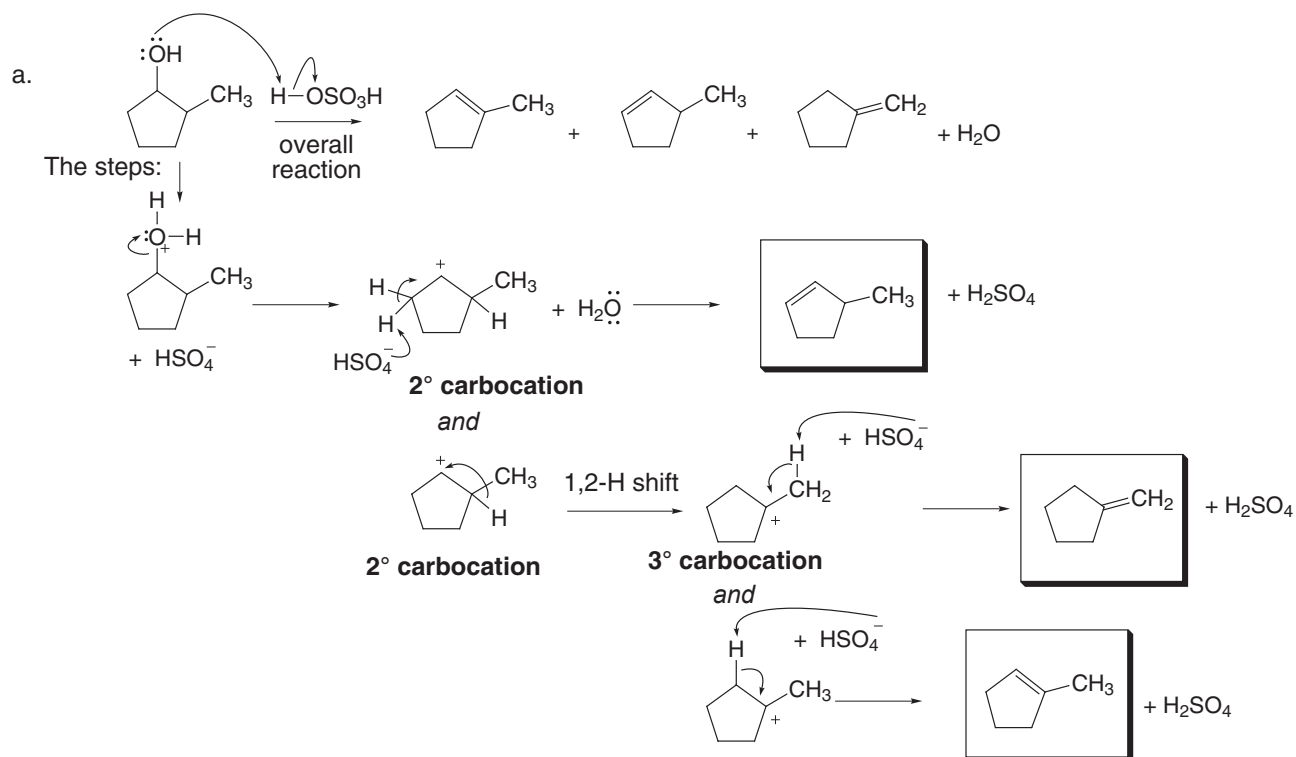
b. **B** and **D** are enantiomers.c. **B** and **F** are identical.

9.28 La disidratazione acido catalizzata segue un meccanismo E1 per ROH 2° e 3° con uno stadio aggiuntivo per creare un buon gruppo uscente. I tre passaggi sono:

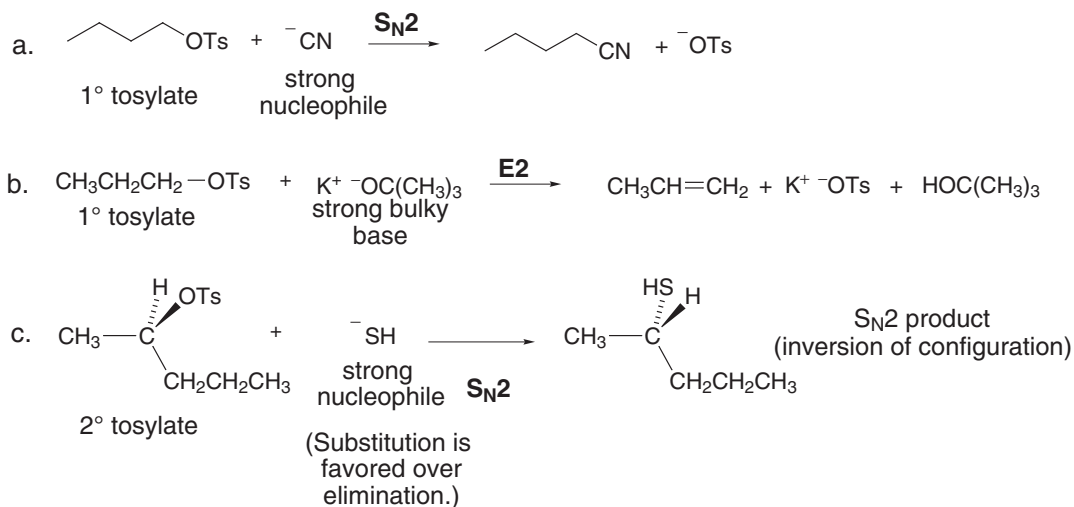
[1] Protonare l'ossigeno per creare un buon gruppo uscente.

[2] Rompere il legame C–O per formare un carbocatione.

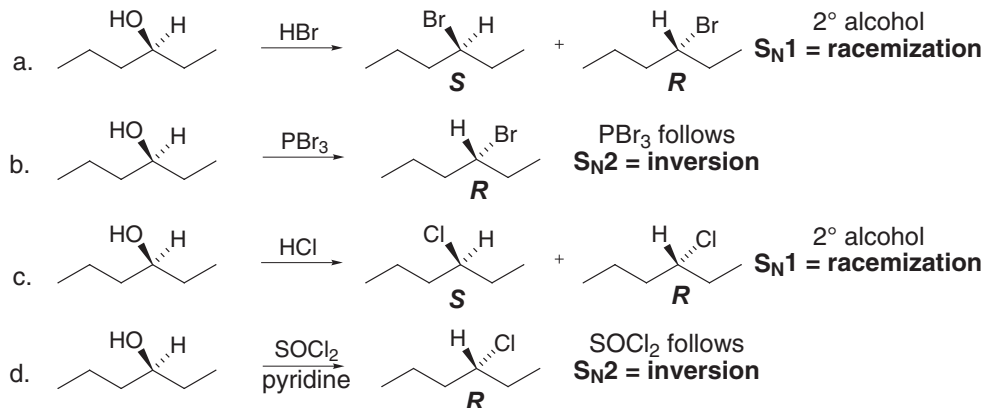
[3] Rimuovere un idrogeno β per formare un legame π .



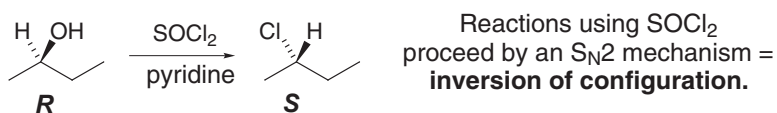
9.29



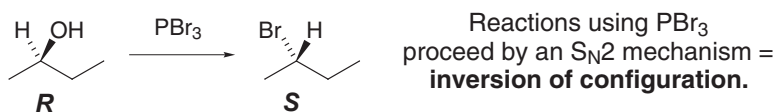
9.30

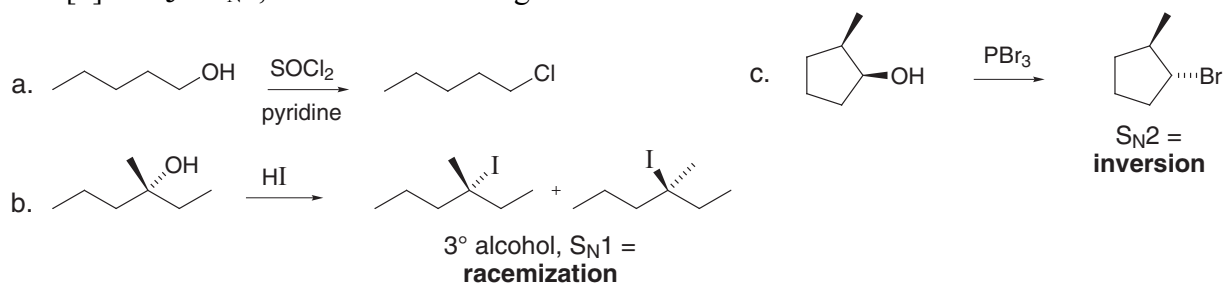
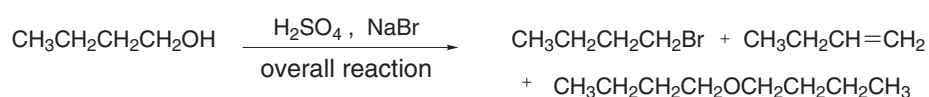
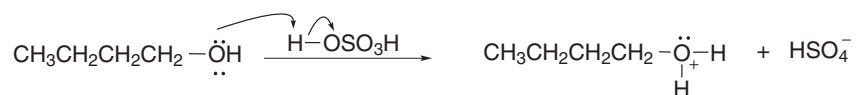
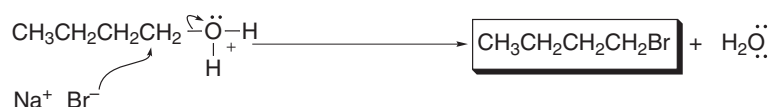
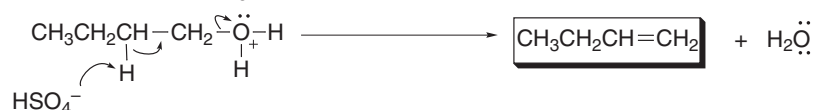
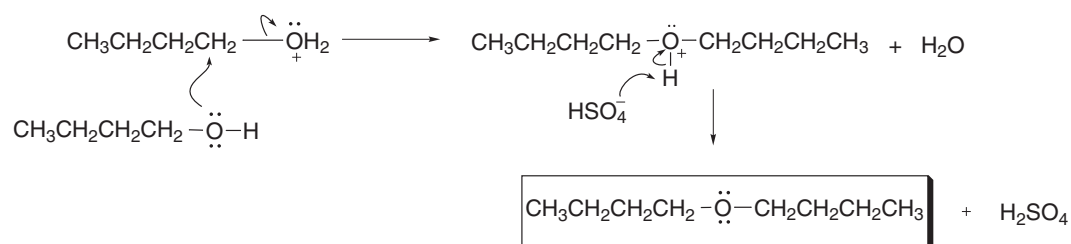
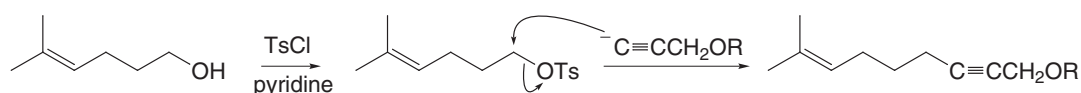


9.31 Le reazioni di sostituzione degli alcoli usando $SOCl_2$ procedono attraverso un meccanismo S_N2 . Di conseguenza, c'è **inversione di configurazione** al centro stereogenico.

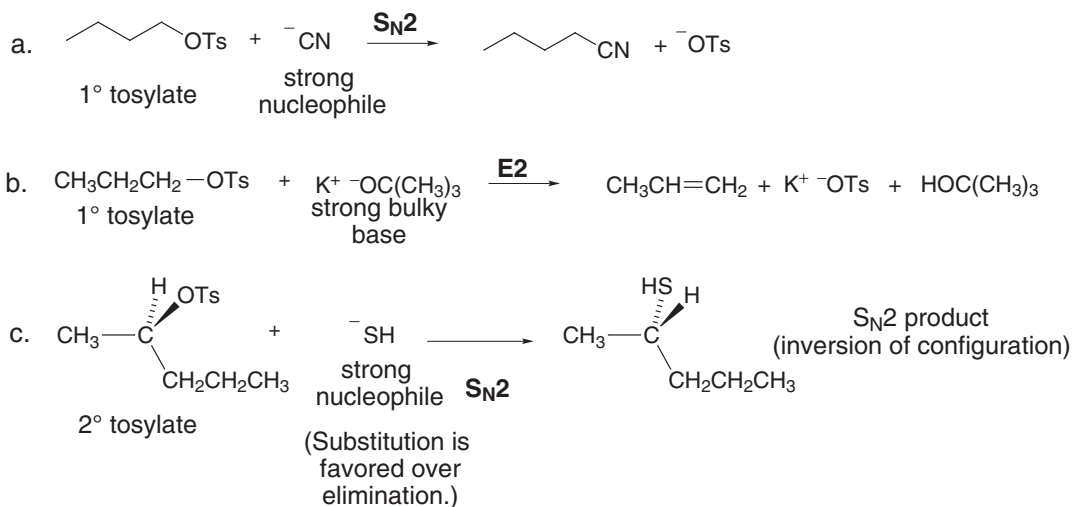


9.32 Le reazioni di sostituzione degli alcoli usando PBr_3 procede attraverso un meccanismo S_N2 . Di conseguenza, c'è **inversione di configurazione** al centro stereogenico.



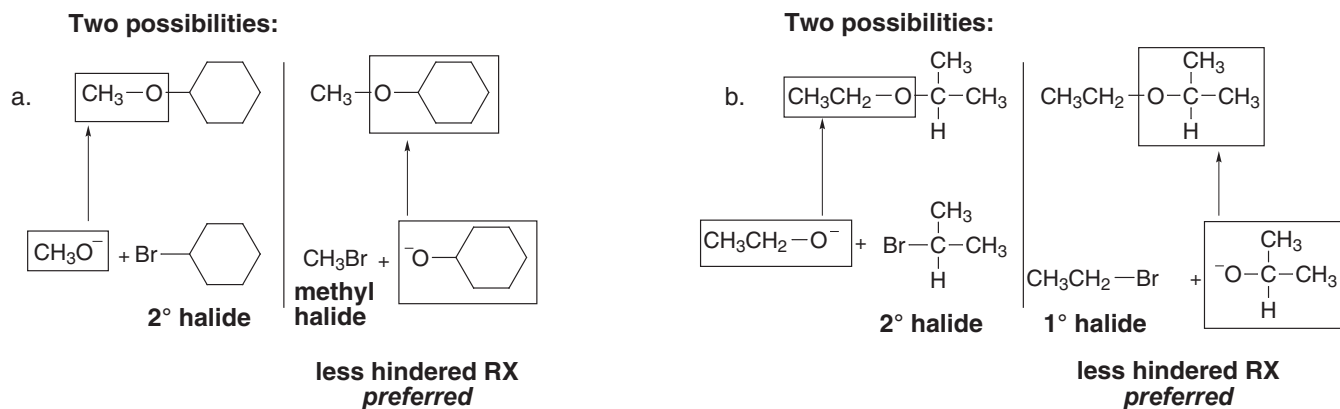
9.33 Stereochimica della conversione di ROH a RX per reagente:[1] **HX** – con 1°, S_N2, inversione di configurazione; con 2° e 3°, S_N1, racemizzazione.[2] **SOCl₂** – S_N2, inversione di configurazione.[3] **PBr₃** – S_N2, inversione di configurazione.**9.34****Step [1] for all products: Formation a good leaving group****Formation of CH₃CH₂CH₂CH₂Br:****Formation of CH₃CH₂CH=CH₂:****Ether forms (from the protonated alcohol):****9.35**

9.36

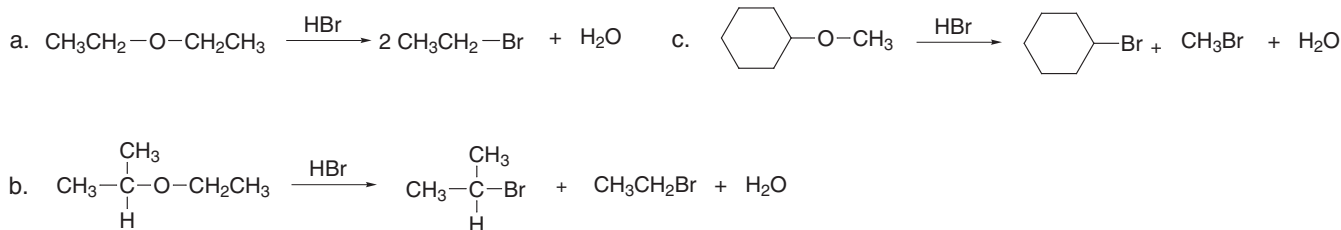


9.37 Per sintetizzare un etere usando la sintesi degli eteri di Williamson:

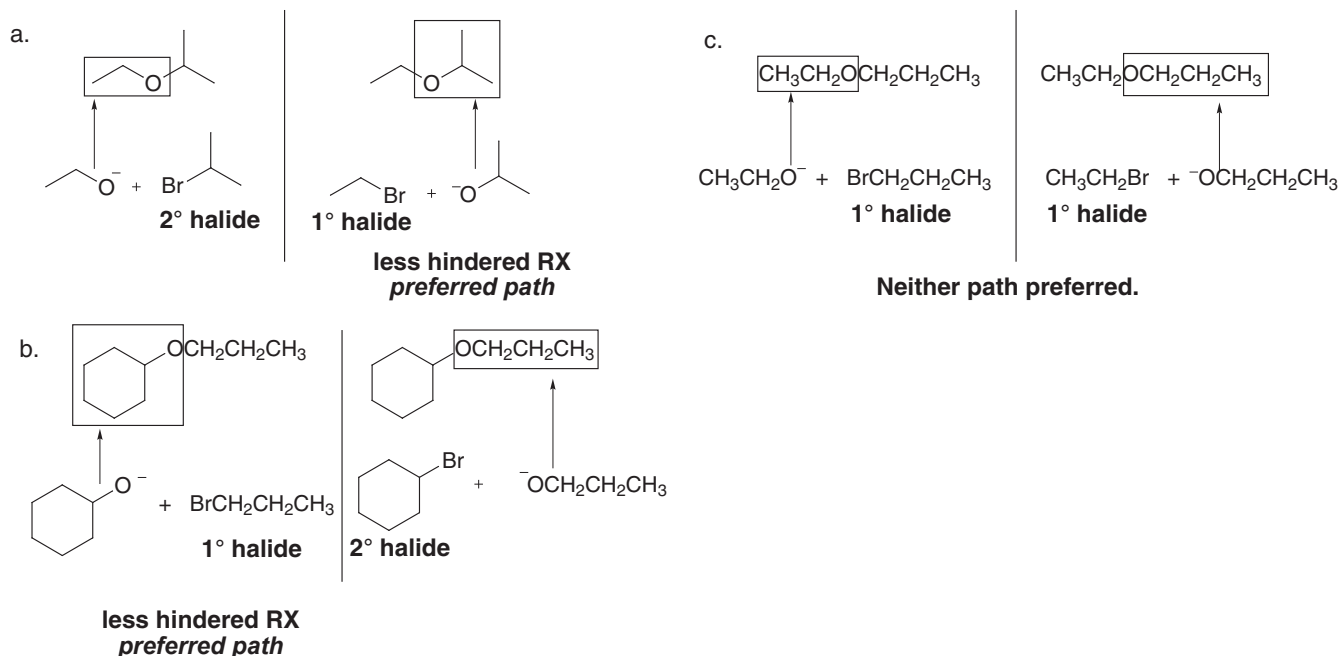
- [1] Prima trovare i due possibili alcossidi ed e gli alogenuri alchilici necessari per la sostituzione nucleofila.
- [2] Classificare gli alogenuri alchilici come 1°, 2°, or 3°. Il meccanismo favorito è quello che prevede l'alchene meno ingombrato.



9.38

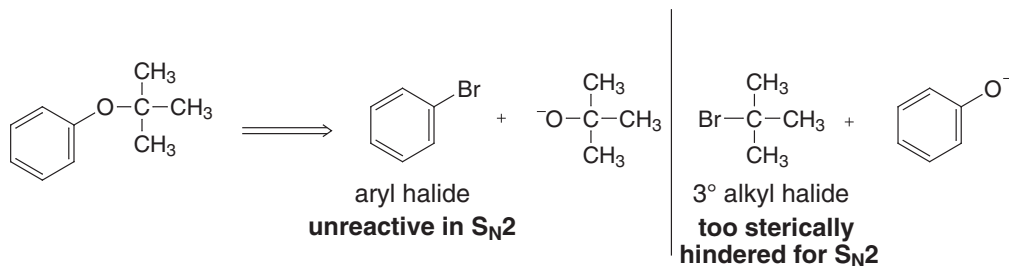


9.39

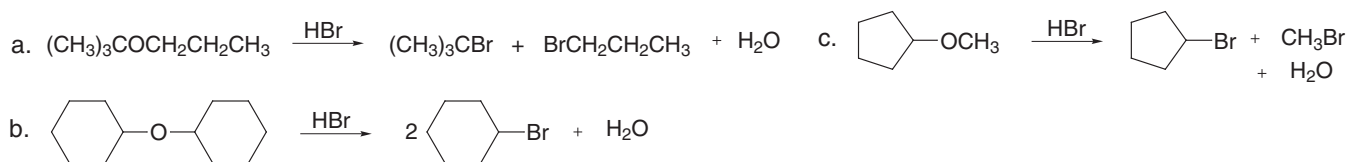


9.40 Un alogenuro terziario è troppo ingombrato ed un alogenuro arilico è troppo poco reattivo per dare la sintesi degli eteri di Williamson.

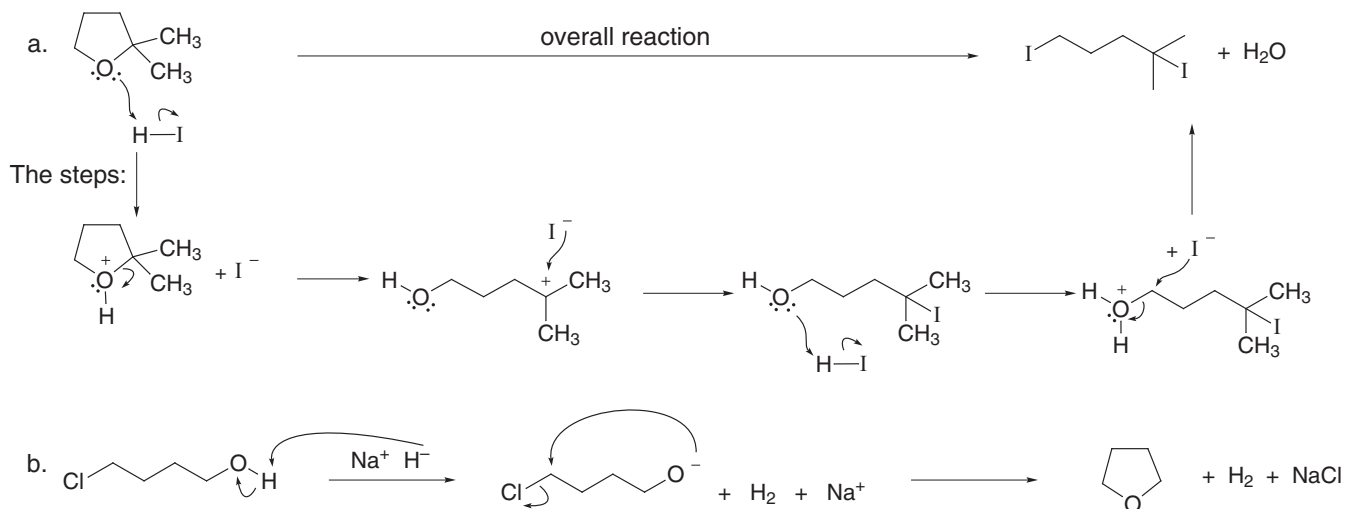
Two possible starting materials:



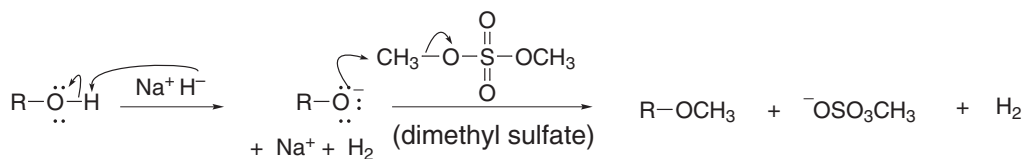
9.41



9.42



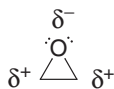
9.43



Dimethyl sulfate is a reactive methylating agent because $^-OSO_3CH_3$ is a very good leaving group; it is a resonance-stabilized, weak conjugate base.

The conjugate acid of $^-OSO_3CH_3$ is $HOSO_3CH_3$, which is a strong acid, similar in acidity to H_2SO_4 .

9.44 Confrontare gli epossidi ed il ciclopropano. Perché un composto sia reattivo nei confronti dei nucleofili, deve essere elettrofilo.



epoxide

O is electronegative and pulls electron density away from C's. This makes them electrophilic and reactive with nucleophiles.



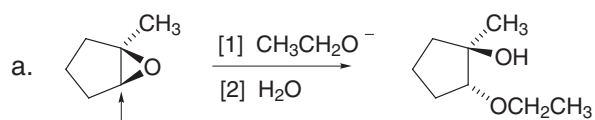
cyclopropane

Cyclopropane has all C's and H's, so all nonpolar bonds. There are no electrophilic C's so it will not react with nucleophiles.

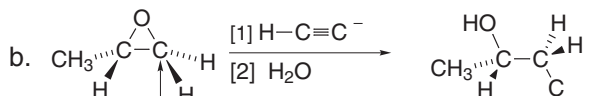
9.45 Due regole per la reazione di un epossido:

[1] I nucleofili attaccano dal retro dell'eossido.

[2] I nucleofili carichi negativamente attaccano al carbonio meno sostituito.

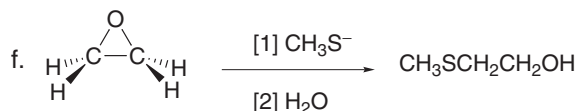
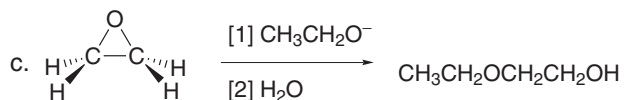
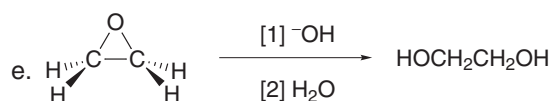
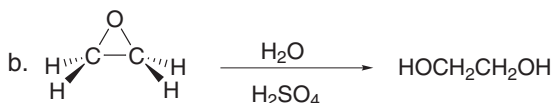
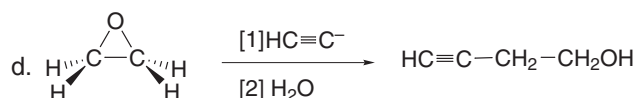


Attack here:
less substituted C
backside attack

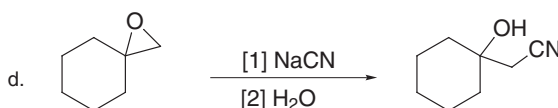
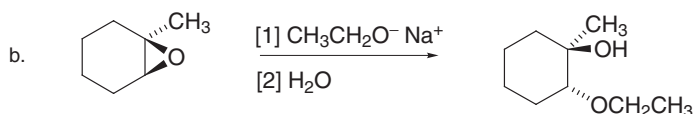
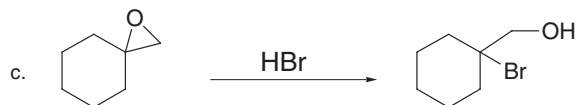
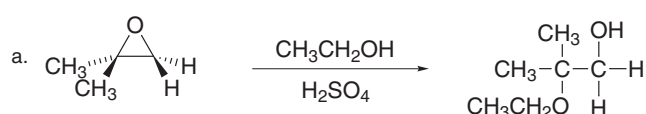


Attack here:
less substituted C
backside attack

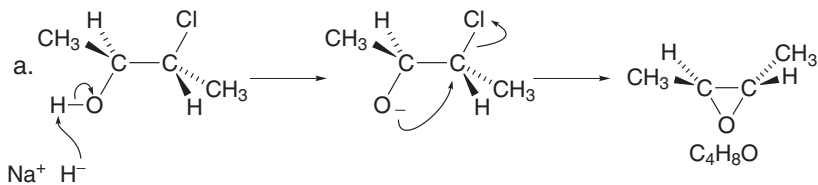
9.46



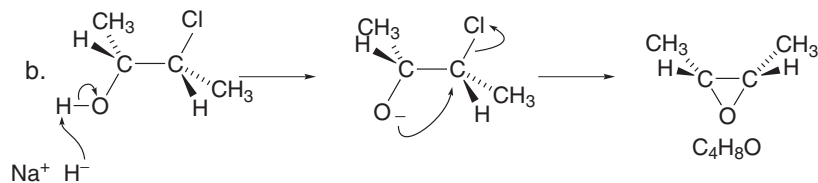
9.47



9.48

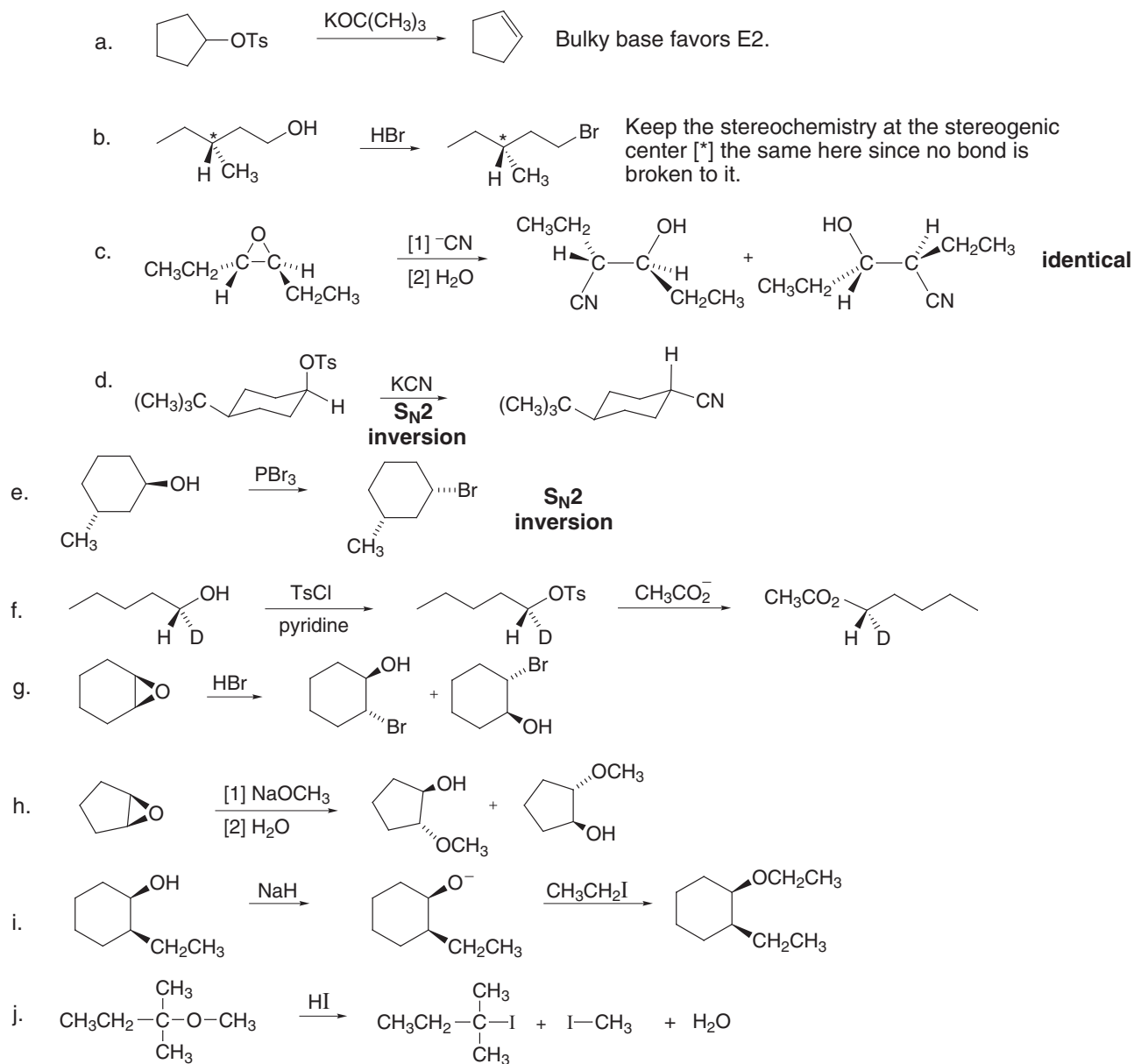


The 2 CH₃ groups are anti in the starting material, making them trans in the product.

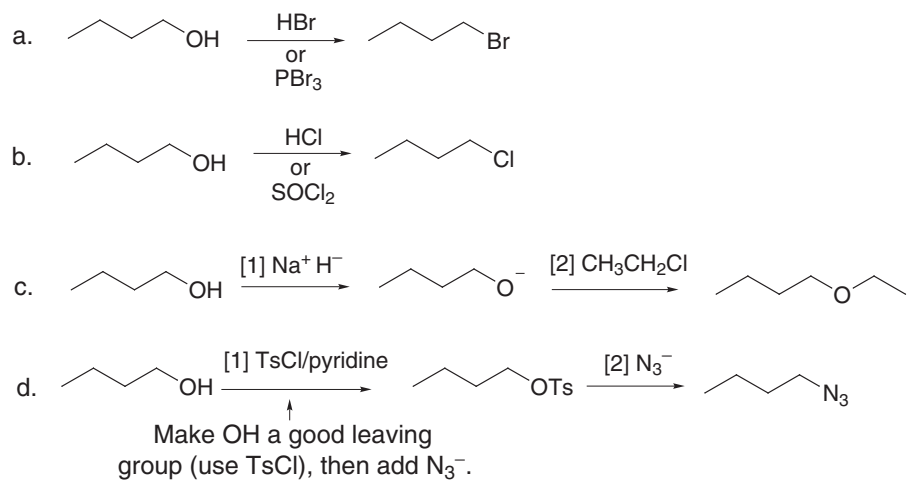


The 2 CH₃ groups are gauche in the starting material, making them cis in the product.

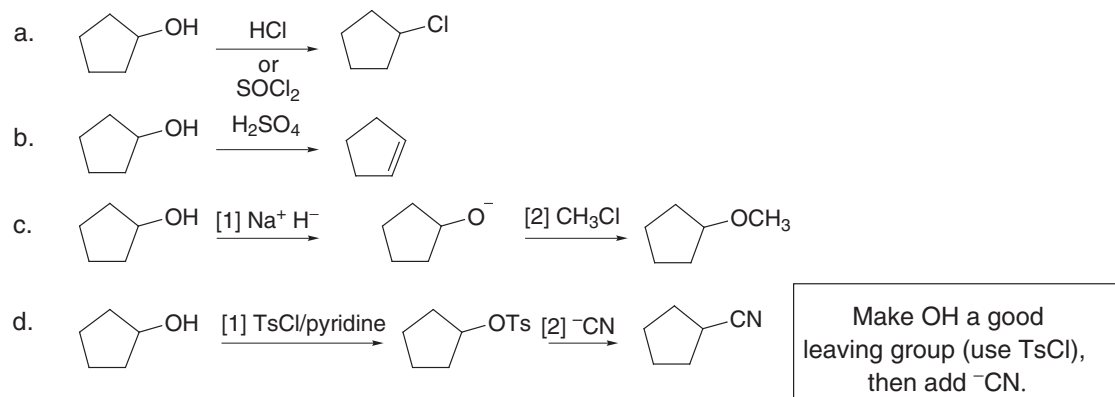
9.49



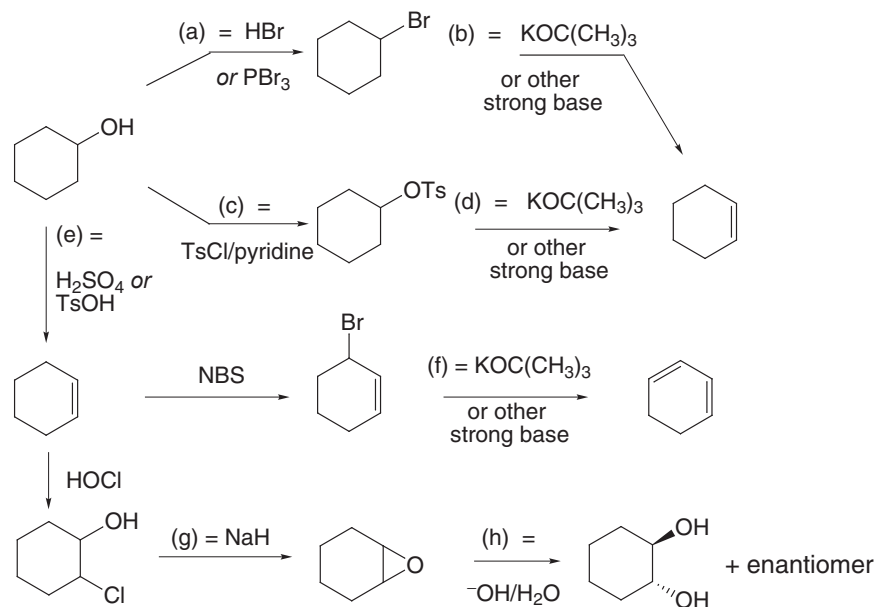
9.50



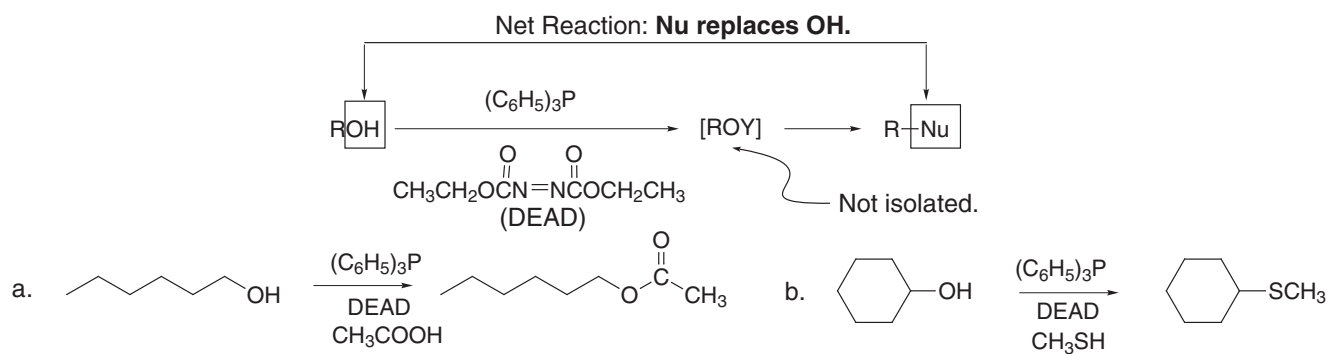
9.51



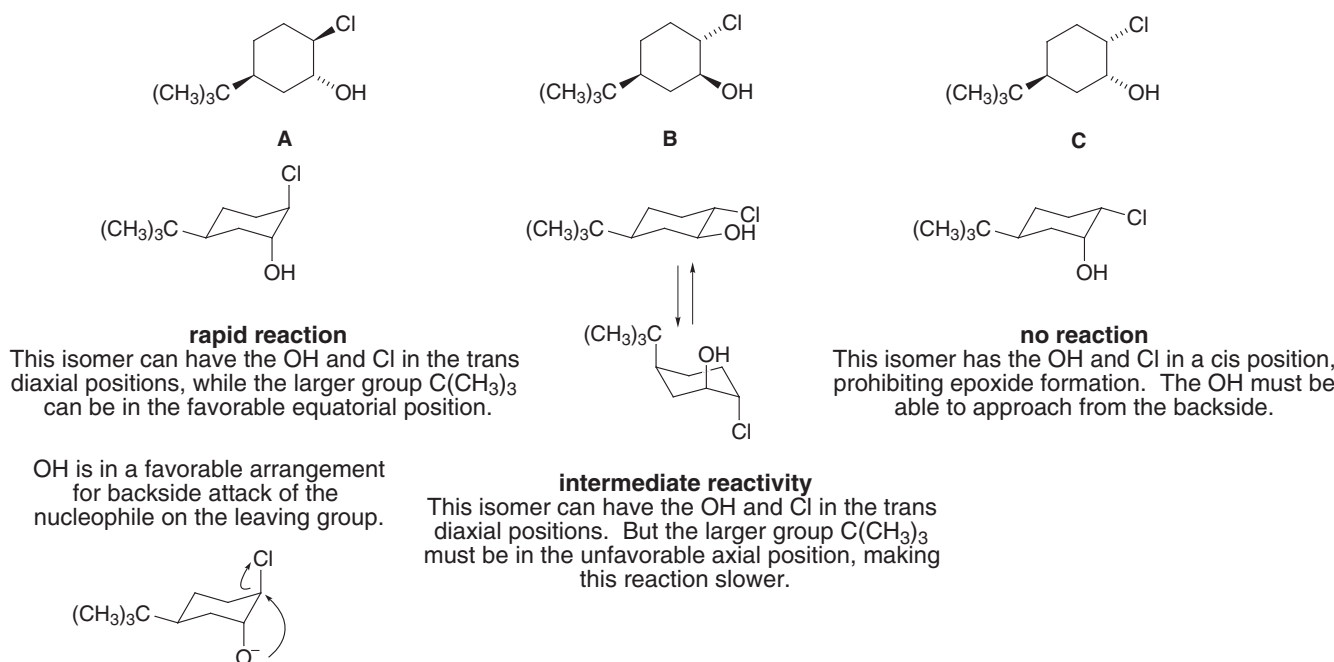
9.52



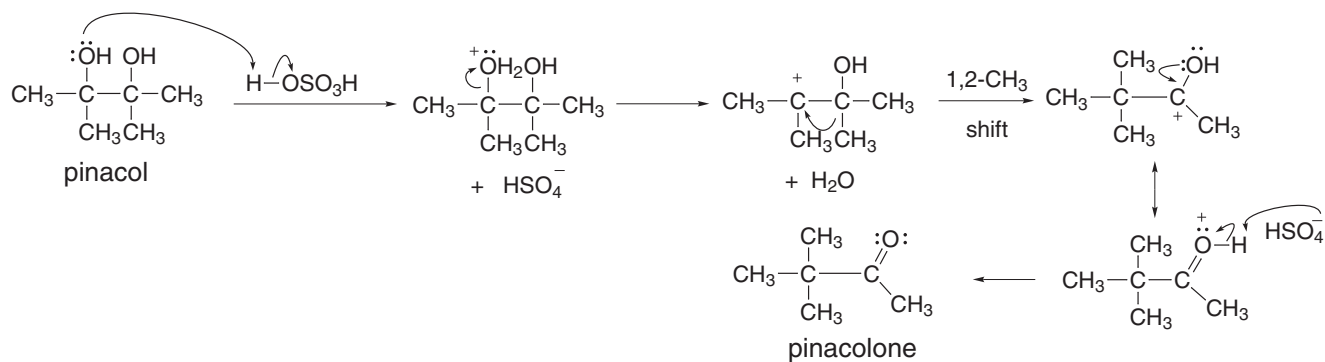
9.53



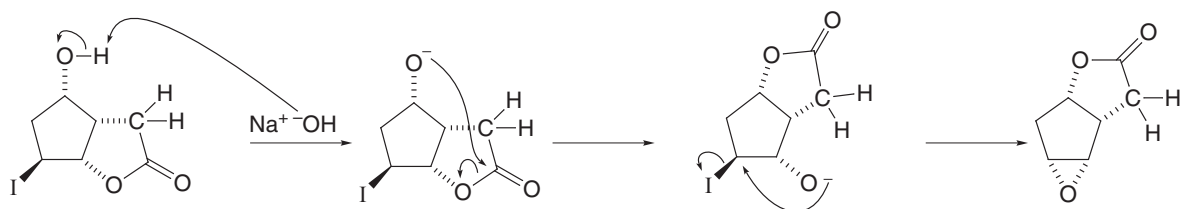
9.54



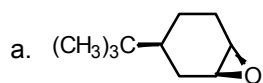
9.55



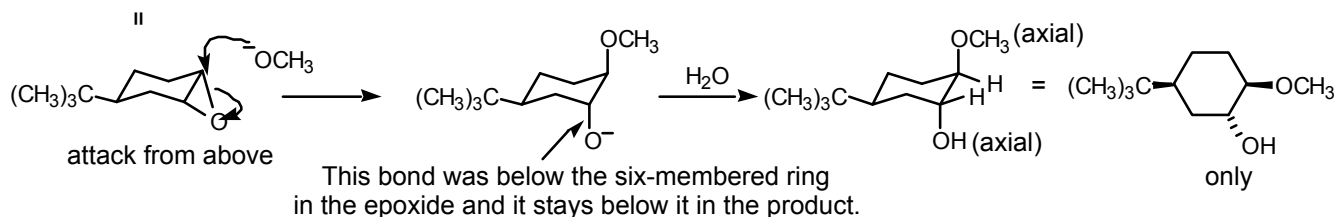
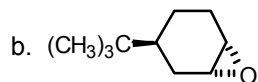
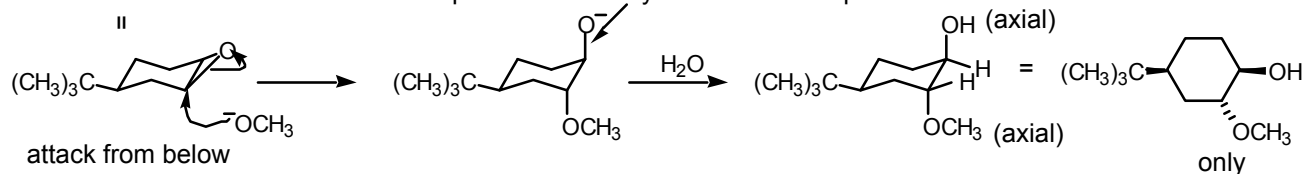
9.56



9.57 Bisogna disegnare il prodotto che mette il nucleofilo ed il gruppo uscente (O^-) trans e diassiali.



This bond was above the six-membered ring in the epoxide and it stays above it in the product.

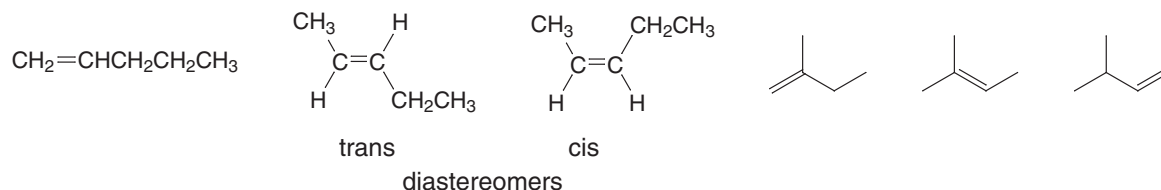


The nucleophile must always approach by backside attack; i.e. if the epoxide is drawn "up" it must attack from below. Even though both ends of the epoxide are equally substituted, nucleophilic attack occurs at only one C–O bond, the one that gives trans diaxial products, as drawn.

Capitolo 10

10.1

Six alkenes of molecular formula C_5H_{10} .

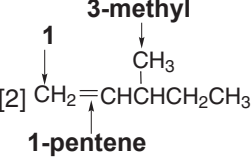
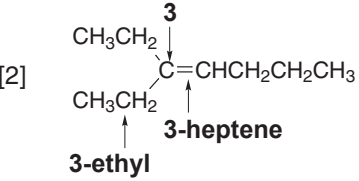
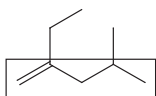
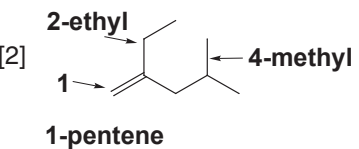
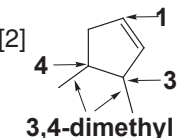
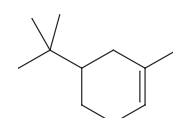
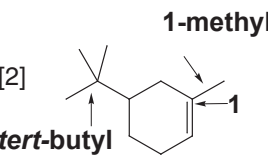


10.2 Per assegnare il nome ad un alchene:

- [1] Trovare la catena più lunga che contiene il doppio legame. Cambiare la desinenza **–ano** in **–ene**.
- [2] Numerare la catena dando al doppio legame il numero più basso. Il nome dell'alchene è assegnato dal primo numero.
- [3] Applicare tutte le altre regole di nomenclatura.

Per assegnare il nome ad un cicloalchene:

- [1] Quando il doppio legame è contenuto in un ciclo, è sempre posizionato tra il C1 e il C2. Omettere il numero “1” nel nome. Cambiare la desinenza **–ano** in **–ene**.
- [2] Numerare l'anello in senso orario o antiorario in modo da assegnare al primo sostituito il numero più basso.
- [3] Applicare tutte le altre regole di nomenclatura.

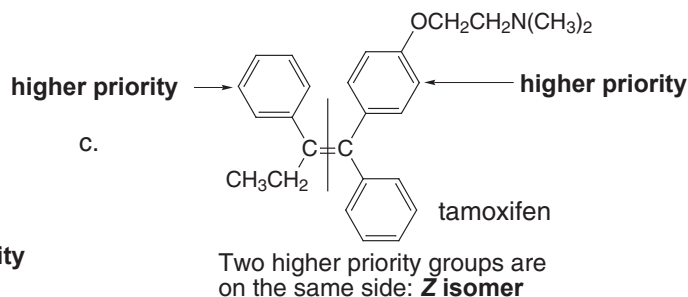
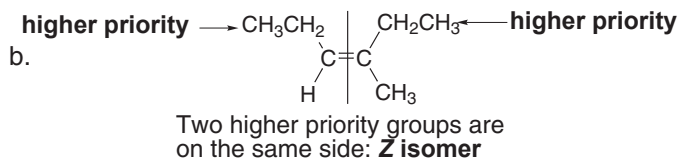
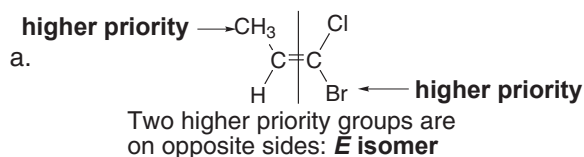
- a. [1] $\text{CH}_2=\text{CHCH}(\text{CH}_3)\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$
5 C chain with double bond
pentene
- [2] 
1-pentene
- [3] **3-methyl-1-pentene**
- b. [1] $(\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2)_2\text{C}=\text{CHCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$
7 C chain with double bond
heptene
- [2] 
3-ethyl
3-heptene
- [3] **3-ethyl-3-heptene**
- c. [1] 
5 C chain with double bond
pentene
- [2] 
2-ethyl
1-pentene
4-methyl
- [3] **2-ethyl-4-methyl-1-pentene**
- d. [1] 
5 C ring with a double bond
cyclopentene
- [2] 
3,4-dimethyl
- [3] **3,4-dimethylcyclopentene**
- e. [1] 
6 C ring with a double bond
cyclohexene
- [2] 
1-methyl
5-tert-butyl
- [3] **5-tert-butyl-1-methylcyclohexene**

10.3 Per definire un alchene come *E* o *Z*:

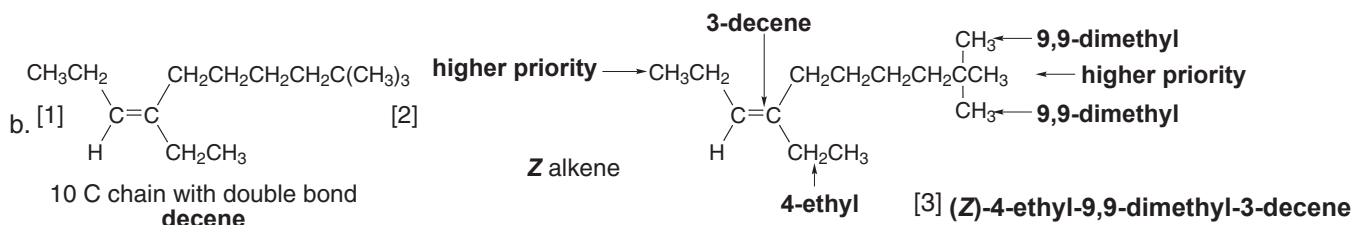
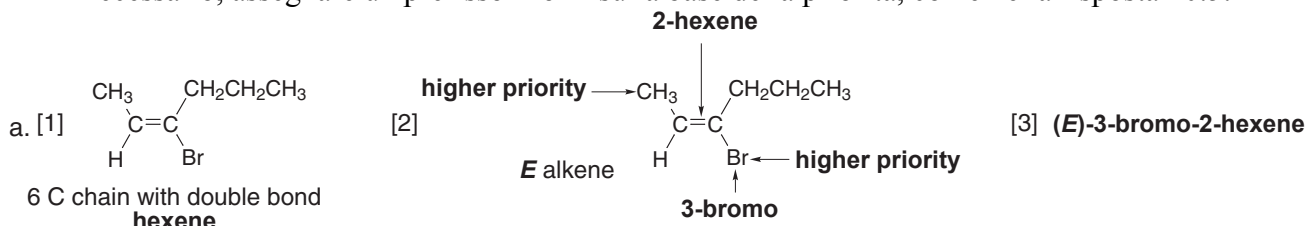
[1] **Assegnare le priorità** ai due sostituenti *su ognuna delle estremità* usando le regole per la nomenclatura *R,S*.

[2] **Assegnare *E* o *Z*** in funzione della posizione dei due gruppi a priorità più alta.

- Il prefisso ***E*** è usato quando i due gruppi con priorità più alta sono su **lati opposti**.
- Il prefisso ***Z*** è usato quando i due gruppi con priorità più alta sono **sullo stesso lato** del doppio legame.

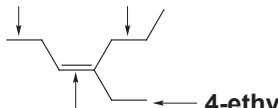
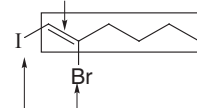
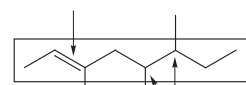


10.4 Per assegnare il nome ad un alchene: Prima seguire le regole della risposta 10.4. Poi, quando necessario, assegnare un prefisso *E* o *Z* sulla base della priorità, come nella risposta 10.5.

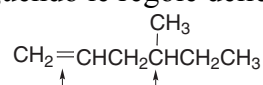
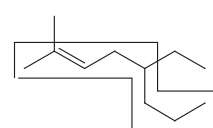
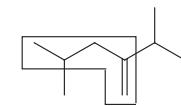
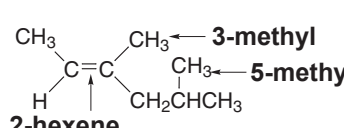
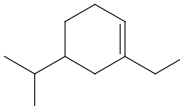
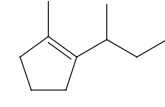


10.5 Operare a ritroso per disegnare la struttura dal nome:

- [1] Individuare la radice corrispondente e il gruppo funzionale e disegnare la struttura, ricordando che il doppio legame si trova fra il C1 e il C2 per i cicloalcheni.
- [2] Legare i sostituenti sul carbonio opportuno.

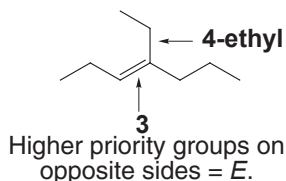
- a. (Z)-4-ethyl-3-heptene The higher priority groups are on the same side = **Z**.
 7 carbons
 The double bond is between C3 and C4.

4-ethyl
- c. (Z)-2-bromo-1-iodo-1-hexene The double bond is between C1 and C2.
 6 carbons
 The higher priority groups are on the same side = **Z**.

- b. (E)-3,5,6-trimethyl-2-octene The double bond is between C2 and C3.
 8 carbons
 The higher priority groups are on opposite sides = **E**.

3,5,6-trimethyl

10.6 Assegnare il nome agli alcheni seguendo le regole delle risposte 10.2 e 10.3.

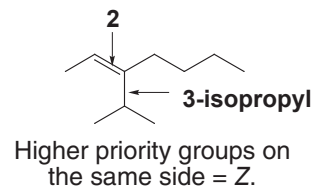
- a. $\text{CH}_2=\text{CHCH}_2\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$
 6 C chain with a double bond = **hexene**

1-hexene 4-methyl
4-methyl-1-hexene
- b. 
 8 C chain with a double bond = **octene**
2-methyl 5-ethyl
5-ethyl-2-methyl-2-octene
- c. 
 5 C chain with a double bond = **pentene**
2-isopropyl 4-methyl
2-isopropyl-4-methyl-1-pentene
- d. $\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 \\ | \\ \text{H}-\text{C}=\text{C}-\text{CH}_3 \\ | \\ \text{H} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 \\ | \\ \text{CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2 \end{array}$
 6 C chain with a double bond = **hexene**

2-hexene 3-methyl 5-methyl
(E)-3,5-dimethyl-2-hexene
 higher priority → CH₃ ← higher priority
 Higher priority groups are on opposite sides = **E alkene**.
- e. 
 6 C ring with a double bond = **cyclohexene**
5-isopropyl 1-ethyl
1-ethyl-5-isopropylcyclohexene
- f. 
 5 C ring with a double bond = **cyclopentene**
2-methyl 1-sec-butyl
1-sec-butyl-2-methylcyclopentene

10.7 Usare le regole della risposta 10.5.a. (*E*)-4-ethyl-3-heptene

7 carbons

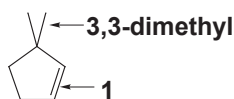
e. (*Z*)-3-isopropyl-2-heptene

7 carbons

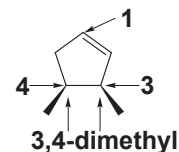


b. 3,3-dimethylcyclopentene

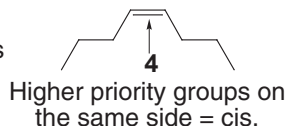
5 carbon ring

f. *cis*-3,4-dimethylcyclopentene

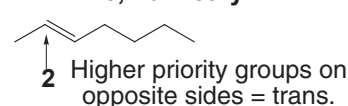
5 carbon ring

c. *cis*-4-octene

8 carbons

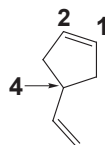
g. *trans*-2-heptene

7 carbons



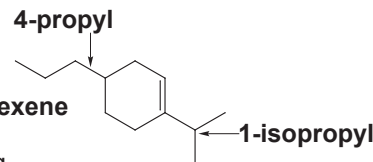
d. 4-vinylcyclopentene

5 carbon ring

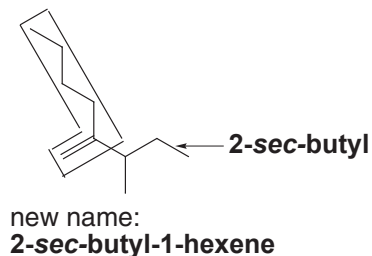
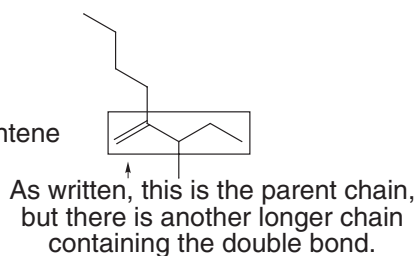
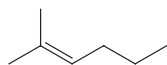
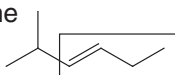


h. 1-isopropyl-4-propylcyclohexene

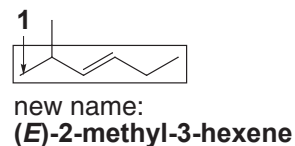
6 carbon ring

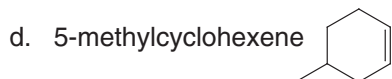
**10.8**

a. 2-butyl-3-methyl-1-pentene

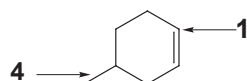
b. (*Z*)-2-methyl-2-hexenenew name:
2-methyl-2-hexeneTwo groups on one end of the C=C are the same (2 CH₃'s), so no *E* and *Z* isomers are possible.c. (*E*)-1-isopropyl-1-butene

As written, this is the parent chain, but there is another longer chain containing the double bond.

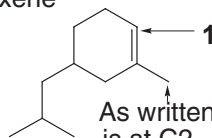
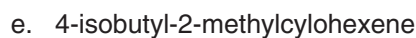




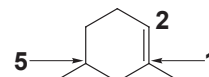
As written the methyl is at C5. Renumber to put it at C4.



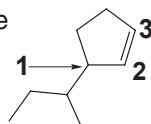
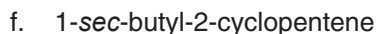
new name:
4-methylcyclohexene



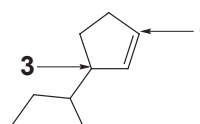
As written this methyl is at C2. Renumber to put it at C1.



new name:
5-isobutyl-1-methylcyclohexene

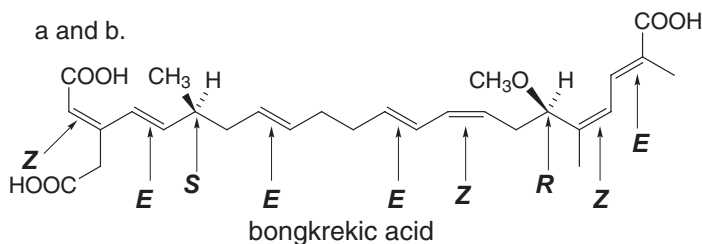


This has the double bond between C2 and C3. Cycloalkenes must have the double bond between C1 and C2. Renumber.



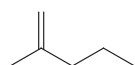
new name:
3-sec-butylcyclopentene

10.9

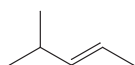


c. Since there are 7 double bonds and 2 tetrahedral stereogenic centers, $2^9 = 512$ possible stereoisomers.

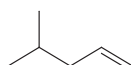
10.10



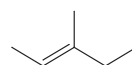
2-methyl-1-pentene



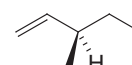
(E)-4-methyl-2-pentene



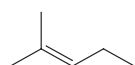
4-methyl-1-pentene



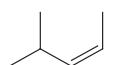
(E)-3-methyl-2-pentene



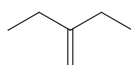
(R)-3-methyl-1-pentene



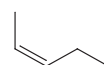
2-methyl-2-pentene



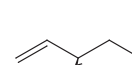
(Z)-4-methyl-2-pentene



2-ethyl-1-butene



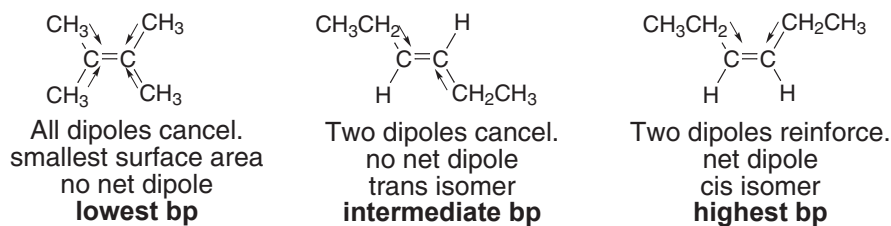
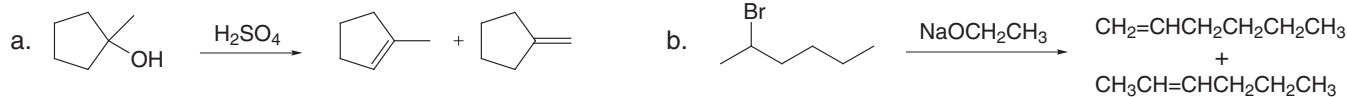
(Z)-3-methyl-2-pentene



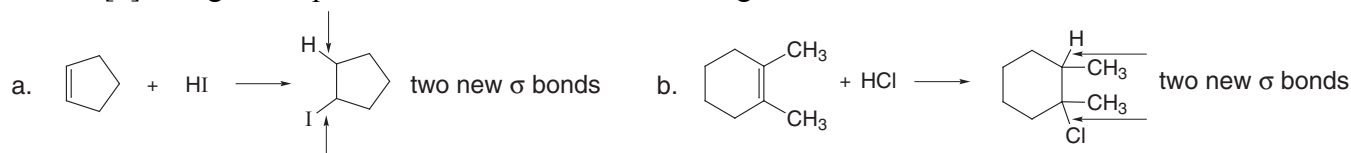
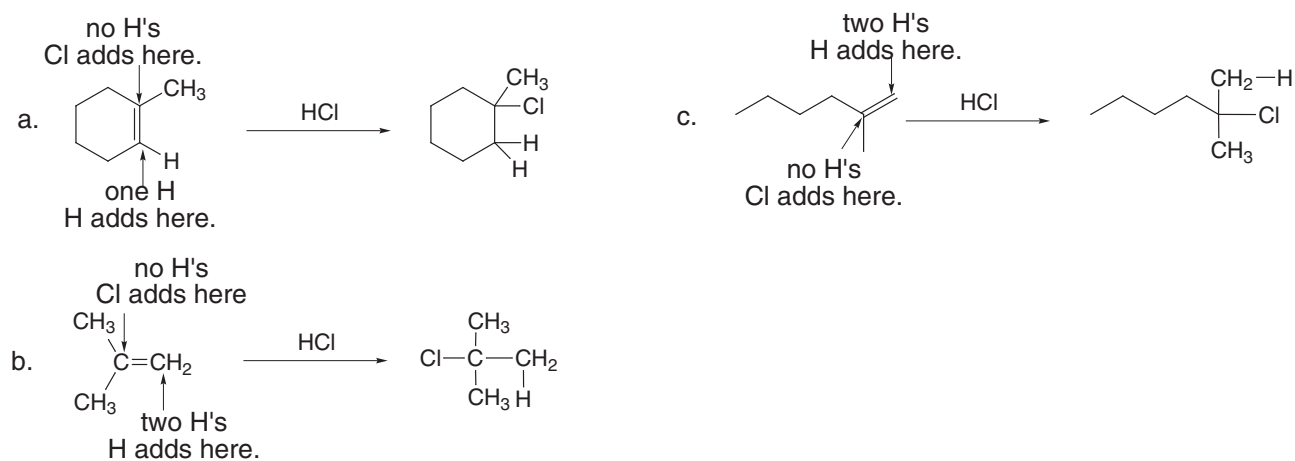
(S)-3-methyl-1-pentene

10.11 Per ordinare gli isomeri in base al punto di ebollizione crescente:

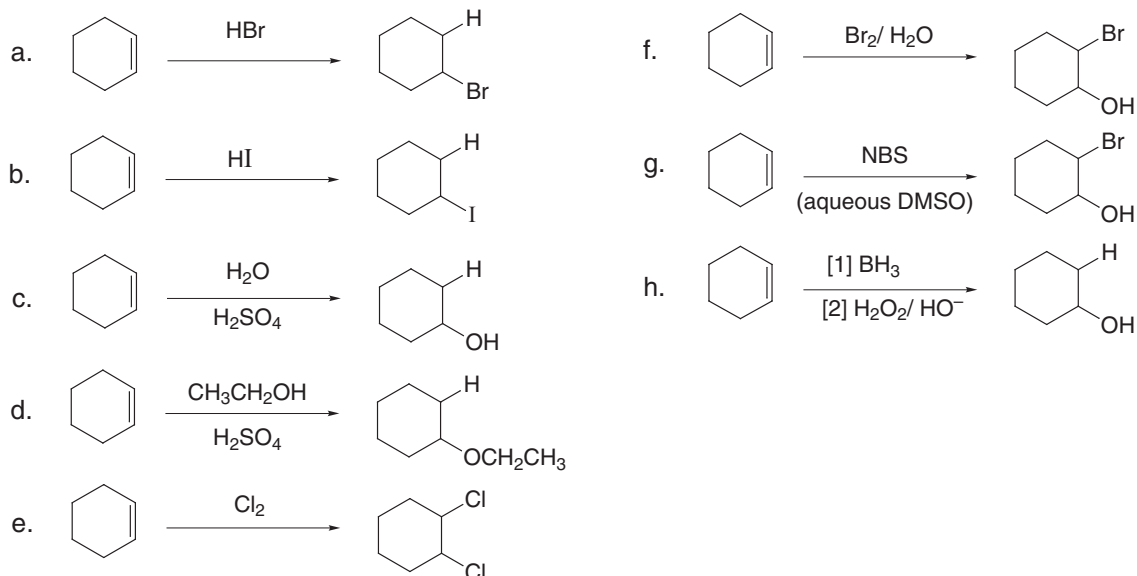
Considerare le differenze di polarità: *un piccolo dipolo netto* rende un alchene più polare, e di conseguenza possiede un punto di ebollizione più elevato rispetto ad un alchene che non ha *nessun dipolo netto*. Gli isomeri cis hanno punti di ebollizione maggiori rispetto ai trans.

**10.12****10.13** Per disegnare i prodotti di una reazione di addizione:

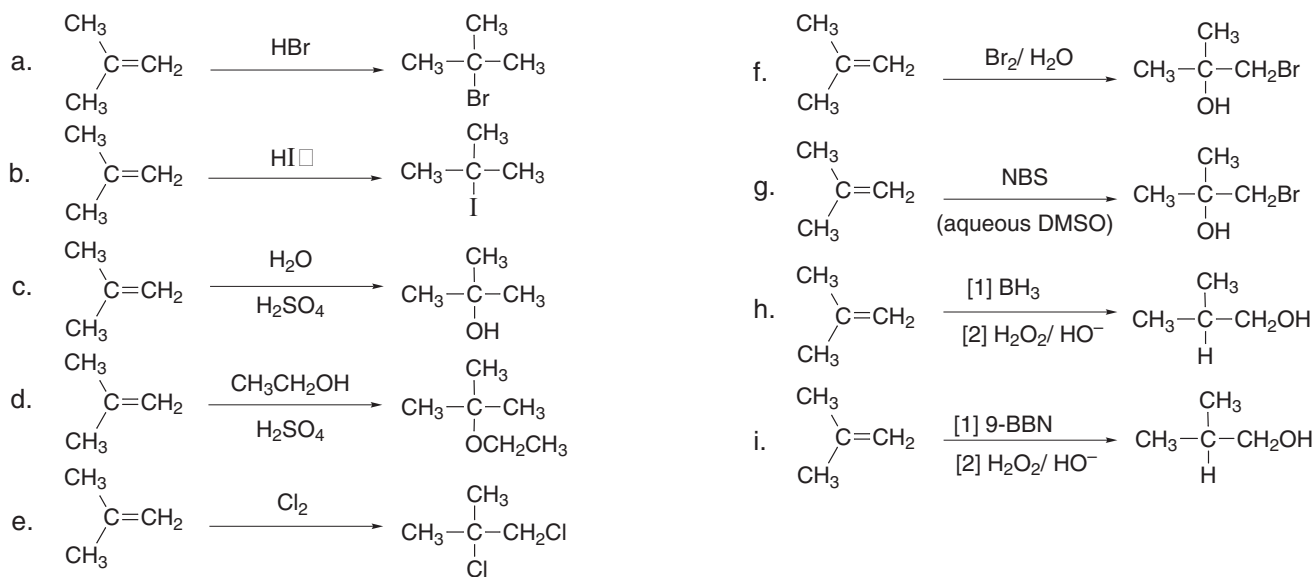
- [1] Identificare i due legami che saranno rotti nella reazione. Si rompe sempre il legame π .
 [2] Disegnare il prodotto formando i due nuovi legami σ .

**10.14** L'addizione agli alcheni segue la regola di Markovnikov: quando HX si addiziona ad un alchene asimmetrico, l'atomo di H si lega al C che ha il maggior numero di atomi di H.

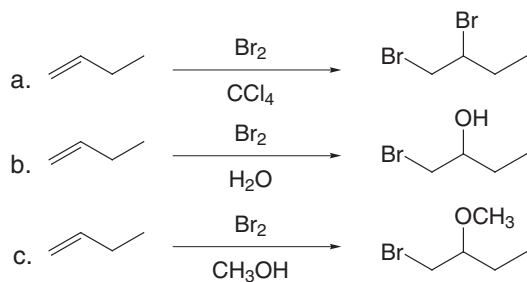
10.15



10.16



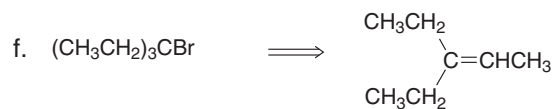
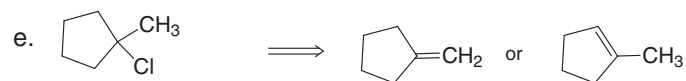
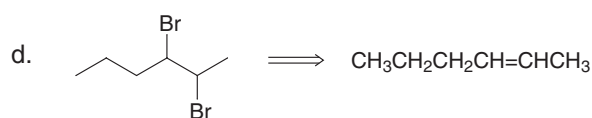
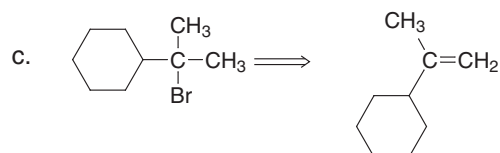
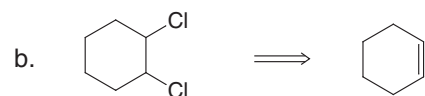
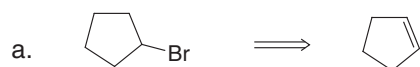
10.17

**Halogenation**

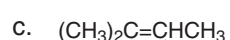
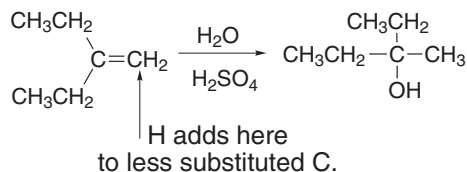
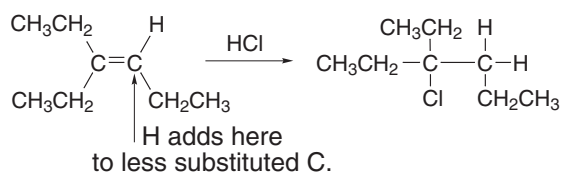
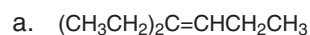
Halohydrin formation: Br adds to the C that had more H's to begin with.

Same as halohydrin formation, except CH₃OH in place of H₂O.

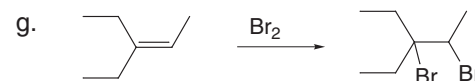
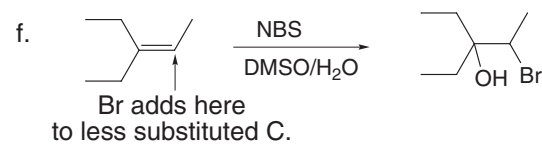
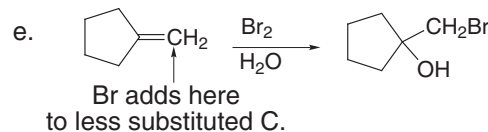
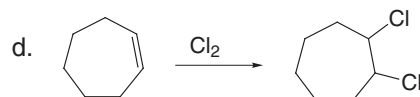
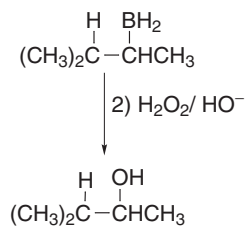
10.18



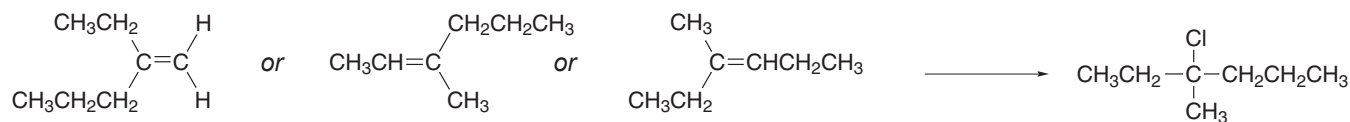
10.19



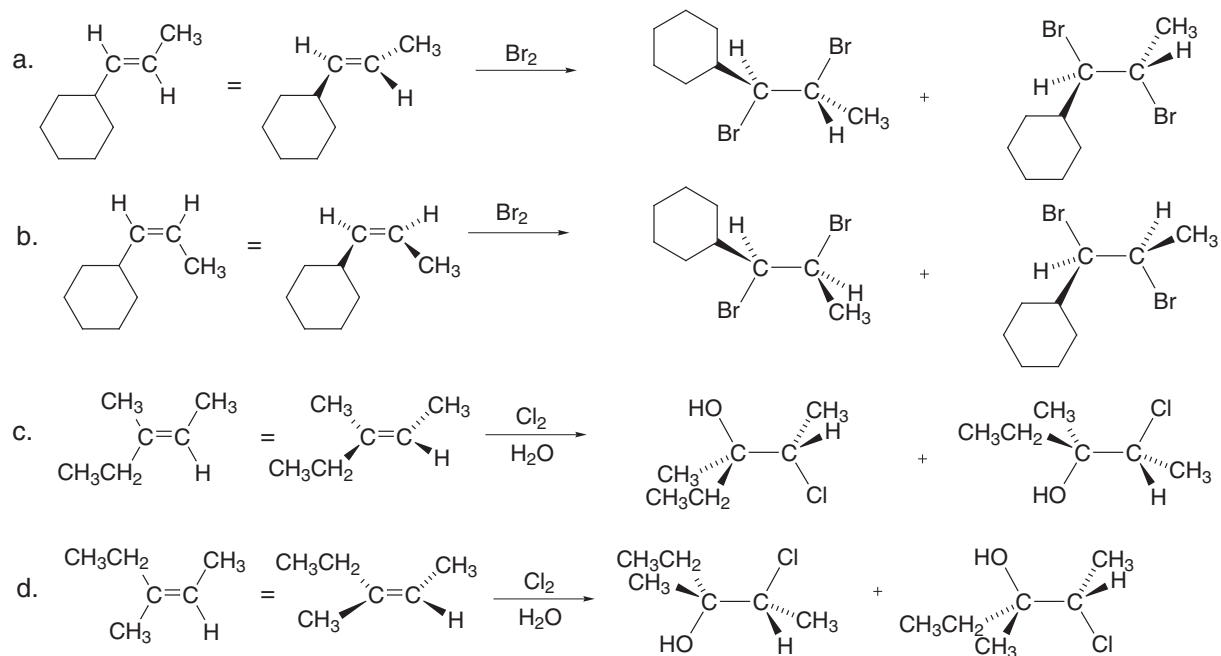
BH_3 adds here to less substituted C.



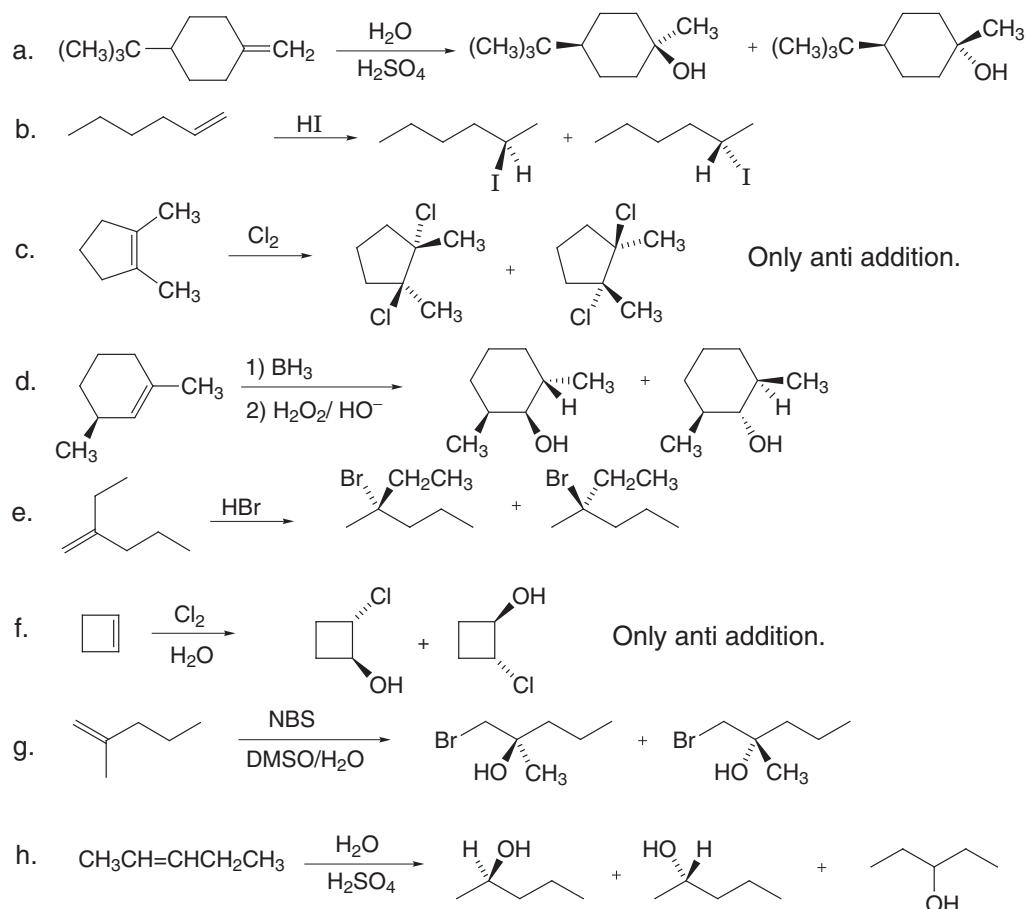
10.20



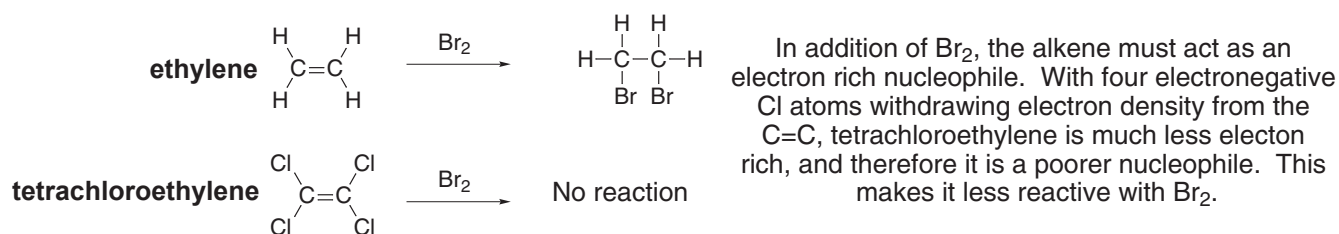
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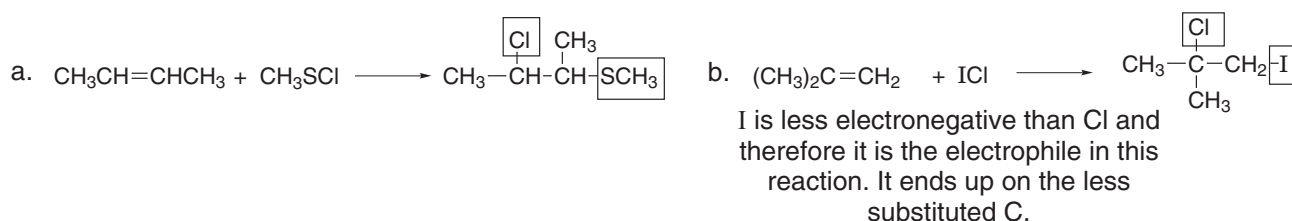
10.22



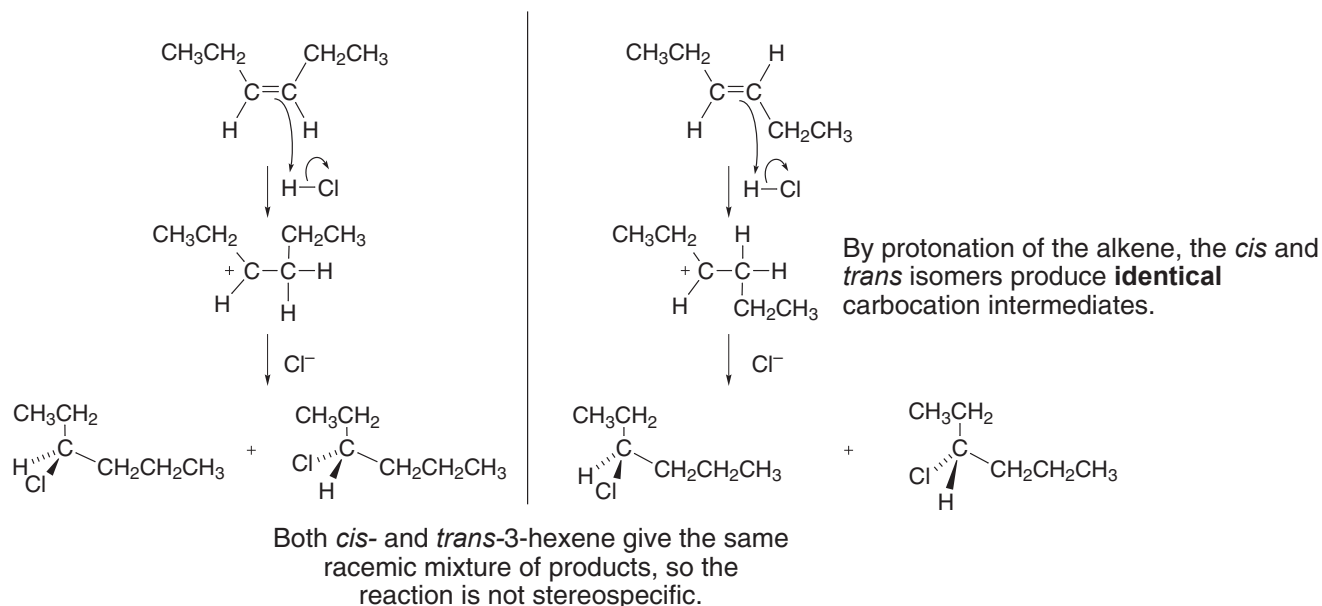
10.23



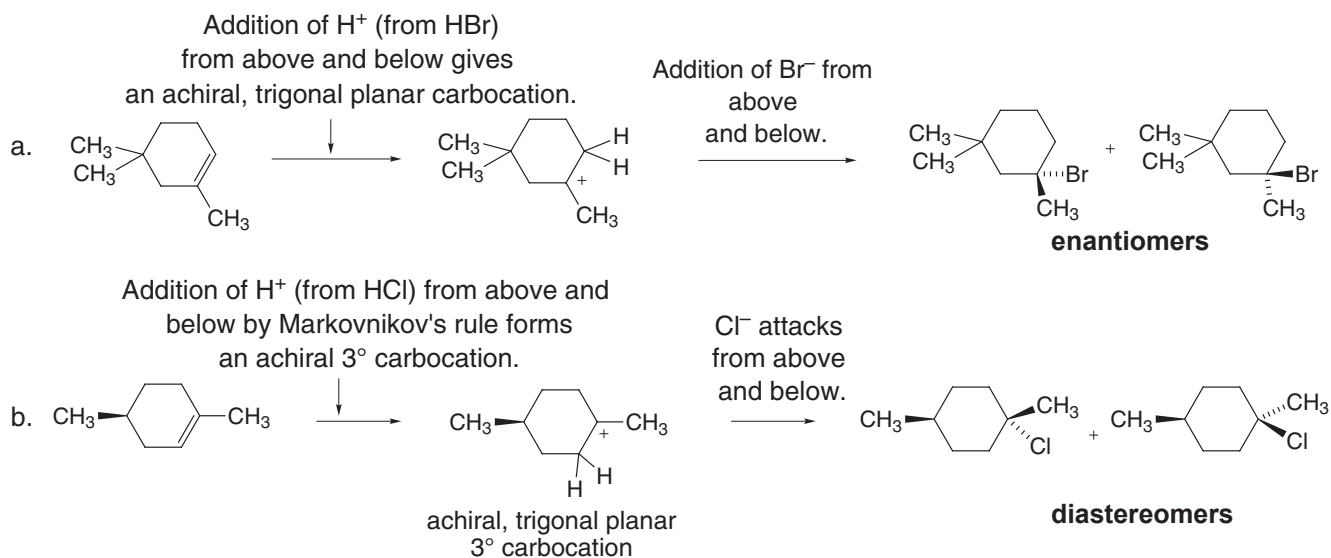
10.24



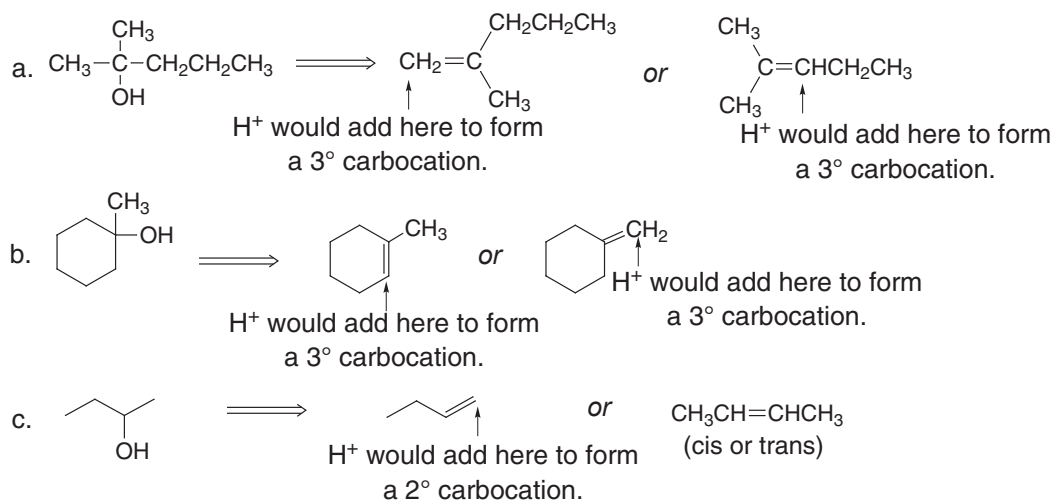
10.25



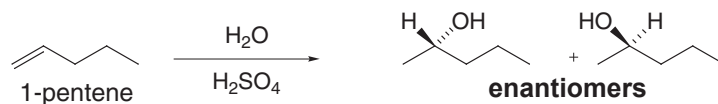
10.26 Per disegnare i prodotti, ricordare che l'addizione di HBr avviene attraverso la formazione di un carbocatione intermedio.



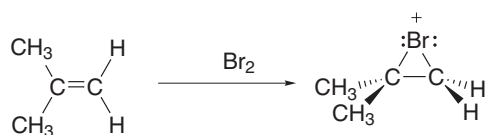
10.27



10.28

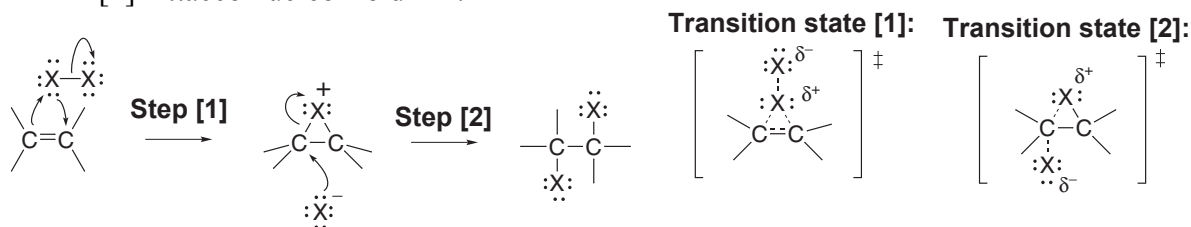


10.29

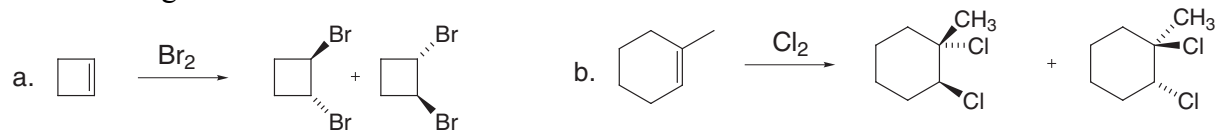


10.30 I due stadi del meccanismo di alogenazione di un alchene sono:

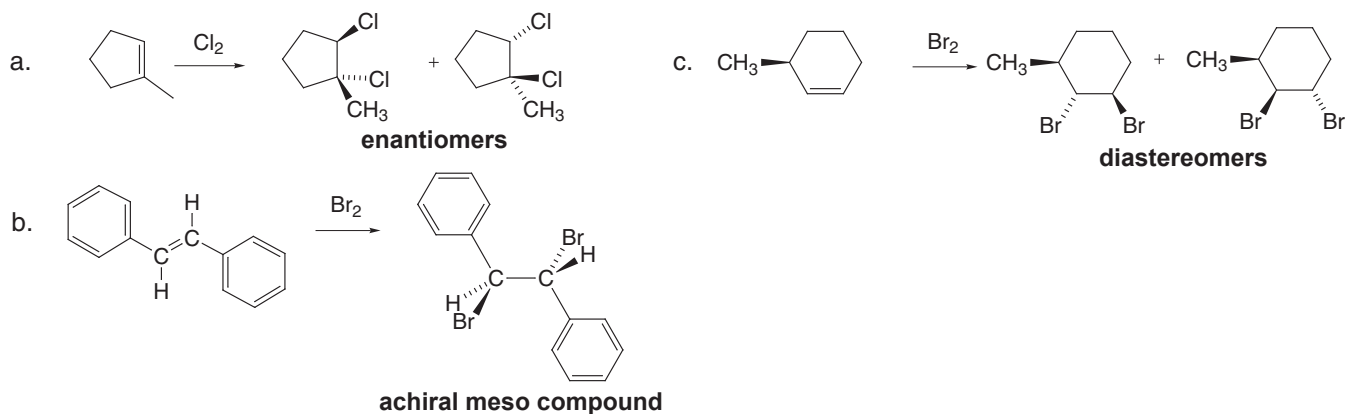
- [1] Addizione di X^+ all'alchene per formare uno ione alonio ciclico.
- [2] Attacco nucleofilo di X^- .



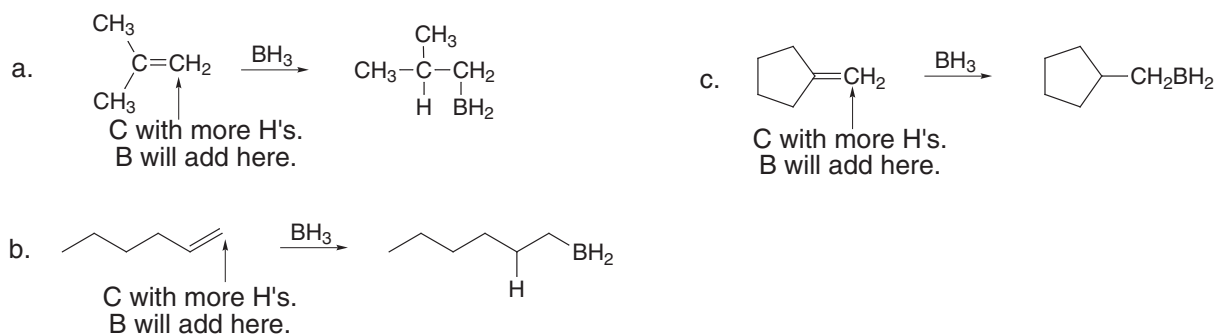
10.31 L'alogenazione di un alchene aggiunge due elementi X con modalità anti.



10.32 Per disegnare i prodotti di alogenazione di un alchene, ricordare che l'alogeno si aggiunge alle due estremità del doppio legame esclusivamente in modo anti.

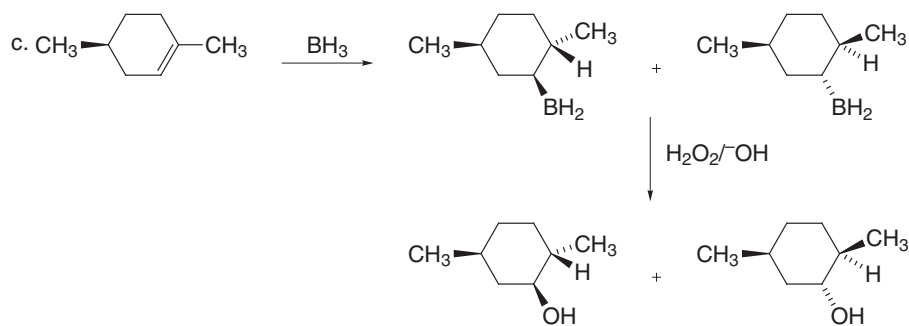
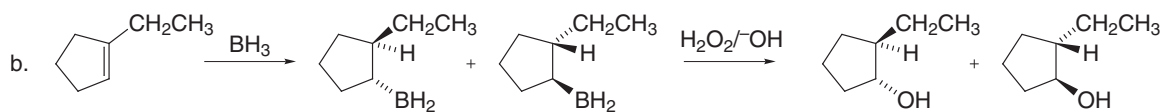
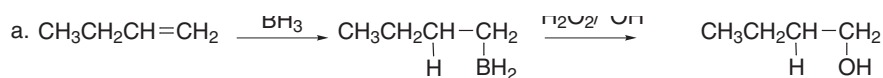


10.33 Nell'idroborazione l'atomo di boro è l'elettrofilo e si lega all'atomo di carbonio che ha il maggior numero di atomi di H.

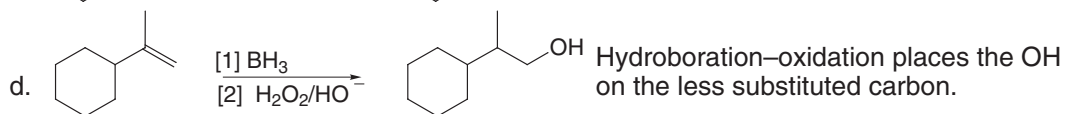
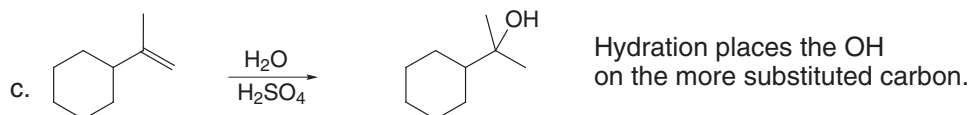
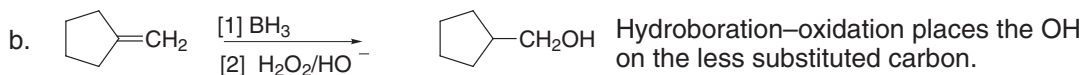
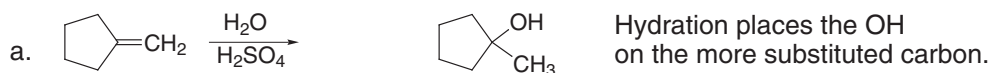


10.34 La reazione di idroborazione–ossidazione avviene in due stadi:

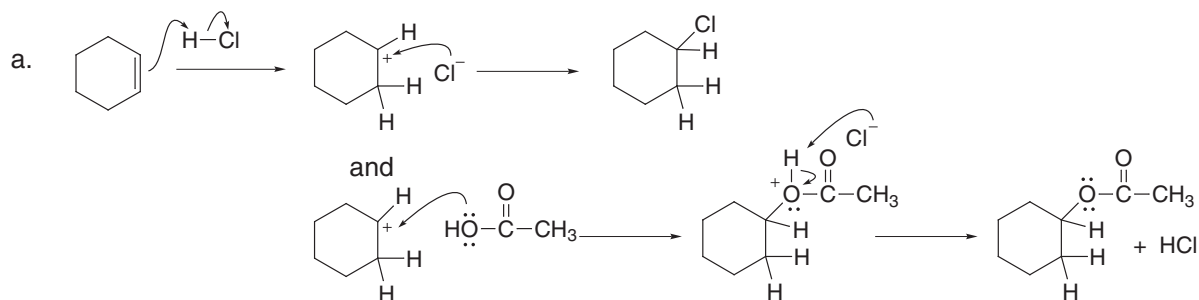
- [1] Addizione syn di BH_3 , con il borano sul carbonio meno sostituito.
- [2] OH sostituisce BH_2 con ritenzione di configurazione.

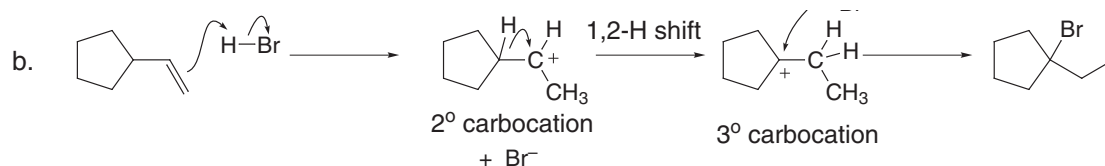


10.35

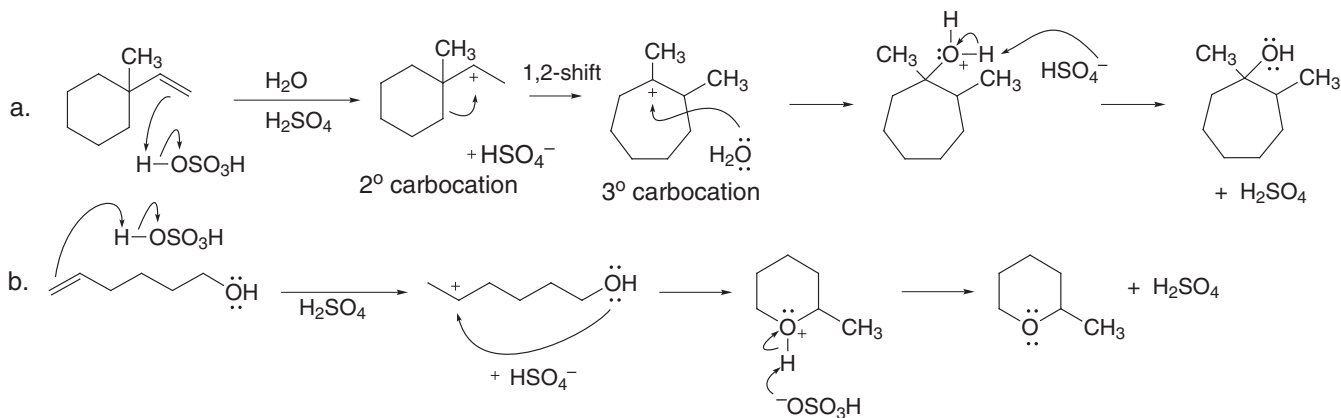


10.36

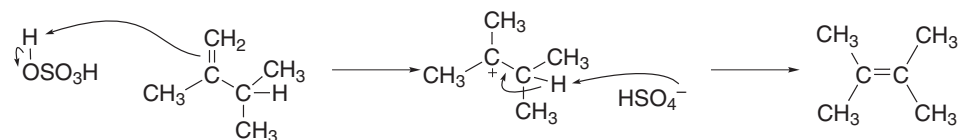




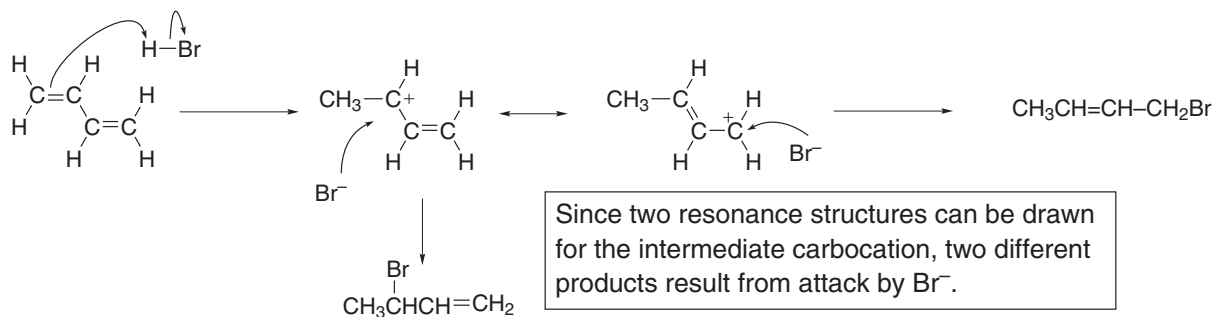
10.37



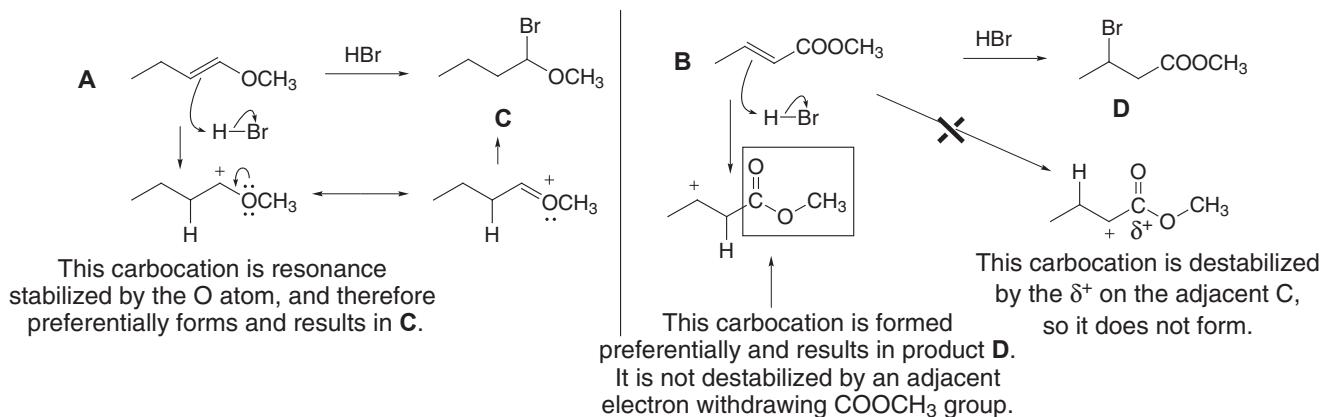
10.38 La reazione di isomerizzazione avviene per protonazione e deprotonazione.



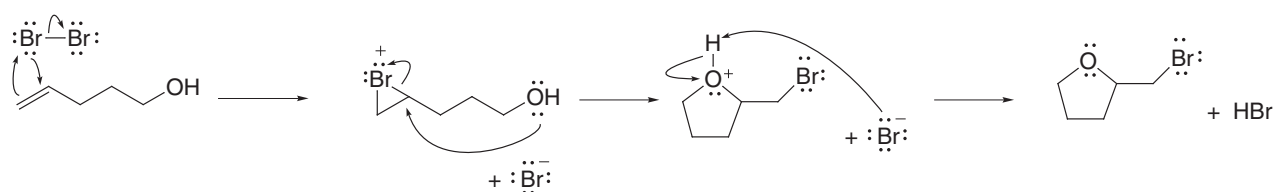
10.39



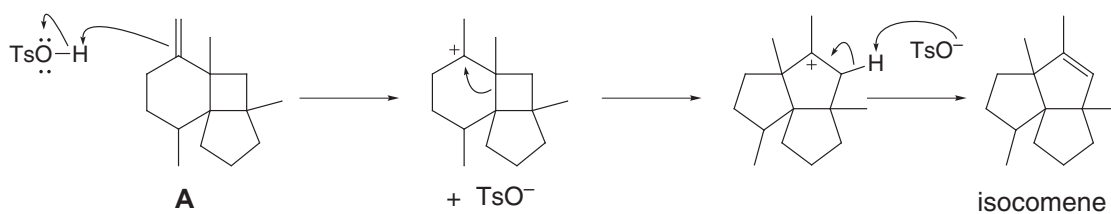
10.40



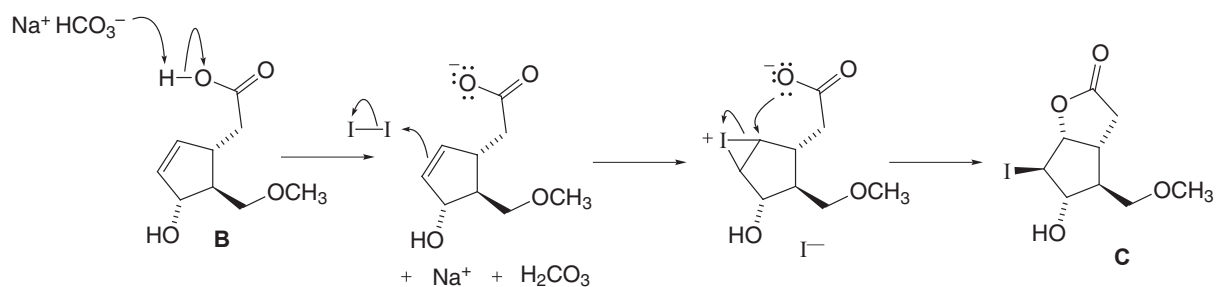
10.41



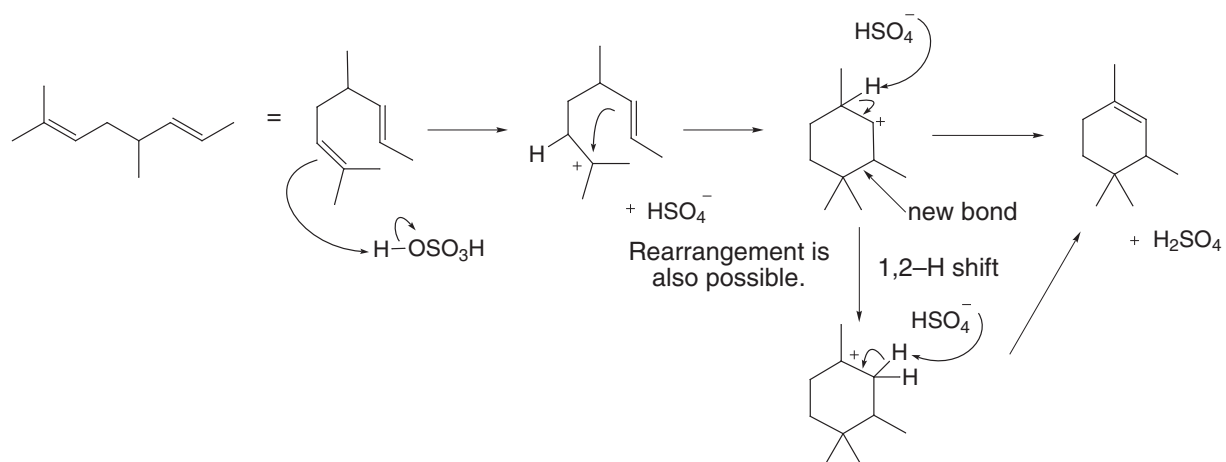
10.42



10.43



10.44



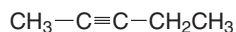
Capitolo 11

11.1• Un *alchino interno* ha il triplo legame in *mezzo* alla catena carboniosa.

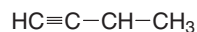
• Un *alchino terminale* ha il triplo legame all'*estremità* della catena carboniosa.



terminal alkyne

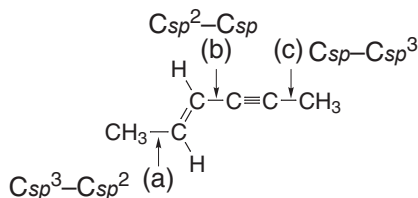


internal alkyne



terminal alkyne

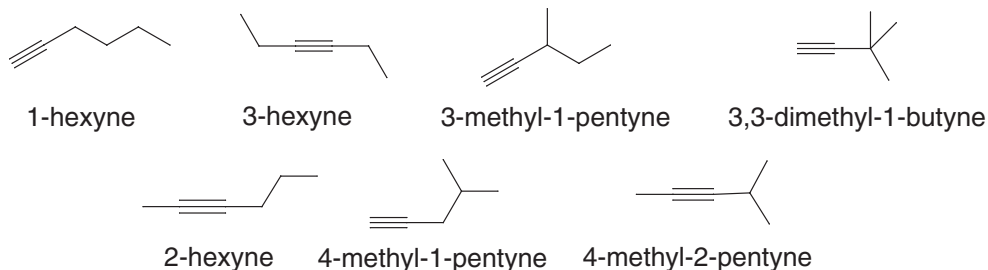
11.2



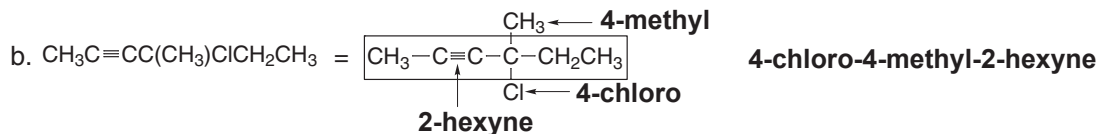
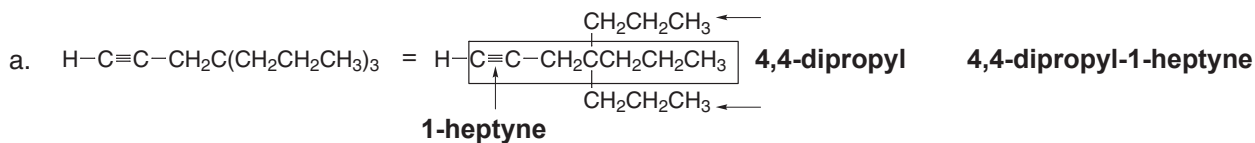
11.3 Come per gli alcheni, maggiore è il numero di gruppi alchilici legati al C ibridato *sp*, più stabile è l'alchino. Questo rende gli alchini interni più stabili degli alchini terminali.

11.4 Per assegnare il nome a un alchino:

- [1] Individuare la catena più lunga che contiene entrambi gli atomi del triplo legame, e numerare la catena in modo da assegnare al primo carbonio del triplo legame il numero più basso
- [2] Indicare il nome di tutti i sostituenti seguendo le altre regole della nomenclatura.



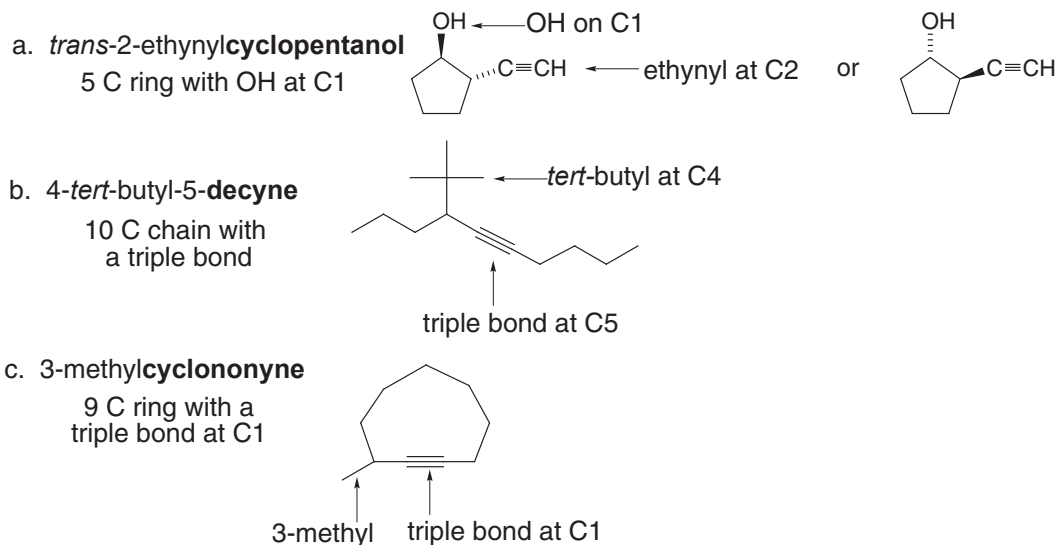
11.5 Usare le indicazioni della risposta 11.4 per attribuire il nome a ciascun alchino.



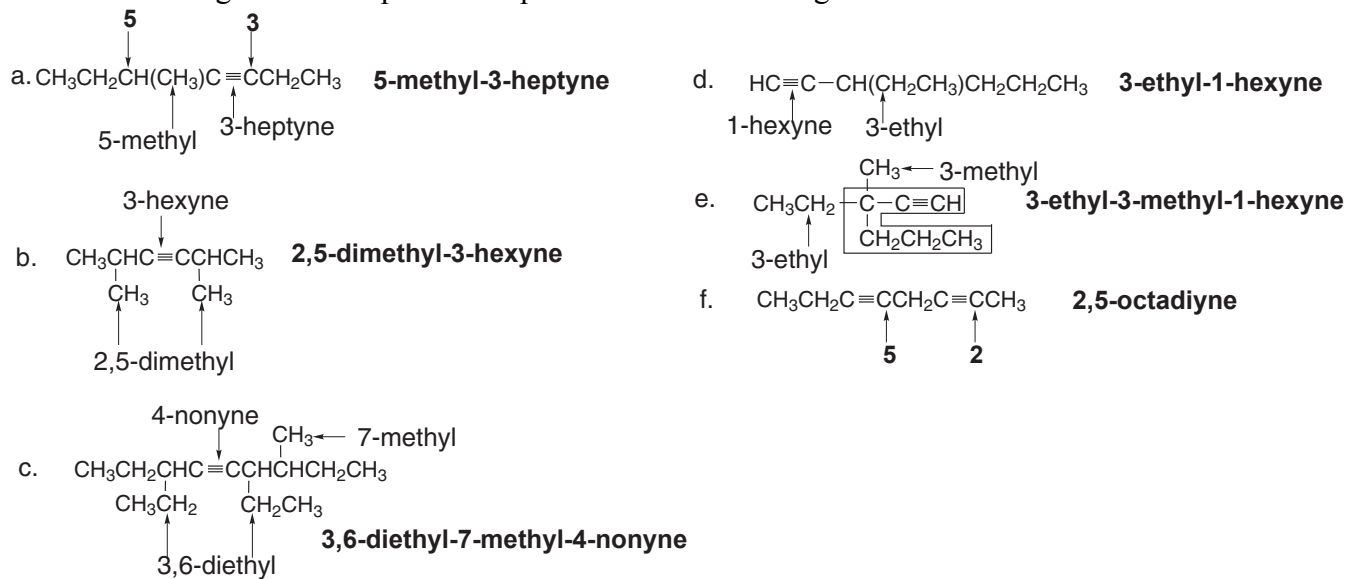
11.6 Operare a ritroso per scrivere la struttura dal nome:

[1] Individuare la radice corrispondente e il gruppo funzionale.

[2] Legare i sostituenti sul carbonio opportuno.

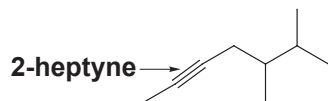


11.7 Usare le regole della risposta 11.4 per attribuire il nome agli alchini.

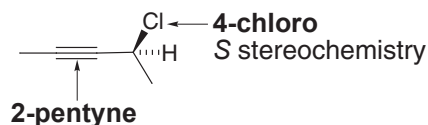


11.8 Usare le regole della risposta 11.6 per disegnare la struttura.

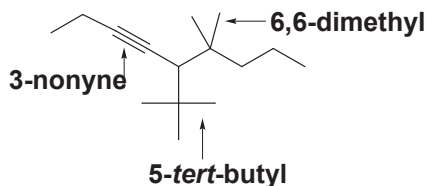
a. 5,6-dimethyl-2-heptyne



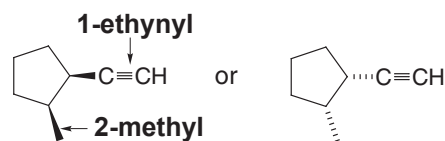
c. (S)-4-chloro-2-pentyne



b. 5-tert-butyl-6,6-dimethyl-3-nonyne



d. cis-1-ethynyl-2-methylcyclopentane

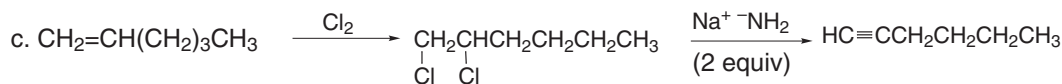
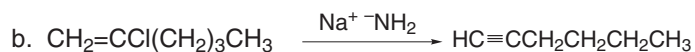
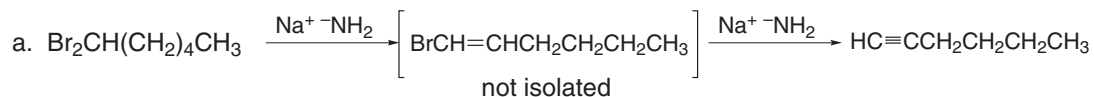


11.9 Sono due i fattori che determinano un aumento del punto di ebollizione. I carboni di un alchino ibridati *sp* permettono una maggiore attrazione dovuta alle forze di van der Waals fra le molecole dell'alchino. Inoltre, poiché un triplo legame è più polarizzabile di un doppio legame, questo aumenta anche le forze di van der Waals tra due molecole.

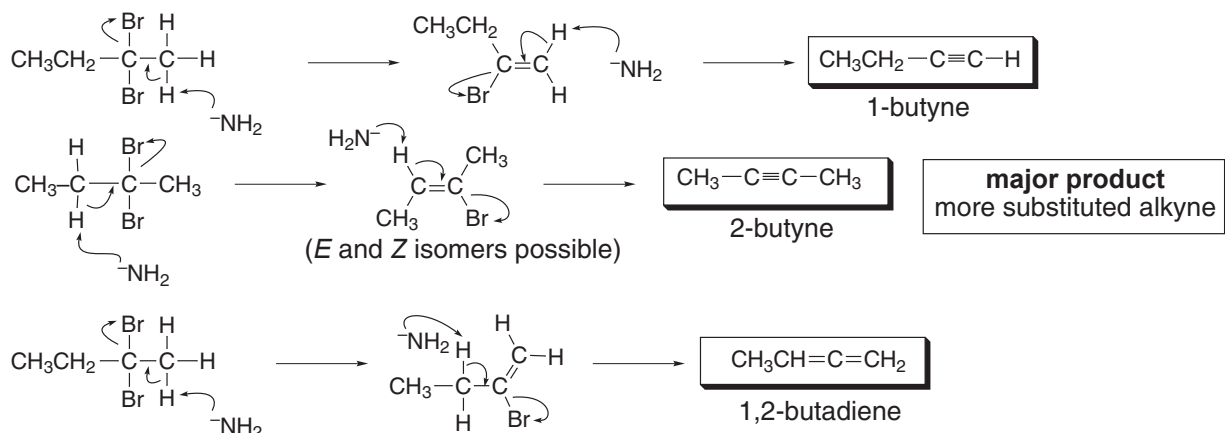
11.10 Per convertire un alchene in un alchino:

[1] Formare dall'alchene un dihalogenuro vicinale per addizione di X_2 .

[2] Aggiungere una base per rimuovere due equivalenti di HX e formare l'alchino.



11.11

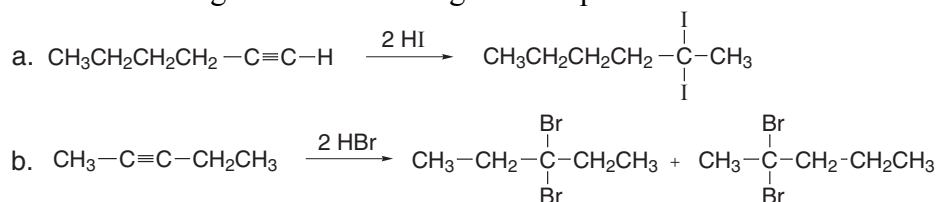


11.12 L'acetilene ha un $\text{p}K_a$ di 25, quindi le **basi che hanno un acido coniugato con un $\text{p}K_a$ maggiore di 25** sono in grado di deprotonarlo.

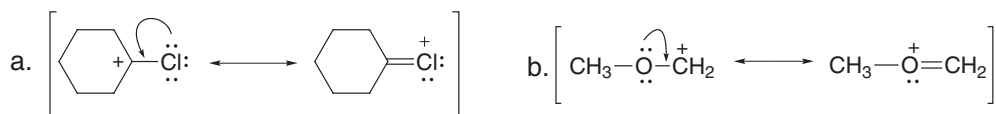
- a. CO_3^{2-} [$\text{p}K_a$ (HCO_3^-) = 10.2] $\text{p}K_a < 25$ = **Cannot deprotonate acetylene.**
- b. $\text{CH}_2=\text{CH}^-$ [$\text{p}K_a$ ($\text{CH}_2=\text{CH}_2$) = 44] $\text{p}K_a > 25$ = **Can deprotonate acetylene.**
- c. $(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{CO}^-$ [$\text{p}K_a$ [$(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{COH}$] = 18] $\text{p}K_a < 25$ = **Cannot deprotonate acetylene.**

11.13 Per disegnare i prodotti della reazione con HX:

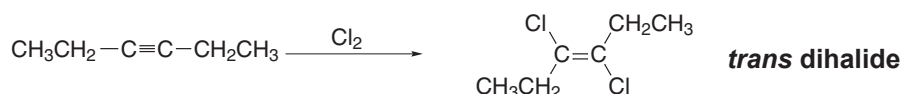
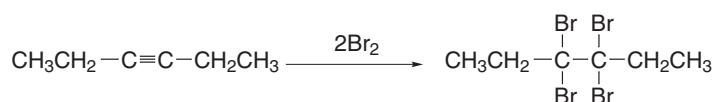
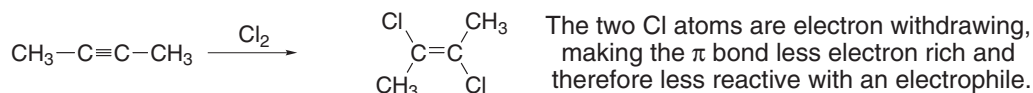
- Aggiungere due moli di HX al triplo legame, seguendo la regola di Markovnikov.
- Entrambi gli atomi di X si legano al C più sostituito.



11.14

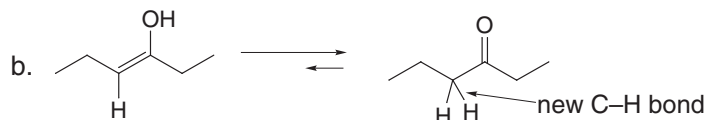
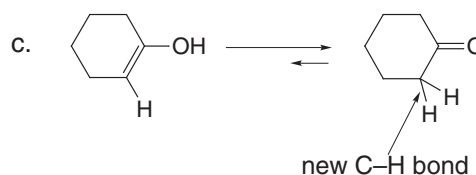
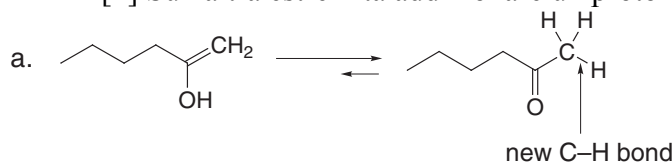
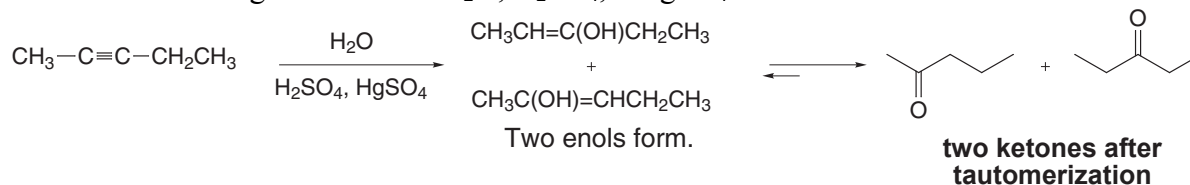
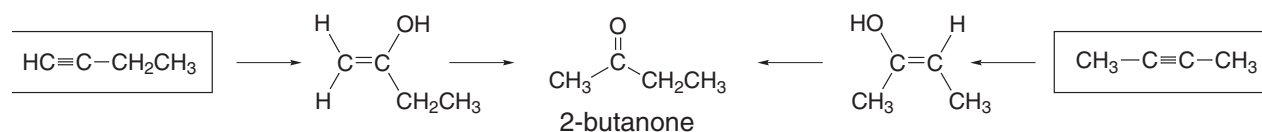


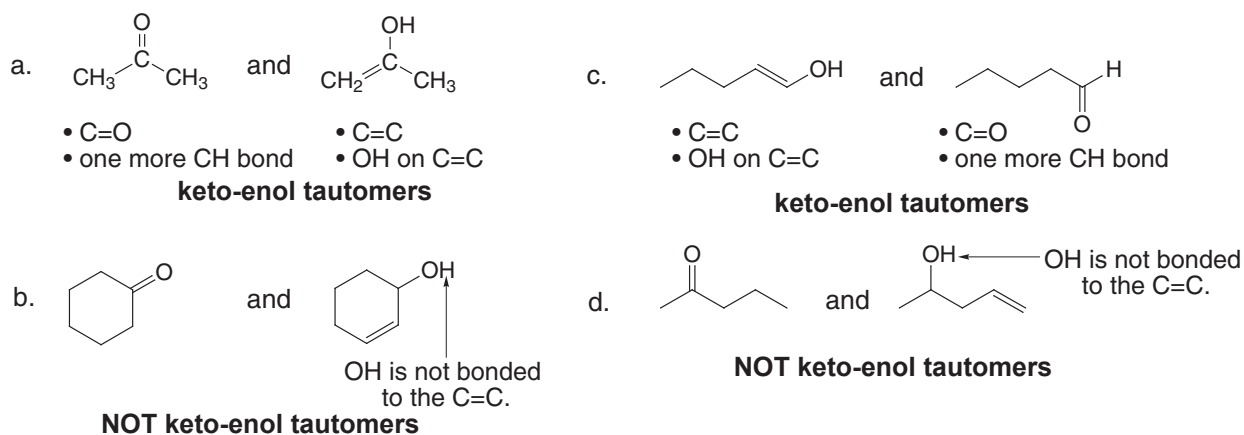
11.15 L'addizione di un equivalente di X_2 agli alchini forma un dialogenuro trans.
L'addizione di due equivalenti di X_2 agli alchini forma tetralogenuri.

**11.16****11.17 Per disegnare la forma chetonica di ciascun enolo:**

[1] Convertire il gruppo C–OH in C=O su una estremità del doppio legame.

[2] Sull'altra estremità aggiungere un protone.

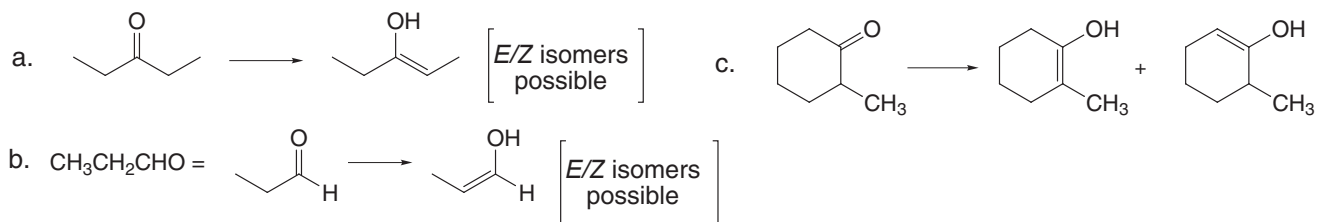
**1.18** Il trattamento degli alchini con H₂O, H₂SO₄, e HgSO₄ forma chetoni.**1.19** Per determinare quali sono i due alchini che danno il chetone, operare a ritroso disegnando gli enoli e quindi gli alchini.**1.20** I tautomeri cheto-enolici sono isomeri costituzionali in equilibrio che differiscono per la posizione del doppio legame e di un idrogeno. L'OH nell'enolo deve essere legato al C=C.



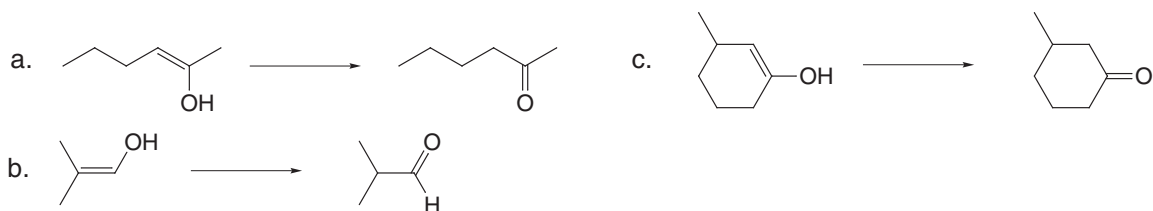
11.21 Per scrivere la forma enolica di ogni tautomero chetonico:

[1] Cambiare il C=O in C-OH.

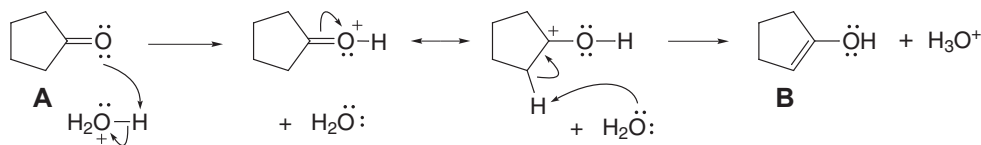
[2] Cambiare un singolo legame C-C in un doppio legame, accertando che il gruppo OH sia legato al C=C.



11.22 Usare le regole della risposta 11.17 per disegnare ogni forma chetonica.

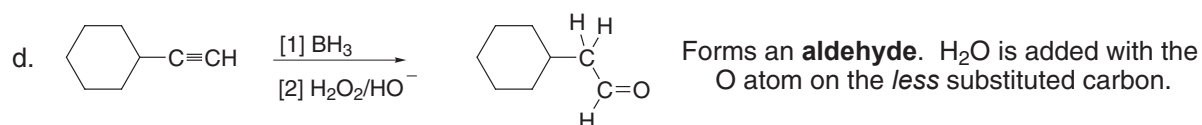
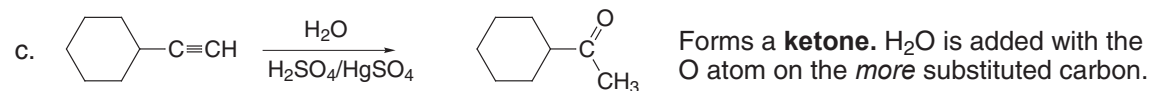
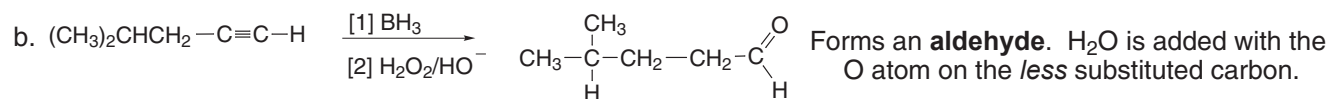
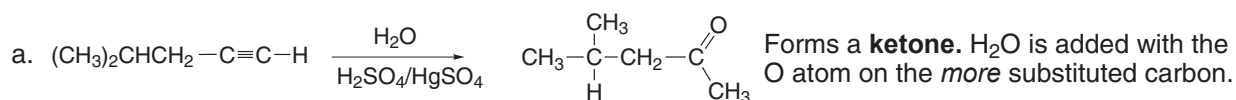


11.23

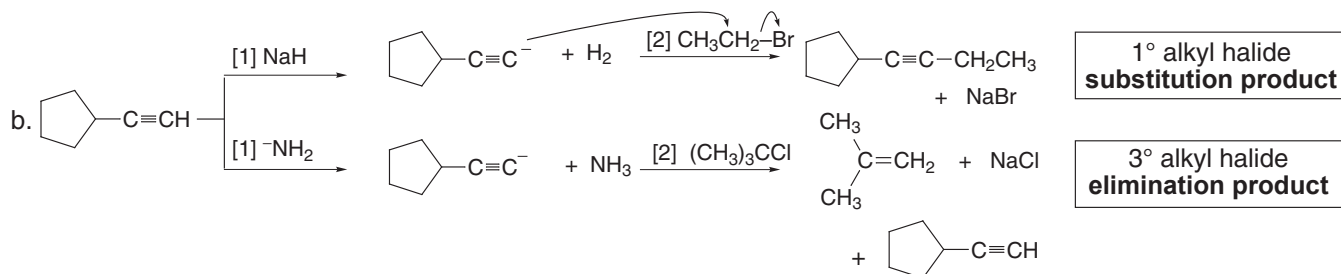
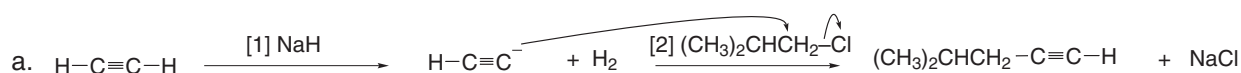


11.24 La reazione con H_2O , H_2SO_4 , e HgSO_4 aggiunge l'ossigeno al carbonio *più* sostituito.

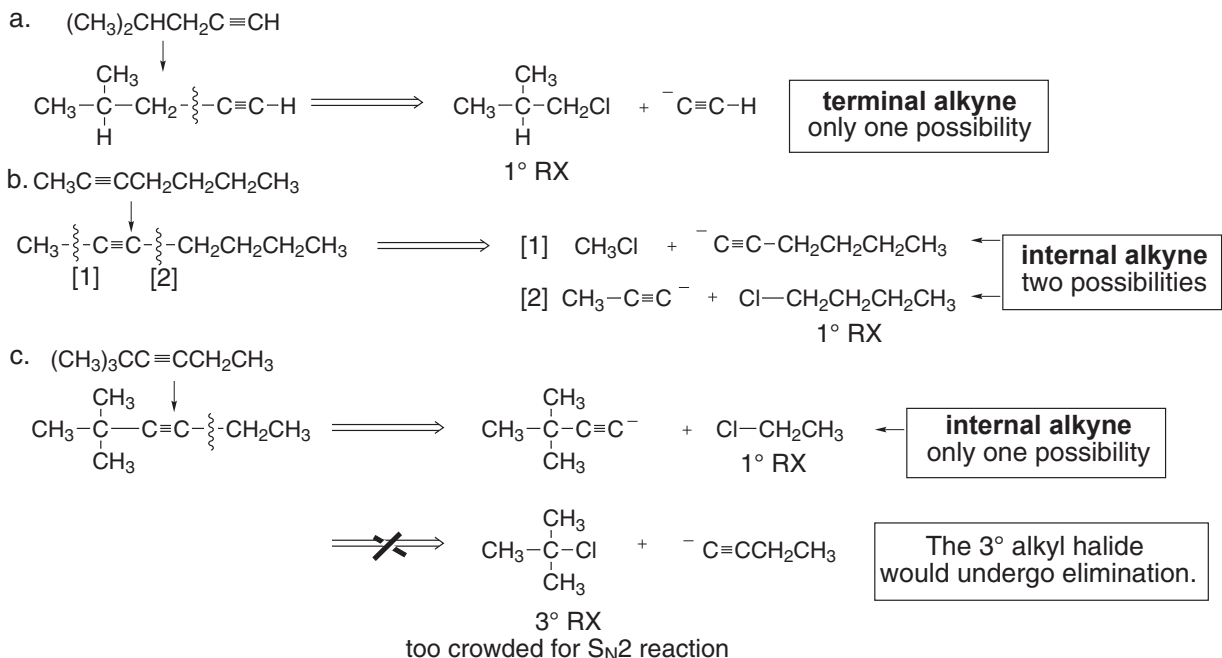
La reazione con [1] BH_3 , [2] $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{OH}^-$ aggiunge l'ossigeno al carbonio *meno* sostituito.



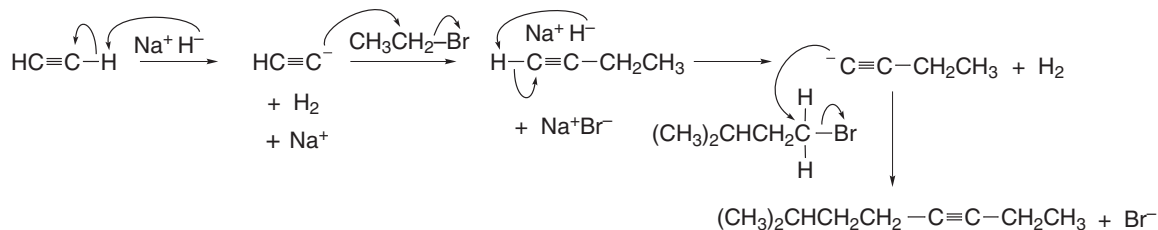
11.25



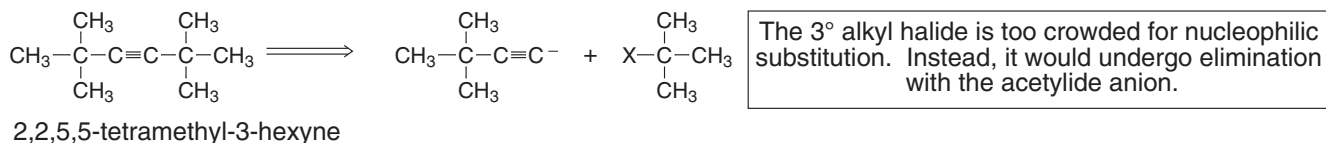
11.26



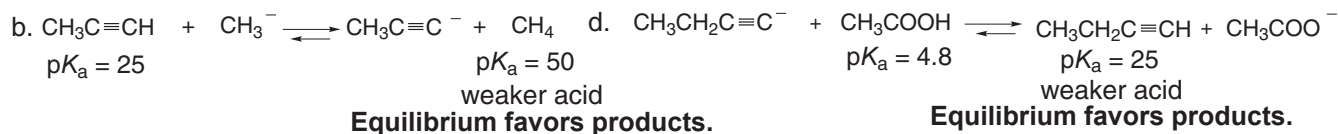
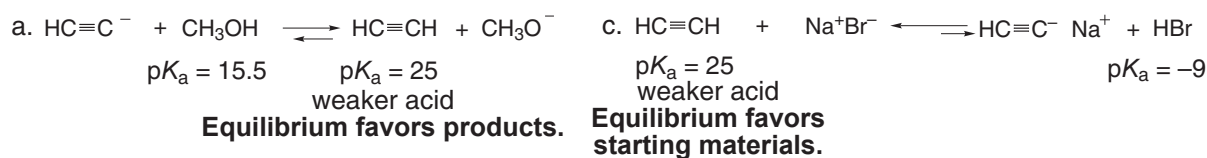
11.27



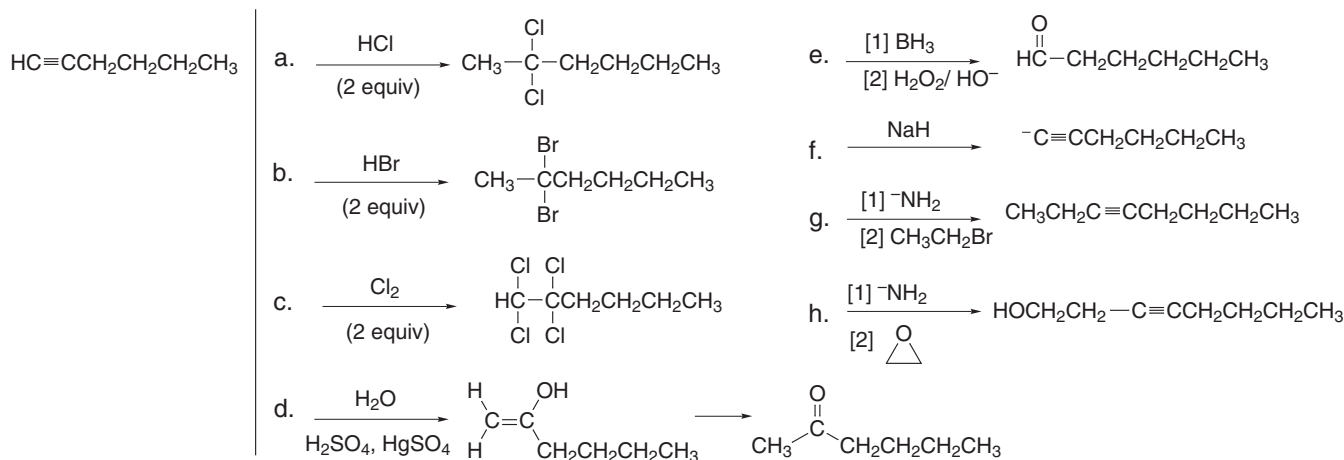
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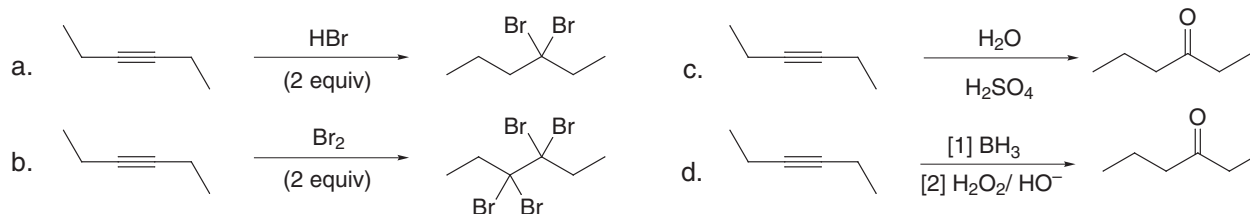
11.29 L'equilibrio favorisce sempre la formazione dell'acido più debole e della base più debole.



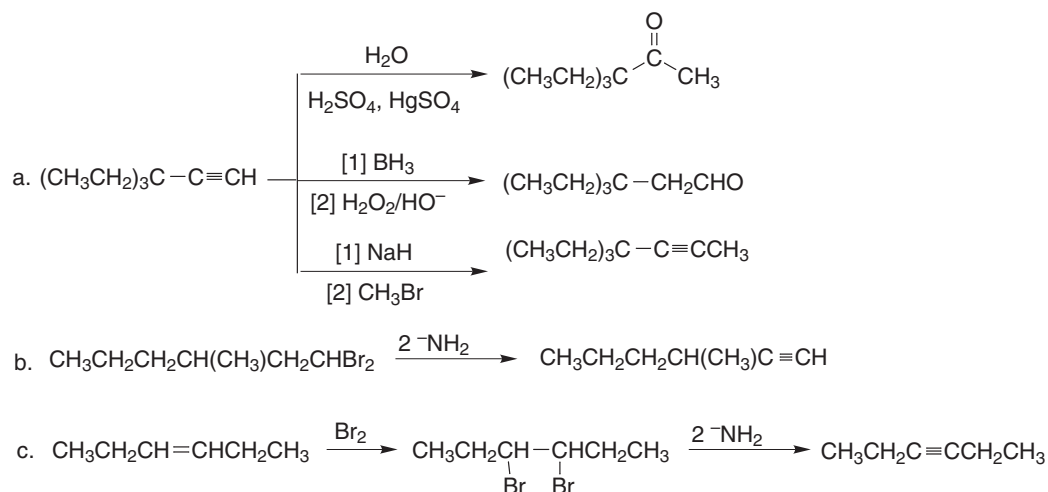
11.30



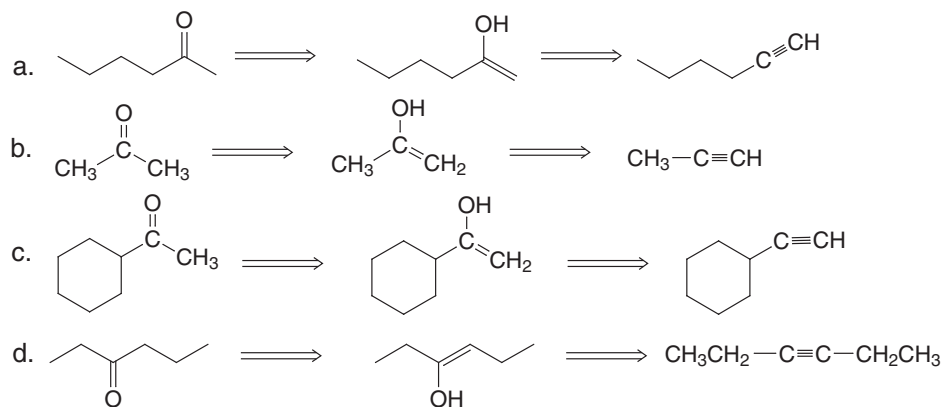
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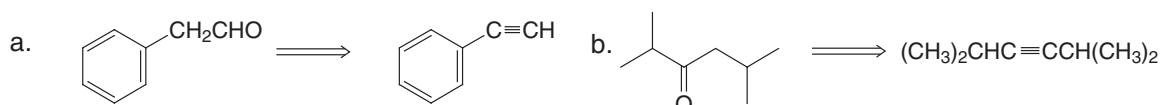
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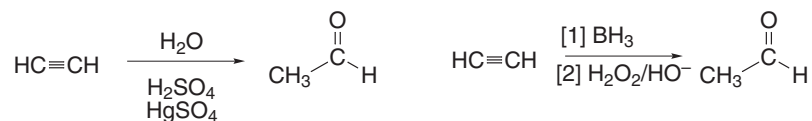
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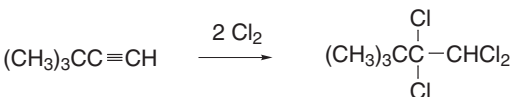
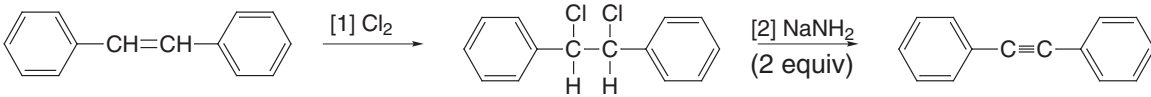
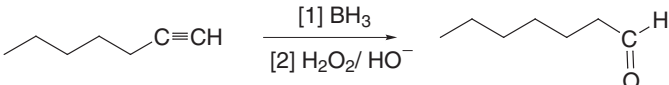
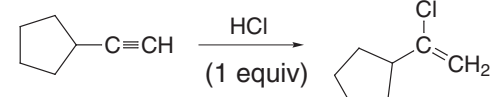
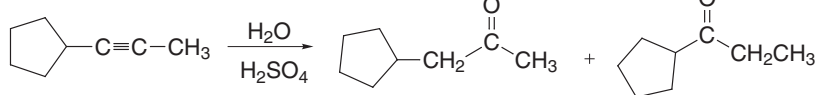
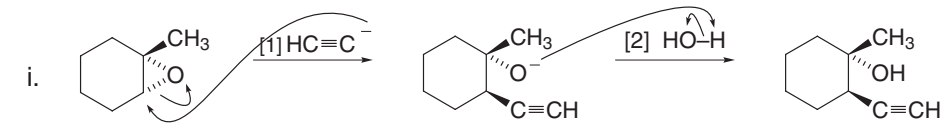
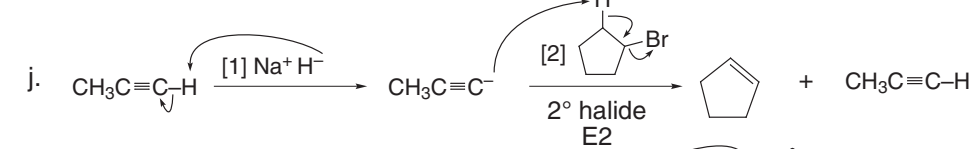
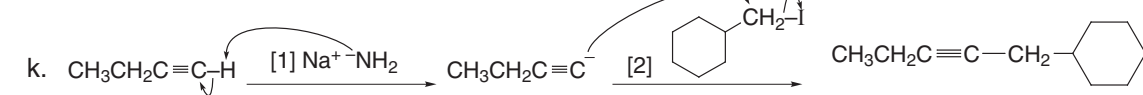
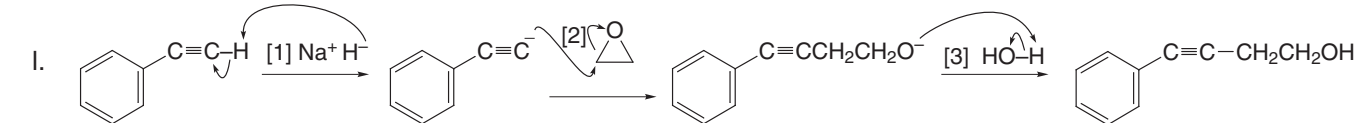
11.34



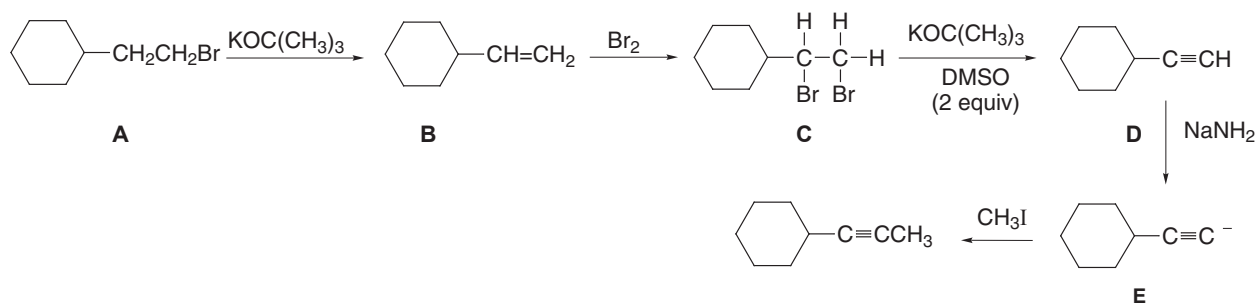
11.35 L'alchino che fornisce la stessa aldeide per trattamento con H_2O , H_2SO_4 , HgSO_4 e BH_3 , seguito da $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{HO}^-$ non deve avere atomi di carbonio interni. E' quindi $\text{HC}\equiv\text{CH}$.



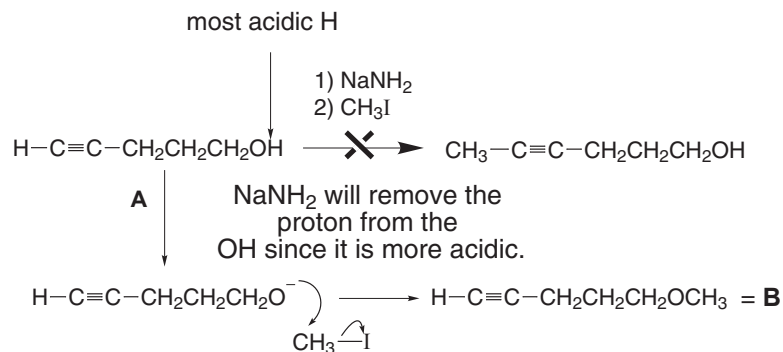
11.36

- a. 
- b. 
- c. 
- d. 
- e. 
- f. 
- g. 
- h. 
- i. 
- j. 
- k. 
- l. 

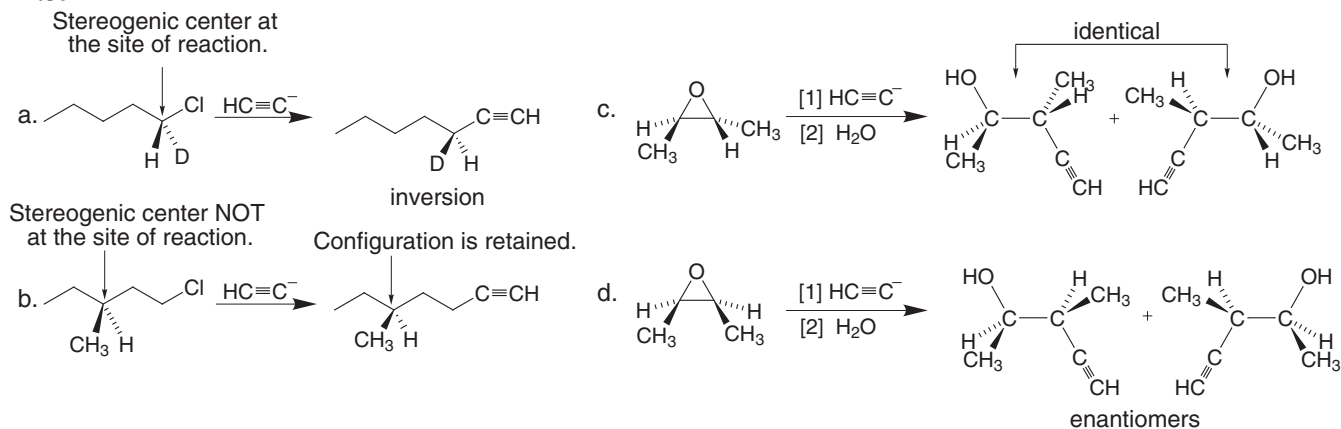
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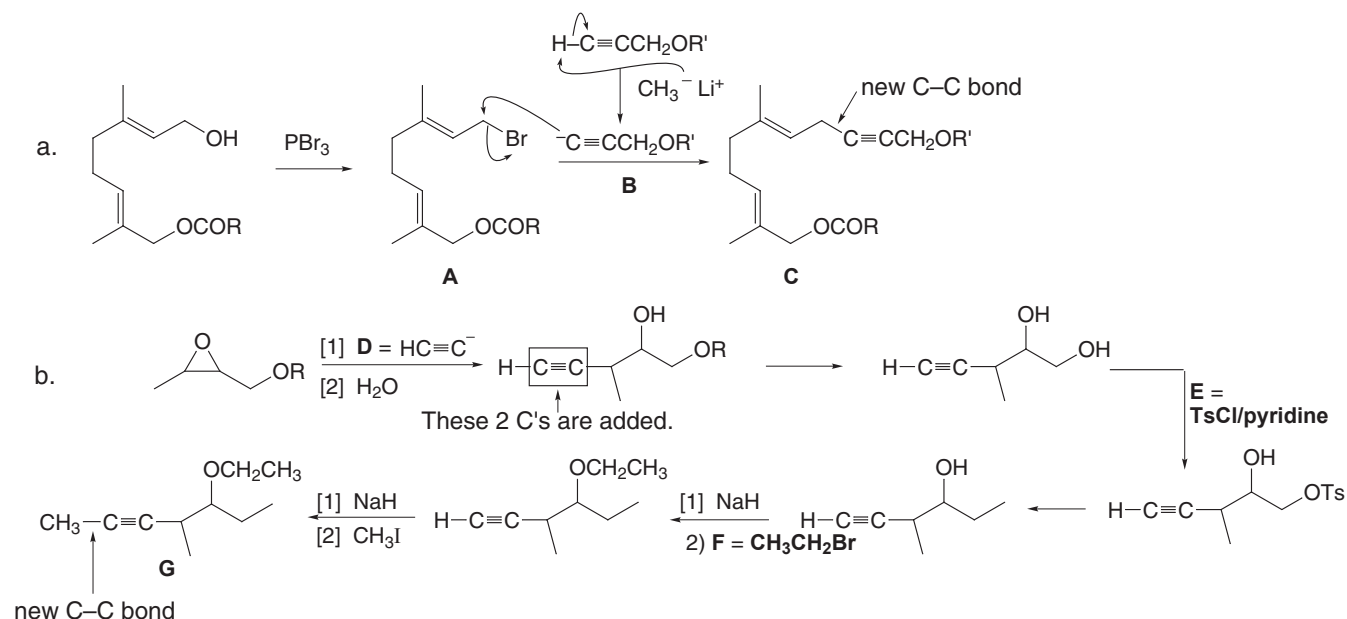
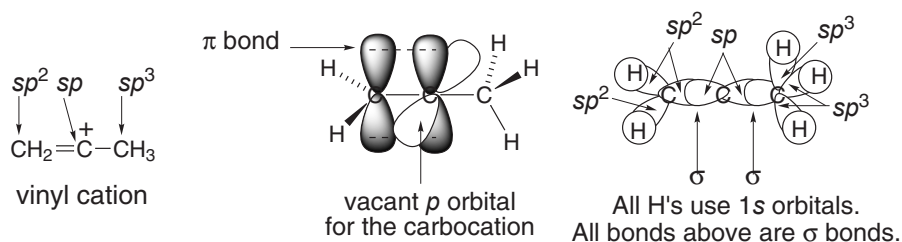
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11.39

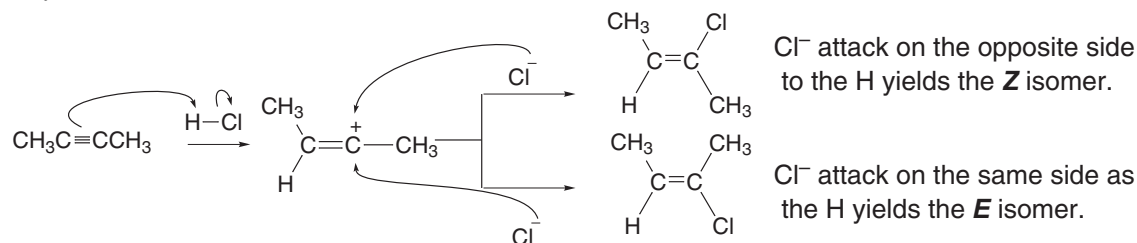


11.40

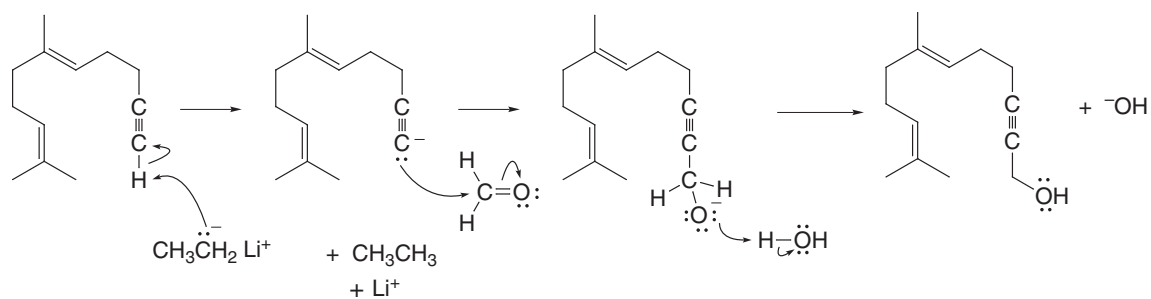
11.41 Disegnare due diagrammi per mostrare i legami σ e π .

La carica positiva in un carbocatione vinilico è posizionata su un carbonio che è ibridato sp , mentre nel $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{CH}^+$, la carica positiva si trova su un atomo di carbonio ibridato sp^2 . Il maggior carattere s sul carbonio destabilizza la carica positiva sul catione vinilico. Inoltre, il carbocatione carico positivamente è legato ad un carbonio ibridato sp^2 , che dona elettroni meno facilmente di un carbonio ibridato sp^3 .

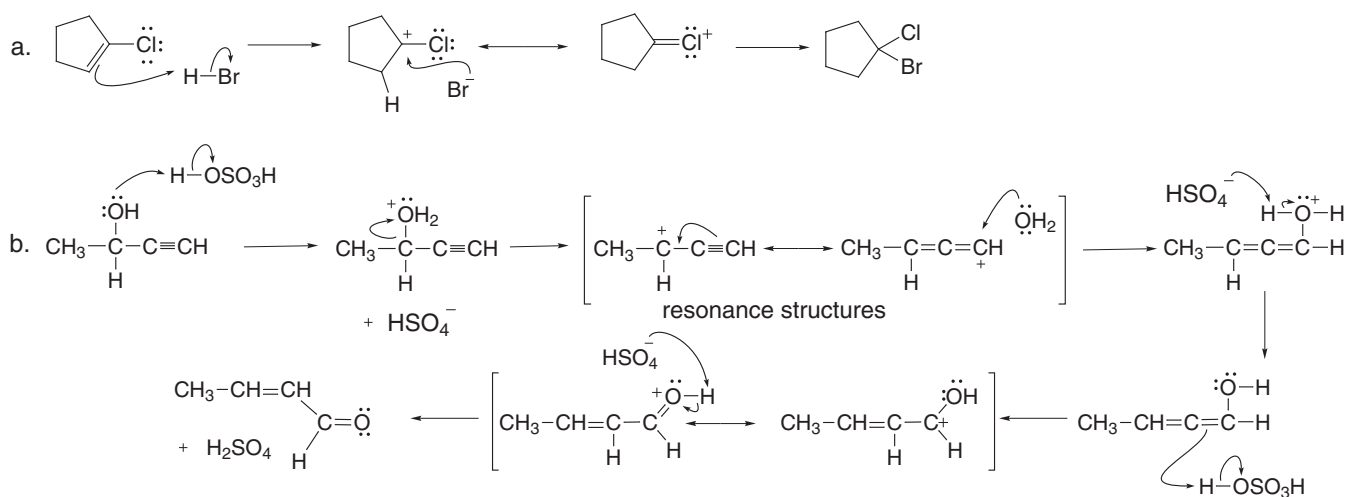
11.42



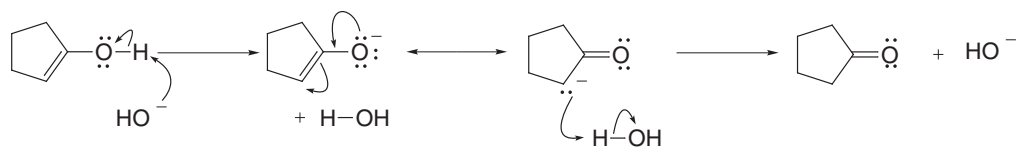
11.43



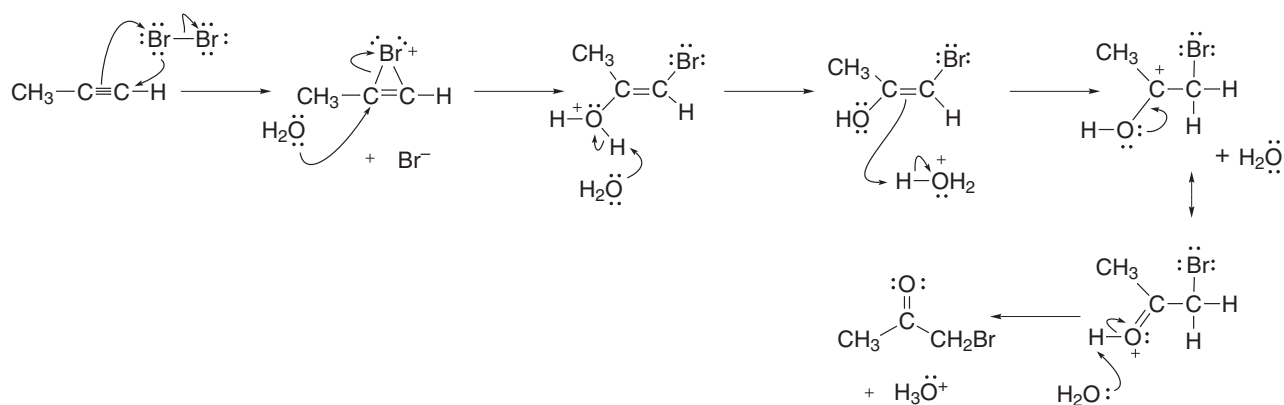
11.44



11.45

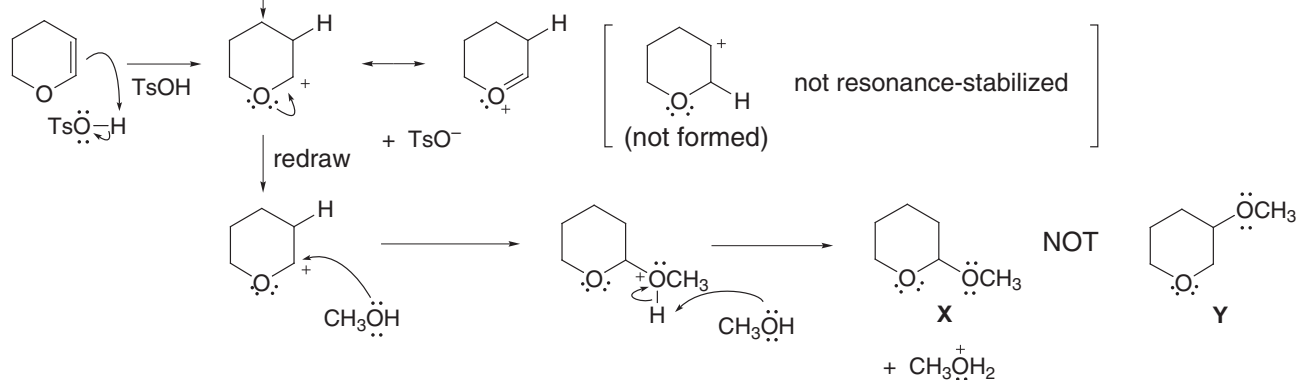


11.46

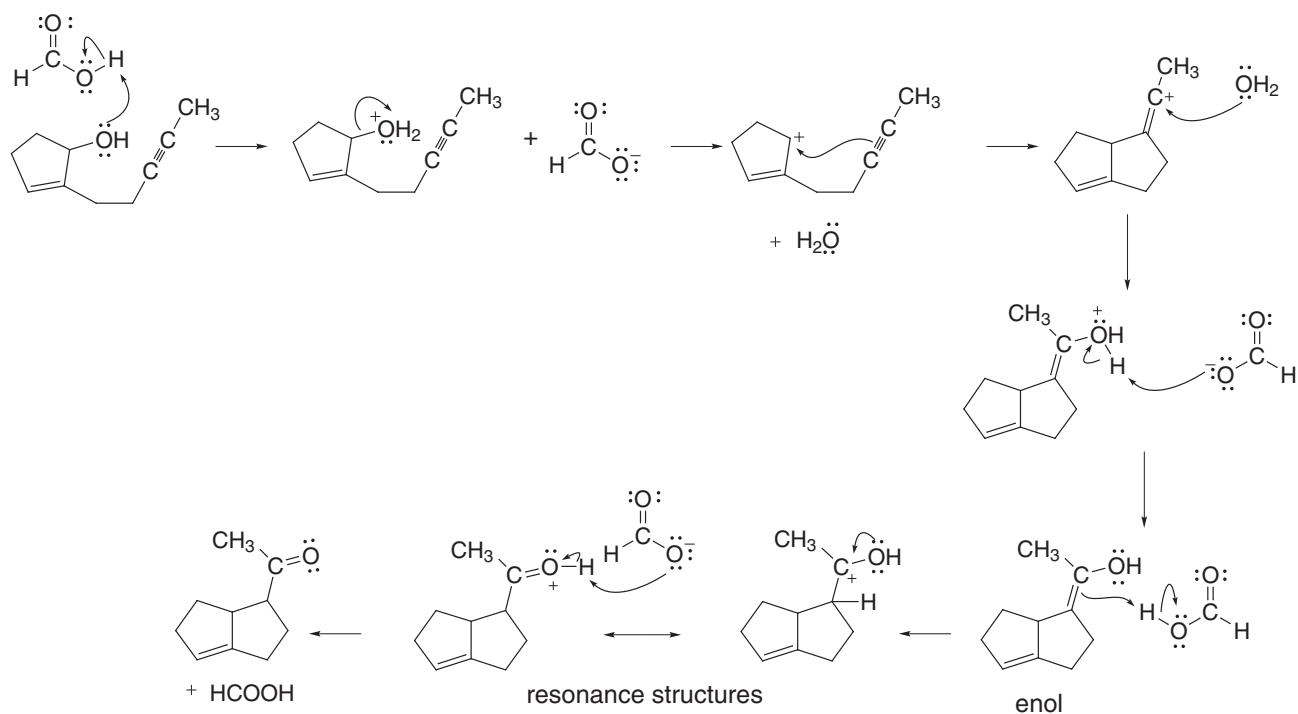


11.47

Only this carbocation forms because it is resonance-stabilized. The positive charge is delocalized on oxygen.



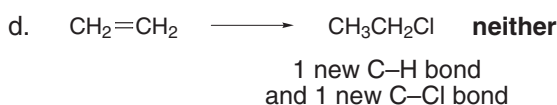
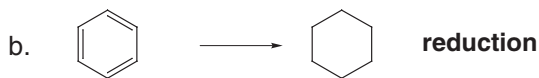
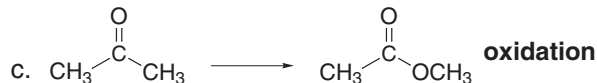
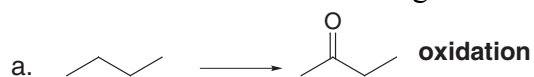
11.48



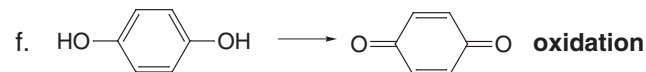
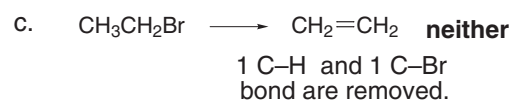
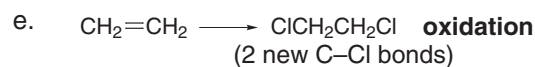
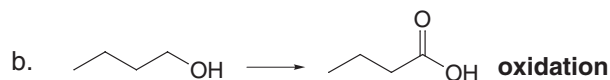
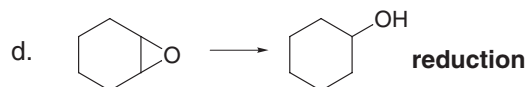
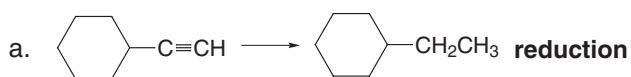
Capitolo 12

12.1 L'ossidazione consiste in un *aumento* del numero di legami C-Z (di solito legami C-O) *oppure* in una *diminuzione* del numero di legami C-H.

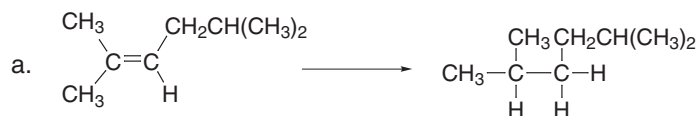
La riduzione consiste in una *diminuzione* del numero di legami C-Z (di solito legami C-O) *oppure* in un *aumento* del numero di legami C-H.



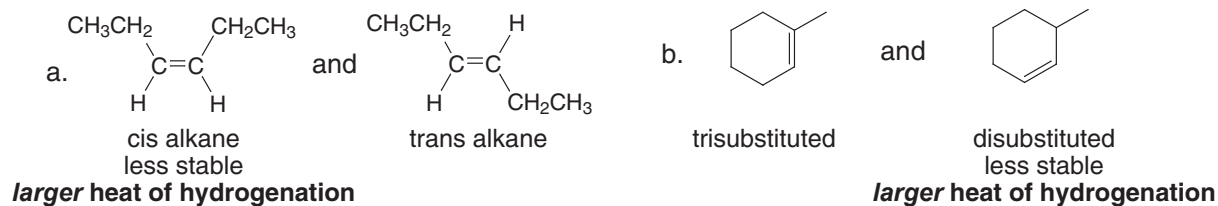
12.2 Usare le indicazioni della risposta 12.1.



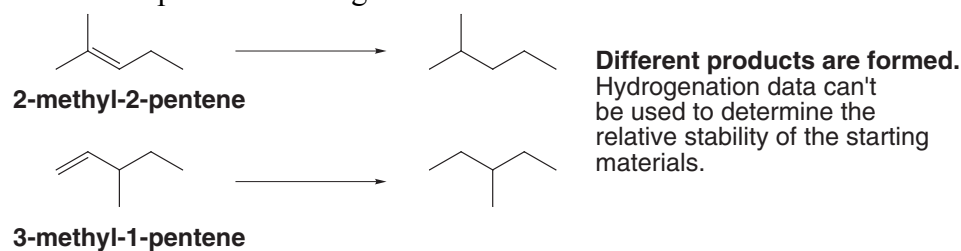
12.3 L'idrogenazione è l'addizione di idrogeno. Quando gli alcheni sono idrogenati, sono *ridotti* per addizione di H₂ al legame π. Per disegnare l'alcano, aggiungere un H a ciascun C del doppio legame.



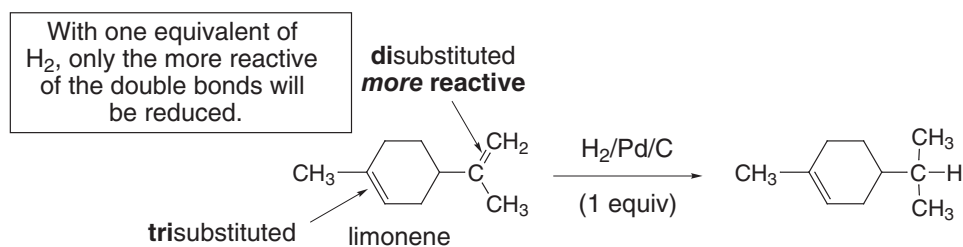
12.4 Gli alcheni cis sono meno stabili degli alcheni trans, quindi hanno un calore di idrogenazione più elevato. All'aumentare della sostituzione con gruppi alchilici, aumenta la stabilità di un C=C, diminuendo il calore di idrogenazione.



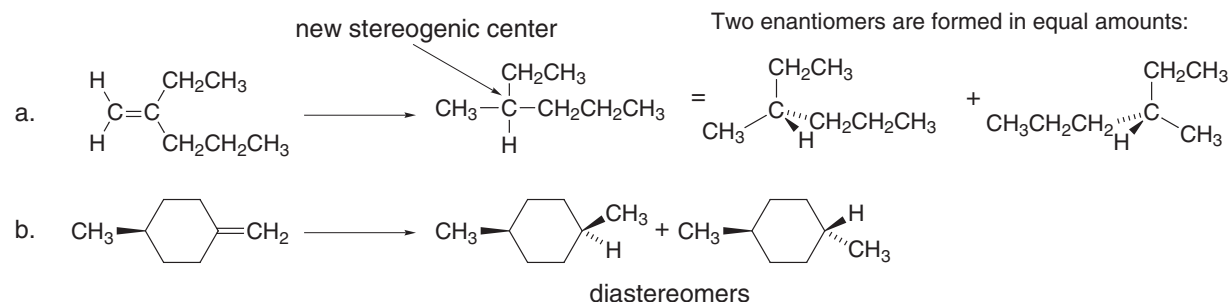
12.5 Per usare i calori di idrogenazione per determinare la stabilità relativa dei composti di partenza, devono essere identici i prodotti di idrogenazione.



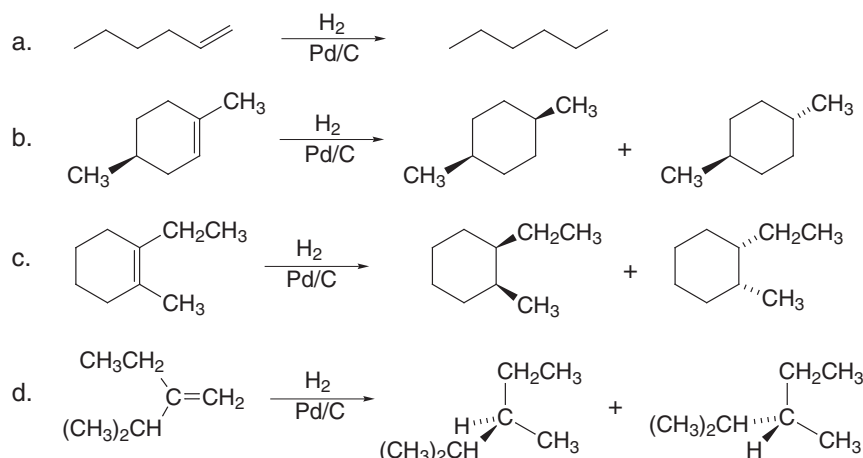
12.6 All'aumentare della sostituzione alchilica sul C=C, diminuisce la velocità di idrogenazione.



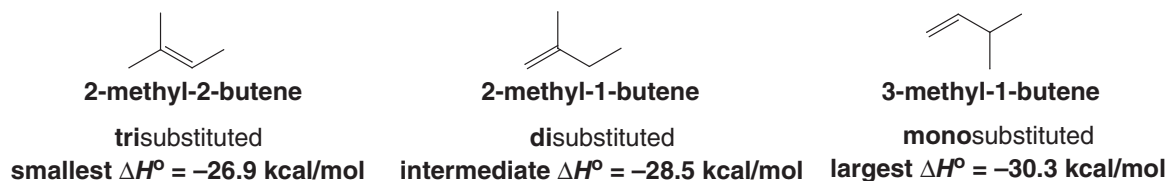
12.7



12.8 Usare le regole della risposta 12.3 e disegnare i prodotti di addizione sin di H_2 sopra e sotto al C=C.



12.9 All'aumentare della sostituzione alchilica aumenta la stabilità dell'alchene, e diminuisce il calore di idrogenazione.



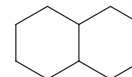
12.10

A possible structure:

- a. Compound **A**: molecular formula C_5H_8 : hydrogenated to C_5H_{10} .
2 degrees of unsaturation, 1 is hydrogenated.
1 ring and 1 π bond _____



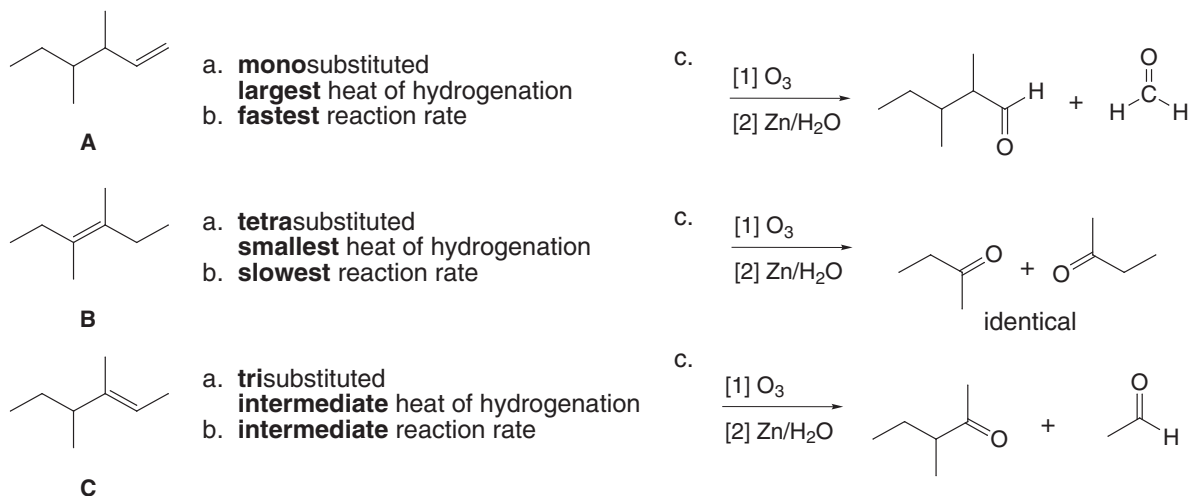
- b. Compound **B**: molecular formula $C_{10}H_{16}$: hydrogenated to $C_{10}H_{18}$.
3 degrees of unsaturation, 1 is hydrogenated.
2 rings and 1 π bond _____



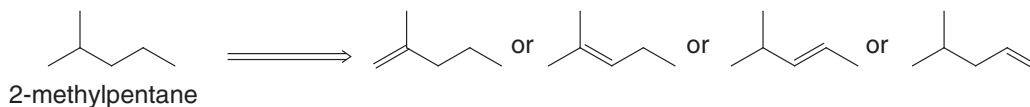
- c. Compound **C**: molecular formula C_8H_8 : hydrogenated to C_8H_{16} .
5 degrees of unsaturation, 4 are hydrogenated.
1 ring and 4 π bonds _____



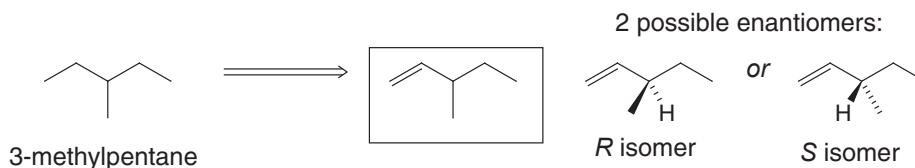
12.11



12.12 Operare a ritroso per trovare l'alchene che viene idrogenato a 2-metilpentano.

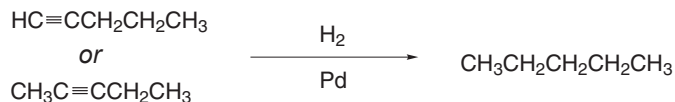


12.13 Operare a ritroso per trovare l'alchene che viene idrogenato a 3-metilpentano.



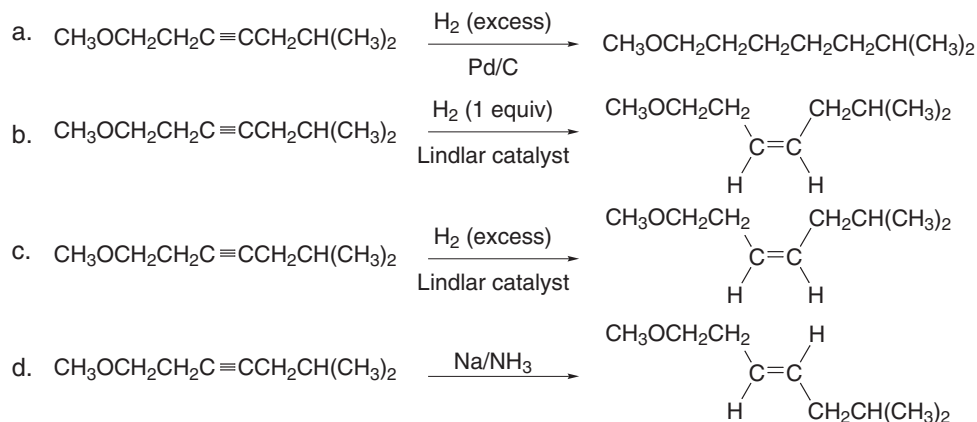
12.14 L'idrogenazione in assenza di catalizzatore ha una elevata E_a , rendendola una reazione cineticamente lenta, così l'idrogenazione avviene solo in presenza di un catalizzatore. Il meccanismo con catalisi è multistadio, ma nessun stadio ha uno stato di transizione con energia così elevata come la reazione non catalizzata. E' termodinamicamente favorito perchè l'energia viene liberata durante l'idrogenazione: i composti di partenza si trovano ad una energia maggiore dei prodotti, fornendo all'idrogenazione un ΔH° negativo.

12.15

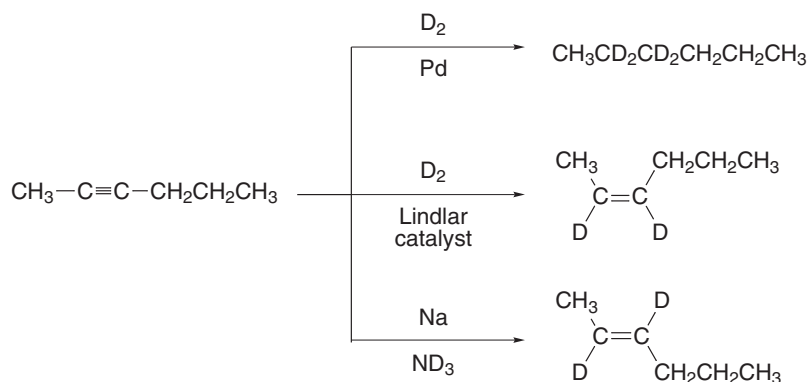


12.16 Per disegnare i prodotti dell'idrogenazione catalitica ricordare:

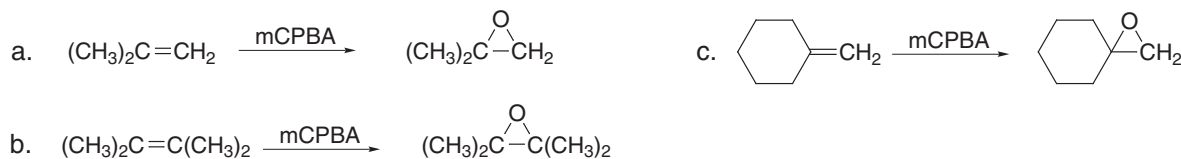
- H_2 (eccesso)/Pd riduce **alcheni ed alchini ad alcani**.
- H_2 (eccesso)/catalizzatore di Lindlar riduce **solo gli alchini a cis alcheni**.



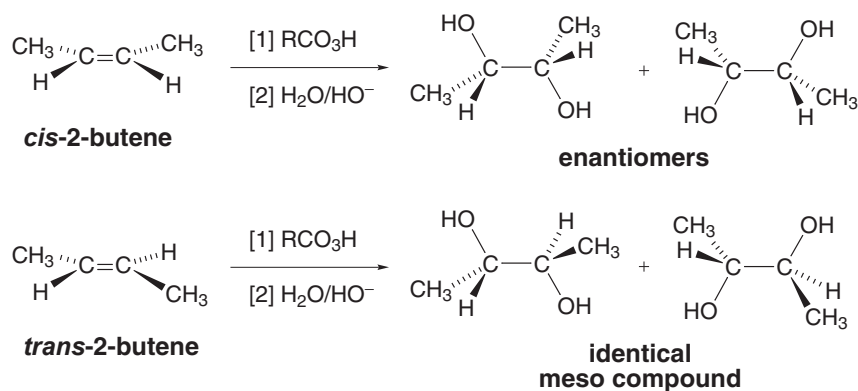
12.17



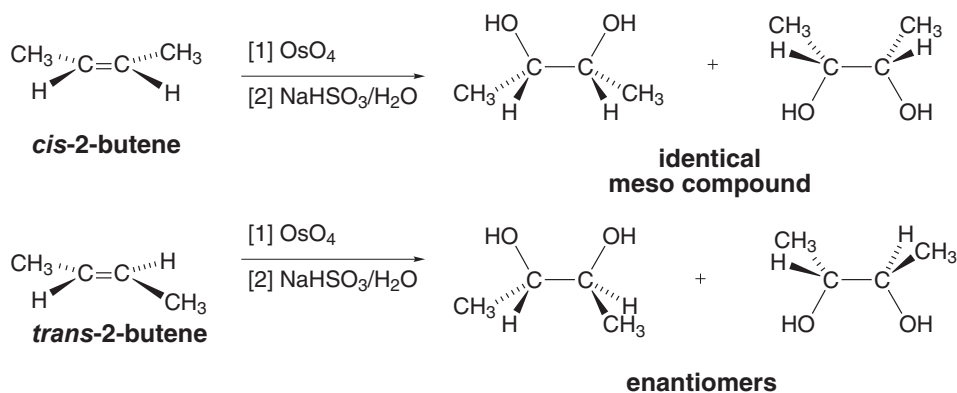
12.18 Per disegnare il prodotto, aggiungere un atomo di O sul legame π de gruppo $\text{C}=\text{C}$.



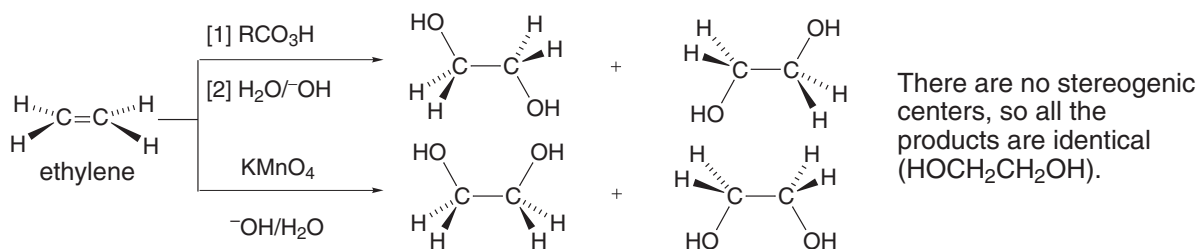
12.19 Il trattamento di un alchene con un perossiacido, seguito da $\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{HO}^-$ aggiunge due gruppi ossidrilici con modalità **anti**. Il *cis*-2-butene e il *trans*-2-butene forniscono prodotti diversi di diidrossilazione. Il *cis*-2-butene dà una miscela di due enantiomeri e il *trans*-2-butene fornisce un composto meso. La reazione è stereospecifica, perchè due reagenti stereoisomerici forniscono prodotti diversi, che sono anche stereoisomeri fra loro.



12.20 Il trattamento di un alchene con OsO_4 aggiunge due gruppi ossidrilici in maniera **sin**. Il *cis*-2-butene e il *trans*-2-butene forniscono diversi stereoisomeri in questa diidrossilazione, quindi la reazione è stereospecifica.

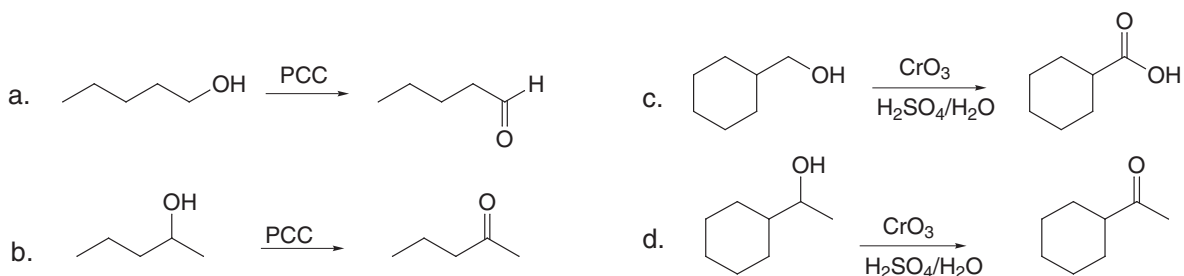


12.21

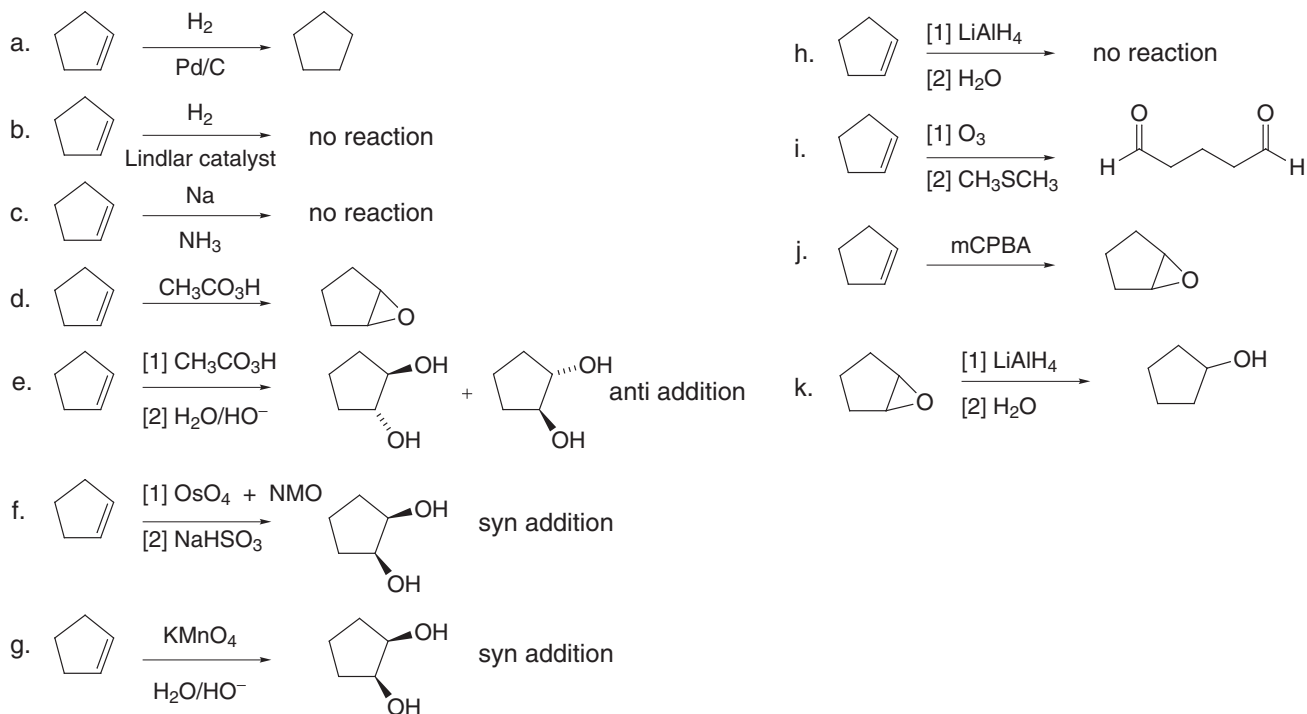


12.22 Per l'ossidazione degli alcoli, ricordare:

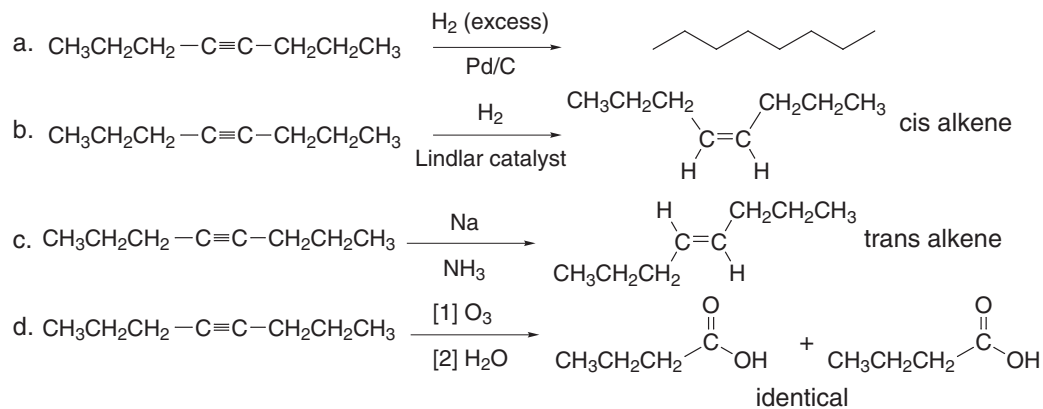
- **gli alcoli 1°** sono ossidati ad aldeidi con PCC.
- **gli alcoli 1°** sono ossidati ad acidi carbossilici con agenti ossidanti come CrO_3 o $\text{Na}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$.
- **gli alcoli 2°** sono ossidati a chetoni con tutti gli ossidanti al Cr^{6+} .



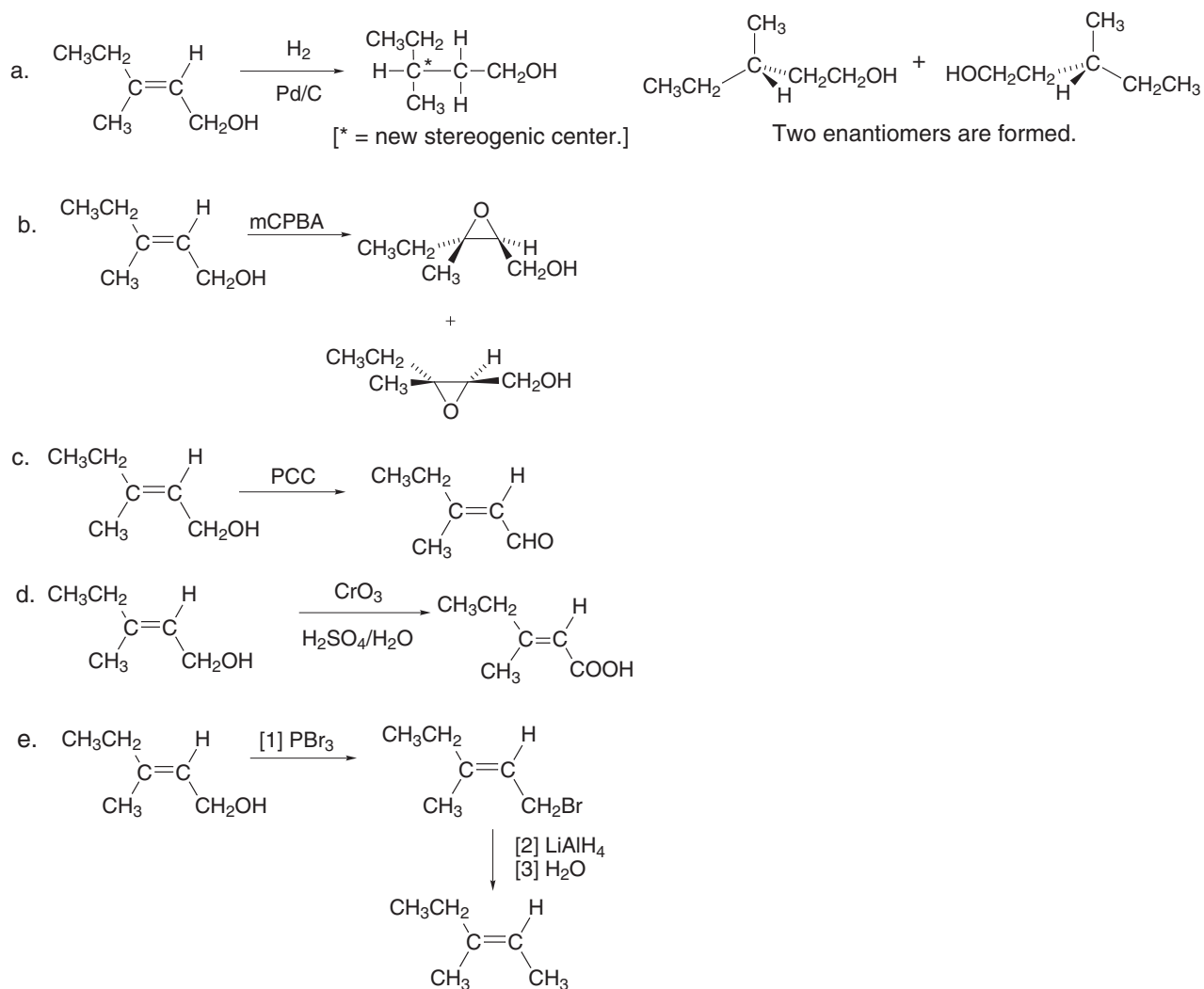
12.23



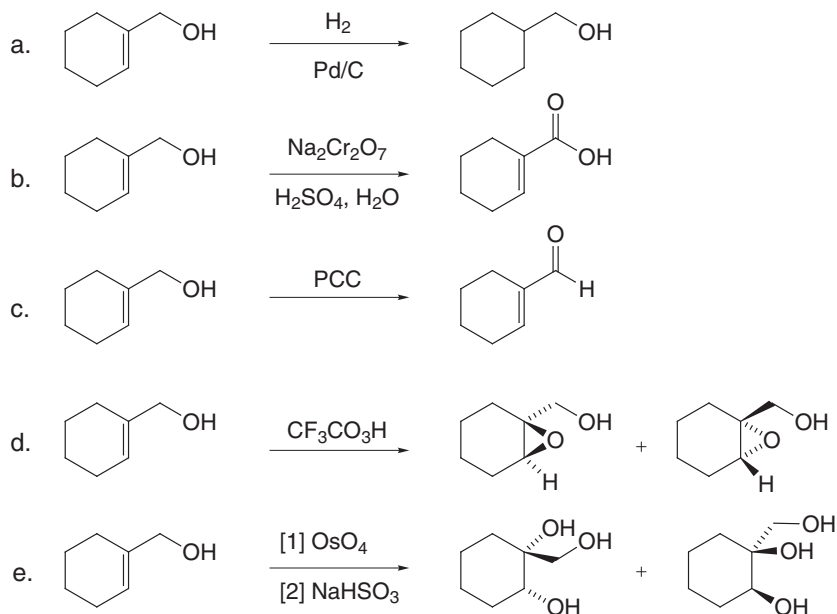
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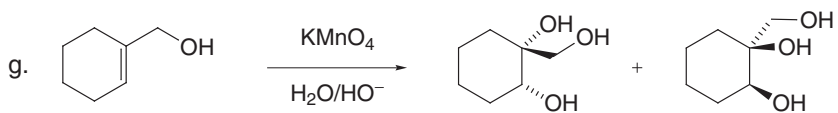
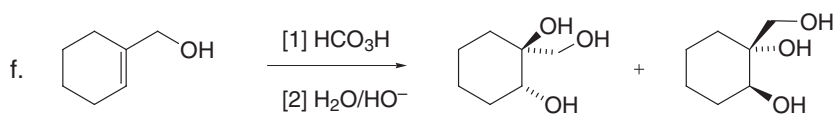


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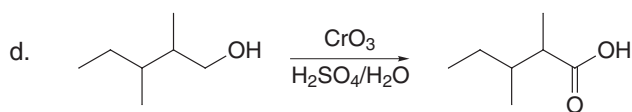
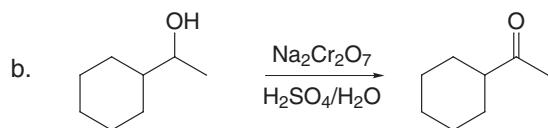
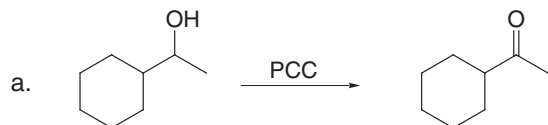


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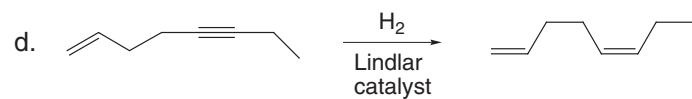
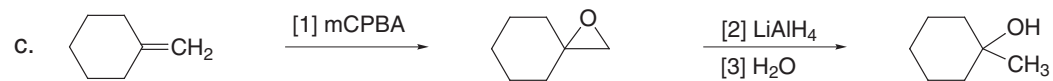
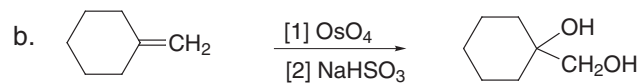
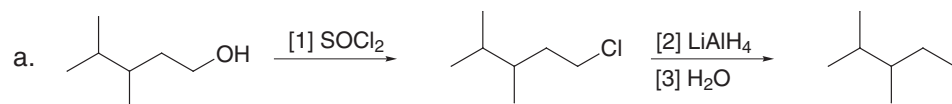




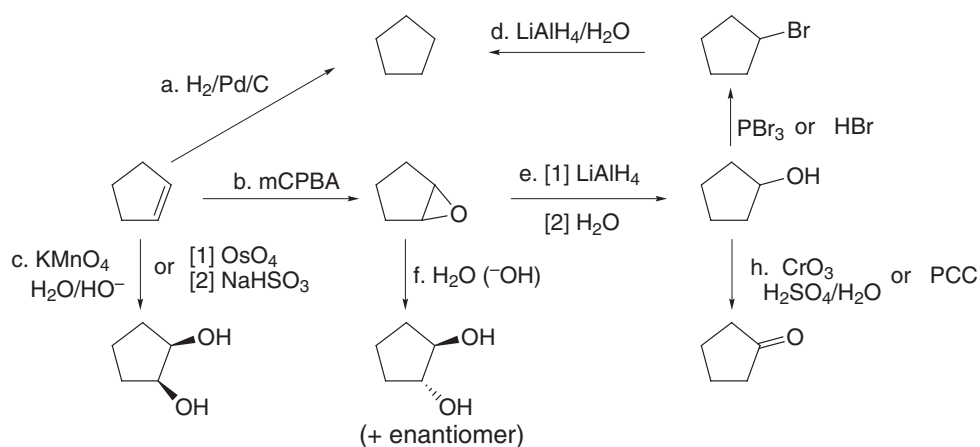
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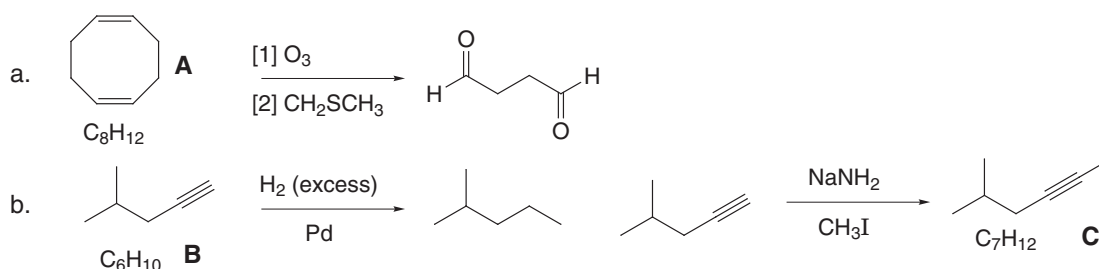
12.28



12.29



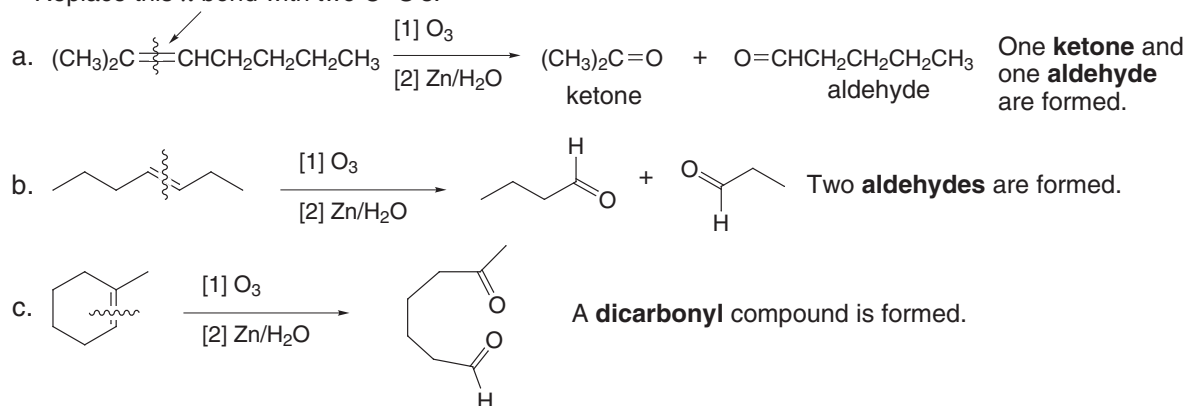
12.30



12.31 Per disegnare i prodotti della scissione ossidativa:

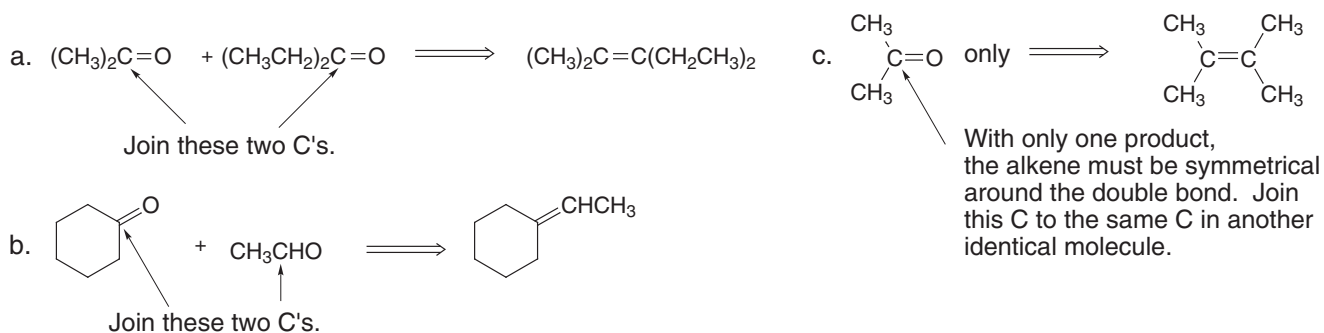
- Individuare tutti i legami π nella molecola.
- Sostituire ciascun $\text{C}=\text{C}$ con *due* $\text{C}=\text{O}$.

Replace this π bond with two $\text{C}=\text{O}$'s.



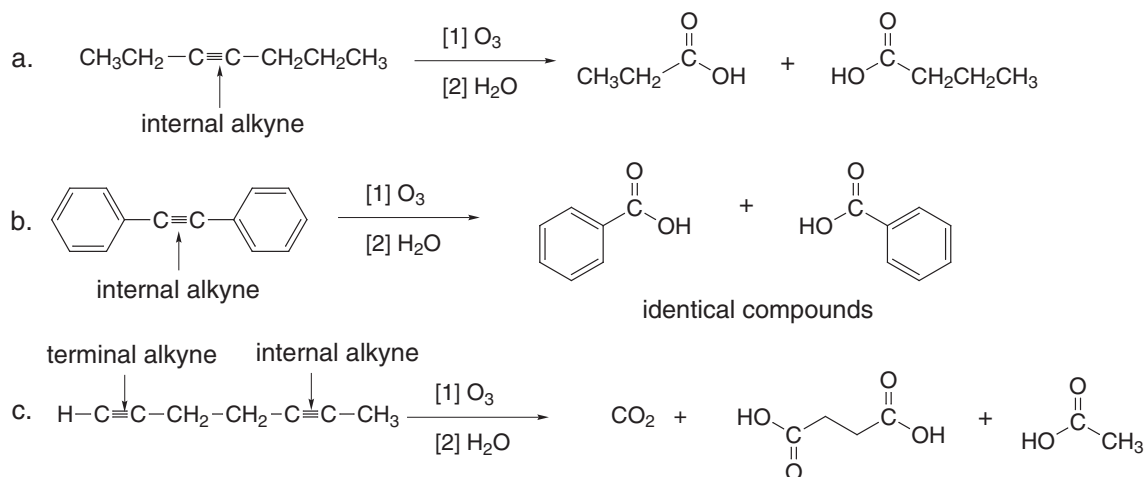
12.32 Per trovare l'alchene che fornisce i prodotti di scissione ossidativa:

- Individuare i due gruppi carbonilici nei prodotti.
- Unire i due carboni carbonilici con un doppio legame. Questo è il doppio legame che si rompe durante l'ozonolisi.

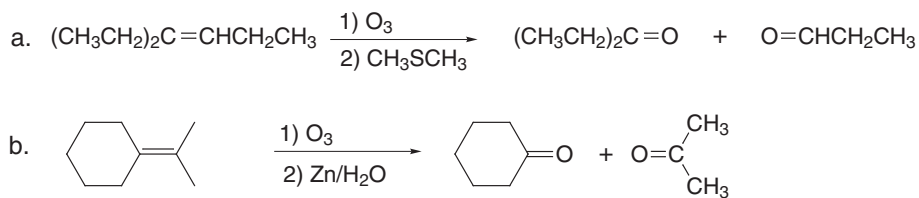


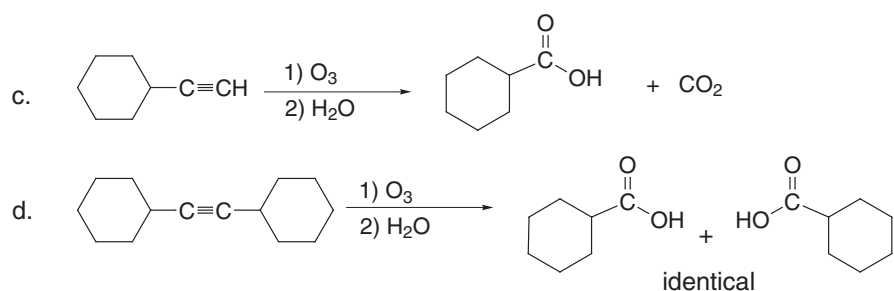
12.33 Per scrivere i prodotti della scissione ossidativa degli alchini:

- **Individuare il triplo legame.**
- Per gli alchini interni, **convertire il C ibridato *sp* in COOH.**
- Per gli alchini terminali, il **C ibridato *sp* diventa CO₂.**

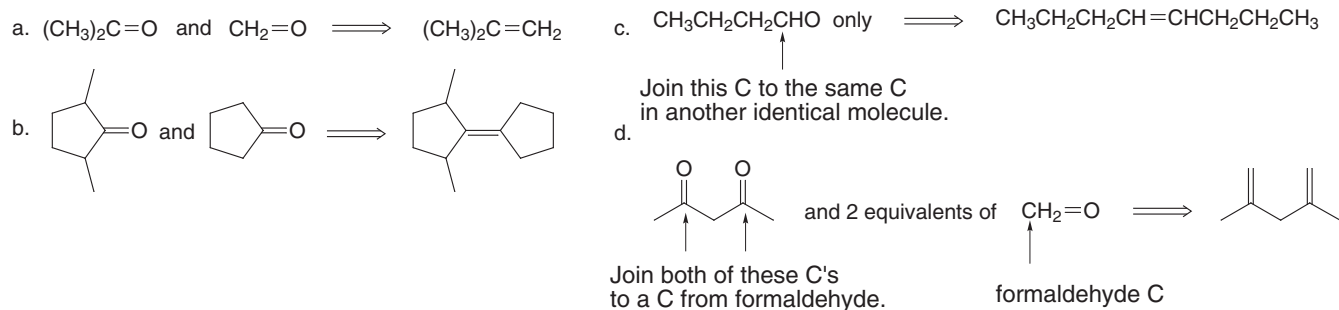


12.34 Usare le indicazioni della risposta 12.31.

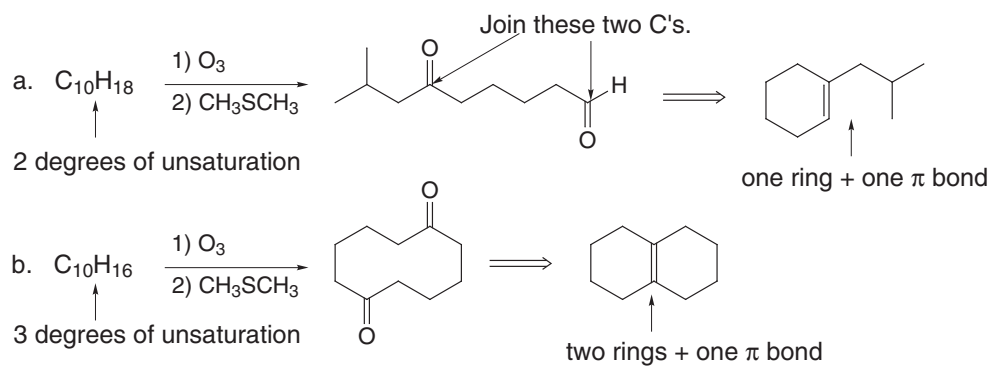




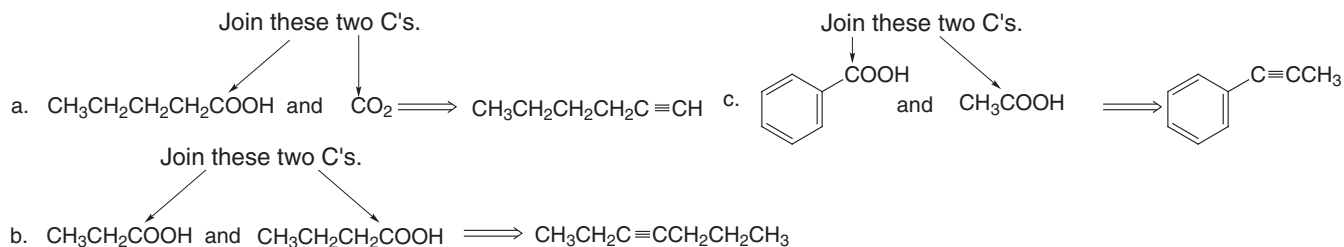
12.35



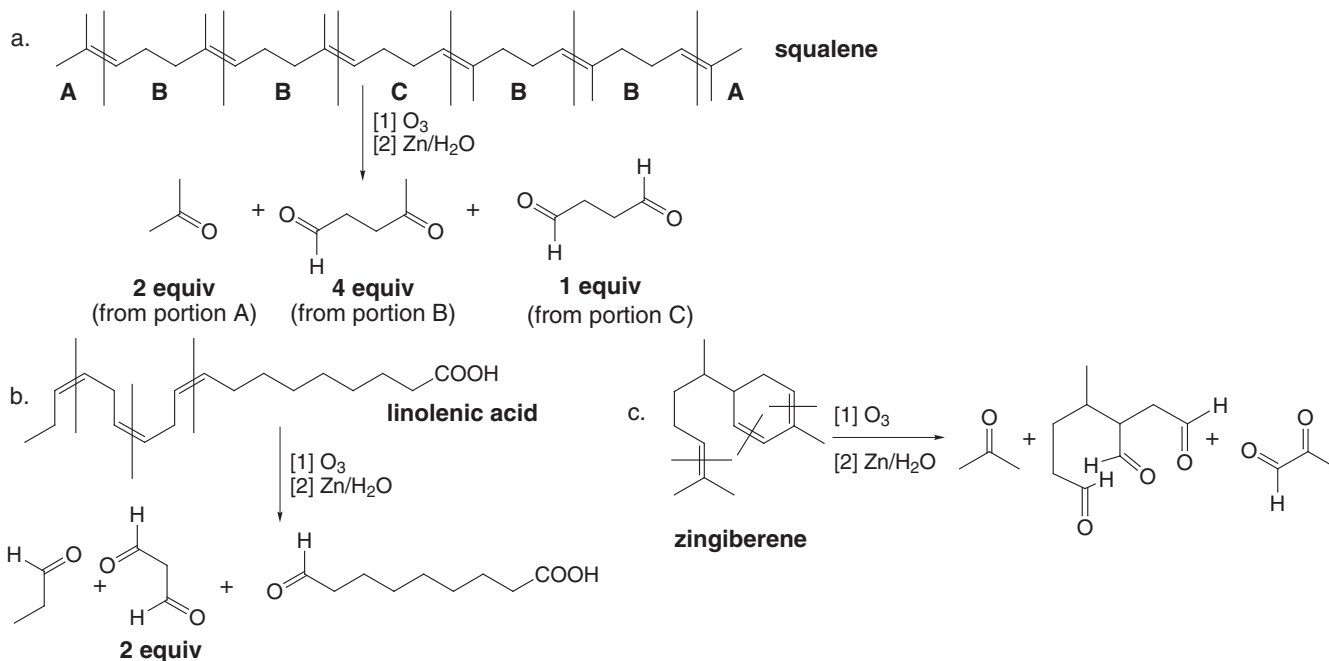
12.36 Usare le indicazioni della risposta 12.32.



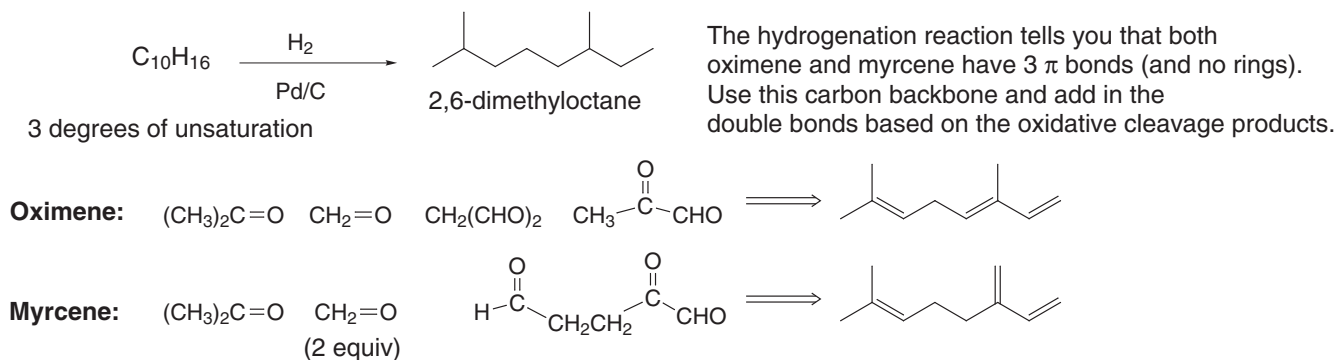
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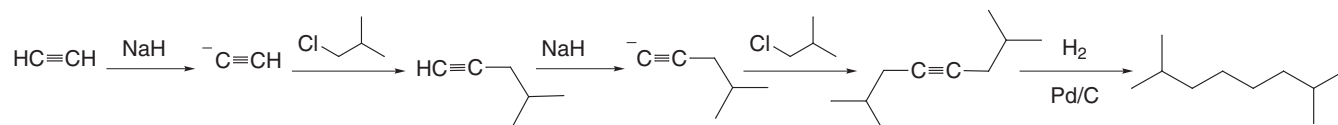
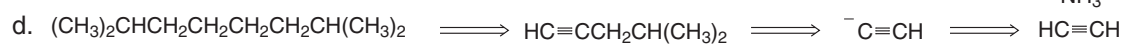
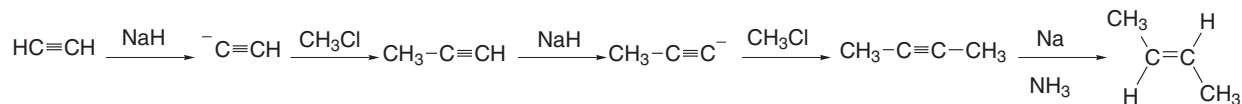
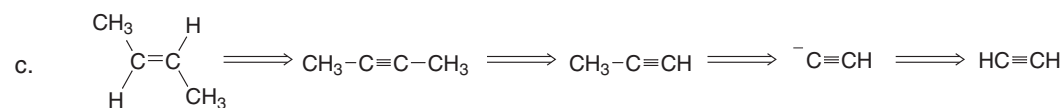
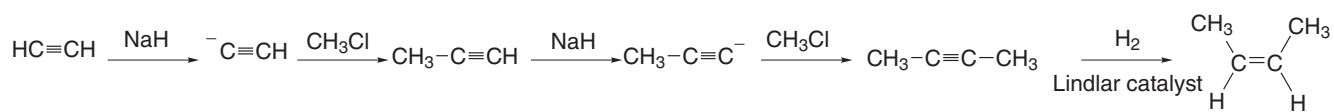
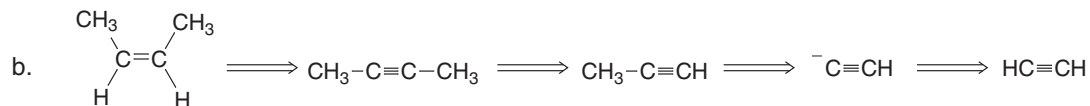
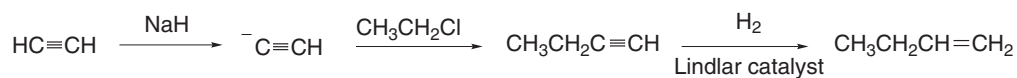
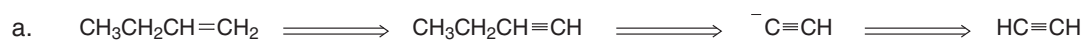
12.38



12.39

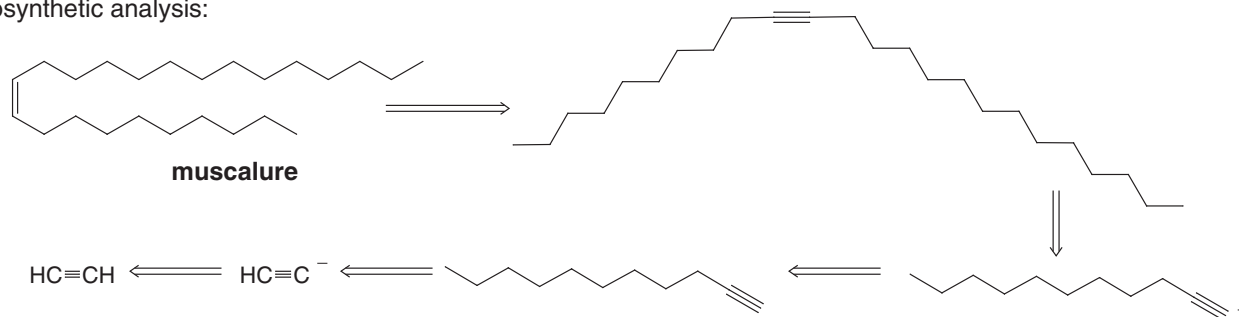


12.40 Usare l'analisi retrosintetica per progettare una sintesi per ciascun idrocarburo a partire dall'acetilene.

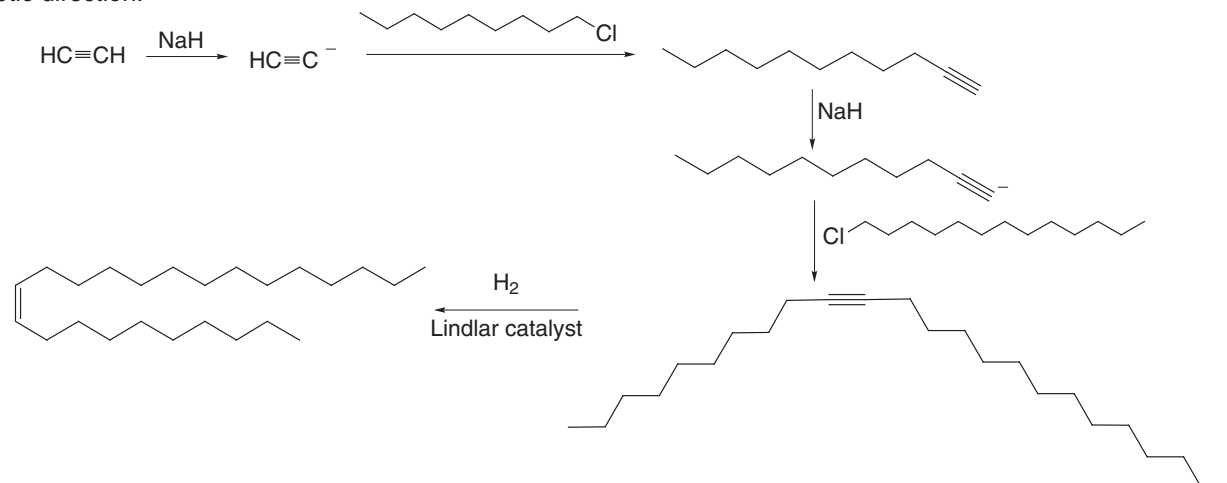


12.41

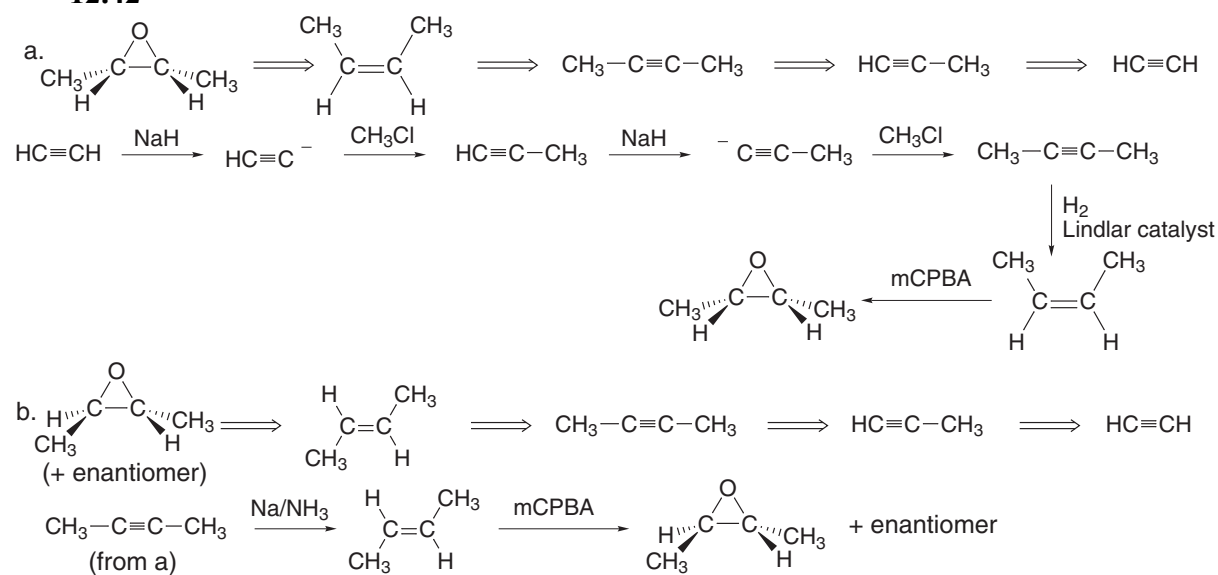
Retrosynthetic analysis:

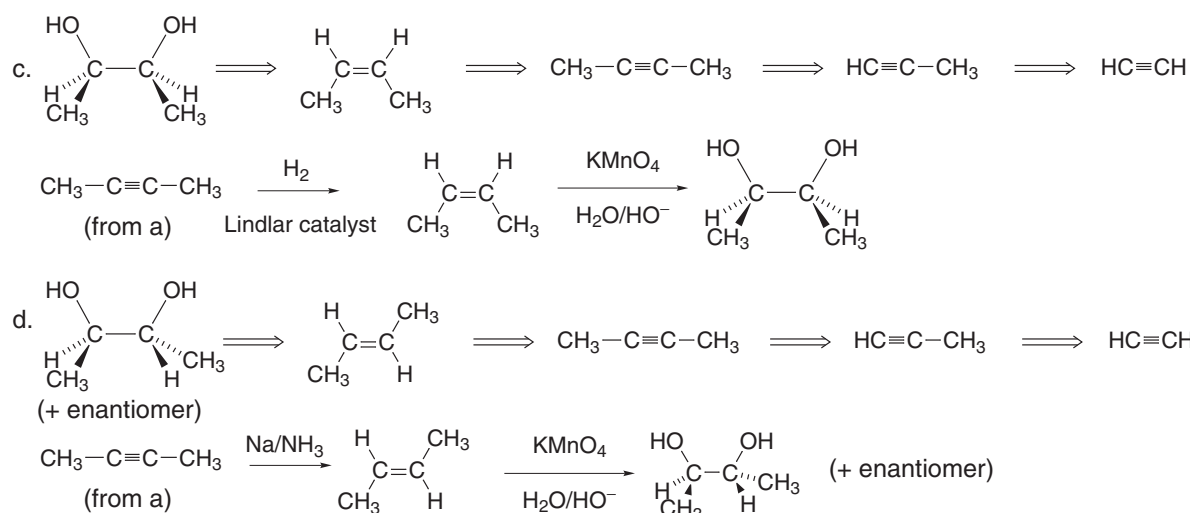


Synthetic direction:

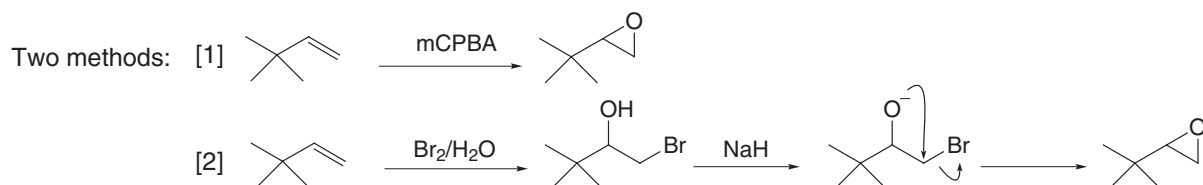


12.42

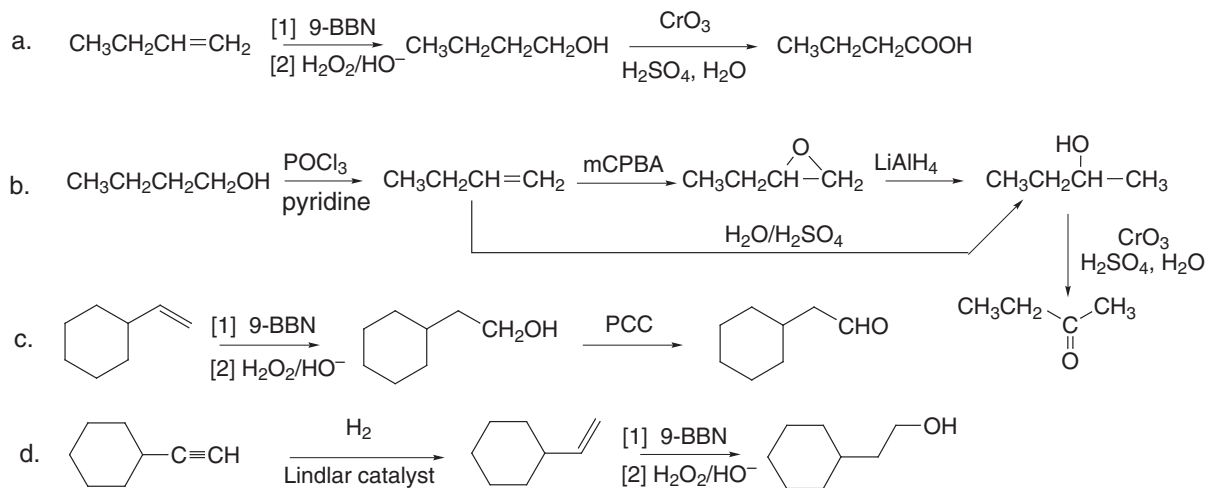




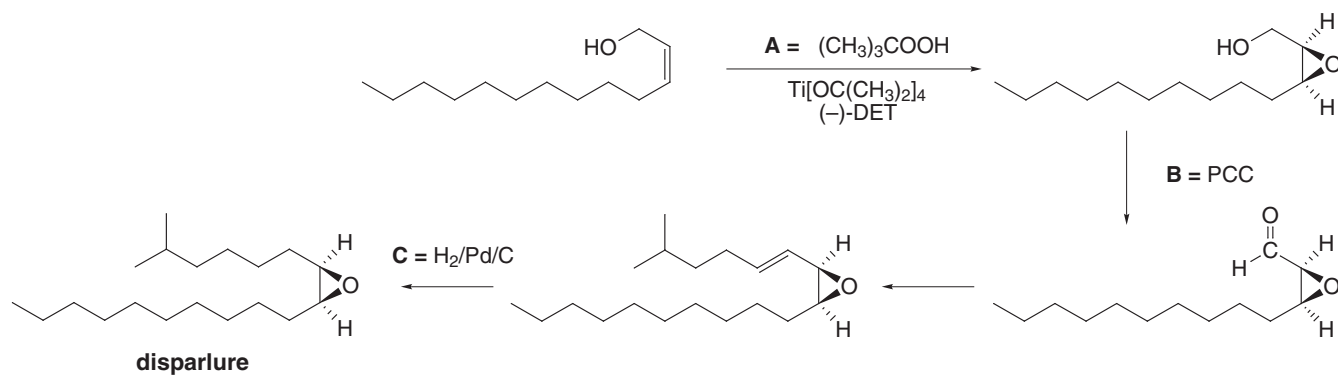
12.43



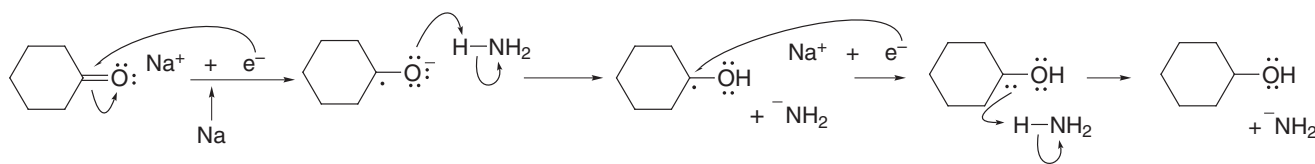
12.44



12.45

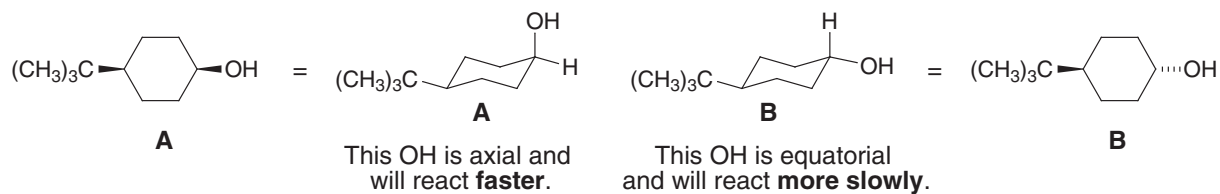


12.46

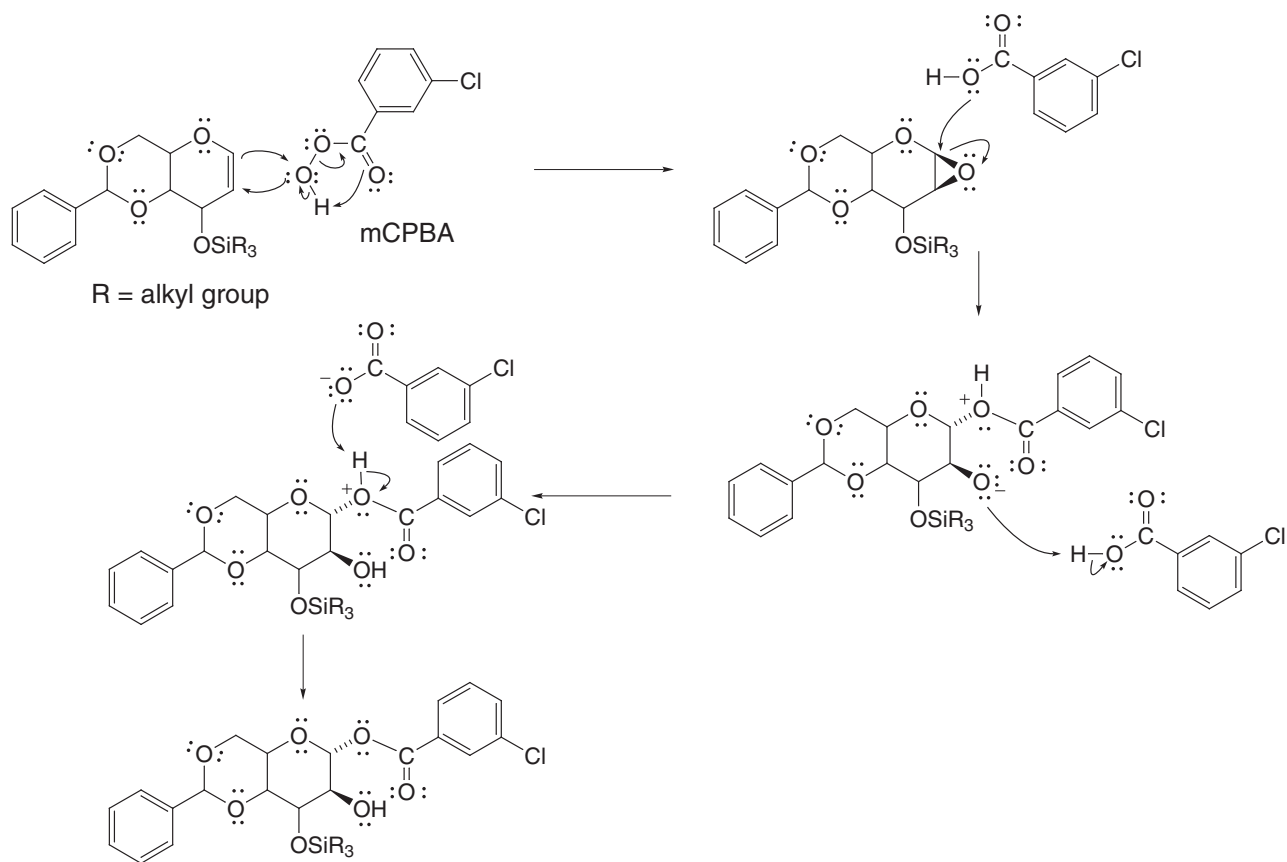


12.47

The favored conformation for both molecules places the *tert*-butyl group equatorial.

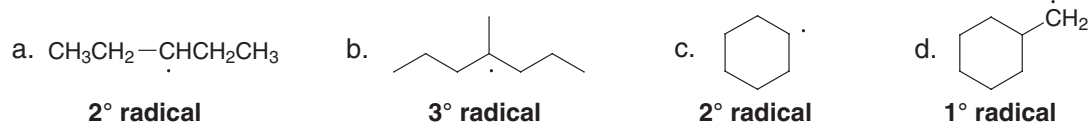


12.48

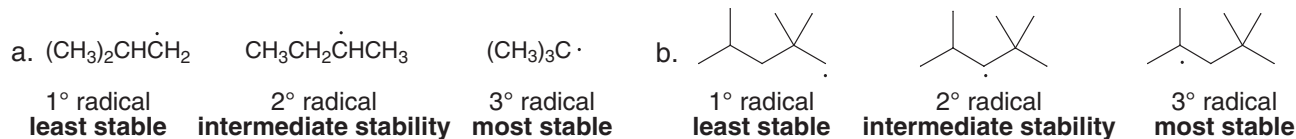


Capitolo 13

13.1 I radicali 1° sono su carboni legati solo ad un altro carbonio; i radicali 2° sono su carboni legati a due altri carboni; i radicali 3° sono su carboni legati ad altri tre carboni.



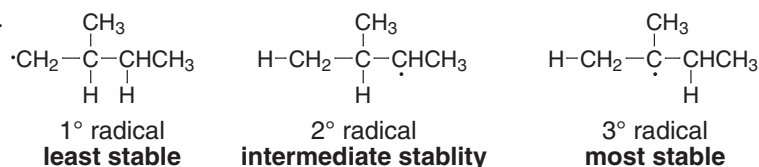
13.2 La stabilità di un radicale aumenta all'aumentare dei gruppi alchilici legati al carbonio radicalico.



13.3

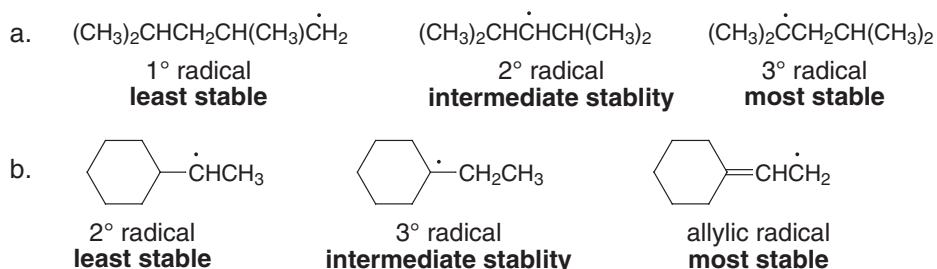
a. increasing bond strength: $b < c < a$

b and c.

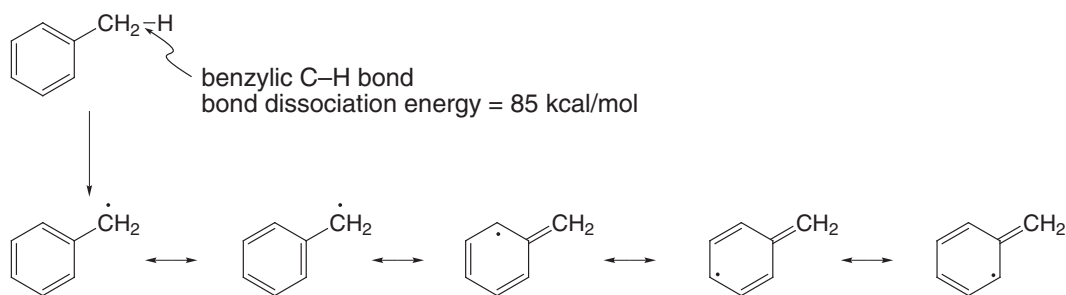


d. increasing H abstraction: $a < c < b$

13.4 Usare i suggerimenti della risposta 13.2 per ordinare i radicali.

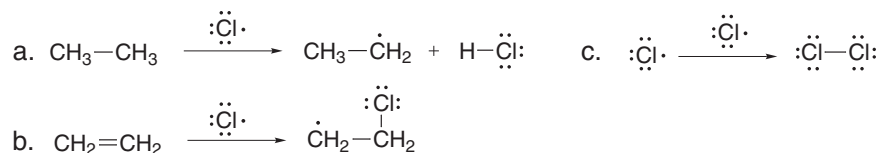


13.5 Disegnare il radicale formato per scissione del legame C–H benzilico. Successivamente disegnare le strutture di risonanza. La presenza di più strutture di risonanza (cinque in questo caso) rende il radicale più stabile, ed il legame C–H benzilico più debole.

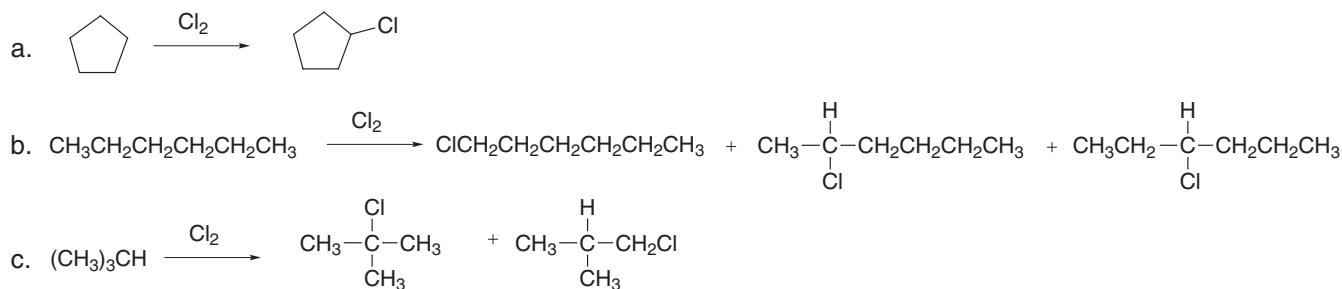


13.6 Reazione di un radicale con:

- un alcano cattura un atomo di idrogeno e crea un nuovo radicale al carbonio.
- un alchene genera un nuovo legame ad un carbonio, ed un nuovo radicale al carbonio.
- Un altro radicale forma un legame.

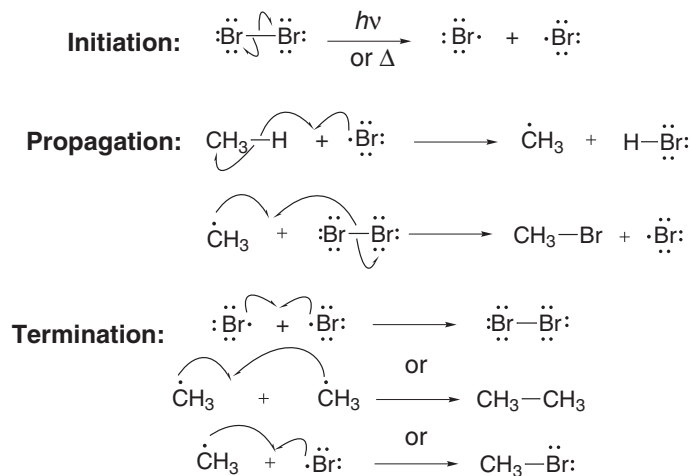


13.7 La monoclaurazione è una reazione di sostituzione radicalica in cui un Cl sostituisce un H generando un alogenuro alchilico.

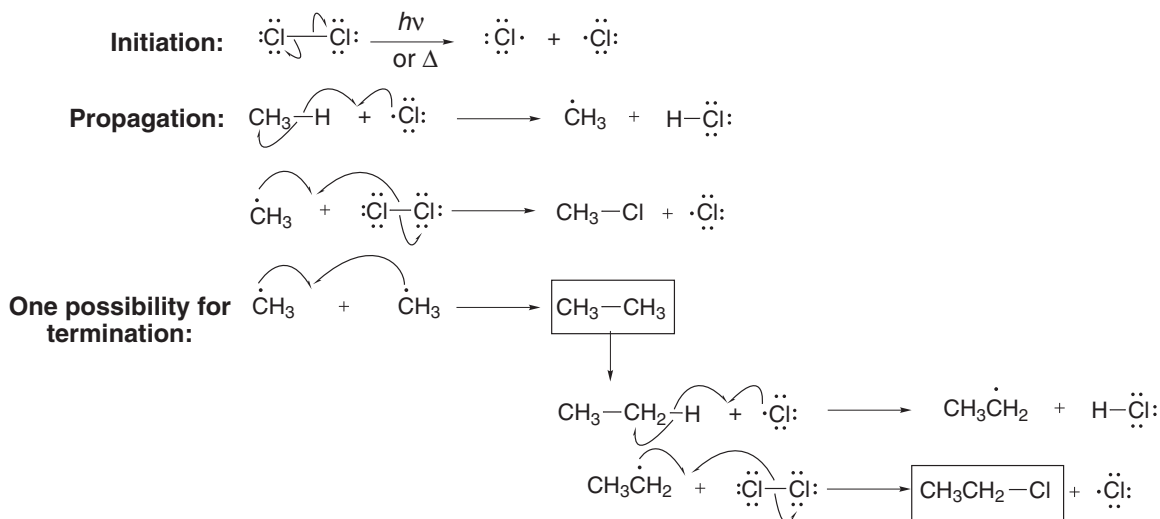


- 13.8** Se un alcano fornisce un prodotto di monoalogenazione con Cl_2 , tutti gli idrogeni del prodotto di partenza devono essere identici. Un solo composto di formula molecolare C_5H_{12} ha tutti gli idrogeni identici: $(\text{CH}_3)_4\text{C}$.

13.9

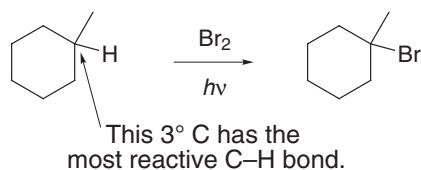


13.10

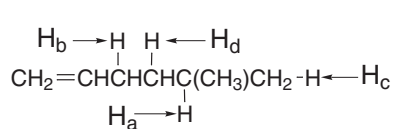


13.11 Per disegnare il prodotto della bromurazione:

- Disegnare il prodotto di partenza e trovare il legame C–H più reattivo (sul carbonio più sostituito).
- Il prodotto maggioritario si forma per **scissione del legame C–H più debole**.



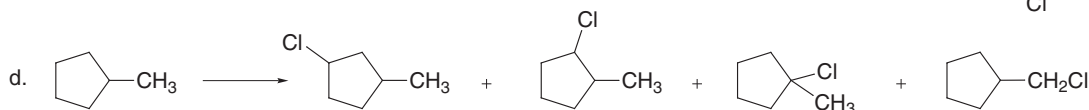
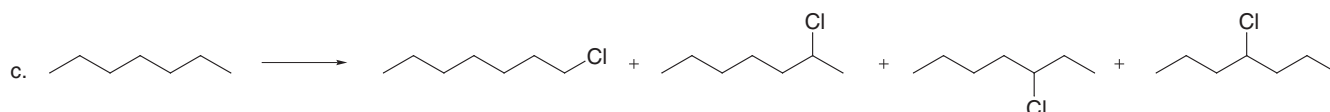
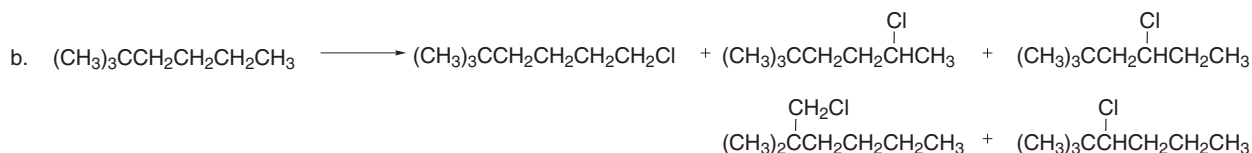
13.12



H_a = bonded to an sp^3 3° carbon
 H_b = bonded to an allylic carbon
 H_c = bonded to an sp^3 1° carbon
 H_d = bonded to an sp^3 2° carbon

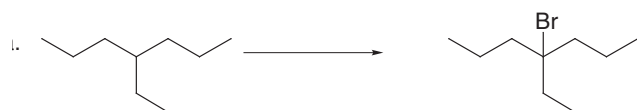
Increasing ease of abstraction:
 $\text{H}_c < \text{H}_d < \text{H}_a < \text{H}_b$

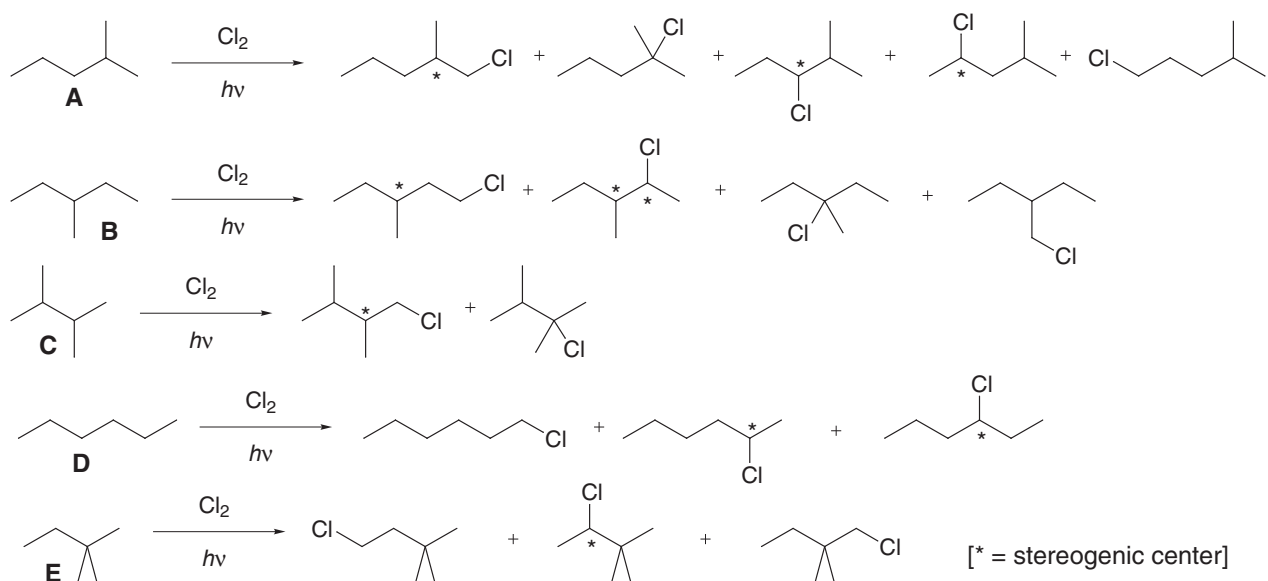
13.13 Usare i suggerimenti della risposta 13.7.



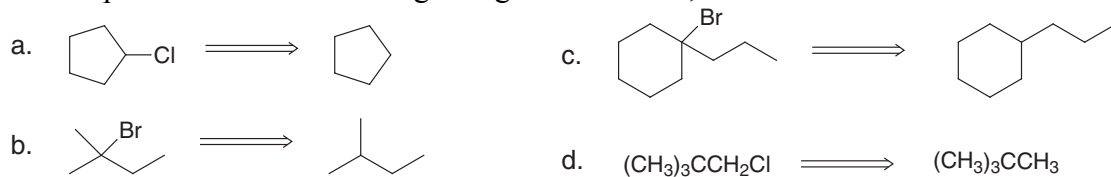
13.14 Per disegnare il prodotto della bromurazione:

- Disegnare il materiale di partenza e trovare il legame C–H più reattivo (sul carbonio più sostituito).
- Il prodotto maggioritario si forma per scissione del legame **C–H più debole**.

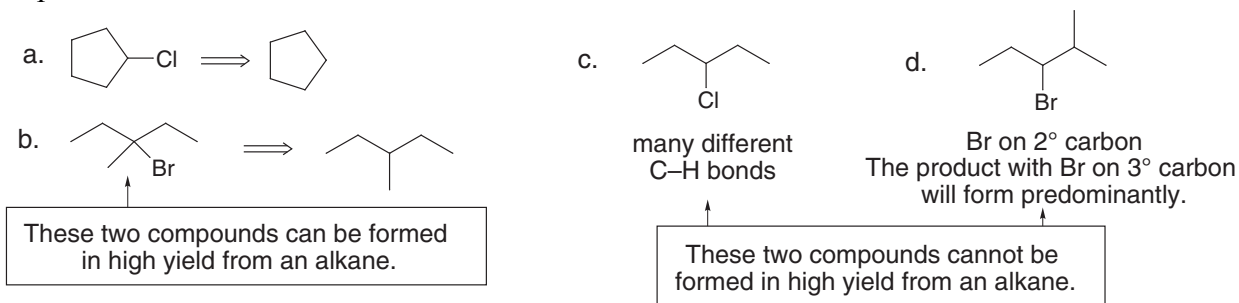
13.15 Disegnare tutti gli alcani isomeri di C_6H_{14} e i loro prodotti di clorurazione. Successivamente determinare quale lettera corrisponde a quale alcano.



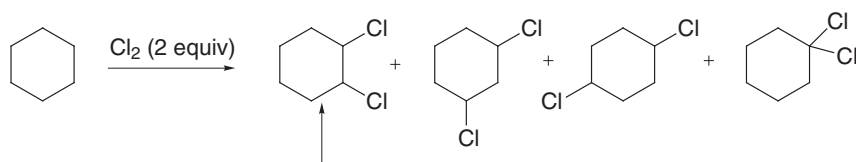
13.16 L'alogenazione sostituisce un legame C–H con un legame C–X. Per trovare l'alcano necessario per ottenere ciascuno degli alogenuri alchilici, sostituire X con H.



13.17 Perché un alcano fornisca un prodotto di monoalogenazione principale per reazione con Cl_2 , tutti gli idrogeni devono essere identici nel prodotto di partenza. Perché un alcano fornisca un prodotto principale per bromurazione, deve avere un carbonio più sostituito prodotto di partenza.

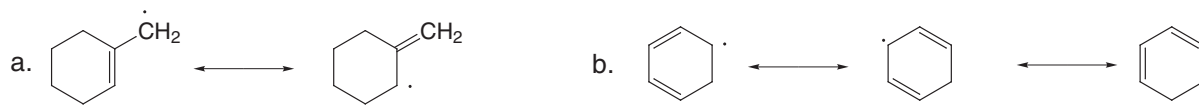


13.18 Clorurazione con due equivalenti di Cl_2 produce una varietà di prodotti.

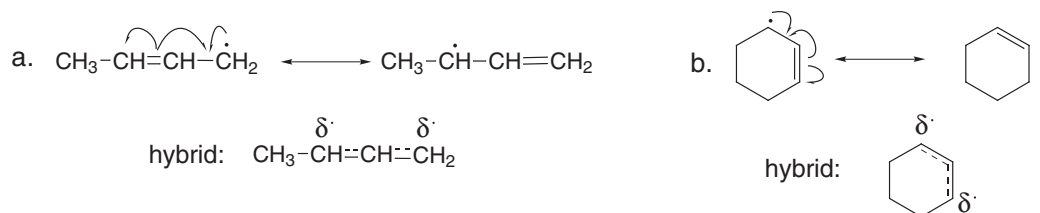


The desired product is only one of four products formed.

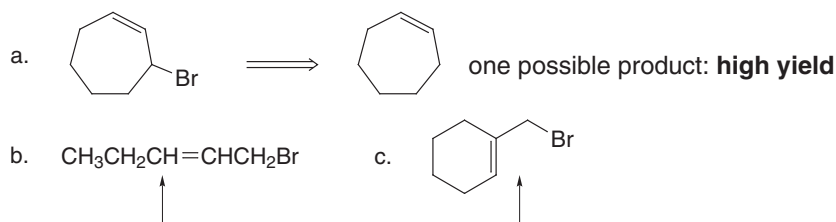
13.19 Disegnare le strutture di risonanza muovendo i legami π ed il radicale.



13.20 Disegnare le strutture di risonanza muovendo il legame π e gli elettroni spaiati. L'ibrido viene disegnato con linee tratteggiate per i legami che sono in una struttura di risonanza ma non nell'altra. Il simbolo $\delta^\bullet$ è usato su ogni atomo che presenta un elettrone spaiato in ciascuna struttura di risonanza.

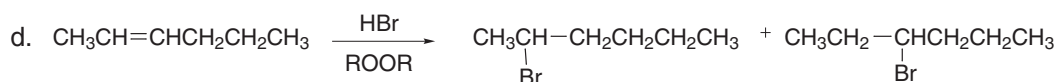
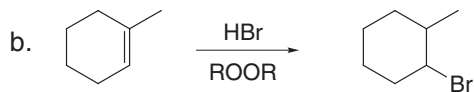
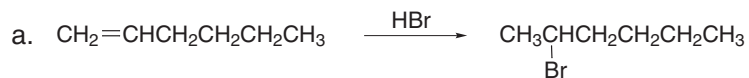


13.21 Reazione di un alchene con NBS + $h\nu$ produce prodotti di sostituzione alilica



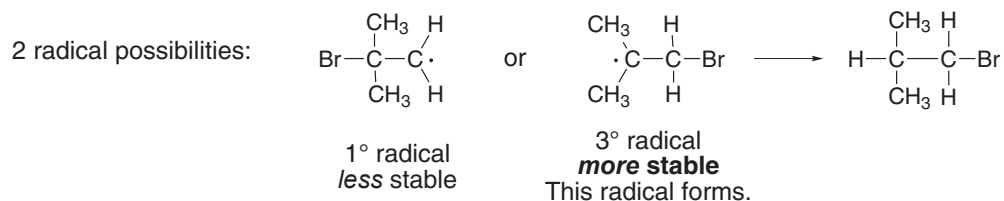
Cannot be made in high yield by allylic halogenation.
Any alkene starting material would yield a mixture of allylic halides.

13.22

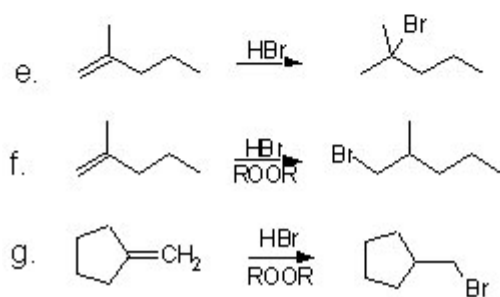
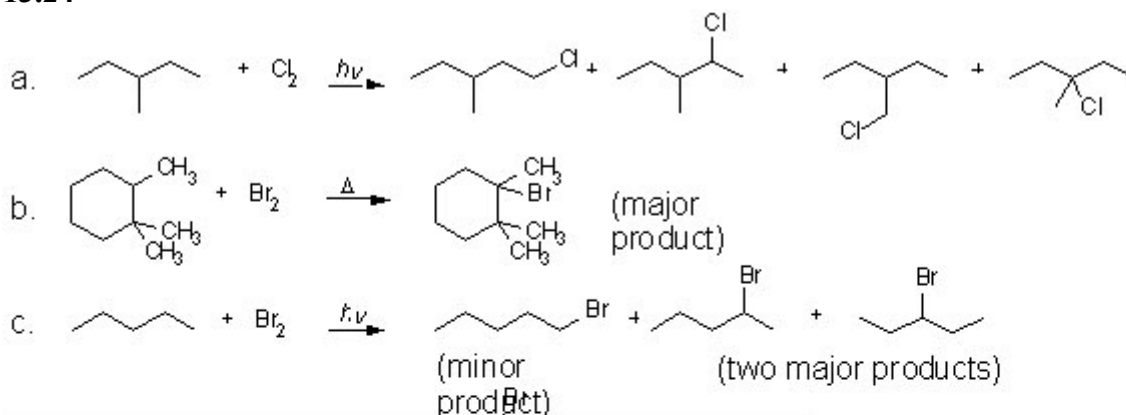


13.23 Nell'addizione di HBr in condizioni radicaliche:

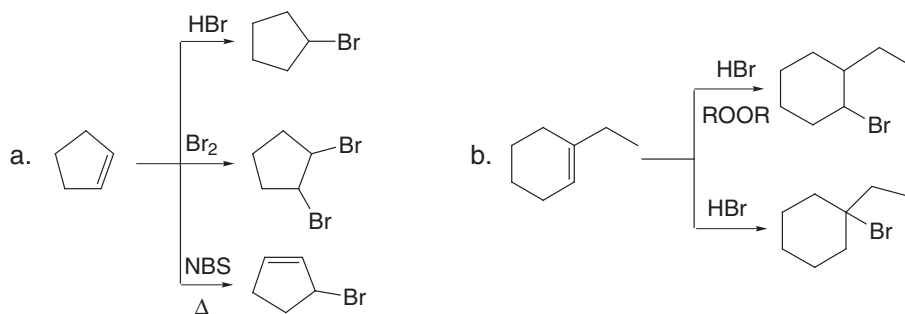
- $\text{Br}\cdot$ si addiziona in modo da formare il radicale più stabile.
- Successivamente $\text{H}\cdot$ si addiziona al carbonio radicalico.



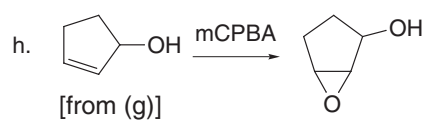
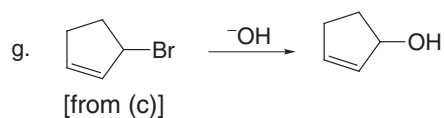
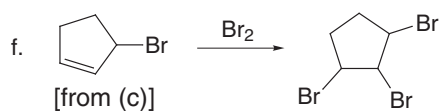
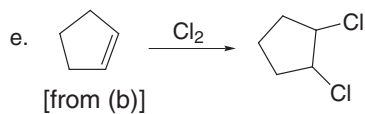
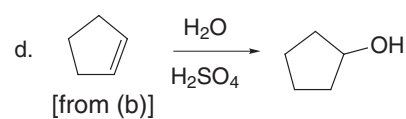
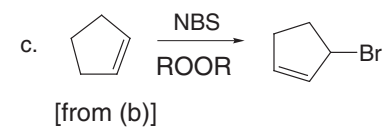
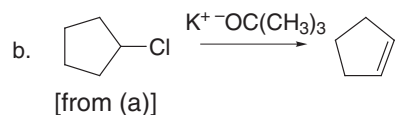
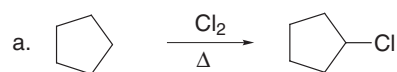
13.24



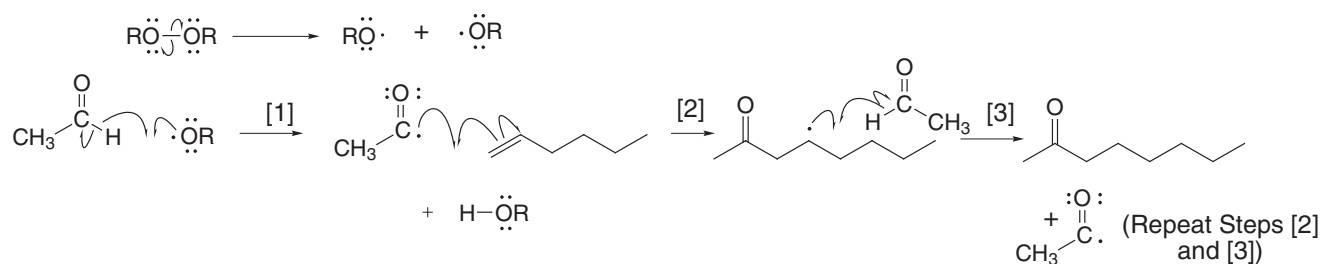
13.25



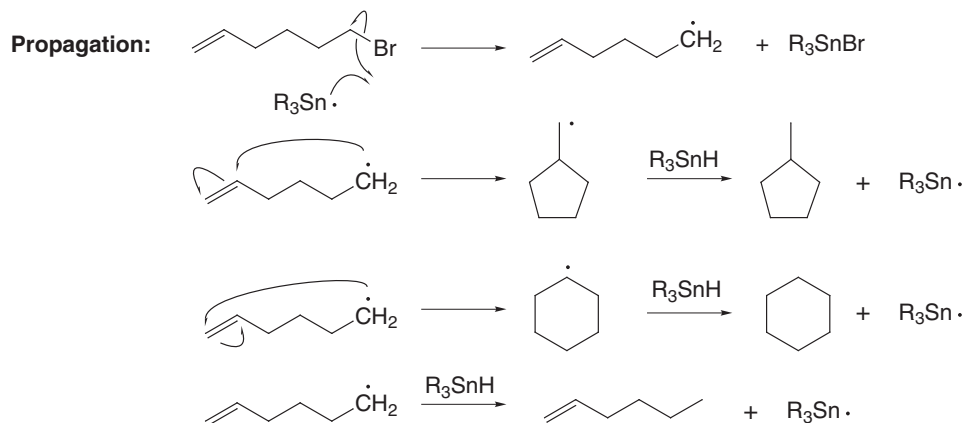
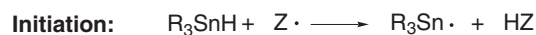
13.26



13.27



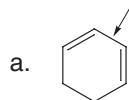
13.28



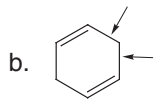
Capitolo 14

14.1 I dieni isolati hanno due doppi legami separati da due o più legami σ .

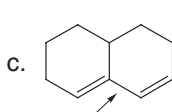
I dieni coniugati hanno due doppi legami separati solo da un legame σ .



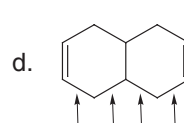
one σ bond separates
two double bonds =
conjugated diene



two σ bonds separate
two double bonds =
isolated diene

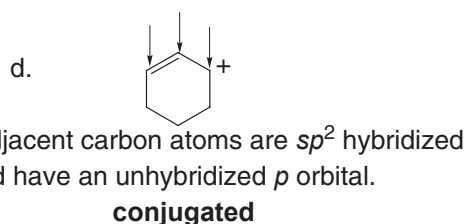
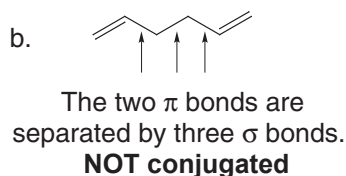
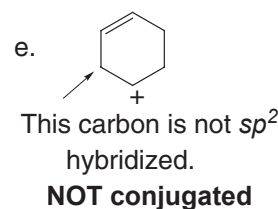
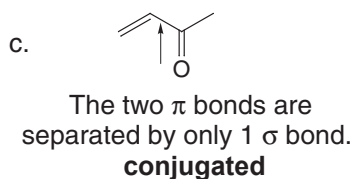
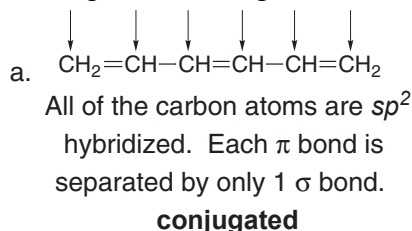


one σ bond separates
two double bonds =
conjugated diene

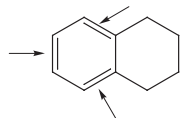


four σ bonds separate
two double bonds =
isolated diene

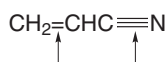
14.2 La coniugazione avviene quando ci sono orbitali p su tre o più atomi adiacenti. I doppi legami separati da 2 legami σ non sono coniugati.



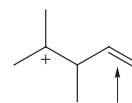
14.3 Usare le indicazioni della risposta 14.1.



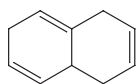
3 π bonds with only
1 σ bond between
conjugated



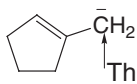
2 multiple bonds with only
1 σ bond between
conjugated



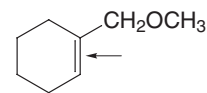
1 π bond with
no adjacent sp^2 hybridized atoms
NOT conjugated



3 π bonds with 2 or
more σ bonds between
NOT conjugated



1 π bond with
an adjacent sp^2 hybridized atom
This C is sp^2 .
The lone pair occupies a p orbital,
so there are p orbitals on
three adjacent atoms.
conjugated

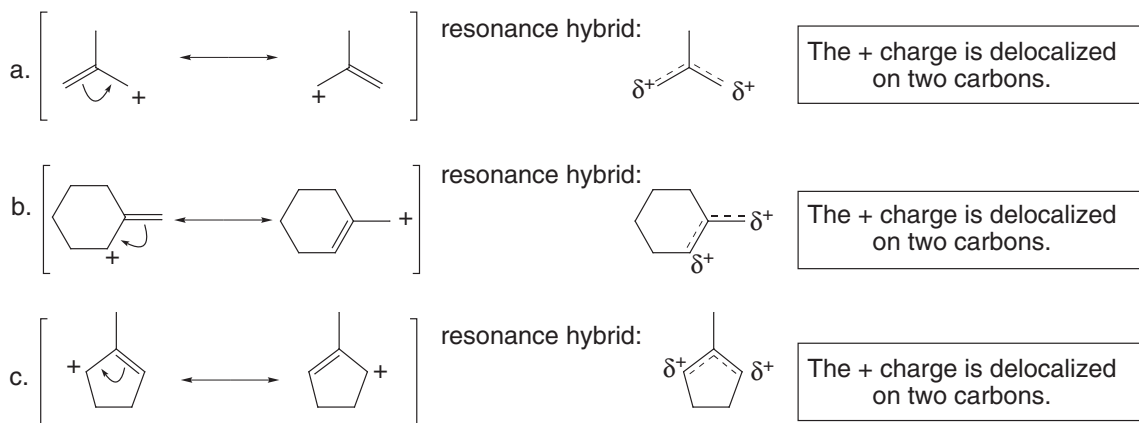


1 π bond with
no adjacent sp^2 hybridized atoms
NOT conjugated

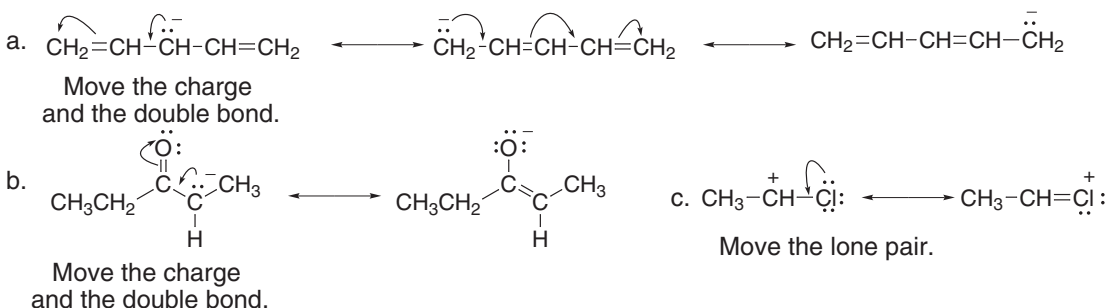
14.4 Due strutture di risonanza differiscono solo per la disposizione degli elettroni. Tutti i legami σ rimangono nella stessa disposizione. Possono essere spostati gli elettroni di non legame ed i legami π . Per disegnare un ibrido:

Usare una linea tratteggiata tra gli atomi che hanno un legame π in una struttura di risonanza e non nell'altra.

- Usare il simbolo δ per gli atomi con una carica o radicale in una struttura e non nell'altra.

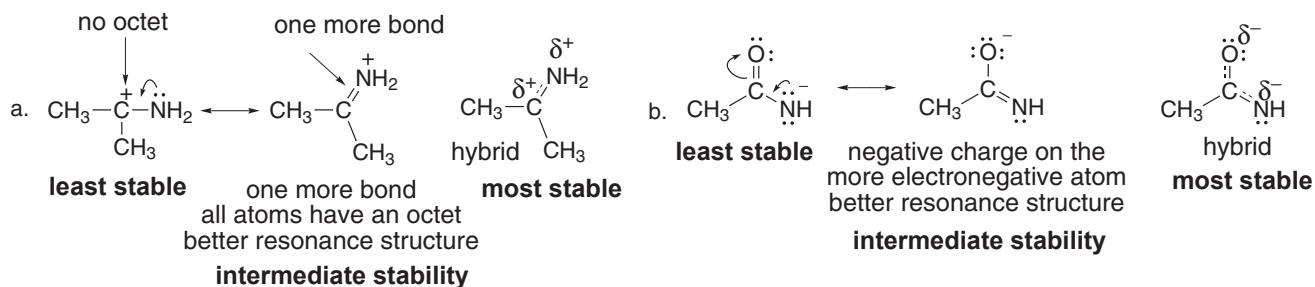


14.5

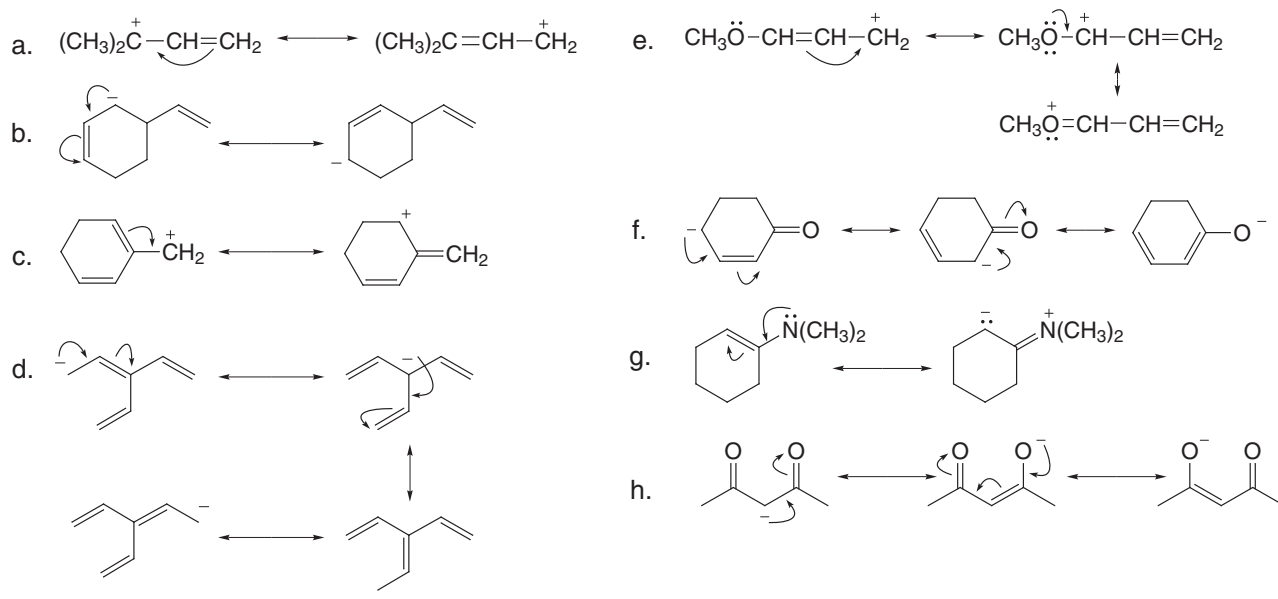


14.6 Per paragonare le strutture di risonanza:

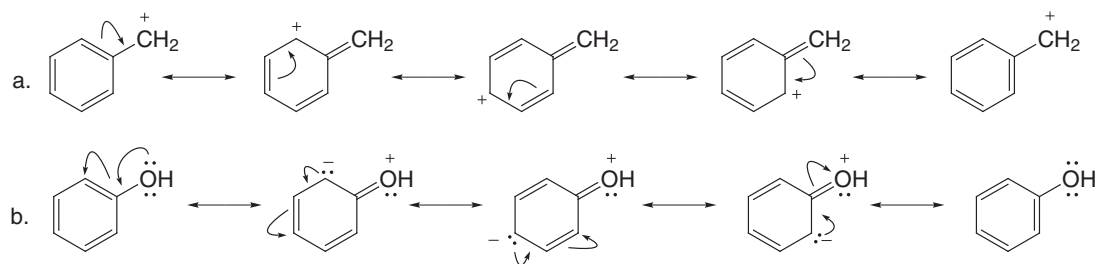
- Strutture di risonanza con **più legami** sono più stabili.
- Strutture di risonanza in cui **ogni atomo ha un otetto** sono più stabili.
- Strutture di risonanza con **atomi neutri** sono più stabili di quelle con separazione di carica.
- Strutture di risonanza in cui la **carica negativa è posizionata sull'atomo più elettronegativo** sono più stabili.



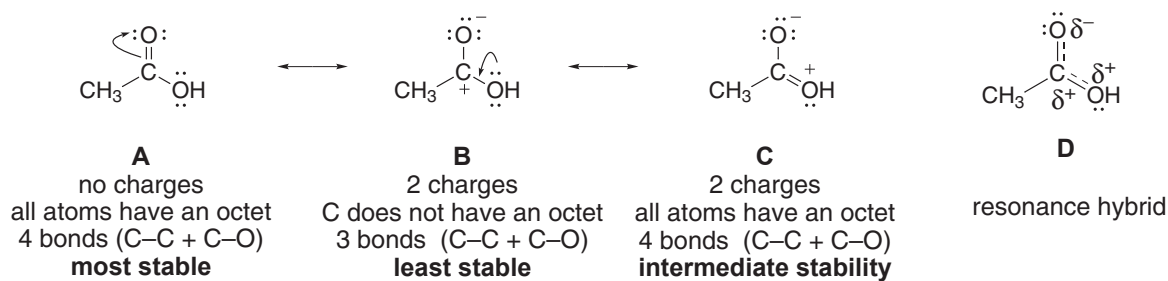
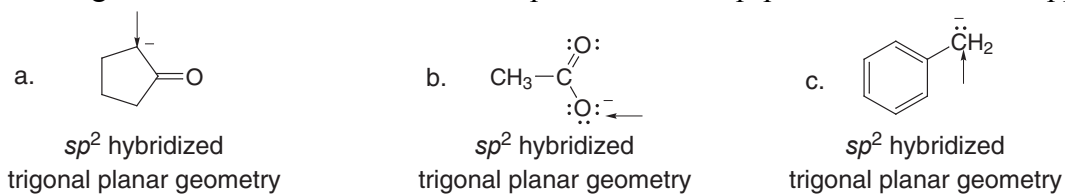
14.7



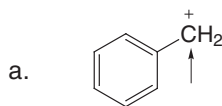
14.8



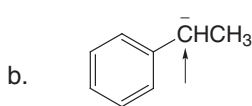
14.9 Usare le regole della risposta 14.4.

14.10 In ogni sistema allilico devono essere presenti orbitali *p* per delocalizzare il doppietto elettronico.

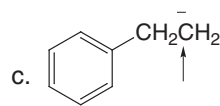
14.11



The benzylic C is sp^2 hybridized.
trigonal planar



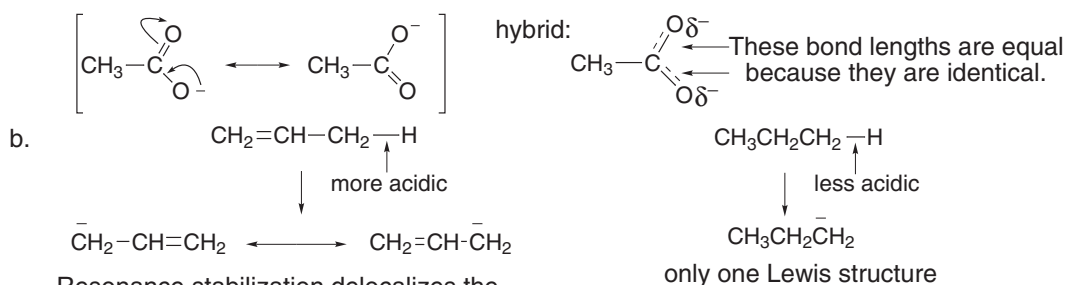
The benzylic C is sp^2 hybridized.
trigonal planar



This carbon is NOT part of
a conjugated system.
4 groups = sp^3 hybridized
tetrahedral

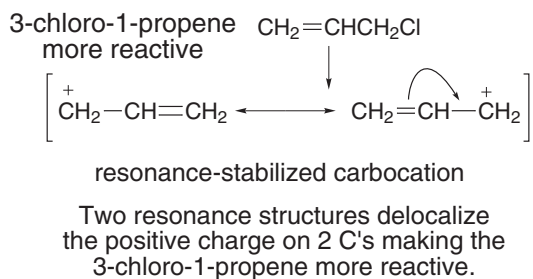
14.12

- a. Two equivalent resonance structures delocalize the π bond and the negative charge.

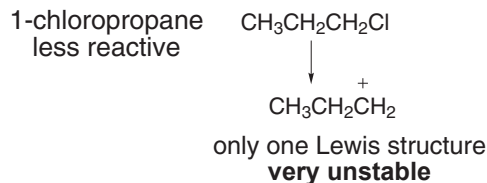


Resonance stabilization delocalizes the negative charge on 2 C's after loss of a proton. This makes propene more acidic than propane.

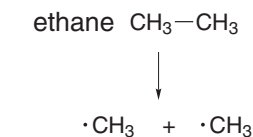
- c. S_N1 reactions proceed via a carbocation intermediate. Draw the carbocation formed on loss of Cl and compare.



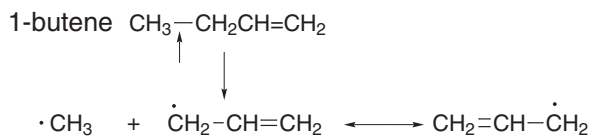
$CH_3CH_2CH_2Cl$ is a 1° halide, which does not react by an S_N1 reaction because cleavage of the C-Cl bond forms a highly unstable 1° carbocation.



- d. Draw the products of cleavage of the bond.

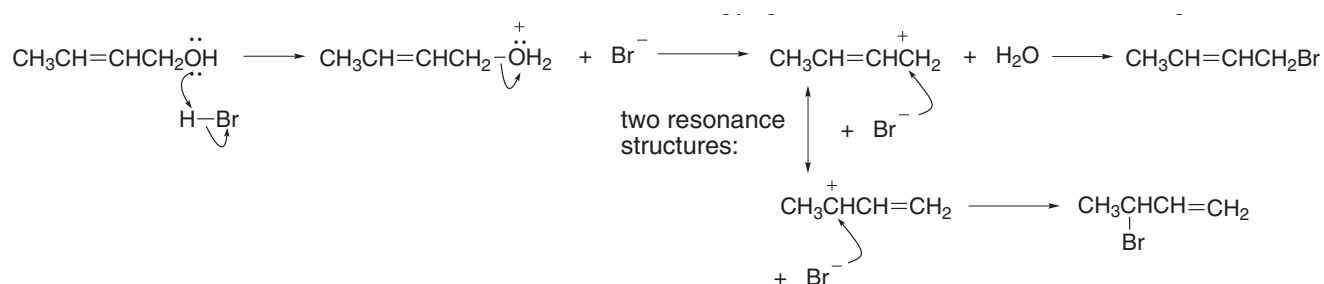


Two unstable radicals form.

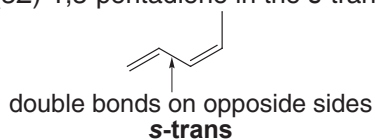


One resonance-stabilized radical forms.
This makes the bond dissociation energy lower because a more stable radical is formed.

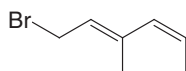
14.13



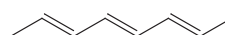
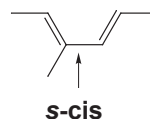
14.14 Usare le indicazioni della risposta 14.15.

a. (3Z)-1,3-pentadiene in the *s*-trans conformation

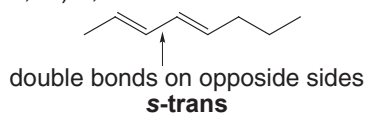
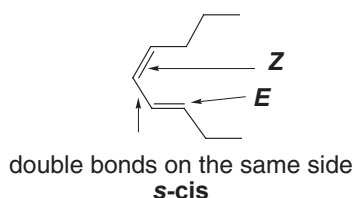
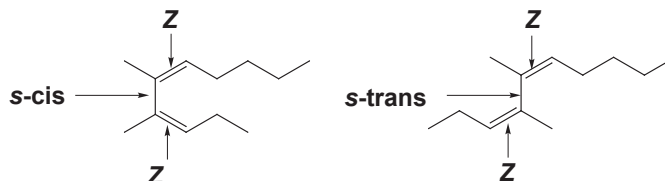
b. (2E,4Z)-1-bromo-3-methyl-2,4-hexadiene



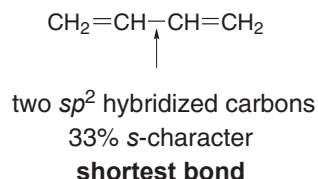
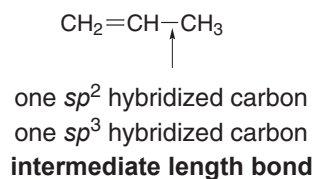
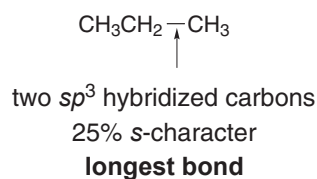
c. (2E,4E,6E)-2,4,6-octatriene

d. (E,E)-3-methyl-2,4-hexadiene in the *s*-cis conformation

14.15 Il conformero *s*-cis ha i due doppi legami **dalla stessa parte** rispetto al legame singolo.
Il conformero *s*-trans ha i due doppi legami **da parti opposte** rispetto al legame singolo.

a. (2E,4E)-2,4-octadiene in the *s*-trans conformationb. (3E,5Z)-3,5-nonadiene in the *s*-cis conformationc. (3Z,5Z)-4,5-dimethyl-3,5-decadiene in both the *s*-cis and *s*-trans conformers.

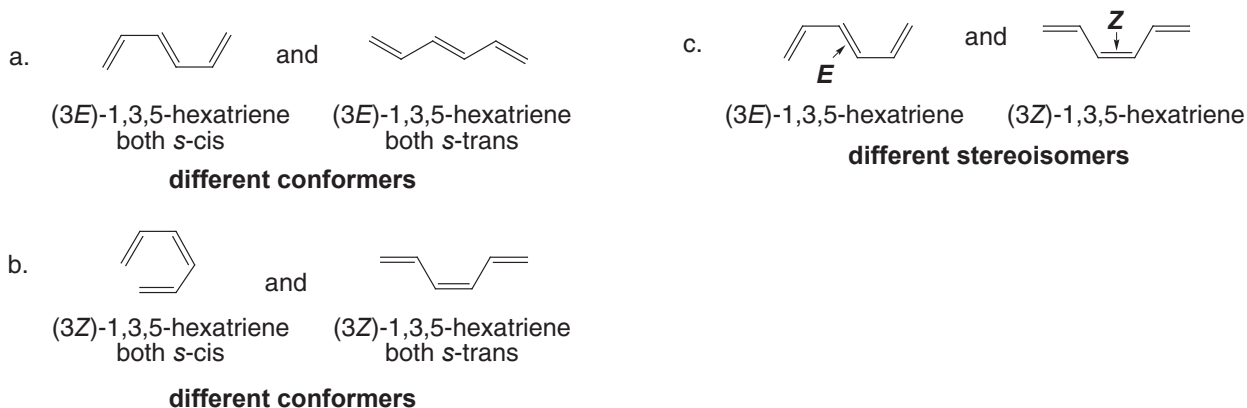
14.16 La lunghezza di legame dipende dall'ibridazione e dalla percentuale di carattere *s*. I legami con maggiore percentuale di carattere *s* hanno orbitali più piccoli e più corti. Confrontare l'ibridazione degli atomi di carbonio nei legami per ordinare i legami secondo la lunghezza crescente.



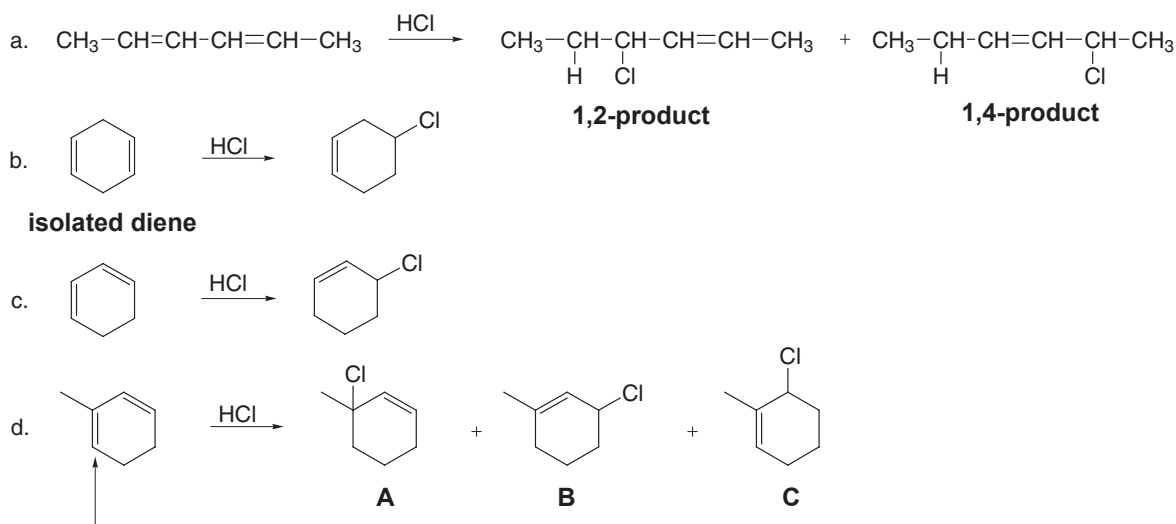
14.17



14.18



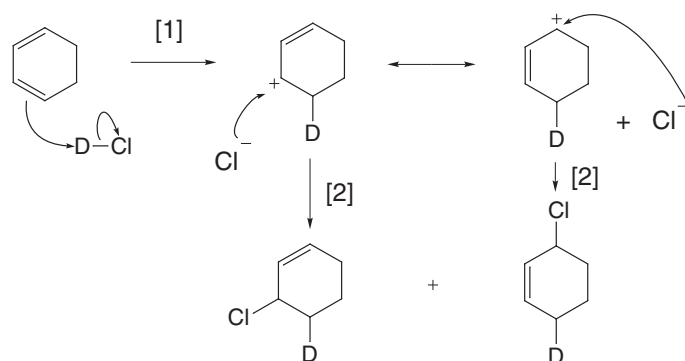
14.19 I dieni coniugati reagiscono con HX per formare prodotti 1,2- e 1,4-.



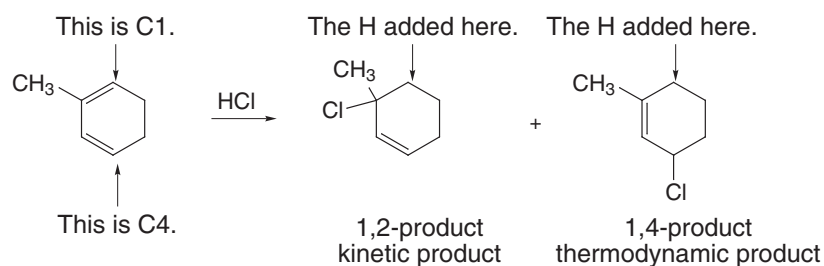
This double bond is more reactive, so **C** is probably a minor product because it results from HCl addition to the less reactive double bond.

14.20 Il meccanismo di addizione di DCl prevede due stadi:

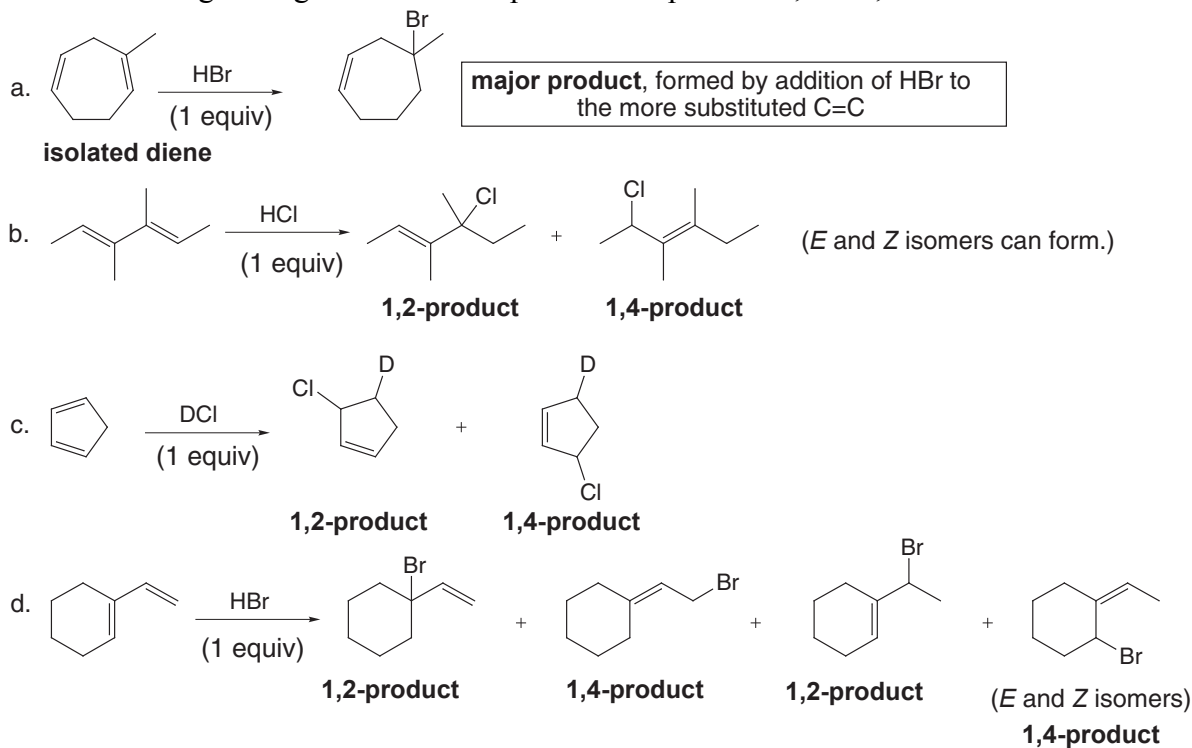
- [1] L'**addizione di D⁺** forma un carbocatione stabilizzato per risonanza.
- [2] L'**attacco nucleofilo di Cl⁻** forma prodotti 1,2- e 1,4-.



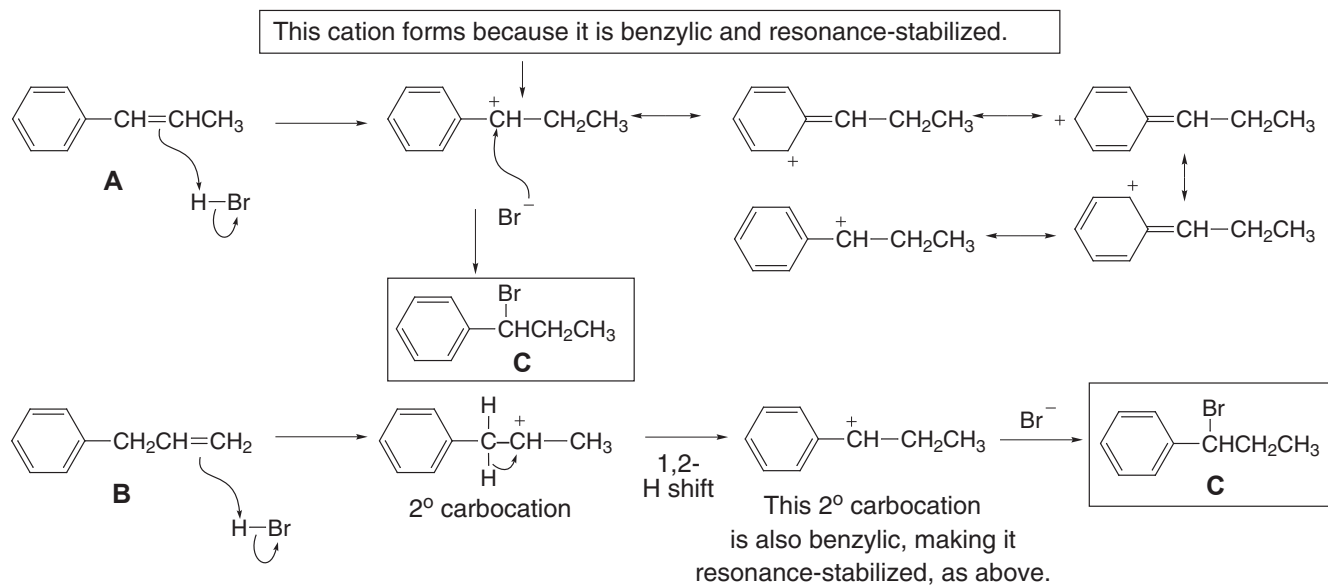
14.21 Classificare i prodotti come prodotti 1,2- o 1,4-. Il prodotto 1,2- è il prodotto cinetico, e il prodotto 1,4-, che ha i doppi legami più sostituiti, è quello termodinamico.



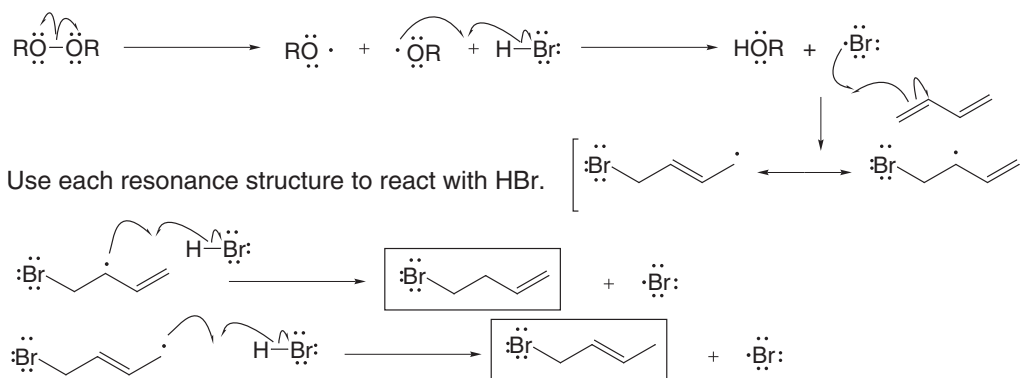
14.22 I dieni coniugati reagiscono con HX per formare prodotti 1,2- e 1,4-.



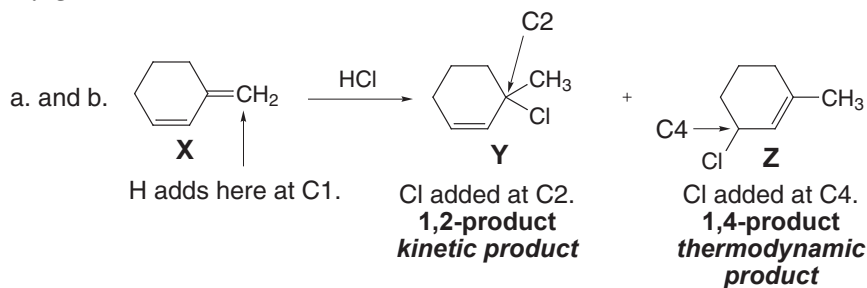
14.23



14.24 Per disegnare il meccanismo della reazione di un diene con HBr/ROOR, ricordare dal Capitolo 13 che quando un alchene è trattato con HBr in condizioni radicaliche, il Br va sul carbonio con più atomi di idrogeno.

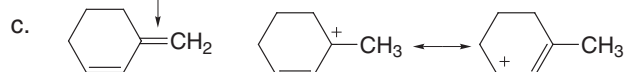


14.25



Y is the kinetic product because of the proximity effect. H and Cl add across two adjacent atoms.
Z is the thermodynamic product because it has a more stable trisubstituted double bond.

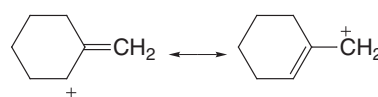
Addition occurs at the labeled double bond due to the stability of the carbocation intermediate.



The two resonance structures for this allylic cation are 3° and 2° carbocations.

more stable intermediate
Addition occurs here.

If addition occurred at the other C=C, the following allylic carbocation would form:

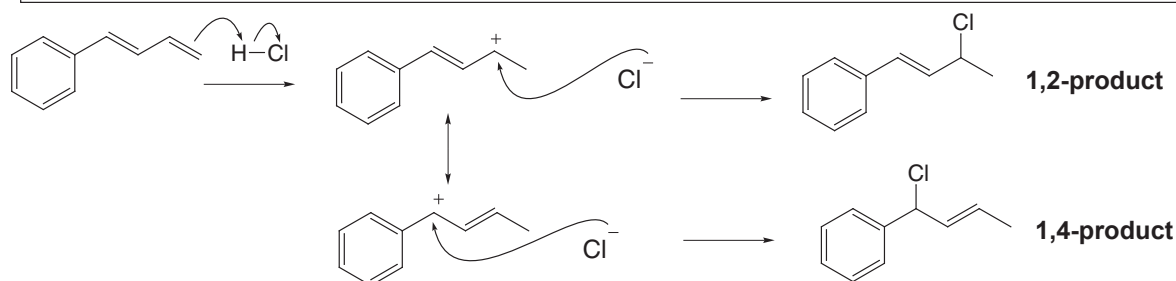


The two resonance structures for this allylic cation are 1° and 2° carbocations.

less stable

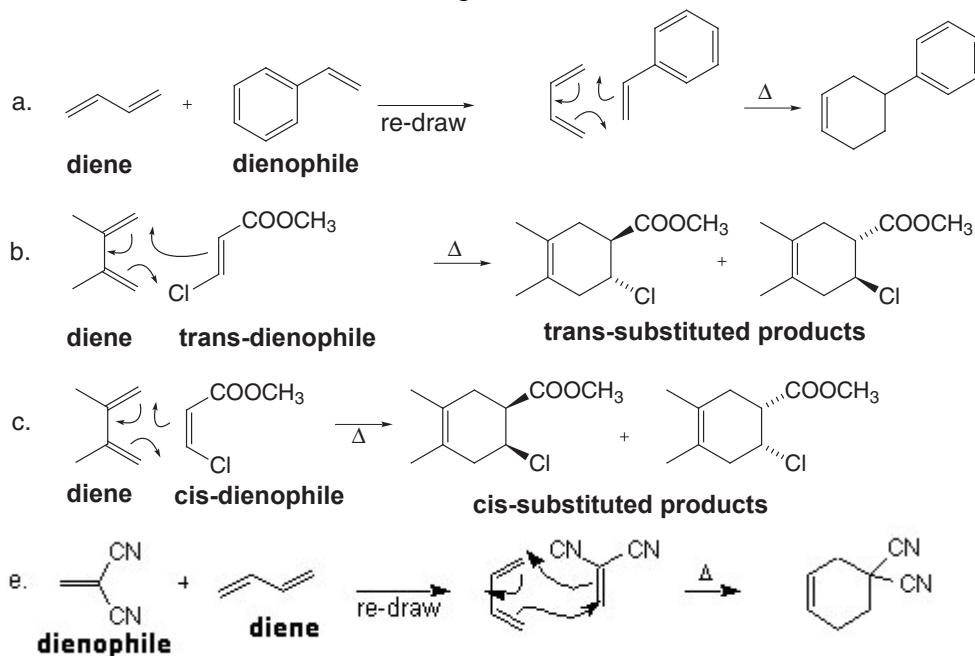
14.26

Addition of HCl at the terminal double bond forms a carbocation that is highly resonance-stabilized since it is both allylic and benzylic. Such stabilization does not occur when HCl is added to the other double bond. This gives rise to two products of electrophilic addition.

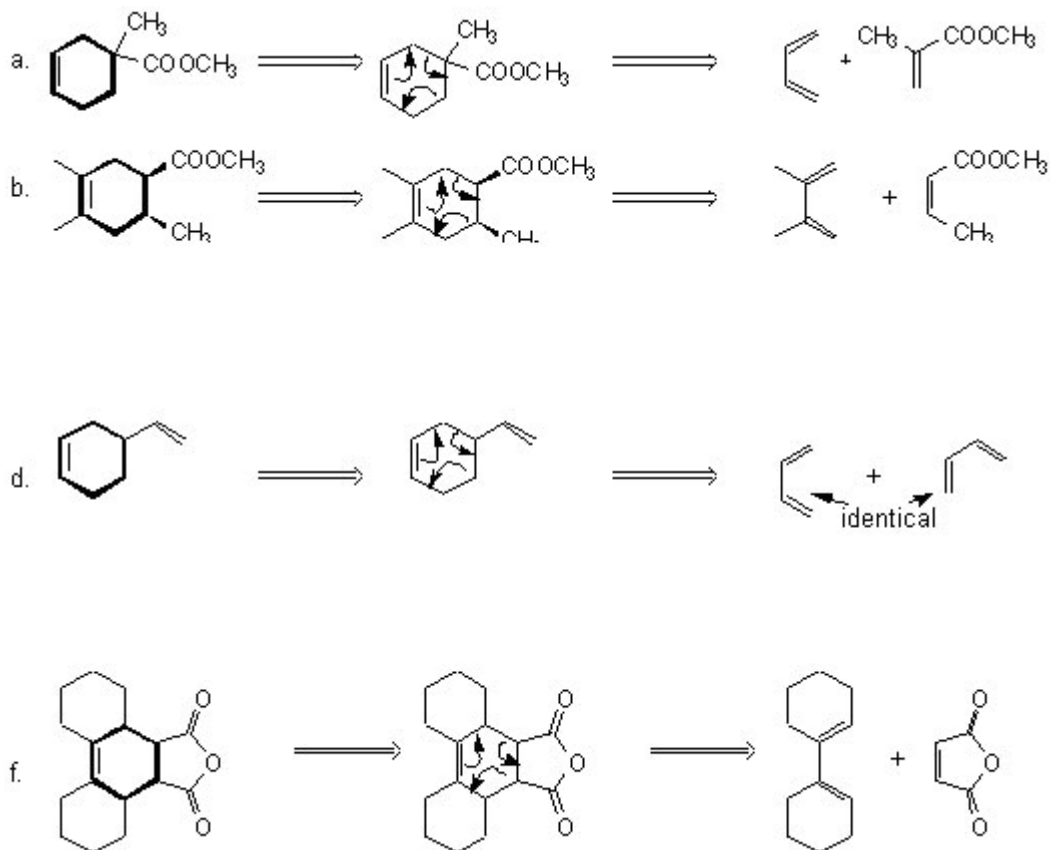


(+ four more resonance structures that delocalize the positive charge onto the benzene ring)

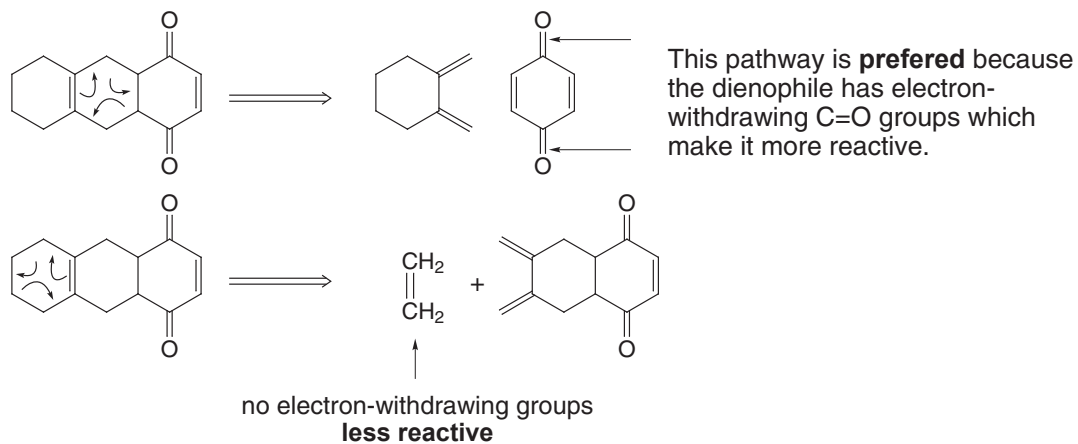
14.27 Usare le indicazioni della risposta 16.16.



14.28 Usare le indicazioni della risposta 16.22.



14.29

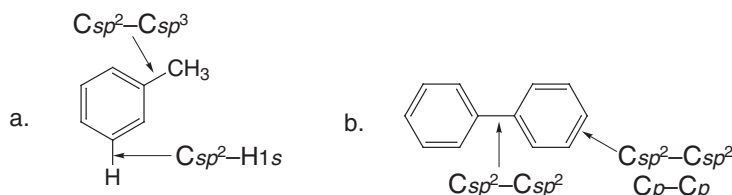


Capitolo 15

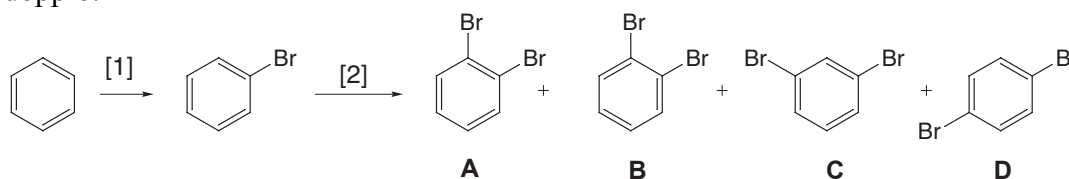
15.1 Muovere gli elettroni nei legami π per disegnare tutte le principali strutture risonanti.



15.2 Considerare l'ibridazione degli atomi coinvolti in ciascun legame. Gli atomi di carbonio nell'anello del benzene sono circondati da tre gruppi e sono ibridati sp^2 .

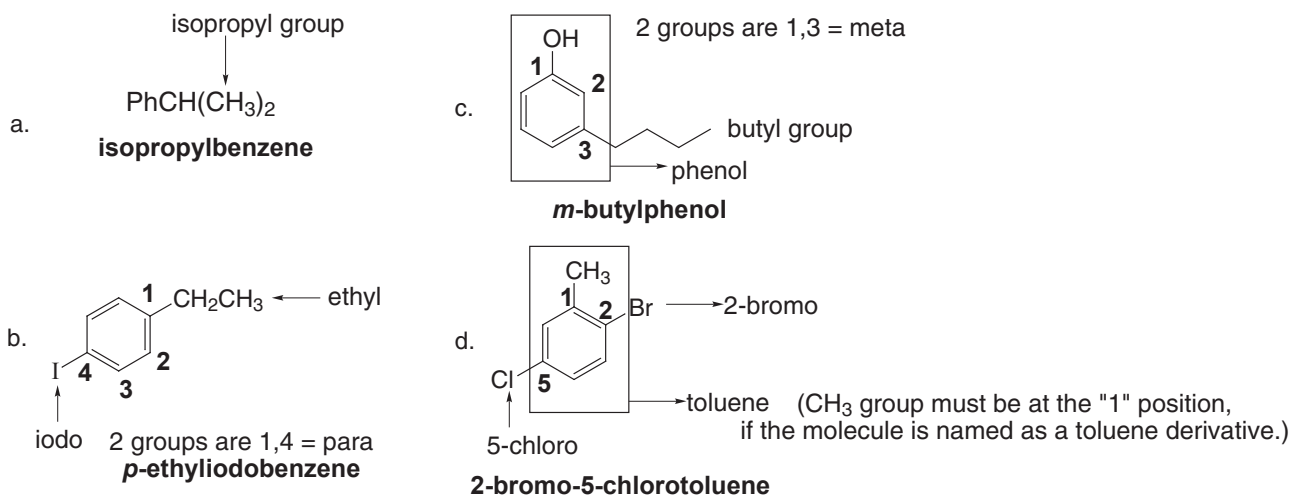


- 15.3** a. Se il benzene potesse essere descritto da una singola struttura di Kekulé, nella Reazione [1] si formerebbe un solo prodotto, ma ci sarebbero quattro (non tre) dibromobenzeni (**A–D**), perché i legami adiacenti C–C sono diversi—uno è singolo ed uno è doppio. Quindi, i composti **A** e **B** *non* sarebbero identici. **A** ha due atomi di Br legati allo stesso doppio legame, ma **B** ha due atomi di Br su doppi legami diversi.
- b. Nella descrizione che tiene conto della risonanza, si formerebbe un solo prodotto nella Reazione [1], dal momento che tutti gli atomi di C sono identici, ma sono possibili solo tre dibromobenzeni (isomeri orto, meta, e para). **A** e **B** sono identici, perché ogni legame C–C è identico e con lunghezza di legame intermedia fra un legame C–C singolo e un legame C–C doppio.



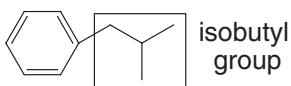
15.4 Per denominare un anello **benzenico monosostituito**, si denomina il sostituito e si aggiunge la parola *benzene*.

- Per denominare un **anello disostituito**, scegliere il prefisso corretto (orto = 1,2; meta = 1,3; para = 1,4) e mettere in ordine alfabetico i sostituenti. Usare un nome comune se è un derivato di un benzene monosostituito.
- Per denominare un **anello polisostituito**, numerare l'anello in modo da dare i numeri più piccoli possibile e quindi seguire le altre regole della nomenclatura.

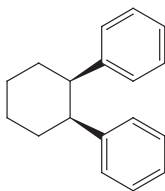


15.5 Operare a ritroso per disegnare la struttura dai nomi.

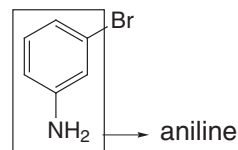
a. isobutylbenzene



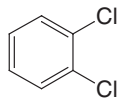
c. *cis*-1,2-diphenylcyclohexane



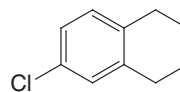
d. *m*-bromoaniline



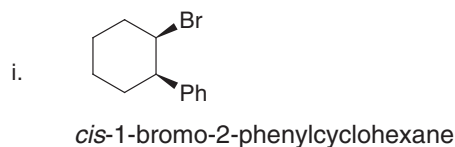
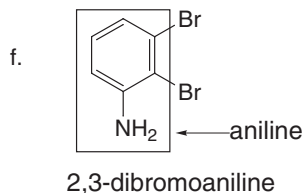
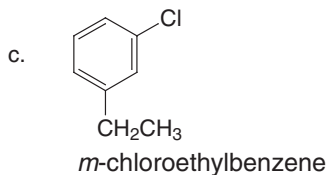
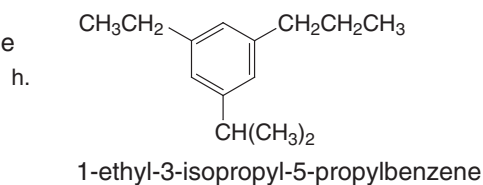
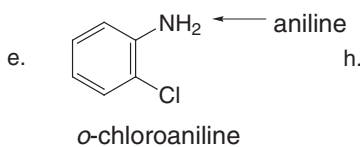
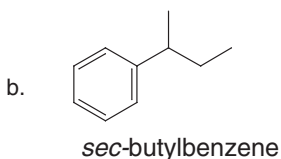
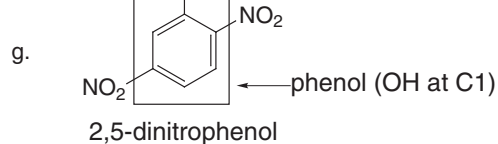
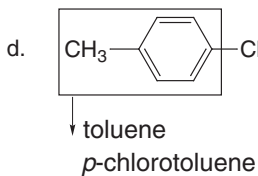
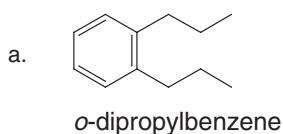
b. *o*-dichlorobenzene



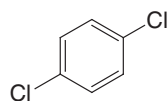
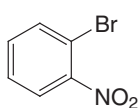
e. 4-chloro-1,2-diethylbenzene



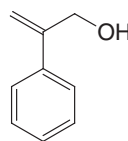
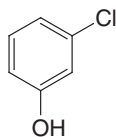
15.6 Per denominare i composti usare le indicazioni della risposta 15.4.



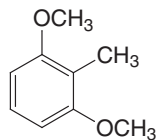
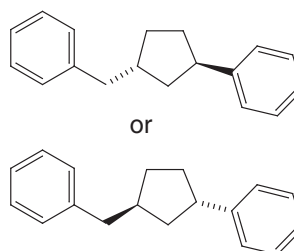
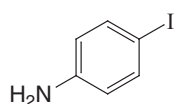
15.7

a. *p*-dichlorobenzened. *o*-bromonitrobenzene

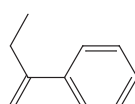
g. 2-phenyl-2-propen-1-ol

b. *m*-chlorophenol

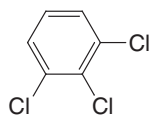
e. 2,6-dimethoxytoluene

h. *trans*-1-benzyl-3-phenylcyclopentanec. *p*-iodoaniline

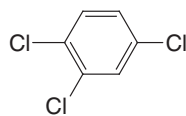
f. 2-phenyl-1-butene



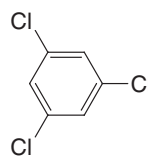
15.8



1,2,3-trichlorobenzene

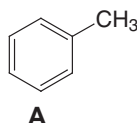
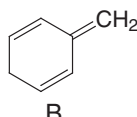


1,2,4-trichlorobenzene



1,3,5-trichlorobenzene

15.9 Il composto meno stabile ha il più alto calore di idrogenazione.

benzene ring, more stable
lower ΔH° no benzene ring, less stable
higher ΔH° 15.10 Per essere aromatico, un anello deve avere $4n + 2$ elettroni π .

16 πe^-
 $4n$
 $4(4) = 16$
antiaromatic

20 πe^-
 $4n$
 $4(5) = 20$
antiaromatic

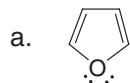
22 πe^-
 $4n + 2$
 $4(5) + 2 = 22$
aromatic

15.11 Gli annuleni hanno legami alternati doppi e singoli. Un numero dispari di atomi di carbonio nell'anello significa che possono esserci due legami singoli adiacenti. Quindi un annulene che ha un numero dispari di atomi di carbonio non esiste.

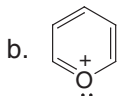
15.12



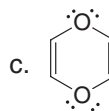
15.13 Per stabilire se un eterociclo è aromatico, contare se un doppietto elettronico di non legame rende l'anello aromatico nel calcolo $4n + 2$.



count 2 of O's
nonbonded electrons
 $4n + 2 = 4(1) + 2 = 6$
aromatic

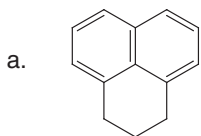


no lone pair from O
 $4n + 2 = 4(1) + 2 = 6$
aromatic

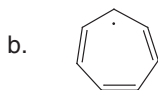


with one lone
pair from each O
there are 8 electrons
not aromatic

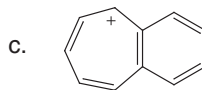
15.14 Contare gli elettroni nei legami π . Ogni legame π ha due elettroni.



10 π electrons

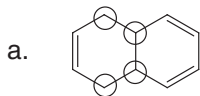


7 π electrons



10 π electrons

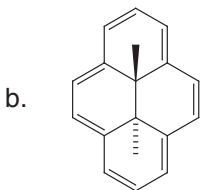
15.15 Per essere aromatici, i composti devono essere ciclici, planari, completamente coniugati, ed avere $4n + 2$ elettroni π .



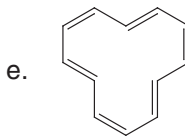
circled C's are not sp^2
not completely conjugated
not aromatic



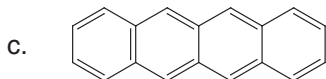
circled C's are not sp^2
not completely conjugated
not aromatic



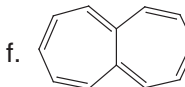
14 π electrons in outer ring
aromatic



12 π electrons
does **not** have $4n + 2$
 π electrons

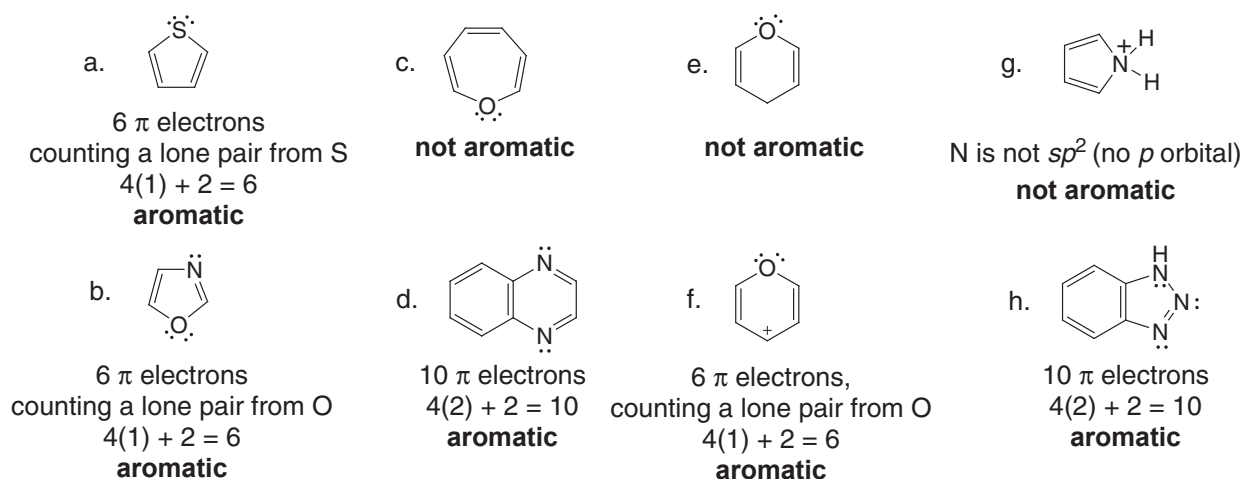


4 benzene rings
joined together
aromatic

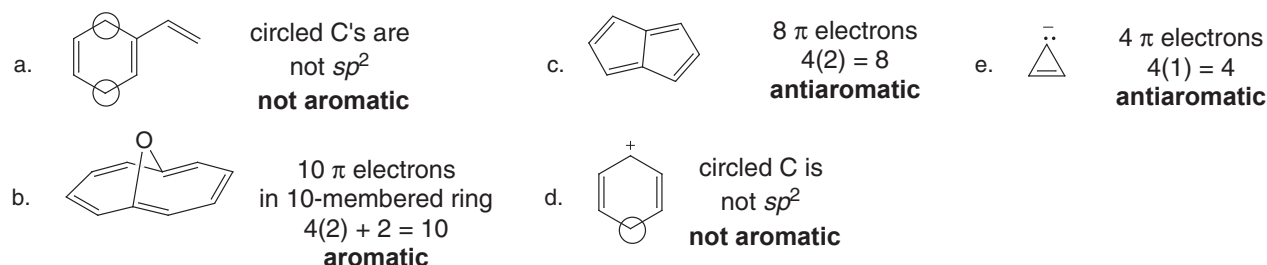


12 π electrons
does **not** have $4n + 2$
 π electrons

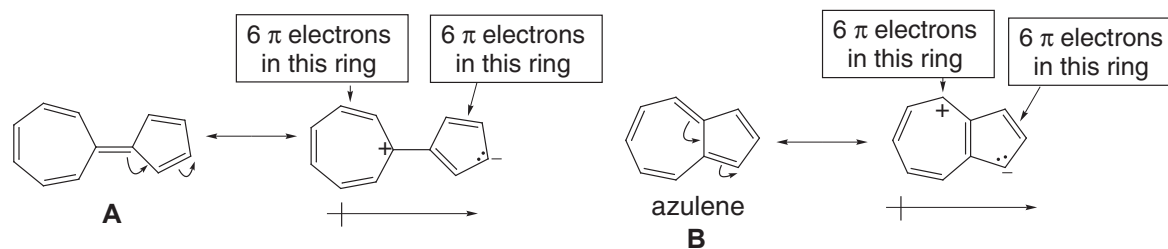
15.16 Per stabilire se un eterociclo è aromatico, contare se un doppietto elettronico di non legame rende l'anello aromatico nel calcolo $4n + 2$



15.17

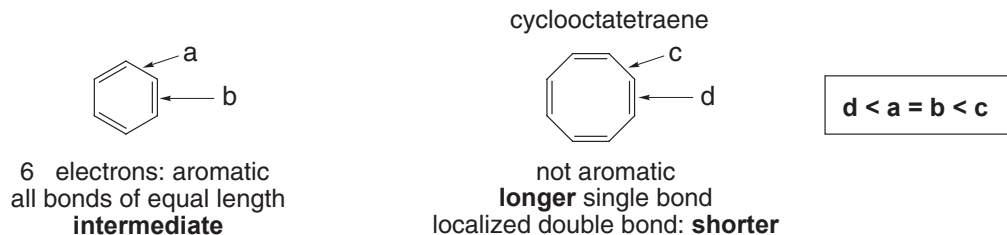


15.18

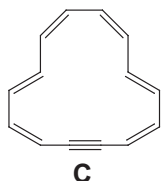


In entrambi i composti **A** e **B**, possono essere disegnate strutture risonanti con una carica negativa sull'anello a cinque termini e una carica positiva sull'anello a sette. Queste strutture risonanti mostrano che ciascun anello ha 6 elettroni π , rendendolo così aromatico. Ogni molecola ha un dipolo tale che l'anello a sette termini è elettron-deficiente e l'anello a cinque termini è elettron-ricco.

15.19 Il benzene ha legami C–C di uguale lunghezza, intermedia fra un legame C–C doppio ed uno singolo. Il cicloottatetraene non è planare ed è non aromatico, così i suoi doppi legami sono localizzati.

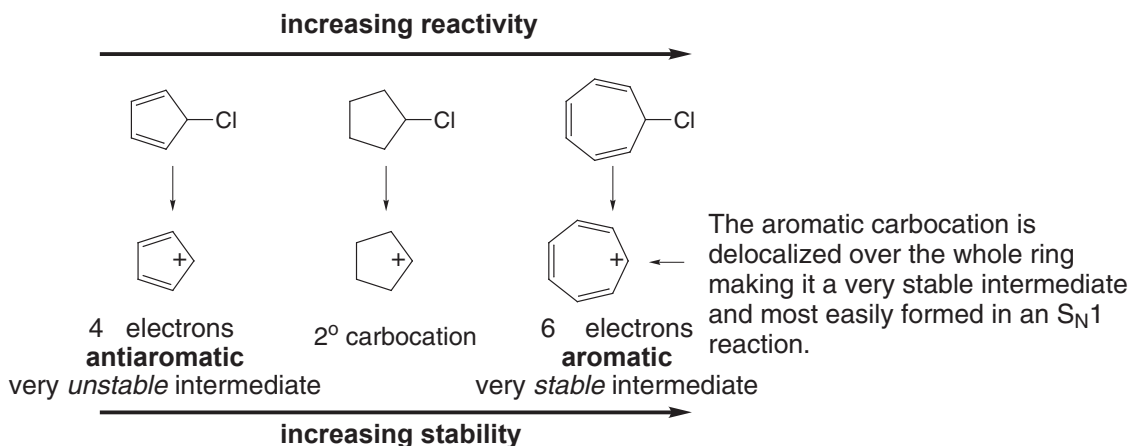


15.20

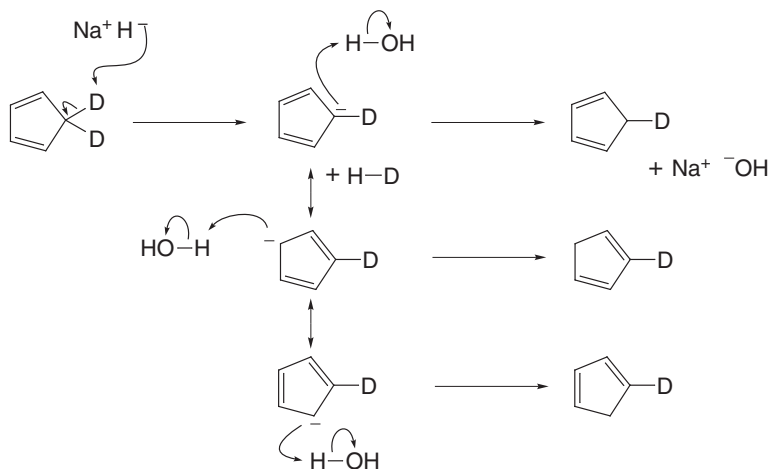


- 16 total electrons
- 14 electrons delocalized in the ring. [Note: Two of the electrons in the triple bond are localized between two C's, perpendicular to the π electrons delocalized in the ring.]
- By having 2 of the p orbitals of the C–C triple bond co-planar with the p orbitals of all the C=C's, the total number of electrons delocalized in the ring is 14. $4(3) + 2 = 14$, giving it the right number of electrons to be **aromatic**.

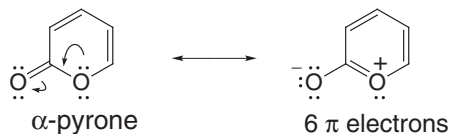
15.21 La velocità di una reazione S_N1 aumenta all'aumentare della stabilità dell'intermedio carbocationico.



15.22



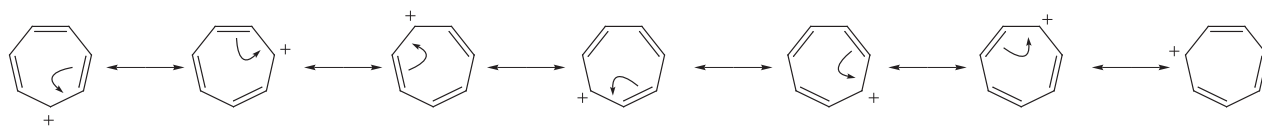
15.23 L' α -pirone reagisce come il benzene perché è aromatico. Può essere disegnata una seconda struttura di risonanza, che mostra come l'anello possieda sei elettroni π . Perciò, l' α -pirone dà le reazioni caratteristiche dei composti aromatici, cioè di sostituzione e non di addizione.



15.24



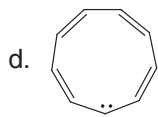
15.25



15.26 Per essere aromatici, gli ioni devono avere, gli ioni devono avere $4n + 2$ elettroni π .

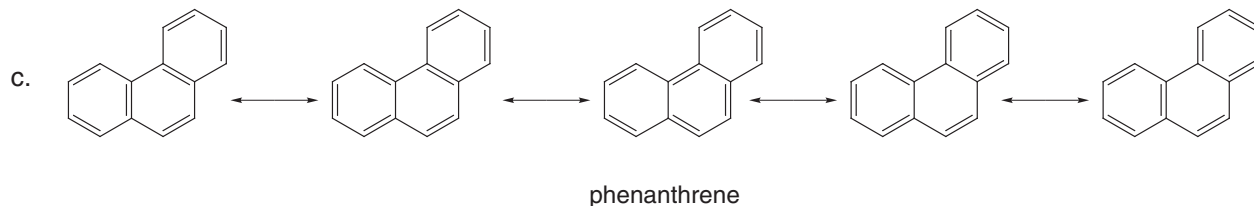
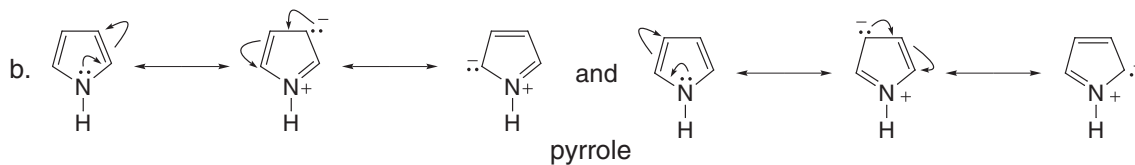
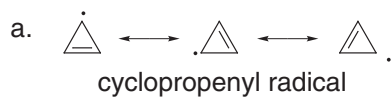


2 π electrons
 $4(0) + 2 = 2$
aromatic



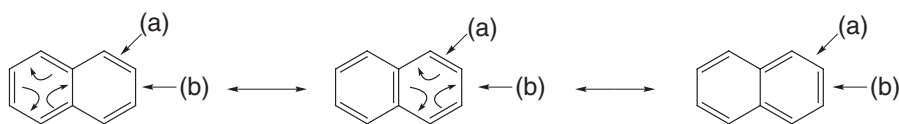
10 π electrons
 $4(2) + 2 = 10$
aromatic

15.27



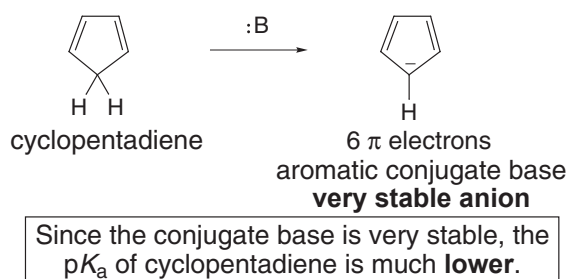
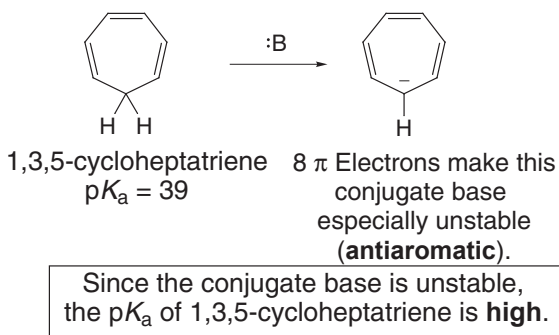
15.28

Naphthalene can be drawn as three resonance structures:

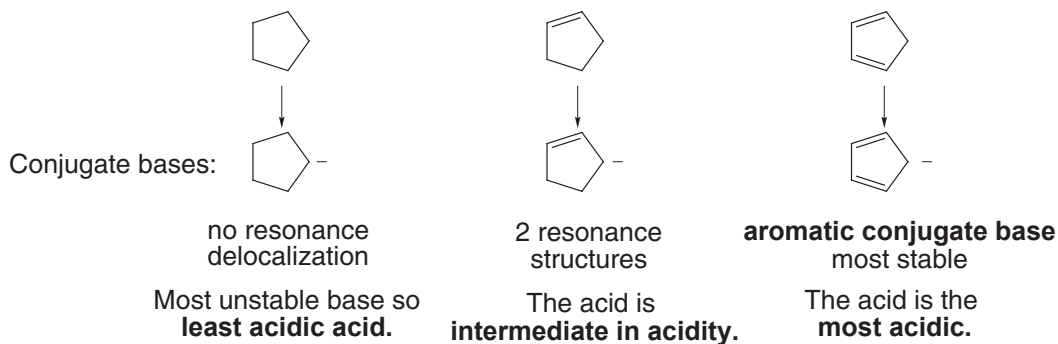


In two of the resonance structures bond (a) is a double bond, and bond (b) is a single bond. Therefore, bond (b) has more single bond character, making it longer.

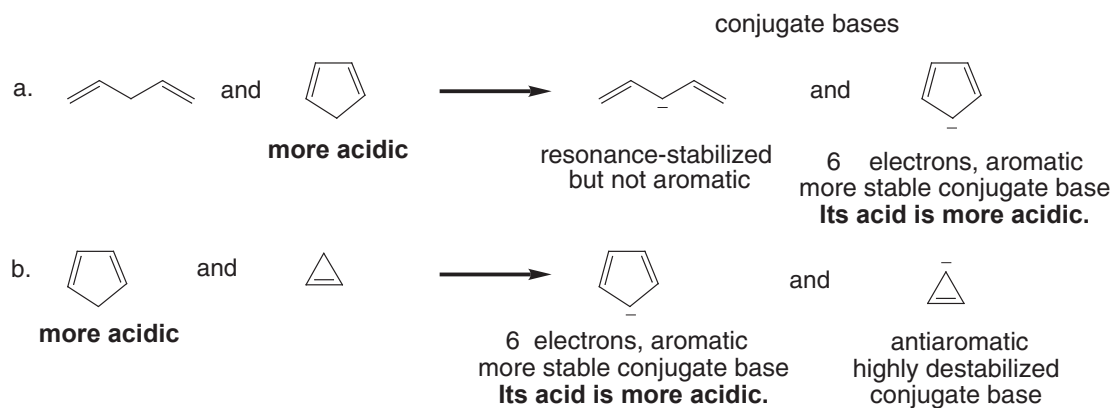
15.29 Confrontare la reazione dell'1,3,5-cicloheptatriene con una base, con quella del ciclopentadiene con una base. Ricordare che il composto con la base coniugata più stabile ha il pK_a più basso.



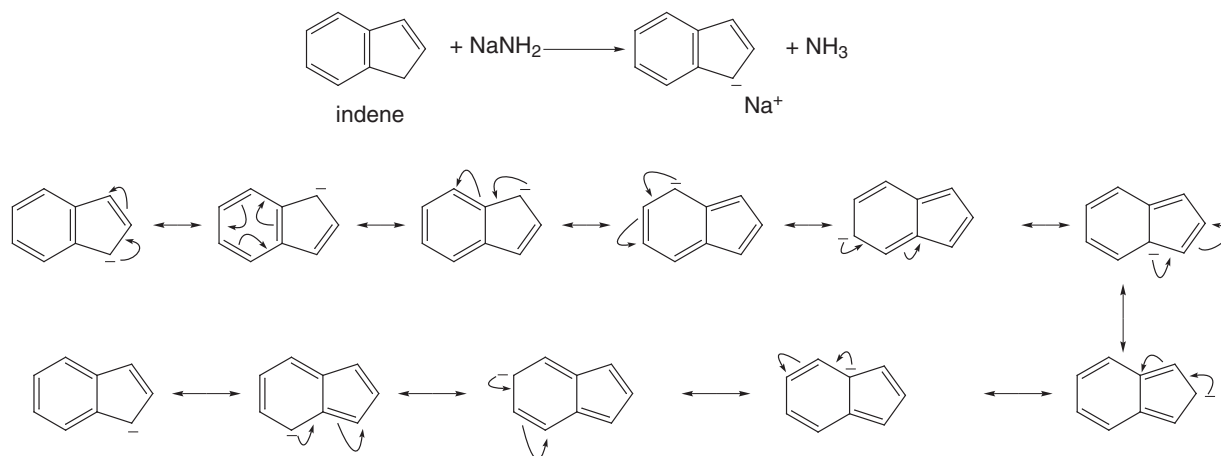
15.30 Il composto con la base coniugata più stabile è il più acido.



15.31 Il composto con la base coniugata più stabile è un acido più forte. Disegnare e confrontare le basi coniugate di ciascuna coppia di composti.

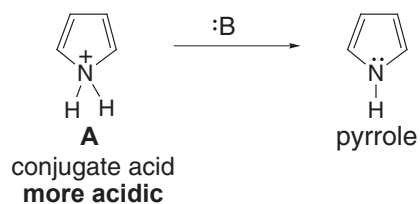


15.32

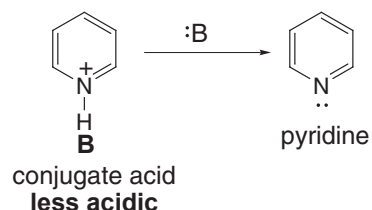


The conjugate base of indene has 10 electrons making it aromatic and very stable. Therefore, indene is more acidic than many hydrocarbons.

15.33



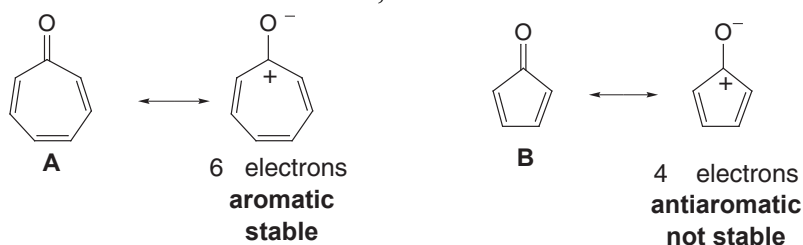
La perdita di un protone da **A** (che non è aromatico) dà due elettroni ad N, così il pirrolo ha sei elettroni π che possono essere delocalizzati nell'anello a cinque termini, rendendolo aromatico. Questo fa sì che la deprotonazione sia un processo altamente favorito.



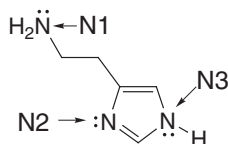
Sia **B** che la sua base coniugata (piridina) sono aromatici. Poiché **B** ha sei elettroni π , è già aromatico, così c'è meno da guadagnare nella deprotonazione, e quindi **B** è meno acido di **A**.

15.34 Una seconda struttura di risonanza per **A** mostra che l'anello è completamente coniugato ed ha 6 elettroni π , e quindi è aromatico e particolarmente stabile. Una simile struttura

risonante a separazione di carica per **B** rende l'anello completamente coniugato, ma dà all'anello 4 elettroni π , rendendolo antiaromatico ed instabile.



15.35



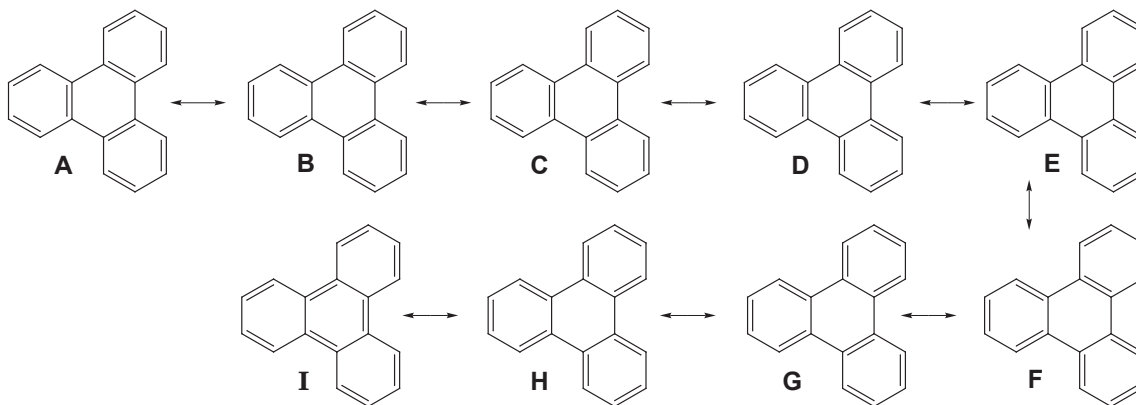
N1: La coppia elettronica occupa un orbitale ibrido sp^3 su un atomo di N.

N2: La coppia elettronica si trova in un orbitale ibrido sp^2 e non è delocalizzata sull'anello a cinque termini.

N3: La coppia elettronica è in un orbitale p , delocalizzata sull'anello a cinque termini, rendendolo aromatico.

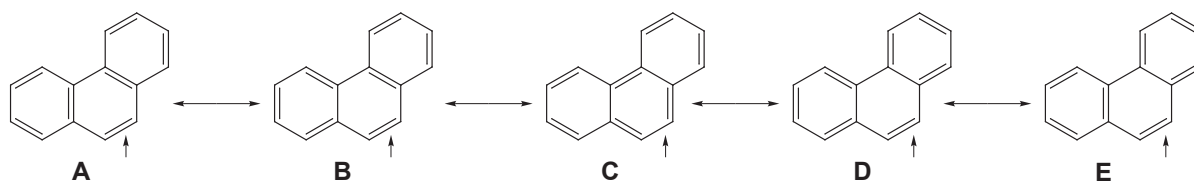
La basicità dipende dalla capacità di un atomo a donare una coppia elettronica. Le coppie elettroniche che sono delocalizzate in un sistema π rendendolo aromatico, sono meno disponibili per la donazione elettronica, e quindi risulta meno basico. La basicità dipende anche dalla percentuale di carattere s . Più alta è la percentuale di carattere di s , più debole è la base. Gli elettroni sono trattenuti più vicini al nucleo e quindi sono meno disponibili per la donazione elettronica. Perciò, la basicità in ordine crescente è: $N3 < N2 < N1$.

15.36 Strutture risonanti per il trifenilene:



Tutte le strutture risonanti **A–H** hanno tre legami doppi e tre singoli nei tre anelli esterni a sei termini. Ciò significa che ogni anello si comporta come un benzene isolato, dando sostituzione piuttosto che addizione perché la densità degli elettroni π è delocalizzata in ogni anello a sei termini. Solo la struttura di risonanza **I** non ha questa forma. Ogni legame C–C del trifenilene ha quattro (o cinque) strutture risonanti in cui è un legame singolo e quattro (o cinque) strutture risonanti in cui è un legame doppio.

Strutture risonanti per il fenantrene:

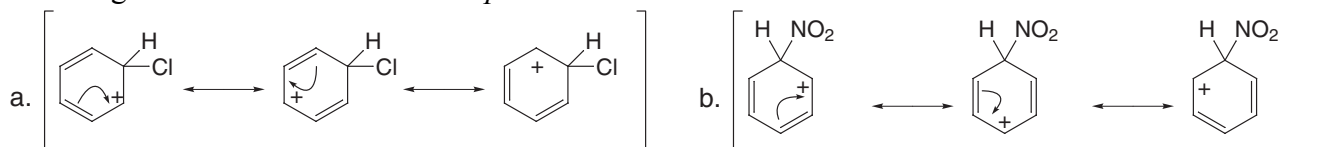
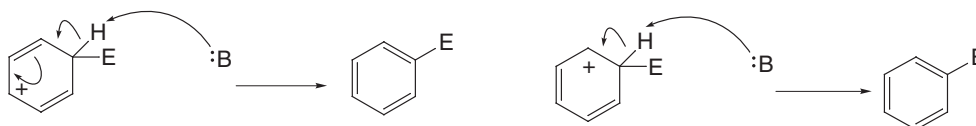


Con il fenantrene, quattro delle cinque strutture risonanti hanno un doppio legame sui carboni indicati (Solo **C** non ne ha). Questo significa che questi due atomi di C hanno un maggior carattere di doppio legame degli altri legami C–C nel fenantrene, rendendoli più soggetti alla reazione di addizione che alla sostituzione.

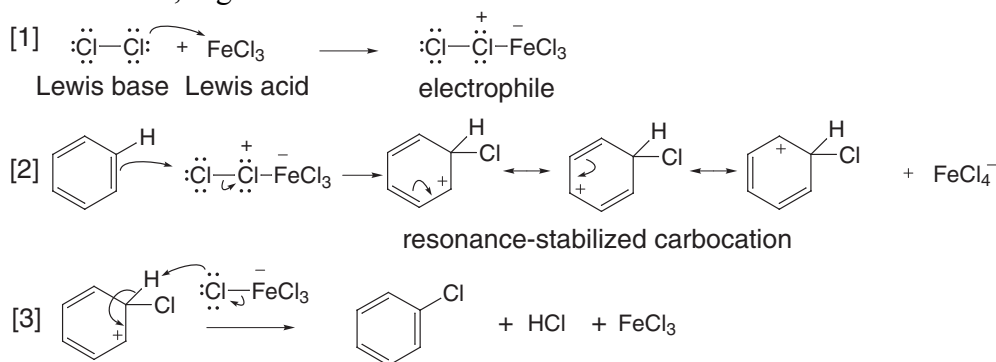
Capitolo 16

16.1 Gli elettroni π del benzene sono delocalizzati sui sei atomi dell'anello, aumentando la stabilità del benzene e risultando meno disponibili per la donazione elettronica. In un alchene, i due elettroni π sono localizzati tra i due atomi di C, che risultano più nucleofili e quindi più reattivi con un elettrofilo rispetto agli elettroni delocalizzati nel benzene.

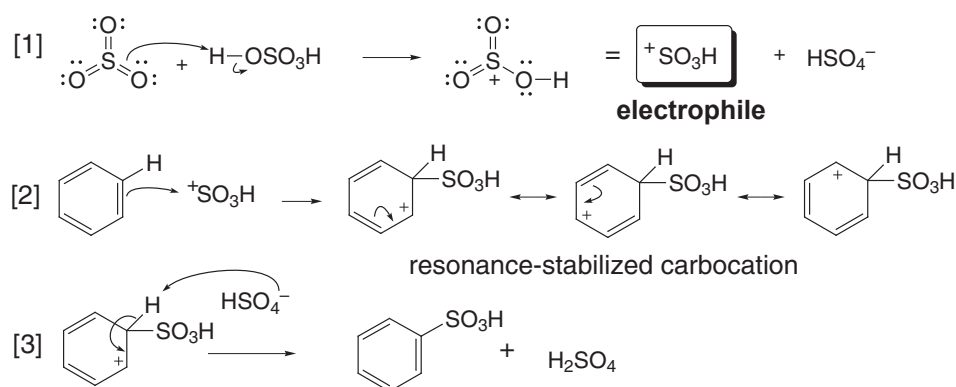
16.2 Quando si disegnano le strutture di risonanza, la carica è sempre posizionata in orto o para ad uno degli atomi dell'anello ibridati sp^3 .

**16.4**

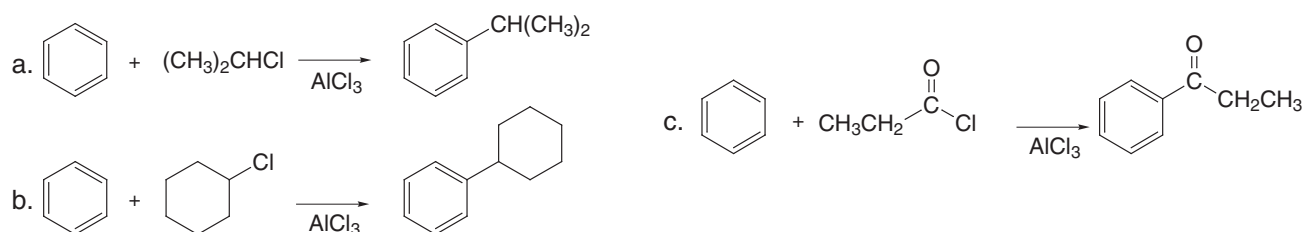
16.5 L'addizione di Cl_2 con FeCl_3 come catalizzatore avviene in due parti. La prima è la formazione di un elettrofilo, seguita da una reazione di sostituzione in due stadi.



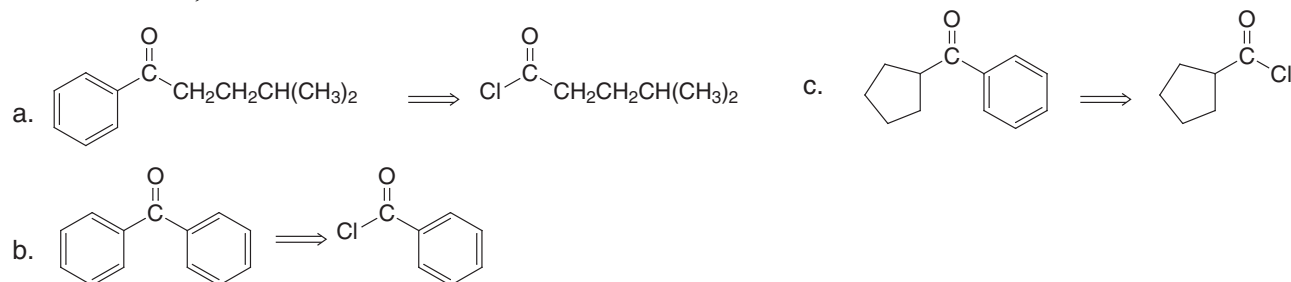
16.6 Nel meccanismo ci sono due parti. La prima parte è la formazione di un elettrofilo. La seconda parte è una reazione di sostituzione in due stadi.



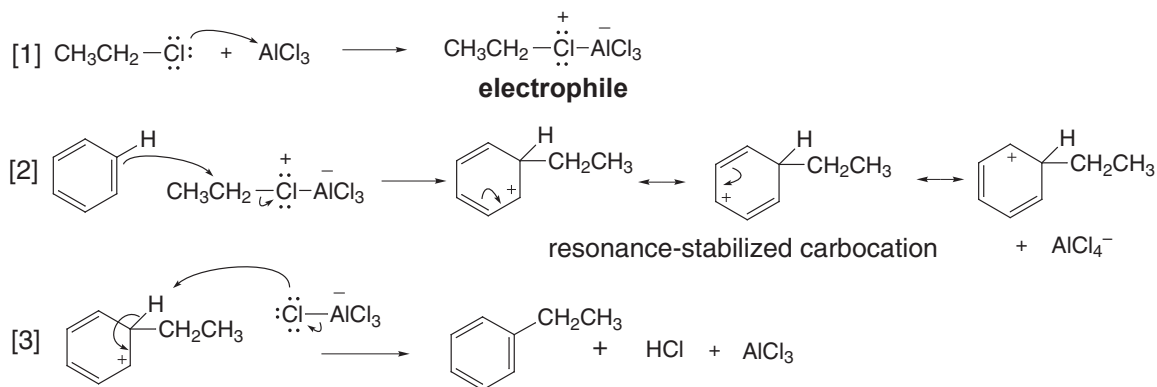
16.7 L'alchilazione di Friedel–Crafts consiste nel trasferimento di un gruppo alchilico da un alogeno all'anello benzenico. Nell'acilazione di Friedel–Crafts un gruppo acilico è trasferito da un alogeno all'anello benzenico.



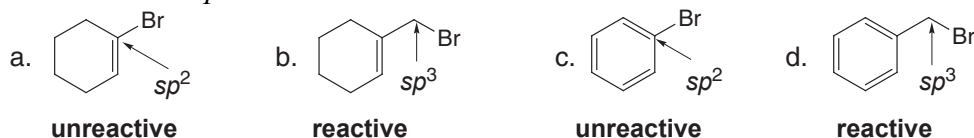
16.8 Ricordare che un gruppo acilico è trasferito da un atomo di Cl all'anello benzenico. Per disegnare il cloruro acilico, sostituire un Cl all'anello del benzene.



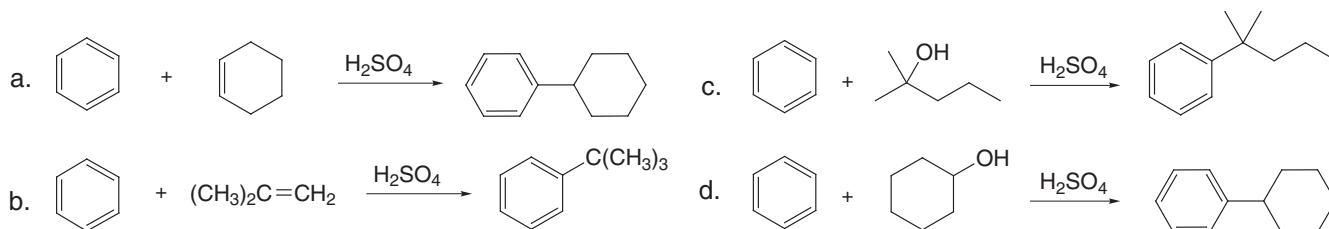
16.9



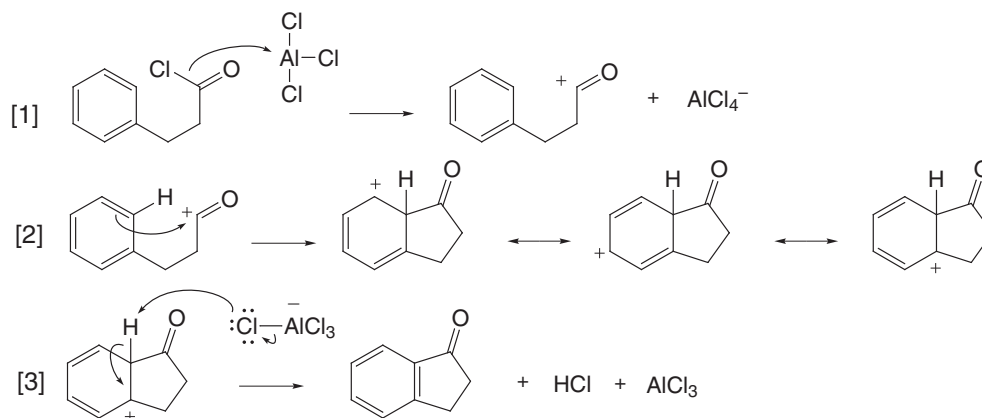
16.10 Per reagire in una reazione di alchilazione di Friedel–Crafts, X deve essere legato ad un atomo di carbonio ibridato sp^3 .



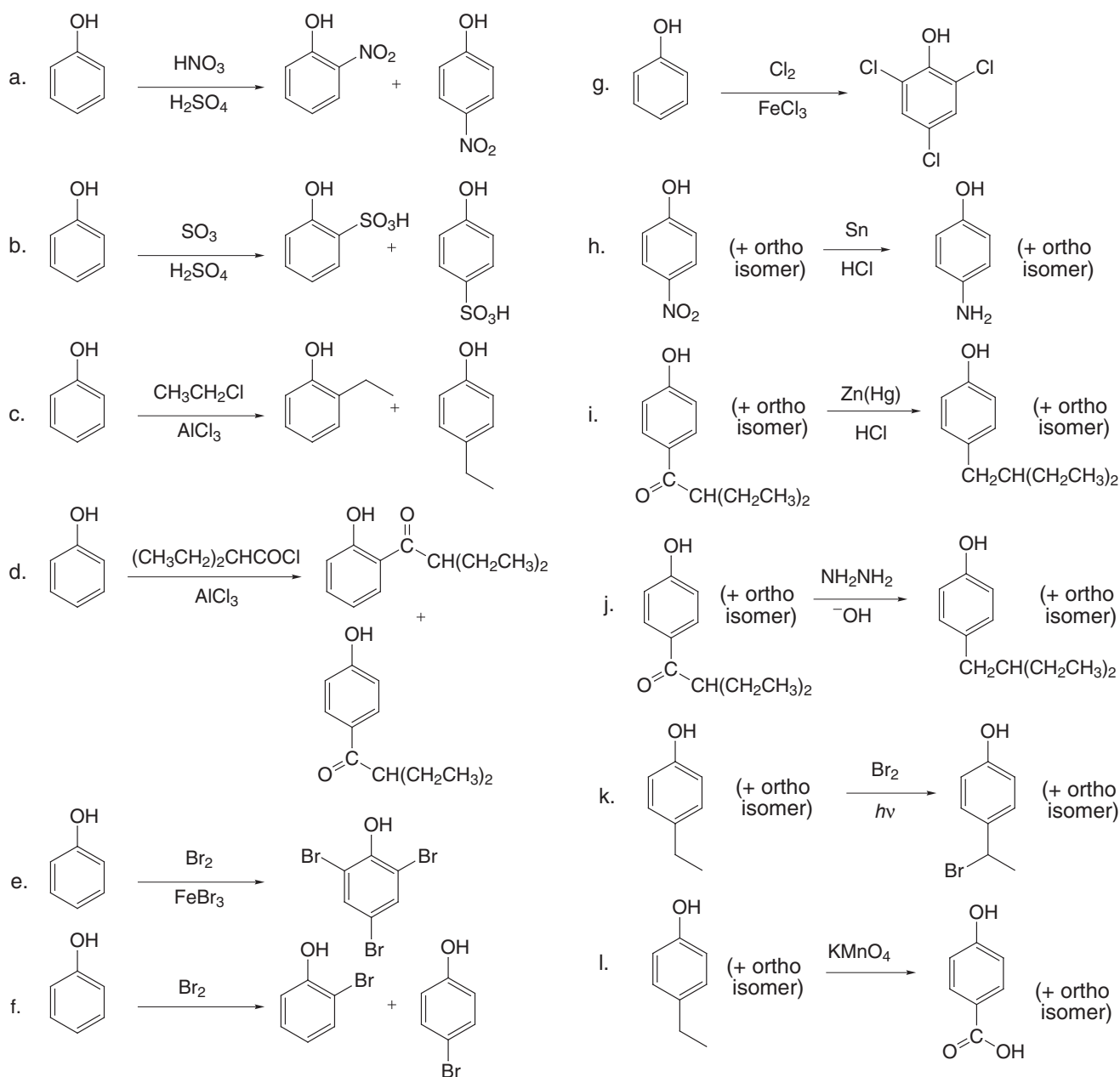
16.11 Sia gli alcheni che gli alcoli possono formare carbocationi per le reazioni di alchilazione di Friedel–Crafts.



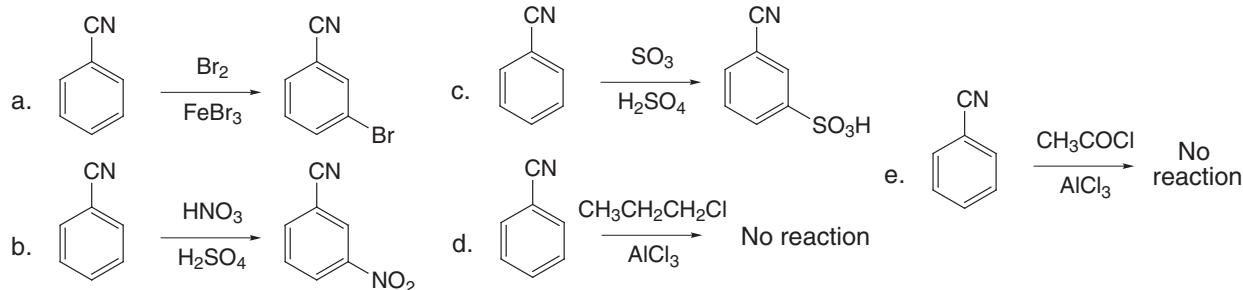
16.12



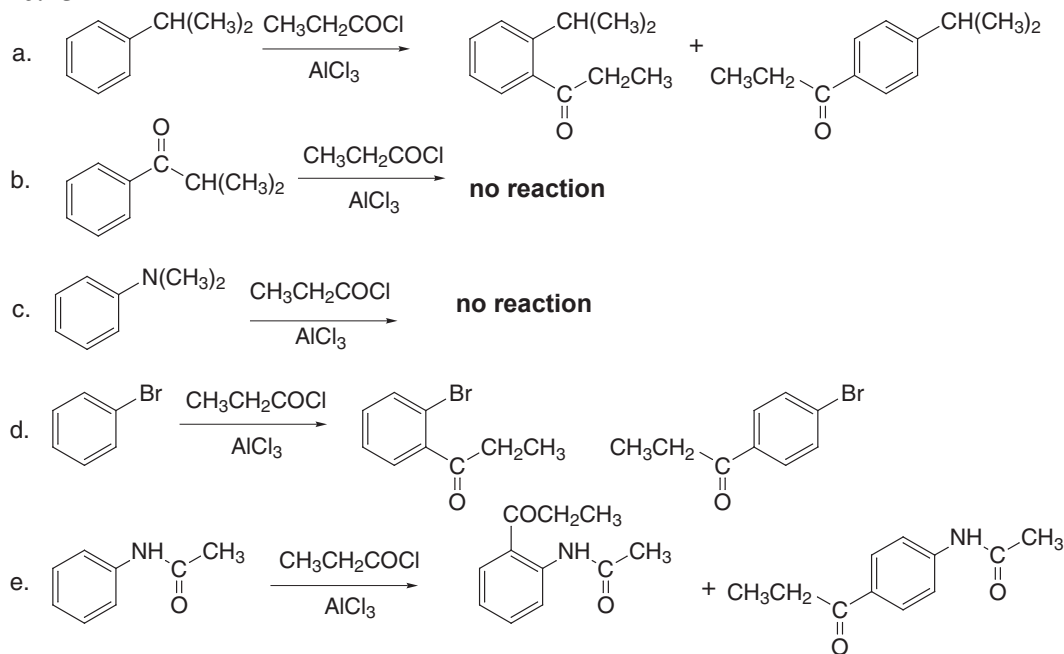
16.13 L'OH è orto, para orientante.



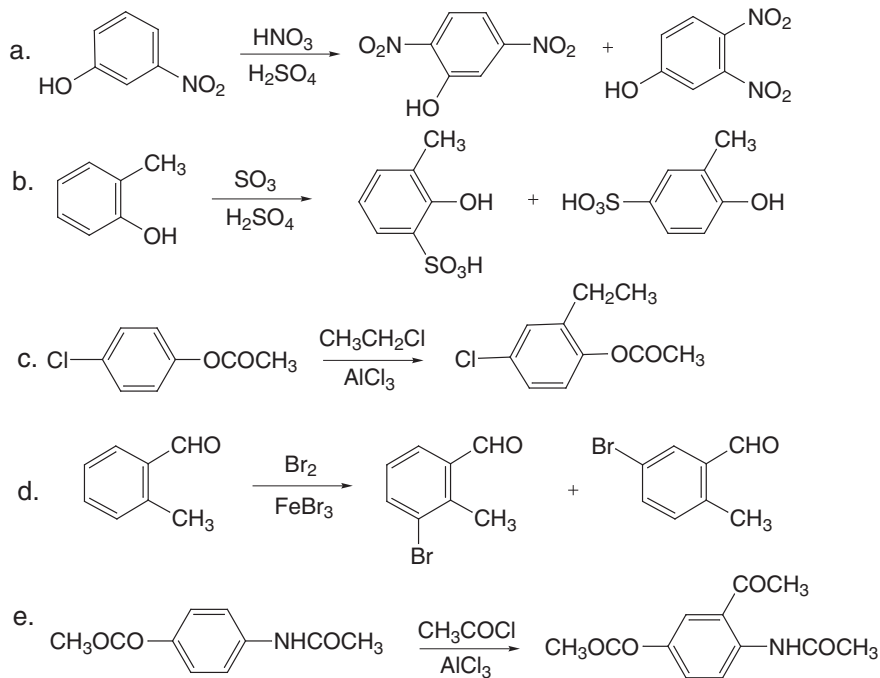
16.14 CN è meta orientante che disattiva l'anello del benzene.

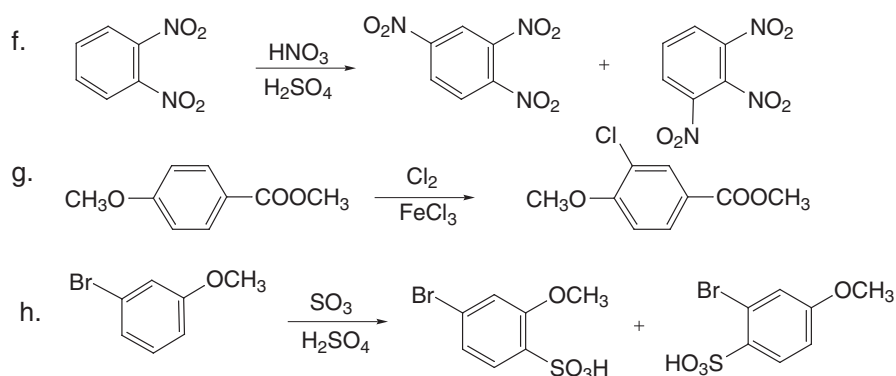
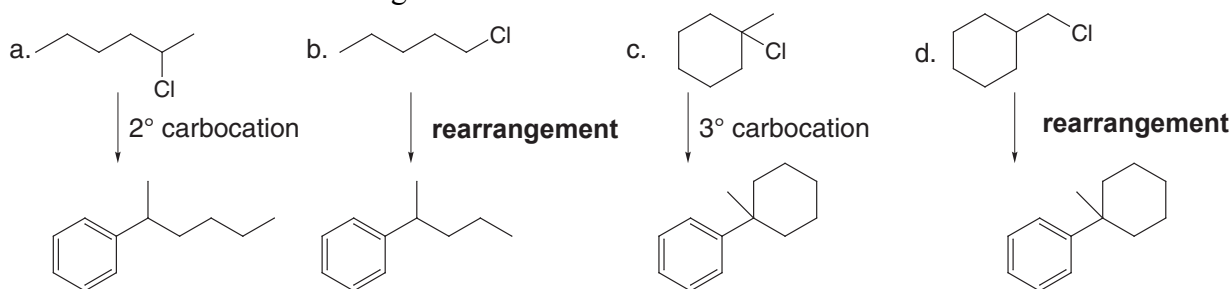
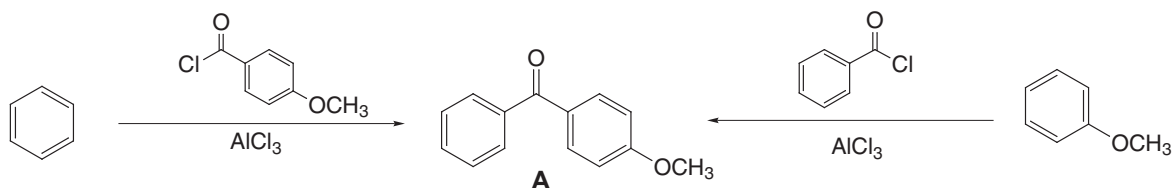
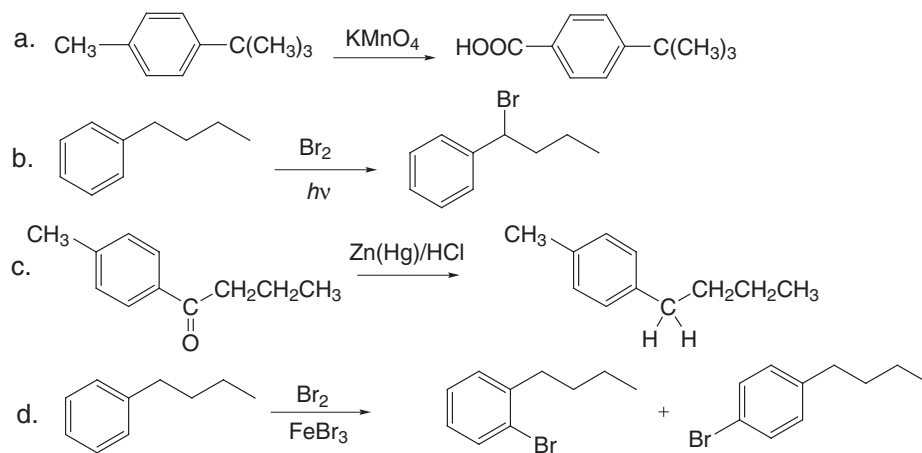


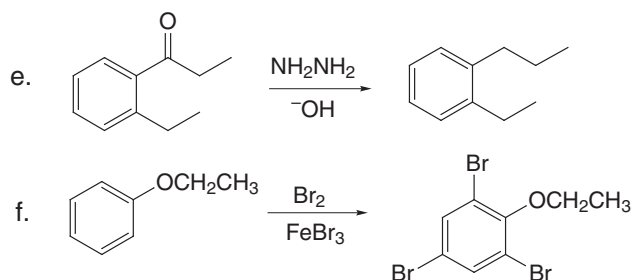
16.15



16.16

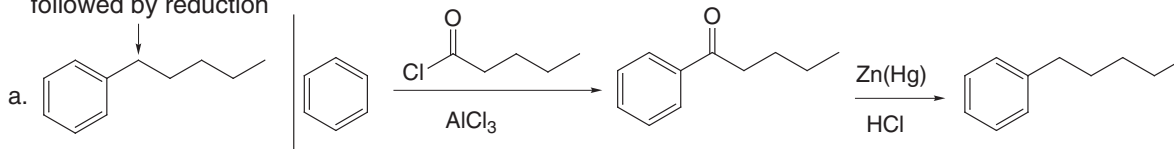


**16.17** Tenere conto dei riarrangiamenti.**16.18****16.19**

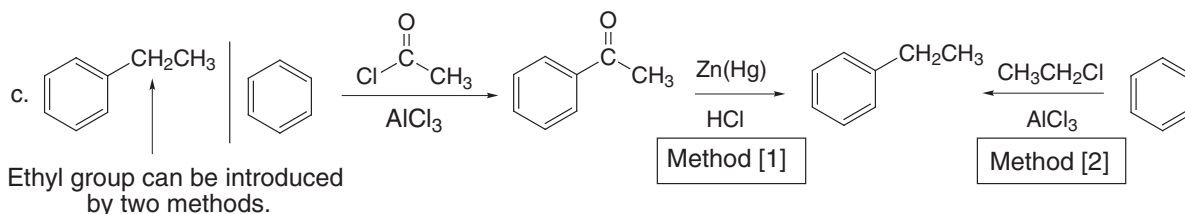
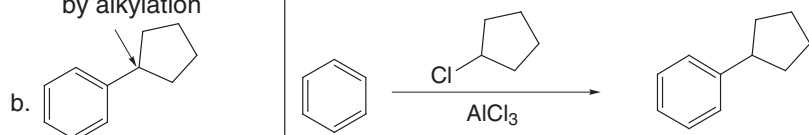


16.20

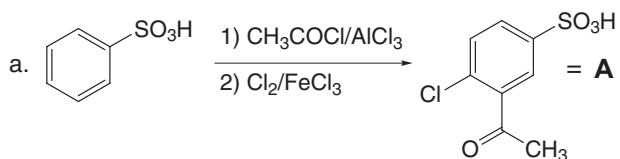
C bonded to 2 H's
must use acylation
followed by reduction



C bonded to 1H
can be added directly
by alkylation

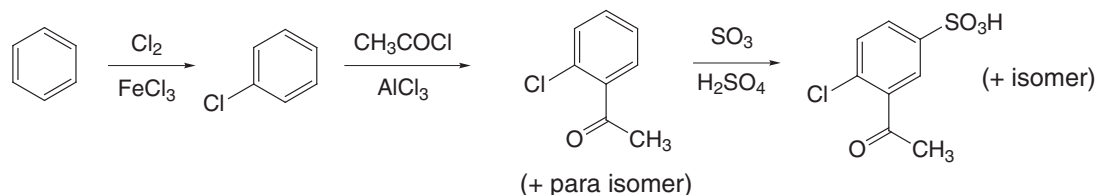


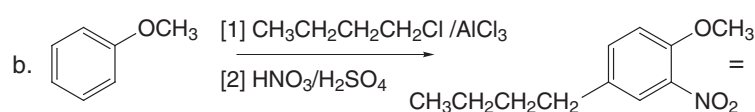
16.21



Step [1] won't work because a Friedel–Crafts reaction can't be done on a deactivated benzene ring, as is the case with the SO_3H substituent. Even if Step [1] did work, the second step would introduce Cl meta to SO_3H , not para as drawn.

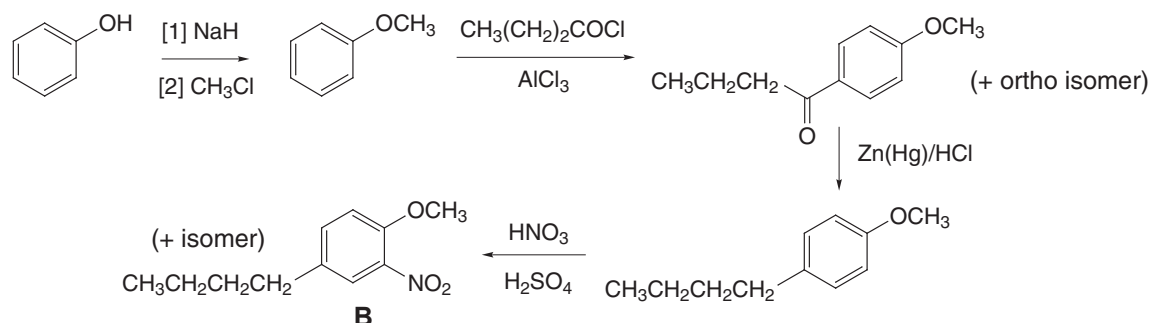
Alternate synthesis:





Step [1] involves a Friedel–Crafts alkylation using a 1° alkyl halide that will undergo rearrangement, so that a butyl group will not be introduced as a side chain.

Alternate synthesis:



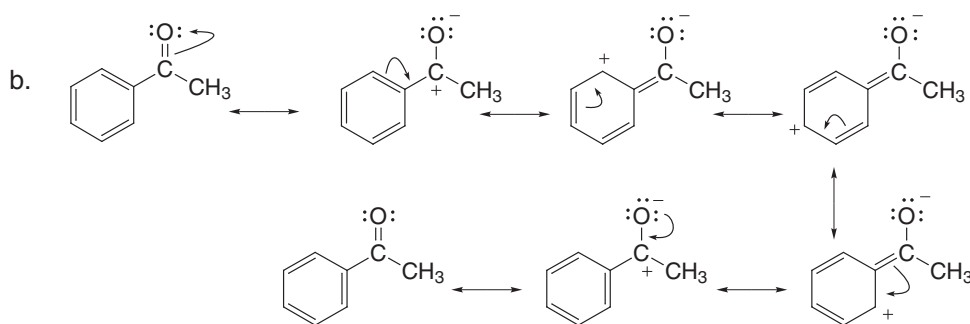
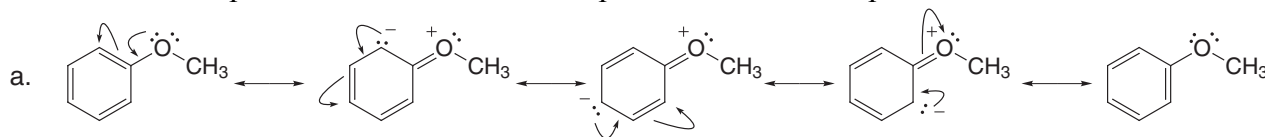
16.22

a. $-\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$
alkyl group
electron donating

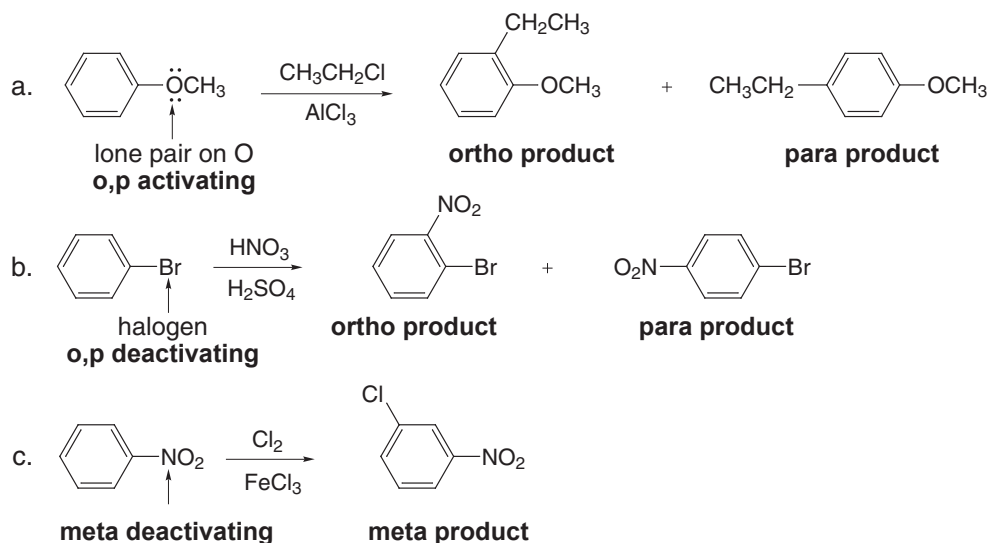
b. $-\text{Br}$
halide
electron withdrawing

c. $-\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_3$
electronegative O
electron withdrawing

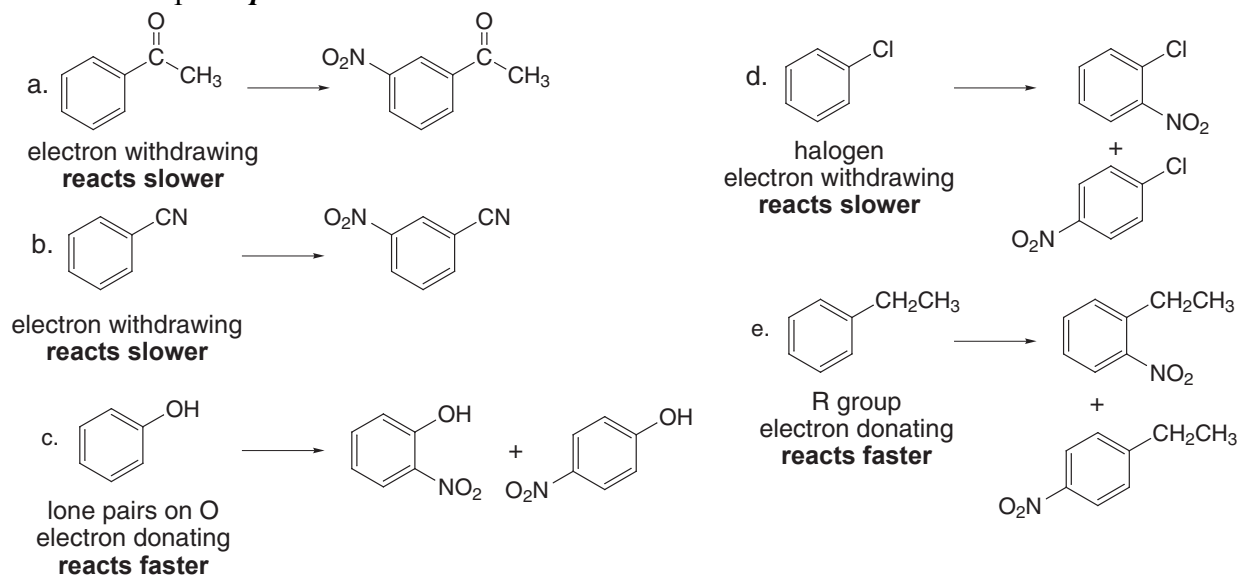
16.23 I gruppi elettron donatori posizionano una carica negativa sull'anello del benzene. Disegnare le strutture di risonanza per mostrare come $-\text{OCH}_3$ posiziona una carica negativa sull'anello. I gruppi elettron attrattori collocano una carica positiva sul benzene. Disegnare le strutture di risonanza per mostrare come $-\text{COCH}_3$ posiziona una carica positiva sull'anello.



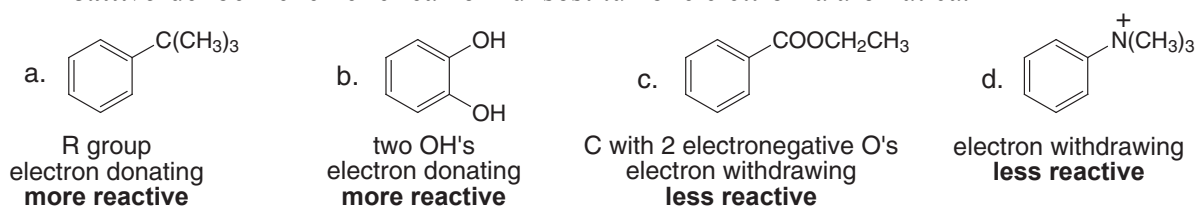
16.24 Prima classificare i composti di partenza come: orto, para attivanti, orto, para disattivanti, o meta disattivanti. Quindi disegnare i prodotti.



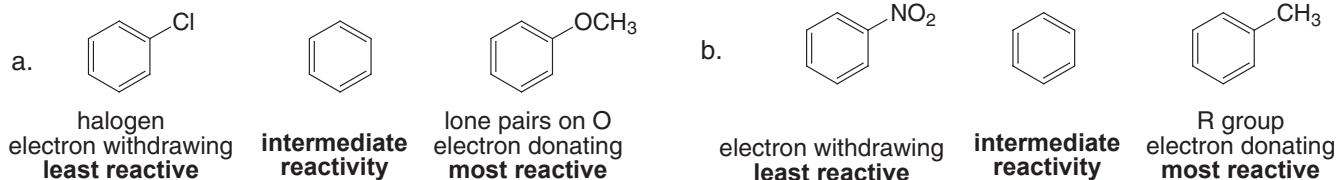
16.25 I gruppi elettron-donatori fanno reagire il composto *più velocemente* del benzene nelle reazioni di sostituzione elettrofila aromatica. I gruppi elettron-attrattori fanno reagire il composto *più lentamente* del benzene nelle reazioni di sostituzione elettrofila aromatica.



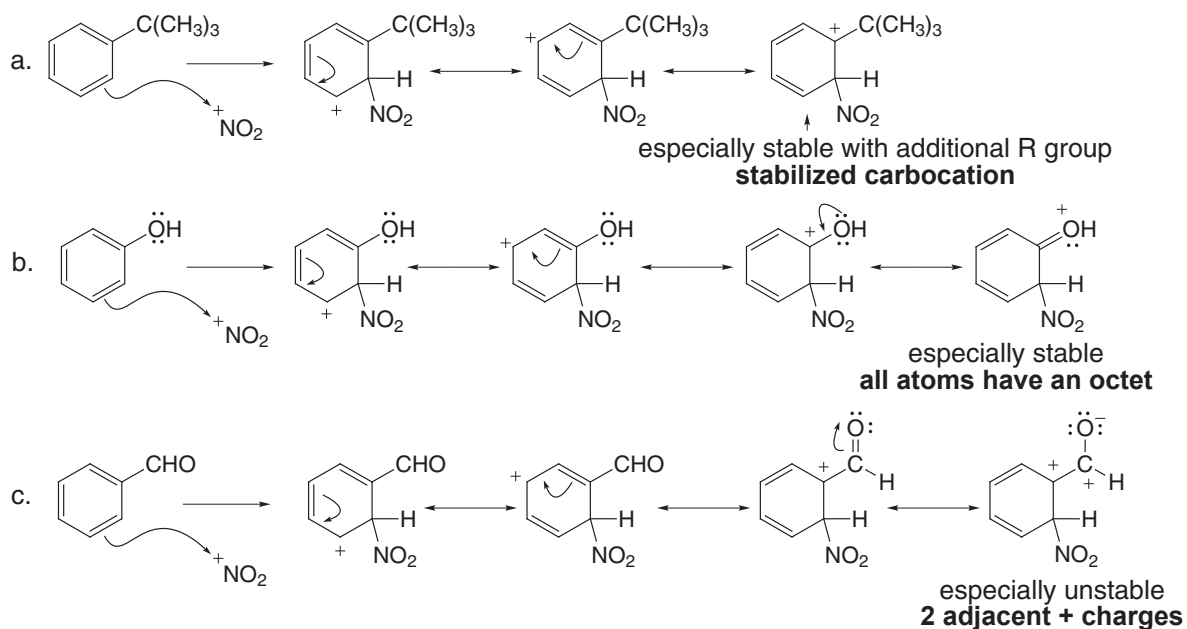
16.26 I gruppi elettron-donatori rendono il composto *più reattivo* del benzene nelle reazioni di sostituzione elettrofila aromatica. I gruppi elettron-attrattori rendono il composto *meno reattivo* del benzene nelle reazioni di sostituzione elettrofila aromatica.



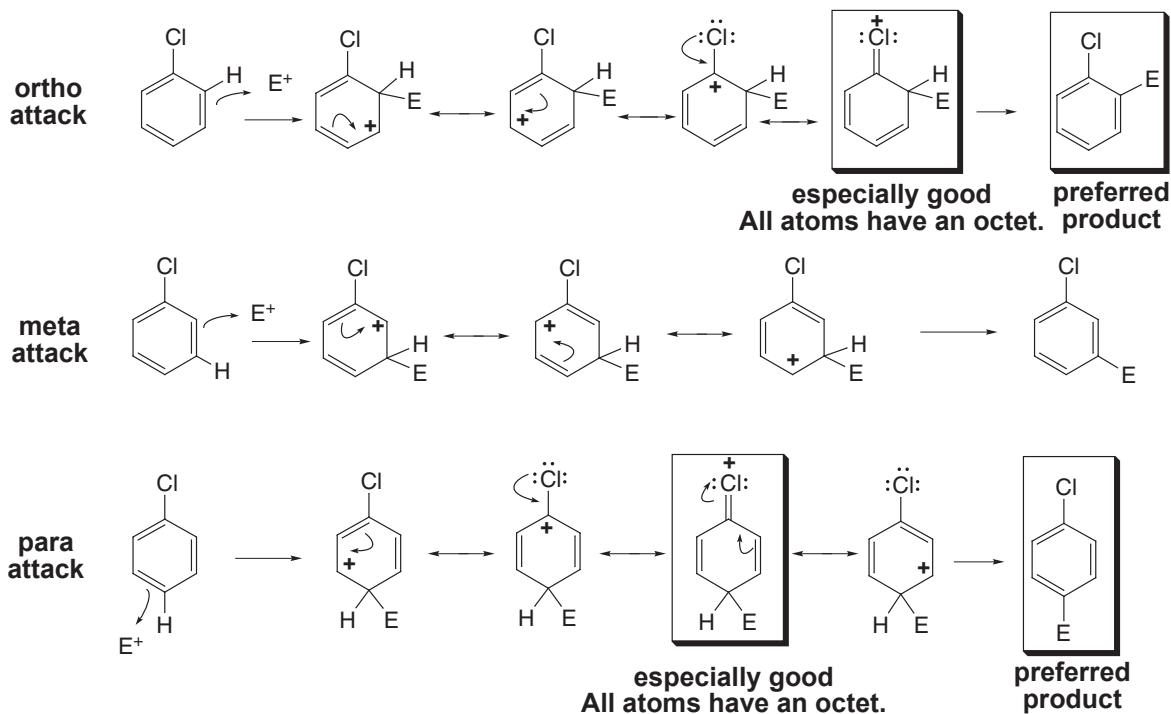
16.27



16.28 Strutture risonanti particolarmente stabili hanno tutti gli atomi con un otetto. I carbocationi con più gruppi R elettron-donatori sono anche strutture più stabili. Strutture risonanti particolarmente instabili hanno cariche adiacenti uguali.

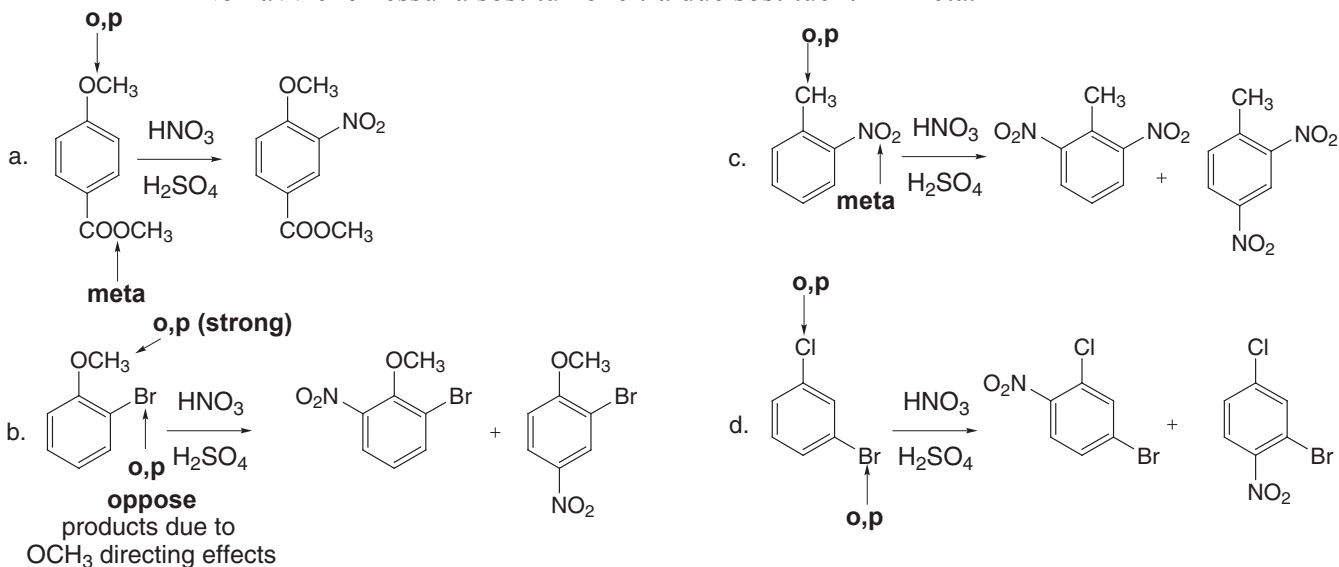


16.29

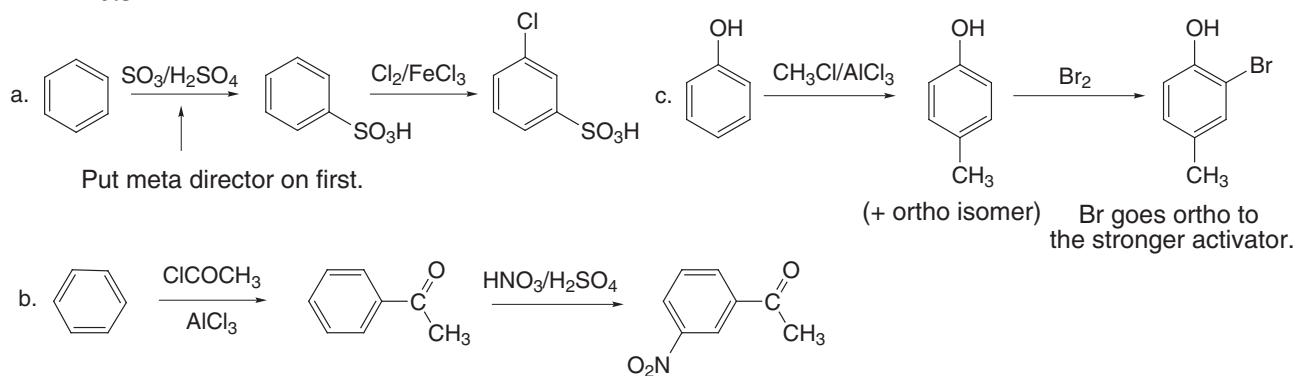


16.30 Per disegnare il prodotto di reazione con $\text{HNO}_3/\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ ed i derivati benzenici disostituiti ricordare:

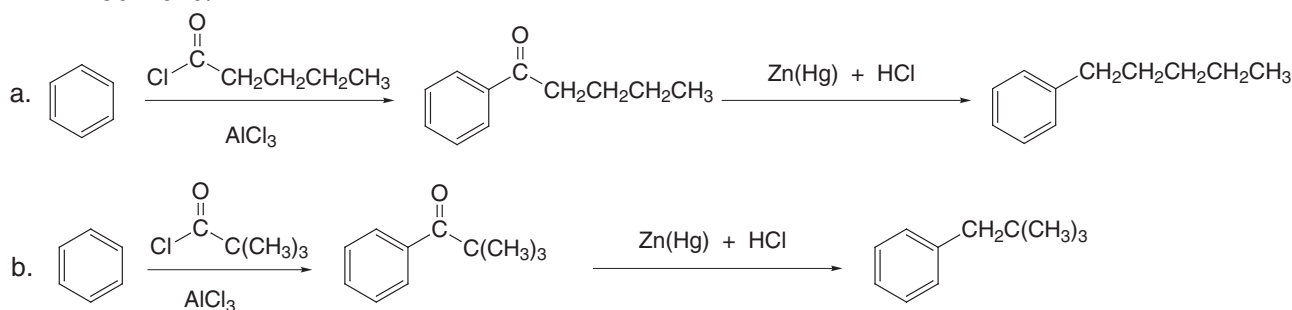
- Se i due effetti orientanti si rinforzano a vicenda, il nuovo sostituito sarà collocato nella posizione attivata da entrambi.
- Se gli effetti orientanti sono opposti, predomina l'effetto del gruppo attivante più forte.
- Non avviene nessuna sostituzione tra due sostituenti in meta.



16.31

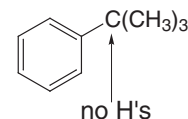


16.32 Prima usare una reazione di acilazione, e quindi ridurre il gruppo carbonilico per formare l'alchil benzene.

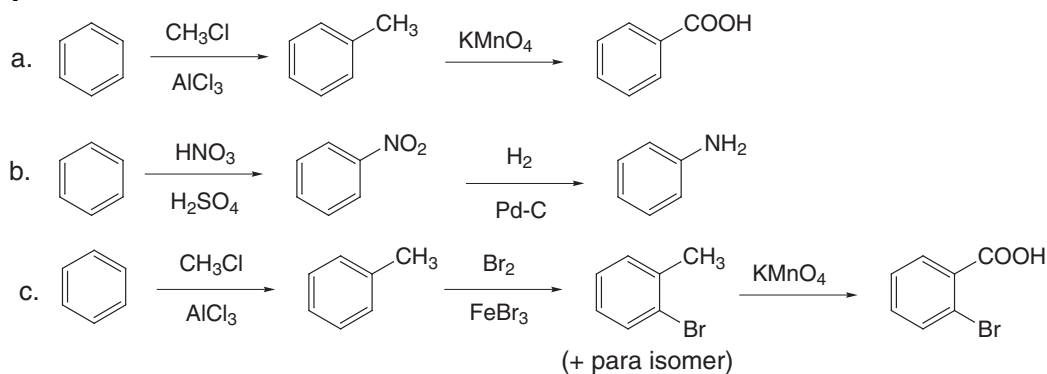


16.33

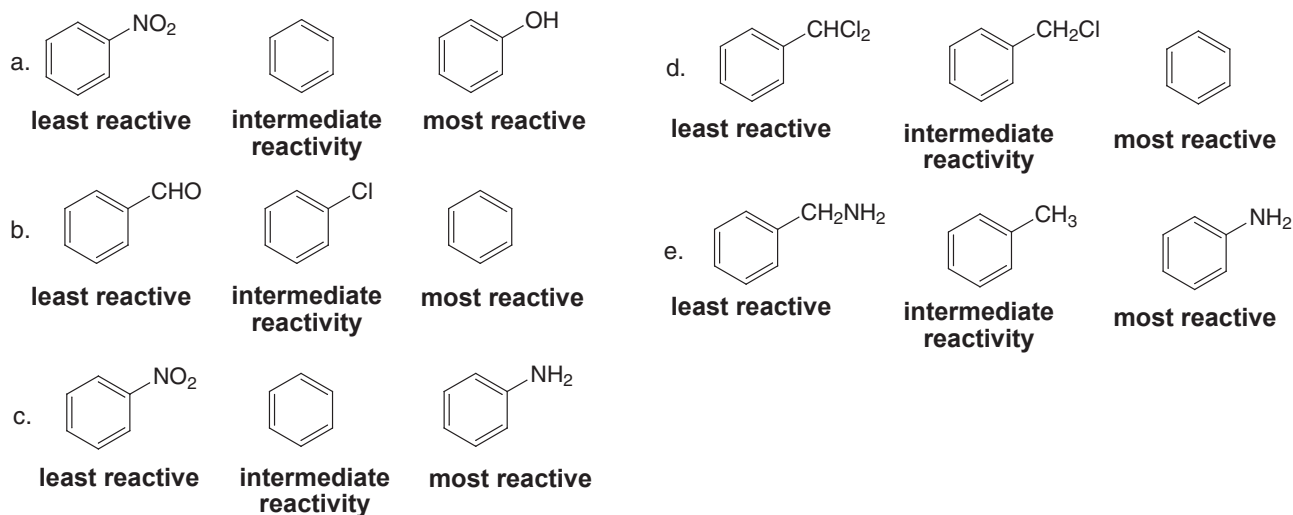
$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{C}(\text{CH}_3)_3$ cannot be made by Friedel–Crafts acylation because there are no benzylic hydrogens. All products of Friedel–Crafts acylation followed by reduction have two benzylic hydrogens where the $\text{C}=\text{O}$ was reduced. $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{C}(\text{CH}_3)_3$ can be made by Friedel–Crafts alkylation using $(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{CCl}$ and AlCl_3 .



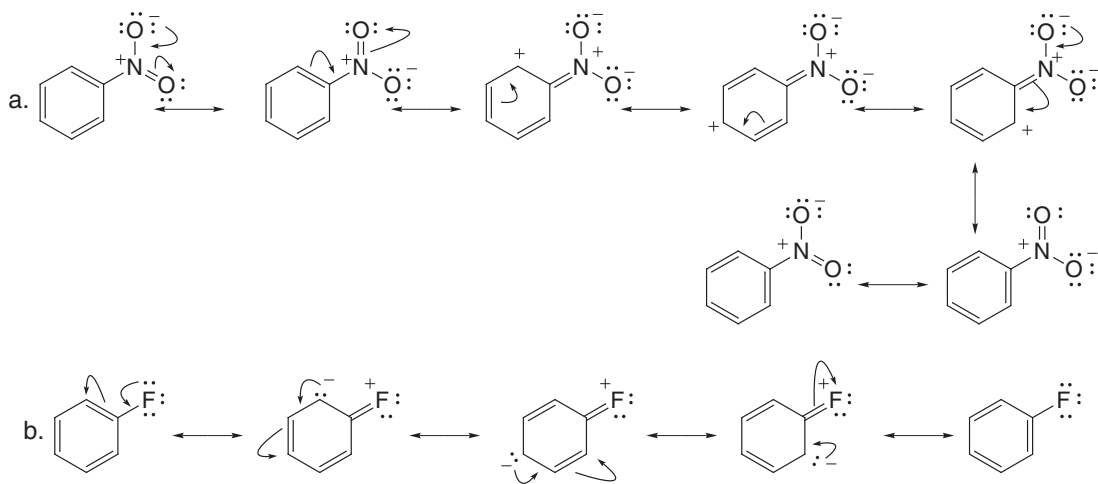
16.34



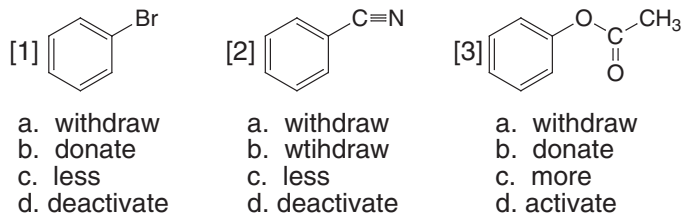
16.35 Usare le indicazioni della risposta 16.26 per mettere in ordine i composti.



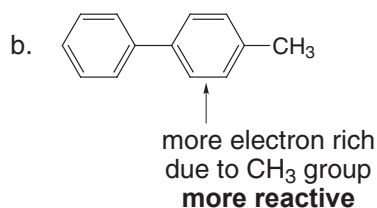
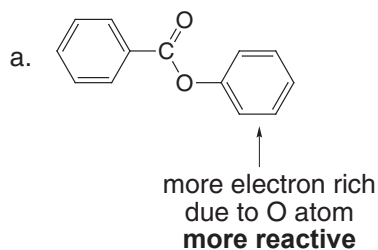
16.36 Gruppi elettron-attrattori delocalizzano una carica positiva sull'anello benzenico. Disegnare le strutture di risonanza per mostrare come NO₂ colloca una carica positiva nell'anello, generando un effetto di risonanza elettron-attrattore. Gruppi elettron-donatori delocalizzano una carica negativa sull'anello benzenico. Disegnare le strutture di risonanza per mostrare come F colloca una carica negativa nell'anello, generando un effetto di risonanza elettron-donatore.



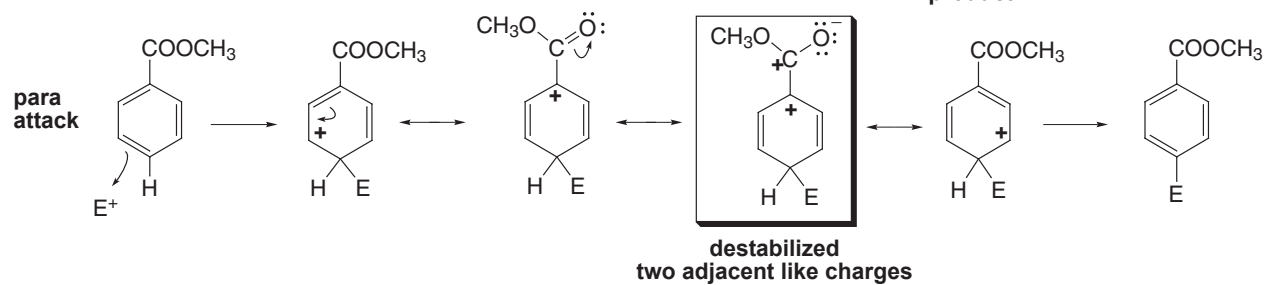
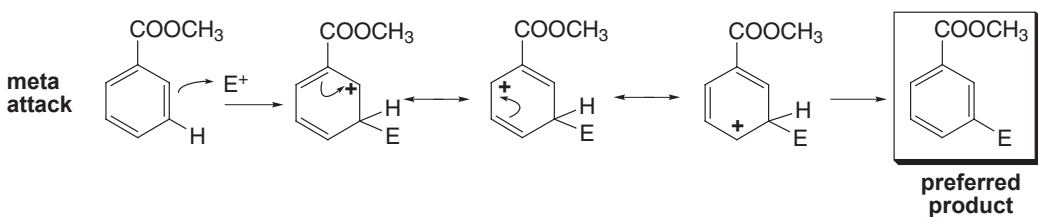
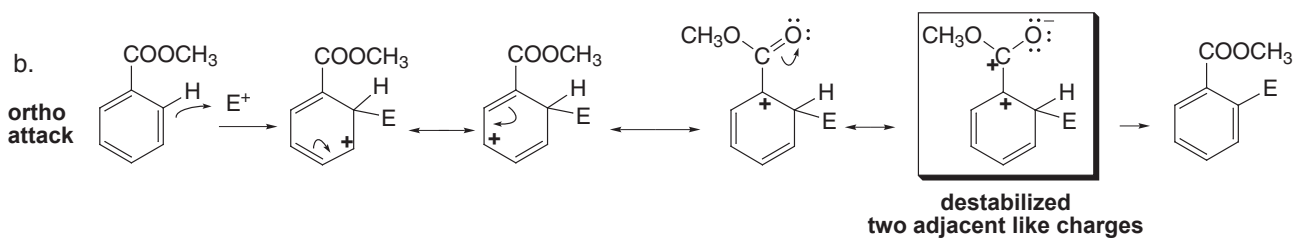
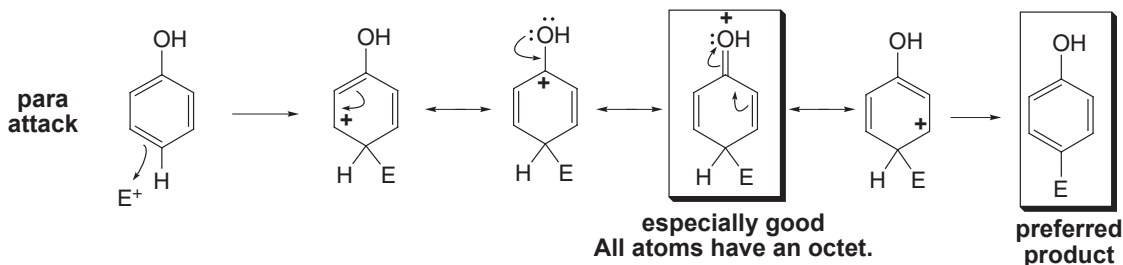
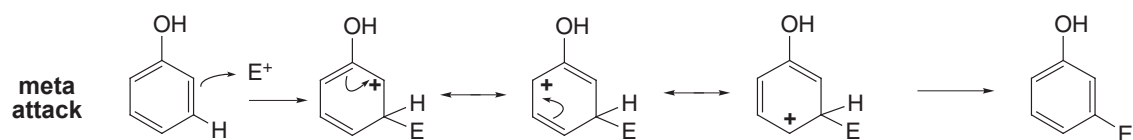
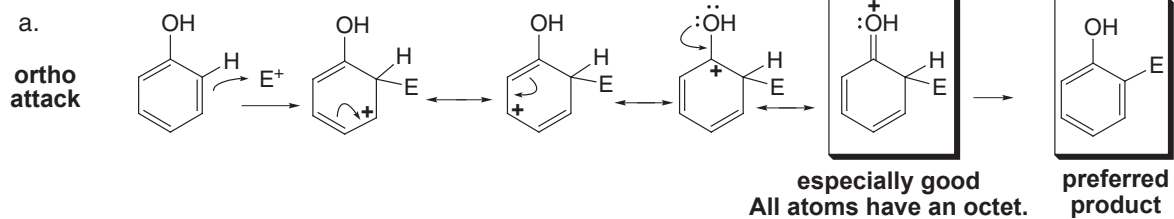
16.37



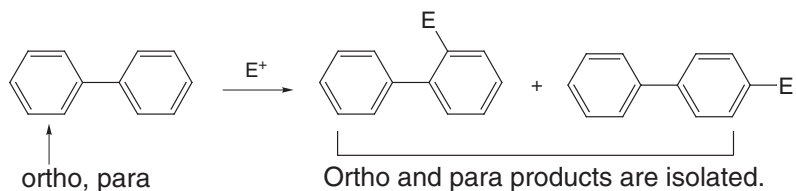
16.38



16.39



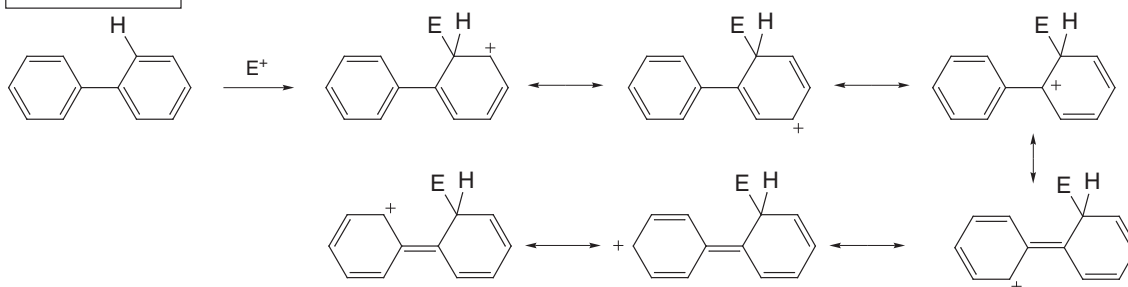
16.40



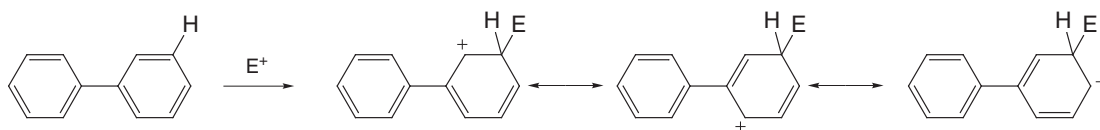
A benzene ring is an electron rich substituent that stabilizes an intermediate positive charge by an electron donating resonance effect. As a result, it activates a benzene ring toward reaction with electrophiles.

With ortho and para attack there is additional resonance stabilization that delocalizes the positive charge onto the second benzene ring. Such additional stabilization is not possible with meta attack.

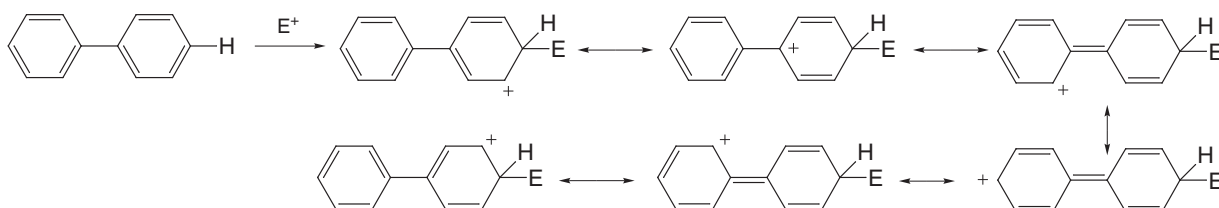
Ortho attack:



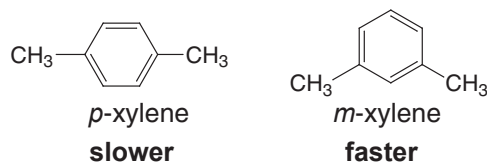
Meta attack:



Para attack:

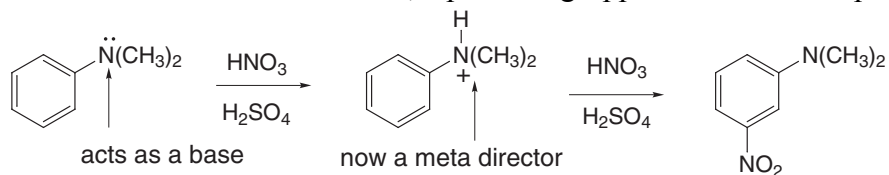
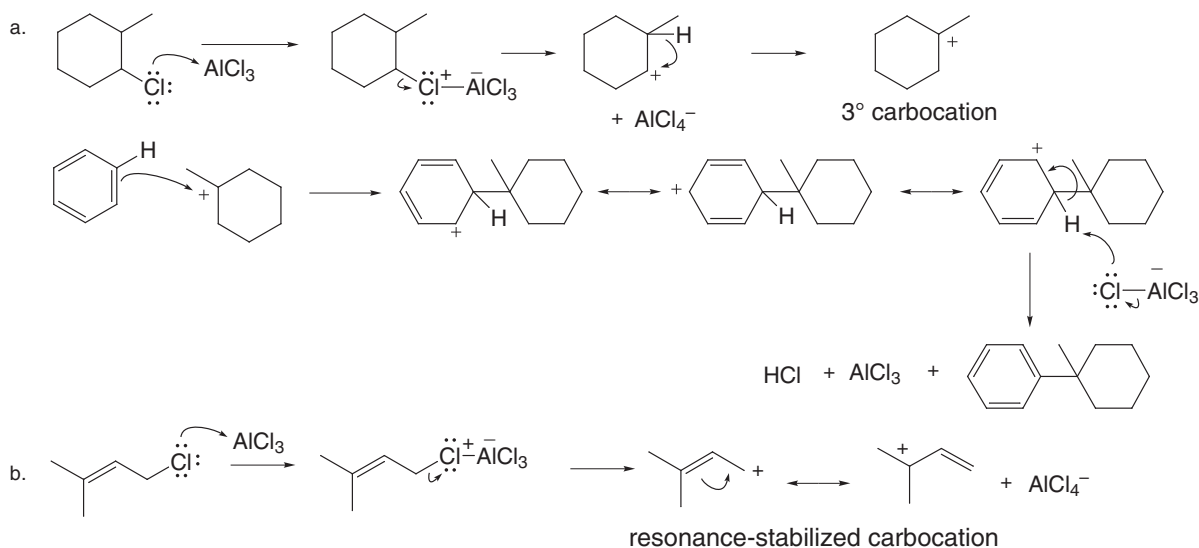


16.41

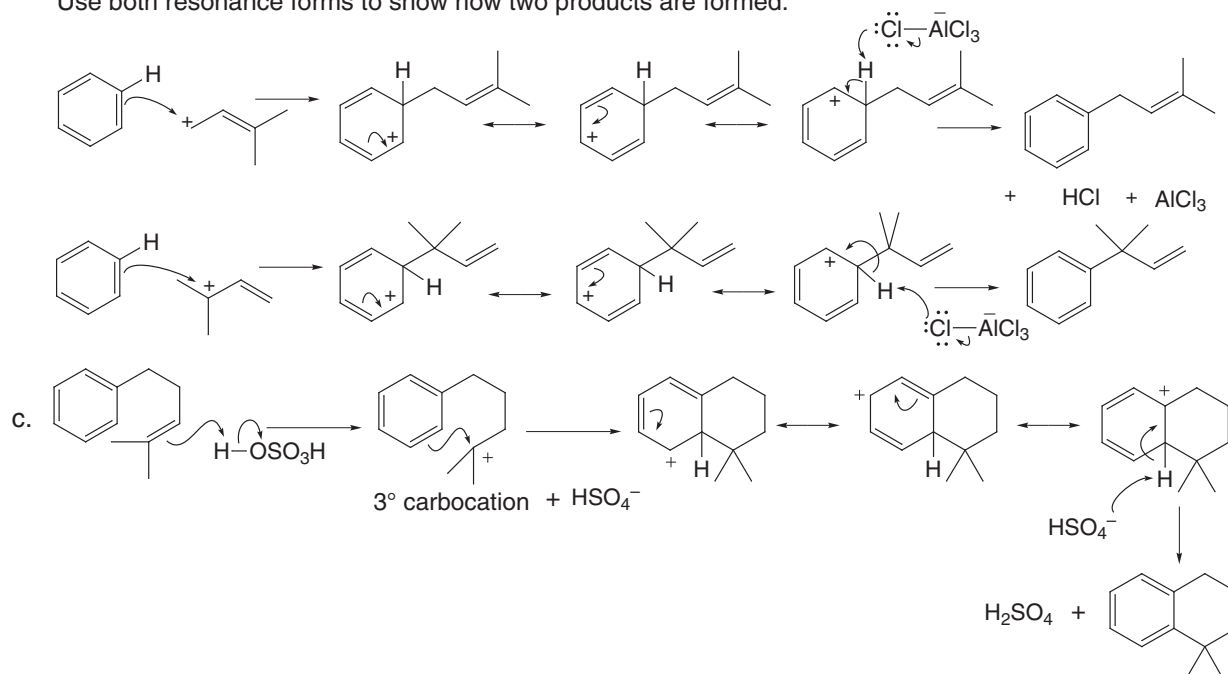


CH_3 is an ortho, para director. In *m*-xylene, the directing effects of the two CH_3 groups reinforce each other, making it react faster. In *p*-xylene, the two groups activate different C's, so the reaction is slower.

16.42 Nelle condizioni acide della nitratura, l'atomo di N del composto di partenza risulta protonato, così l'atomo direttamente legato all'anello del benzene ha una carica (+). Questo lo rende meta orientante, e perciò il gruppo NO_2 attacca in posizione meta.

**16.43**

Use both resonance forms to show how two products are formed.

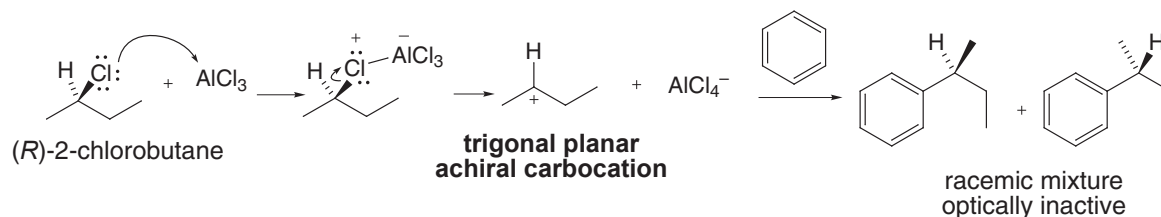


16.44

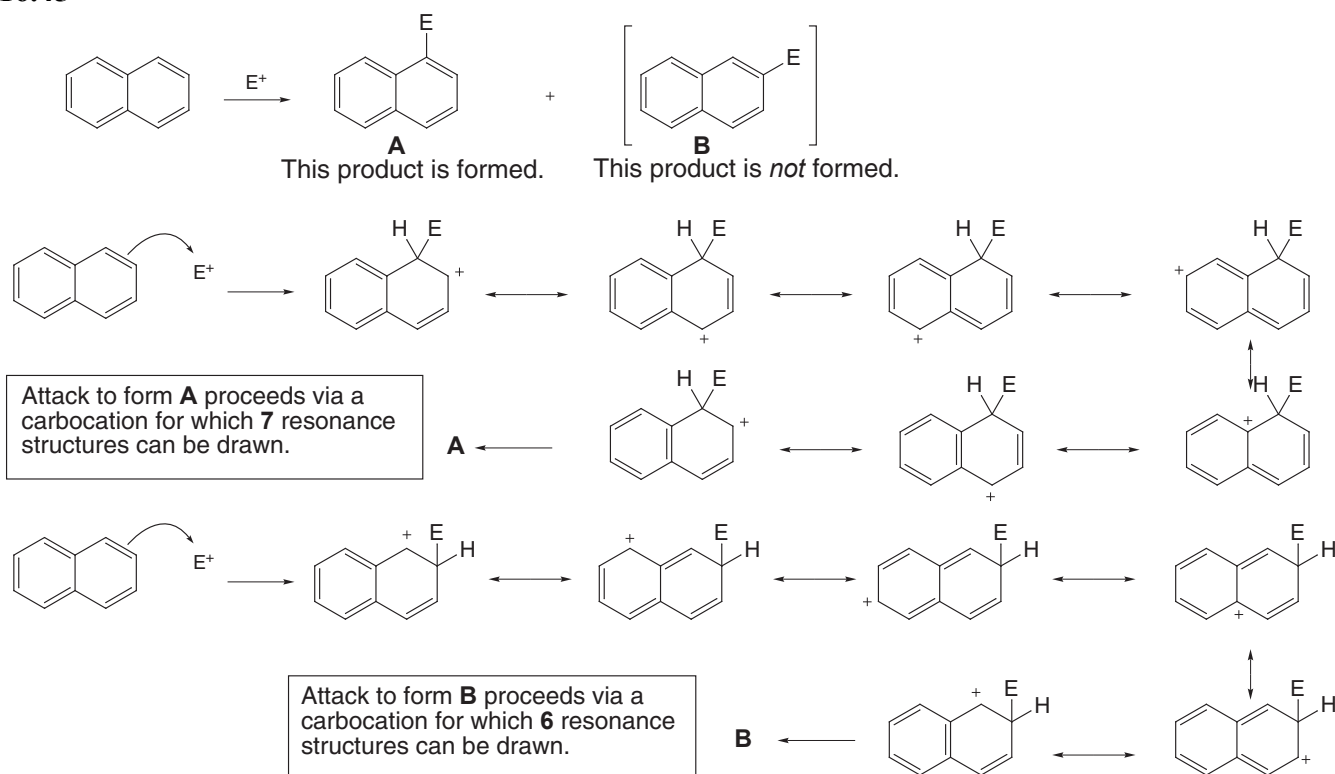
- a. The product has one stereogenic center.



- b. The mechanism for Friedel–Crafts alkylation with this 2° halide involves formation of a trigonal planar carbocation. Since the carbocation is achiral, it reacts with benzene with equal probability from two possible directions (above and below) to afford an optically inactive, racemic mixture of two products.

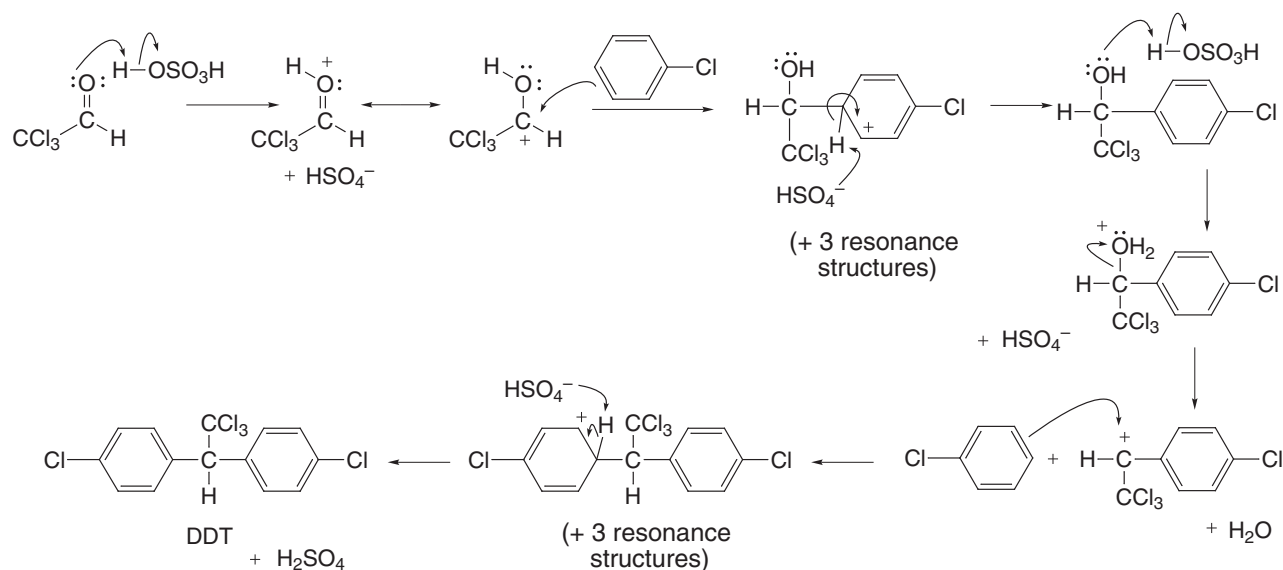


16.45



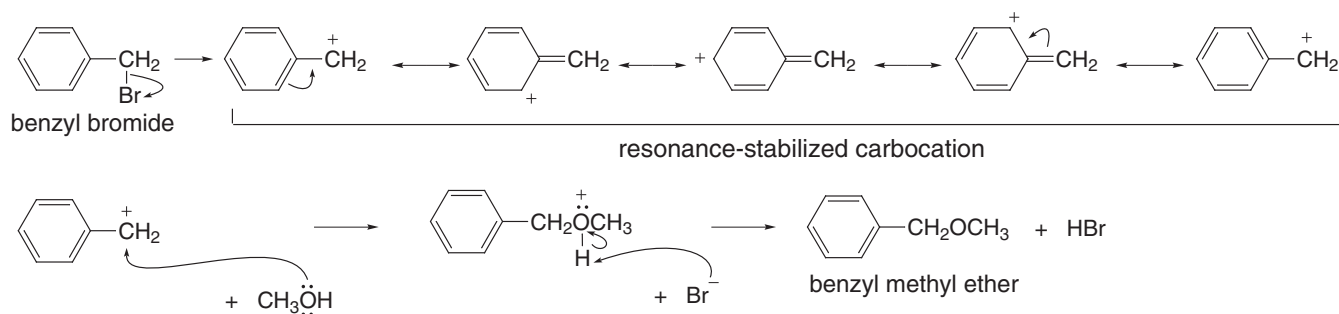
A reaction that occurs by way of the more stable carbocation is preferred so product **A** is formed.

16.46

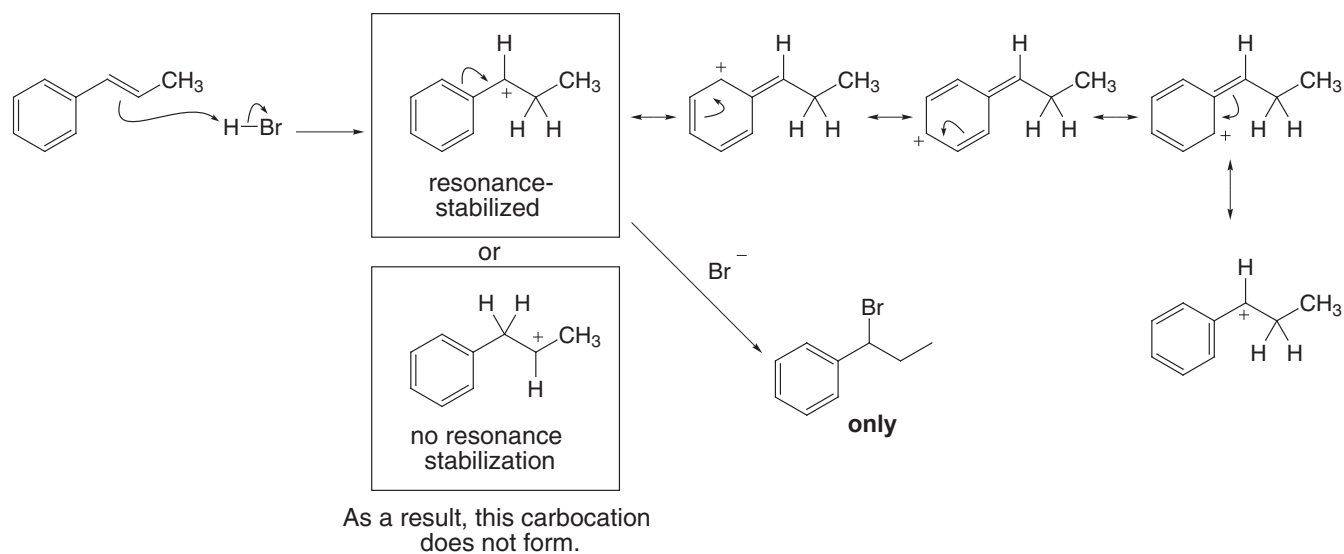


16.47 Il bromuro di benzile forma un intermedio stabilizzato per risonanza, che gli permette di reagire rapidamente in condizioni che favoriscono la $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1$.

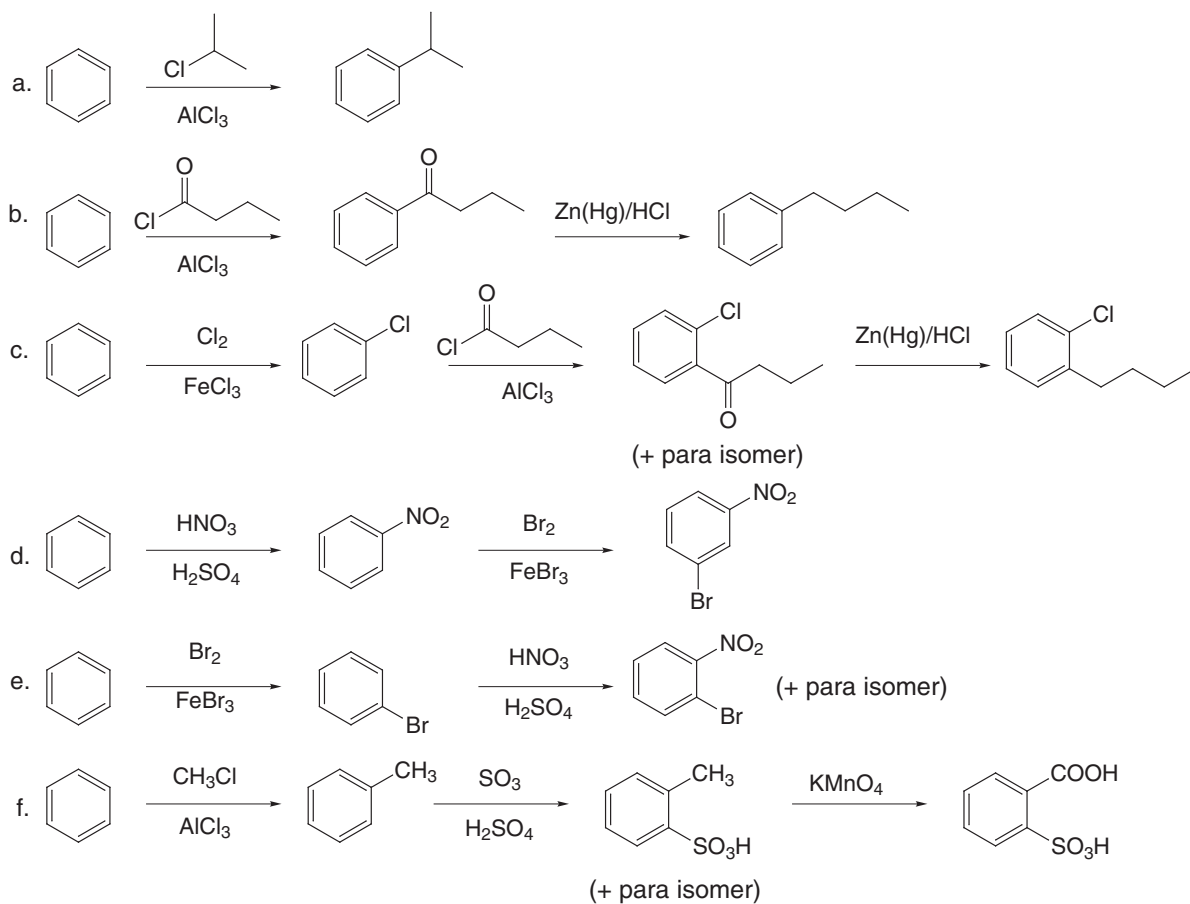
Formation of a resonance-stabilized carbocation:

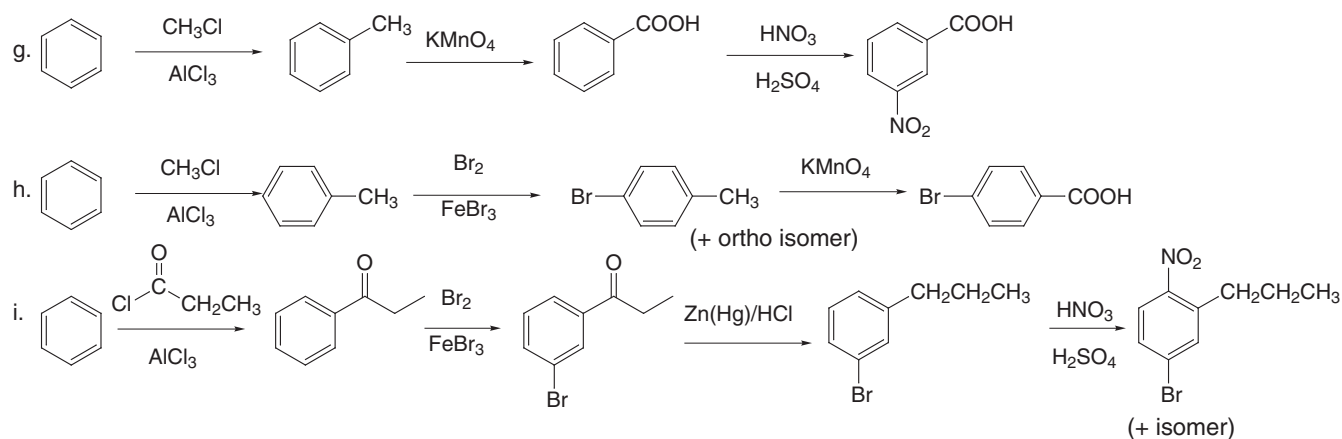


16.48 L'addizione di HBr forma soltanto un bromuro alchilico, perché l'intermedio carbocationico che porta alla sua formazione è stabilizzato per risonanza.

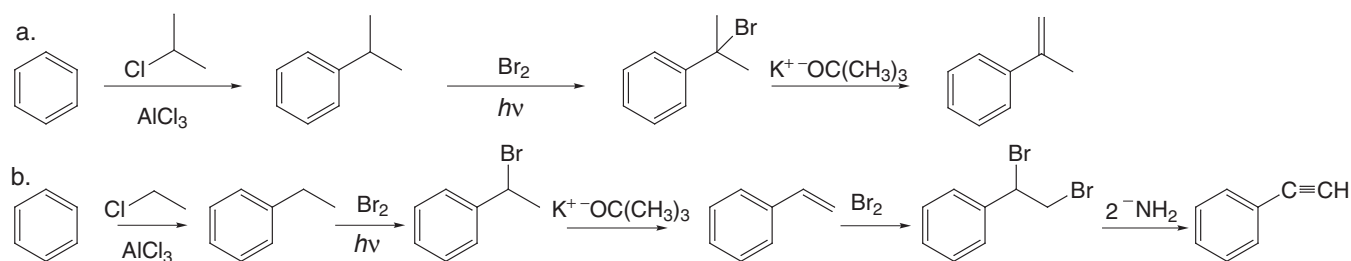


16.49

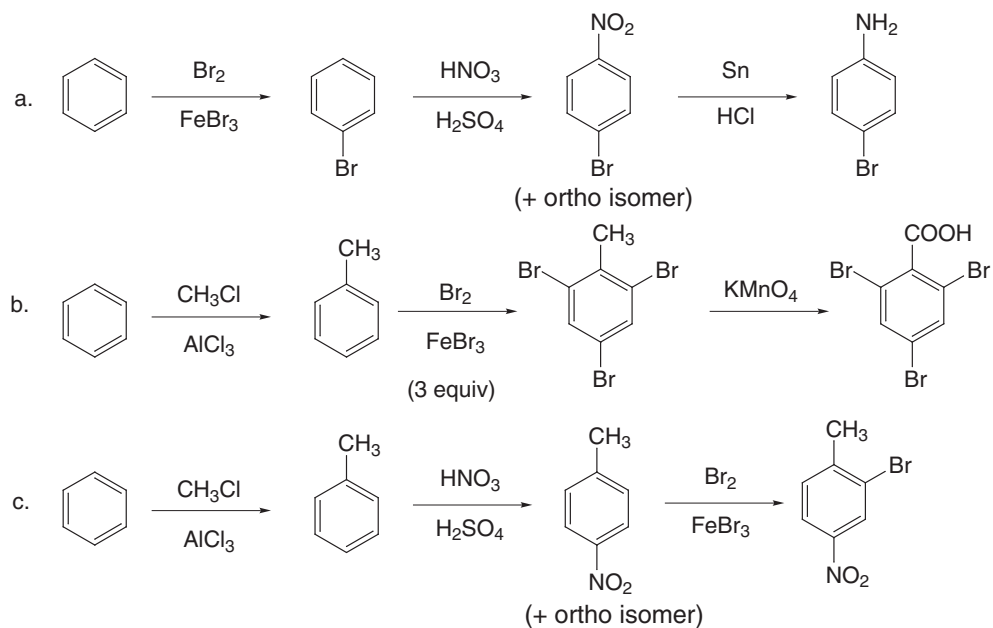


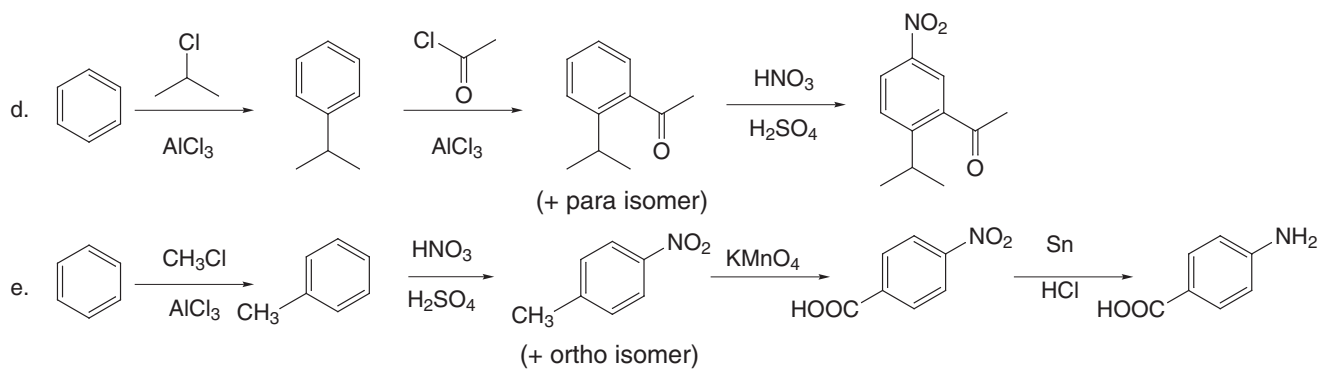


16.50

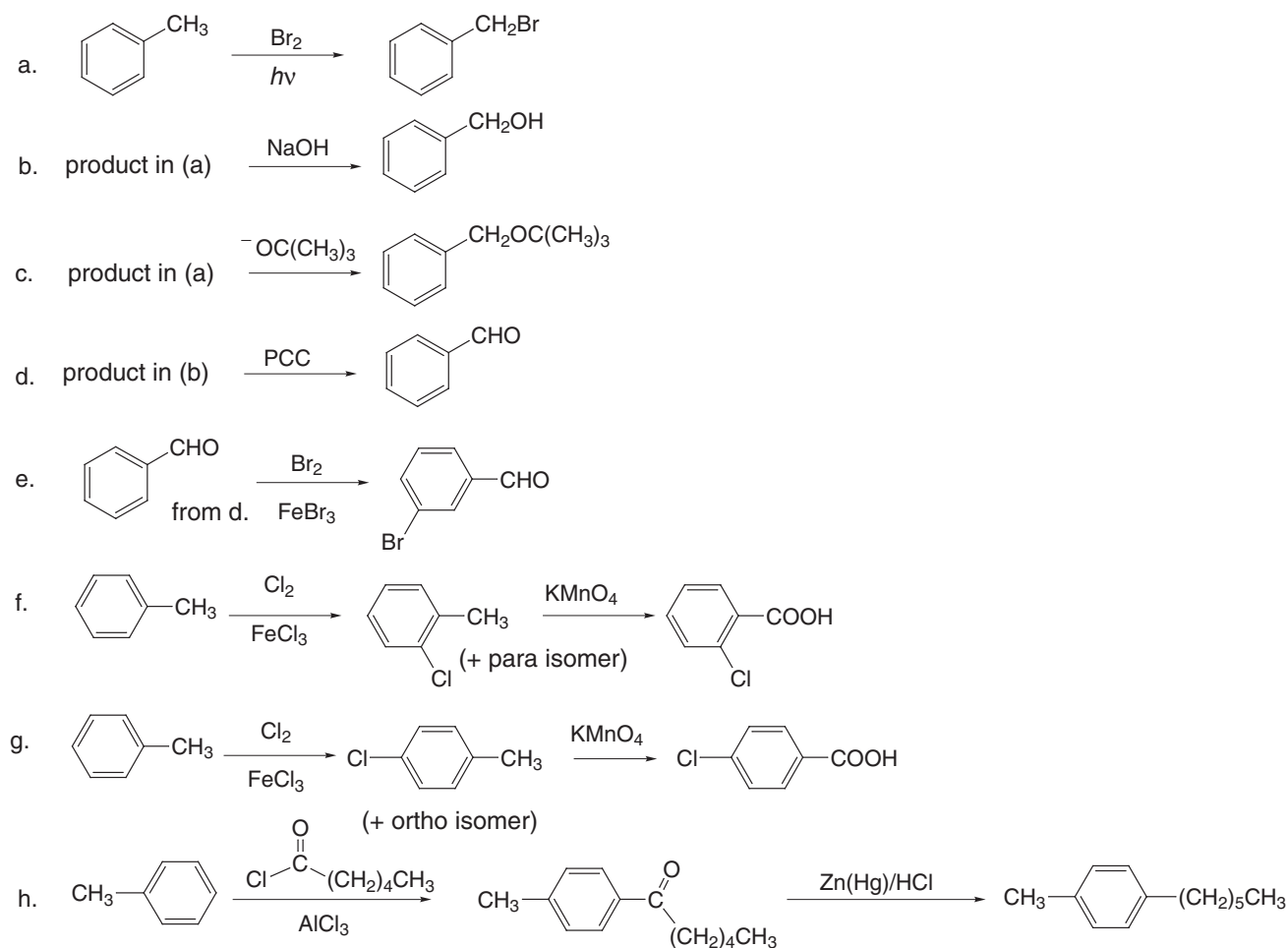


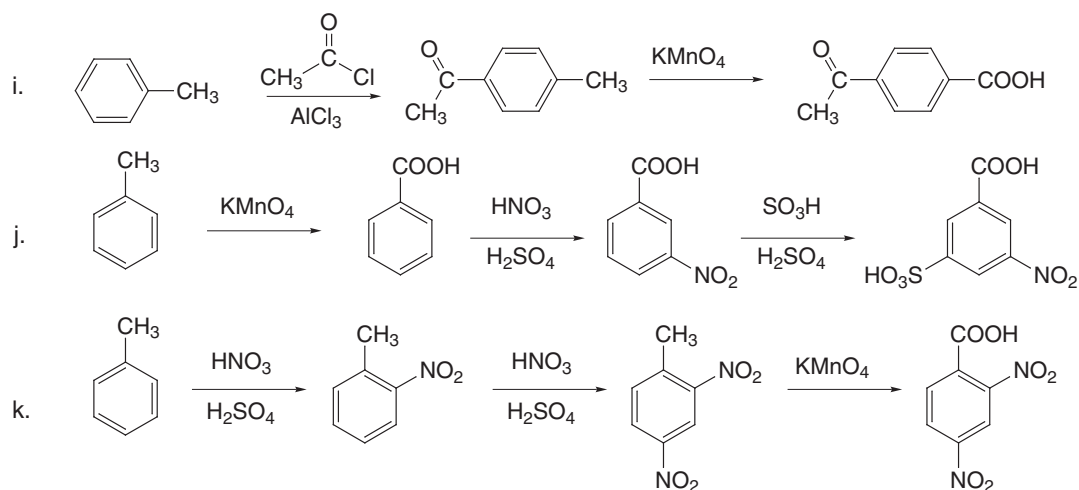
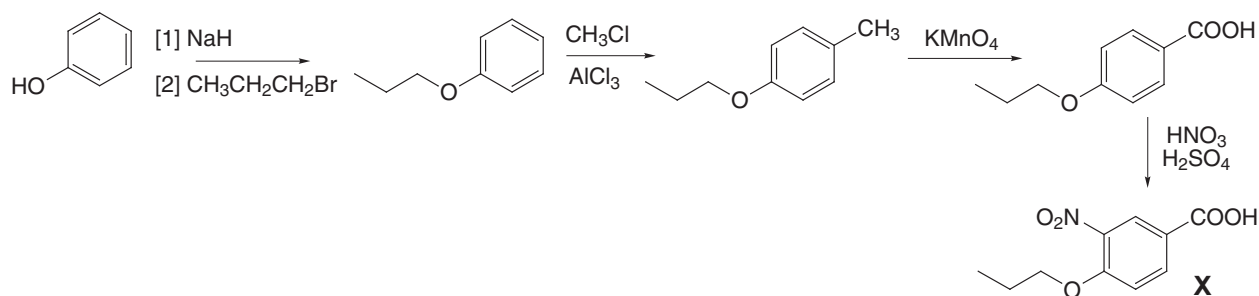
16.51



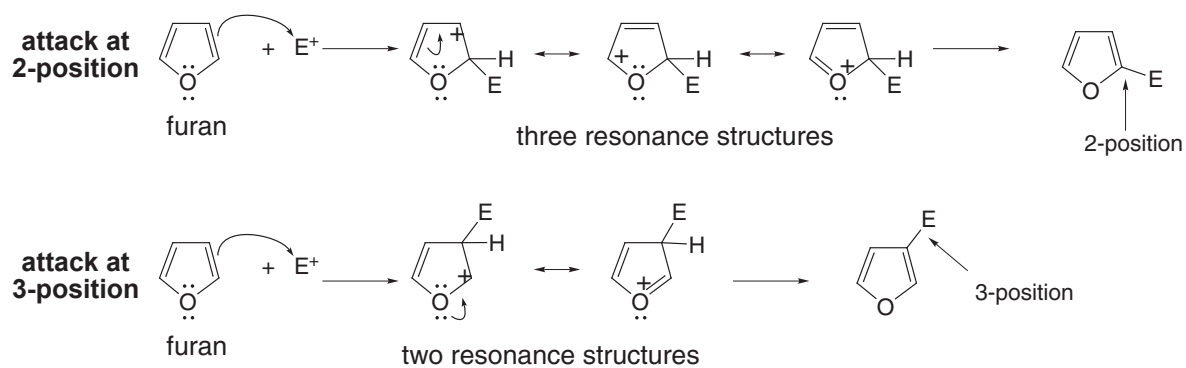


16.52

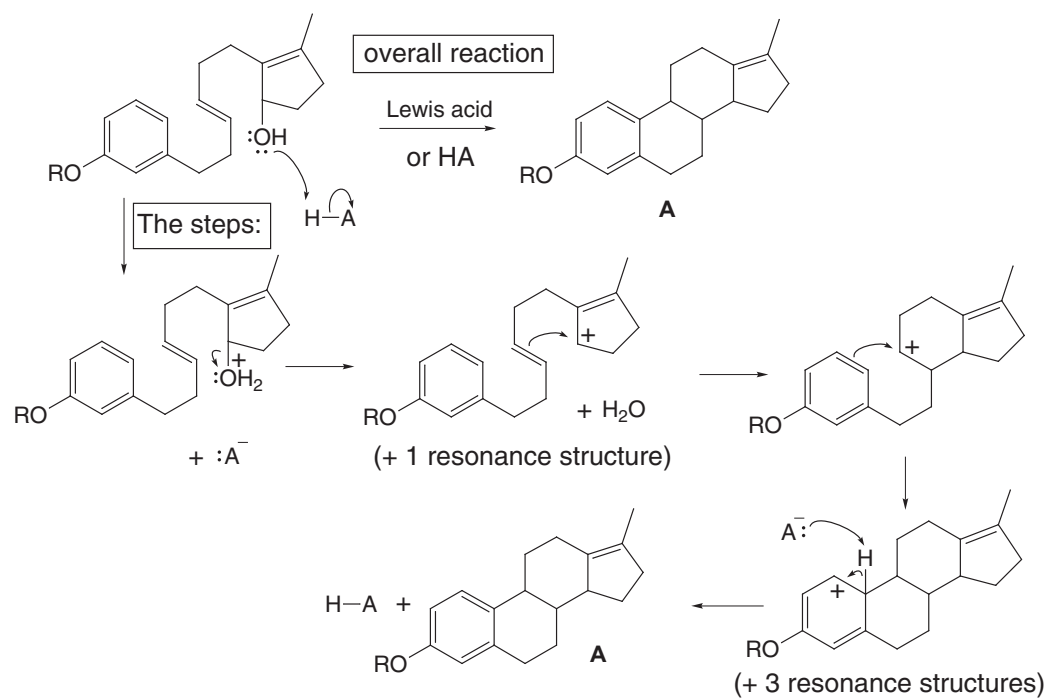


**16.53**

16.54 L'attacco sulla posizione 2 è favorito perché il carbocatione risultante è maggiormente stabilizzato per risonanza rispetto al carbocatione che si forma dall'attacco sulla posizione 3.

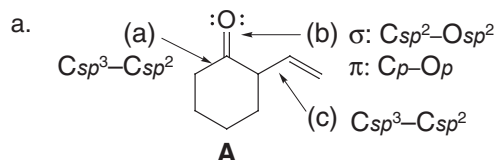


16.55 Disegnare un meccanismo a stadi per la seguente reazione intramolecolare, che è stata usata per la sintesi dell'ormone sessuale femminile estrone.



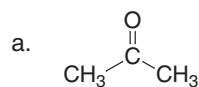
Capitolo 17

17.1

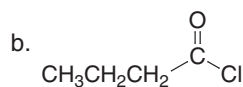


b. The O is sp^2 hybridized.
Both lone pairs occupy sp^2 hybrid orbitals.

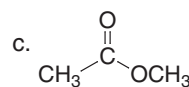
17.2 Un composto carbonilico con un buon gruppo uscente dà luogo a reazioni di sostituzione. Quelli senza un buon gruppo uscente danno addizione.



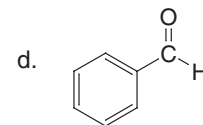
no good leaving group
addition reactions



Cl—good leaving group
substitution reactions

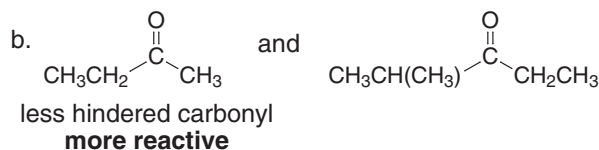
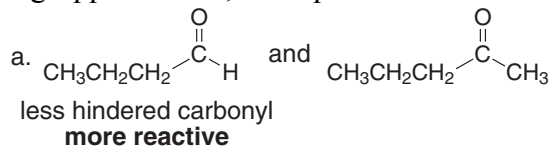


OCH₃—reasonable leaving group
substitution reactions

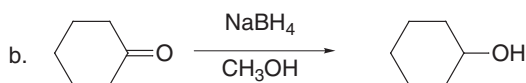
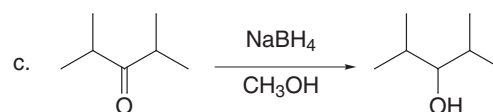
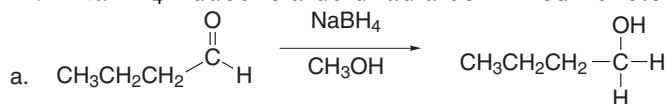


no good leaving group
addition reactions

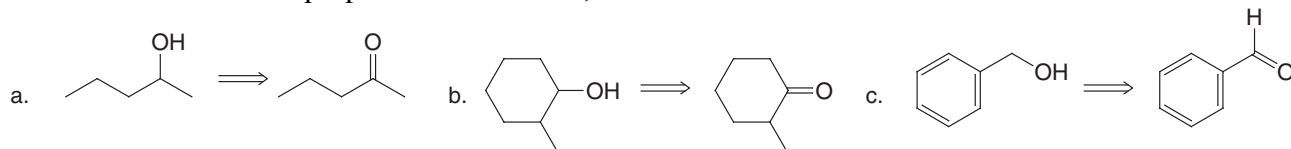
17.3 Le aldeidi sono più reattive dei chetoni. In composti carbonilici con gruppi uscenti, tanto migliore è il gruppo uscente, tanto più reattivo è il composto carbonilico.



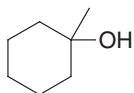
17.4 NaBH₄ riduce le aldeidi ad alcoli 1° ed i chetoni ad alcoli 2°.



17.5 Gli alcoli 1° sono preparati dalle aldeidi, ed i secondari dai chetoni.



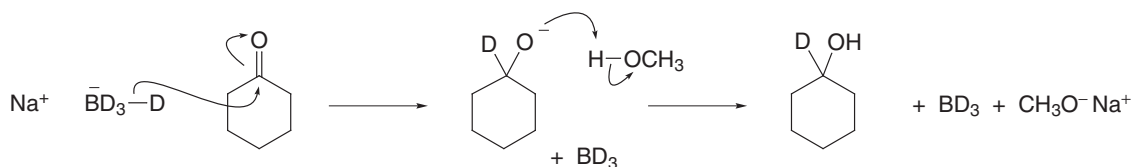
17.6



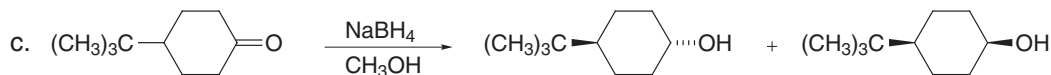
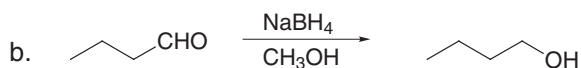
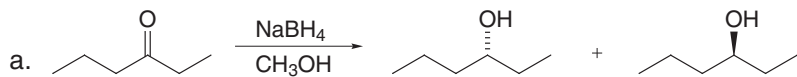
3° Alcohols cannot be made by reduction of a carbonyl group, because they do not contain a H on the C with the OH.

1-methylcyclohexanol

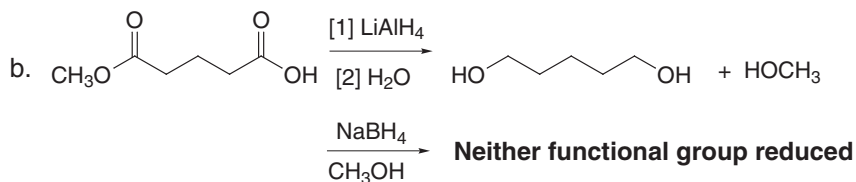
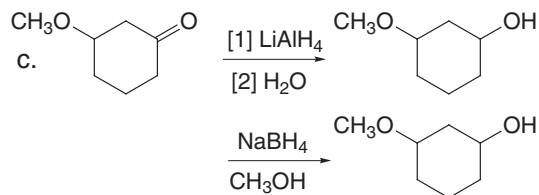
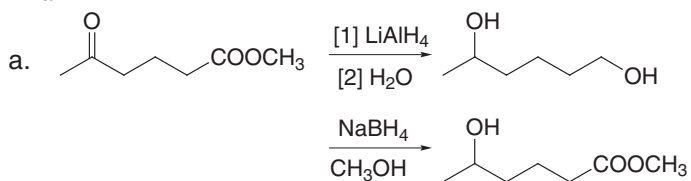
17.7



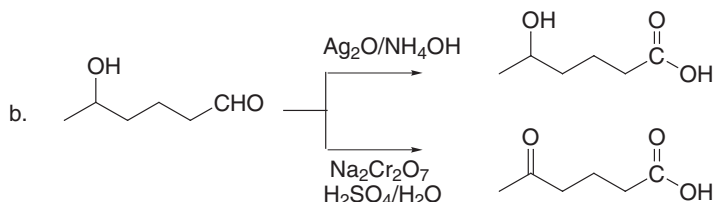
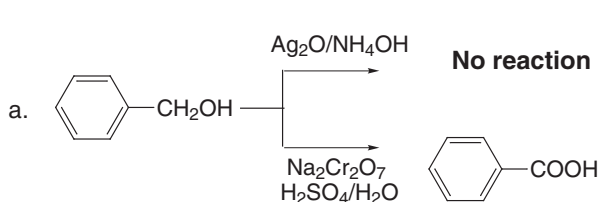
17.8



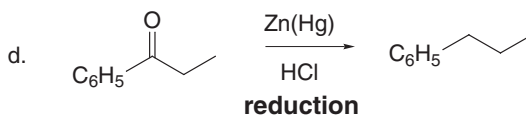
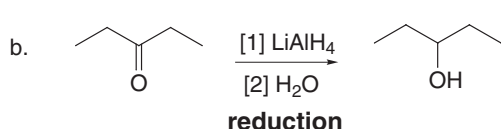
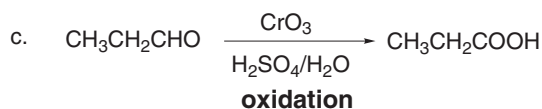
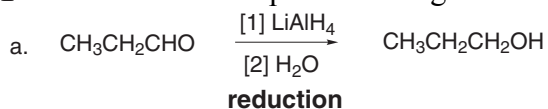
17.9



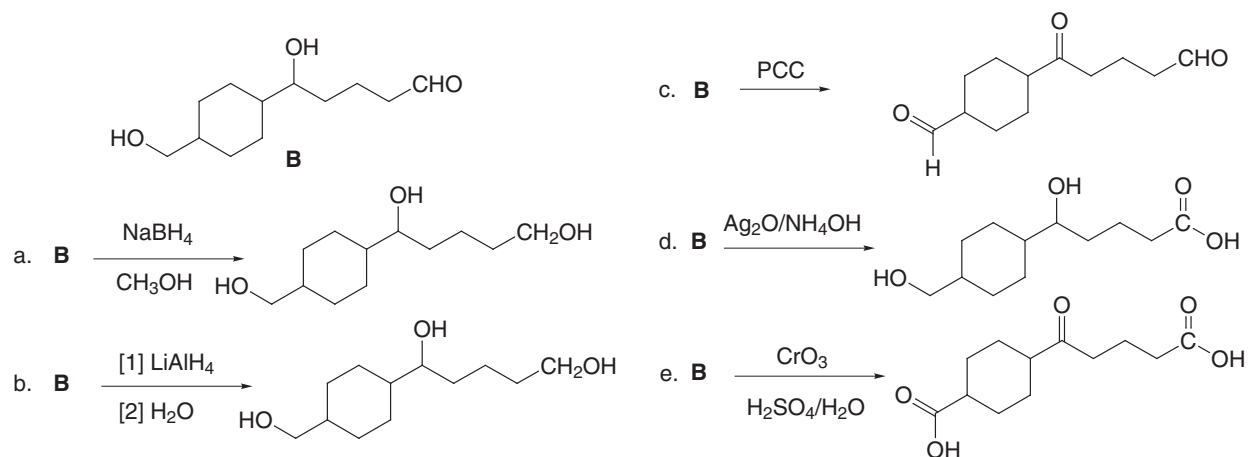
17.10 Il reagente di Tollens reagisce solo con aldeidi.



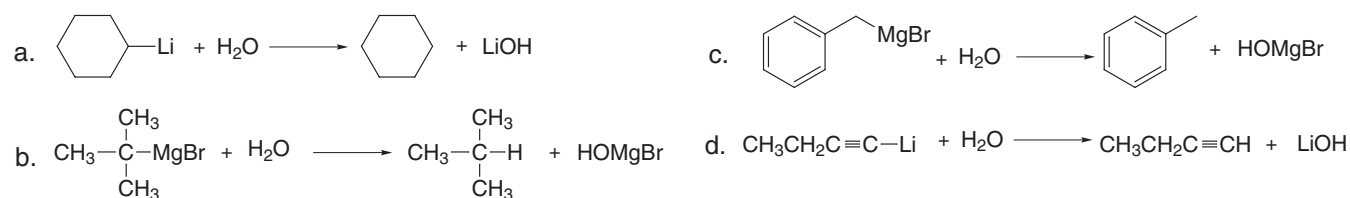
17.11 Viene indicato un possibile reagente:



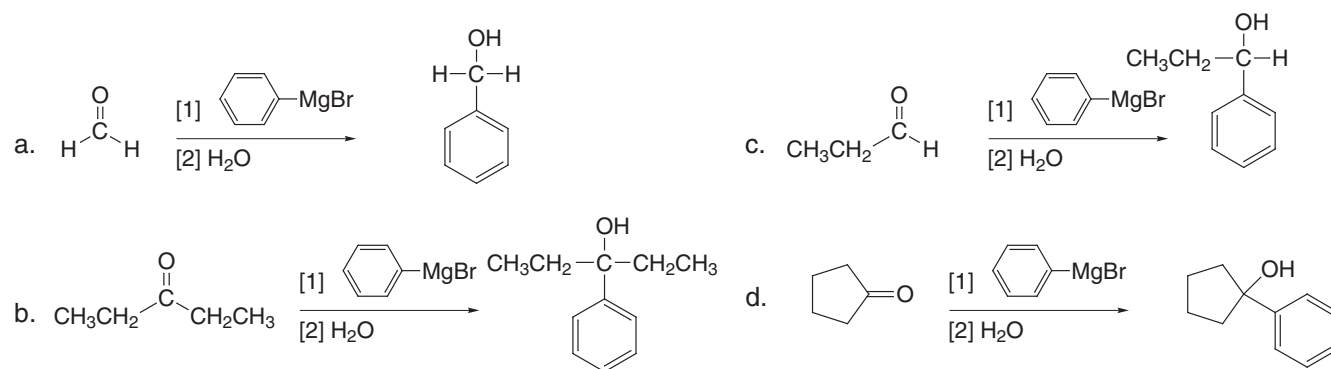
17.12



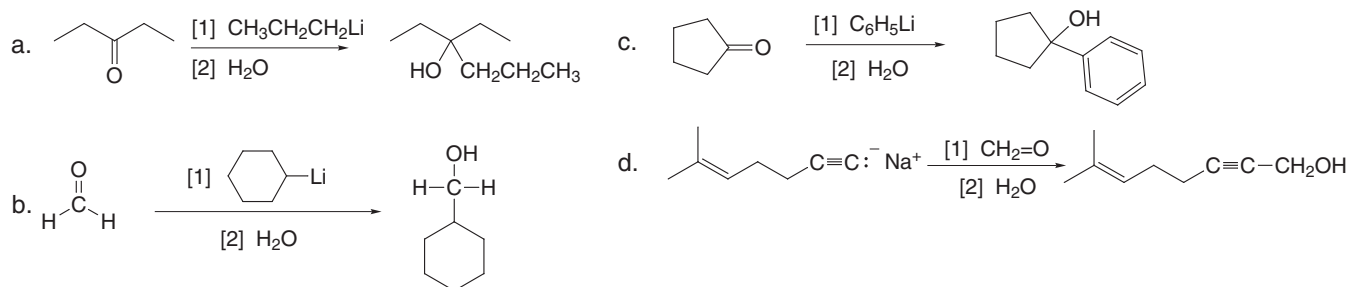
17.13



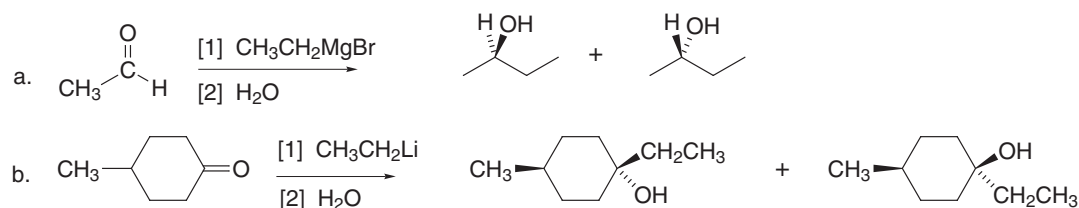
17.14 Per disegnare il prodotto, aggiungere l'anello del benzene al composto carbonilico e protonare l'ossigeno.



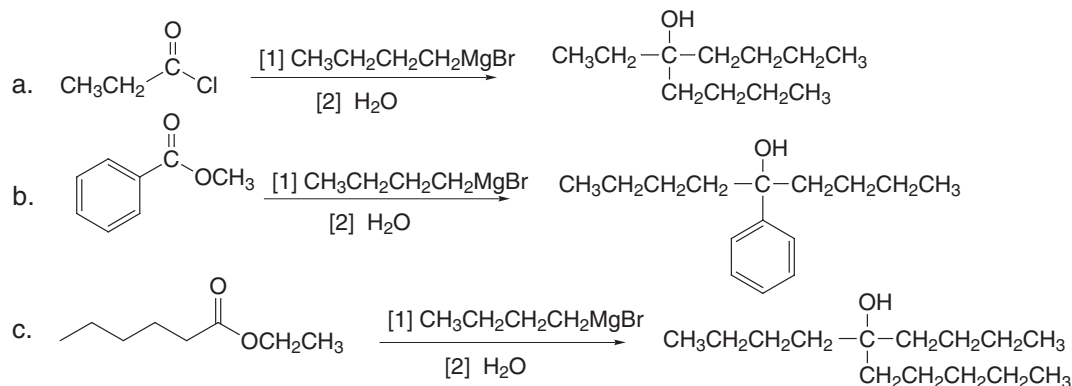
17.15 Per disegnare i prodotti, aggiungere il gruppo alchilico al composto carbonilico e protonare l'ossigeno.



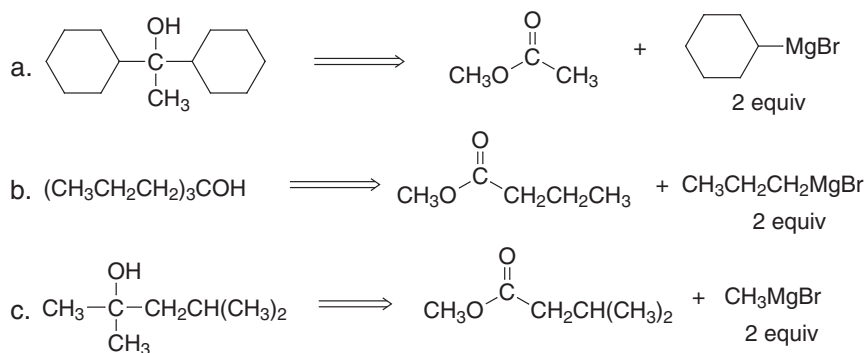
17.16 L'addizione di RM avviene sempre sopra e sotto il piano della molecola, perciò se si forma un nuovo centro stereogenico, si ha una miscela di enantiomeri.



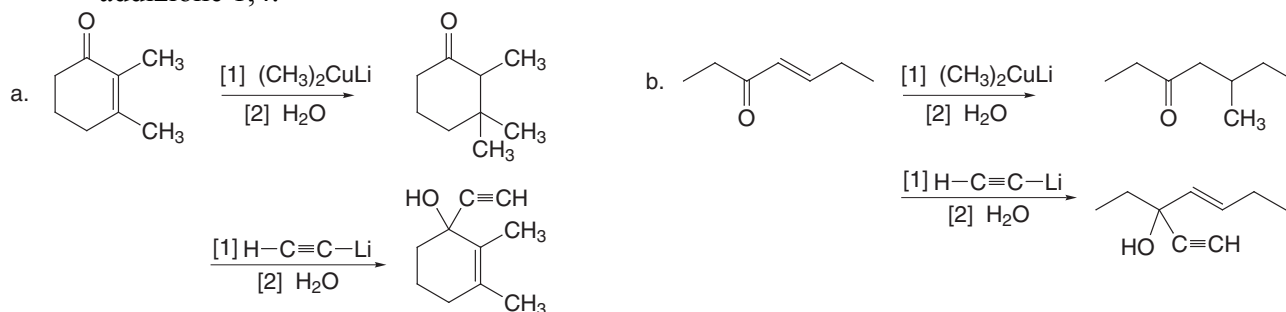
17.17



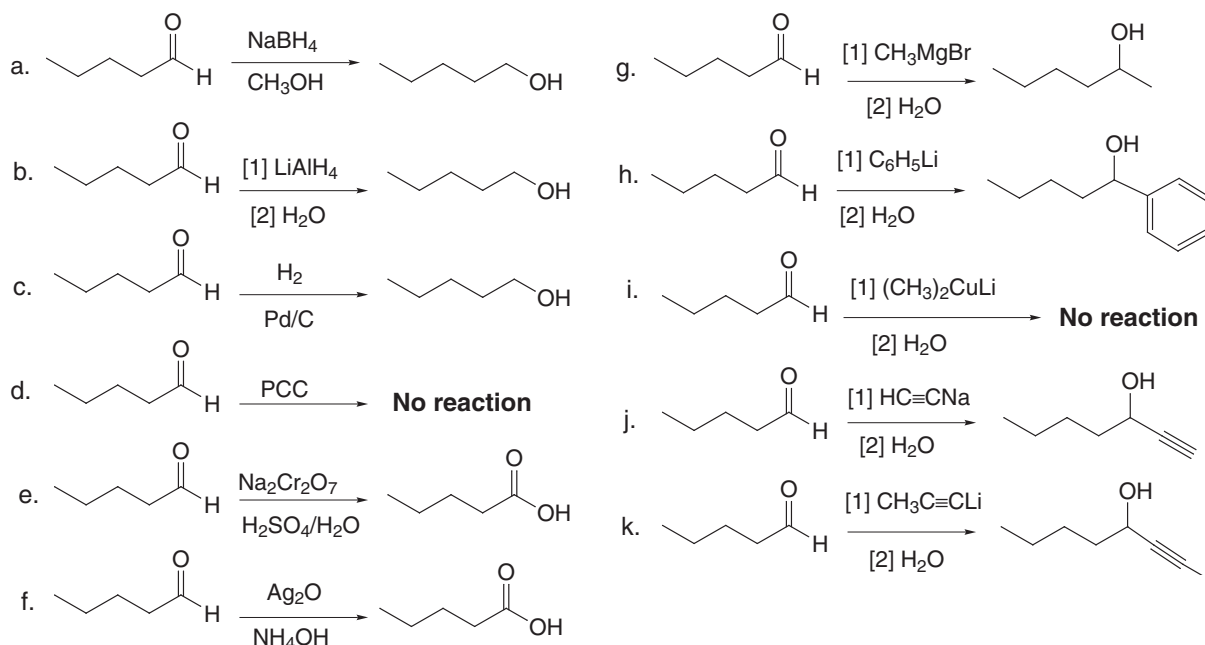
17.18



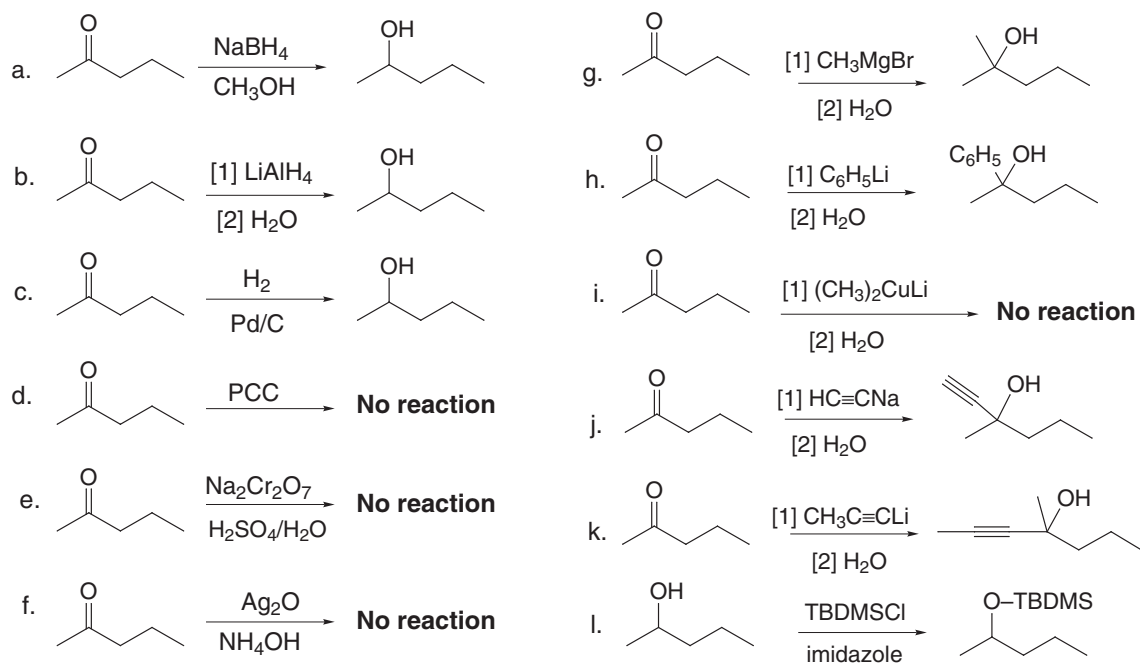
17.19 La reazione caratteristica dei composti carbonilici α,β -insaturi è l'addizione nucleofila. I reagenti di Grignard e gli organolitio danno luogo ad addizione 1,2 e i reagenti organocuprati danno addizione 1,4.



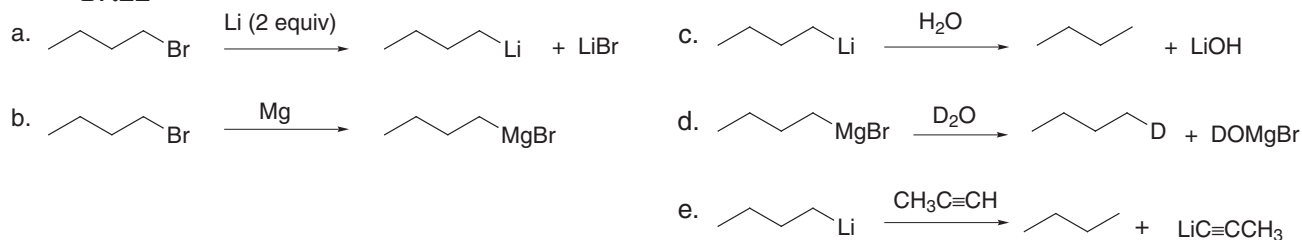
17.20



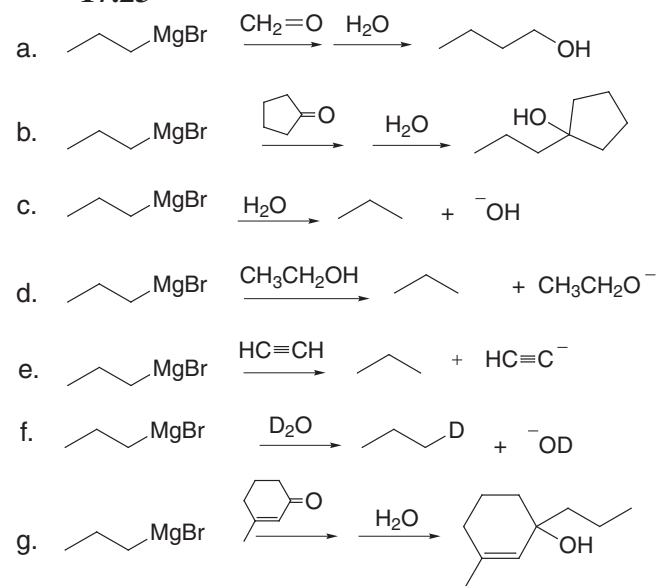
17.21



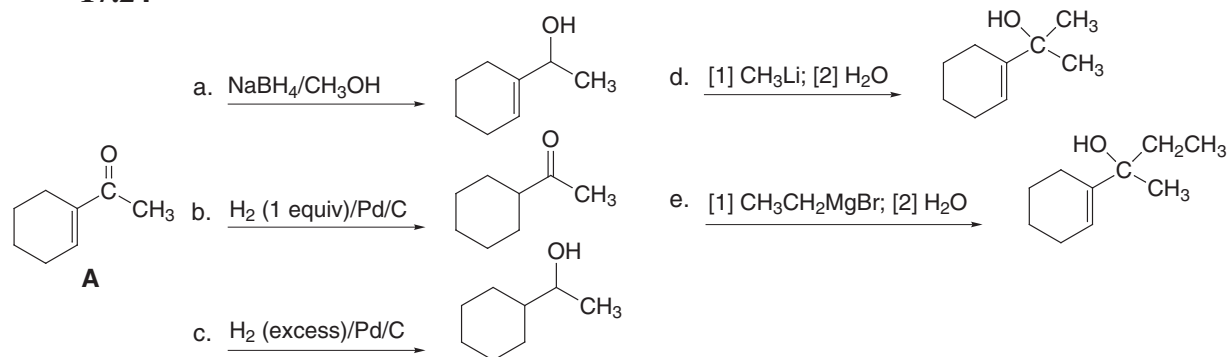
17.22



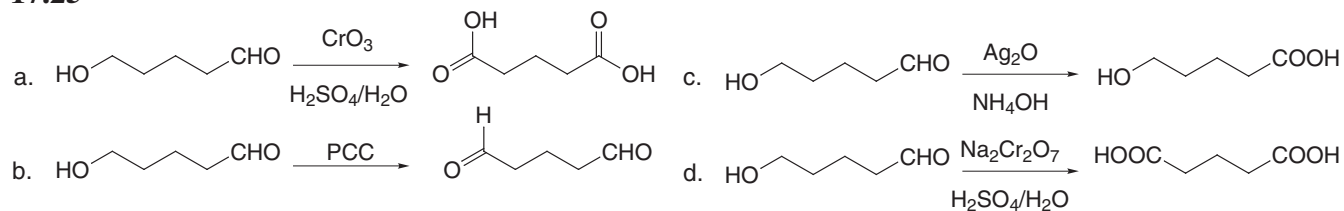
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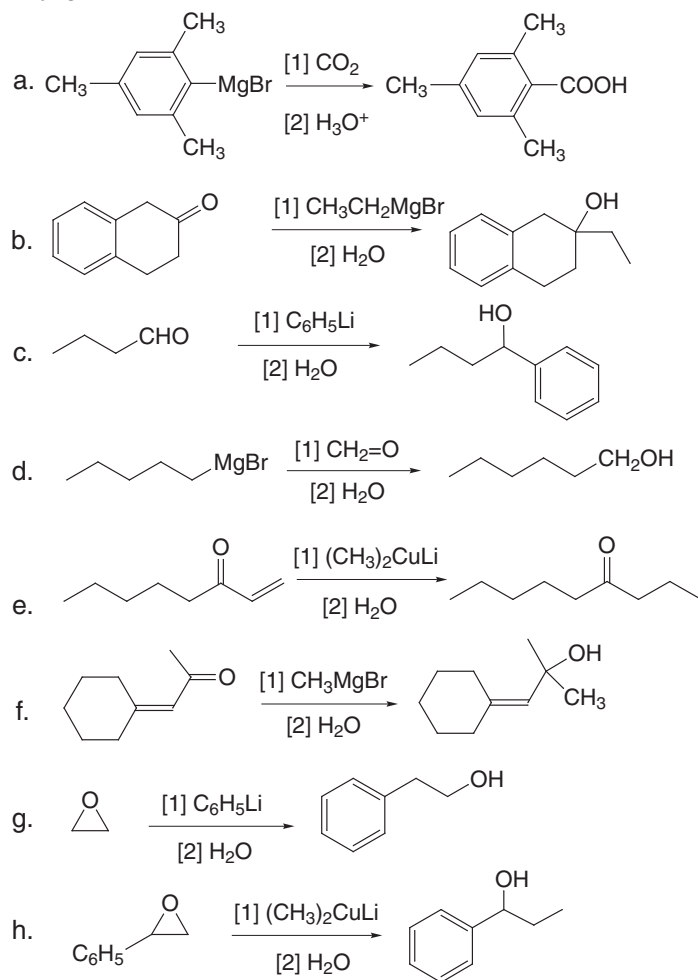
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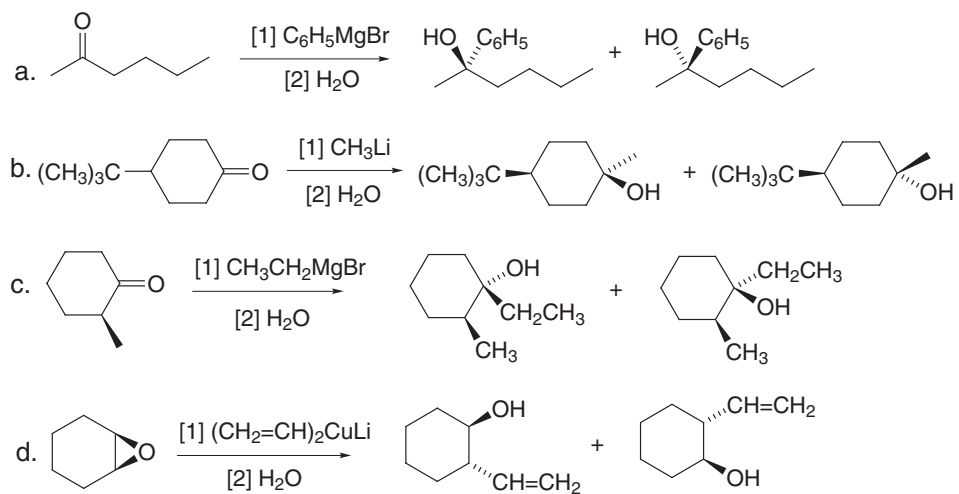
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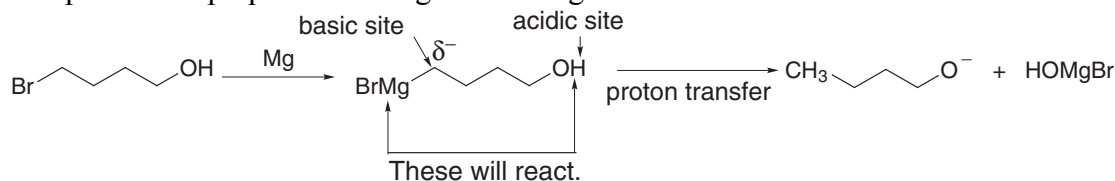
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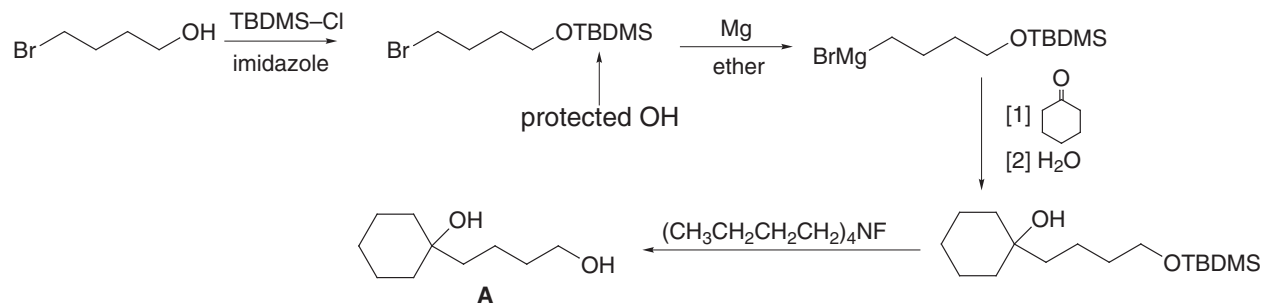
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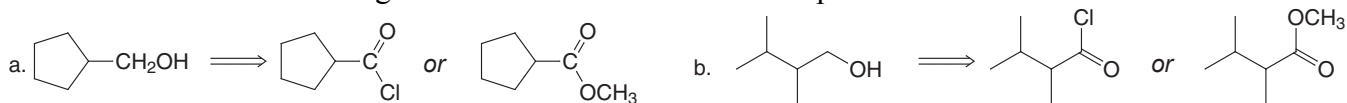
17.28 Poiché un reagente di Grignard contiene un atomo di carbonio con una parziale carica negativa, agisce come base e reagisce con l'OH dell'alogenuro di partenza, $\text{BrCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$. Questa reazione acido-base decompone il reagente di Grignard cosicché l'addizione non può avvenire. Per aggirare il problema, il gruppo OH può essere protetto come *tert*-butildimetilsilil etere, da cui può essere preparato un reagente di Grignard.



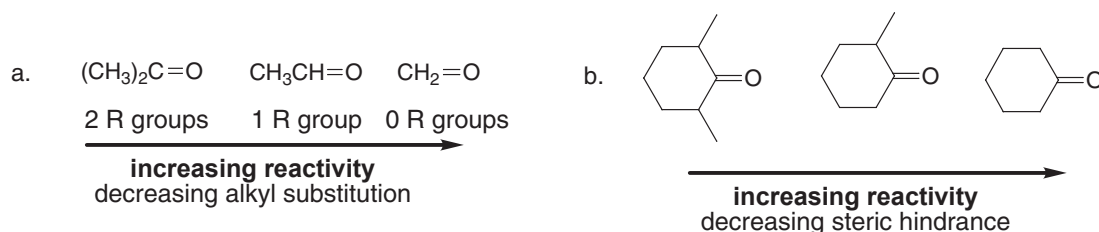
INSTEAD: Use a protecting group.



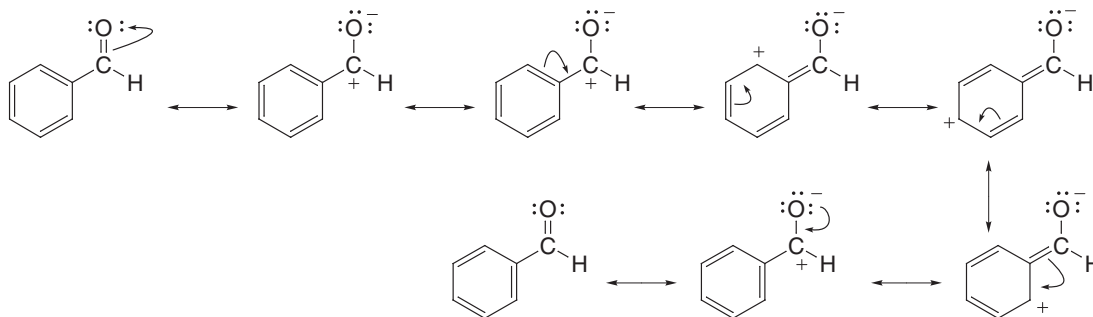
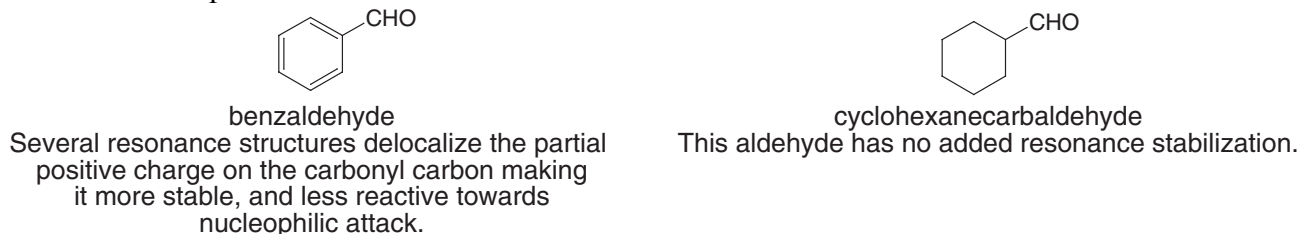
17.29 I cloruri acilici e gli esteri possono essere ridotti ad alcoli 1°. Mantenere lo stesso scheletro molecolare disegnando l'estere e il cloruro acilico precursori.



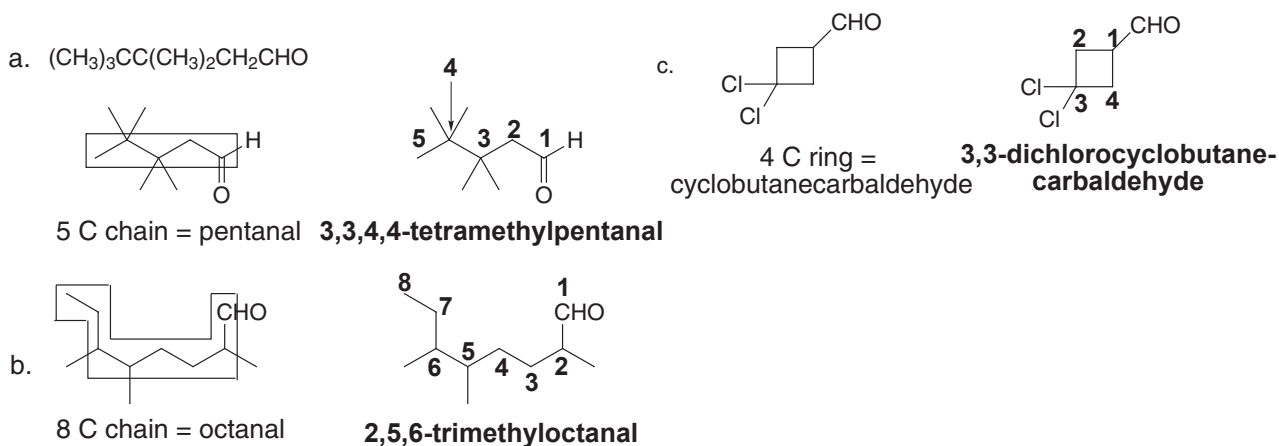
17.30 All'aumentare del numero di gruppi R legati al C carbonilico, diminuisce la reattività verso l'attacco nucleofilo.



17.31 Le aldeidi più stabili sono meno reattive verso l'attacco nucleofilo.

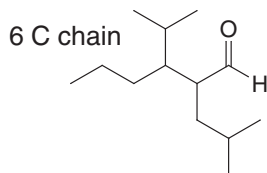


- 17.32**
- Per nominare un'aldeide legata ad una catena di atomi di carbonio: [1] Trovare la catena più lunga contenente il gruppo CHO e sostituire la *-o* finale con *-ale*. [2] Numerare la catena carboniosa in modo da assegnare al CHO il C1, ma omettere questo numero dal nome. Applicare tutte le altre regole della nomenclatura.
 - Per nominare un'aldeide con il CHO legato ad un anello: [1] Nominare l'anello ed aggiungere il suffisso *-carbaldehyde*. [2] Numerare l'anello in modo da porre il CHO sul C1, ma omettere questo numero dal nome. Applicare tutte le altre regole della nomenclatura.

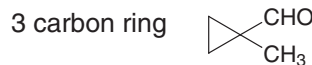


17.33 Lavorare all'indietro, dal nome alla struttura, usando le regole della nomenclatura della risposta 21.3.

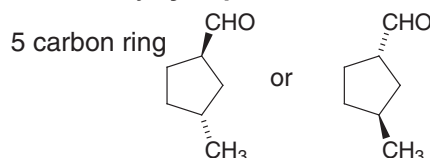
a. 2-isobutyl-3-isopropylhexanal



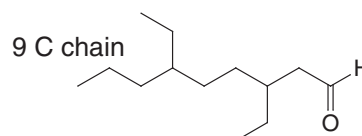
c. 1-methylcyclopropanecarbaldehyde



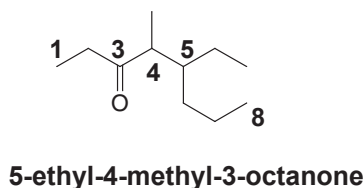
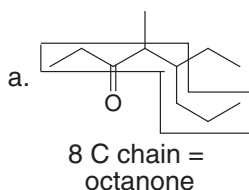
b. *trans*-3-methylcyclopentanecarbaldehyde



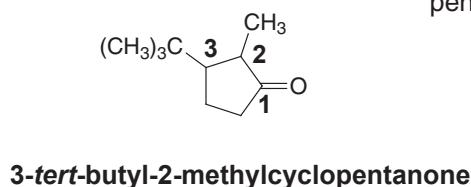
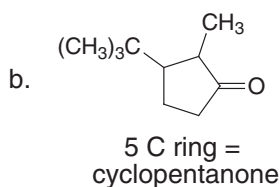
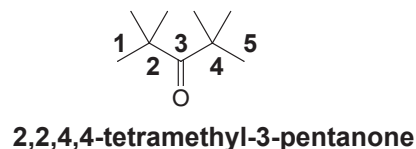
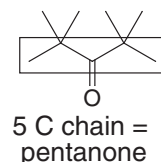
d. 3,6-diethylnonanal



- 17.34**
- Per nominare un chetone aciclico: [1] Trovare la catena più lunga contenente il gruppo carbonilico e sostituire la *-o* finale in *-one*. [2] Numerare la catena di atomi di carbonio in modo da assegnare al C carbonilico il numero più basso. Applicare tutte le altre regole della nomenclatura.
 - Per nominare un chetone ciclico: [1] Nominare l'anello e sostituire la *-o* finale in *-one*. [2] Numerare gli atomi di C in modo da porre il C carbonilico sul C1 ed assegnare il numero più basso al primo sostituyente incontrato. Applicare tutte le altre regole della nomenclatura.

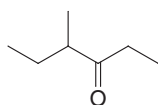


c. $(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{CCOC}(\text{CH}_3)_3$

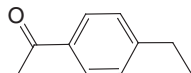


17.35 La maggior parte dei nomi comuni sono formati assegnando il nome ad entrambi i gruppi alchilici sul C carbonilico, ordinandoli in ordine alfabetico, ed aggiungendo la parola chetone.

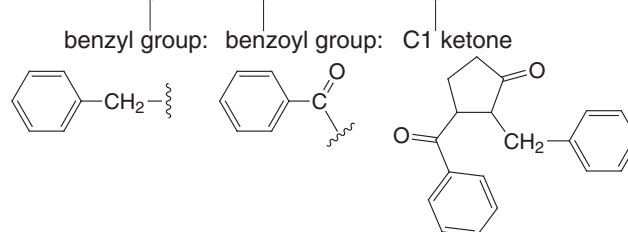
a. *sec*-butyl ethyl ketone



c. *p*-ethylacetophenone

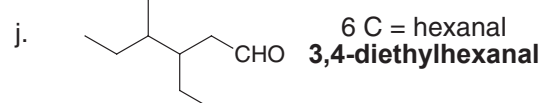
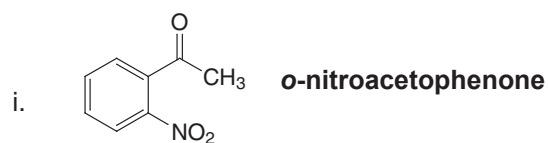
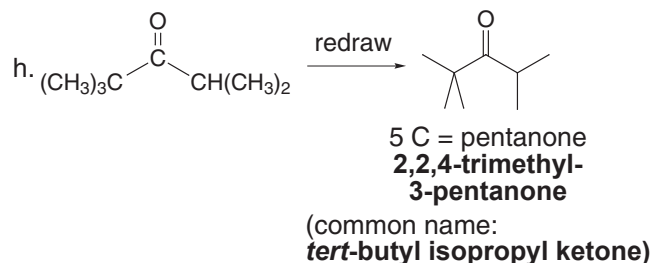
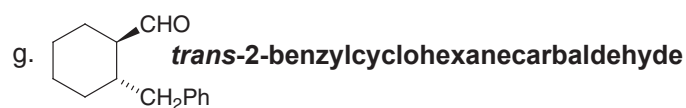
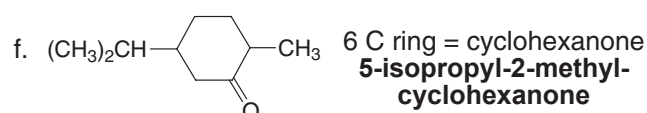
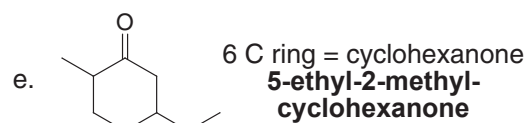
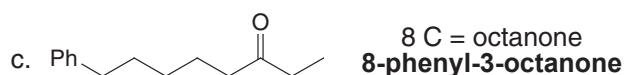
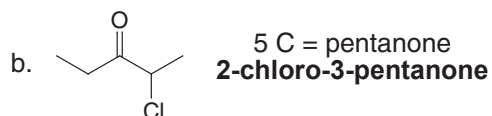
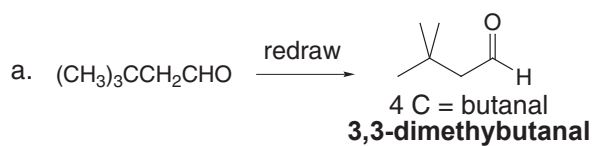
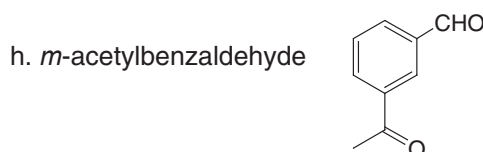
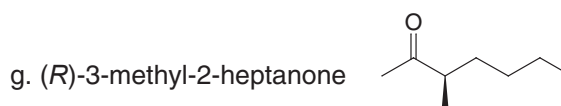
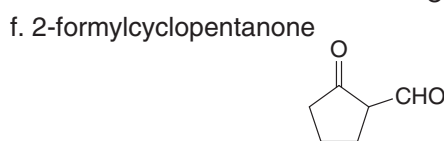
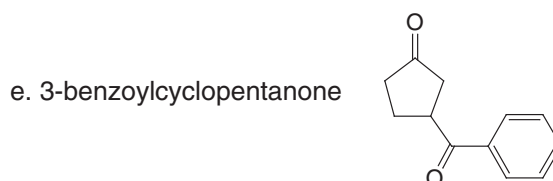
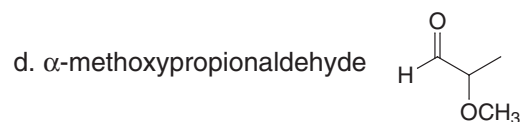
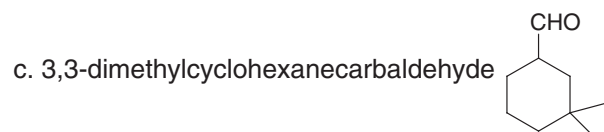
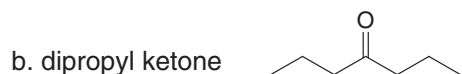
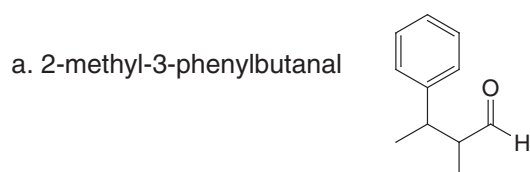


d. 2-benzyl-3-benzoylcyclopentanone.

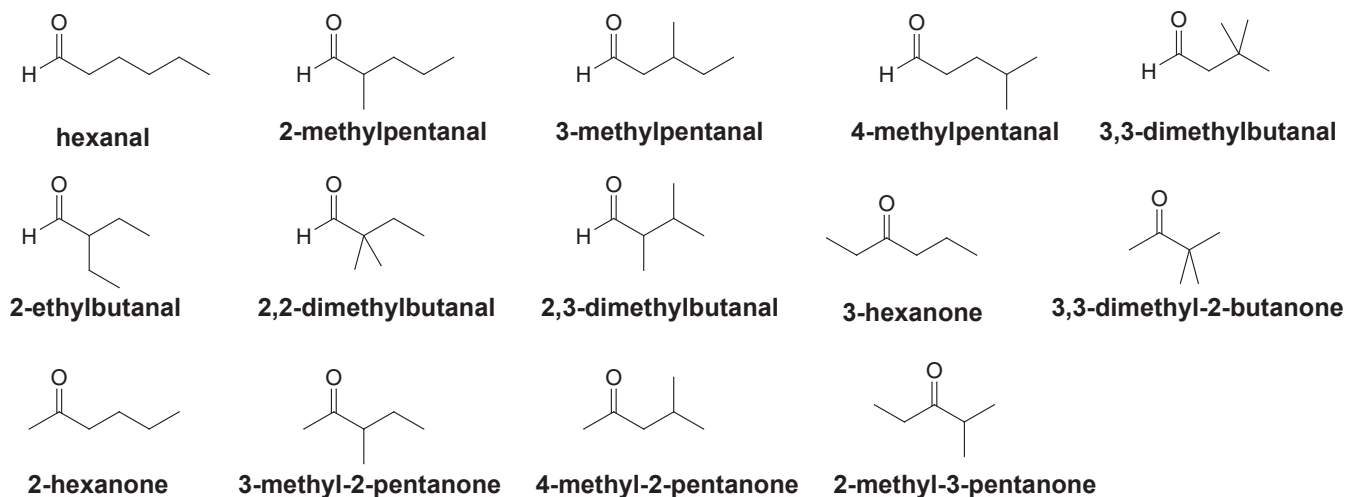


b. methyl vinyl ketone

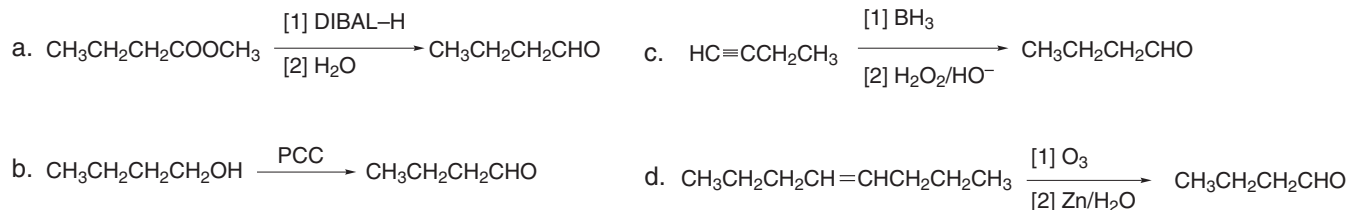


17.36 Usare le regole delle risposte 19.3 e 19.5 per assegnare il nome ad aldeidi e chetoni.**17.37**

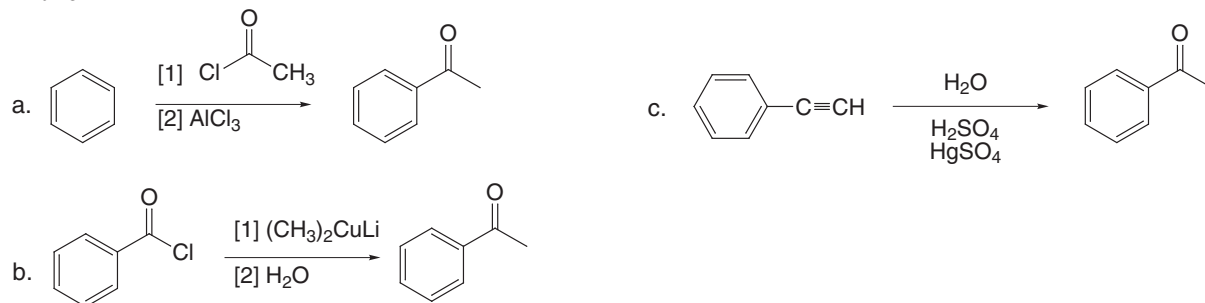
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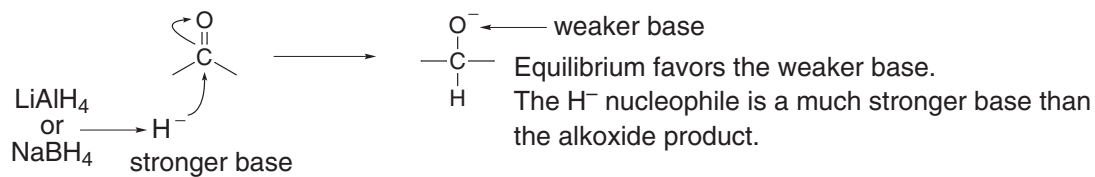
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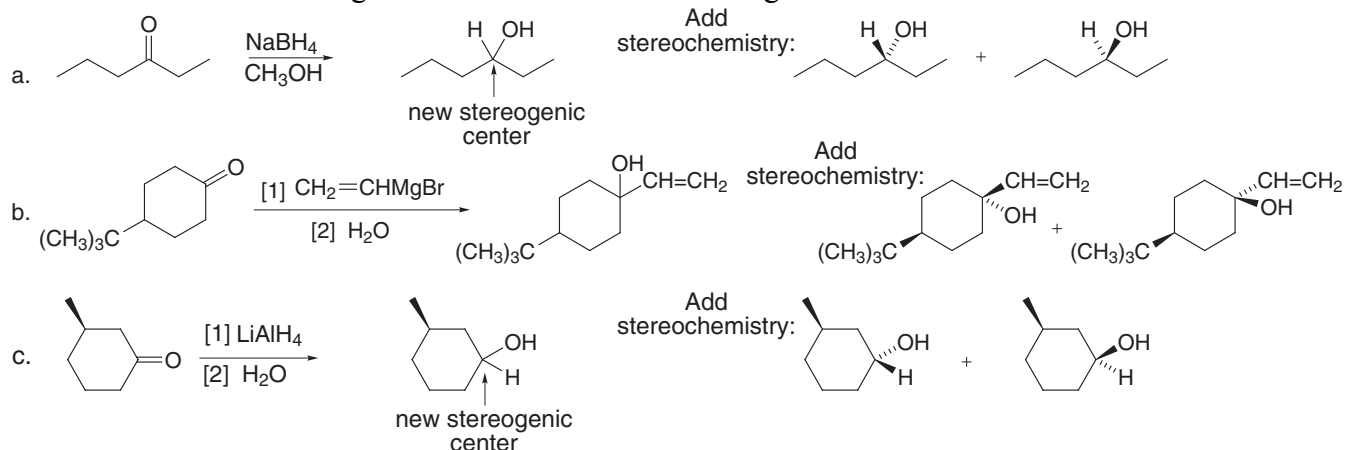
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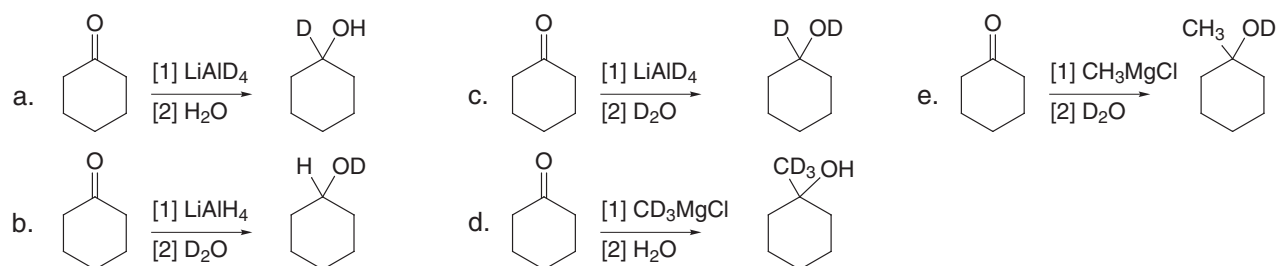
17.41



17.42 L'addizione di un idruro avviene sul C carbonilico planare, cosicché sono possibili due differenti configurazioni al nuovo centro stereogenico.



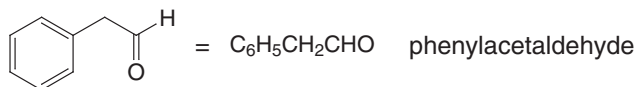
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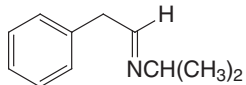
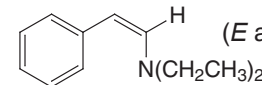
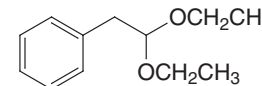
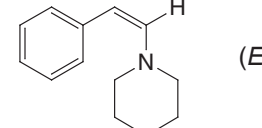
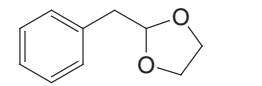


17.44 Il trattamento di un'aldeide o di un chetone con NaCN/HCl aggiunge HCN al doppio legame. I gruppi ciano sono idrolizzati da H_3O^+ per sostituire i 3 legami C–N con 3 legami C–O.

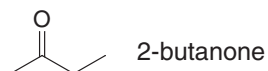


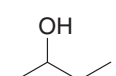
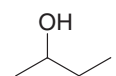
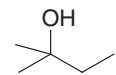
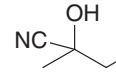
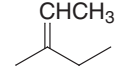
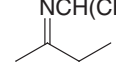
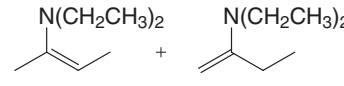
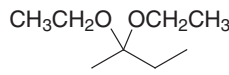
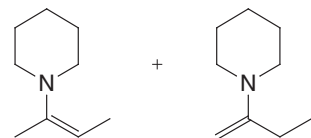
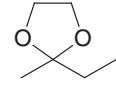
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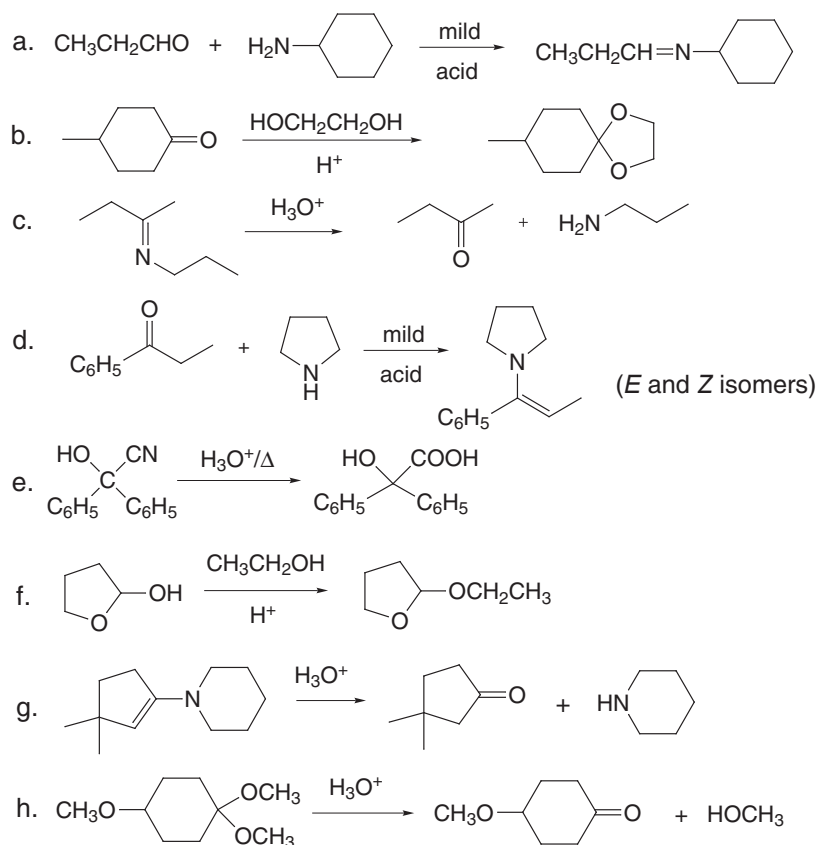
- a. $\text{NaBH}_4/\text{CH}_3\text{OH} \rightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$
- b. $[1] \text{LiAlH}_4; [2] \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$
- c. $[1] \text{CH}_3\text{MgBr}; [2] \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{OH})\text{CH}_3$
- d. $\text{NaCN/HCl} \rightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{OH})\text{CN}$
- e. $\text{Ph}_3\text{P}=\text{CHCH}_3 \rightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CH}_2\text{CH}=\text{CHCH}_3$ (E and Z isomers)
- f. $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{CHNH}_2 / \text{mild acid} \rightarrow$

- g. $(\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2)_2\text{NH} / \text{mild acid} \rightarrow$

 (E and Z isomers)
- h. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH} (\text{excess}) / \text{H}^+ \rightarrow$

- i. $\text{piperidine} + \text{mild acid} \rightarrow$

 (E and Z isomers)
- j. $\text{HOCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH} / \text{H}^+ \rightarrow$


17.46

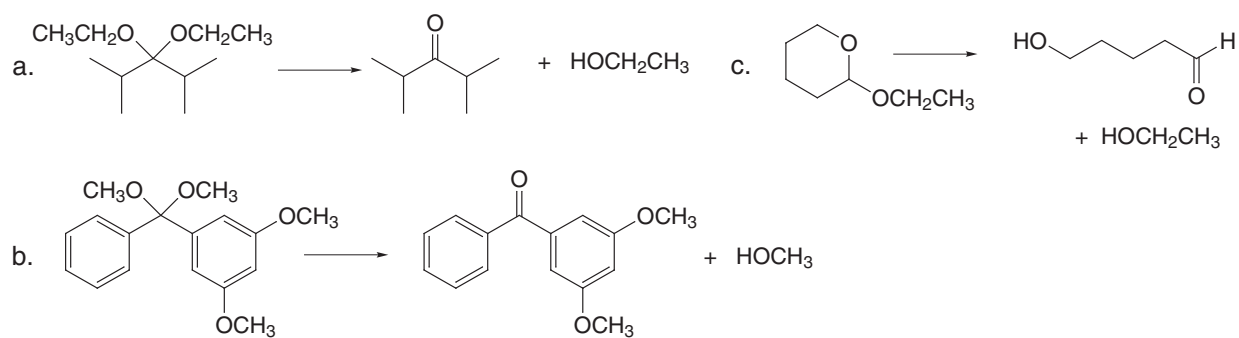


- a. $\text{NaBH}_4/\text{CH}_3\text{OH} \rightarrow$

- b. $[1] \text{LiAlH}_4; [2] \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow$

- c. $[1] \text{CH}_3\text{MgBr}; [2] \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow$

- d. $\text{NaCN/HCl} \rightarrow$

- e. $\text{Ph}_3\text{P}=\text{CHCH}_3 \rightarrow$

- f. $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{CHNH}_2 / \text{mild H}^+ \rightarrow$

- g. $(\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2)_2\text{NH} / \text{mild H}^+ \rightarrow$

 (E and Z isomers)
- h. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH} (\text{excess}) / \text{H}^+ \rightarrow$

- i. $\text{piperidine} + \text{mild H}^+ \rightarrow$

 (E and Z isomers)
- j. $\text{HOCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH} / \text{H}^+ \rightarrow$


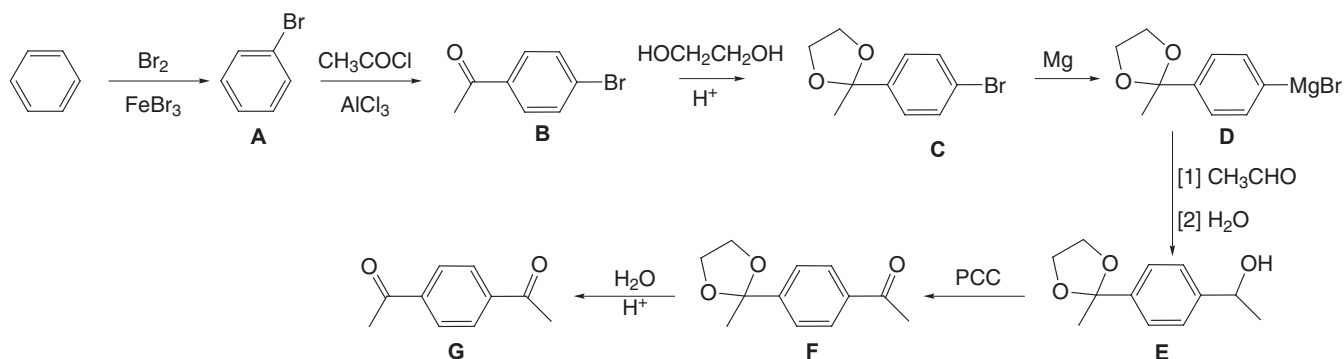
17.47



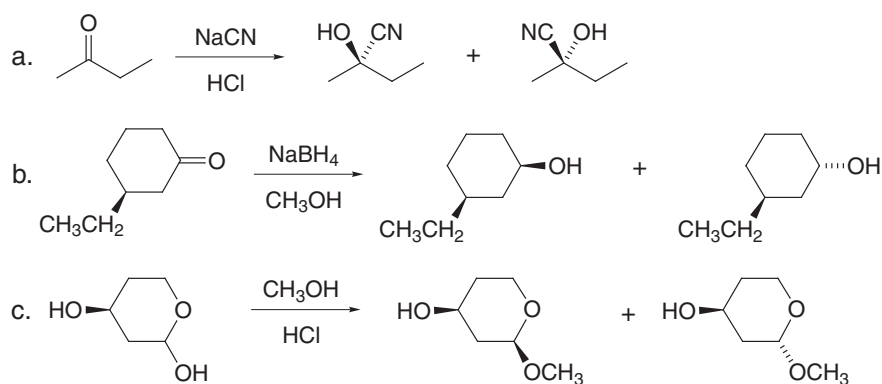
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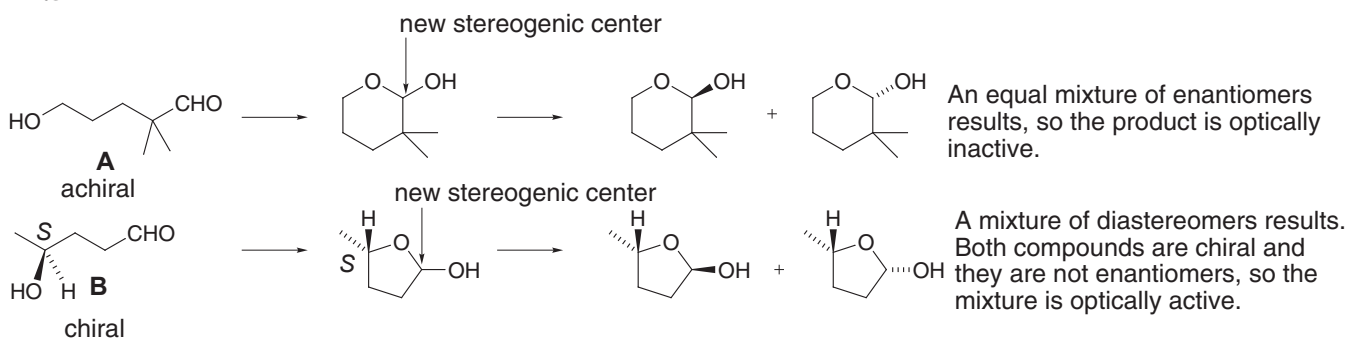
17.49 Considerare solo il prodotto para, quando è possibile la formazione di una miscela orto, para.



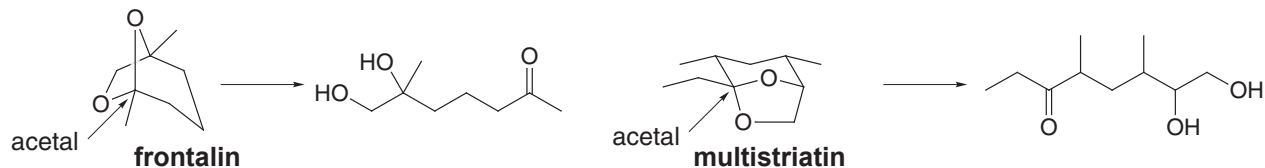
17.50



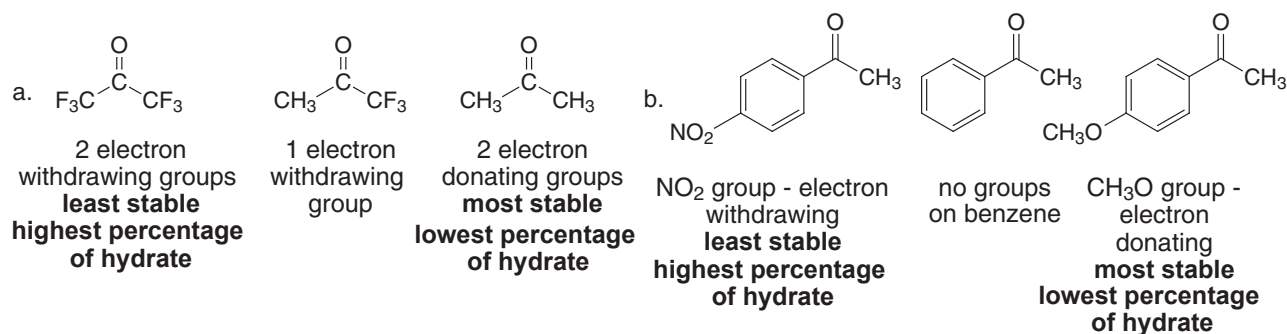
17.51



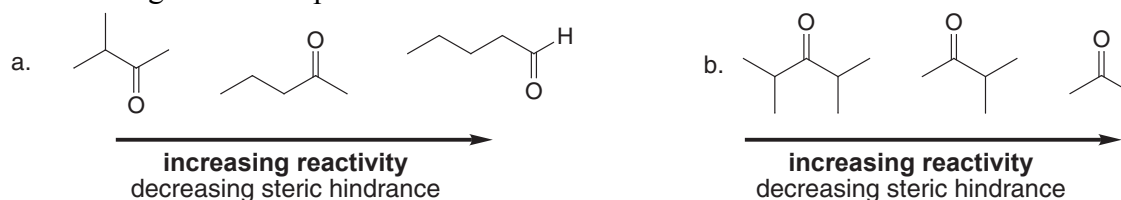
17.52



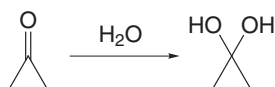
17.53 All'aumentare del numero di gruppi R legati al C carbonilico, aumenta anche la stabilità dovuta ad effetti elettron donatori.



17.54 Usare le regole della risposta 19.1.

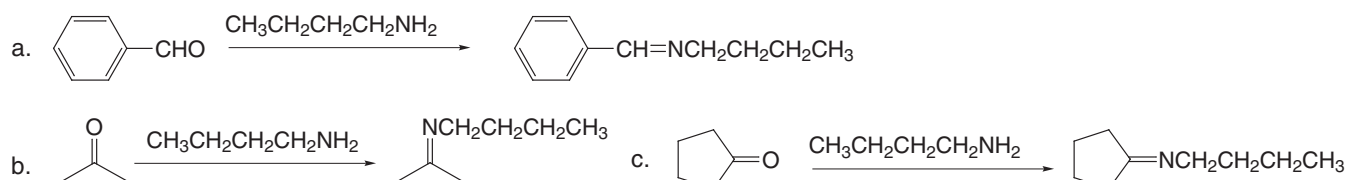


17.55

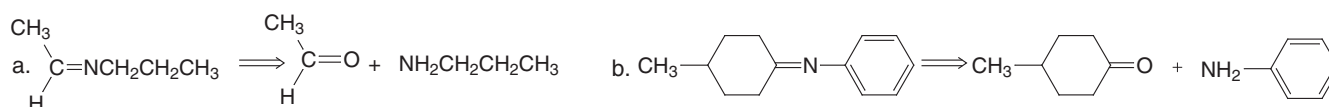


Less stable carbonyl compounds give a higher percentage of hydrate. Cyclopropanone is an unstable carbonyl compound because the bond angles around the carbonyl carbon deviate considerably from the desired angle. Since the carbonyl carbon is sp^2 hybridized, the optimum bond angle is 120° , but the three-membered ring makes the C-C-C bond angles only 60° . This destabilizes the ketone, giving a high concentration of hydrate when dissolved in H_2O .

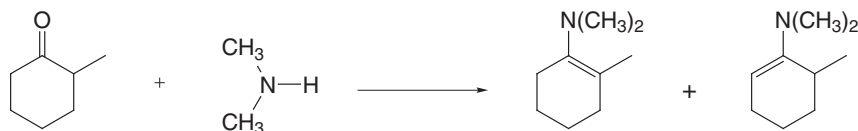
17.56 Quando un'ammina 1° reagisce con una aldeide o un chetone, il C=O è sostituito con il C=NR.



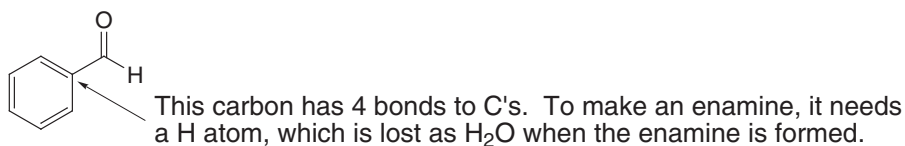
17.57 Ricordare che il C=NR si forma da un C=O ed un gruppo NH_2 di un'ammina 1°.



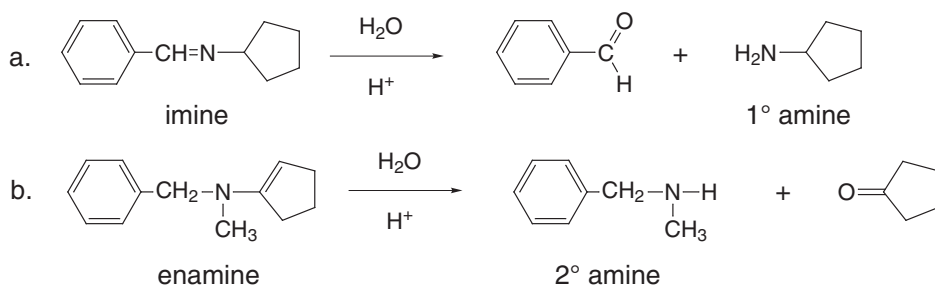
17.58



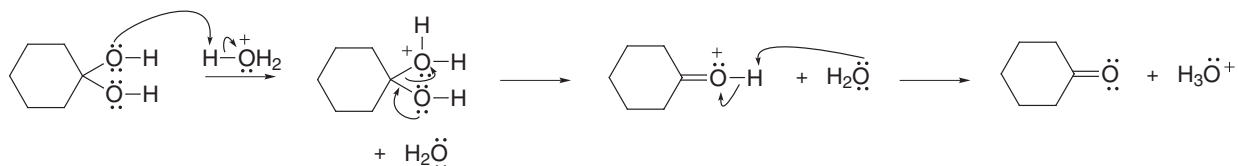
17.59



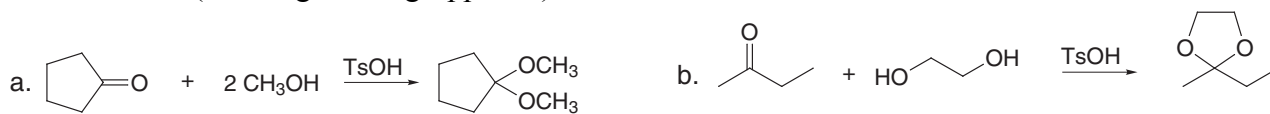
- 17.60**
- Le immine sono idrolizzate ad ammine 1° e composti carbonilici.
 - Le enammine sono idrolizzate ad ammine 2° e composti carbonilici.



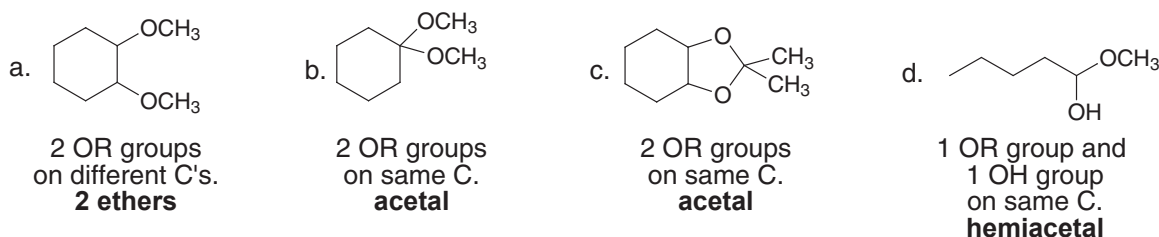
17.61



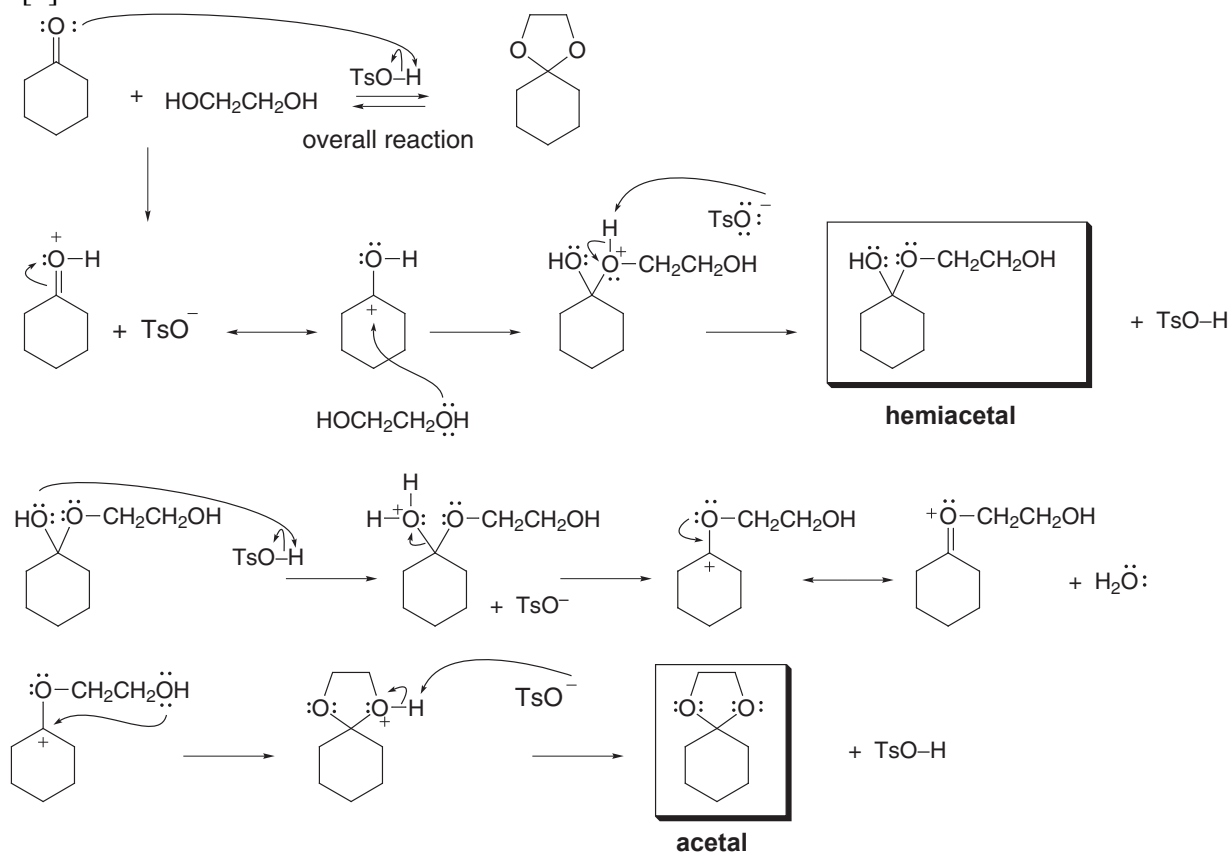
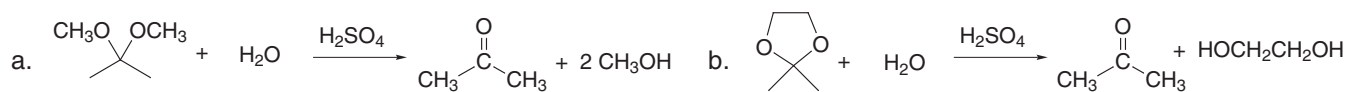
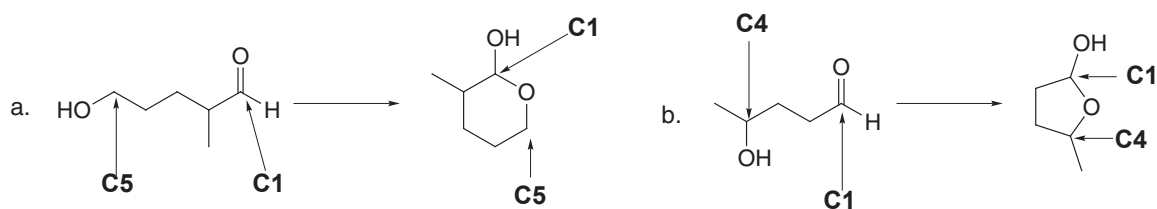
- 17.62** Il trattamento di un'aldeide o chetone con due equivalenti di un alcol porta alla formazione di acetali (un C legato a 2 gruppi OR).



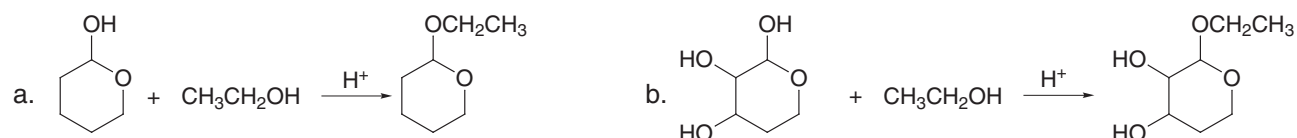
17.63



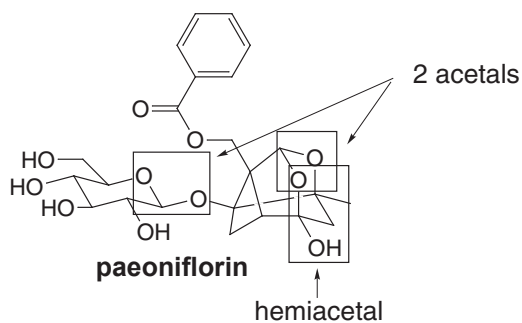
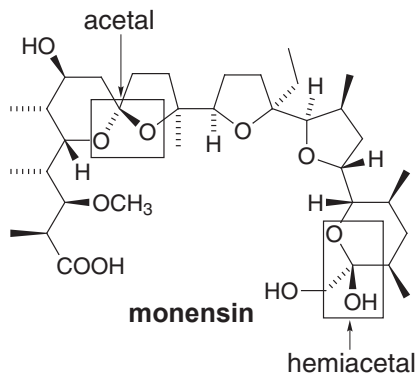
17.64 Il meccanismo consiste in due parti: [1] Addizione nucleofila di ROH per formare un emiacetale; [2] Conversione dell'emiacetale in un acetale.

**17.65****17.66**

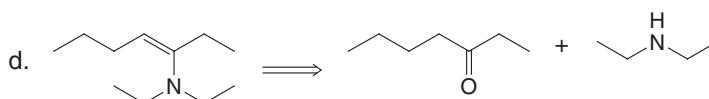
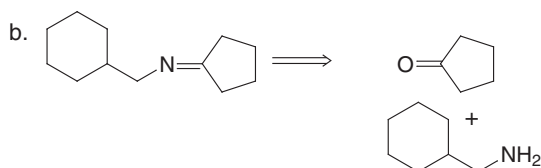
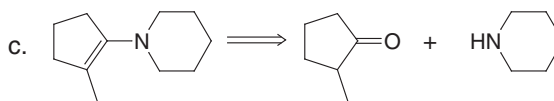
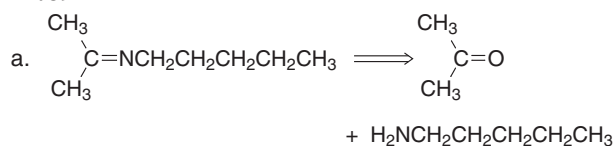
17.67 L'OH emiacetalico è sostituito da un gruppo OR per formare un acetale.



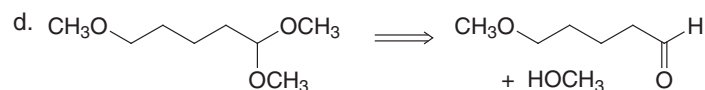
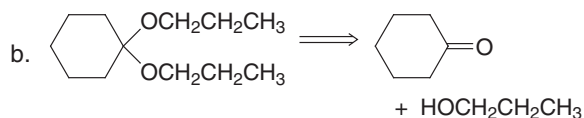
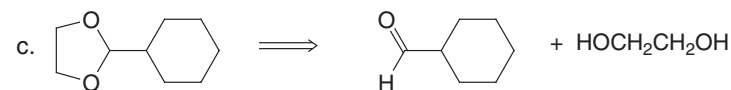
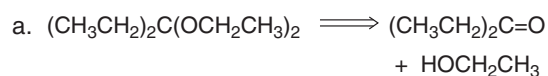
17.68



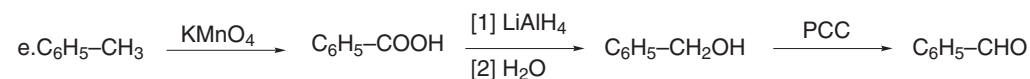
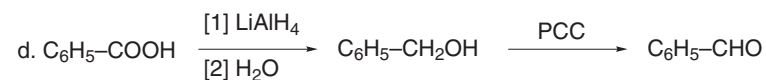
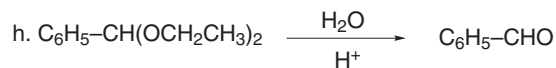
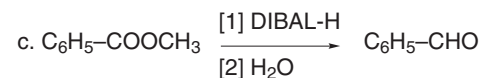
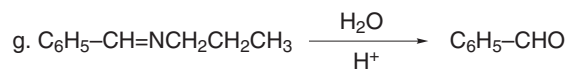
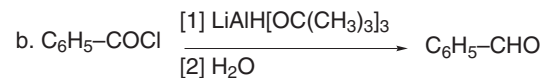
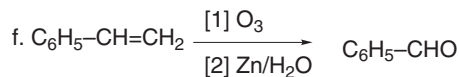
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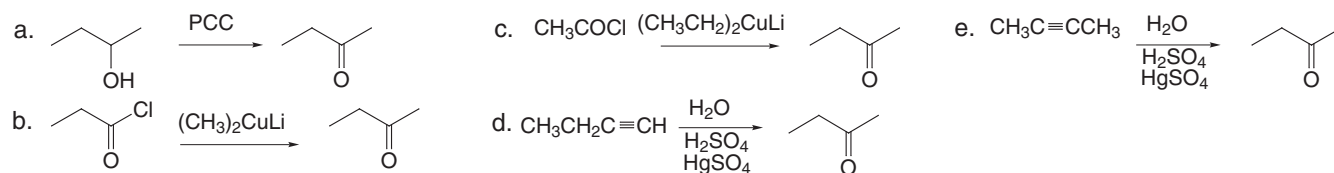
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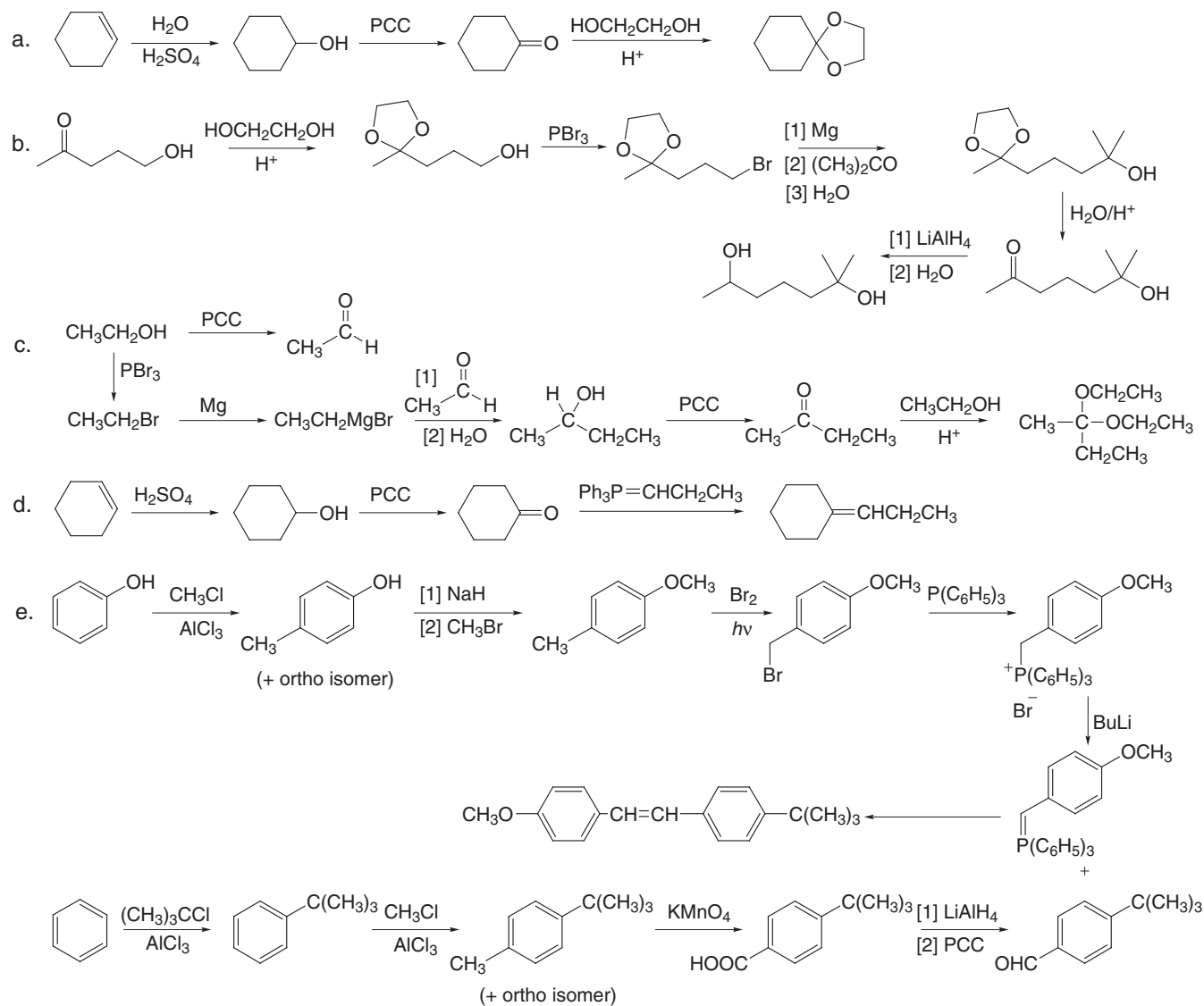
17.71



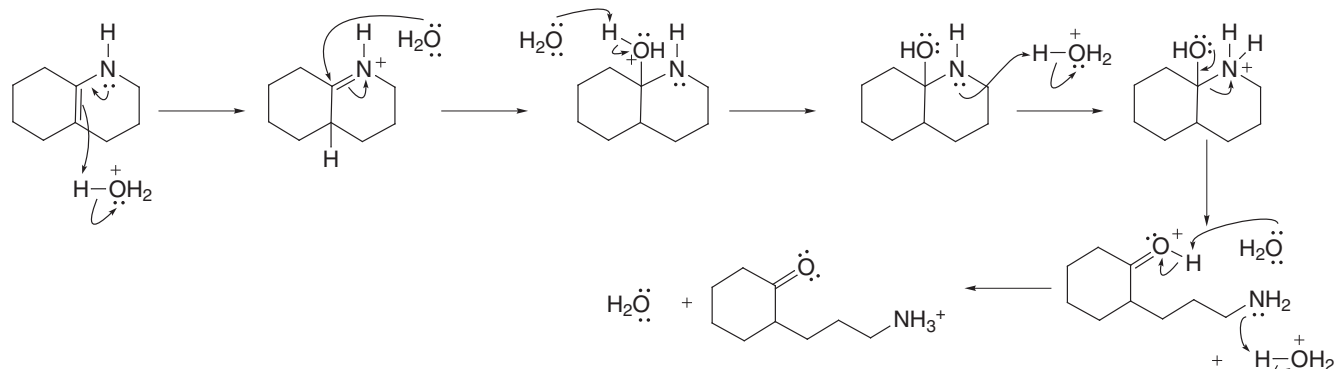
17.72



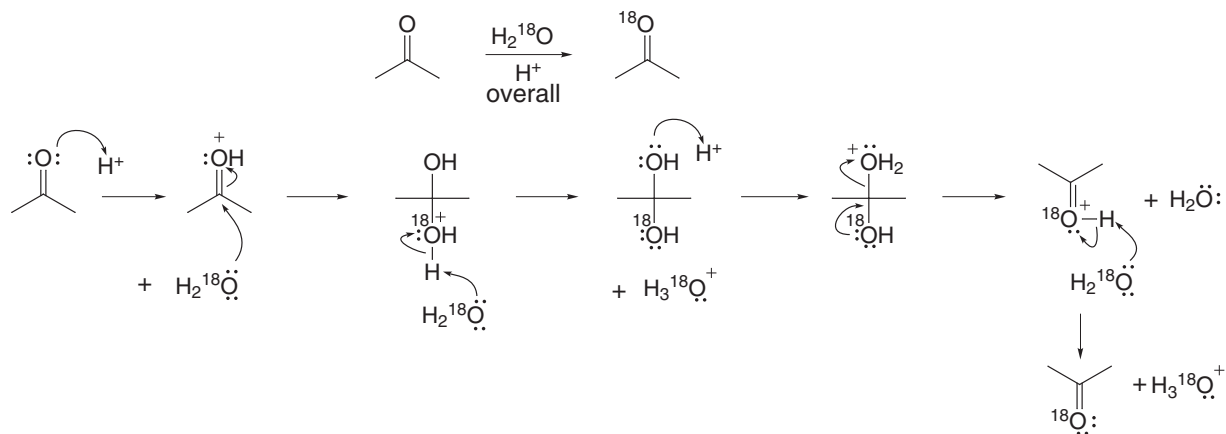
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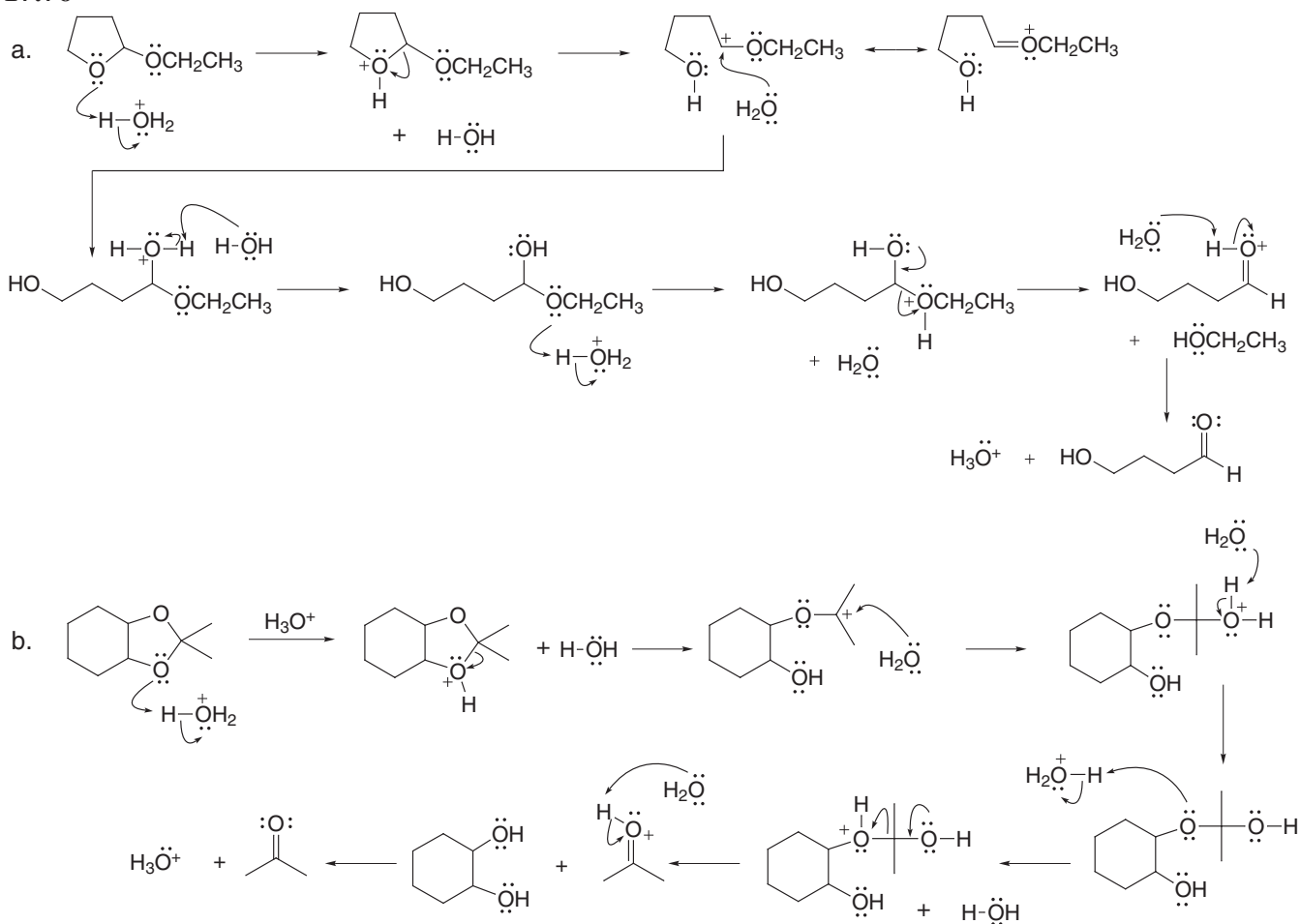
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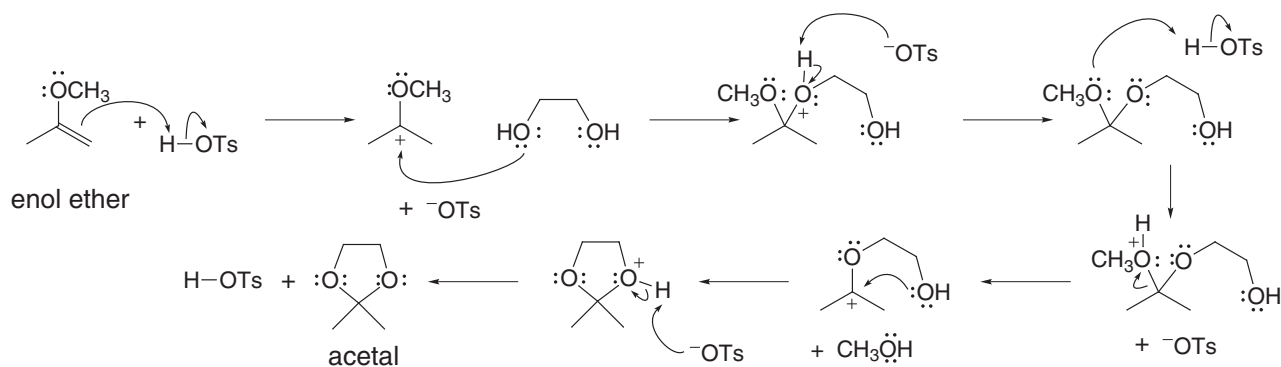
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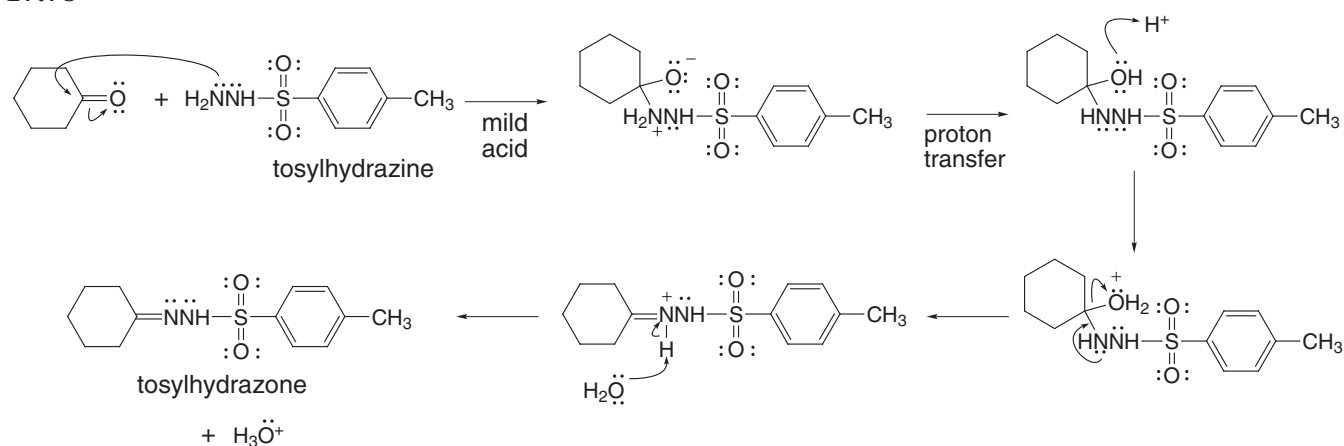
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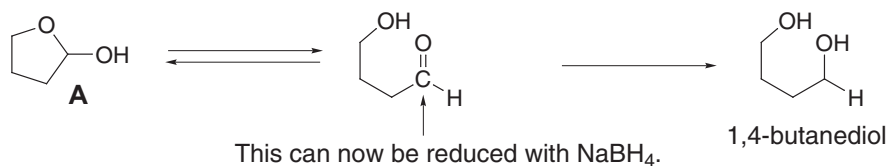
17.77



17.78

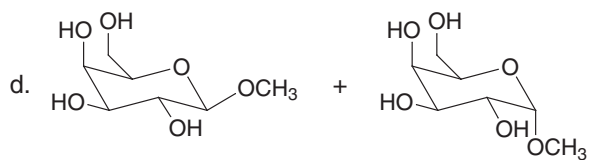
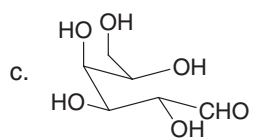
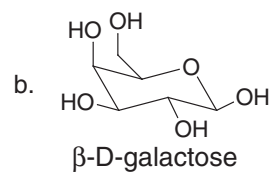
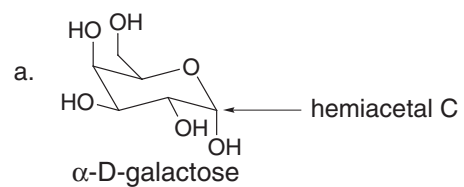


17.79 L'emiacetale **A** è in equilibrio con la sua idrossialdeide ciclica. L'aldeide può essere ridotta dall'idruro e questo porta alla formazione di 1,4-butanediolo.

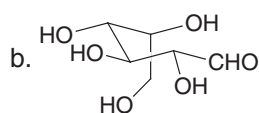
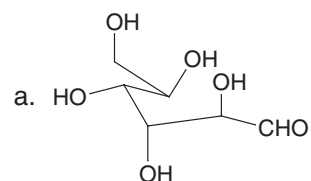


17.80 Il β -D-glucosio ha cinque centri stereogenici. L' α - e il β -D-glucosio sono stereoisomeri (diastereomeri). **A** e il β -D-glucosio sono isomeri costituzionali.

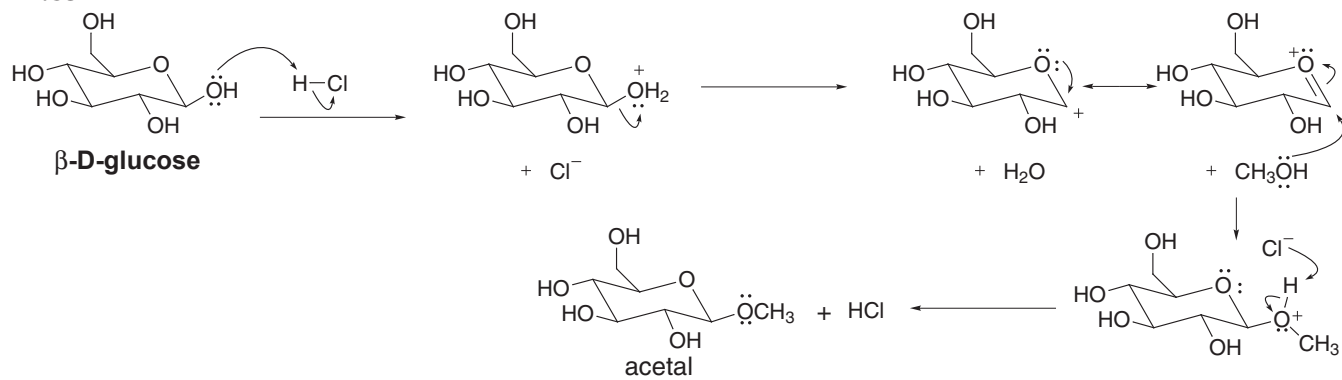
17.81



17.82



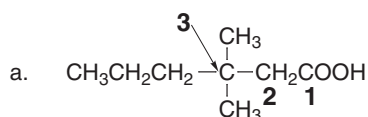
17.83



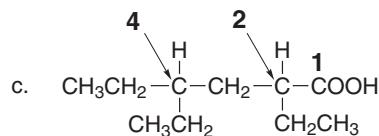
Captolo 18

18.1 Per denominare un acido carbossilico:

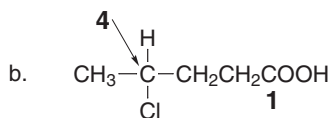
- [1] Trovare la catena più lunga che contiene il gruppo COOH e cambiare la desinenza *-o* in *-oico*.
- [2] Numerare la catena in modo che il COOH sia il C1, ma omettere questo numero dal nome.
- [3] Seguire tutte le altre regole della nomenclatura.



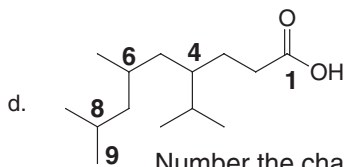
Number the chain to put COOH at C1.
6 carbon chain = **hexanoic acid**
3,3-dimethylhexanoic acid



Number the chain to put COOH at C1.
6 carbon chain = **hexanoic acid**
2,4-diethylhexanoic acid



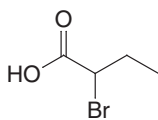
Number the chain to put COOH at C1.
5 carbon chain = **pentanoic acid**
4-chloropentanoic acid



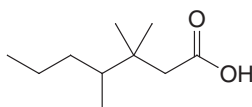
Number the chain to put COOH at C1.
9 carbon chain = **nonanoic acid**
4-isopropyl-6,8-dimethylnonanoic acid

18.2

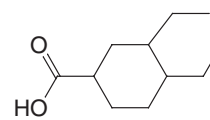
a. 2-bromobutanoic acid



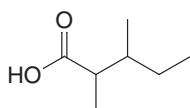
c. 3,3,4-trimethylheptanoic acid



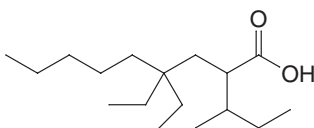
e. 3,4-diethylcyclohexanecarboxylic acid



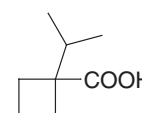
b. 2,3-dimethylpentanoic acid



d. 2-sec-butyl-4,4-diethylnonanoic acid

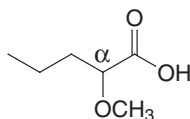


f. 1-isopropylcyclobutane-carboxylic acid

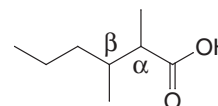


18.3

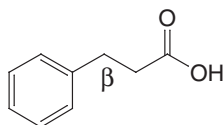
a. α -methoxyvaleric acid



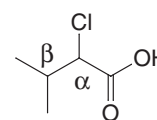
c. α,β -dimethylcaproic acid



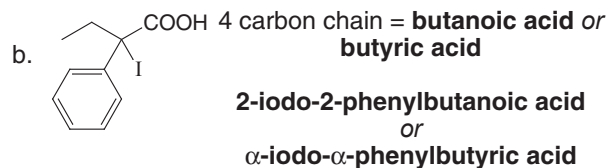
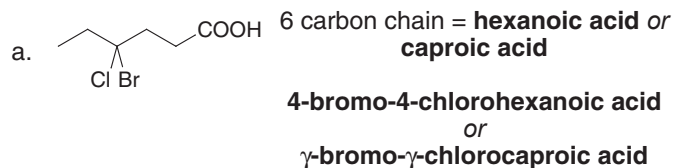
b. β -phenylpropionic acid



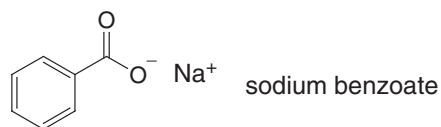
d. α -chloro- β -methylbutyric acid



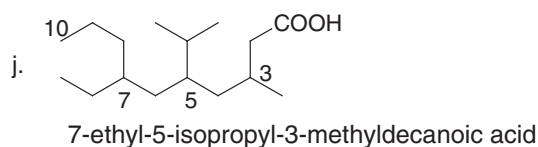
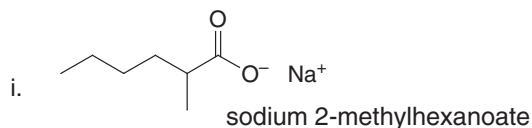
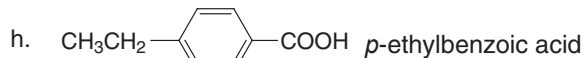
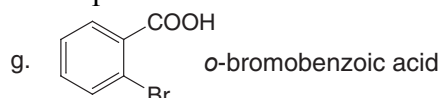
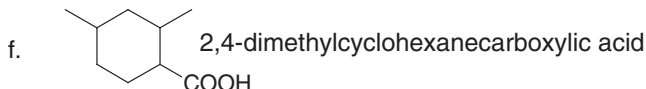
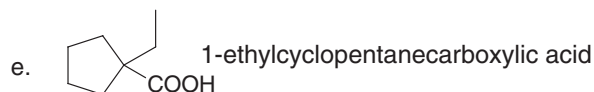
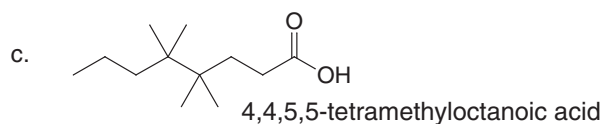
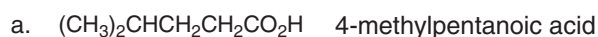
18.4



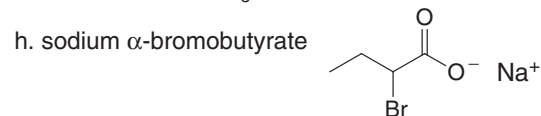
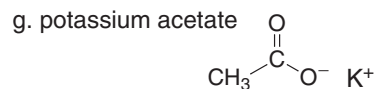
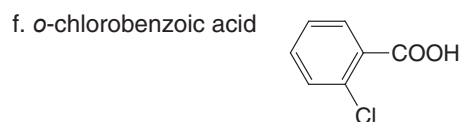
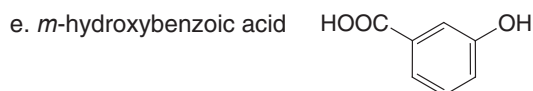
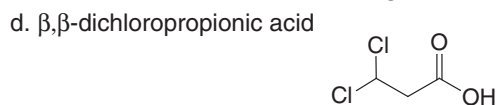
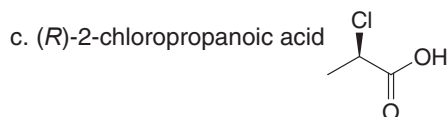
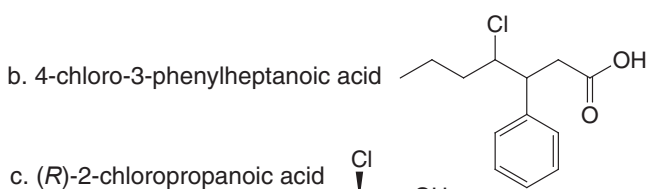
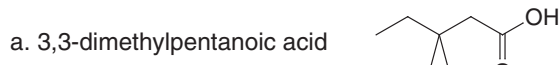
18.5



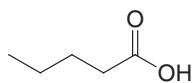
18.6 Usare le regole della risposta 19.1 per denominare i composti.



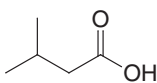
18.7



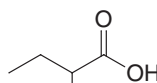
18.8



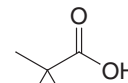
pentanoic acid



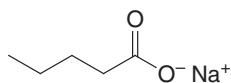
3-methylbutanoic acid



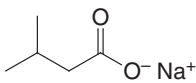
2-methylbutanoic acid



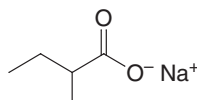
2,2-dimethylpropanoic acid



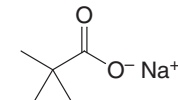
sodium pentanoate



sodium 3-methylbutanoate



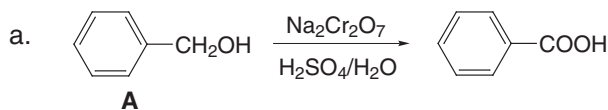
sodium 2-methylbutanoate

sodium
2,2-dimethylpropanoate

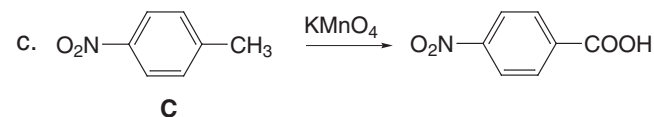
18.9 Gli alcoli 1° sono convertiti in acidi carbossilici da reazioni di ossidazione.



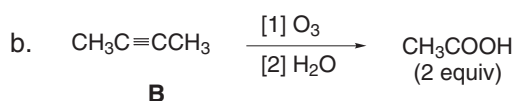
18.10



A



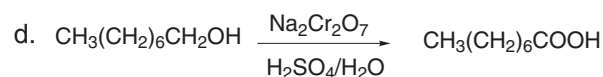
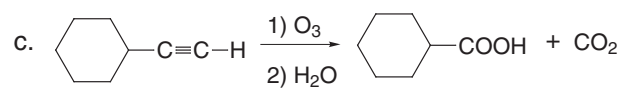
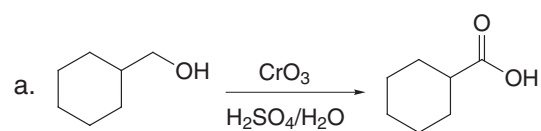
C



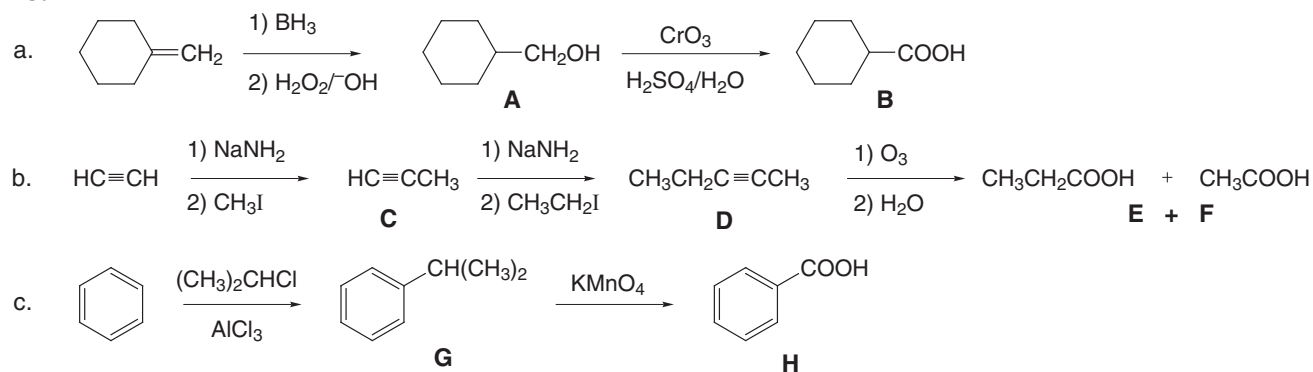
B

(Any R group with benzylic H's
can be present para to NO₂.)

18.11



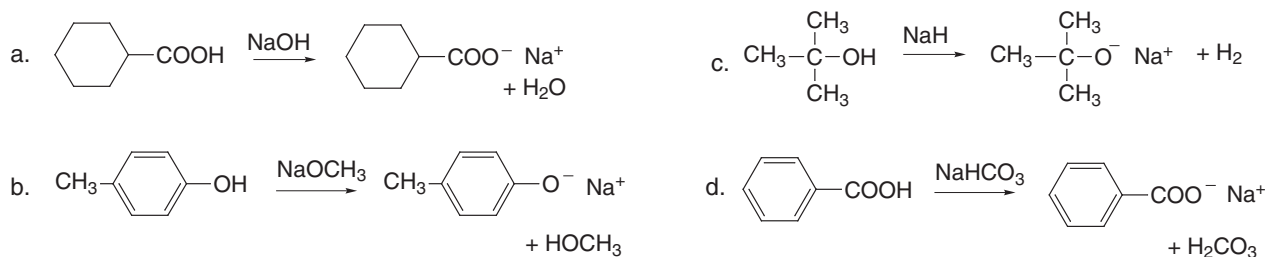
18.12



18.13 Gli acidi carbossilici reagiscono con tutti i reagenti elencati, eccetto CrO_3 . Essi sono infatti al massimo grado di ossidazione, così non possono essere facilmente ossidati ad altri composti con agenti ossidanti come CrO_3 .

- a. NaOH b. HCl c. LiAlH_4 d. CrO_3 **NO REACTION** e. NaOCH_3

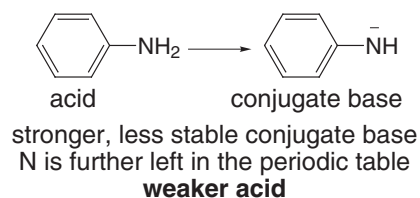
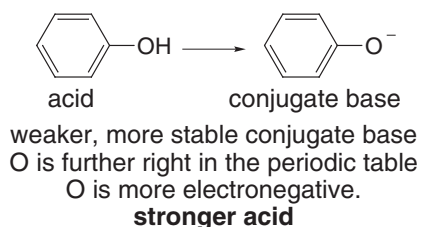
18.14



18.15 CH_3COOH ha un $\text{p}K_a$ di 4.8. Ciascuna base con un acido coniugato con $\text{p}K_a$ maggiore di 4.8 può deprotonarlo.

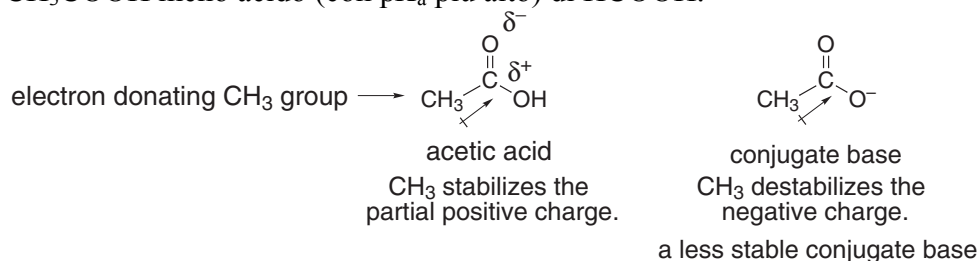
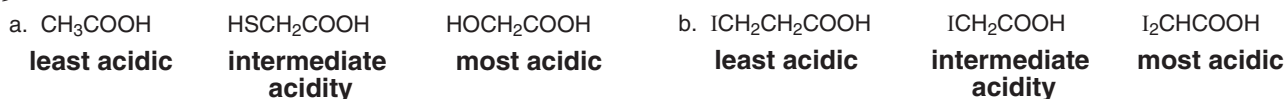
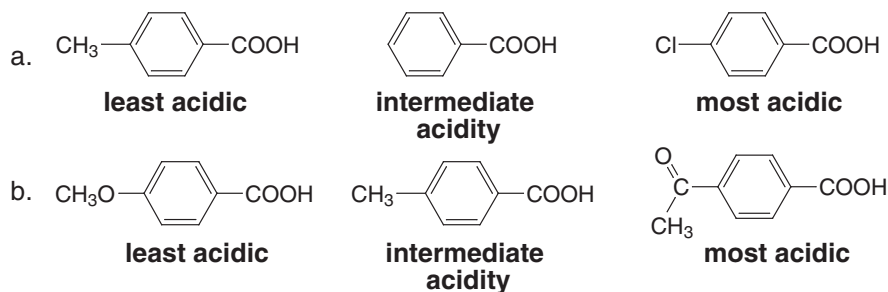
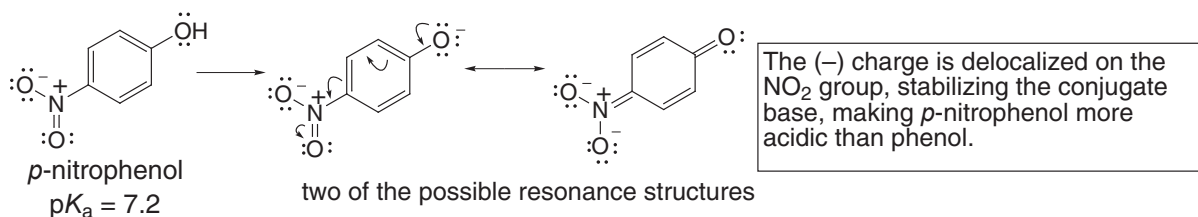
- a. F^- $\text{p}K_a (\text{HF}) = 3.2$ **not strong enough** d. NH_2^- $\text{p}K_a (\text{NH}_3) = 38$ **strong enough**
 b. $(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{CO}^-$ $\text{p}K_a [(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{COH}] = 18$ **strong enough** e. Cl^- $\text{p}K_a (\text{HCl}) = -7.0$ **not strong enough**
 c. CH_3^- $\text{p}K_a (\text{CH}_4) = 50$ **strong enough**

18.16 L'acido più forte ha la base coniugata più debole. Ricordare l'andamento periodico che determina l'acidità.



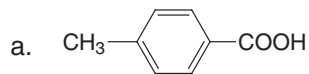
18.17 I gruppi elettron-attrattori rendono un acido più acido, abbassando il suo valore di $\text{p}K_a$.

18.18 L'acido acetico ha un gruppo metile elettrone donatore adiacente al gruppo carbossilico. Il gruppo CH_3 stabilizza l'acido e destabilizza la vicina carica negativa sulla base coniugata, rendendo il CH_3COOH meno acido (con $\text{p}K_a$ più alto) di HCOOH .

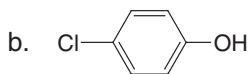
**18.19****18.20****18.21**

18.22

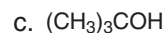
Bases: [1] OH^- $pK_a(\text{H}_2\text{O}) = 15.7$; [2] CH_3CH_2^- $pK_a(\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_3) = 50$; [3] NH_2^- $pK_a(\text{NH}_3) = 38$; [4] NH_3 $pK_a(\text{NH}_4^+) = 9.4$; [5] $\text{HC}\equiv\text{C}^-$ $pK_a(\text{HC}\equiv\text{CH}) = 25$.



$pK_a = 4.3$
All of the bases
can deprotonate this.

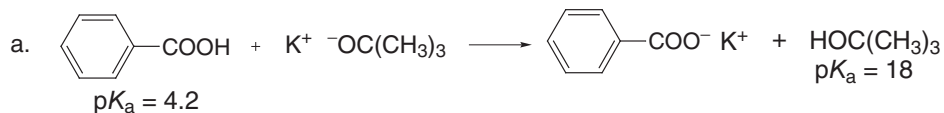


$pK_a = 9.4$
 OH^- , CH_3CH_2^- , NH_2^- and $\text{HC}\equiv\text{C}^-$
can deprotonate this.

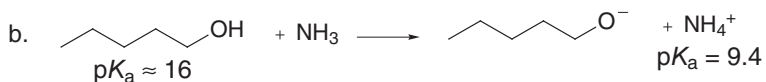


$pK_a = 18$
 CH_3CH_2^- , NH_2^- and $\text{HC}\equiv\text{C}^-$
can deprotonate this.

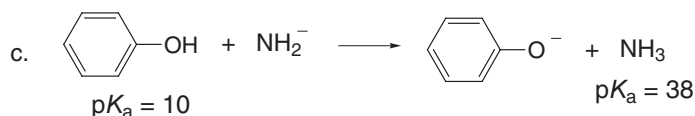
18.23



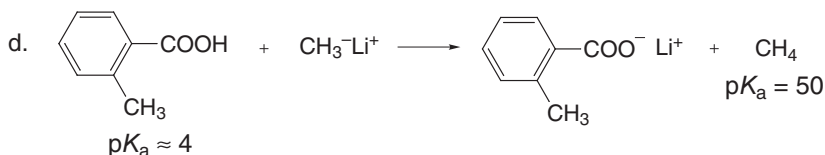
Reaction favors products.



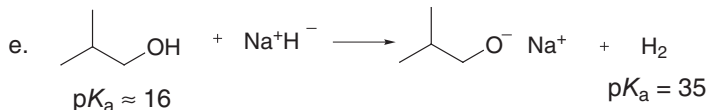
Reaction favors reactants.



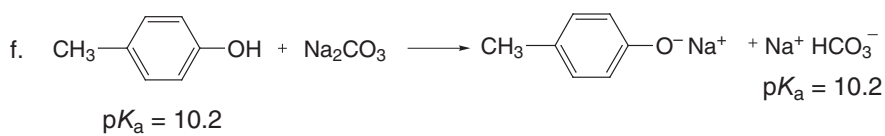
Reaction favors products.



Reaction favors products.

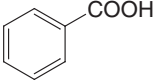
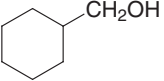
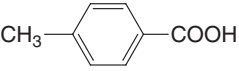
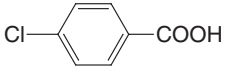


Reaction favors products.

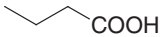
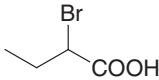
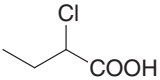
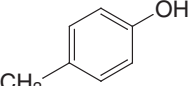
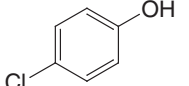
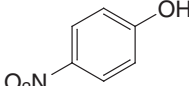
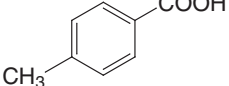
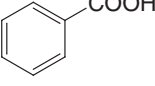
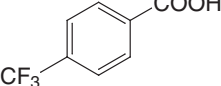
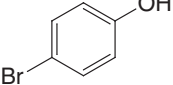
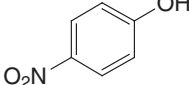
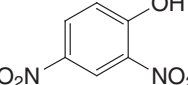


With the same pK_a for the starting acid and the conjugate acid, an equal amount of starting materials and products is present.

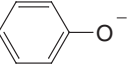
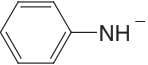
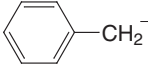
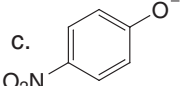
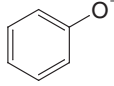
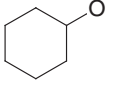
18.24 L'acido più forte ha il più basso pK_a e la base coniugata più debole.

- a.  and 
 carboxylic acid weaker acid **lower pK_a**
 weaker conjugate base **stronger conjugate base**
- b. ClCH_2COOH and FCH_2COOH
 weaker acid higher pK_a **stronger conjugate base**
 F is more electronegative stronger acid **lower pK_a**
 weaker conjugate base
- c.  and 
 CH₃ is electron donating weaker acid higher pK_a **stronger conjugate base**
 Cl is electron withdrawing stronger acid **lower pK_a**
 weaker conjugate base
- d. NCCH_2COOH and CH_3COOH
 CN is electron withdrawing stronger acid **lower pK_a**
 weaker conjugate base
 weaker acid higher pK_a **stronger conjugate base**

18.25

- a.  **least acidic**  Br is electronegative **intermediate acidity**  Cl more electronegative **most acidic**
- b.  **least acidic**  **intermediate acidity**  **most acidic**
- c.  **least acidic**  **intermediate acidity**  **most acidic**
- d.  **least acidic**  **intermediate acidity**  **most acidic**

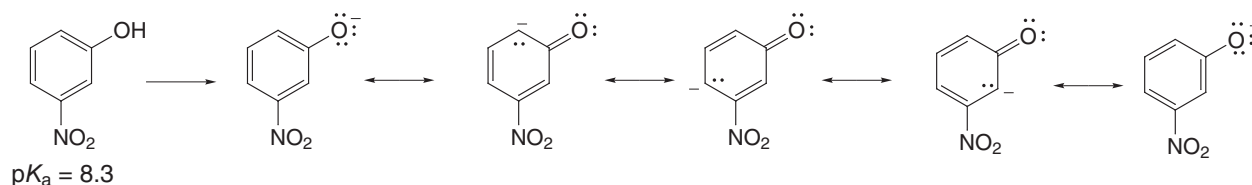
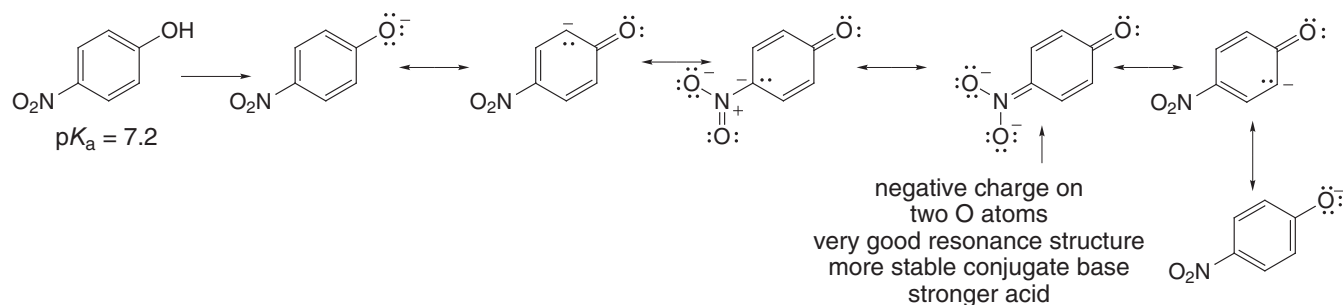
18.26

- a. $\text{BrCH}_2\text{COO}^-$ $\text{BrCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{COO}^-$ $(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{CCOO}^-$
weakest base **intermediate basicity** **strongest base**
- b.  **weakest base**  **intermediate basicity**  **strongest base**
- c.  **weakest base**  **intermediate basicity**  **strongest base**

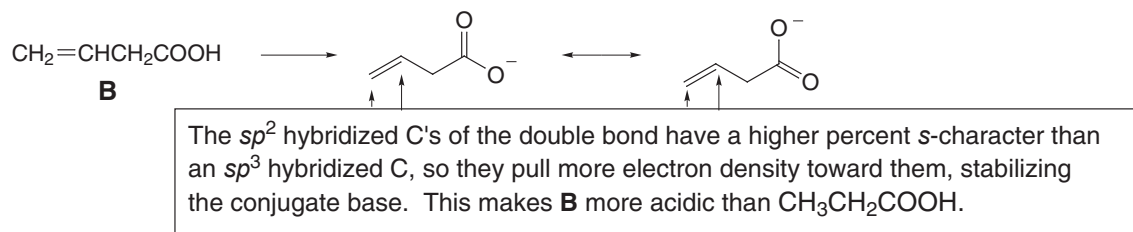
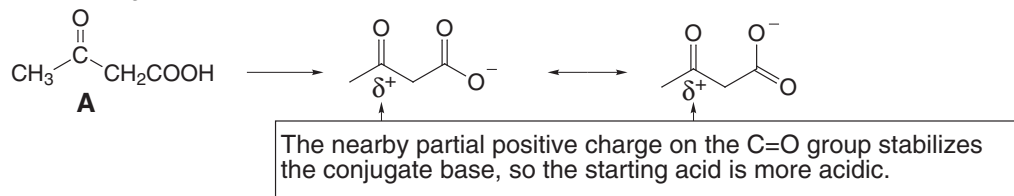
18.27

	increasing acidity →				
pK_a values	ICH_2COOH least acidic 3.12	BrCH_2COOH 2.86	FCH_2COOH 2.66	F_2CHCOOH 1.24	F_3CCOOH most acidic 0.28

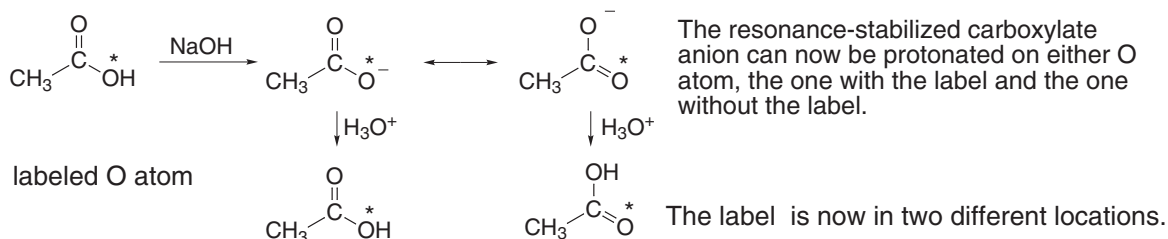
18.28 Nell'isomero para, la carica negativa della base coniugata è delocalizzata sia sull'anello benzenico che sul gruppo NO_2 , mentre nell'isomero meta non può essere delocalizzata sul gruppo NO_2 . Questo rende la base coniugata dell'isomero para maggiormente stabilizzata per risonanza, e il fenolo para sostituito più acido del suo isomero meta.



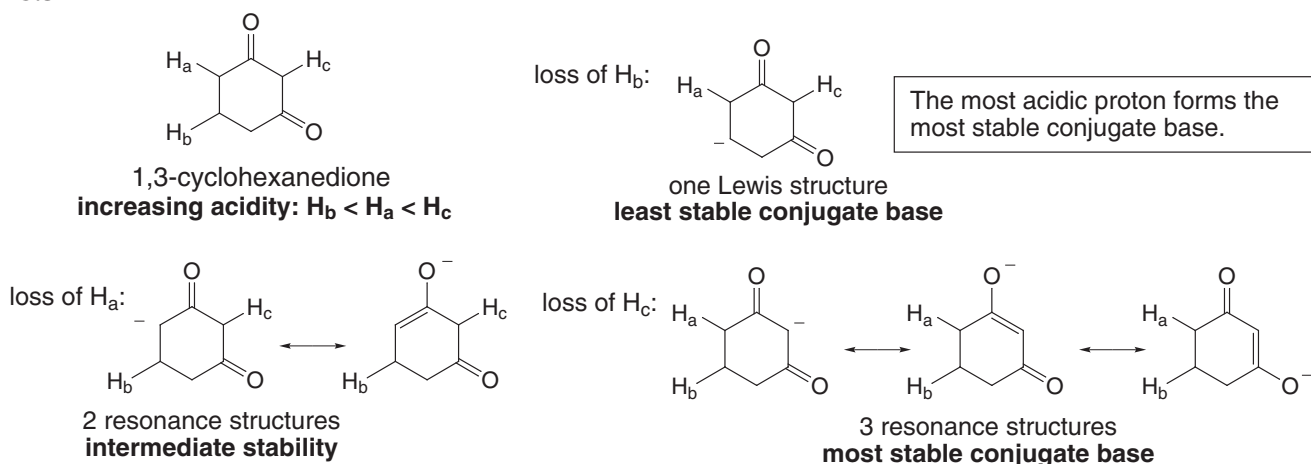
18.29 Sia **A** che **B** hanno gruppi stabilizzanti per la base coniugata, rendendoli più acidi di $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{COOH}$.



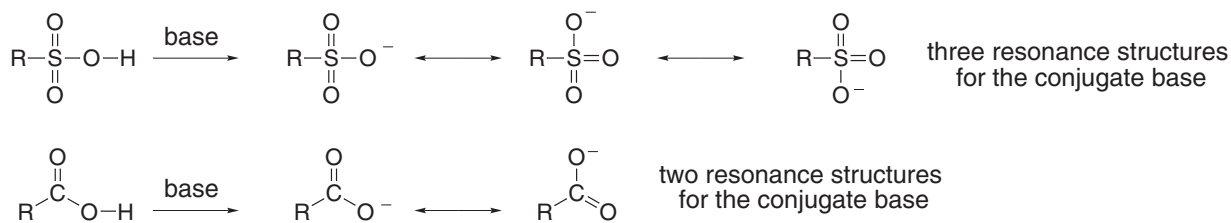
18.30



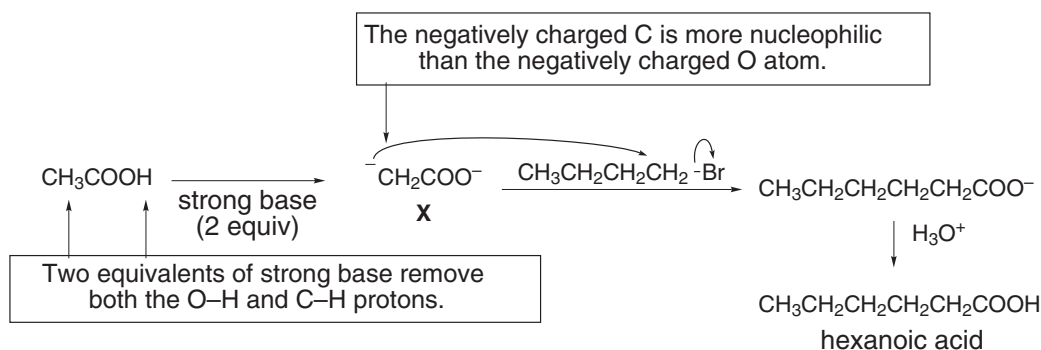
18.31



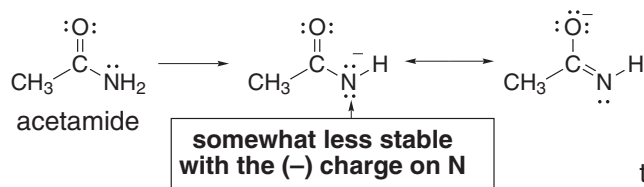
18.32 Come al solito, confrontare la stabilità delle basi coniugate. Con RSO_3H , la perdita di un protone forma una base coniugata che ha tre strutture di risonanza, tutte equivalenti, e posiziona una carica negativa sull'atomo di O più elettronegativo. Con la base coniugata di RCOOH , ci sono solo due di queste strutture risonanti. Quindi la base coniugata RSO_3^- è maggiormente stabilizzata per risonanza di RCOO^- , così RSO_3H è un acido più forte di RCOOH .



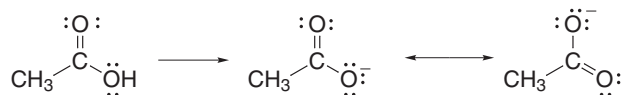
18.33



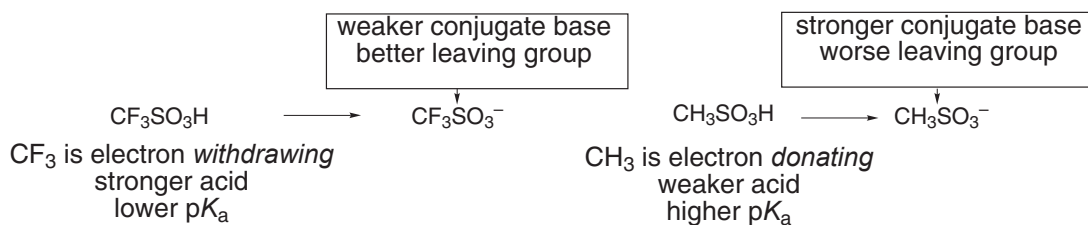
18.34



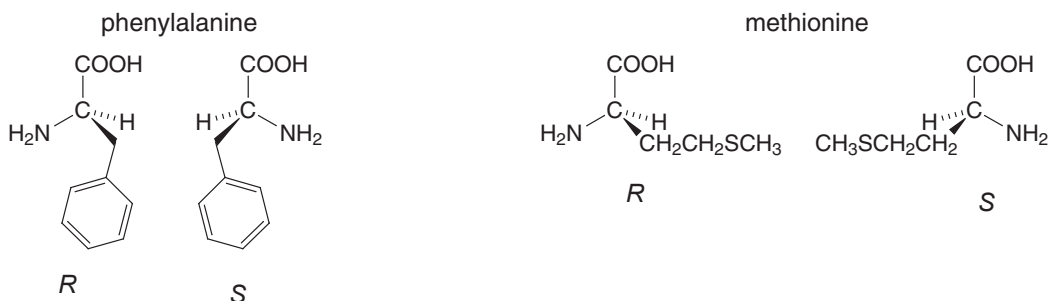
O is more electronegative than N, making the conjugate base of CH_3COOH more stable than the conjugate base of acetamide. Therefore, acetamide is less acidic.



18.35

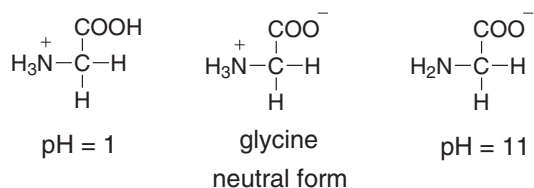


18.36



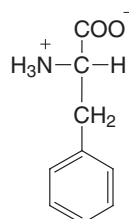
18.37 Poiché gli amminoacidi esistono come zwitterioni (cioè sali), sono troppo polari per essere solubili nei solventi organici come l'etere dietilico. Sono perciò solubili in acqua.

18.38

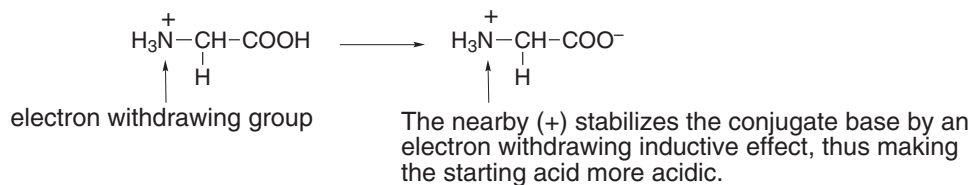


18.39

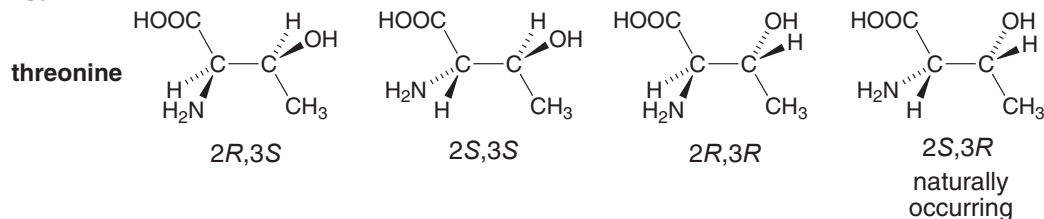
$$\text{pI} = \frac{\text{pK}_a(\text{COOH}) + \text{pK}_a(\text{NH}_3^+)}{2} = \frac{(2.58) + (9.24)}{2} = 5.91$$



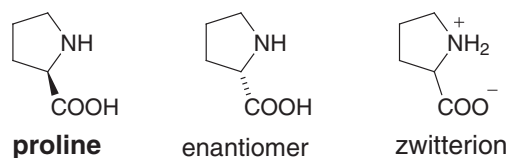
18.40



18.41

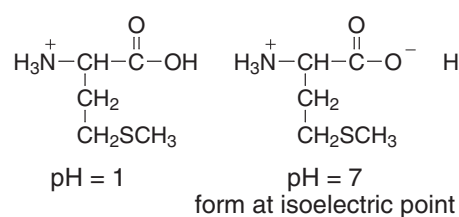


18.42

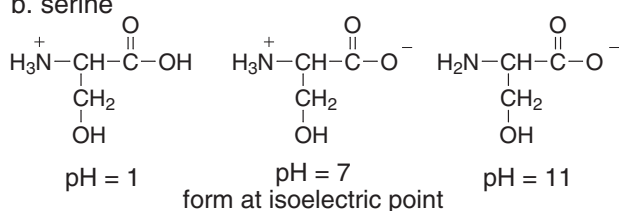


18.43

a. methionine



b. serine

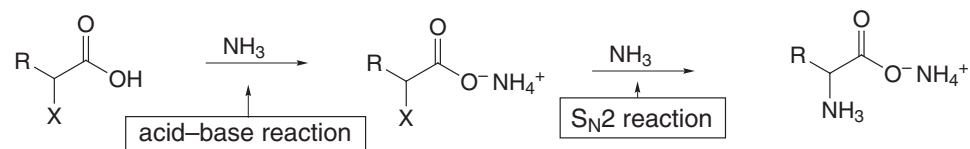


18.44

a. cysteine $pI = \frac{pK_a(\text{COOH}) + pK_a(\text{NH}_3^+)}{2} = (2.05) + (10.25) / 2 = \mathbf{6.15}$

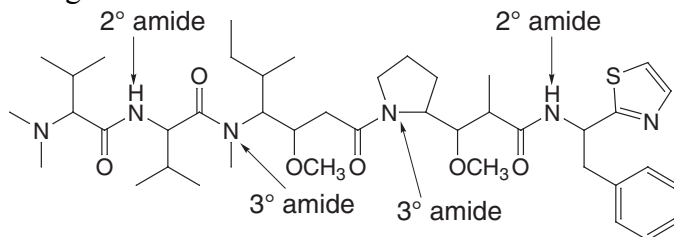
b. methionine $pI = \frac{pK_a(\text{COOH}) + pK_a(\text{NH}_3^+)}{2} = (2.28) + (9.21) / 2 = \mathbf{5.75}$

18.45

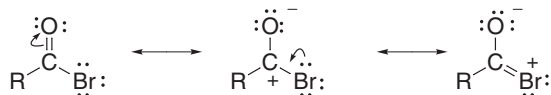


The first equivalent of NH_3 acts as a base to remove a proton from the carboxylic acid. A second equivalent then acts as a nucleophile to displace X to form the ammonium salt of the amino acid.

18.46 Il numero di legami C–N determina la classificazione come ammidi 1°, 2°, o 3°.

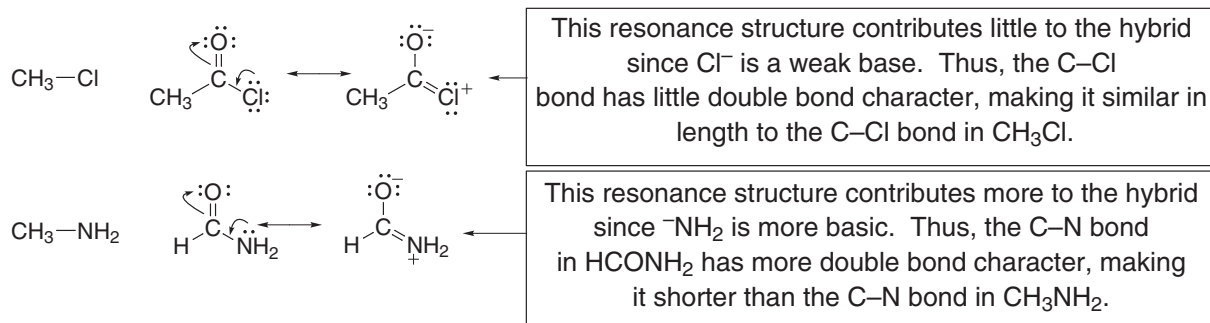


18.47 All'aumentare della basicità di Z, aumenta la stabilità di RCOZ , a causa dell'aumento della stabilizzazione che deriva dalla risonanza.

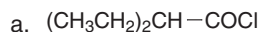


The **basicity of Z** determines how much this structure contributes to the hybrid.
 Br^- is less basic than OH^- , so RCOBr is less stable than RCOOH .

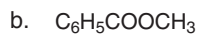
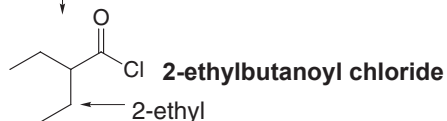
18.48



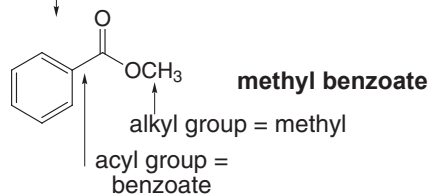
18.49



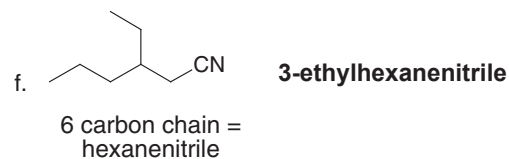
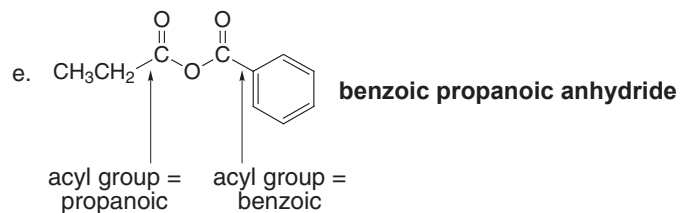
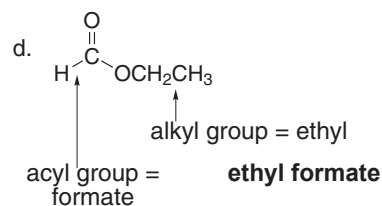
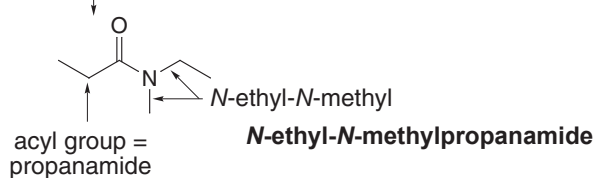
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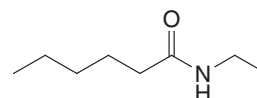
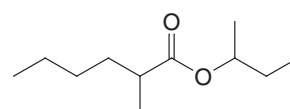
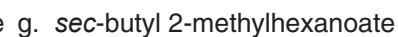
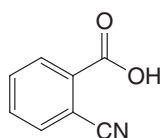
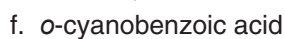
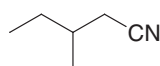
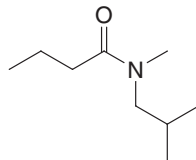
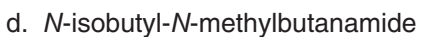
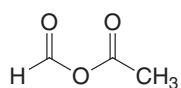
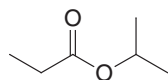
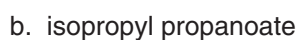
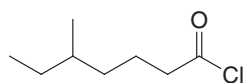
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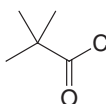
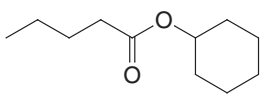
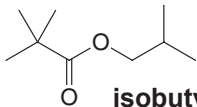
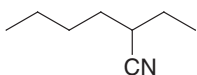
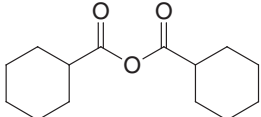
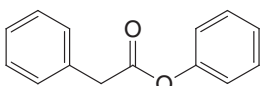
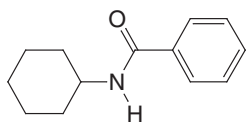
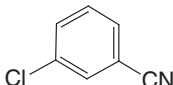
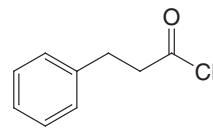
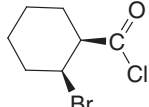
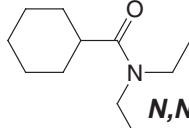
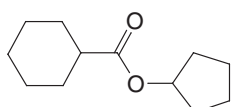
redraw



18.50



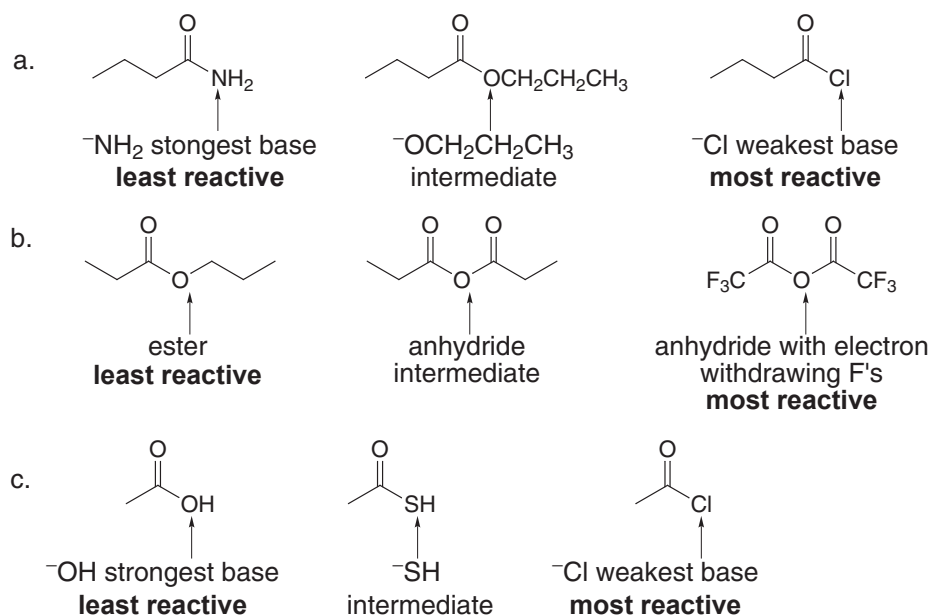
18.51

- a.  **2,2-dimethylpropanoyl chloride**
- b.  **cyclohexyl pentanoate**
- c.  **isobutyl 2,2-dimethylpropanoate**
- d.  **2-ethylhexanenitrile**
- e.  **cyclohexanecarboxylic anhydride**
- f.  **phenyl phenylacetate**
- g.  **N-cyclohexylbenzamide**
- h.  **m-chlorobenzonitrile**
- i.  **3-phenylpropanoyl chloride**
- j.  **cis-2-bromocyclohexanecarbonyl chloride**
- k.  **N,N-diethylcyclohexanecarboxamide**
- l.  **cyclopentyl cyclohexanecarboxylate**

18.52

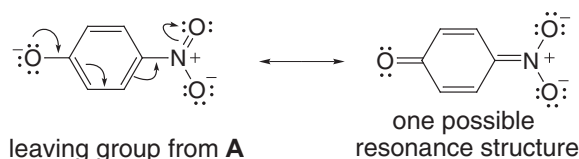
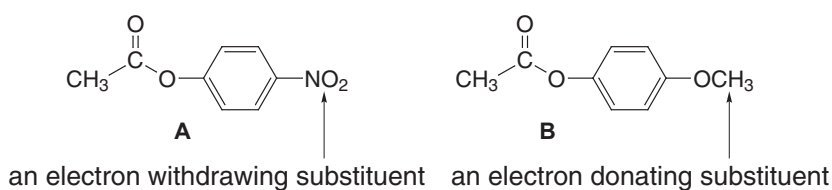
- a. propanoic anhydride
- b. α -chlorobutyryl chloride
- c. cyclohexyl propanoate
- d. cyclohexanecarboxamide
- e. isopropyl formate
- f. N-cyclopentylpentanamide
- g. 4-methylheptanenitrile
- h. vinyl acetate
- i. benzoic propanoic anhydride
- j. 3-methylhexanoyl chloride
- k. octyl butanoate
- l. N,N-dibenzylformamide

18.53 Classificare i composti usando le regole della risposta 20.13.

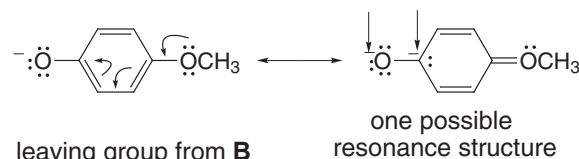


18.54

Better leaving groups make acyl compounds more reactive. **A** has an electron withdrawing NO_2 group, which stabilizes the negative charge of the leaving group, whereas **B** has an electron donating OCH_3 group, which destabilizes the leaving group.

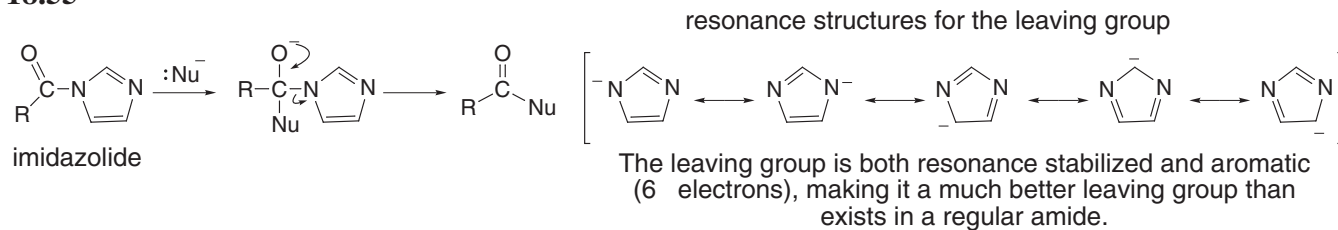


Delocalizing the negative charge on the NO_2 stabilizes the leaving group making **A** more reactive than **B**.



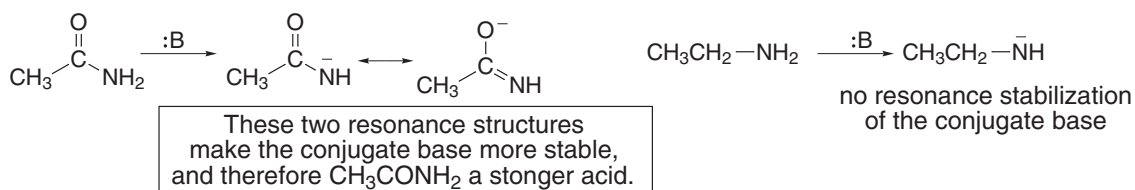
Adjacent negative charges destabilize the leaving group.

18.55

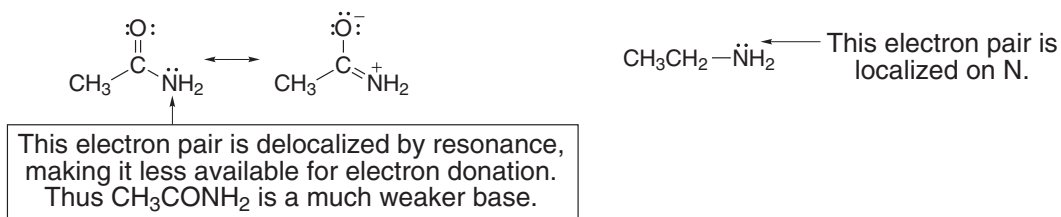


18.56

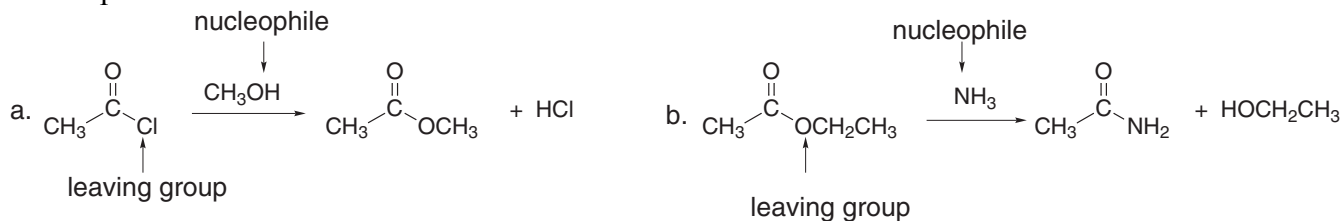
Reaction as an acid:



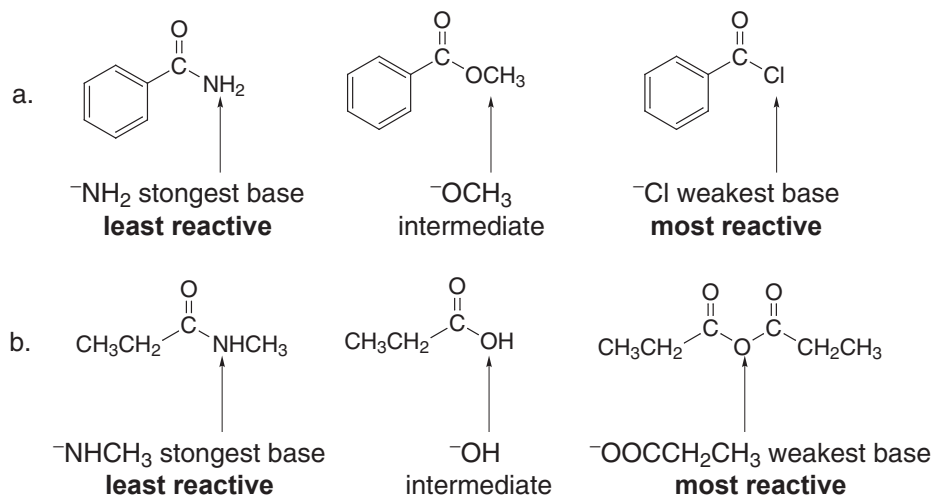
Reaction as a base:



18.57 Per disegnare i prodotti di queste reazioni di sostituzione nucleofila acilica, individuare il nucleofilo ed il gruppo uscente. Poi sostituire il gruppo uscente con il nucleofilo e disegnare un prodotto neutro.



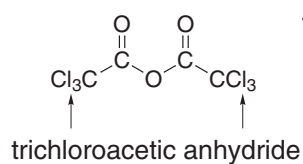
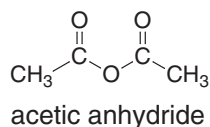
18.58 Migliore è il gruppo uscente, più reattivo risulta il derivato dell'acido carbossilico. La base più debole è il miglior gruppo uscente.



18.59 I composti acilici più reattivi possono essere convertiti nei composti acilici meno reattivi.

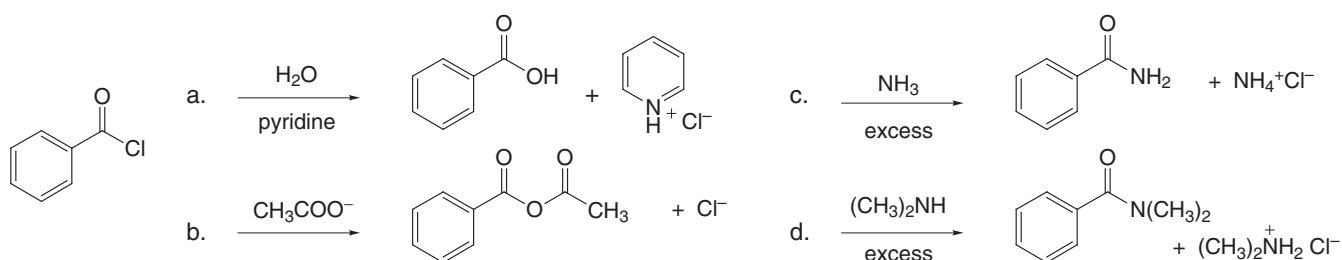
- a. CH_3COCl more reactive $\xrightarrow{\text{YES}}$ CH_3COOH less reactive
- b. $\text{CH}_3\text{CONHCH}_3$ less reactive $\xrightarrow{\text{NO}}$ $\text{CH}_3\text{COOCH}_3$ more reactive
- c. $\text{CH}_3\text{COOCH}_3$ less reactive $\xrightarrow{\text{NO}}$ CH_3COCl more reactive

18.60

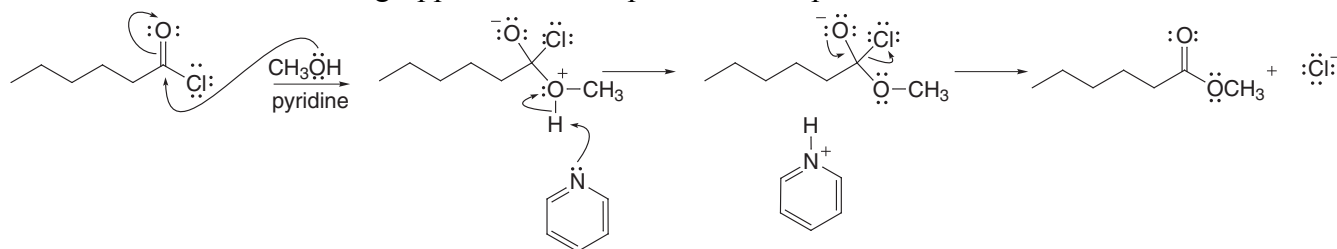


The Cl atoms are electron withdrawing, which makes the conjugate base (the leaving group, CCl_3COO^-) weaker and more stable.

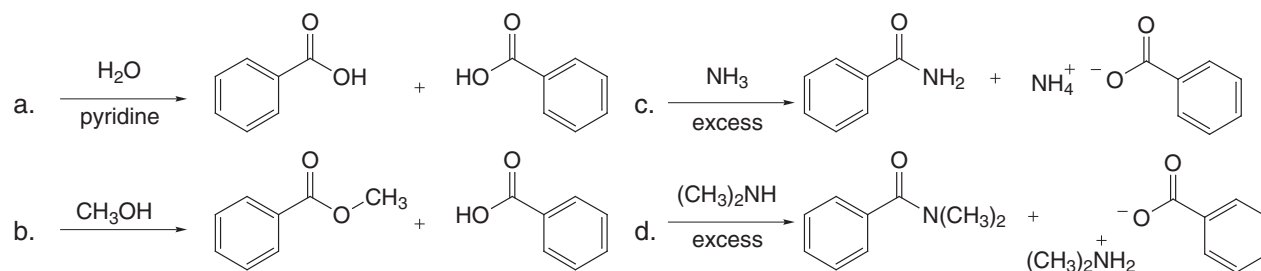
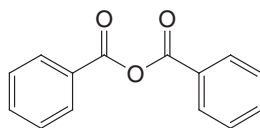
18.61



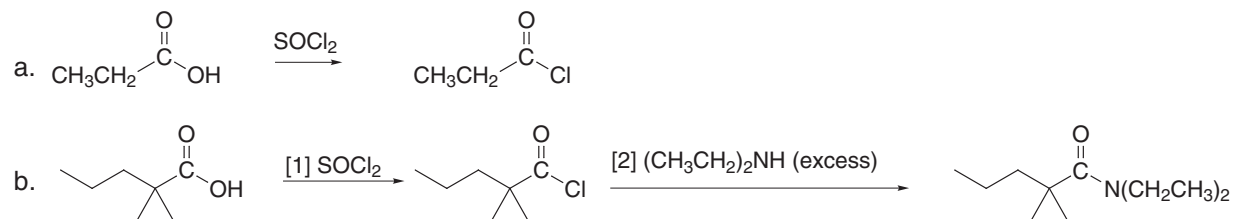
18.62 Il meccanismo ha 3 stadi: [1] attacco nucleofilo dell'O; [2] trasferimento di un protone; [3] eliminazione del gruppo uscente Cl^- per formare il prodotto.



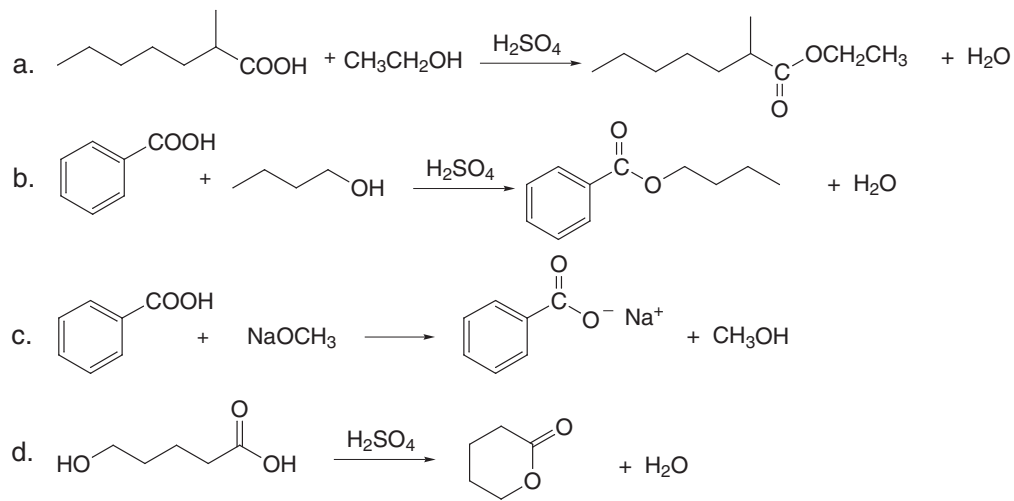
18.63



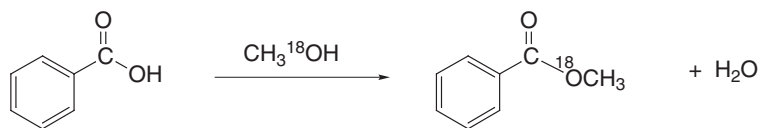
18.64 La reazione di un acido carbossilico con cloruro di tionile lo converte in un cloruro dell'acido.



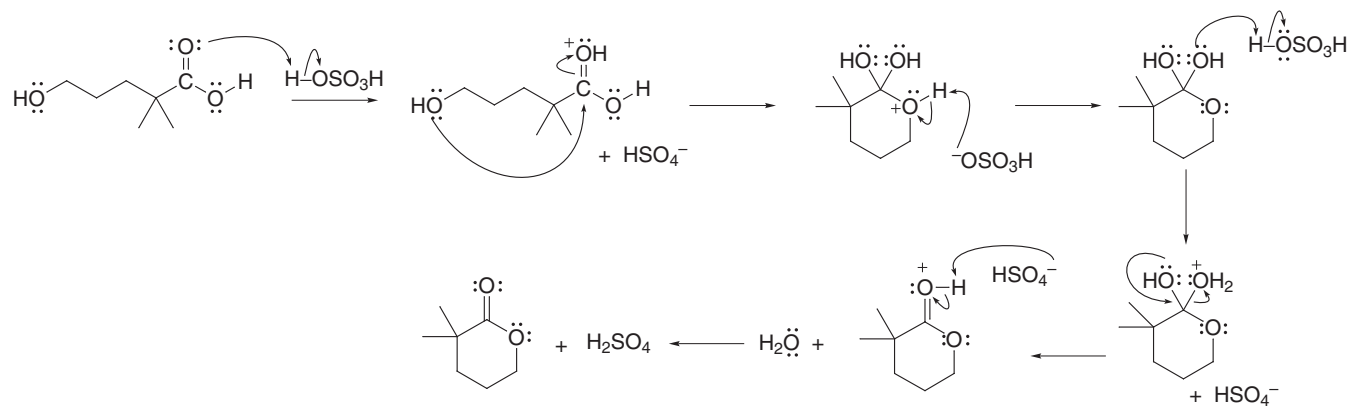
18.65



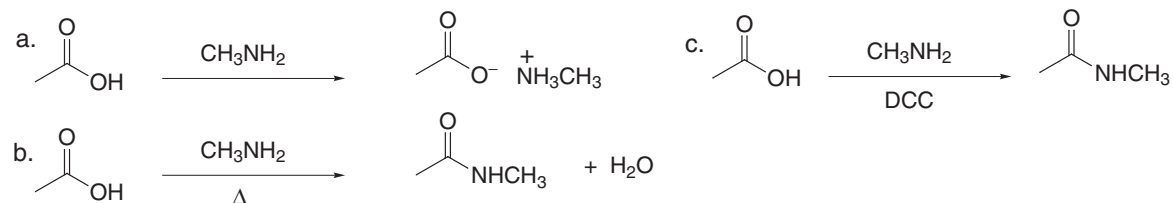
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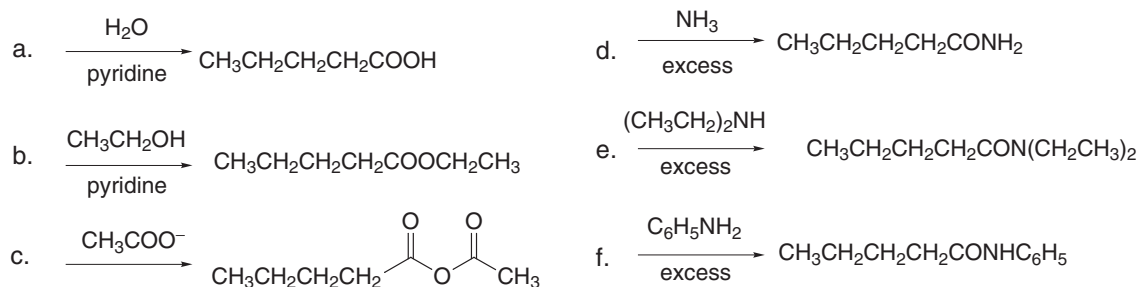
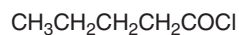
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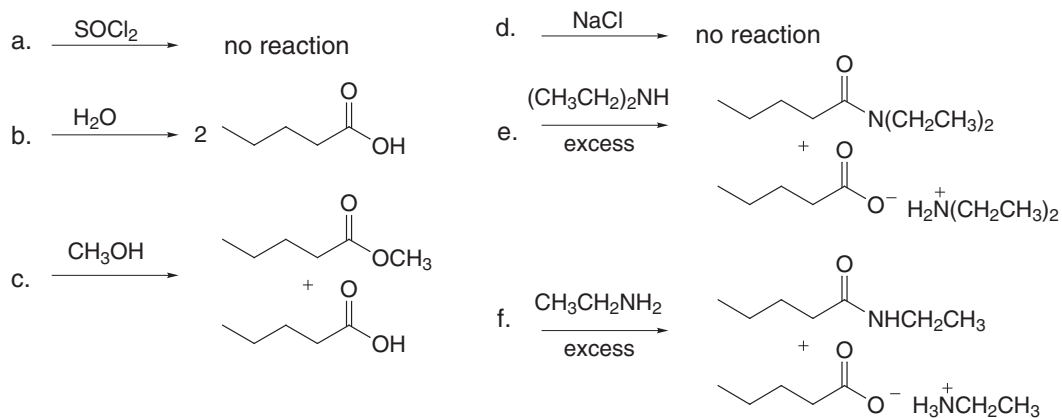
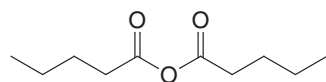
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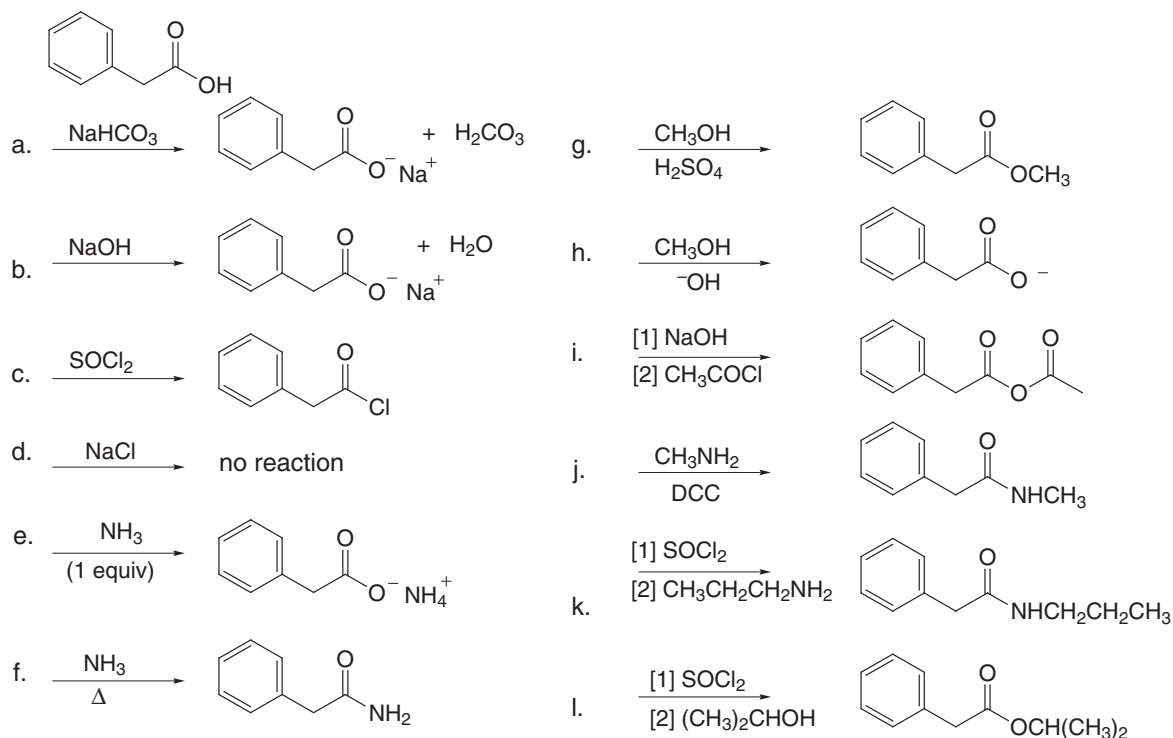
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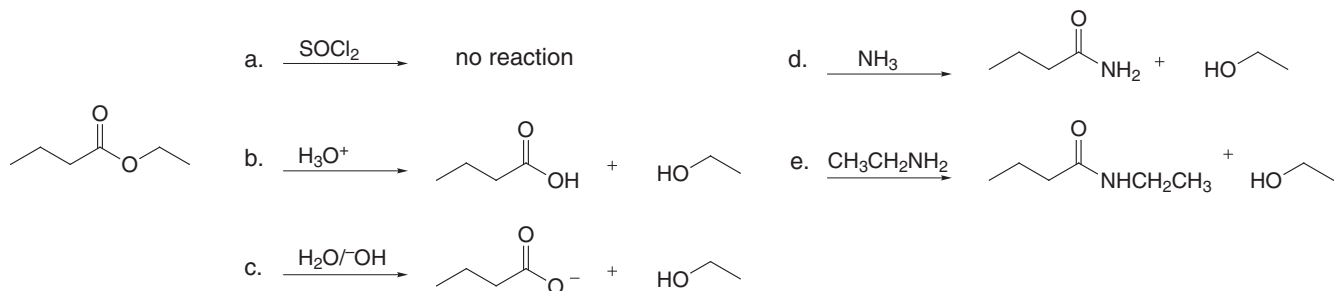
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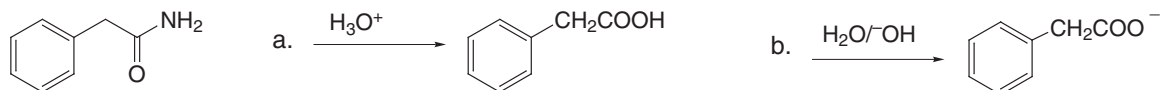
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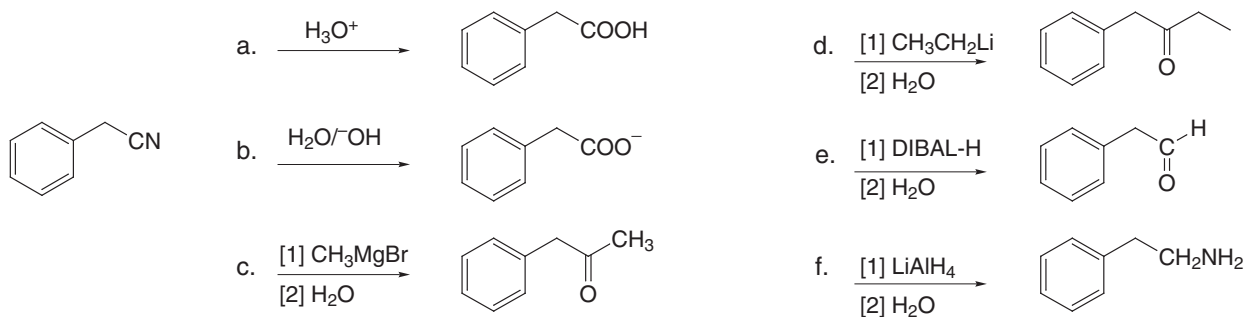
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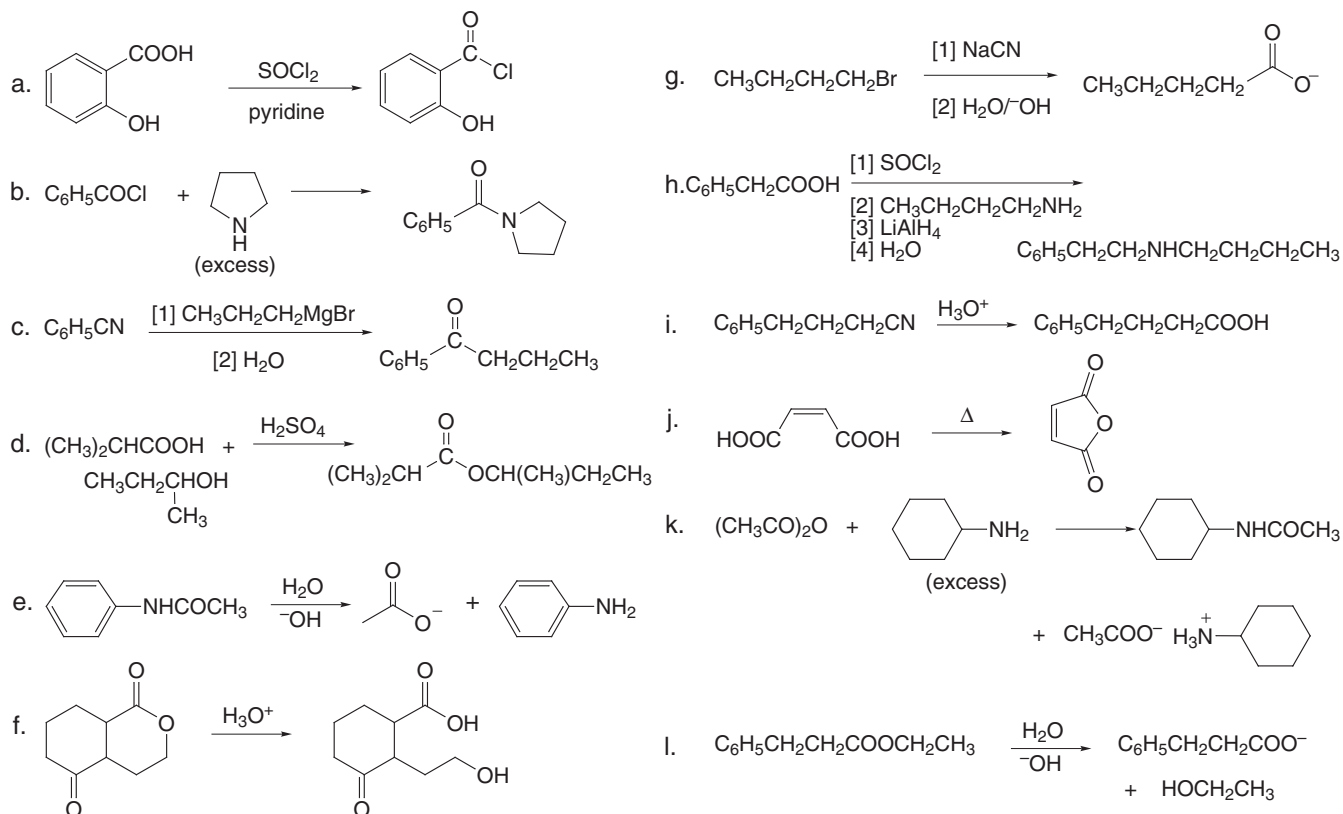
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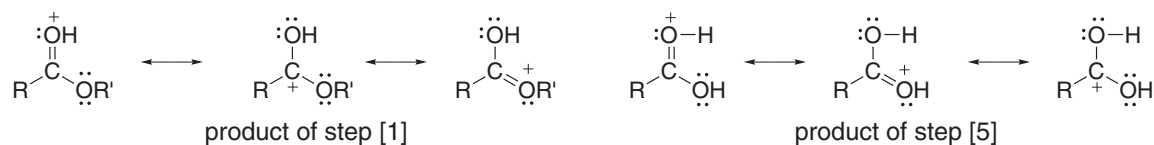
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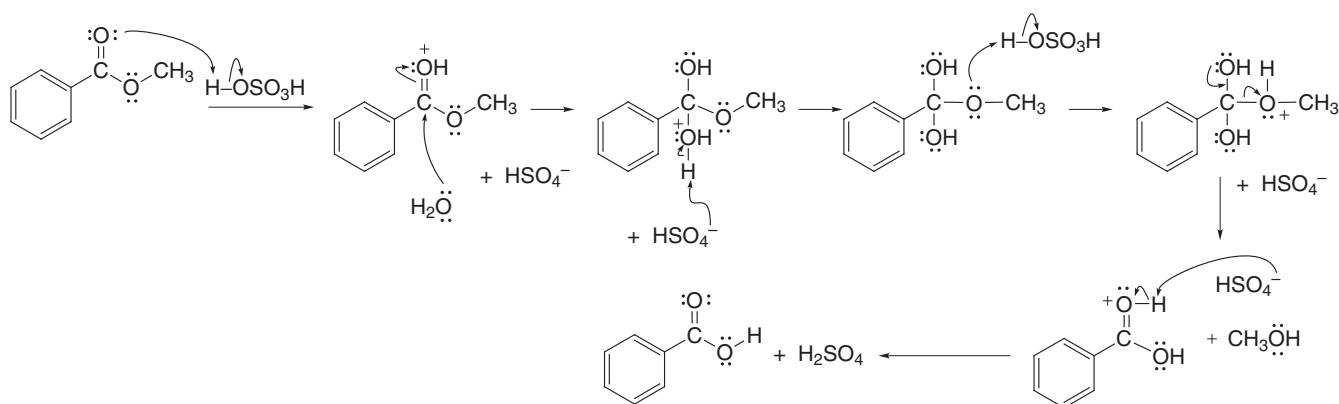
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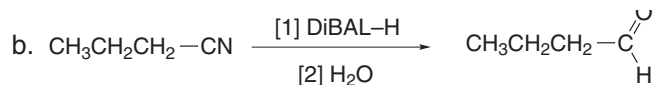
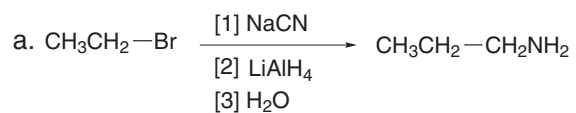
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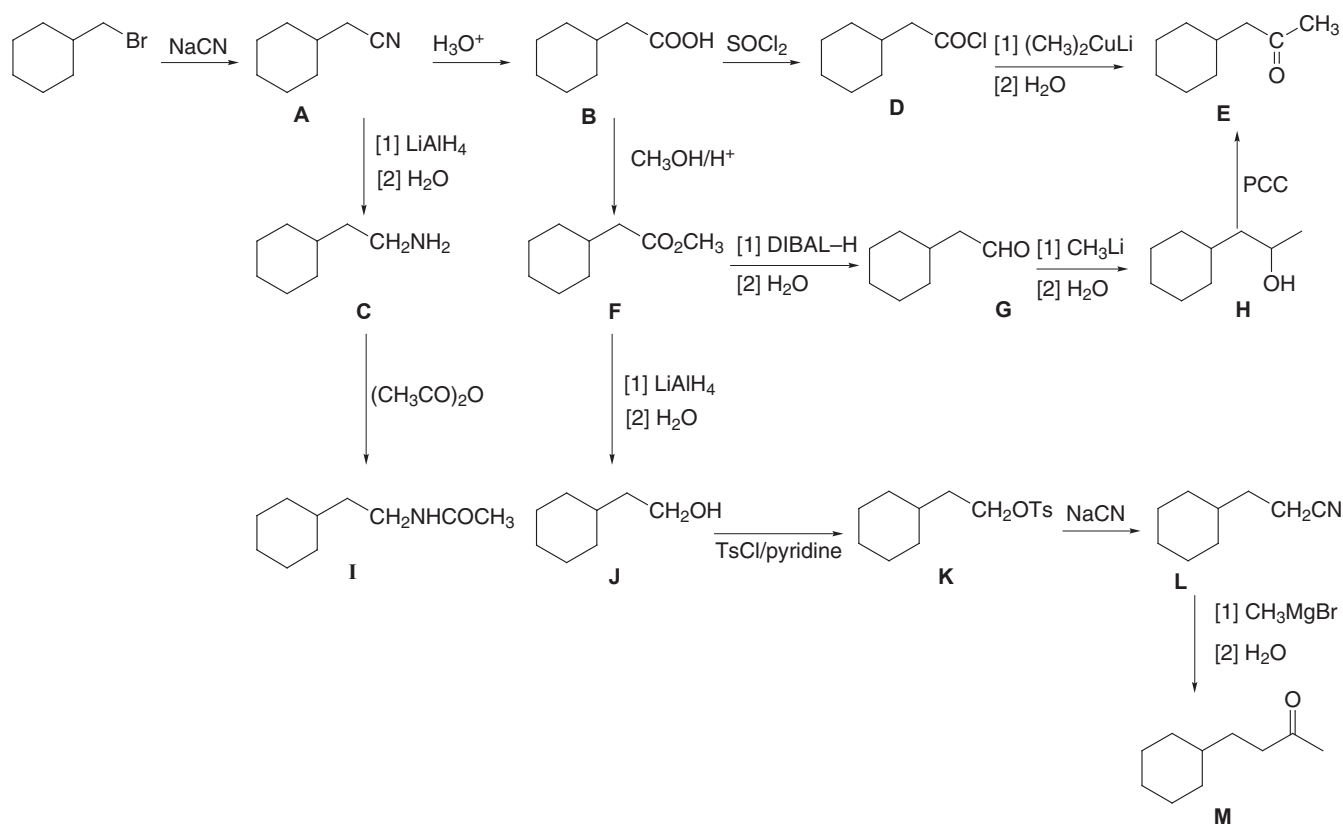
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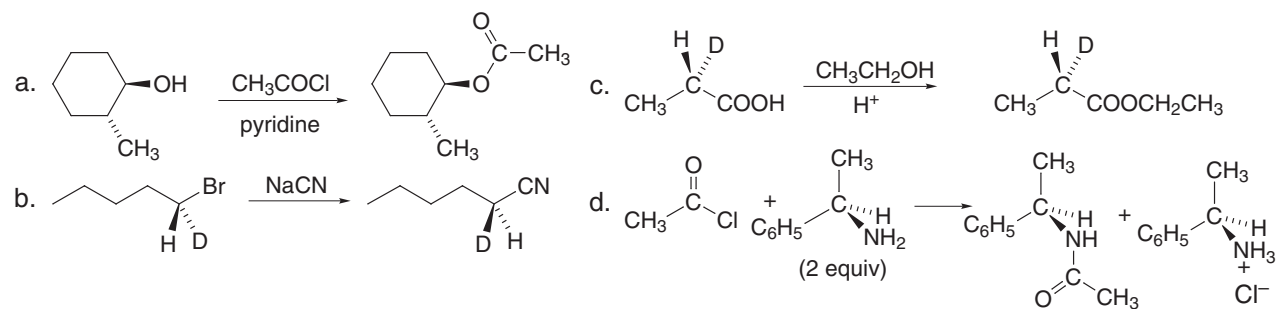
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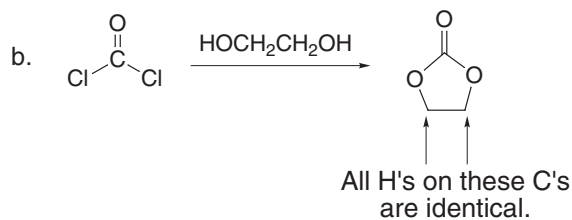
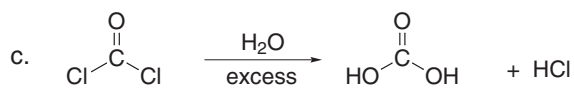
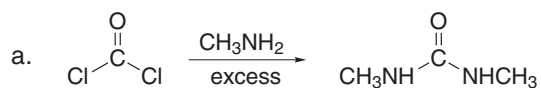
18.85



18.86

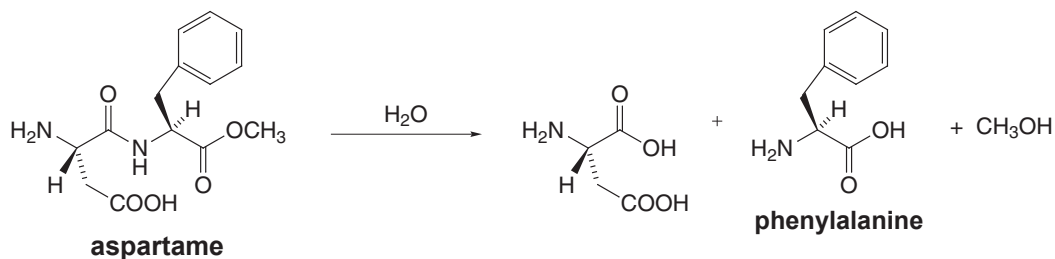


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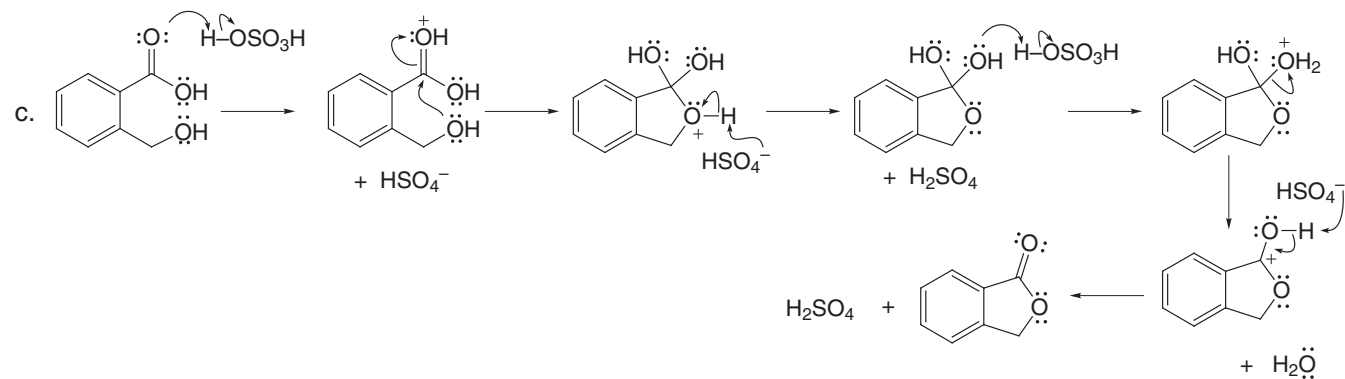
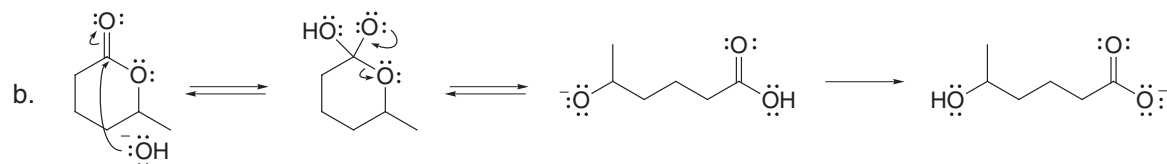
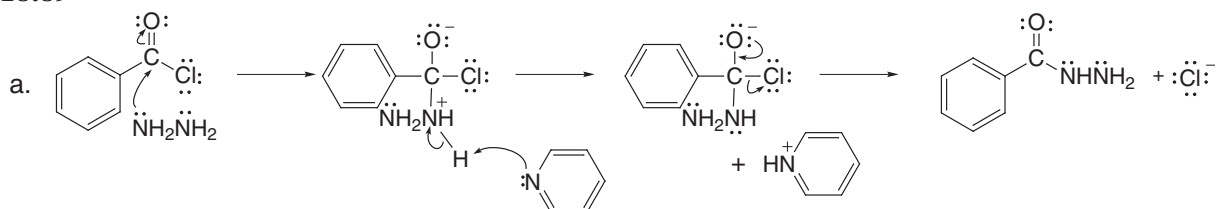


Reaction with H_2O vapor in the lungs results in the formation of HCl , increasing the acidity of the lungs.

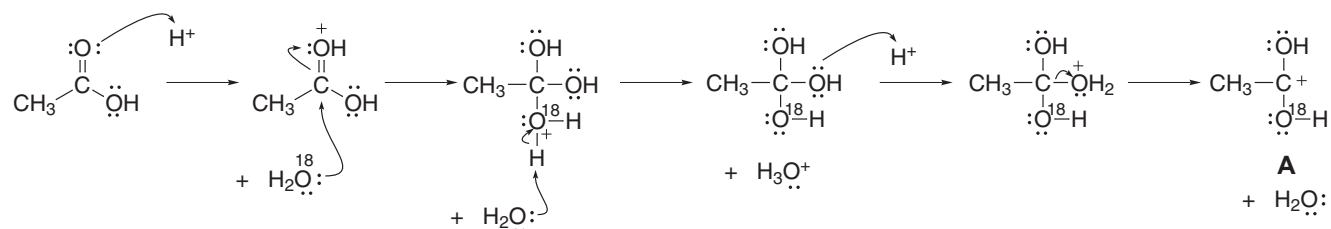
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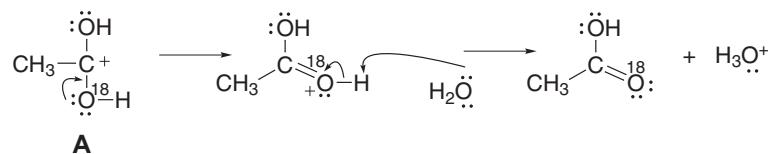
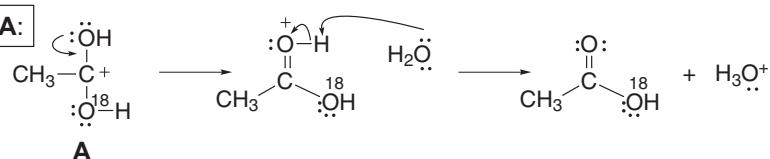
18.89



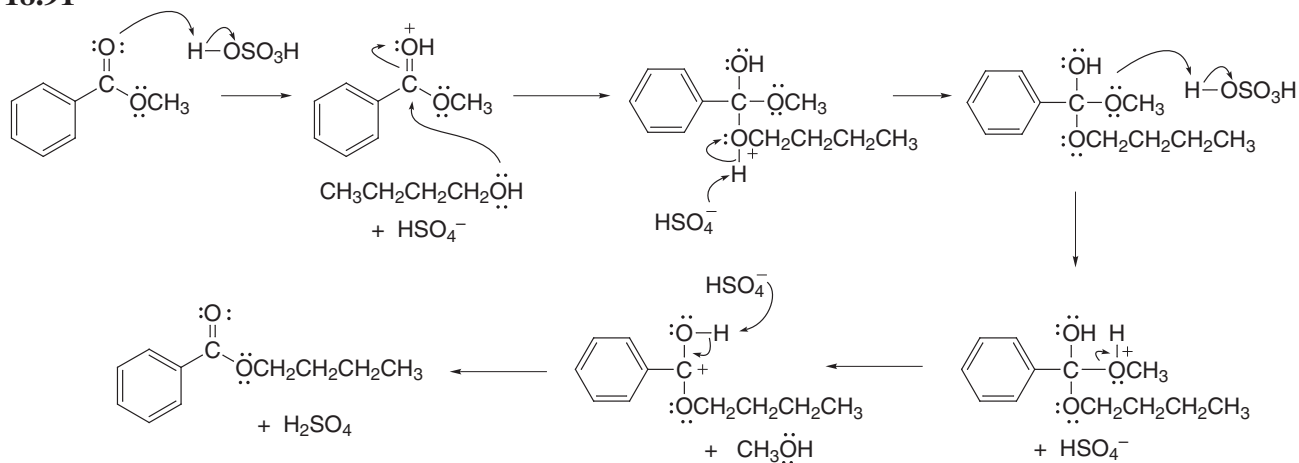
18.90



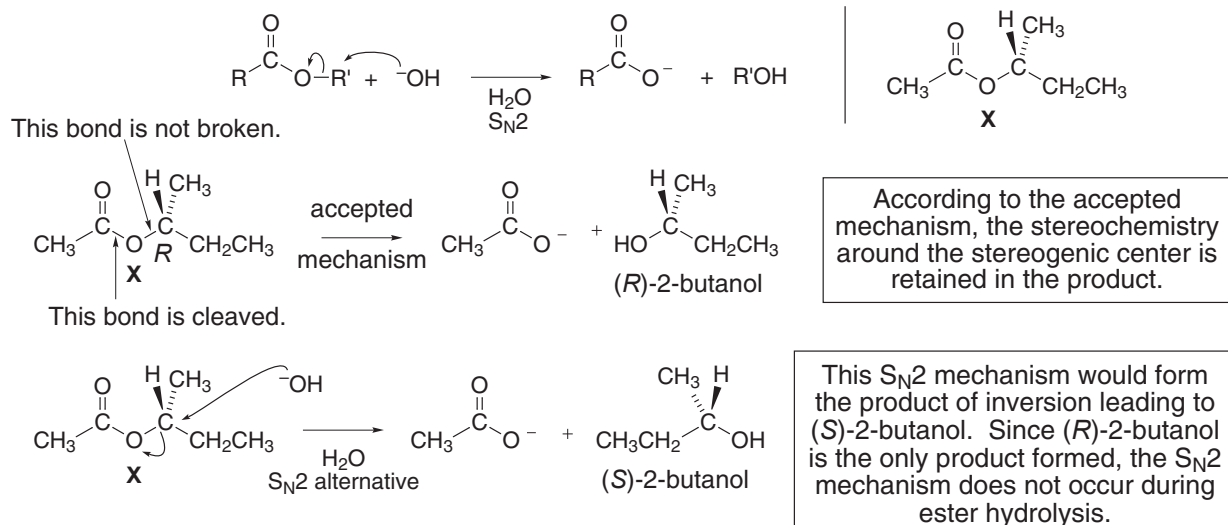
Two possibilities for **A**:



18.91

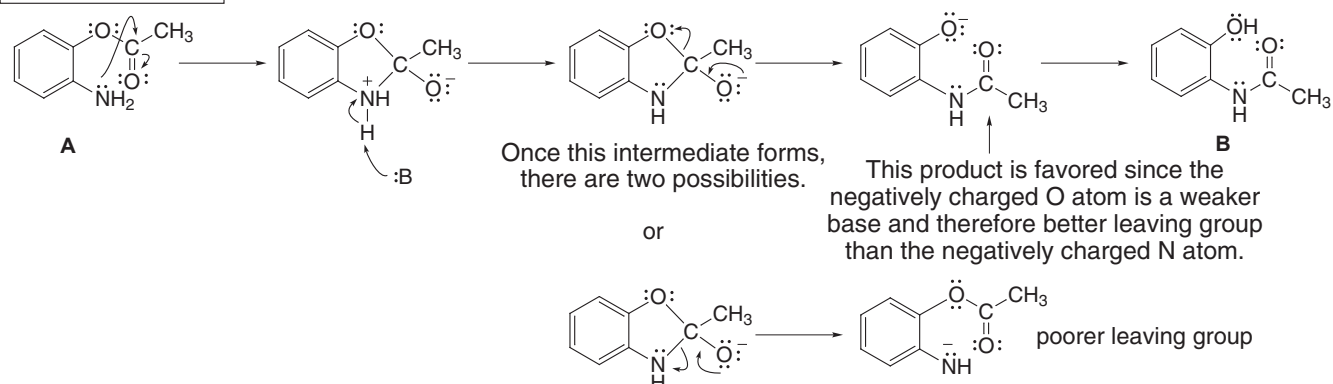


18.92

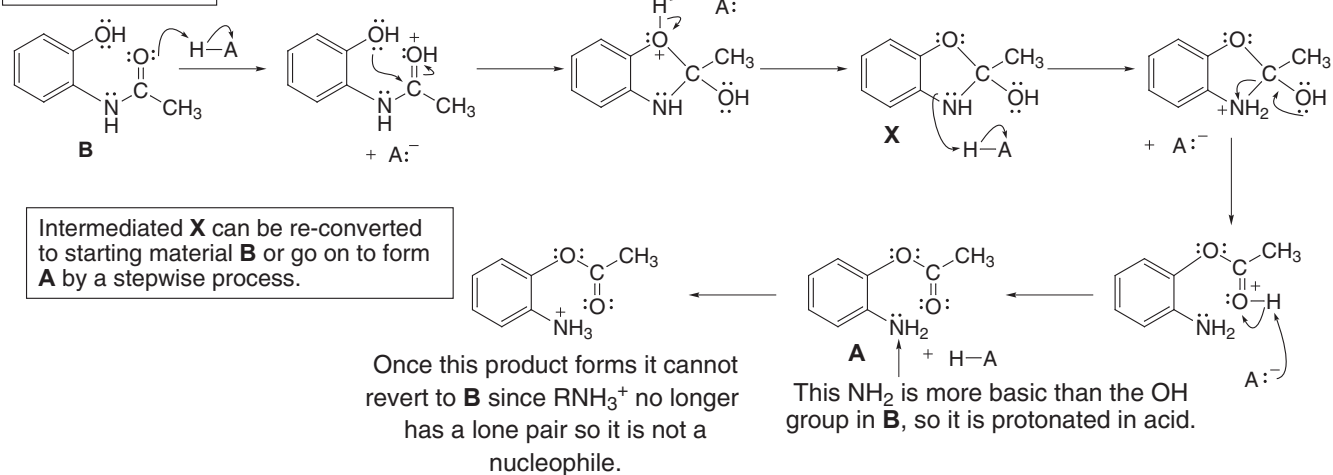


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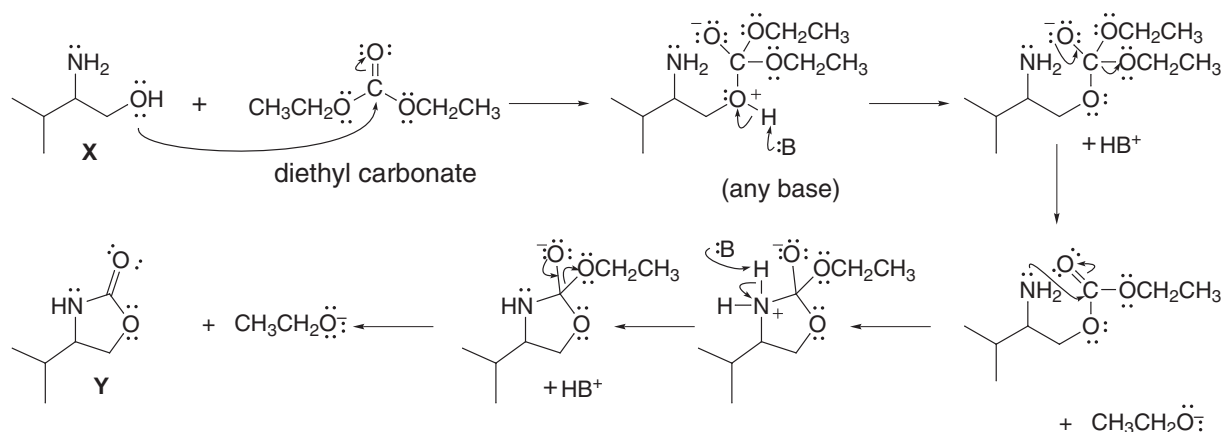
Reaction in base:



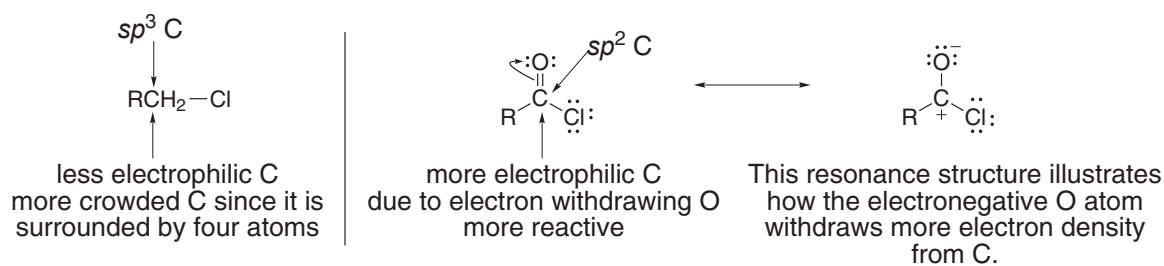
Reaction in acid:



18.94

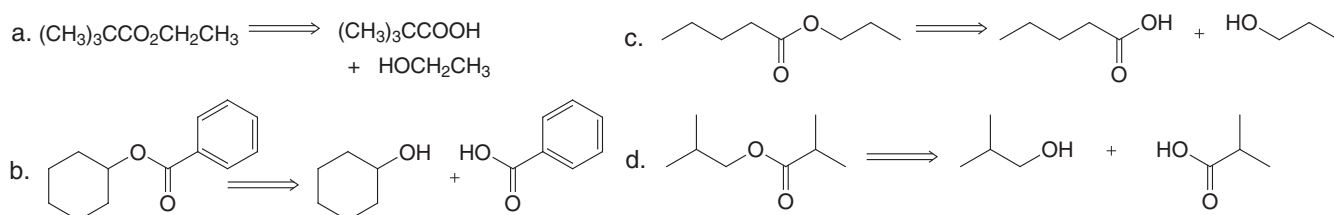


18.95

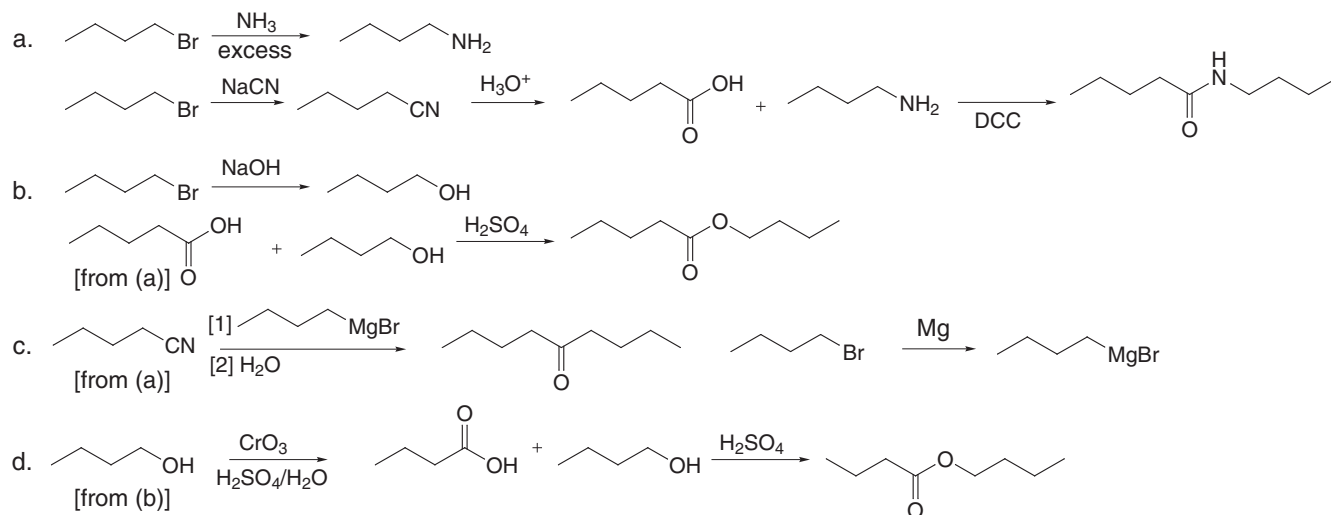


The sp^2 hybridized C of $RCOCl$ is much less crowded, and this makes nucleophilic attack easier as well.

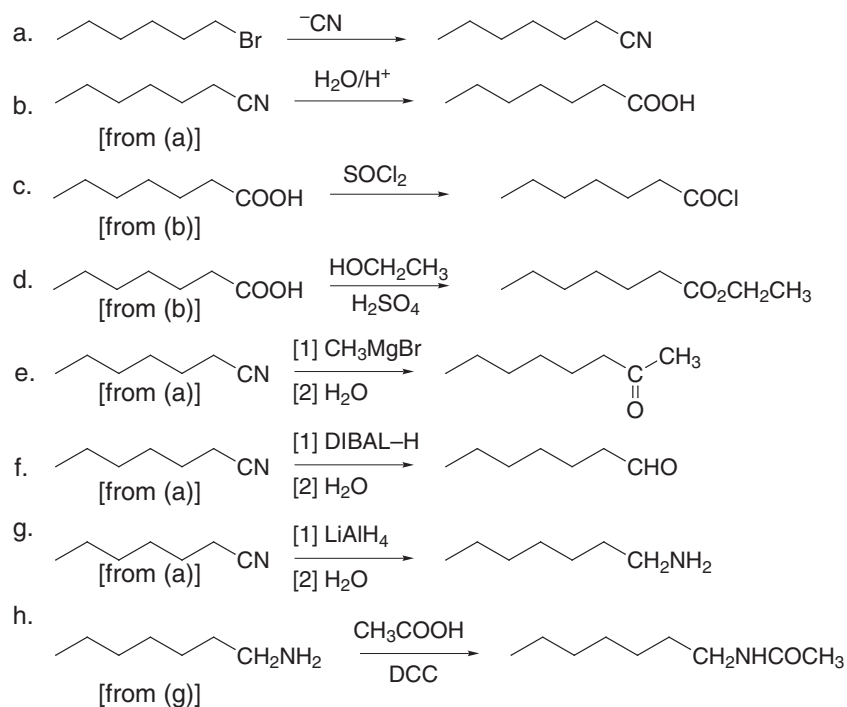
18.96 L'esterificazione di Fischer è il trattamento di un acido carbossilico con un alcol in presenza di un catalizzatore acido per formare un estere.



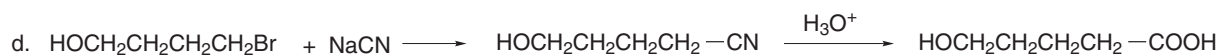
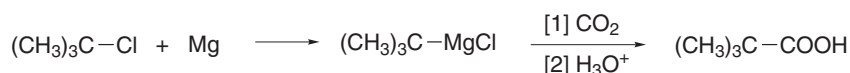
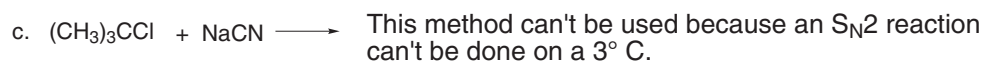
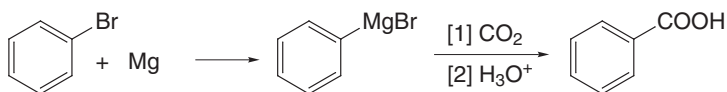
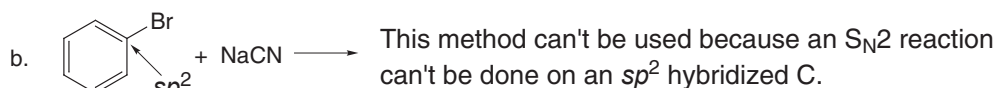
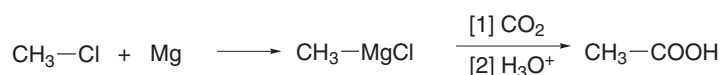
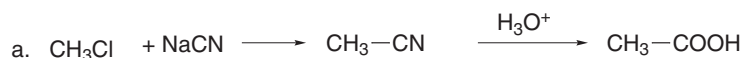
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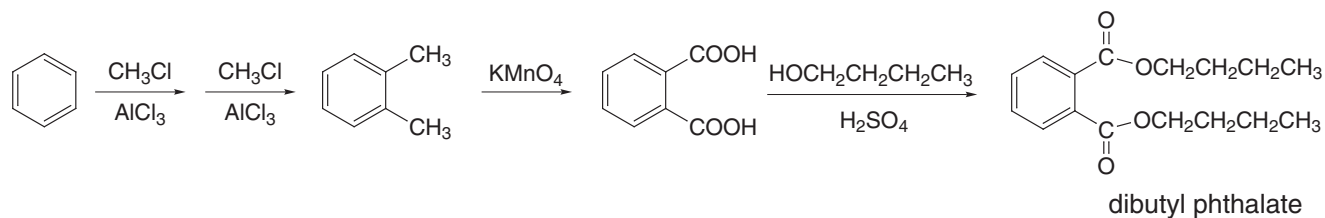
18.98



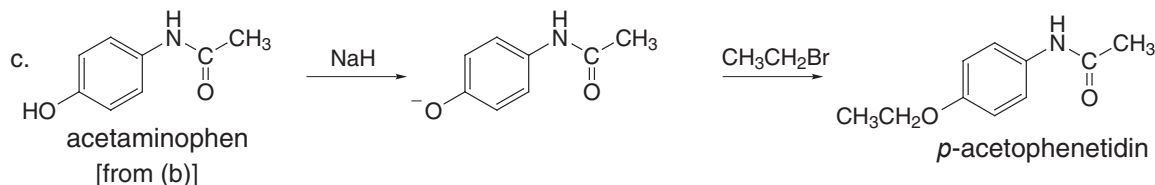
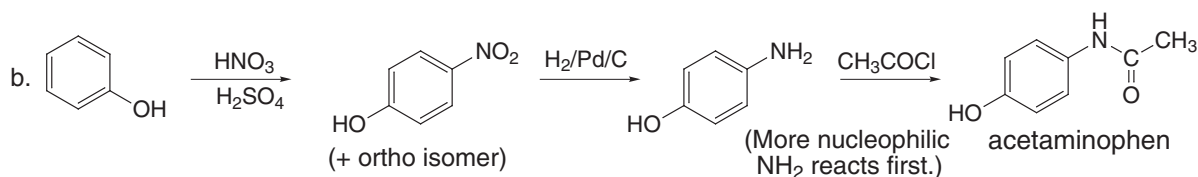
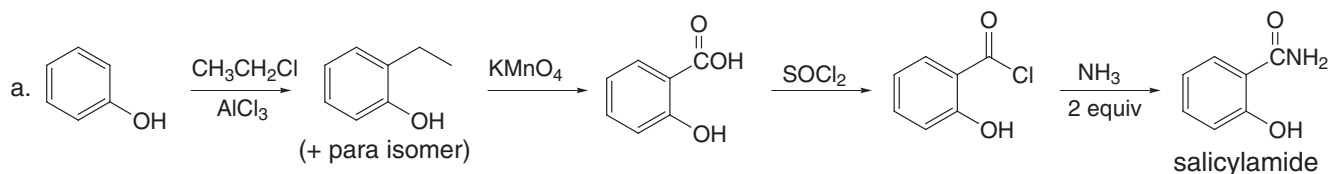
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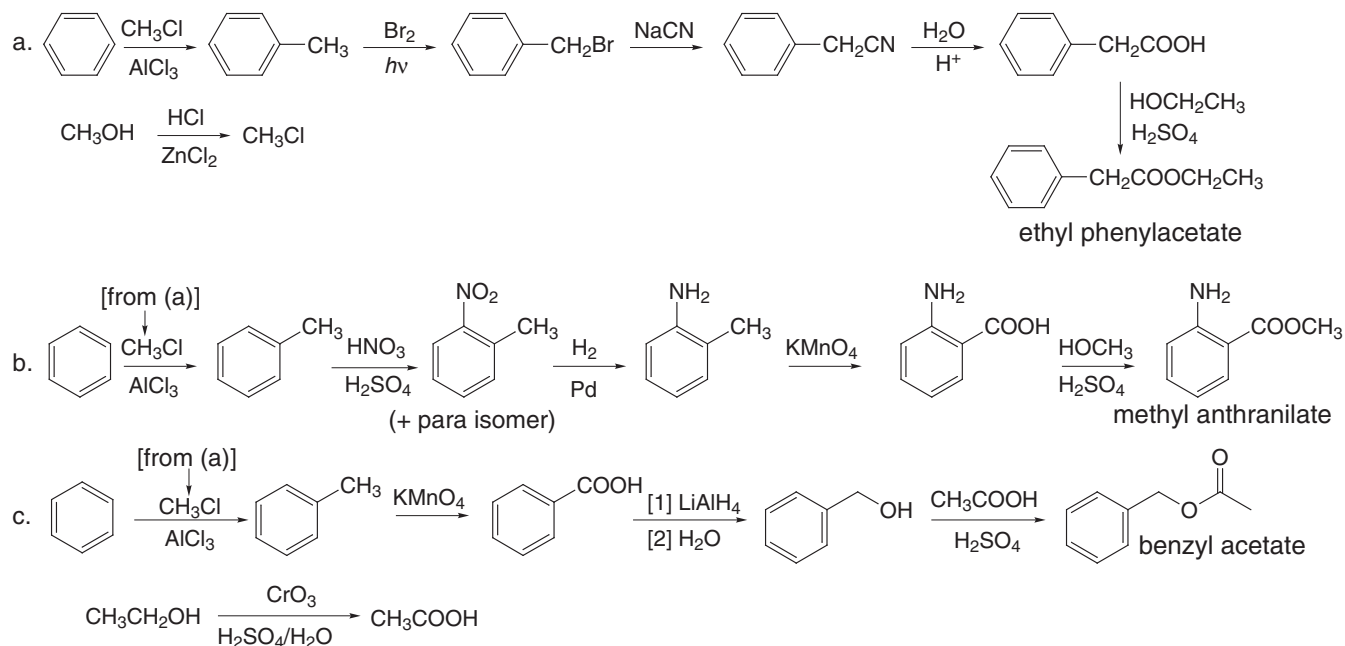
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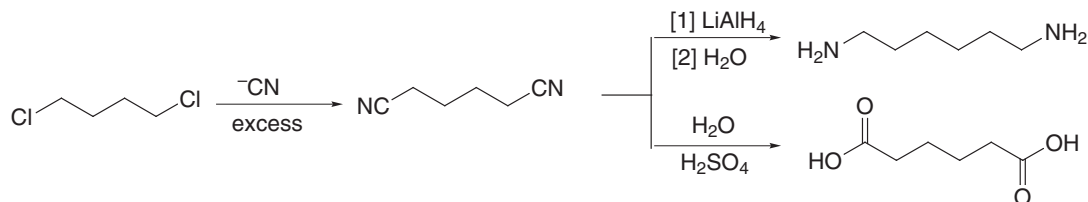
18.101



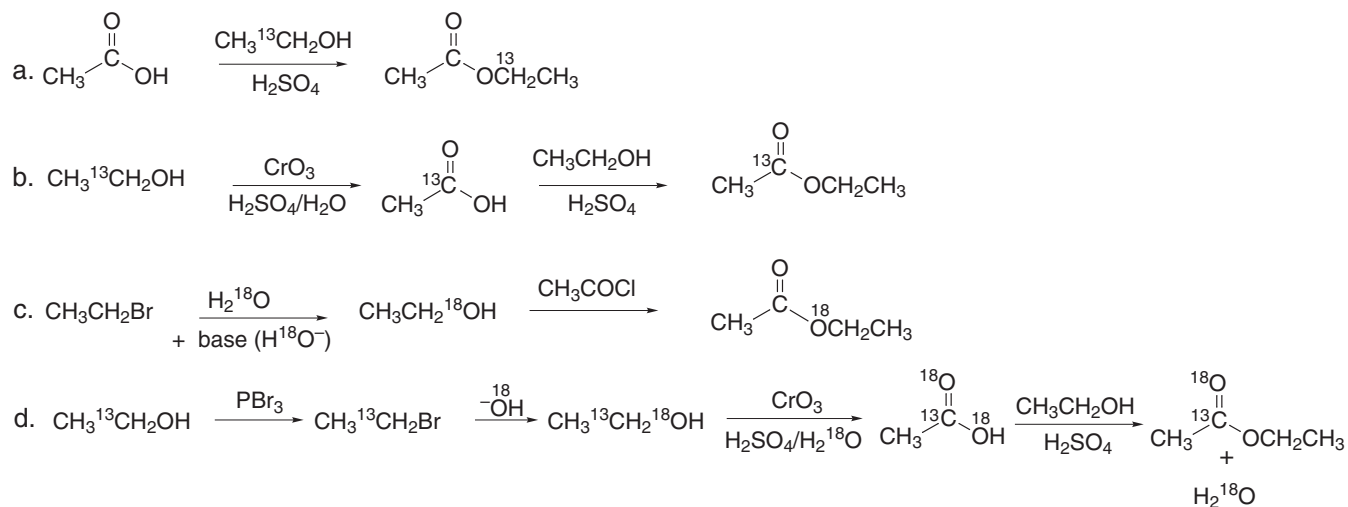
18.102



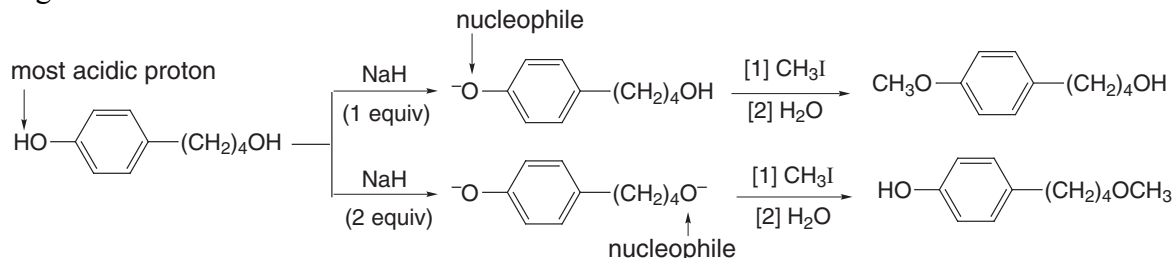
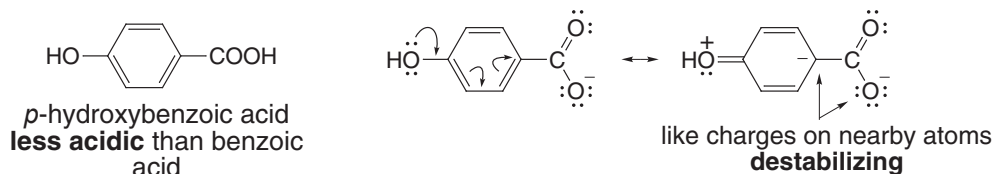
18.103



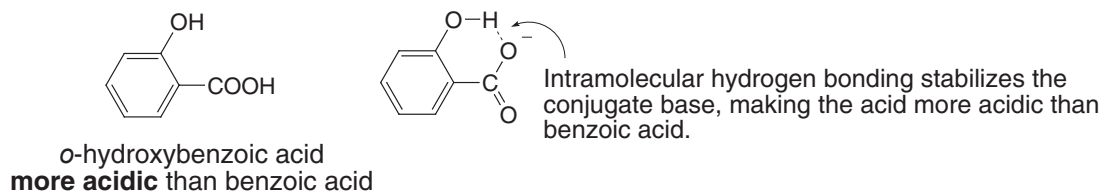
18.104



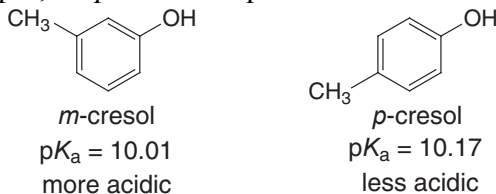
18.105 Il primo equivalente di NaH rimuove il protone più acido, cioè il protone dell'OH del fenolo. Il fenossido risultante può quindi reagire come nucleofilo per sostituire lo I, e formare il prodotto di sostituzione. Con due equivalenti, vengono rimossi entrambi i protoni sui gruppi OH. In questo caso l'atomo di O più nucleofilo è la base più forte; cioè l'alcossido formato dall'alcol (non il fenossido) reagisce prima in una reazione di sostituzione nucleofila attraverso l'O carico negativamente.

**18.106**

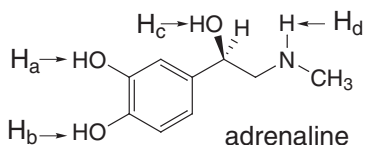
The OH group donates electron density by its resonance effect and this destabilizes the conjugate base, making the acid less acidic than benzoic acid.



18.107 In base all'andamento periodico, H_d è il meno acido poiché è legato all'N (non all'O). H_c è il meno acido dei protoni su OH perché non è legato all'anello benzenico, e quindi la sua base coniugata non è stabilizzata per risonanza. H_a e H_b sono allora i protoni più acidi, sebbene la loro acidità relativa sia difficile da determinare. Generalmente i gruppi alchilici sul benzene diminuiscono l'acidità dell'OH fenolico più nella posizione para che in meta. Ad esempio, il *p*-cresolo è piuttosto meno acido del *m*-cresolo:



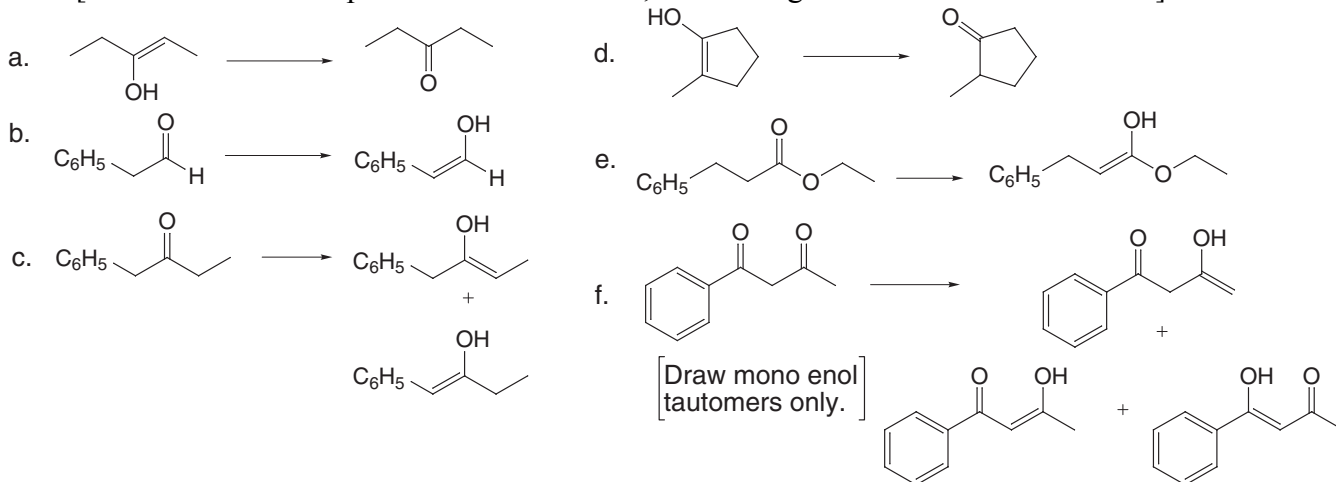
Se il gruppo alchilico sul benzene ha un simile effetto elettron donatore, questo rende l'H_a più acido di H_b. L'ordine di acidità crescente è: H_d < H_c < H_b < H_a.



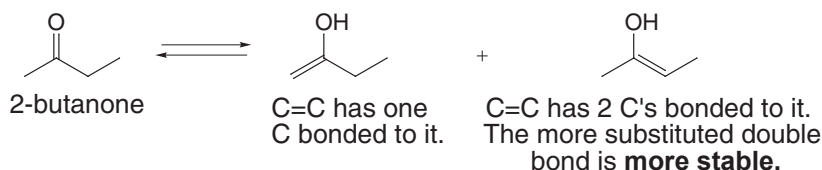
Capitolo 19

- 19.1**
- Per convertire un chetone nel suo tautomero enolico, cambiare il gruppo $\text{C}=\text{O}$ in $\text{C}-\text{OH}$, disegnare un nuovo doppio legame con il carbonio in posizione α , e rimuovere un protone dall'altro termine del doppio legame $\text{C}=\text{C}$.
 - Per convertire un enolo nella sua forma chetonica, individuare il $\text{C}=\text{C}$ legato a un OH . Cambiare il $\text{C}-\text{OH}$ in $\text{C}=\text{O}$, aggiungere un protone all'altro termine del doppio legame $\text{C}=\text{C}$, ed eliminare il doppio legame.

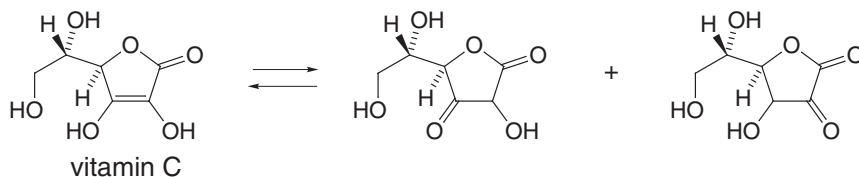
[Nei casi in cui sono possibili isomeri *E* e *Z*, viene disegnato un solo stereoisomero.]



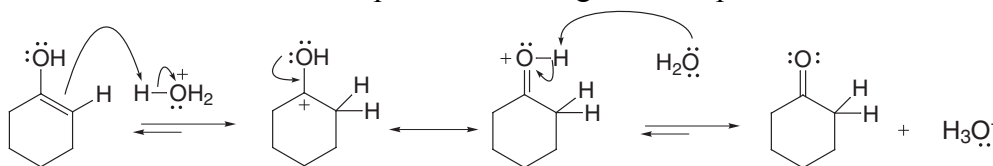
19.2



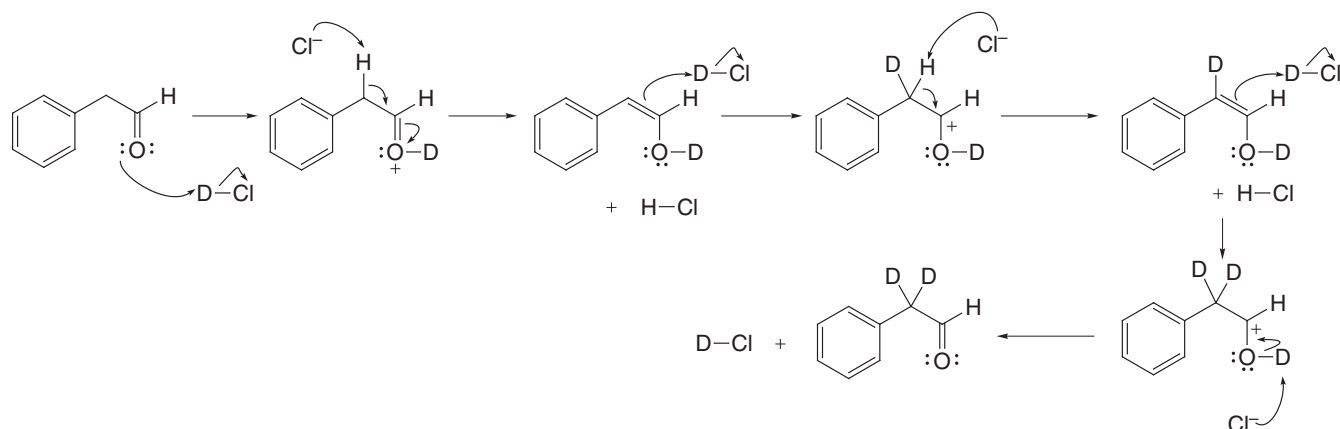
19.3



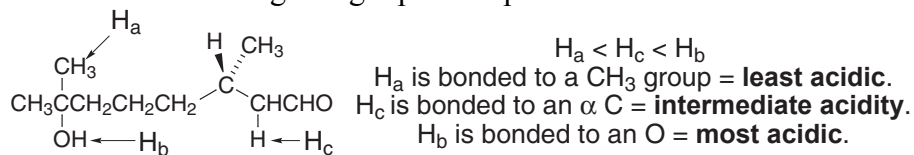
- 19.4** Il meccanismo ha due stadi: protonazione seguita da deprotonazione.



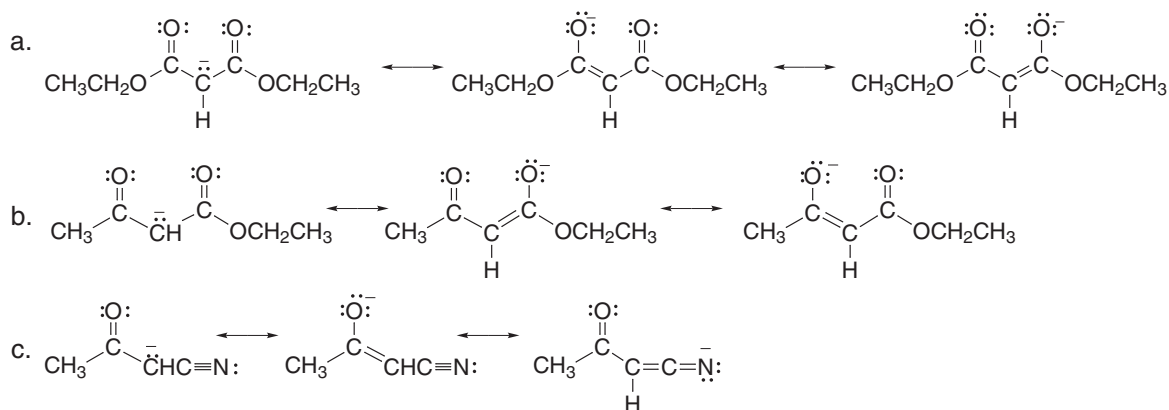
19.5



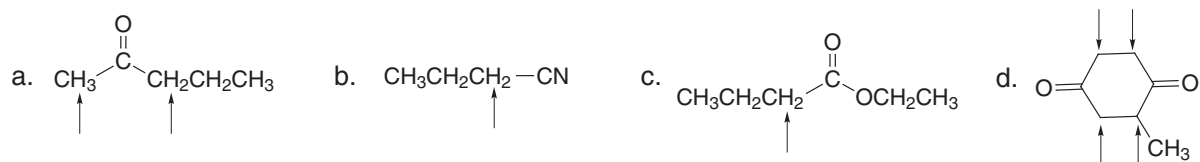
19.6 Considerare a cosa è legato ogni protone per determinare l'ordine di acidità.



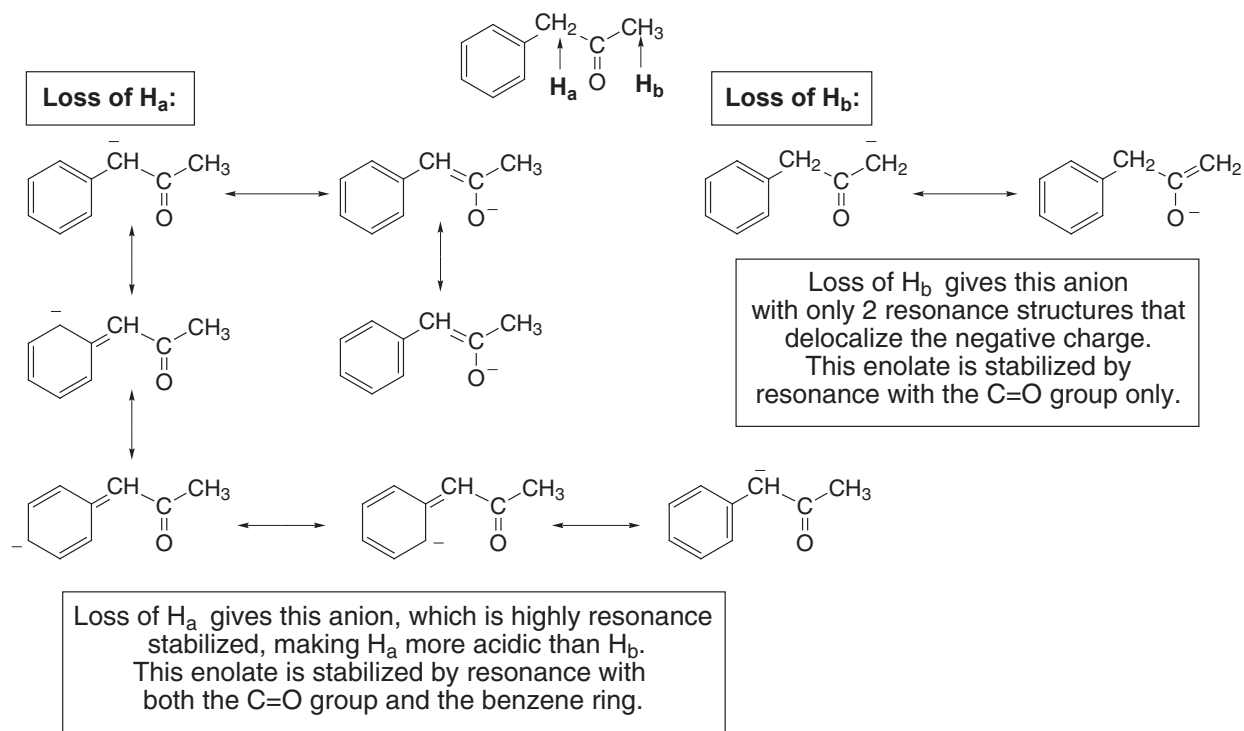
19.7



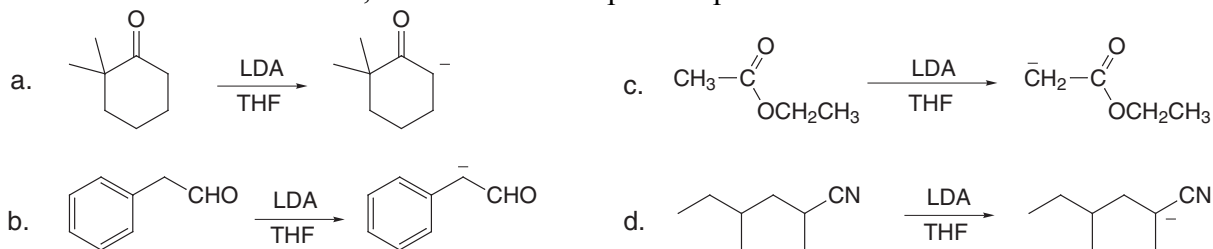
19.8



19.9

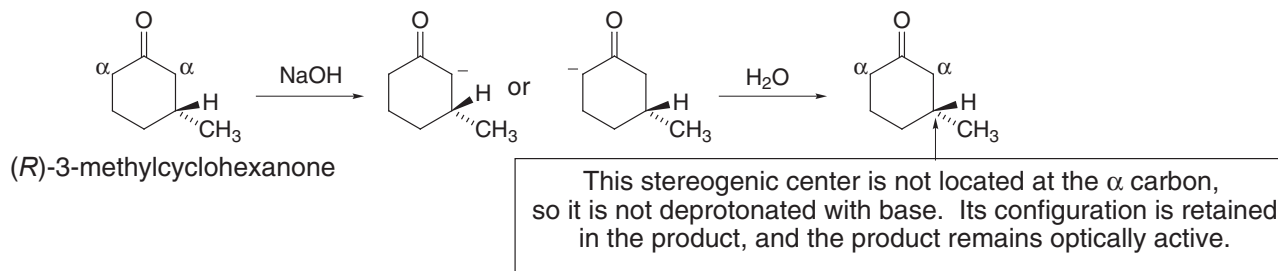
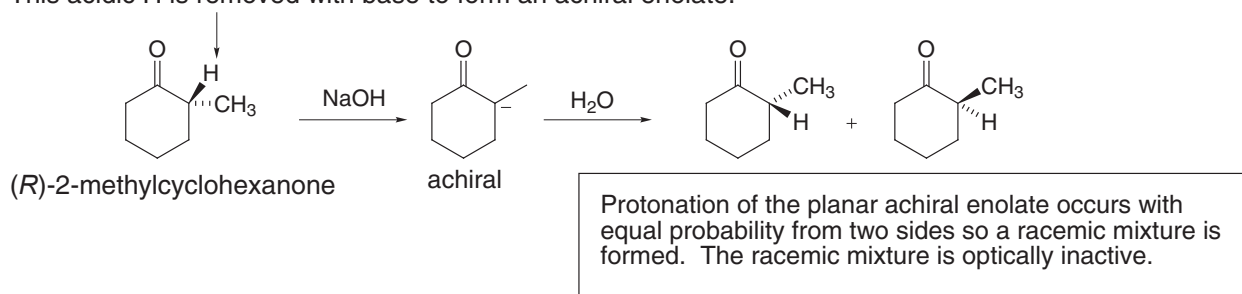


19.10 In ciascuna reazione, l'LDA rimuove il protone più acido.

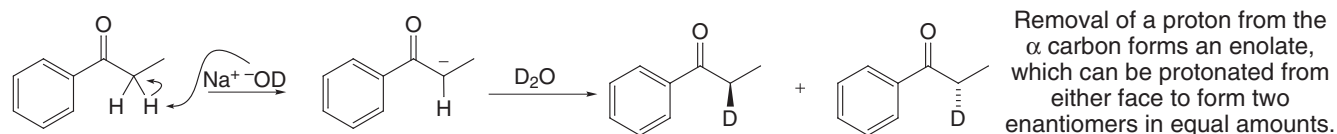


19.11

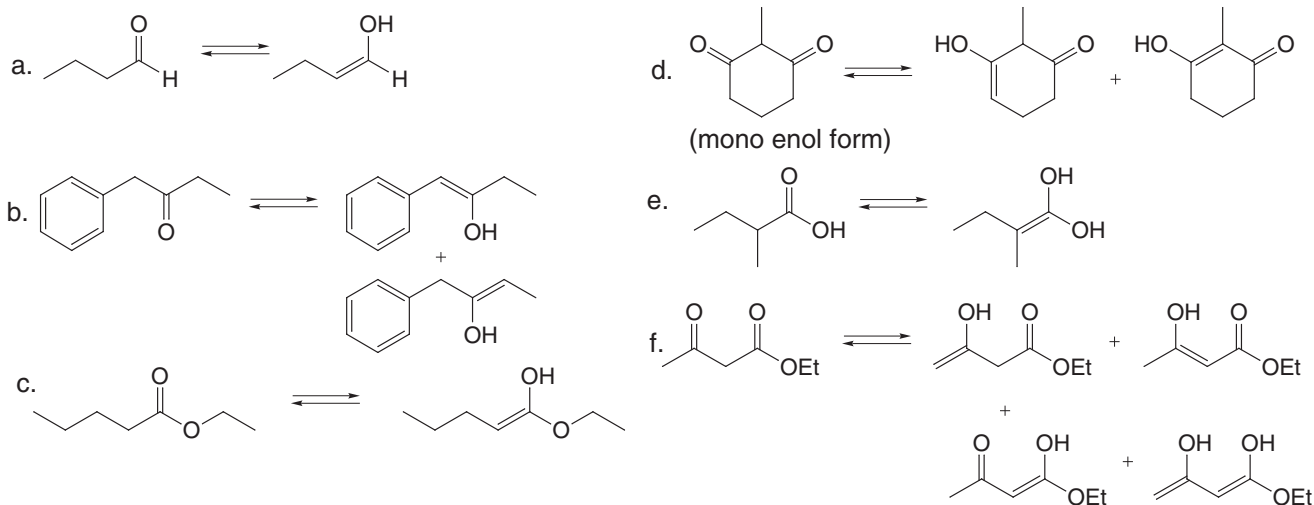
This acidic H is removed with base to form an achiral enolate.



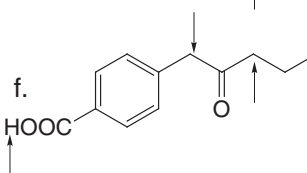
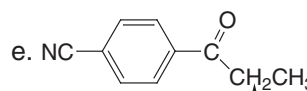
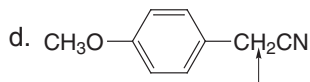
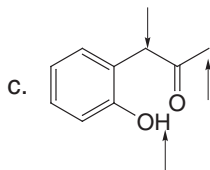
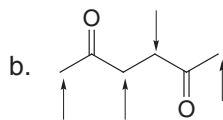
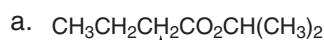
19.12



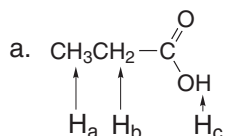
19.13 Usare le regole della risposta 21.1 per disegnare il tautomero (o i tautomeri) enolici. Nei casi in cui possono formarsi isomeri *E* e *Z*, viene disegnato un solo stereoisomero.



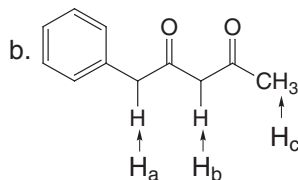
19.14



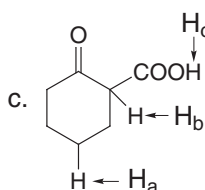
19.15



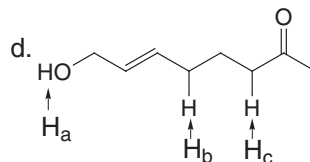
H_a is bonded to a CH_3 group = **least acidic**.
 H_b is bonded to an α C = **intermediate acidity**.
 H_c is bonded to O = **most acidic**.



H_c is bonded to an α C = **least acidic**.
 H_a is bonded to an α C, and is adjacent to a benzene ring = **intermediate acidity**.
 H_b is bonded to an α C, between two $\text{C}=\text{O}$ groups = **most acidic**.

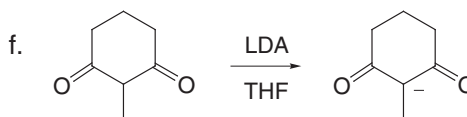
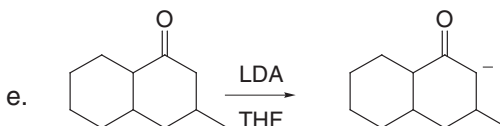
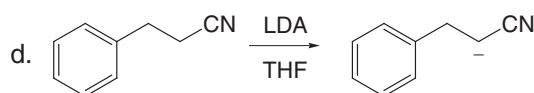
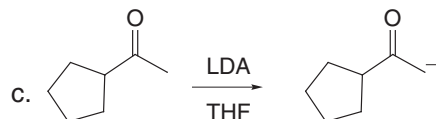
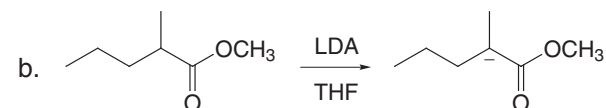
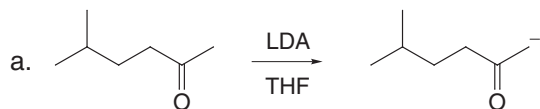


H_a is bonded to a CH_2 group = **least acidic**.
 H_b is bonded to an α C = **intermediate acidity**.
 H_c is bonded to O = **most acidic**.



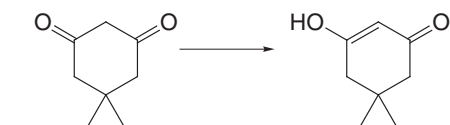
H_b is bonded to a CH_2 group = **least acidic**.
 H_c is bonded to an α C = **intermediate acidity**.
 H_a is bonded to O = **most acidic**.

19.16



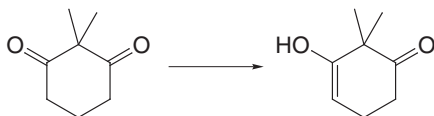
19.17 I tautomeri enolici hanno gruppi OH che danno una banda slargata a $3600\text{--}3200\text{ cm}^{-1}$, che può essere facilmente individuata attraverso l' IR.

19.18



5,5-dimethyl-1,3-cyclohexanedione

5,5-Dimethyl-1,3-cyclohexanedione exists predominantly in its enol form because the C=C of the enol is conjugated with the other C=O of the dicarbonyl compound. Conjugation stabilizes this enol.

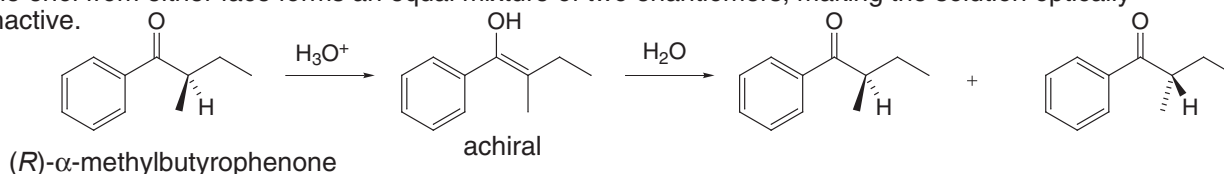


2,2-dimethyl-1,3-cyclohexanedione

The enol of 2,2-dimethyl-1,3-cyclohexanedione is not conjugated with the other carbonyl group. In this way it resembles the enol of any other carbonyl compound, and thus it is present in low concentration.

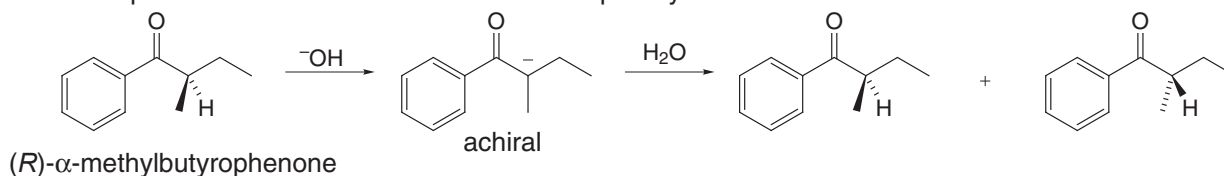
19.19

In the presence of acid, (*R*)- α -methylbutyrophenone enolizes to form an achiral enol. Protonation of the enol from either face forms an equal mixture of two enantiomers, making the solution optically inactive.

*(R)*- α -methylbutyrophenone

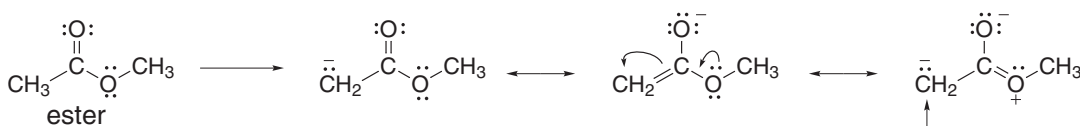
achiral

In the presence of base, (*R*)- α -methylbutyrophenone is deprotonated to form an achiral enolate, which can then be protonated from either face to form an optically inactive mixture of two enantiomers.

*(R)*- α -methylbutyrophenone

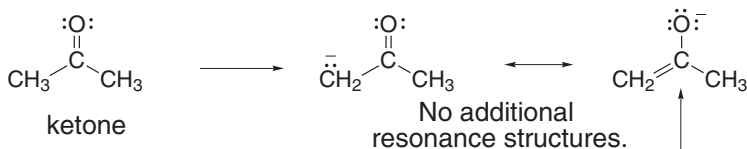
achiral

19.20



ester

The O atom of the ester OR group donates electron density by a resonance effect. The resulting resonance structure keeps a negative charge on the less electronegative C end of the enolate. This destabilizes the resonance hybrid of the conjugate base, and makes the α H's of the ester less acidic.



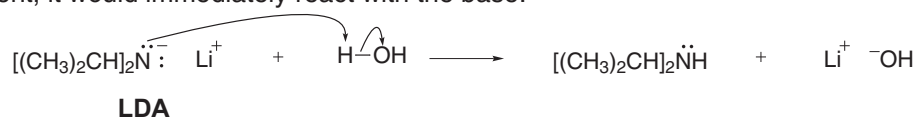
ketone

No additional resonance structures.

This structure, which places a negative charge on the O atom, is the major contributor to the hybrid, stabilizing it, and making the α H's of the ketone more acidic.

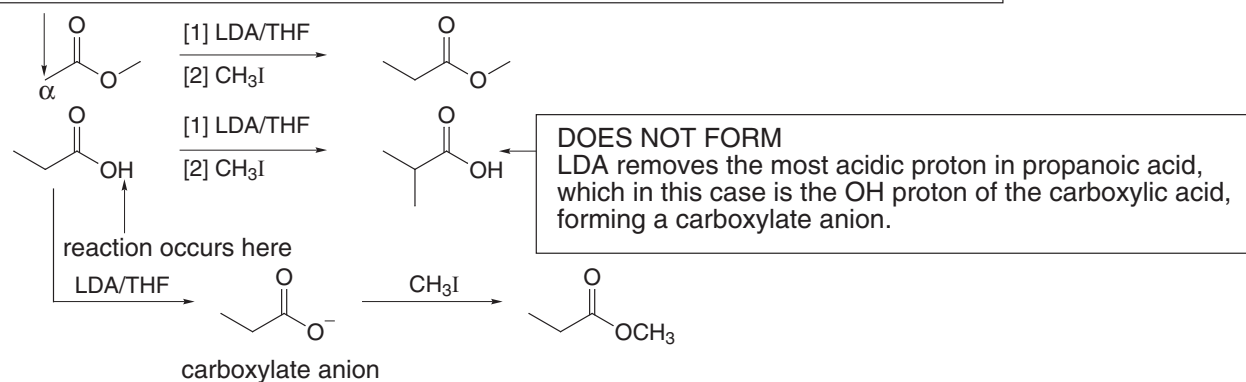
19.21

LDA reacts with the most acidic proton. If there is any H_2O present, it would immediately react with the base:

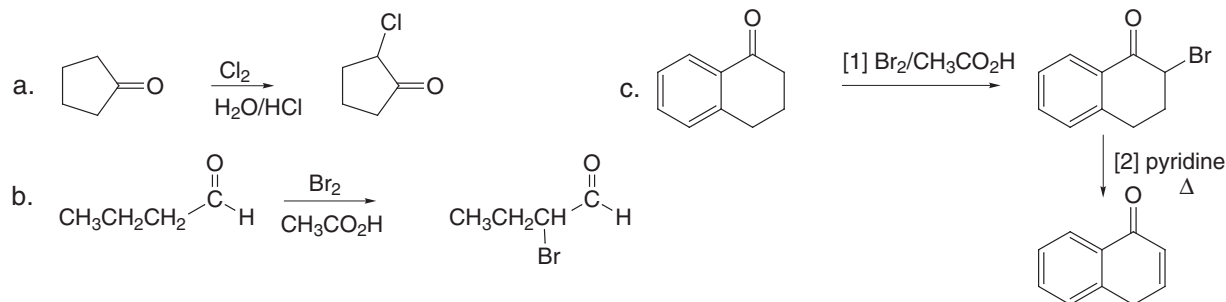


19.22

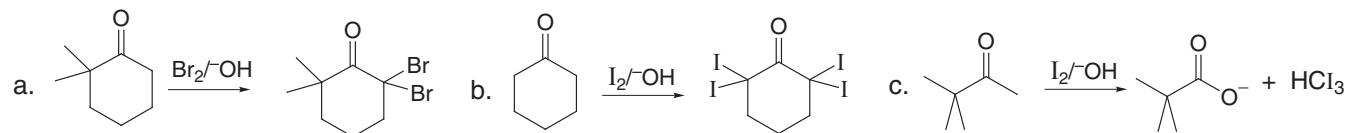
The most acidic proton in methyl acetate is on the α carbon. LDA removes this proton to form an enolate, which goes on to react with CH_3I to form $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{COOCH}_3$.



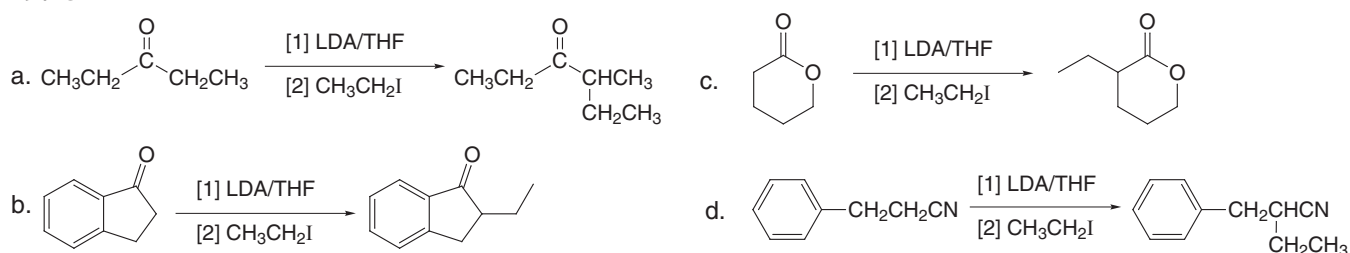
19.23



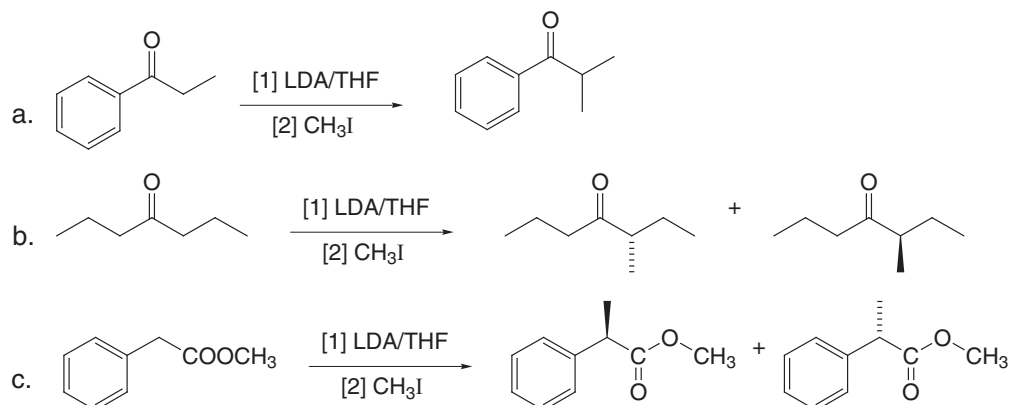
19.24



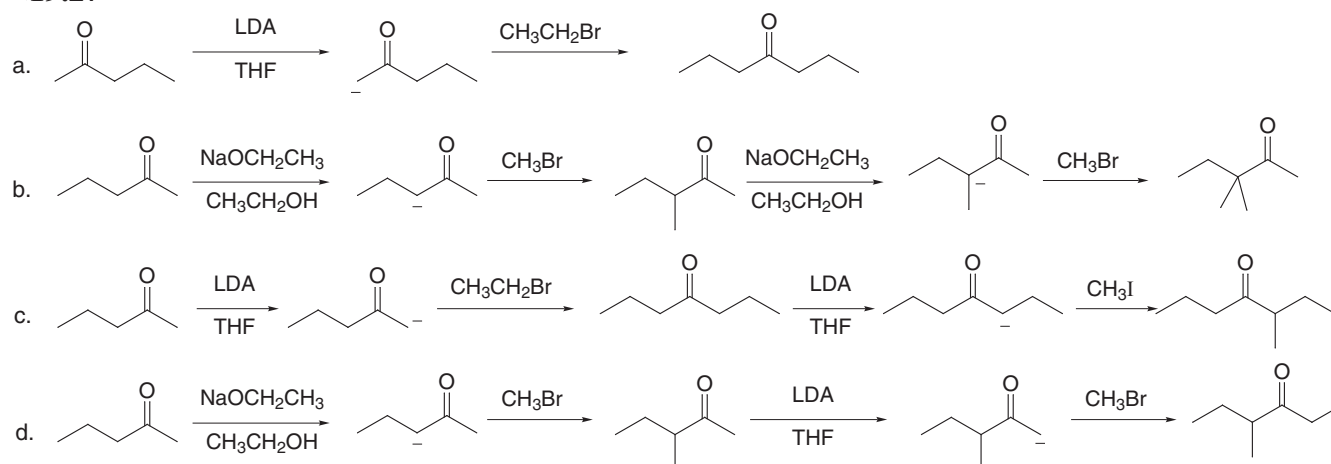
19.25



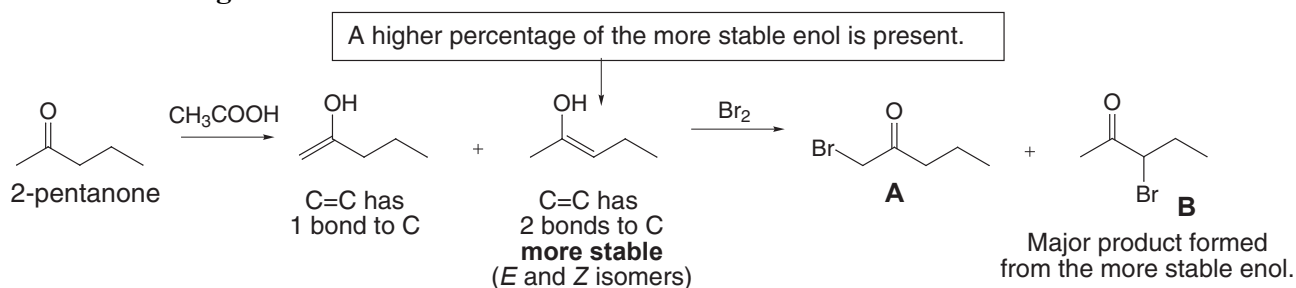
19.26



19.27

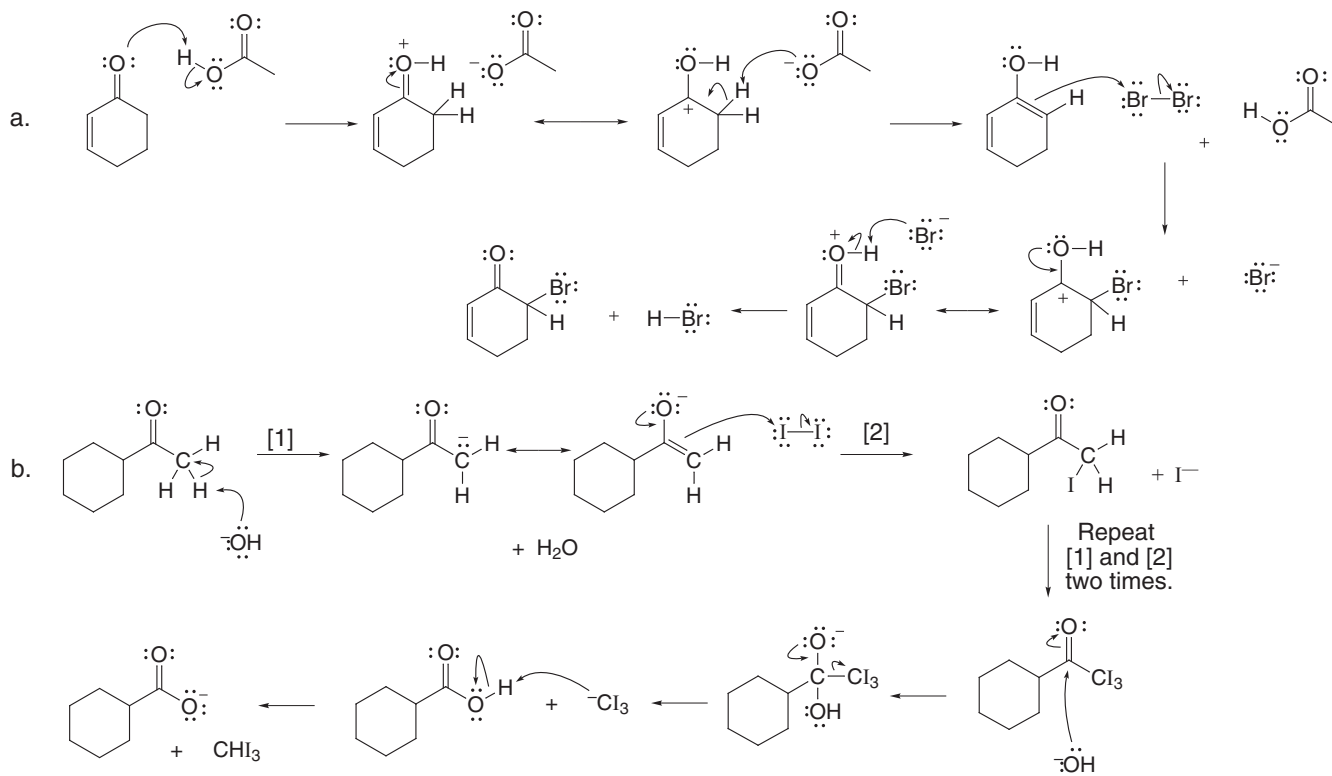


19.28 Il meccanismo dell'alogenazione acido-catalizzata consiste di due parti:
tautomerizzazione del composto carbonilico nella forma enolica, e **reazione dell'enolo con l'alogeno**.

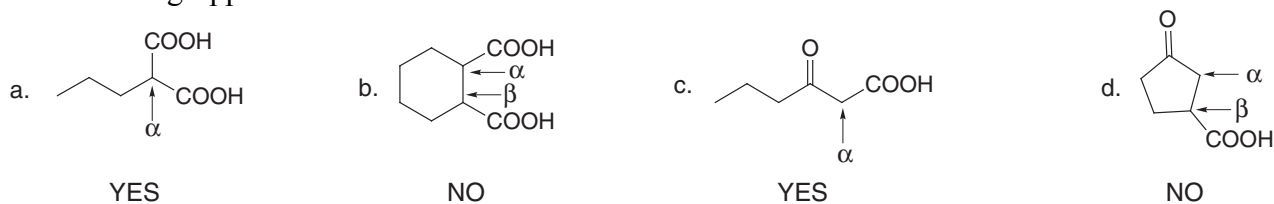


19.29 • Il meccanismo dell'alogenazione acido-catalizzata (Parte a) consiste di due parti:
tautomerizzazione del composto carbonilico nella forma enolica, e **reazione dell'enolo con l'alogeno**.

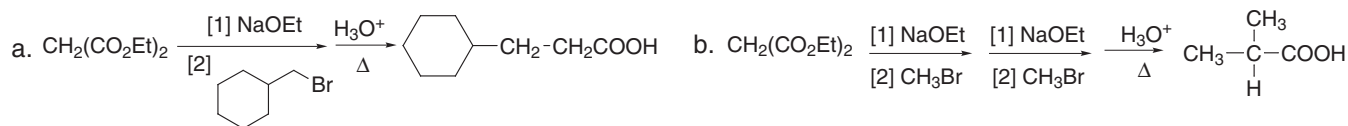
- Nella reazione dell'aloformio (Parte b), i tre atomi H del gruppo CH_3 sono successivamente sostituiti da X, per formare un intermedio che viene rotto in maniera ossidativa da basi.



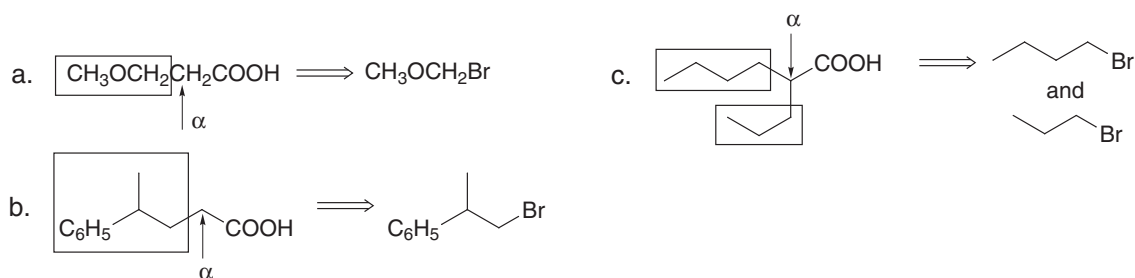
19.29 La decarbossilazione avviene solo quando un gruppo carbossilico è legato al carbonio in α di un altro gruppo carbonilico.



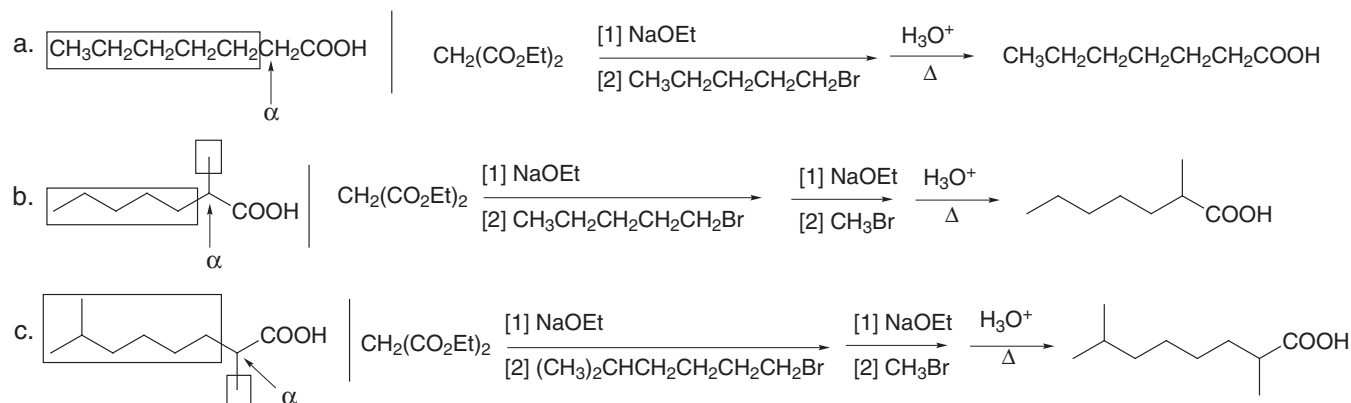
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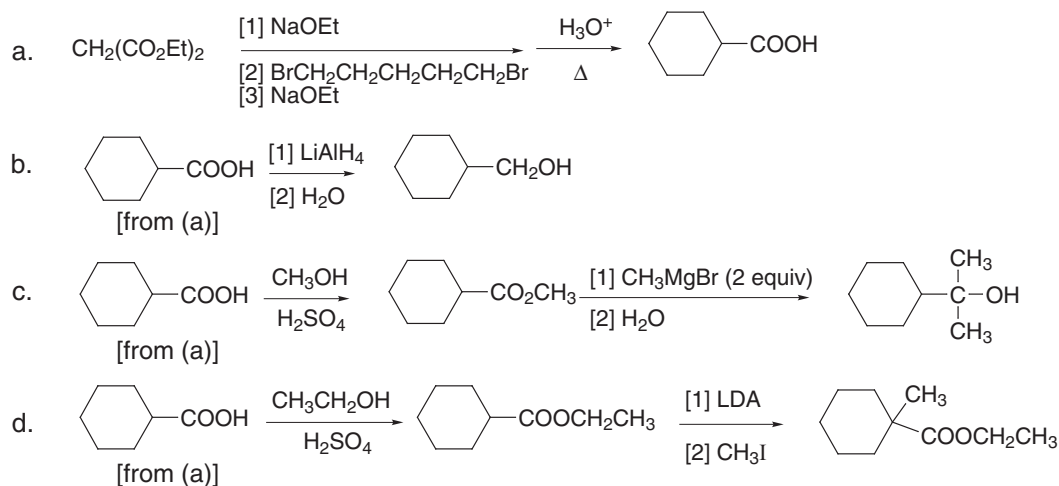
19.31 Individuare il C in α al gruppo COOH , e identificare tutti i gruppi alchilici ad esso legati. Questi gruppi provengono da altri alogenuri, e il resto della molecola proviene dal dietil malonato.



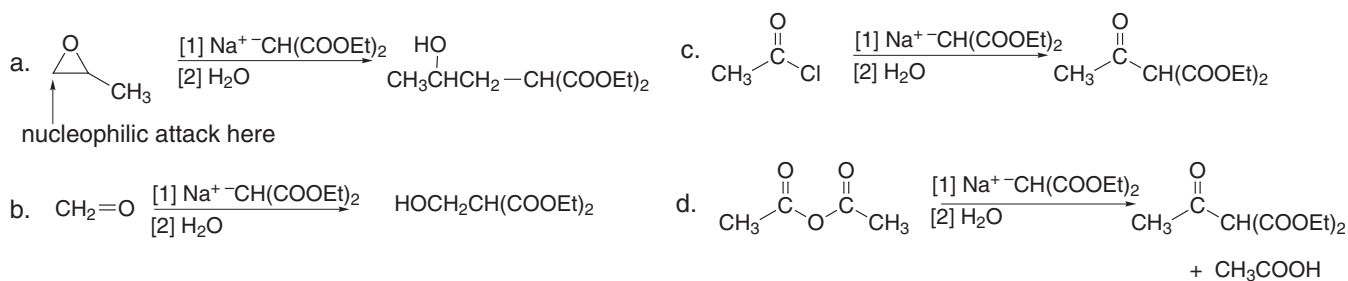
19.32



19.33



19.34



a. $\text{CH}_3\text{C}(=\text{O})\text{CH}_2\text{CO}_2\text{Et} \xrightarrow[\text{[3] H}_3\text{O}^+/\Delta]{\text{[1] NaOEt, [2] CH}_3\text{I}}$ $\text{CH}_3\text{C}(=\text{O})\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$

b. $\text{CH}_3\text{C}(=\text{O})\text{CH}_2\text{CO}_2\text{Et} \xrightarrow[\text{[3] NaOEt, [4] C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CH}_2\text{I, [5] H}_3\text{O}^+/\Delta]{\text{[1] NaOEt, [2] CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{Br}}$ $\text{CH}_3\text{C}(=\text{O})\text{CH}(\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3)\text{CH}_2\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$

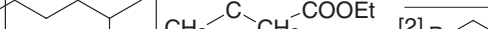
a.

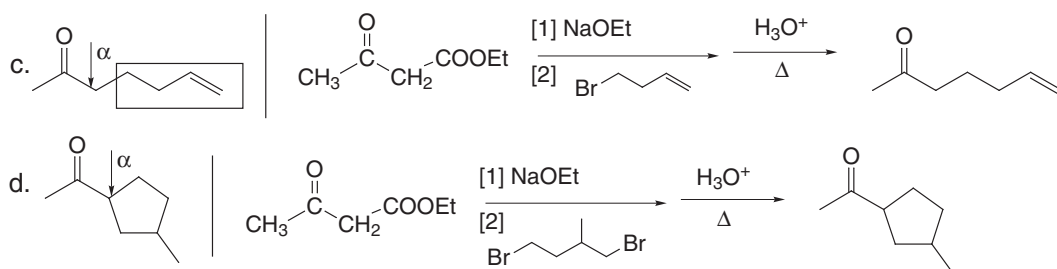
b.

c.

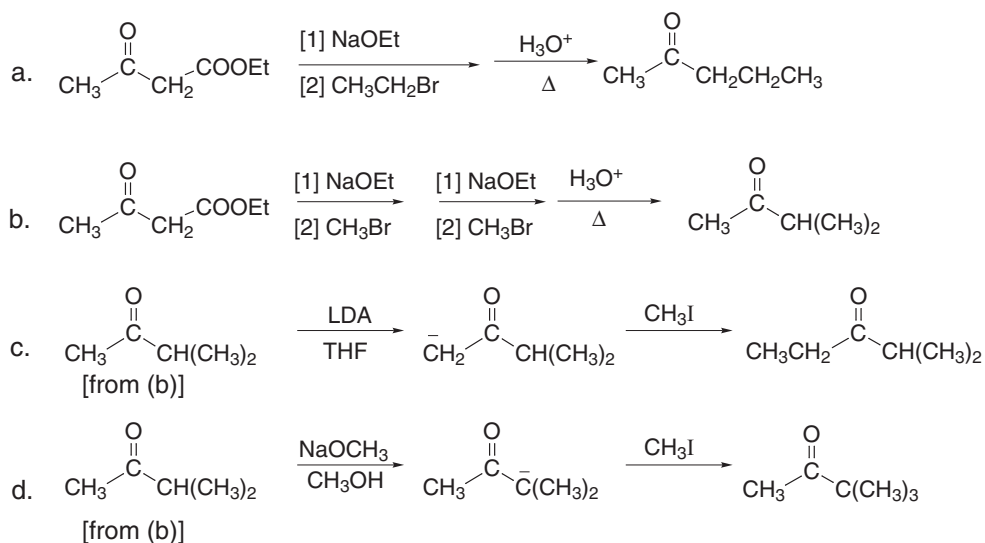
$$\text{CH}_3\text{C}(=\text{O})\text{CH}_2\text{CO}_2\text{Et} + \text{BrCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{Br} \xrightarrow[(2 \text{ equiv})]{\text{NaOEt}} \text{CH}_3\text{C}(=\text{O})\text{C}(\text{CO}_2\text{Et})\text{C}_1\text{H}_1\text{C}_1\text{H}_1\text{C}_1\text{H}_1$$

a. 

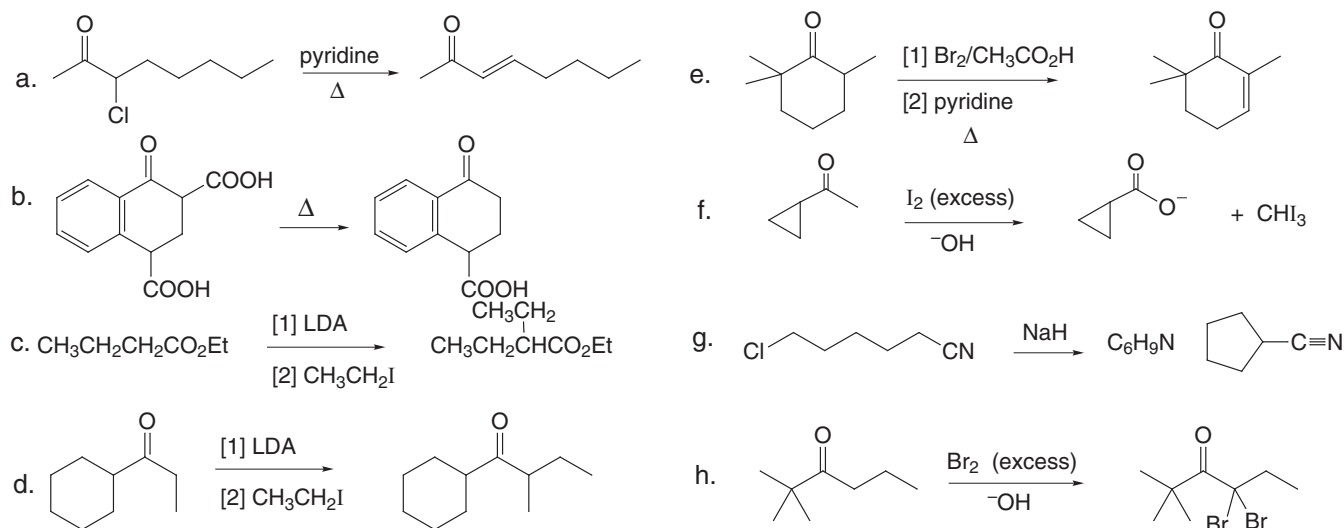
b. 



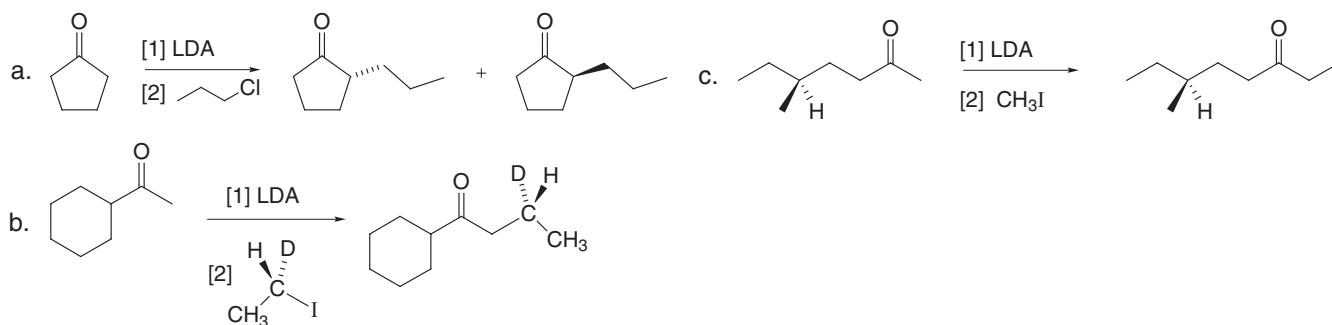
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19.40



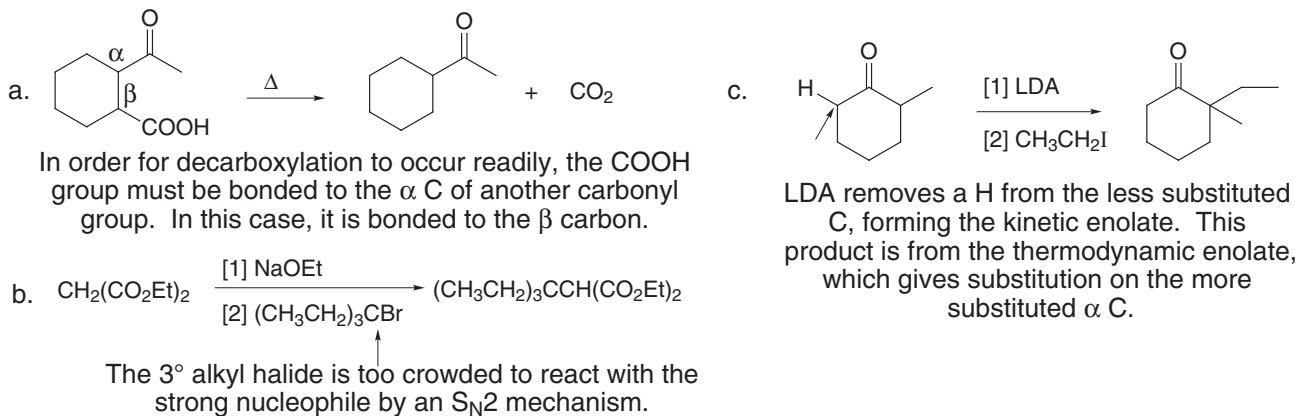
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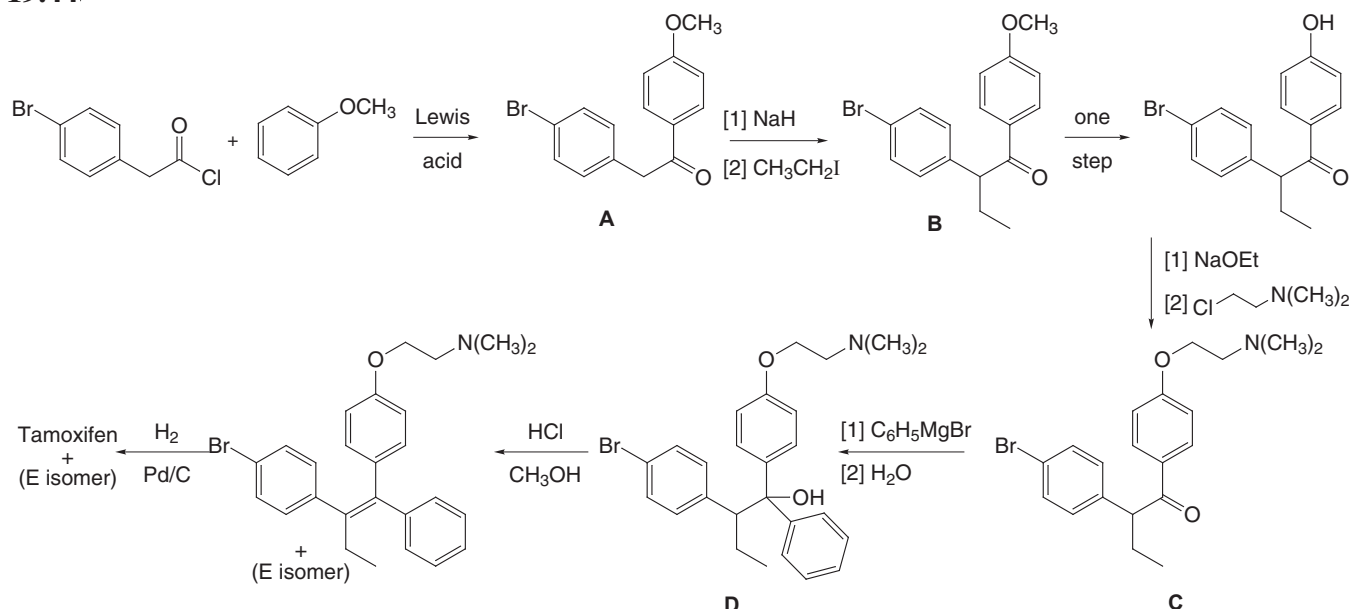
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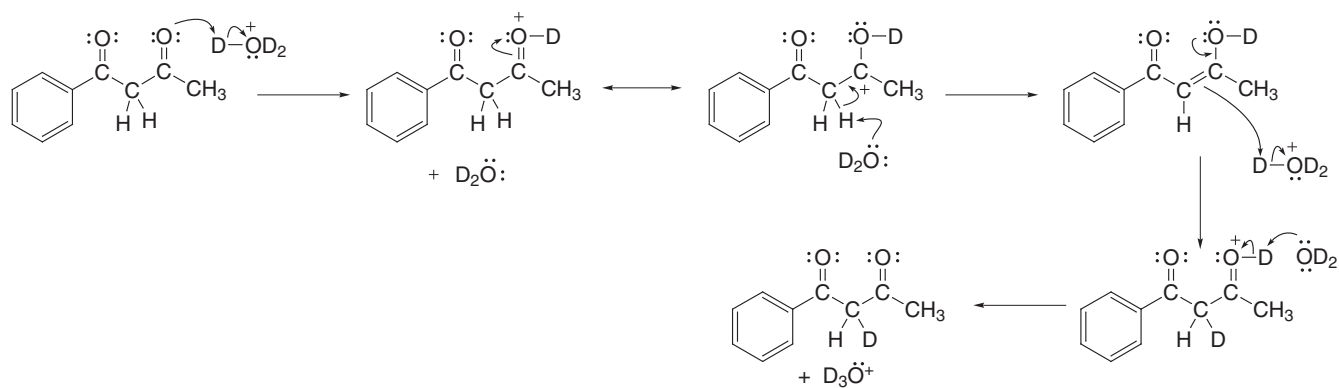
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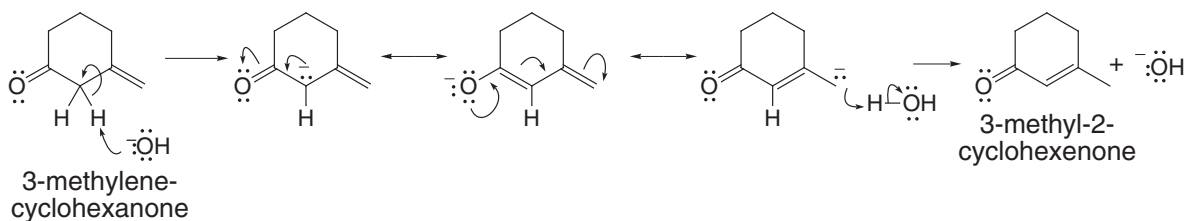
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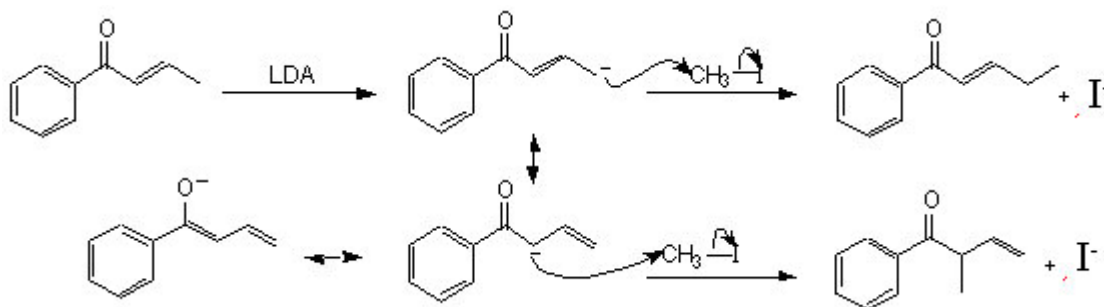
19.45,



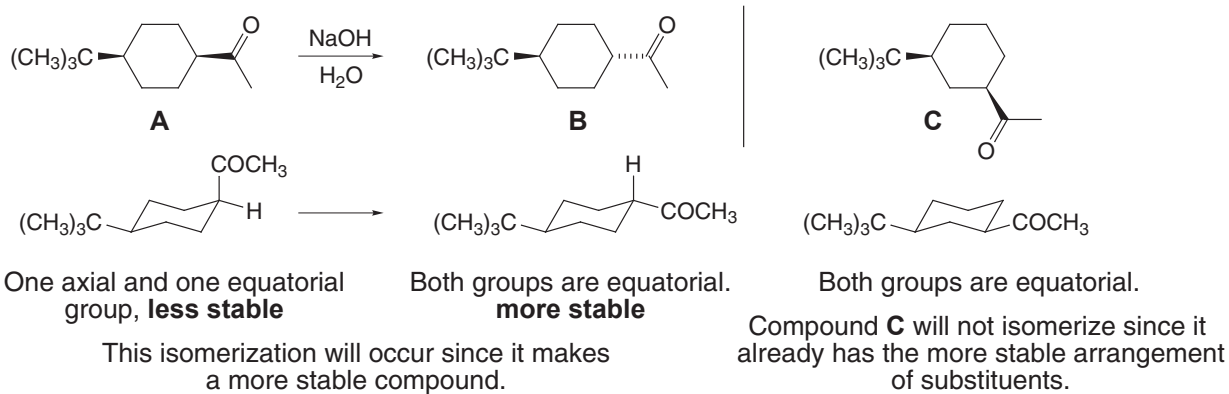
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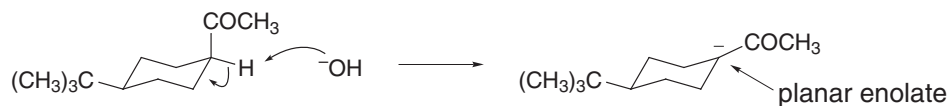
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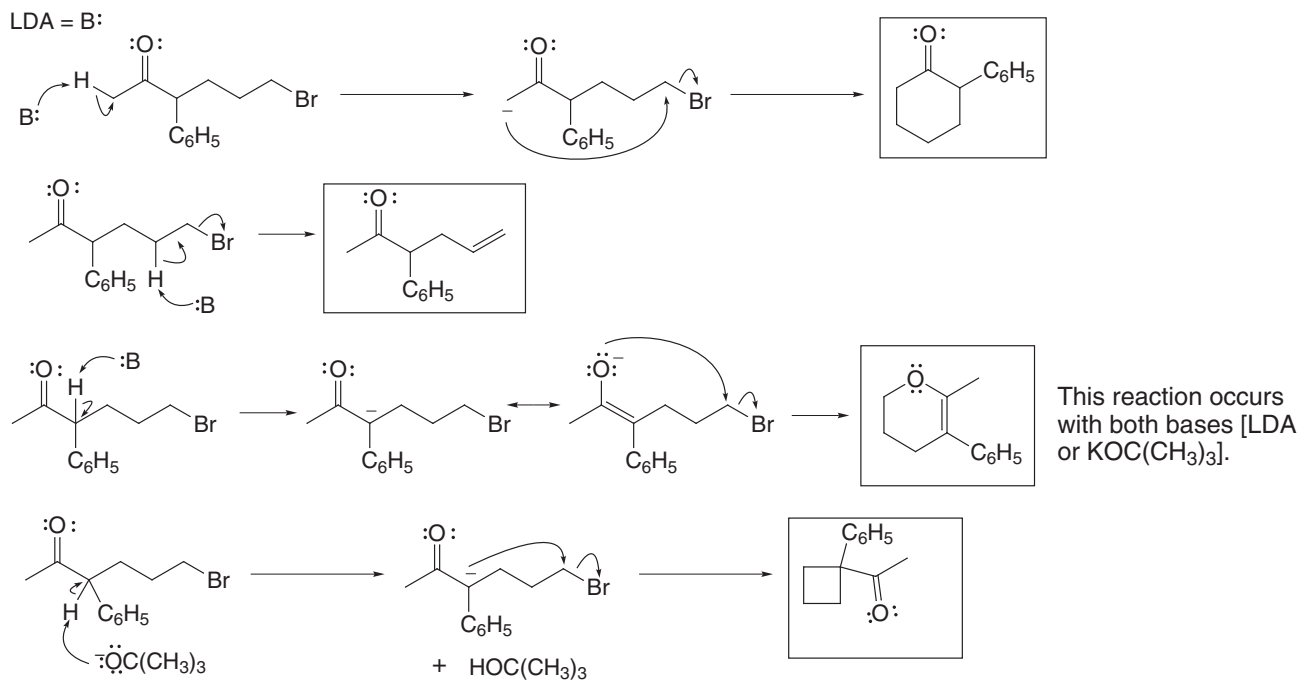
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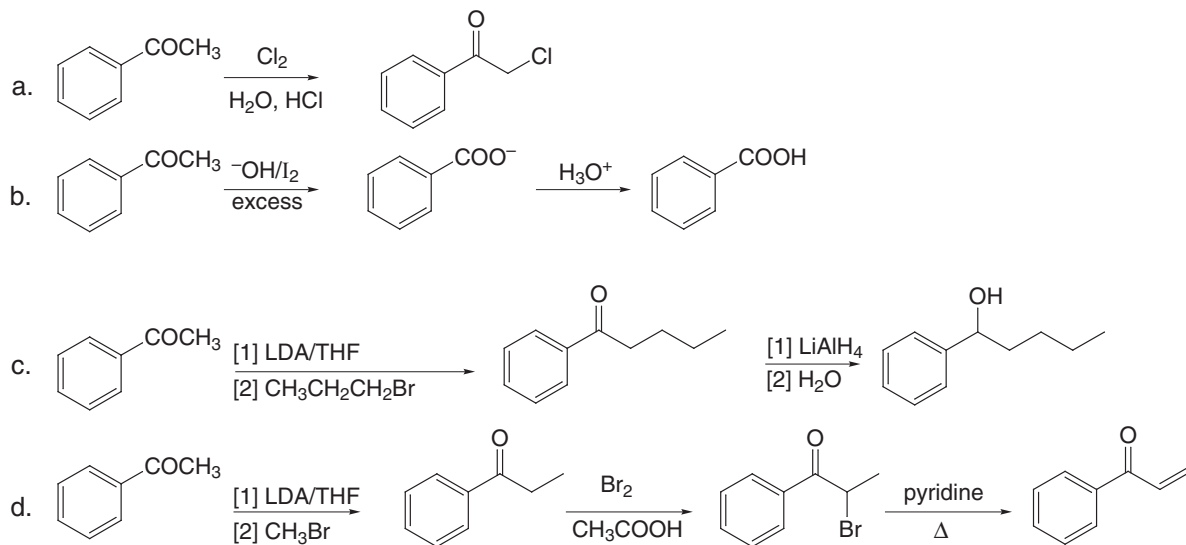
Isomerization occurs by way of an intermediate enolate, which can be protonated to either re-form **A**, or give **B**. Since **B** has two large groups equatorial, it is favored at equilibrium.



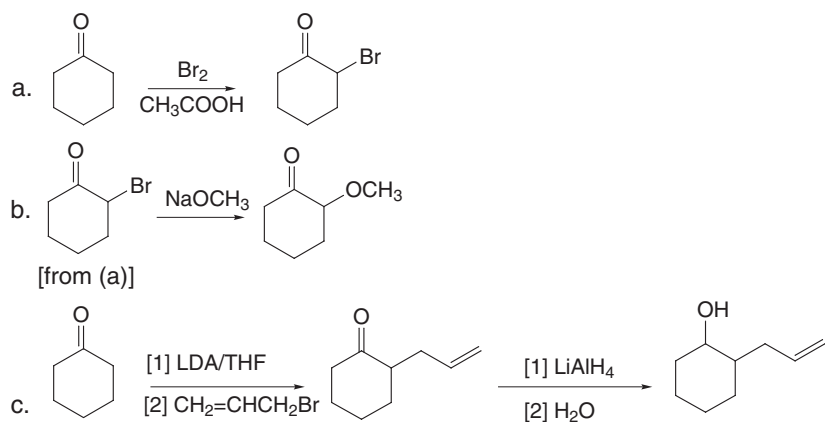
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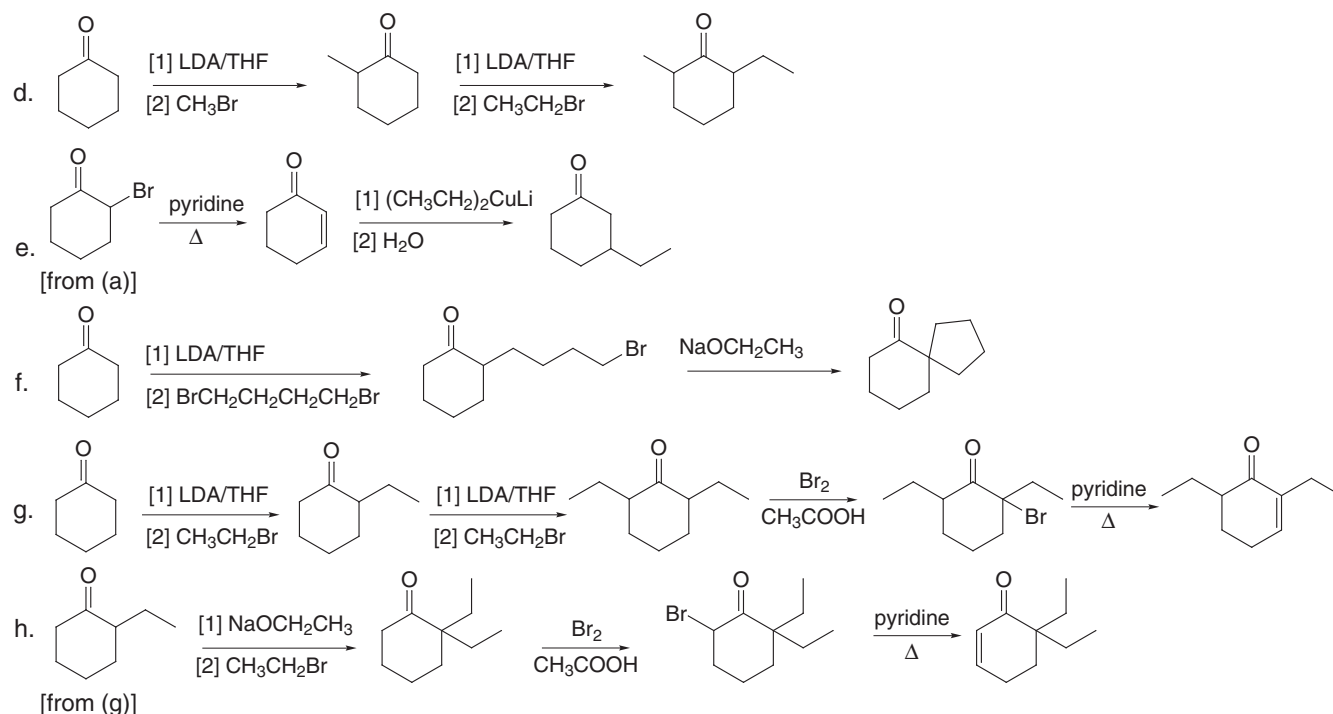


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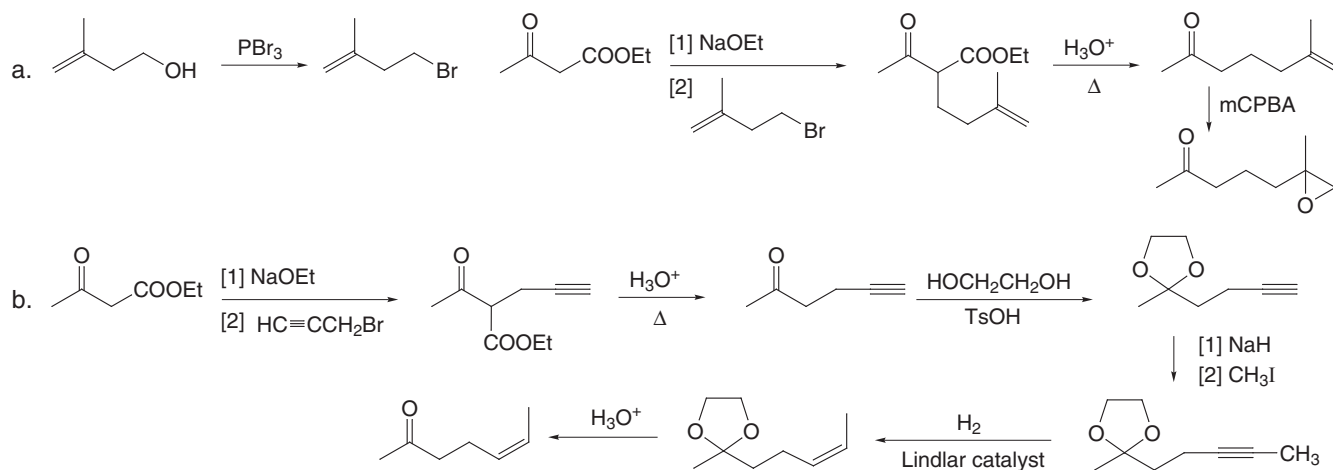


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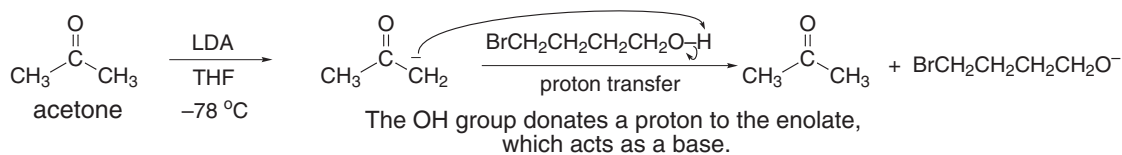




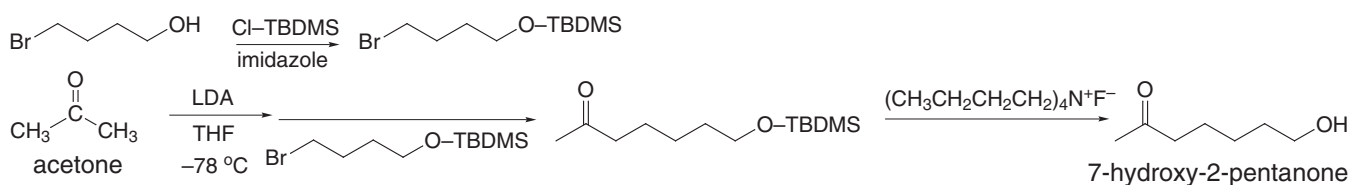
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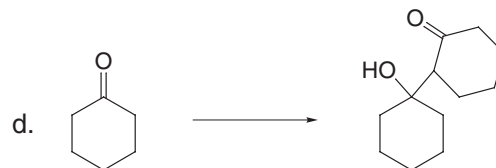
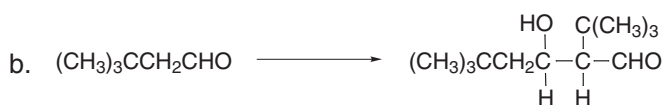
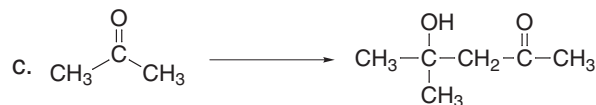
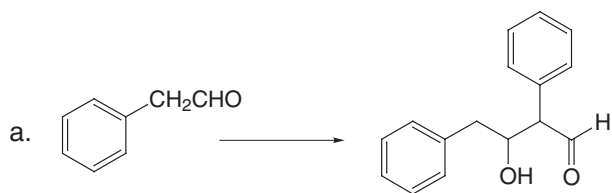
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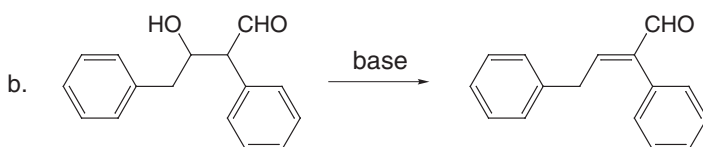
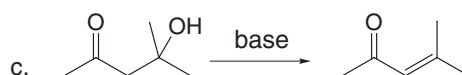
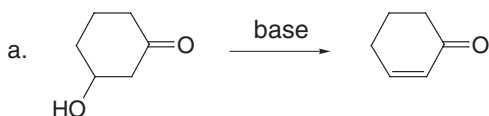
To synthesize the desired product, a protecting group is needed:



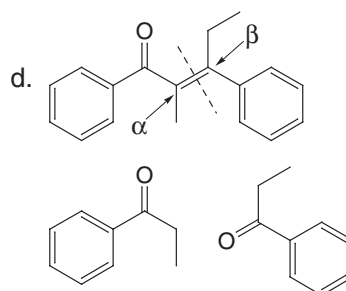
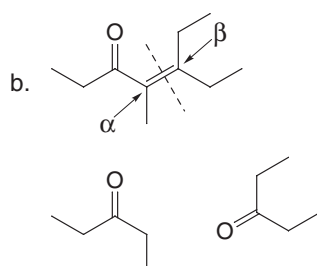
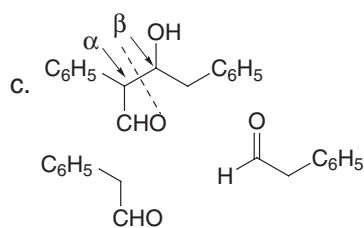
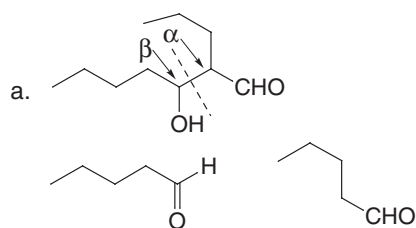
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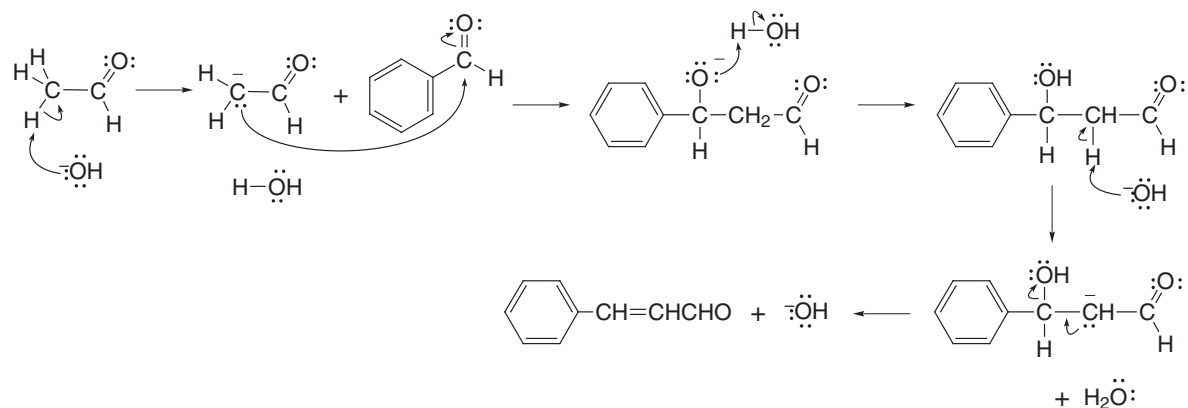
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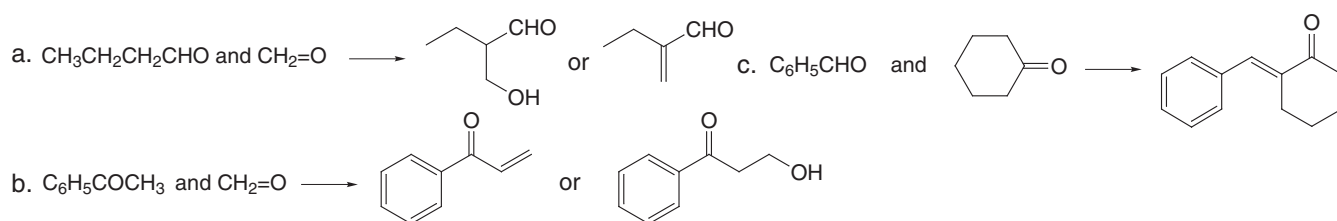
19.56 Individuare i carboni in α e β rispetto al gruppo carbonilico, e dividere la molecola in due frammenti attraverso questo legame. Il C in α e tutti gli atomi legati ad esso appartengono a un componente carbonilico. Il C in β e tutti gli atomi legati ad esso appartengono all'altro componente carbonilico.



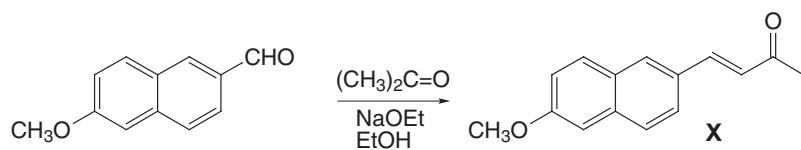
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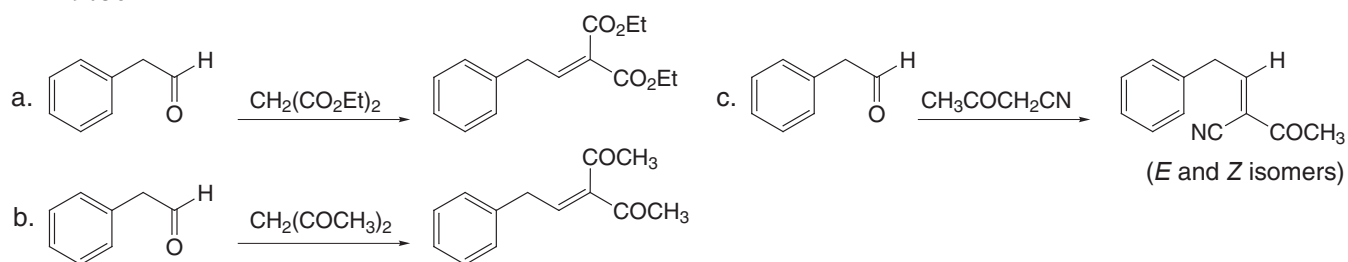
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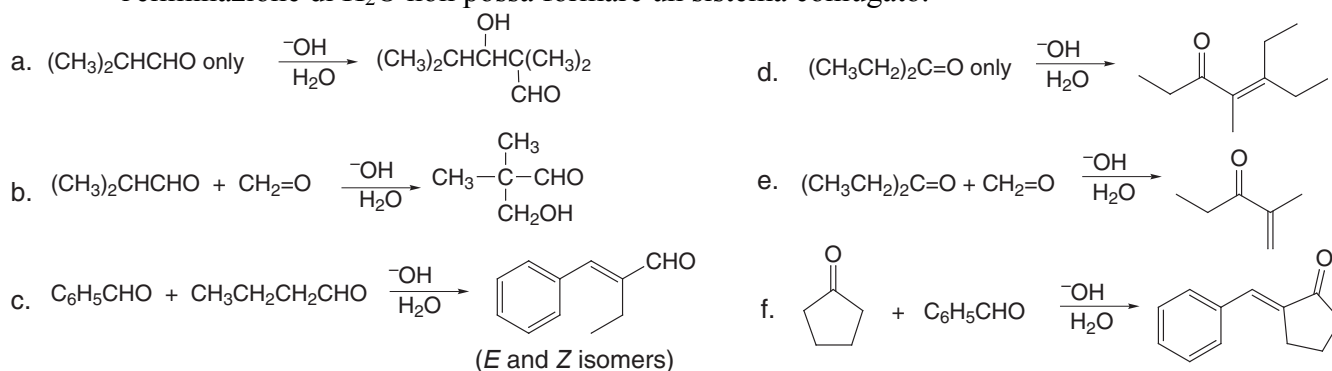
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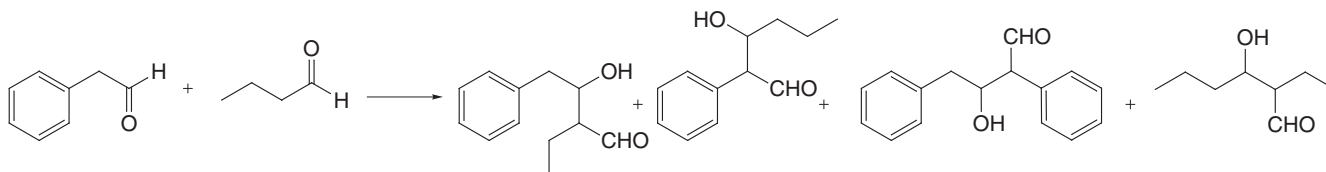
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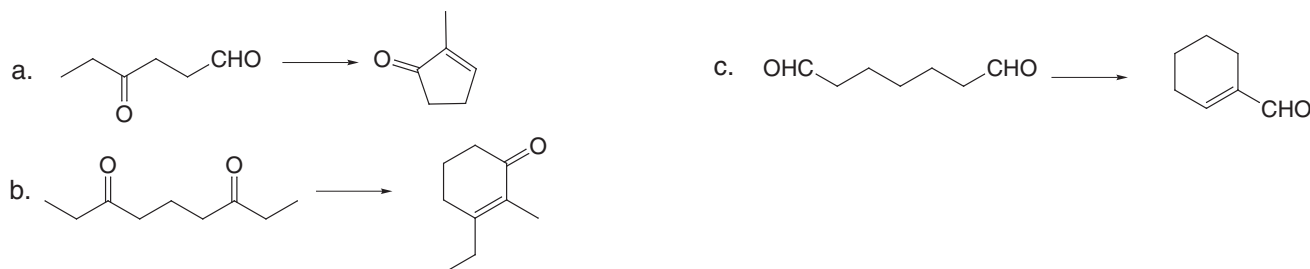
19.61 Il prodotto di una reazione aldolica è un composto β -idrossi carbonilico o un composto carbonilico α,β -insaturo. Quest'ultimo tipo di composto si ottiene come prodotto, a meno che l'eliminazione di H_2O non possa formare un sistema coniugato.



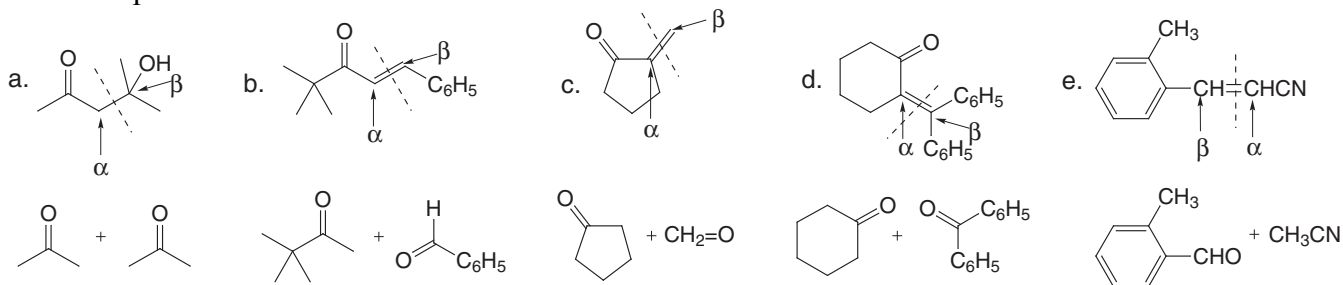
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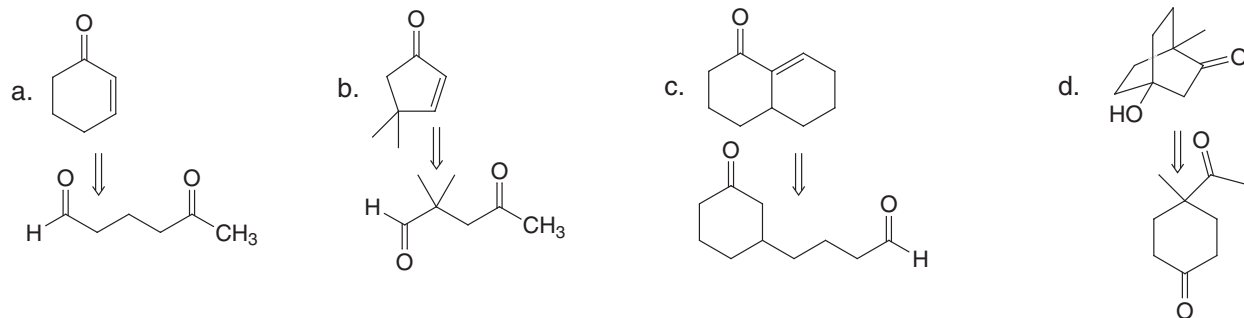
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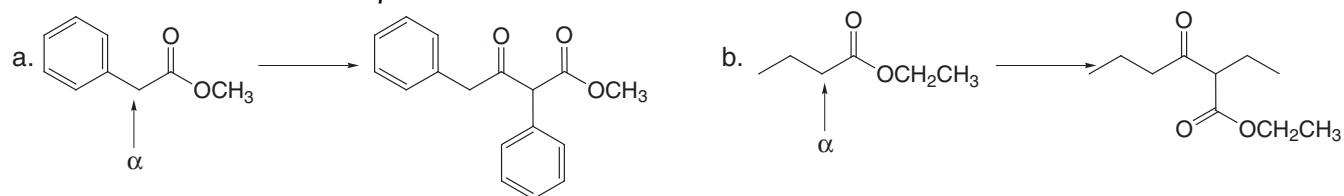
19.64 Individuare i carboni in α e β rispetto al gruppo carbonilico, e dividere la molecola in due frammenti attraverso questo legame. Il C in α e tutti gli atomi legati ad esso appartengono a un componente carbonilico. Il C in β e tutti gli atomi legati ad esso appartengono all'altro componente carbonilico.



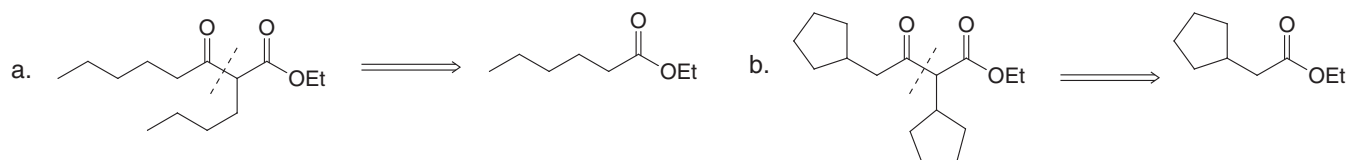
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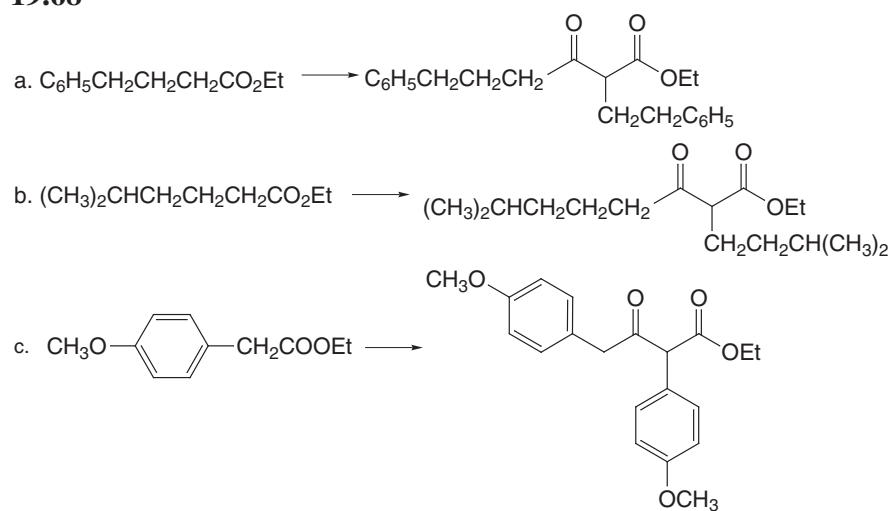
19.66 Per formare il β -cheto estere unire il C in α di un estere al C carbonilico dell'altro estere.



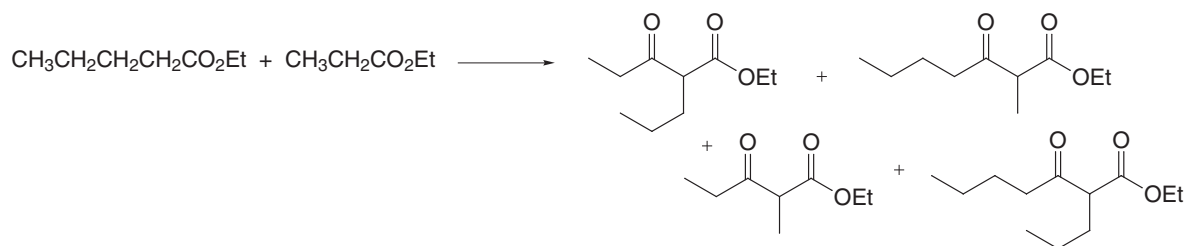
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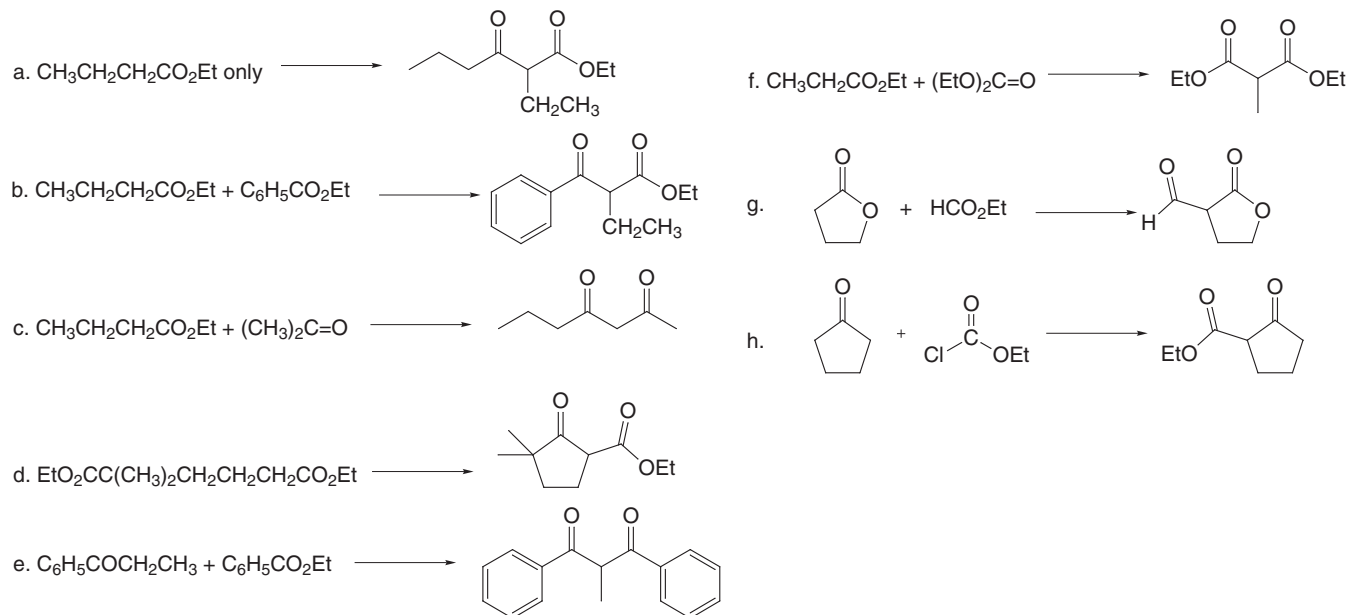
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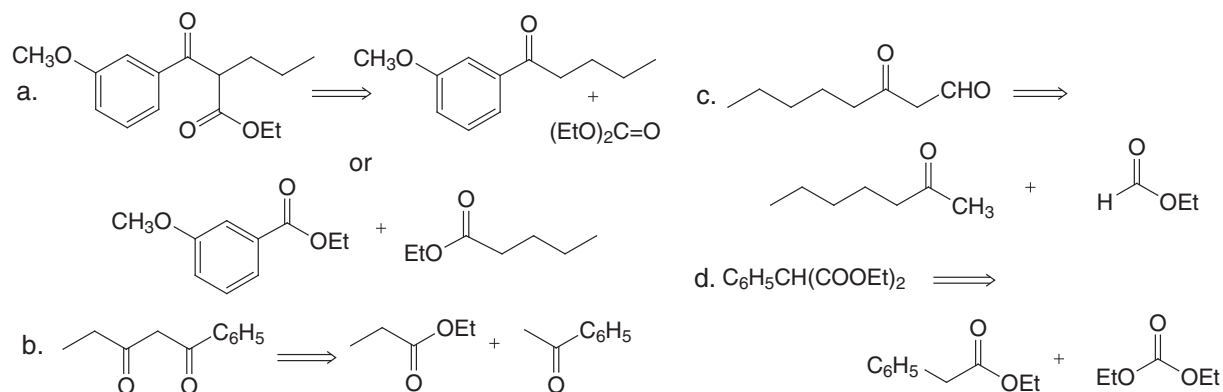
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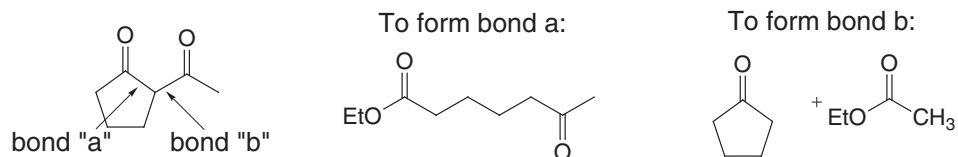
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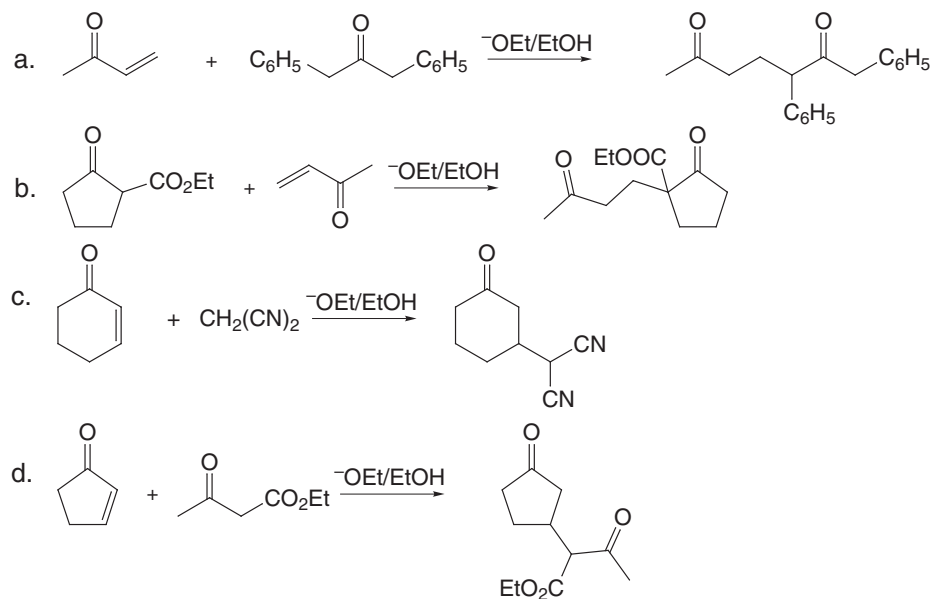
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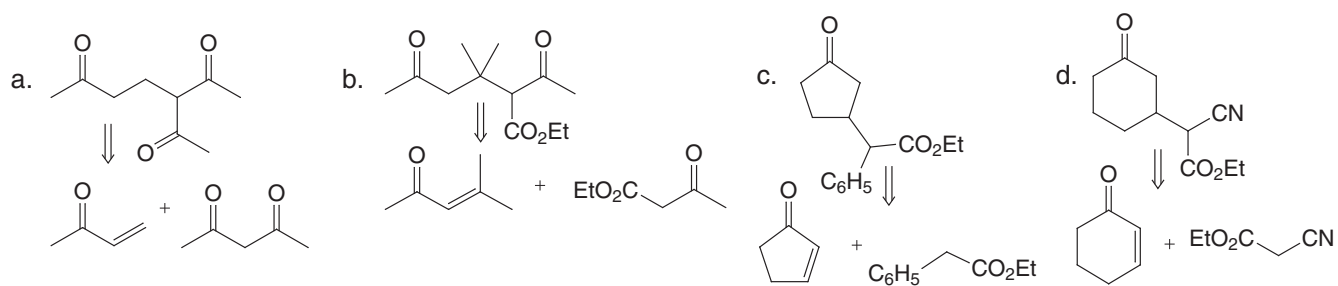
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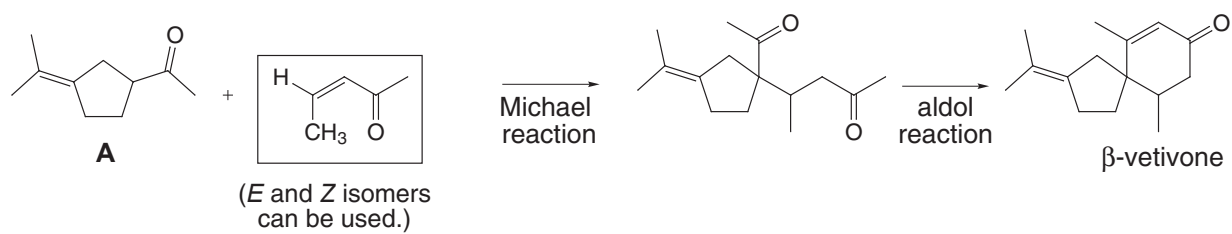
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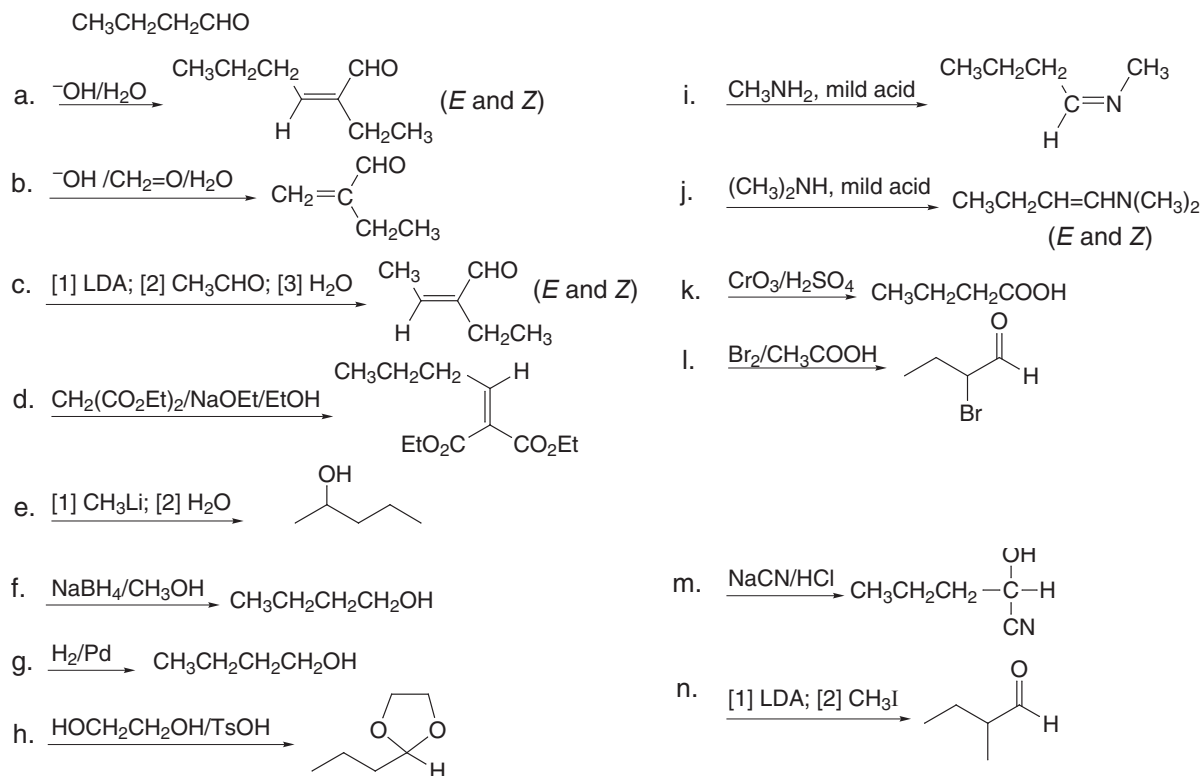
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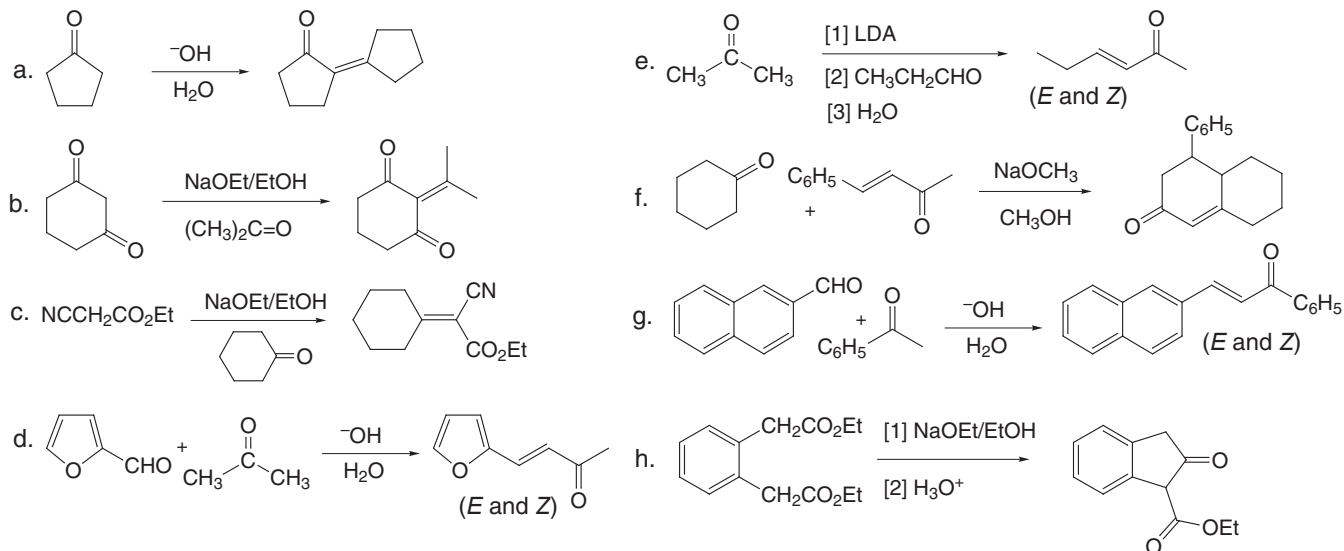
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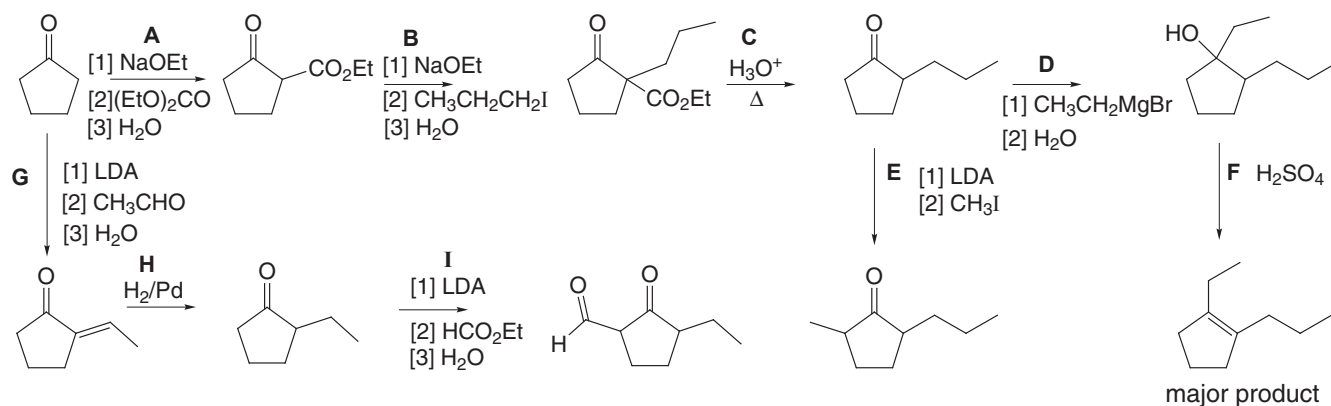
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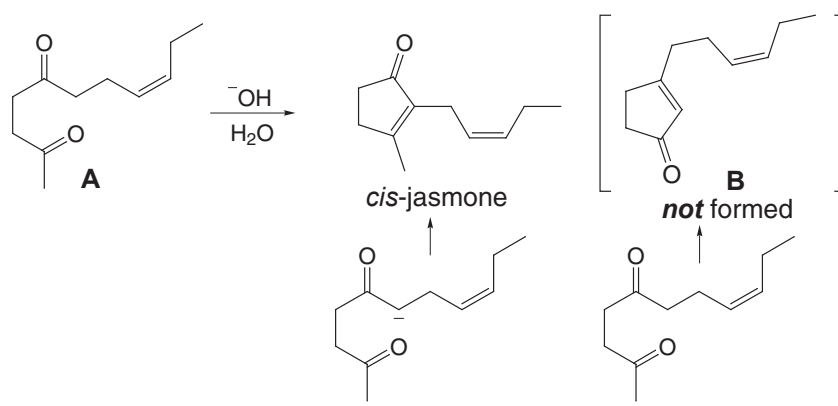
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19.78



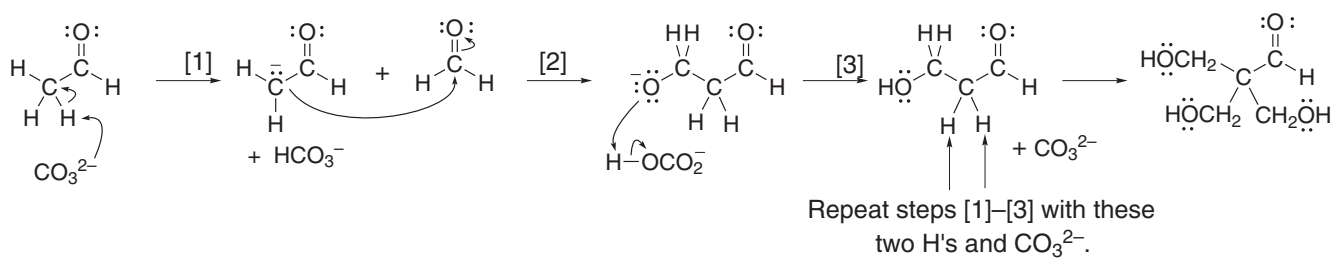
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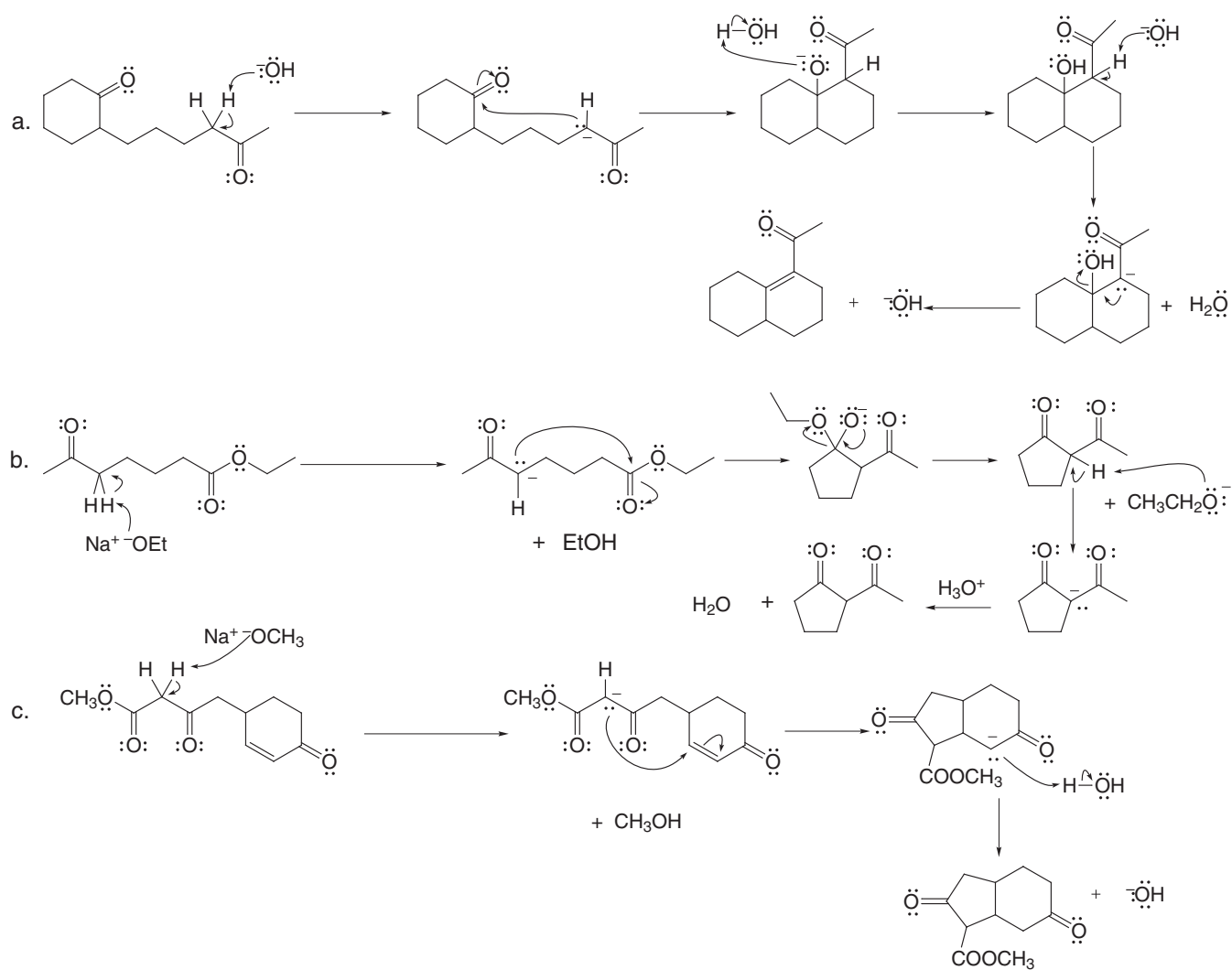
cis-Jasmone is formed from this more substituted and therefore more stable enolate. Under equilibrium conditions (⁻OH, H₂O) this thermodynamic enolate predominates.

This less substituted enolate is not favored by the base/solvent conditions chosen.

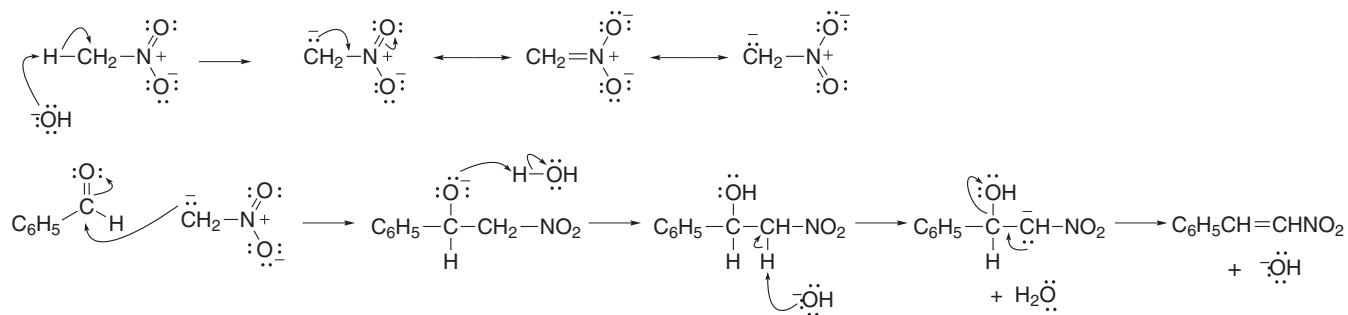
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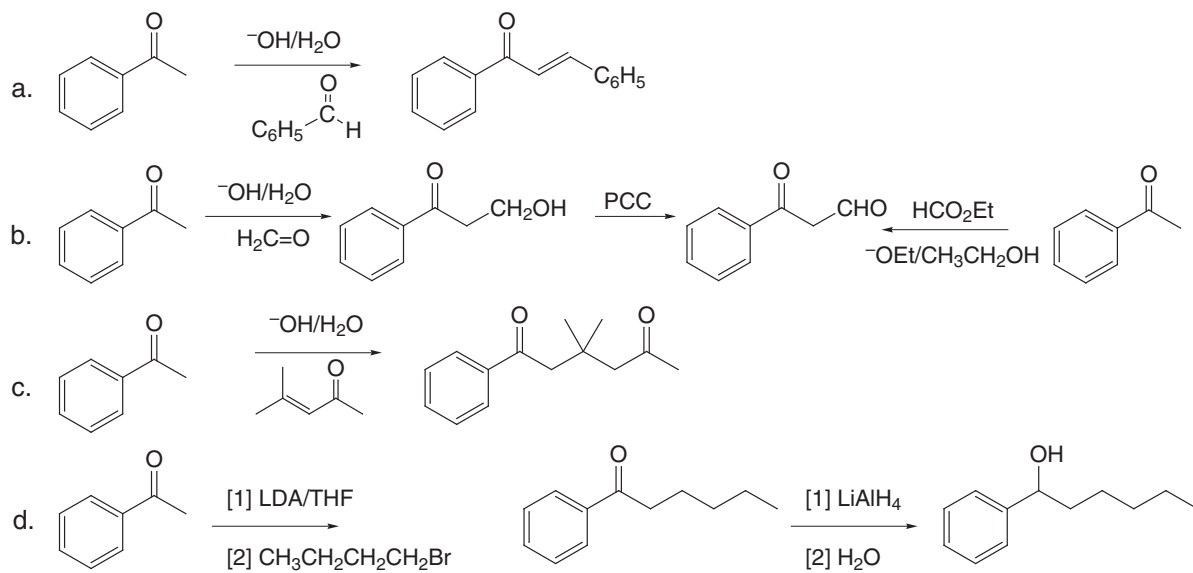
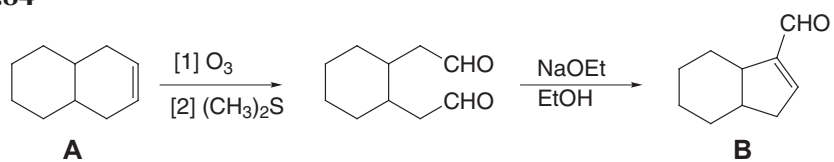


19.81

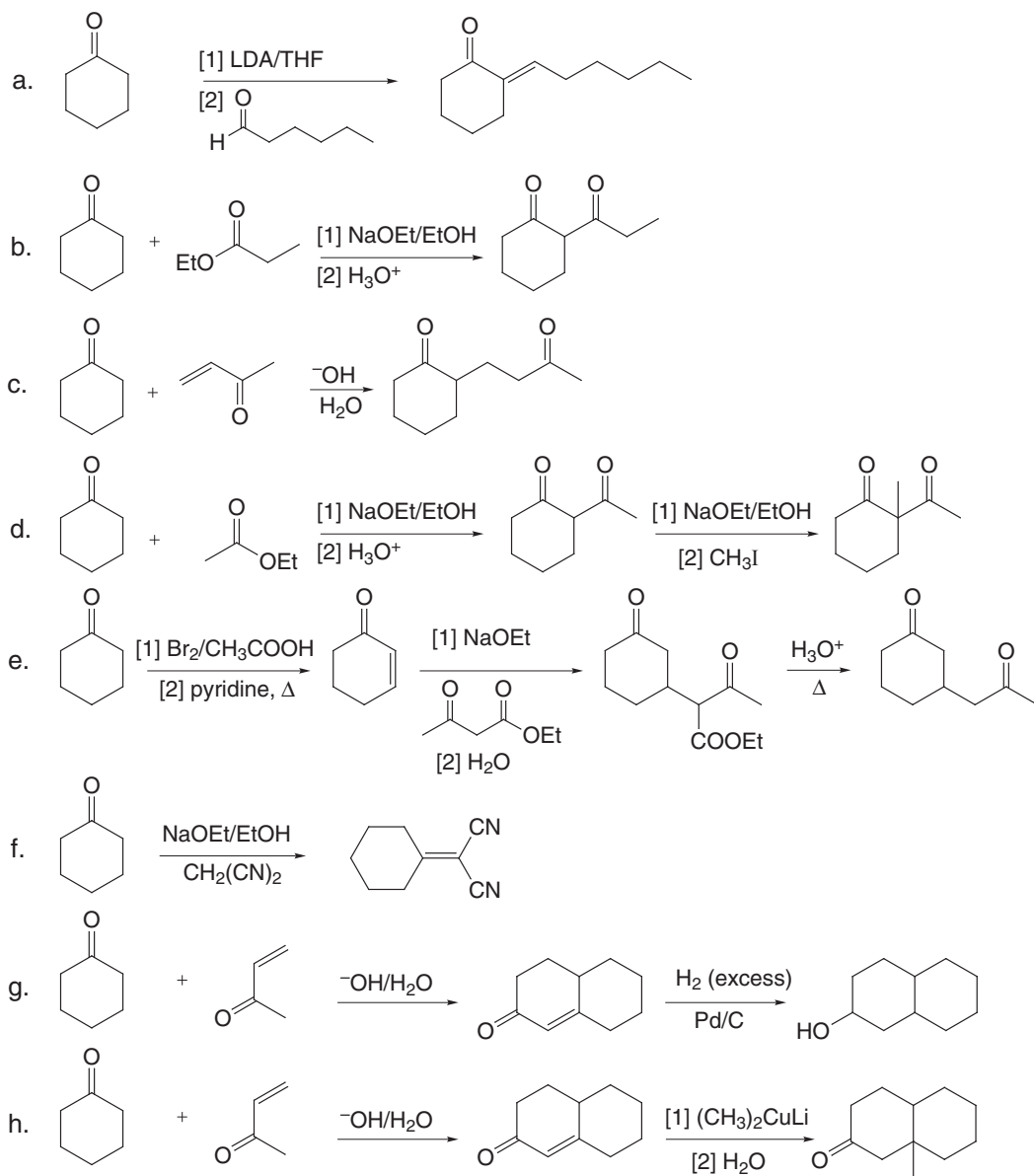


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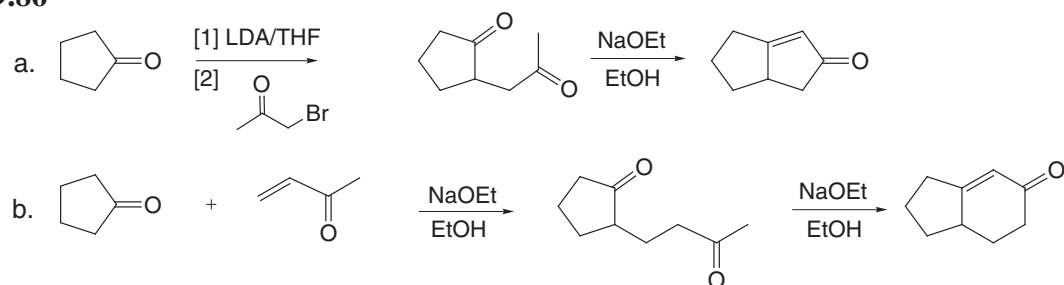


19.83**19.84**

19.85

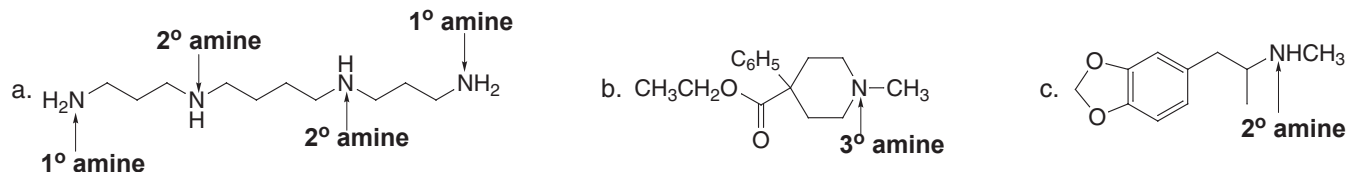


19.86

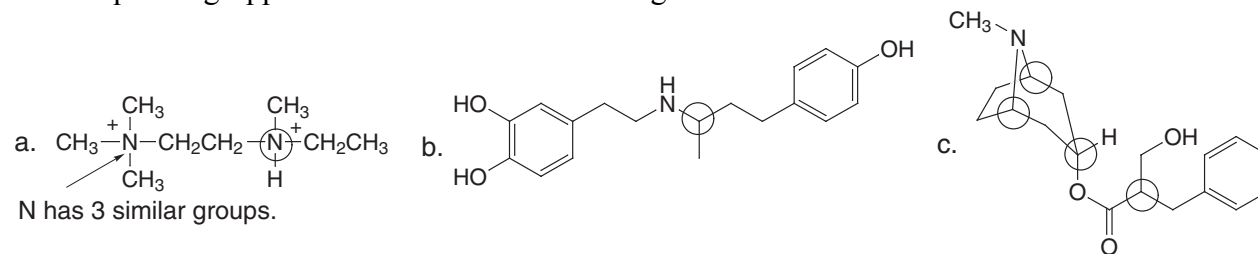


Capitolo 20

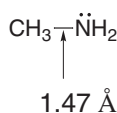
20.1 Le ammine sono classificate come 1°, 2°, o 3° secondo il numero di gruppi alchilici legati all'atomo di azoto.



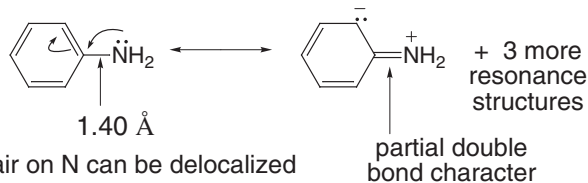
20.2 L'atomo di N di un sale di ammonio quaternario è un centro stereogenico quando l'N è circondato da quattro gruppi diversi. Tutti i centri stereogenici sono cerchiati.



20.3

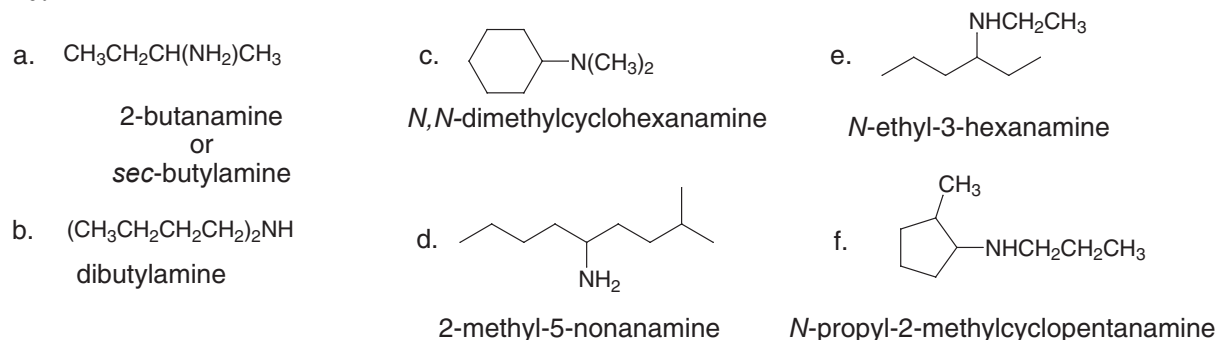


The C–N bond is formed from two sp^3 hybridized atoms and the lone pair is localized on N.

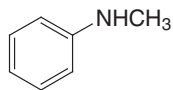
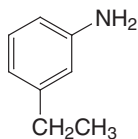


Because the lone pair on N can be delocalized on the benzene ring, the C–N bond has partial double bond character, making it shorter. Both the C and N atoms must be sp^2 hybridized (+ have a p orbital) for delocalization to occur. The higher percent s -character in both C and N shortens the bond as well.

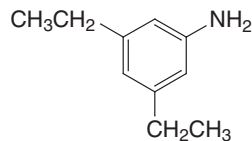
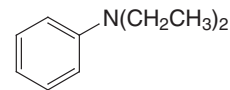
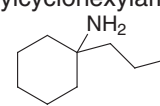
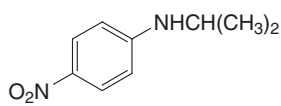
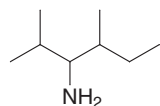
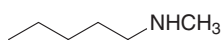
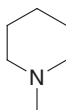
20.4



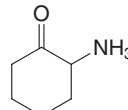
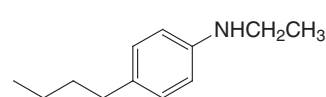
20.5 Le ammine aromatiche sono definite come derivati dell'anilina.

a. *N*-methylanilineb. *m*-ethylaniline

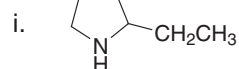
c. 3,5-diethylaniline

d. *N,N*-diethylaniline**20.6** Un gruppo NH_2 se è considerato un sostituito è detto **gruppo amminico**.a. 2,4-dimethyl-3-hexanamine c. *N*-isopropyl-*p*-nitroaniline e. *N,N*-dimethylethylamine g. 1-propylcyclohexylamineb. *N*-methylpentylamined. *N*-methylpiperidine

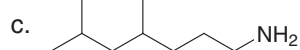
f. 2-aminocyclohexanone

h. *p*-butyl-*N*-ethylaniline**20.7**a. $\text{CH}_3\text{NHCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$ *N*-methyl-1-butanamine
(*N*-methylbutylamine)e. $(\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2)_3\text{N}$

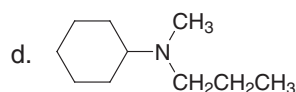
tripropylamine



2-ethylpyrrolidine

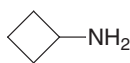
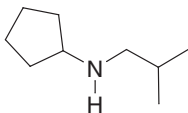
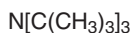
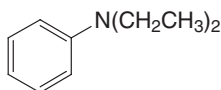
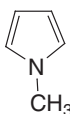
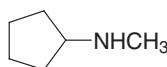
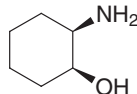
b. $\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_7\text{NH}_2$ 1-octanamine
(octylamine)f. $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{NH}$
diphenylaminej. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{NH}_2)\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$
2-methyl-3-hexanamine

4,6-dimethyl-1-heptanamine

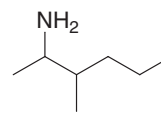
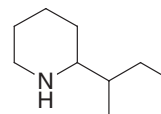
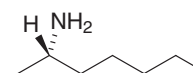
g.
N-*tert*-butyl-*N*-ethylanilinek.
3-ethyl-2-methylcyclohexanamine*N*-methyl-*N*-propylcyclohexanamineh.
4-aminocyclohexanonel.
N,N-diethylcycloheptanamine

20.8

a. cyclobutylamine

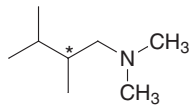
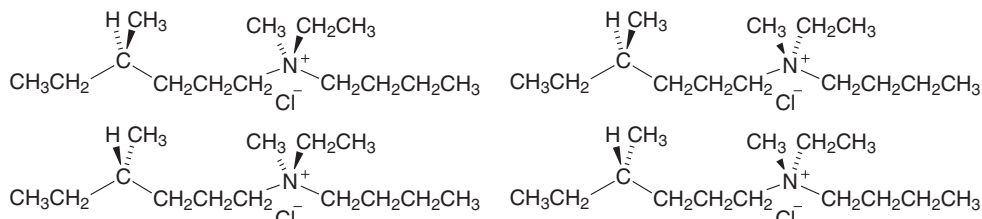
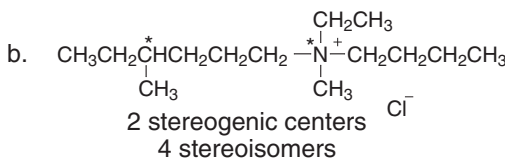
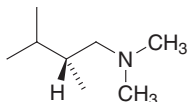
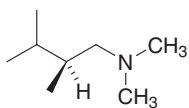
b. *N*-isobutylcyclopentylaminec. tri-*tert*-butylamined. *N,N*-diethylanilinee. *N*-methylpyrrolef. *N*-methylcyclopentylamineg. *cis*-2-aminocyclohexanol

h. 3-methyl-2-hexanamine

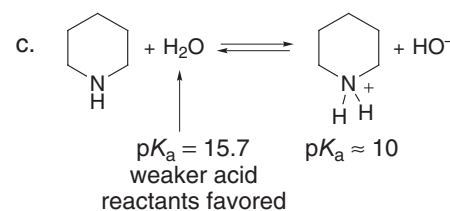
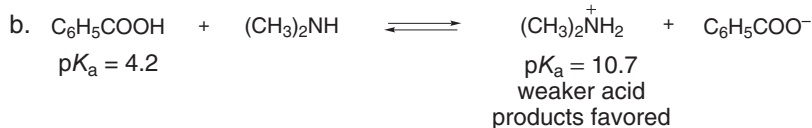
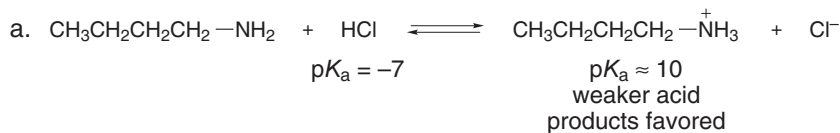
i. 2-*sec*-butylpiperidinej. (*S*)-2-heptanamine

20.9 [* indica un centro stereogenico]

a.

1 stereogenic center
2 stereoisomers

20.10 Il $\text{p}K_a$ di molte ammine protonate è 10–11, il $\text{p}K_a$ dell'acido di partenza deve essere **minore di 10** perché l'equilibrio favorisca i prodotti. Le ammine pertanto vengono prontamente protonate da acidi inorganici forti come HCl e H_2SO_4 , ed anche da acidi carbossilici.



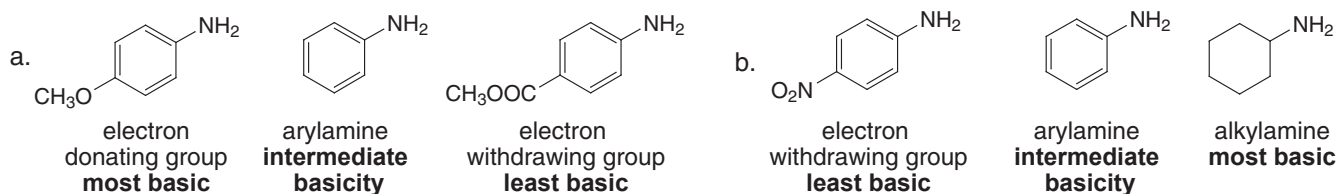
20.11 Più debole è l'acido coniugato, maggiore è il suo $\text{p}K_a$ e più forte è la base. (I valori di $\text{p}K_a$ sono dell'acido coniugato di una data ammina).

- a. CH_3NH_2 ($\text{p}K_a = 10.7$) and $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{NH}_2$ ($\text{p}K_a = 10.8$) b. $(\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2)_3\text{N}$ ($\text{p}K_a = 11.0$) and $(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{N}$ ($\text{p}K_a = 9.8$)
- stronger conjugate acid weaker conjugate acid weaker conjugate acid stronger conjugate acid
weaker base **stronger base** **stronger base** weaker base

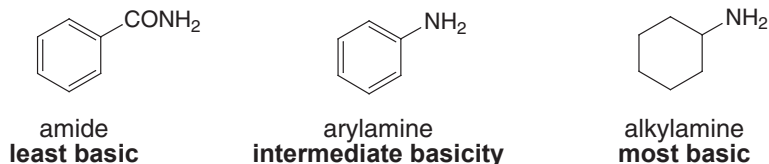
20.12 Le alchilammine 1°, 2°, e 3° sono più basiche di NH_3 per l'effetto induttivo elettron donatore dei gruppi R.

- a. $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{NH}$ and NH_3 b. $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{NH}_2$ and $\text{ClCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{NH}_2$
- 2° alkylamine 1° alkylamine 1° alkylamine
 CH_3 groups are electron donating. **stronger base** Cl is electron withdrawing.
stronger base **weaker base**

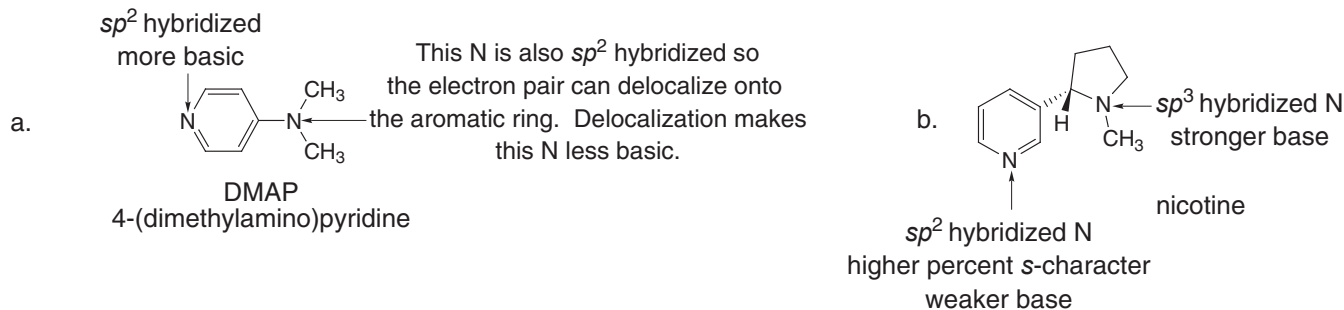
20.13 Le arilammine sono meno basiche delle alchilammine perché la coppia elettronica sull'N è delocalizzata. Gruppi elettron donatori aumentano la densità elettronica del benzene, rendendo le arilammine più basiche dell'anilina. Gruppi elettron attrattori sottraggono densità elettronica dal benzene, rendendo le arilammine meno basiche dell'anilina.



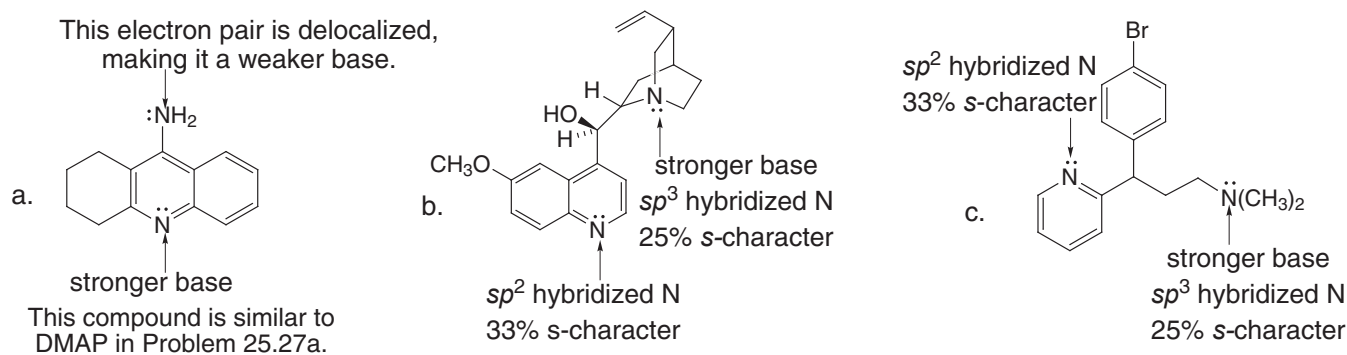
20.14 Le ammidi sono molto meno basiche delle ammine perché la coppia elettronica sull'N è altamente delocalizzata.



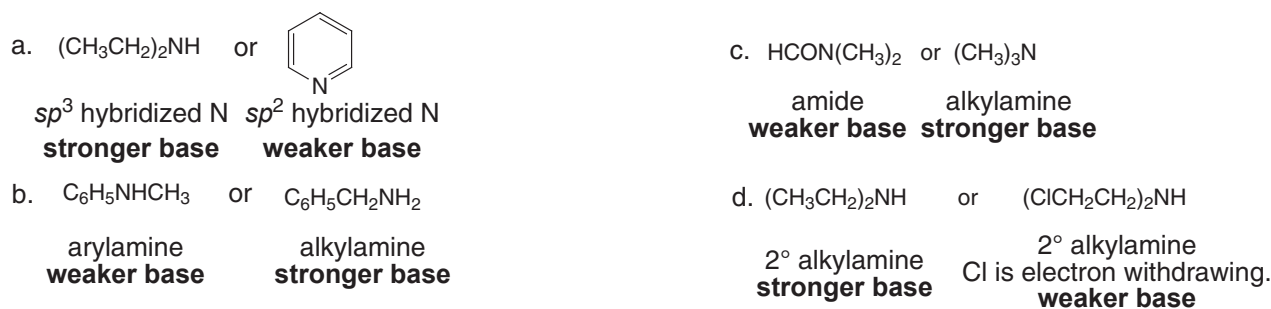
20.15



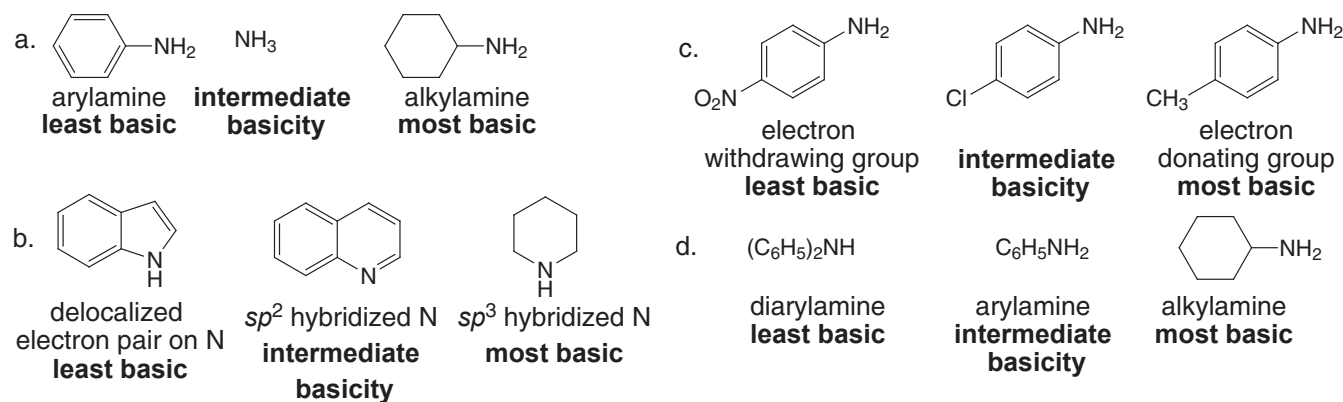
20.16



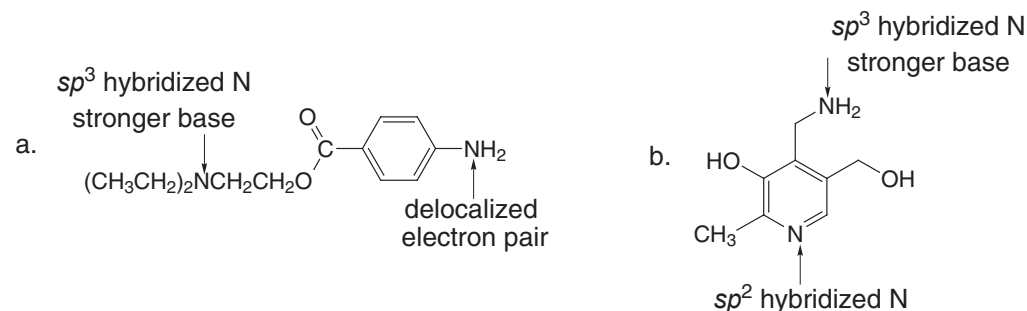
20.17



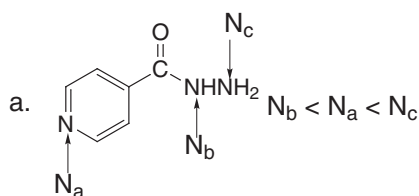
20.18



20.19



20.20

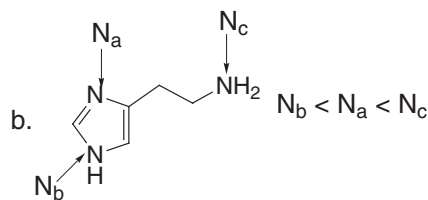


Order of basicity: $N_b < N_a < N_c$

N_b – The electron pair on this N atom is delocalized on the O atom; least basic.

N_a – The electron pair on this N atom is not delocalized, but is on an sp^2 hybridized atom.

N_c – The electron pair on this N atom is on an sp^3 hybridized N; most basic.



Order of basicity: $N_b < N_a < N_c$

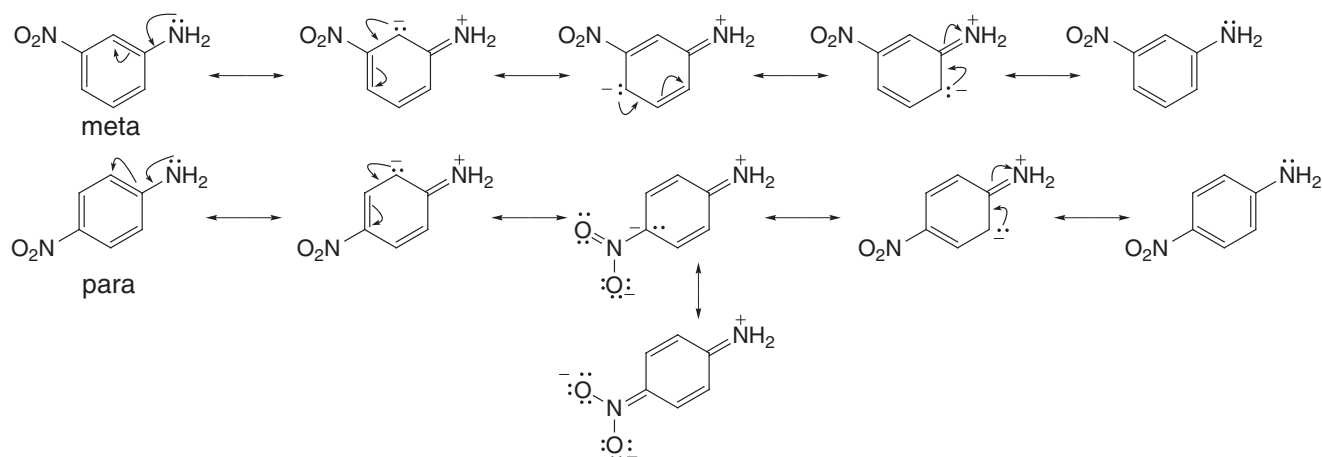
N_b – The electron pair on this N atom is delocalized on the aromatic five-membered ring; least basic.

N_a – The electron pair on this N atom is not delocalized, but is on an sp^2 hybridized atom.

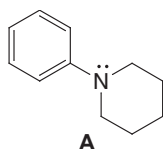
N_c – The electron pair on this N atom is on an sp^3 hybridized N; most basic.

20.21

The para isomer is the weaker base because the electron pair on its NH_2 group can be delocalized onto the NO_2 group. In the meta isomer, no resonance structure places the electron pair on the NO_2 group, and fewer resonance structures can be drawn:

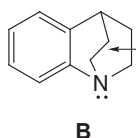


20.22



pK_a of the conjugate acid = 5.2
stronger conjugate acid
weaker base

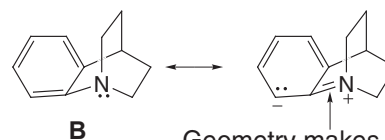
The electron pair of this arylamine is delocalized on the benzene ring, decreasing its basicity.



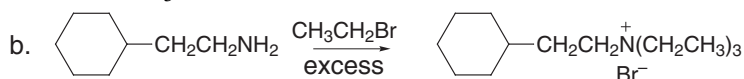
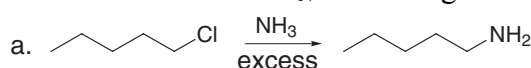
pK_a of the conjugate acid = 7.29
weaker conjugate acid
stronger base

This two-carbon bridge makes it difficult for the lone pair on N to delocalize on the aromatic ring.

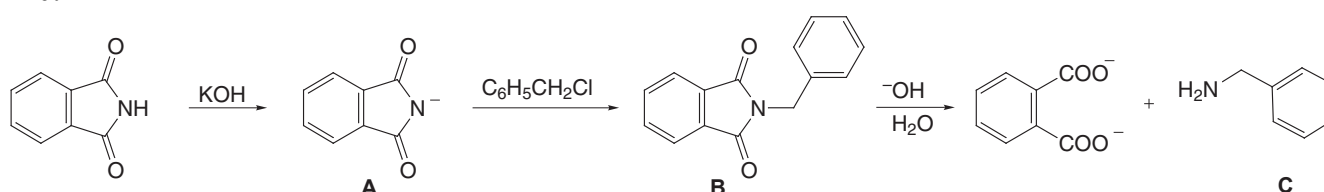
Resonance structures that place a double bond between the N atom and the benzene ring are destabilized. Since the electron pair is more localized on N, compound **B** is more basic.



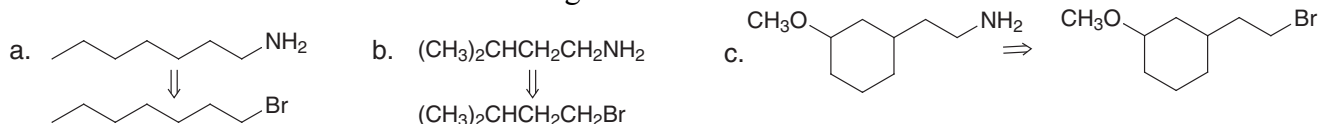
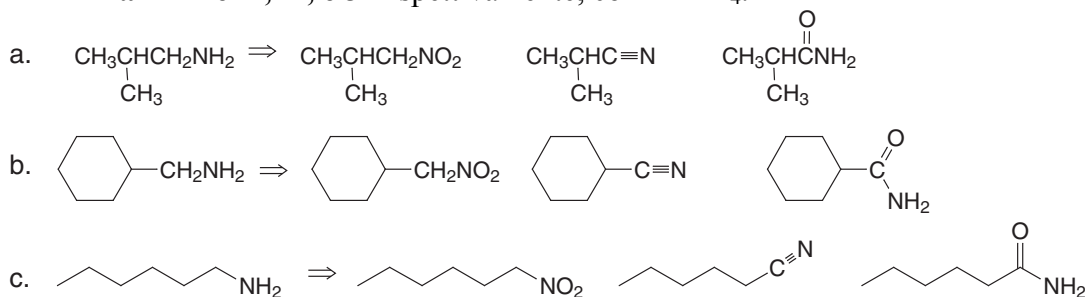
Geometry makes having a double bond here difficult.

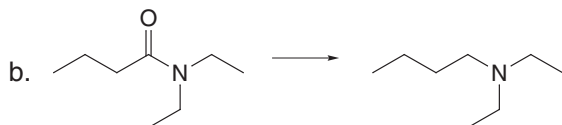
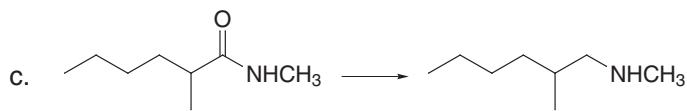
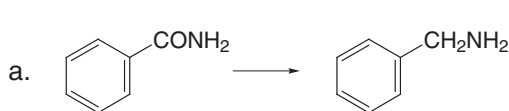
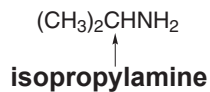
20.23 La reazione S_N2 di un alogenuro alchilico con NH_3 o un'ammina forma un'ammina.

20.24

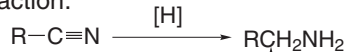


20.25 La sintesi di Gabriel converte un alogenuro alchilico in un'ammina 1° attraverso un processo a due stadi: sostituzione nucleofila seguita da idrolisi.

20.26 I nitrili sono ridotti ad ammine 1° $LiAlH_4$. I gruppi nitro sono ridotti ad ammine 1° per azione di una varietà di agenti riducenti. Le ammidi 1°, 2°, e 3° sono ridotte ad ammine 1°, 2°, e 3° rispettivamente, con $LiAlH_4$.20.27 Le ammidi 1°, 2°, e 3° sono ridotte ad ammine 1°, 2°, e 3° rispettivamente, con $LiAlH_4$.

**20.28**

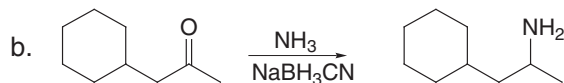
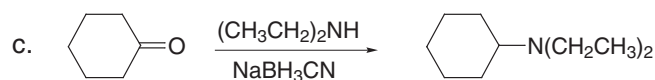
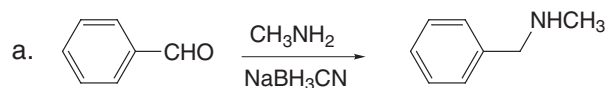
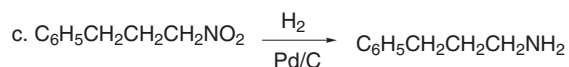
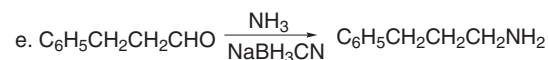
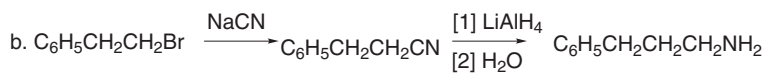
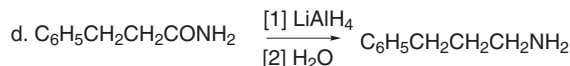
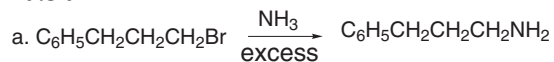
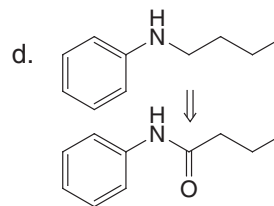
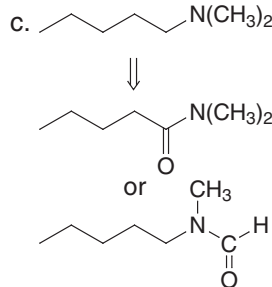
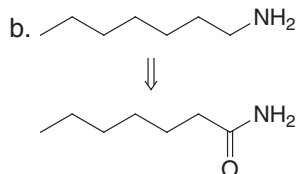
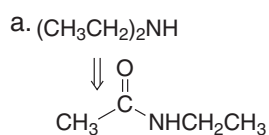
General reaction:



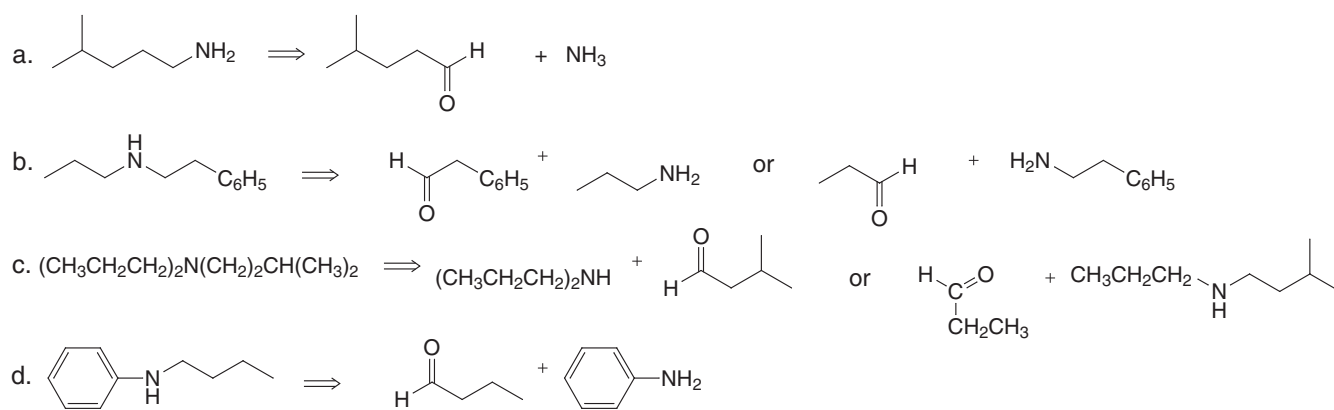
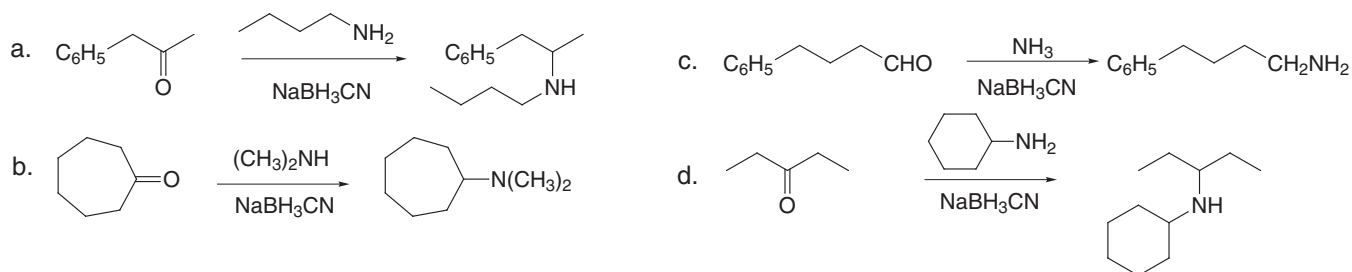
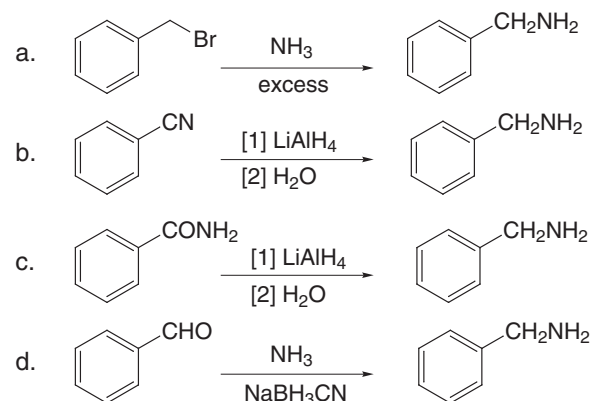
The amine needs 2 H's here.

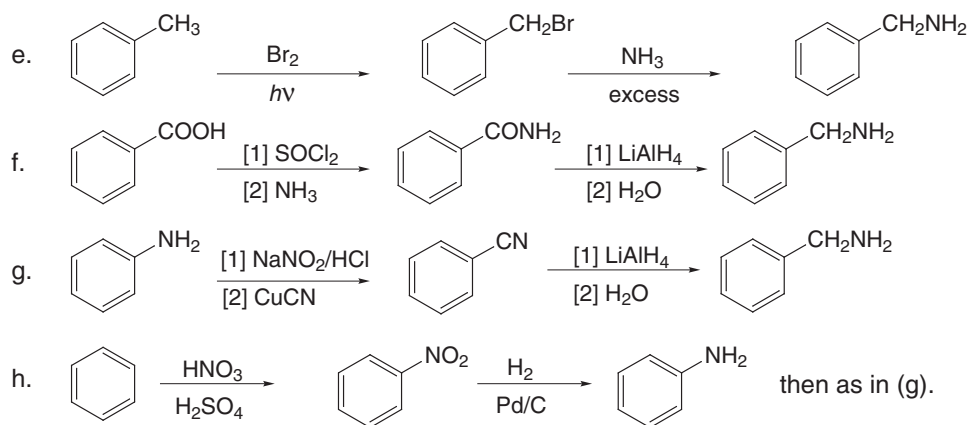
The C bonded to the N must have 2 H's to be formed by reduction of a nitrile.

20.29 L'amminazione riduttiva è un metodo a due stadi che converte aldeidi e chetoni in ammine 1°, 2°, and 3°. L'amminazione riduttiva sostituisce un C=O con un legame C-H ed uno C-N

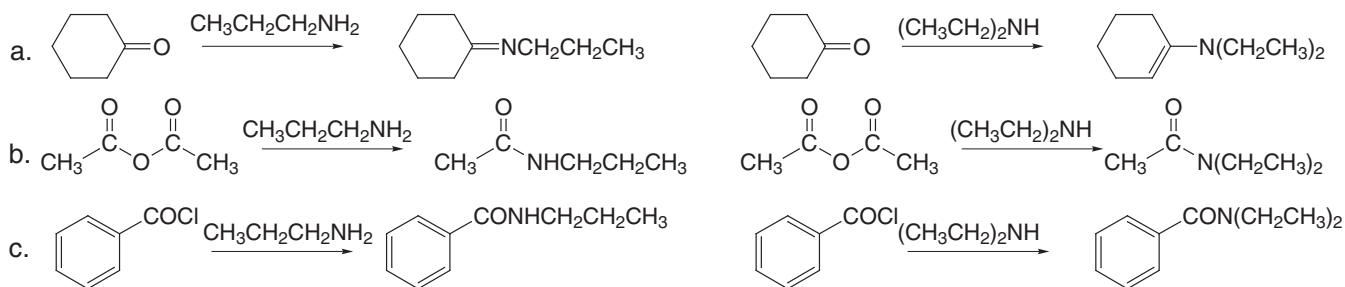
**20.30****20.31**

20.32 In una amminazione riduttiva, un gruppo alchilico sull'N deriva dal composto carbonilico. Il resto della molecola deriva dall'NH₃ o dall'ammina.

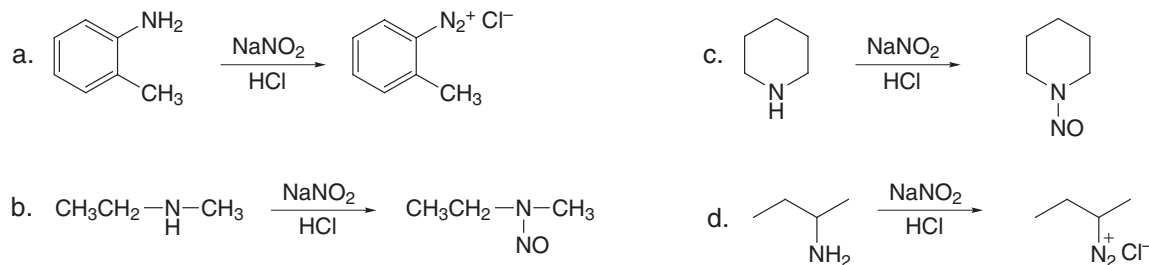
**20.33****20.34**



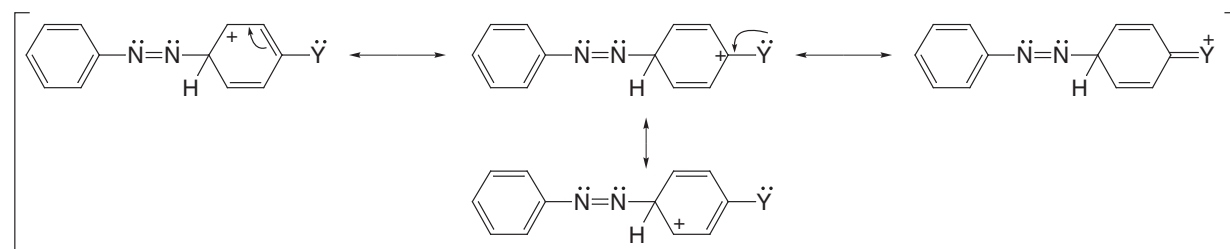
20.35 Le ammine attaccano i gruppi carbonilici per formare prodotti di addizione nucleofila o di sostituzione.



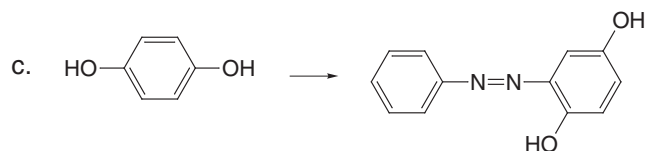
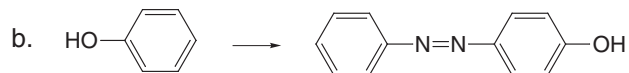
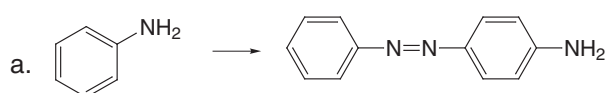
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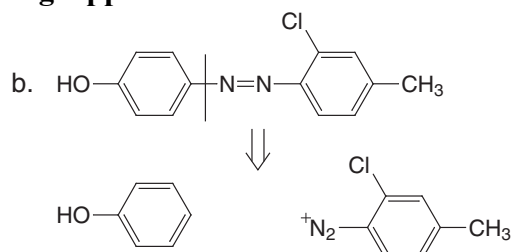
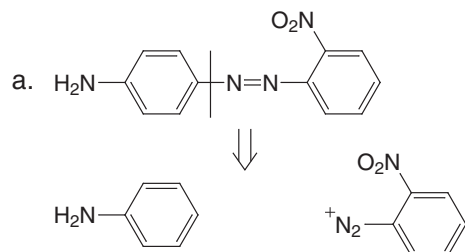
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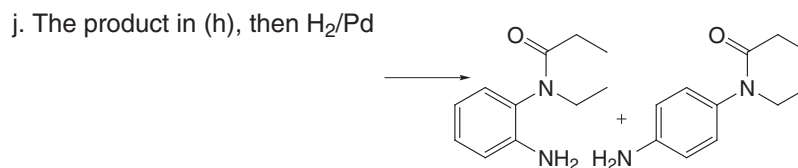
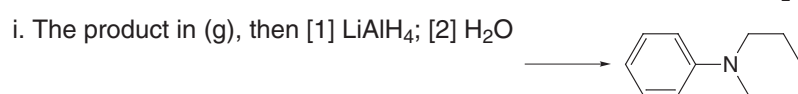
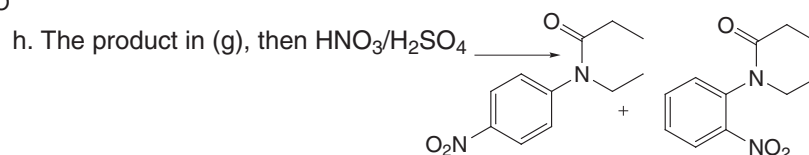
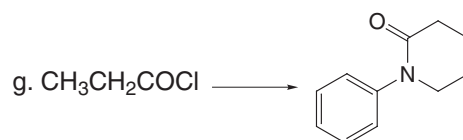
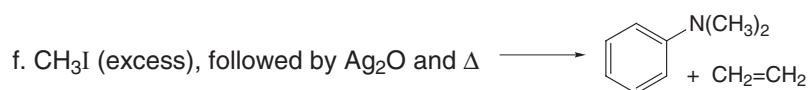
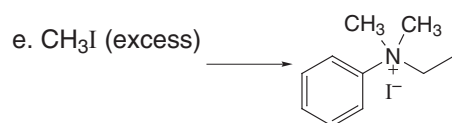
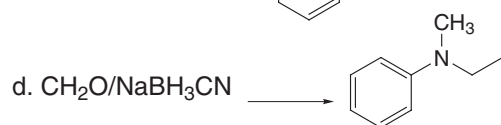
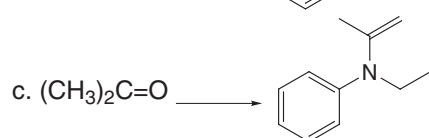
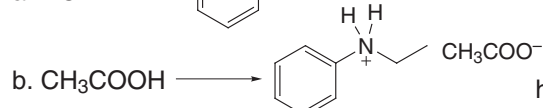
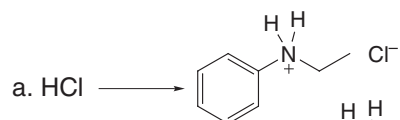
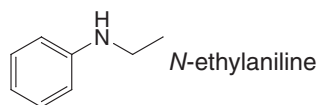
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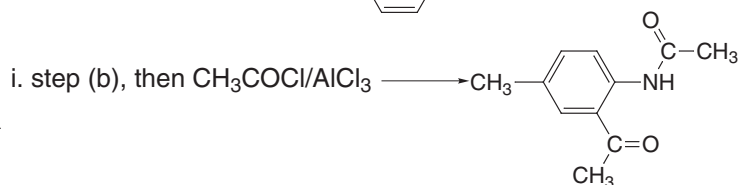
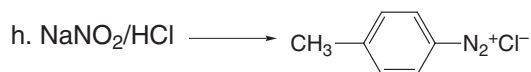
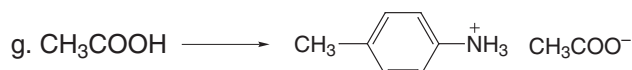
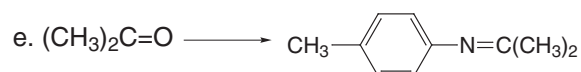
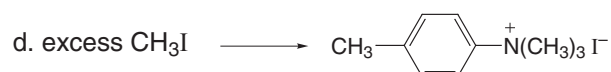
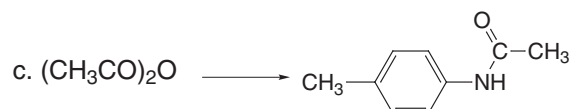
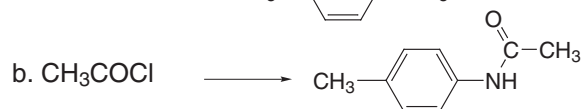
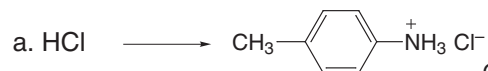
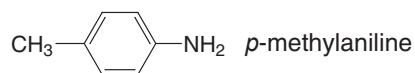
20.39 Per determinare quali reagenti sono necessari per sintetizzare un particolare azo composto, dividere sempre la molecola in due componenti: **uno ha un anello benzenico con lo ione diazonio, e l'altro ha un anello benzenico con un gruppo fortemente elettron donatore.**



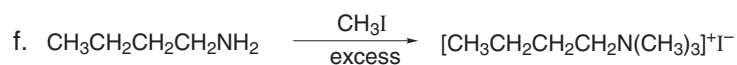
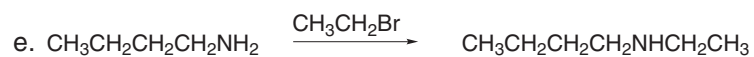
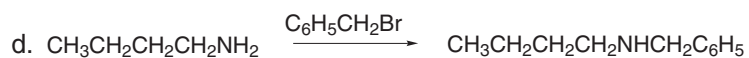
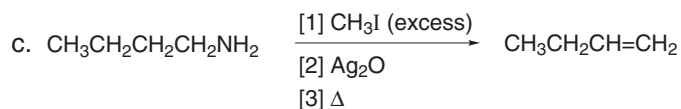
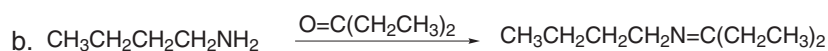
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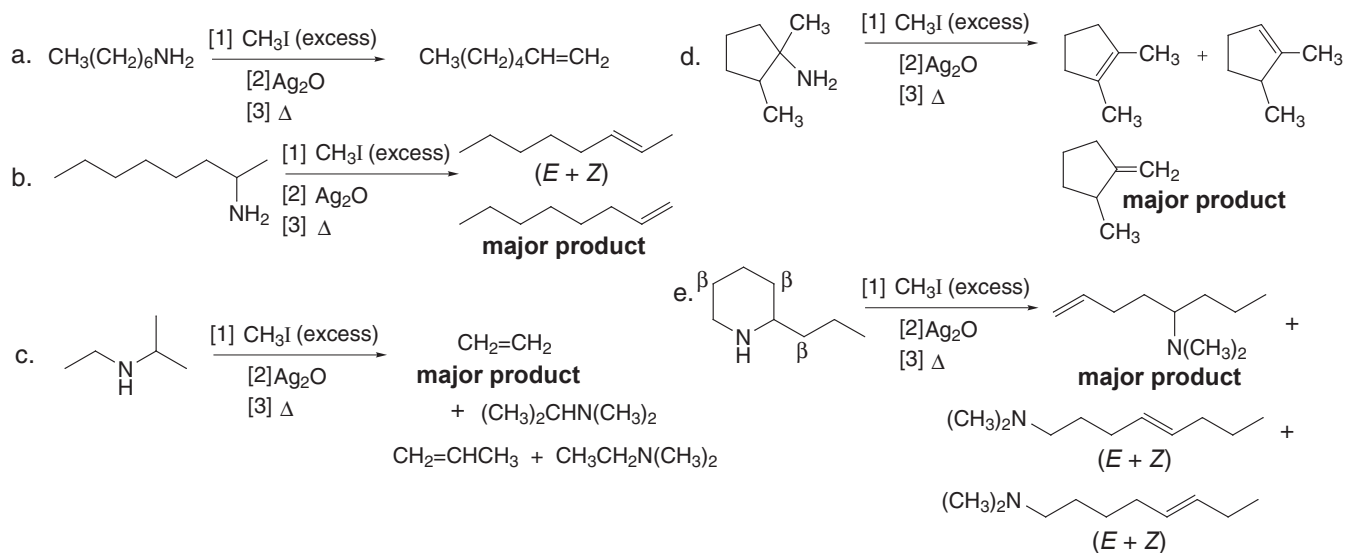
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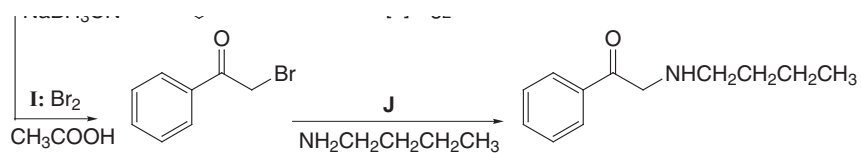
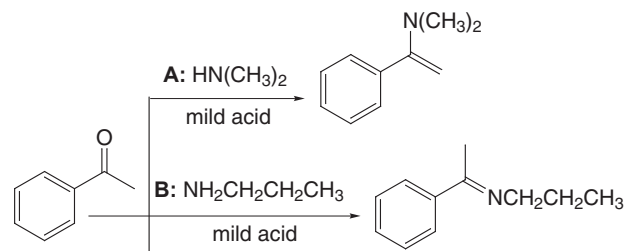
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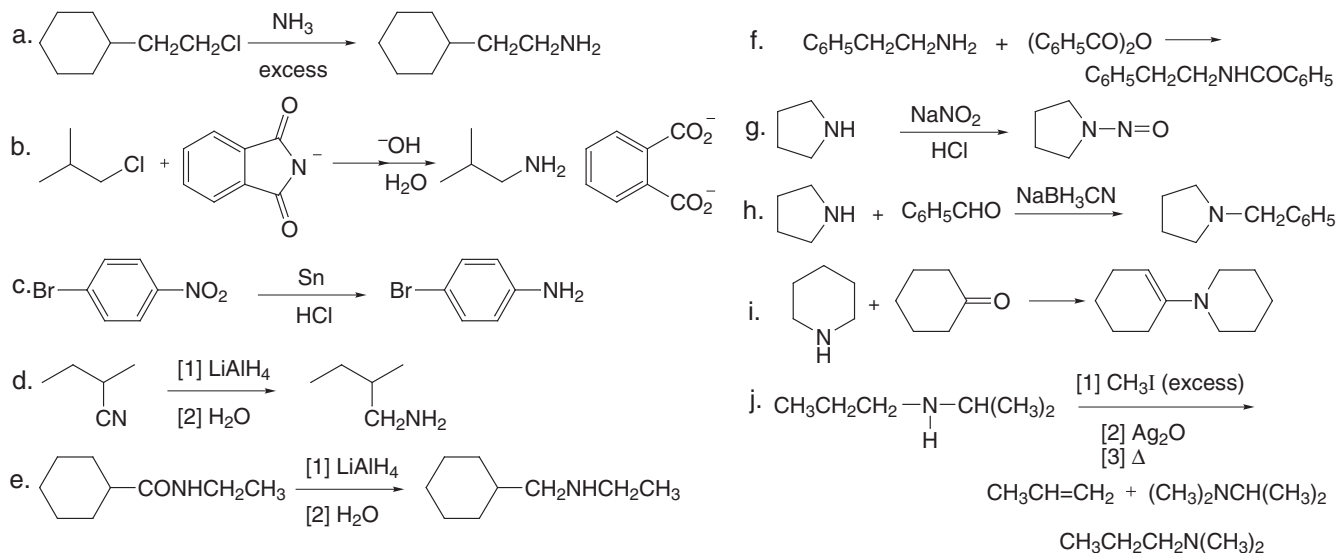
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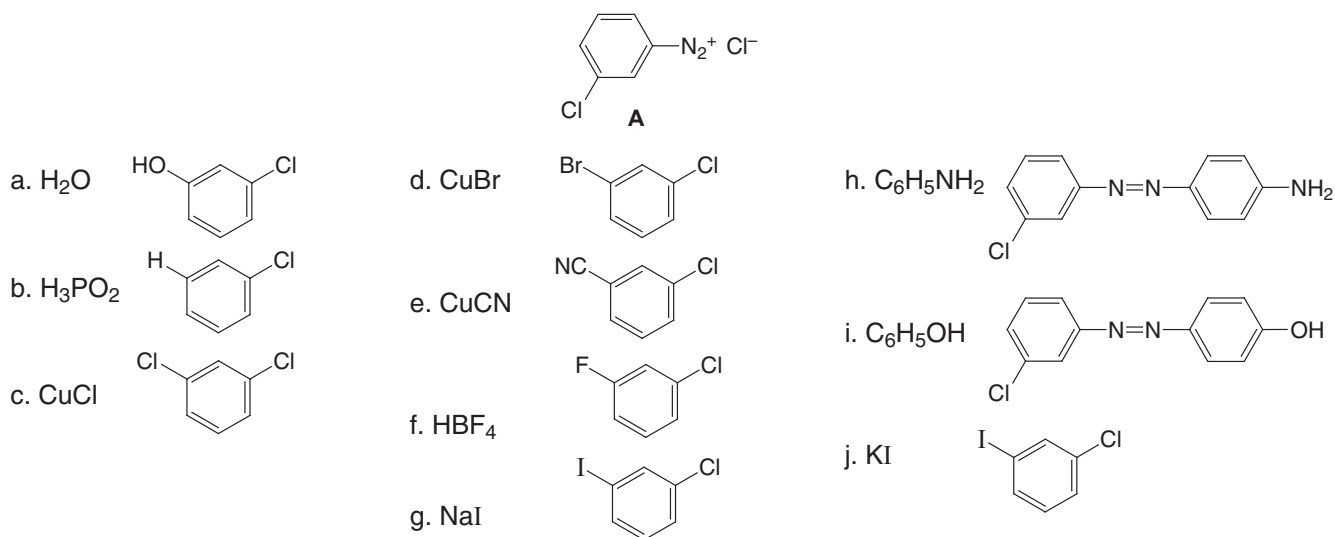
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20.45

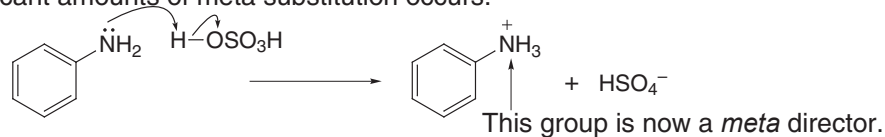


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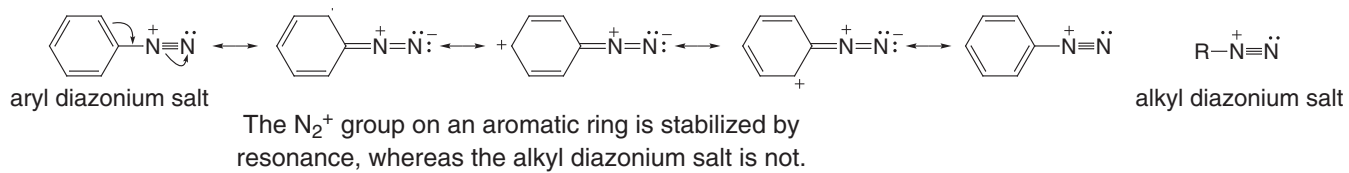


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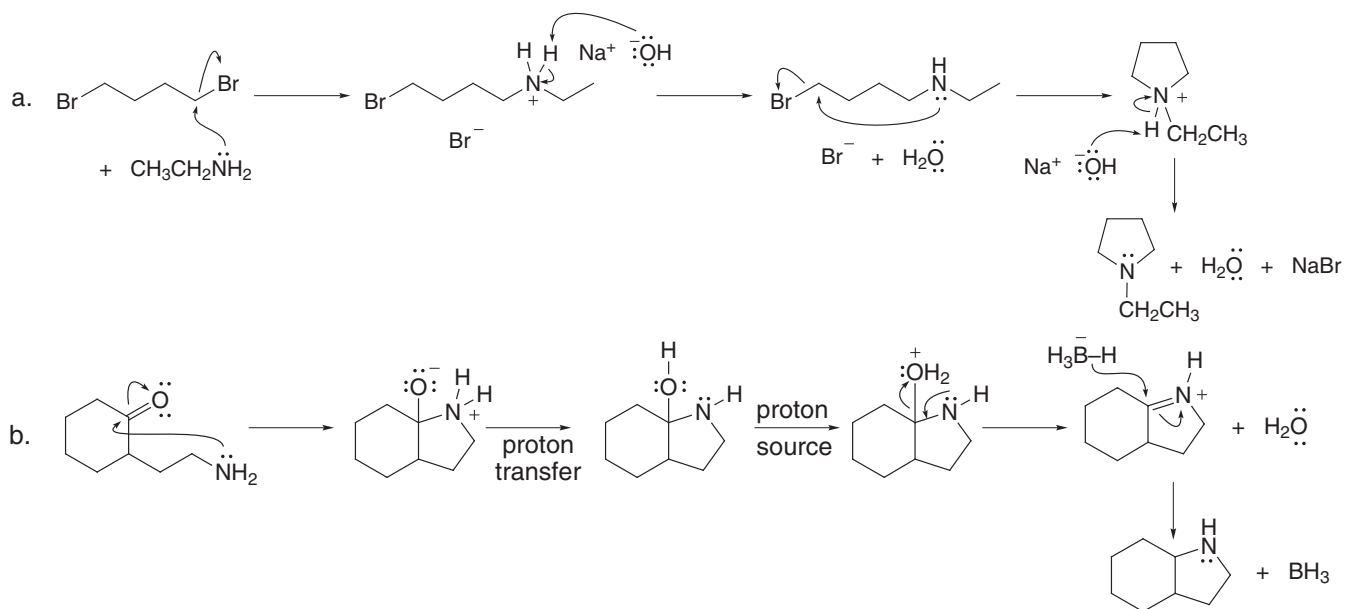
Under the acidic conditions of the reaction, aniline is first protonated to form an ammonium salt that has a positive charge on the atom bonded to the benzene ring. The $-\text{NH}_3^+$ is now an electron withdrawing meta director, so significant amounts of meta substitution occurs.



20.48

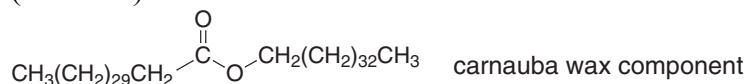


20.49



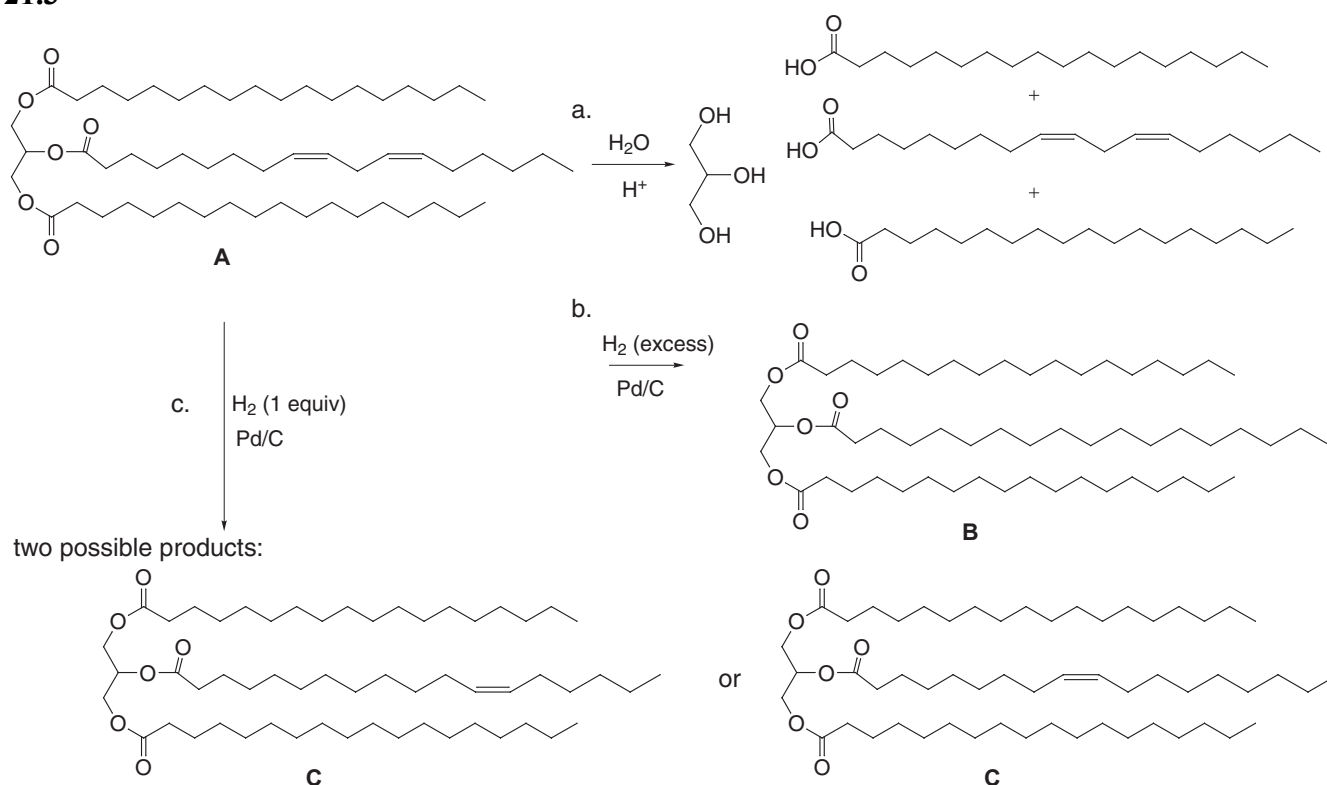
Capitolo 21

21.1 Le cere sono esteri (RCOOR') formati da alcol ad alto peso molecolare ($\text{R}'\text{OH}$) ed acidi grassi (RCOOH).



21.2 L'acido eicosapentenoico ha 20 carboni e 5 doppi legami $\text{C}=\text{C}$. Poiché all'aumentare del numero dei doppi legami diminuisce il punto di fusione, l'acido eicosapentenoico dovrebbe avere un punto di fusione più basso dell'acido arachidonico, cioè $< -49^\circ\text{C}$.

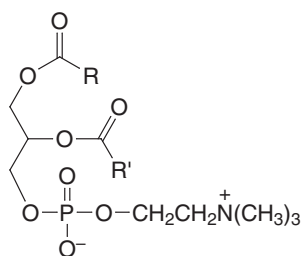
21.3



21.4

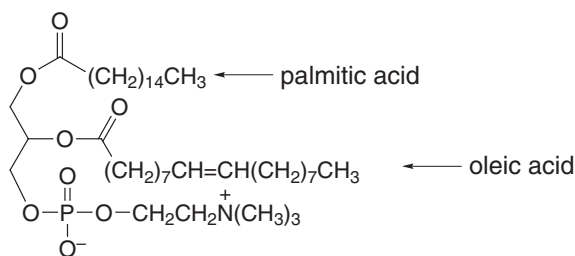
A	$<$	C	$<$	B
2 double bonds		1 double bond		0 double bonds
lowest melting point		intermediate melting point		highest melting point

21.5 Una lecitina è un tipo di fosfoacilglicerolo. Due dei gruppi ossidrilici del glicerolo sono esterificati con acidi grassi. Il terzo gruppo OH è parte di un fosfodiester, che è ulteriormente legato ad un altro alcol a basso peso molecolare.

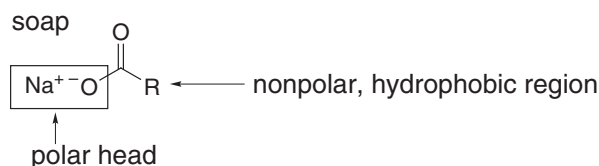
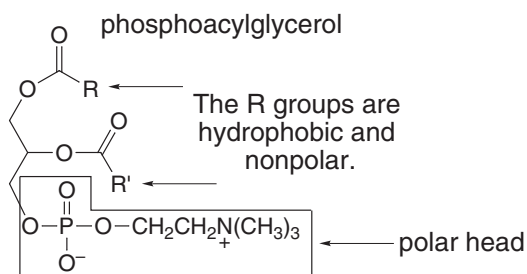


general structure
of a lecithin

one possibility:

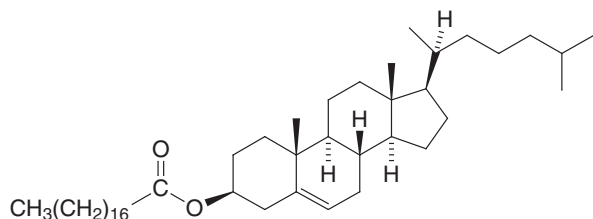


21.6 I saponi ed i fosfoacilgliceroli hanno componenti idrofile ed idrofobe. Entrambi i composti hanno una “testa” ionica che è attratta da solventi polari come l’ H_2O . Questa testa è di piccole dimensioni in confronto con la regione idrofoba, che consiste di una o due lunghe catene idrocarburiche. Queste catene non polari consistono solamente di legami C–C e C–H ed esibiscono solo forze di van der Waals.

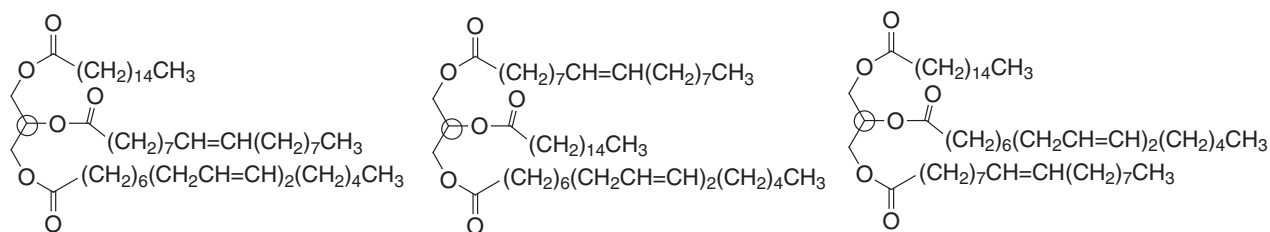


21.7 Le vitamine liposolubili sono idrofobe e perciò sono facilmente immagazzinate nei tessuti adiposi del corpo. Le vitamine idrosolubili, d’altra parte, sono facilmente espulse con le urine e conseguentemente non possono esserne accumulate grandi quantità nel corpo.

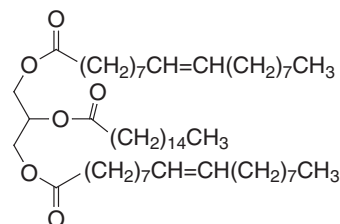
21.8



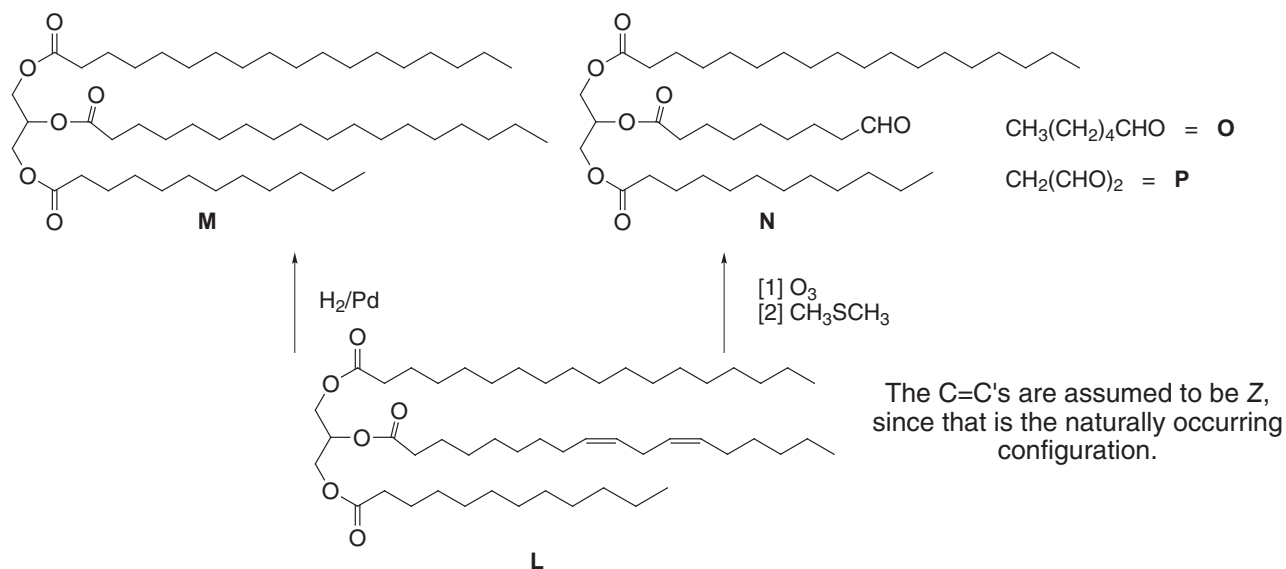
21.9 Ogni composto ha un centro stereogenico tetraedrico, conseguentemente ci sono due stereoisomeri possibili (due enantiomeri).



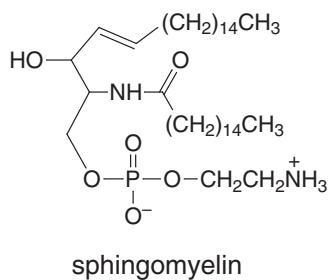
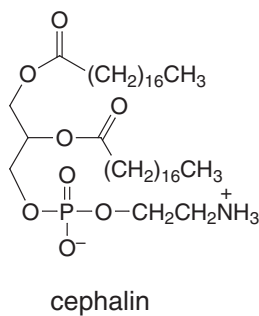
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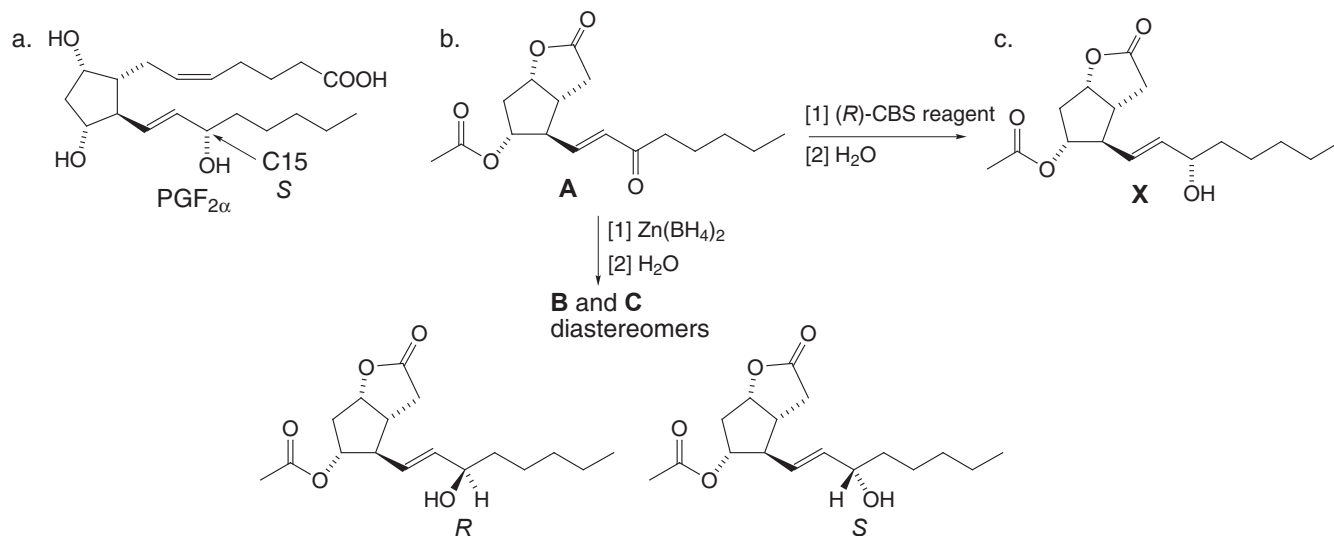
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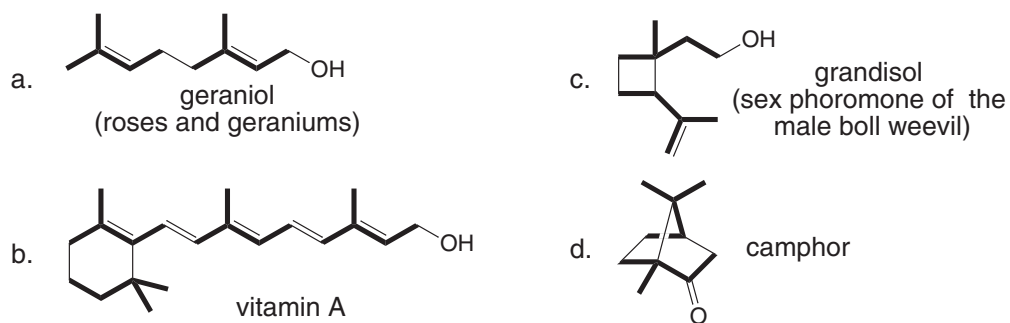
21.12 Quando $\text{R}'' = \text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{NH}_3^+$, il composto è detto **fosfatidiletanolammina** o **cefalina**.



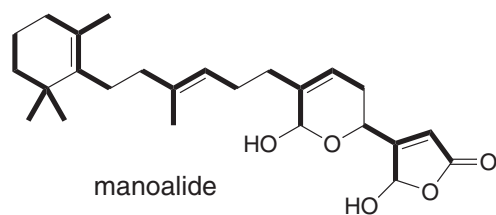
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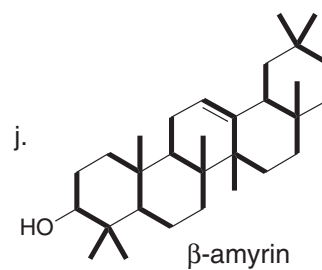
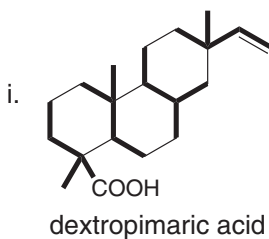
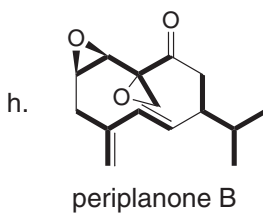
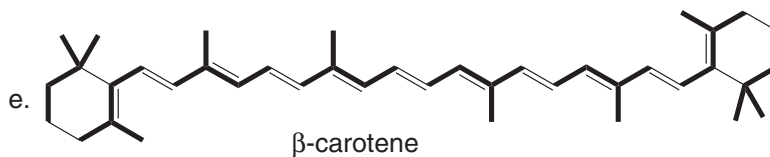
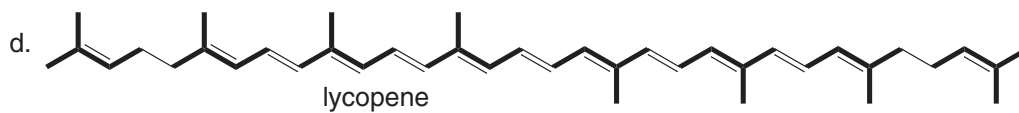
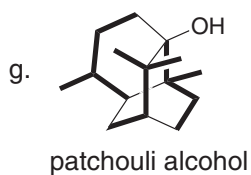
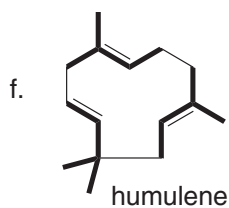
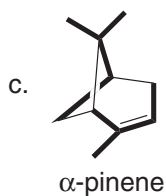
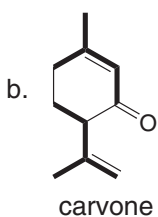
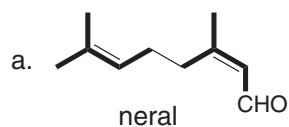
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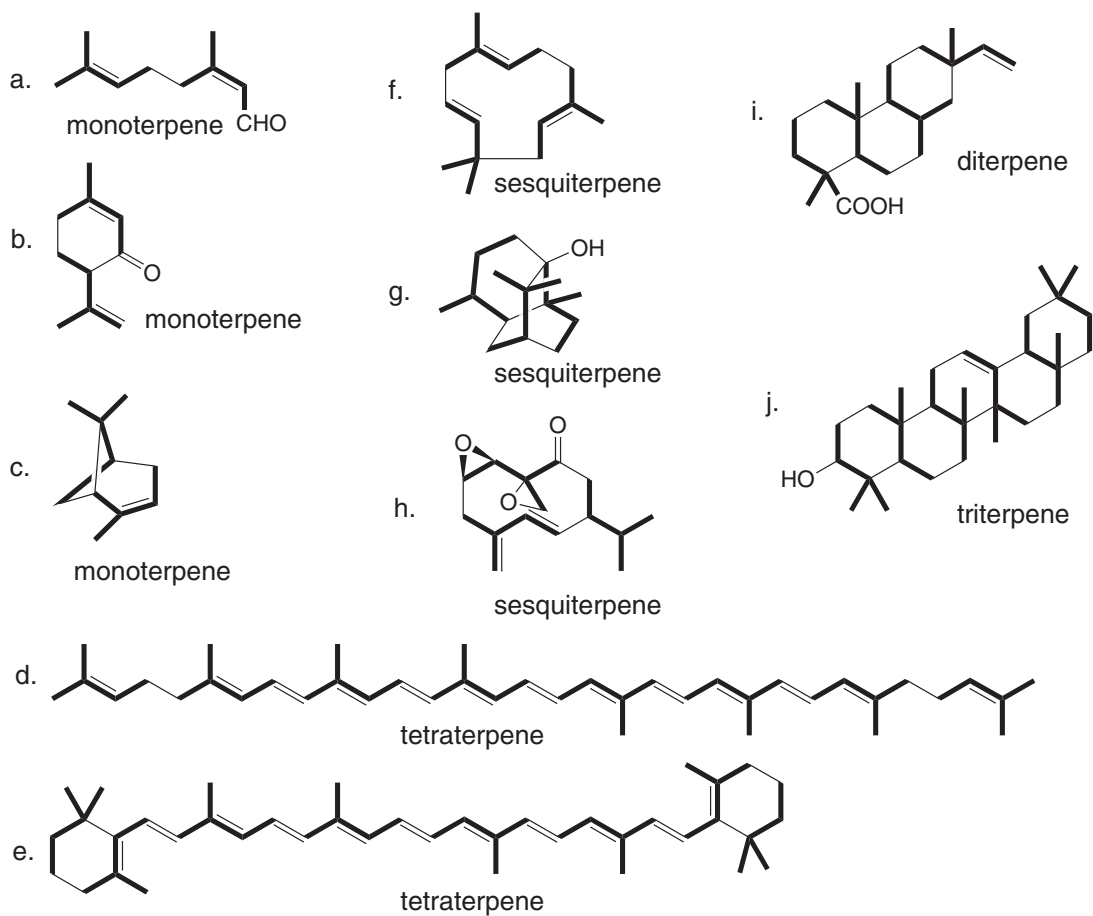
21.15



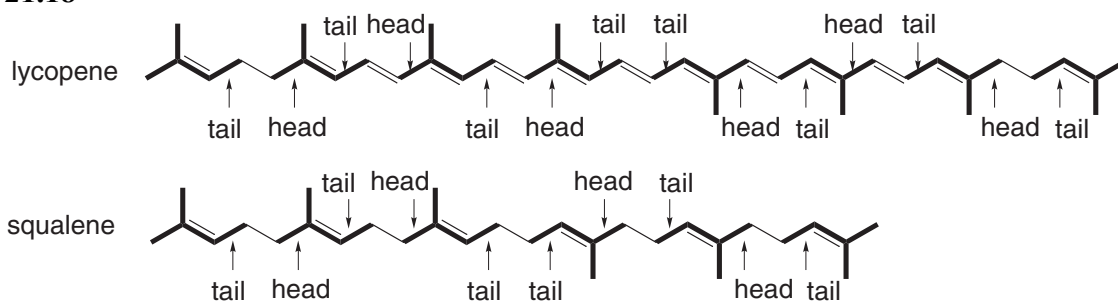
21.16



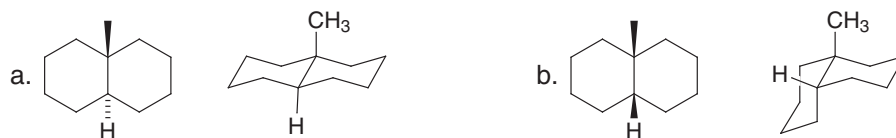
21.17 Un *monoterpene* contiene 10 carboni e due unità isopreniche; un *sesquiterpene* contiene 15 carboni e tre unità isopreniche, etc. Vedi la tabella 26.5.



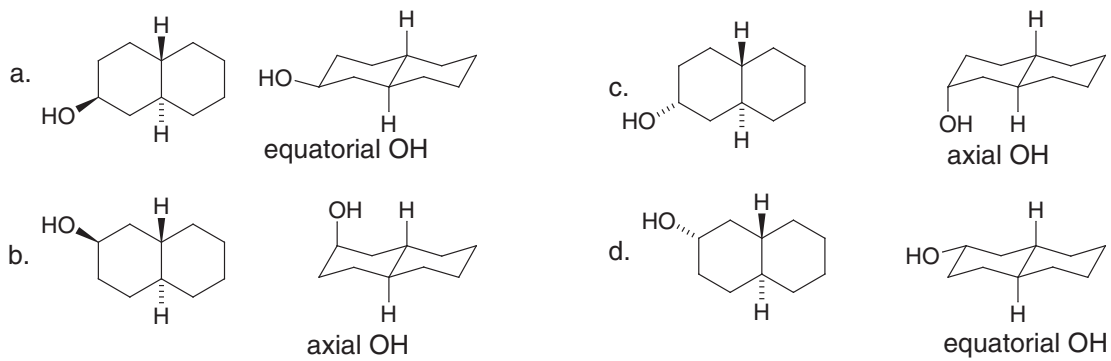
21.18



21.19

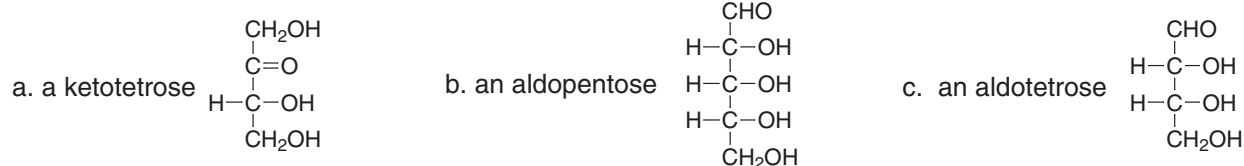


21.20

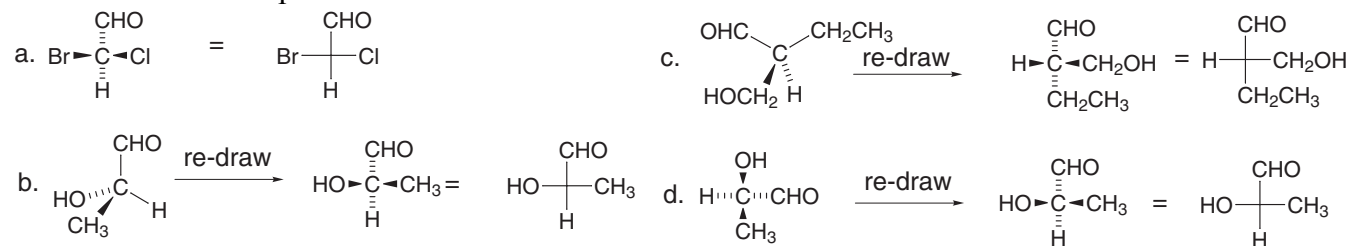


Capitolo 22

22.1 Un *chetoso* è un monosaccaride che contiene un chetone. Un *aldoso* è un monosaccaride che contiene un'aldeide. Un monosaccaride viene chiamato: un *trioso* se ha tre carboni; un *tetroso* se ha quattro carboni; un *pentoso* se ha cinque carboni; un *esoso* se ha sei carboni, e così via.

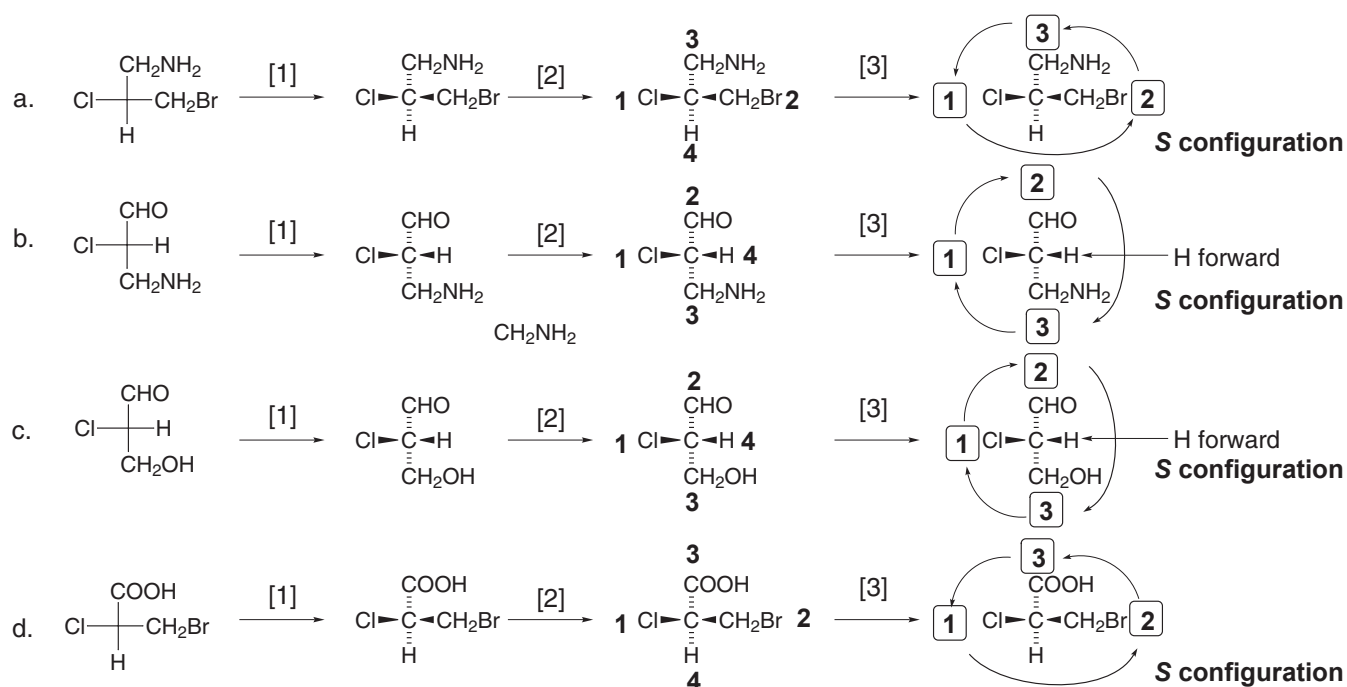


22.2 Ruotare e ridisegnare ogni molecola per posizionare i legami orizzontali davanti al piano e quelli verticali dietro al piano. Successivamente usare una croce per rappresentare il centro stereogenico nella formula di proiezione di Fischer.

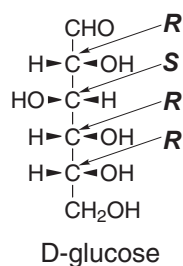


22.3 Per ogni molecola:

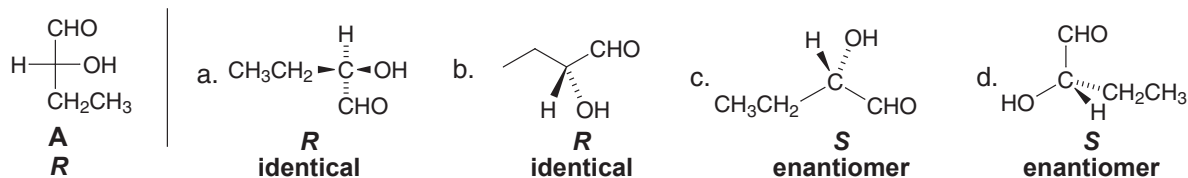
- [1] Convertire la formula di proiezione di Fischer in una rappresentazione con cunei e tratteggi.
- [2] Assegnare le priorità (Sezione 5.6).
- [3] Determinare *R* o *S* nella solita maniera. Rovesciare la risposta se il gruppo con priorità [4] è orientato verso l'osservatore (su un cuneo).



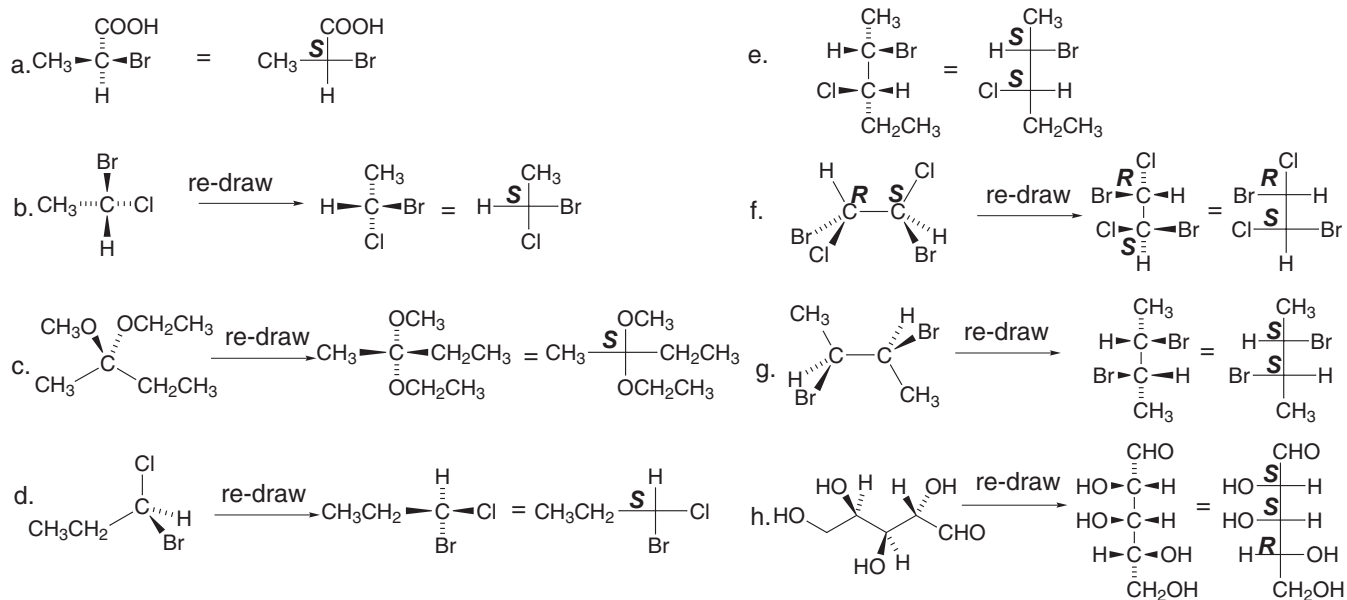
22.4



22.5 Indicare i composti con *R* o *S* e quindi classificare.

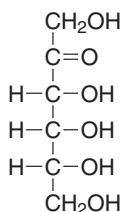
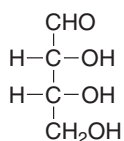


22.6 Usare i suggerimenti della risposta 25.2 per disegnare ogni proiezione di Fischer.

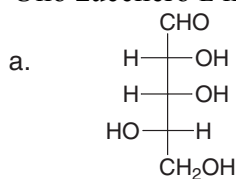
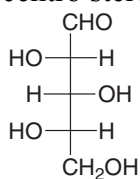
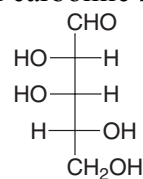


22.7

- a. aldotetrose: 2 stereogenic centers b. a ketohexose: 3 stereogenic centers



- 22.8 A Uno zucchero D ha il gruppo OH sul centro stereogenico più lontano dal carbonile sulla destra.
Uno zucchero L ha il gruppo OH sul centro stereogenico più lontano dal carbonile sulla sinistra.

**A**OH group on the left: **L sugar**.**B**OH group on the left: **L sugar**.**C**OH group on the right: **D sugar**.

- b. A and B are diastereomers.
A and C are enantiomers.
B and C are diastereomers.

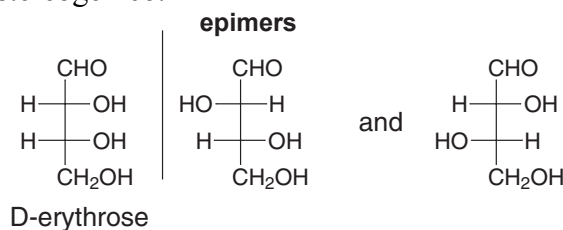
22.9



22.10 La notazione D- indica la posizione del gruppo OH sul centro stereogenico più lontano dal carbonile, e non ha nessuna relazione con il fatto che lo zucchero sia destrorotatorio o levorotatorio. Questi termini descrivono un fenomeno fisico, la direzione della rotazione del piano della luce polarizzata.

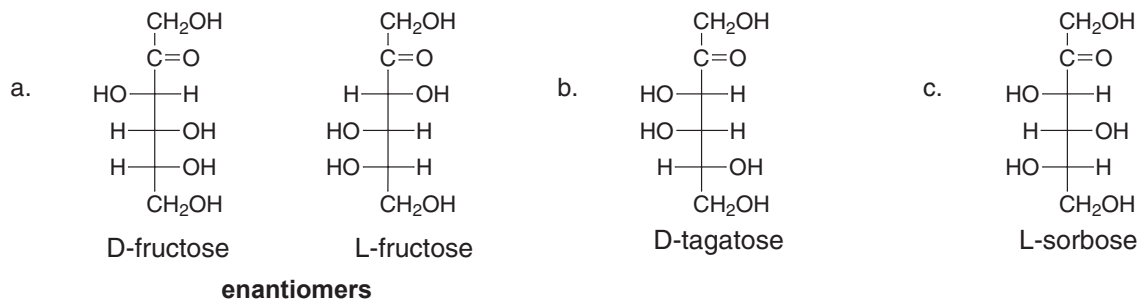
22.11 Esistono 32 aldoeptosi; 16 sono zuccheri D.

22.12 Gli *epimeri* sono due diastereomeri che differiscono nella configurazione di un solo centro stereogenico.



- 22.13**
- a. D-allosio e L-allosio: **enantiomeri**
 - b. D-altrosio e D-gulosio: **diastereomeri** ma non epimeri
 - c. D-galattosio e D-talosio: **epimeri**
 - d. D-mannosio e D-fruttosio: **isomeri costituzionali**
 - e. D-fruttosio e D-sorbose: **diastereomeri** ma non epimeri
 - f. L-sorbose e L-tagatosio: **epimeri**

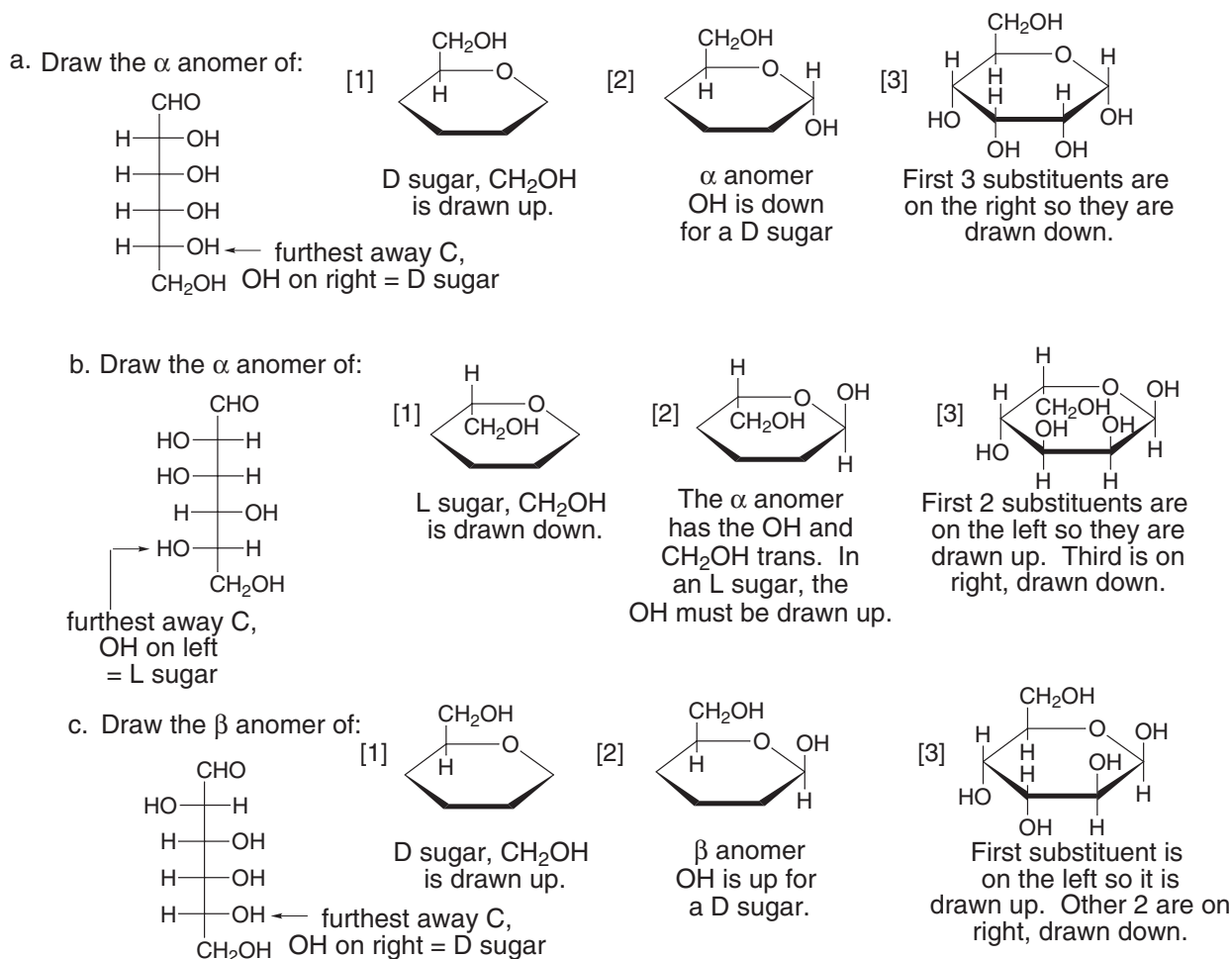
22.14



22.15 Stadio [1]: Mettere l'atomo di O nell'angolo in alto a destra di un esagono, ed aggiungere il gruppo CH₂OH sul primo carbonio ruotando in senso antiorario a partire dall'atomo di O.

Stadio [2]: Metter il carbonio anomerico sul primo carbonio ruotando in senso orario a partire dall'atomo di O.

Stadio [3]: Aggiungere i sostituenti ai rimanenti tre centri stereogenici, in senso orario attorno all'anello.



22.16 Per convertire ogni proiezione di Haworth nella sua forma aciclica:

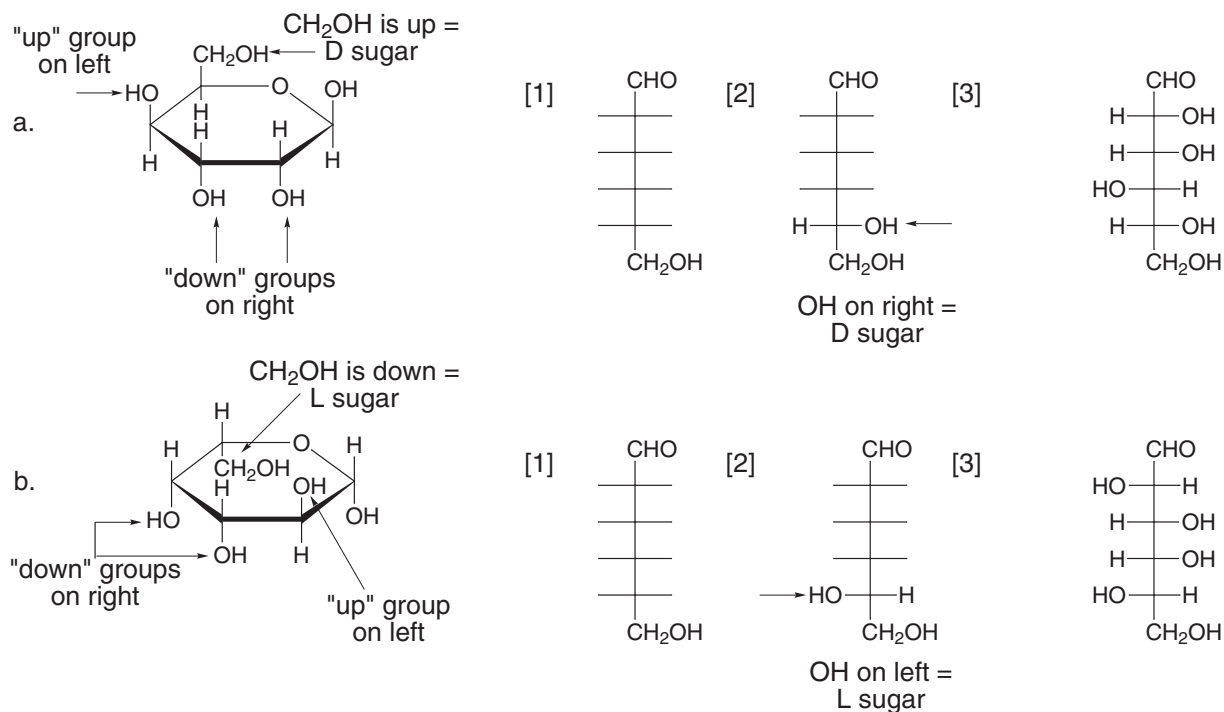
[1] Disegnare lo scheletro carbonioso con il CHO in alto ed il CH₂OH in basso.

[2] Disegnare il gruppo OH più lontano dal C=O.

Un gruppo CH₂OH disegnato in alto individua uno zucchero D; un gruppo CH₂OH disegnato in basso individua uno zucchero L.

[3] Aggiungere gli altri tre centri stereogenici, in senso antiorario attorno all'anello.

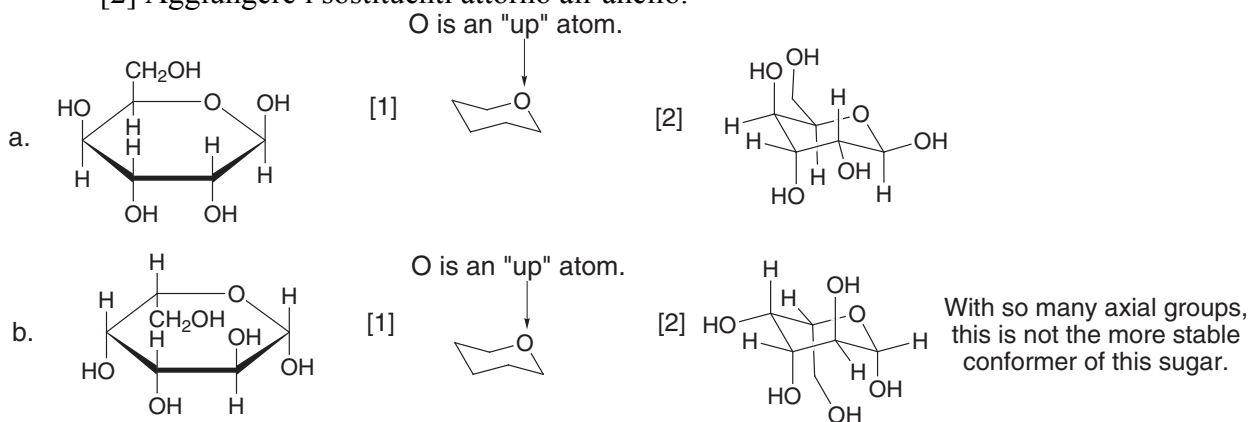
I gruppi "in alto" vanno a sinistra e i gruppi "in basso" vanno sulla destra.



22.17 Per convertire una proiezione di Haworth in una rappresentazione 3-D come cicloesano a sedia:

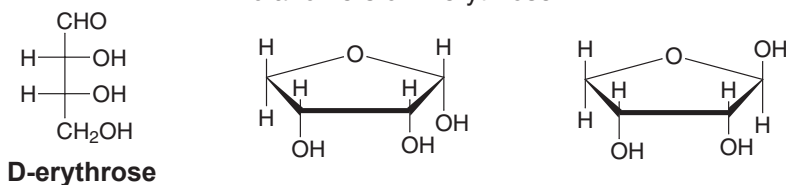
[1] Disegnare l'anello piranosico come sedia con l'O come atomo "in alto".

[2] Aggiungere i sostituenti attorno all'anello.

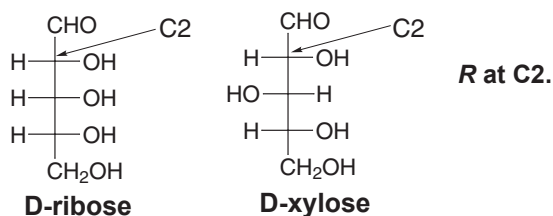


22.18 La ciclizzazione produce sempre un nuovo centro stereogenico al carbonio anomero, così sono possibili due diversi anomeri.

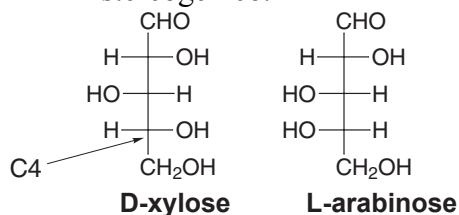
Two anomers of D-erythrose:



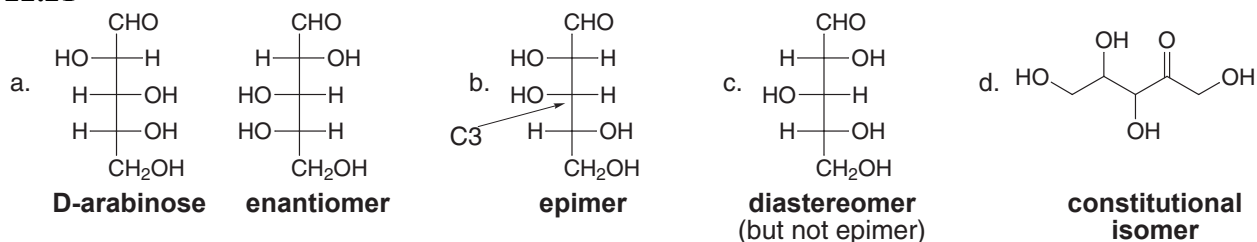
22.19



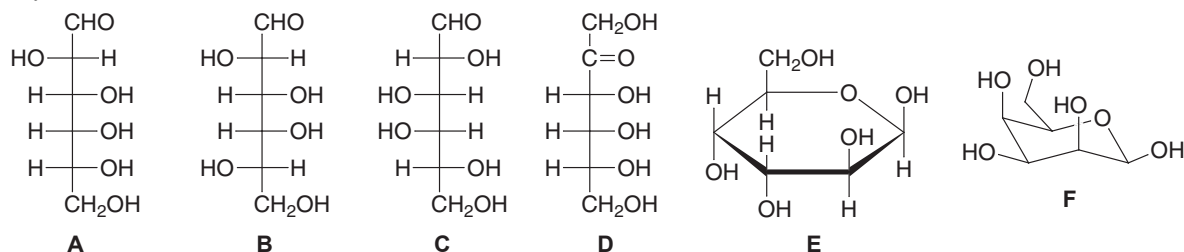
22.20 Gli *epimeri* sono due diastereomeri che differiscono nella configurazione di un solo centro stereogenico.



22.21

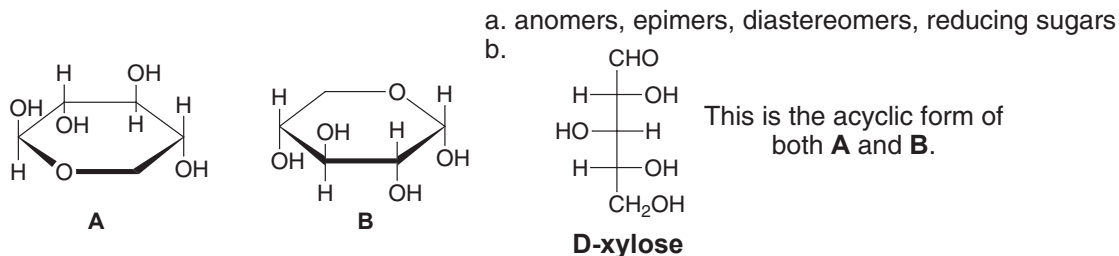


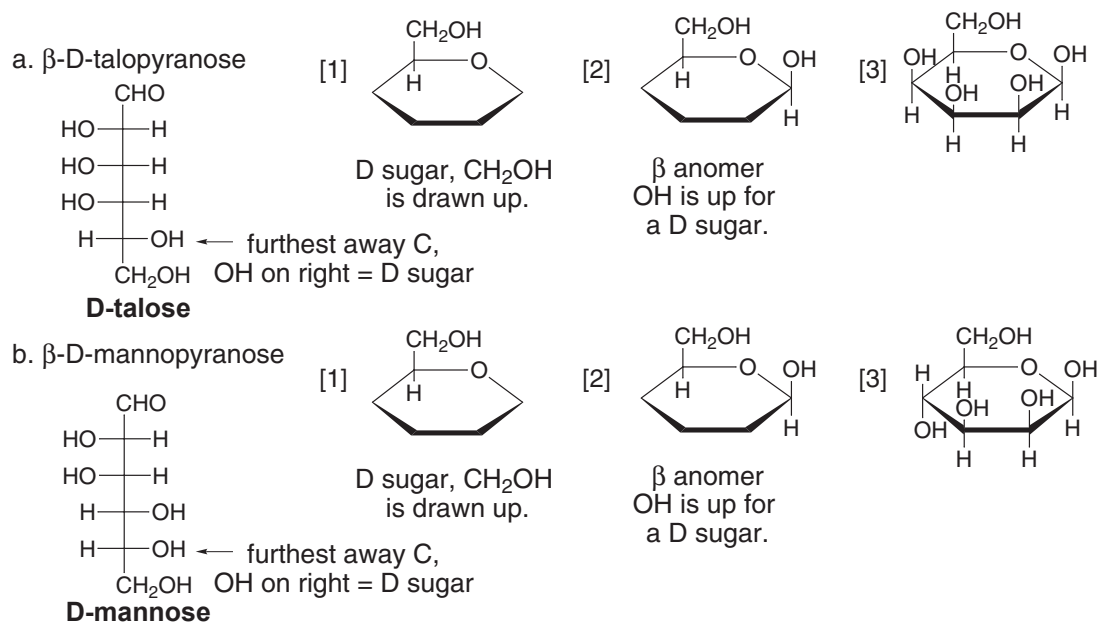
22.22

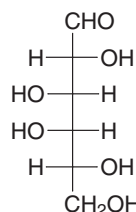
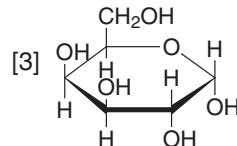
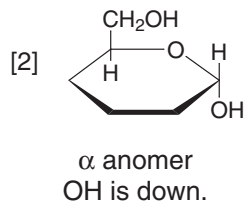
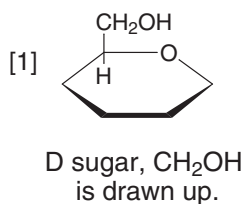
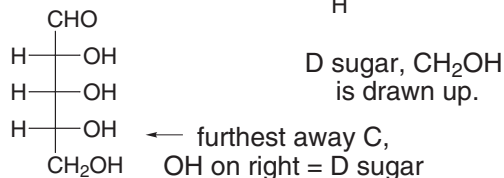
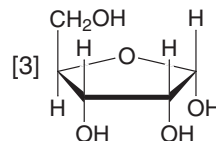
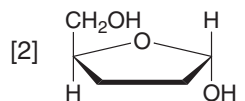
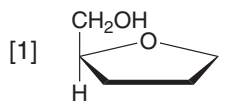
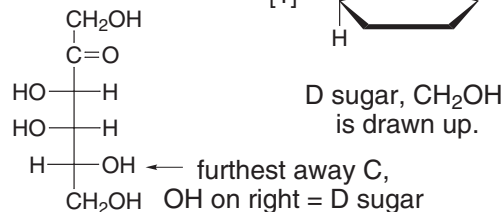
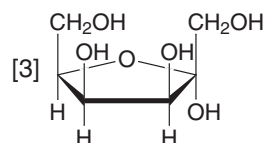
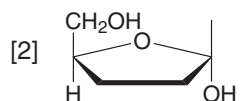
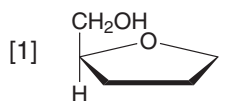


a. **A** and **B** **epimers** c. **B** and **C** **enantiomers** e. **E** and **F** **diastereomers**
 b. **A** and **C** **diastereomers** d. **A** and **D** **constitutional isomers**

22.23

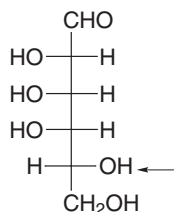


22.24 Usare i suggerimenti della risposta 25.15.

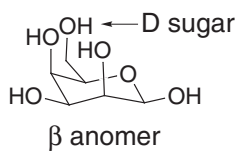
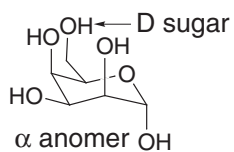
c. α -D-galactopyranose**D-galactose**d. α -D-ribofuranose**D-ribose**e. α -D-tagatofuranose**D-tagatose**

22.25

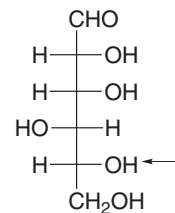
a.



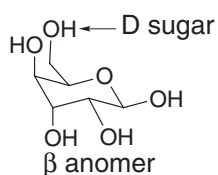
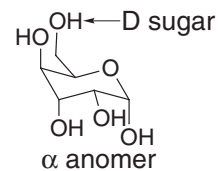
furthest away C,
OH on right = D sugar

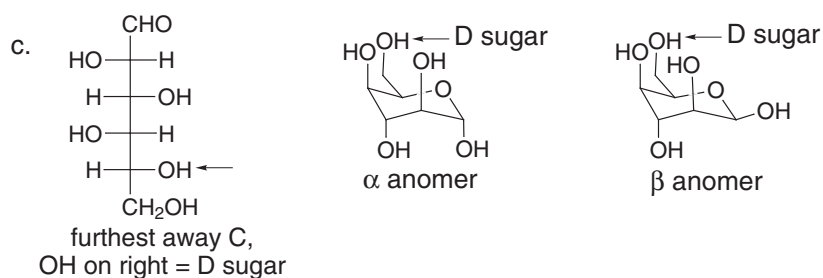


b.

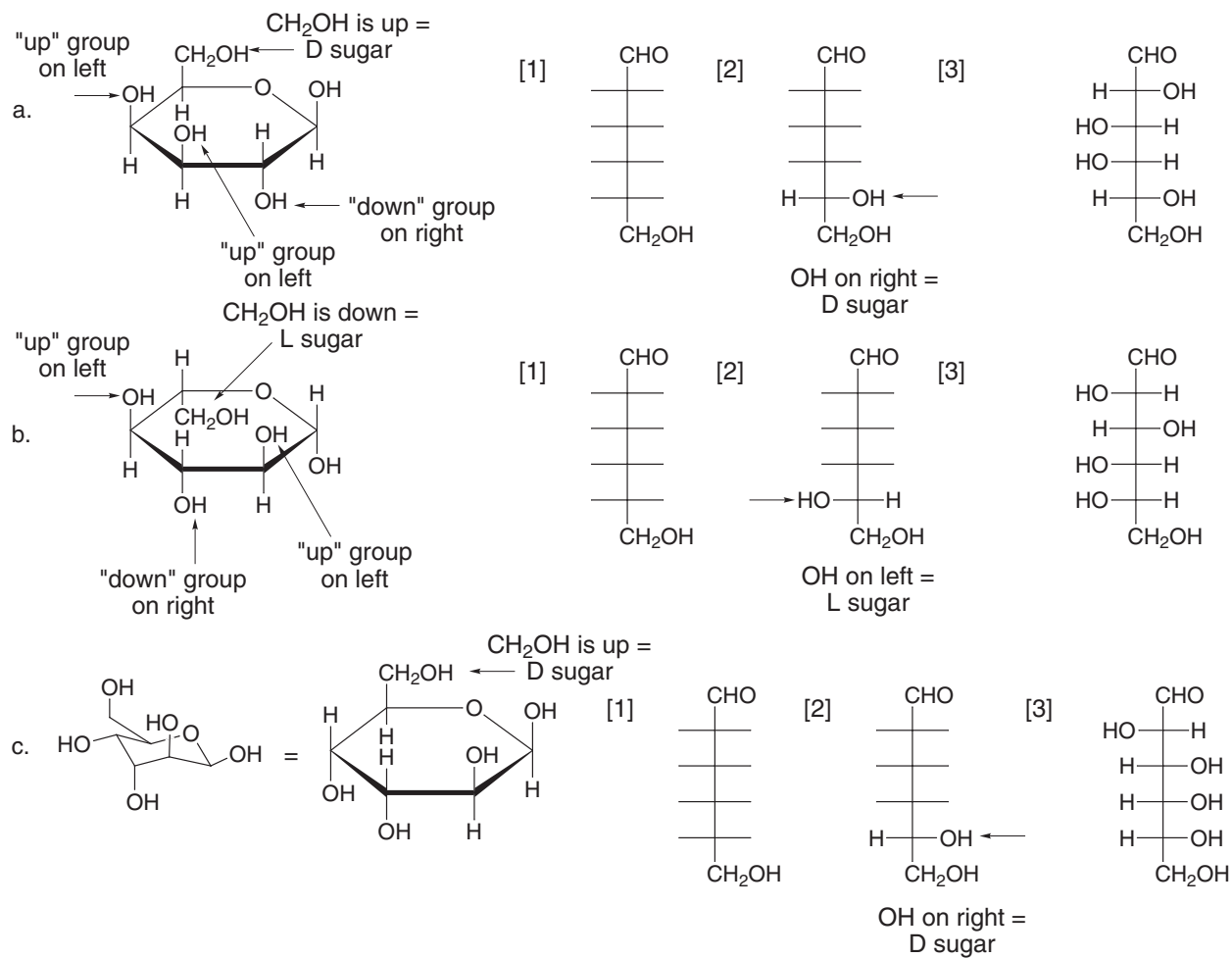


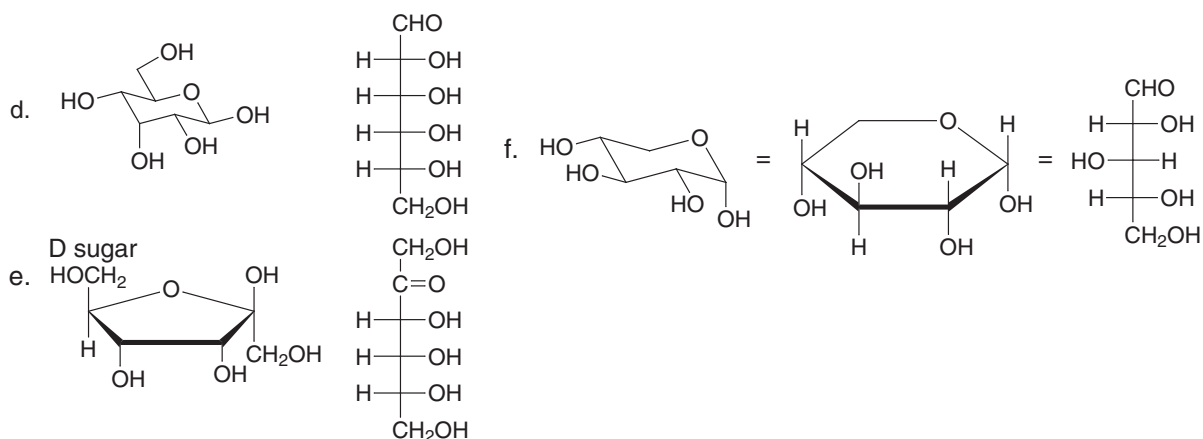
furthest away C,
OH on right = D sugar



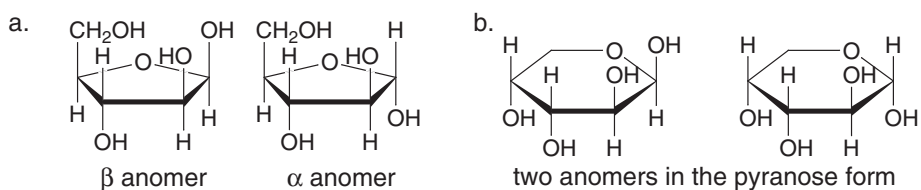
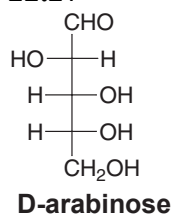


22.26 Usare i suggerimenti della risposta 25.16.



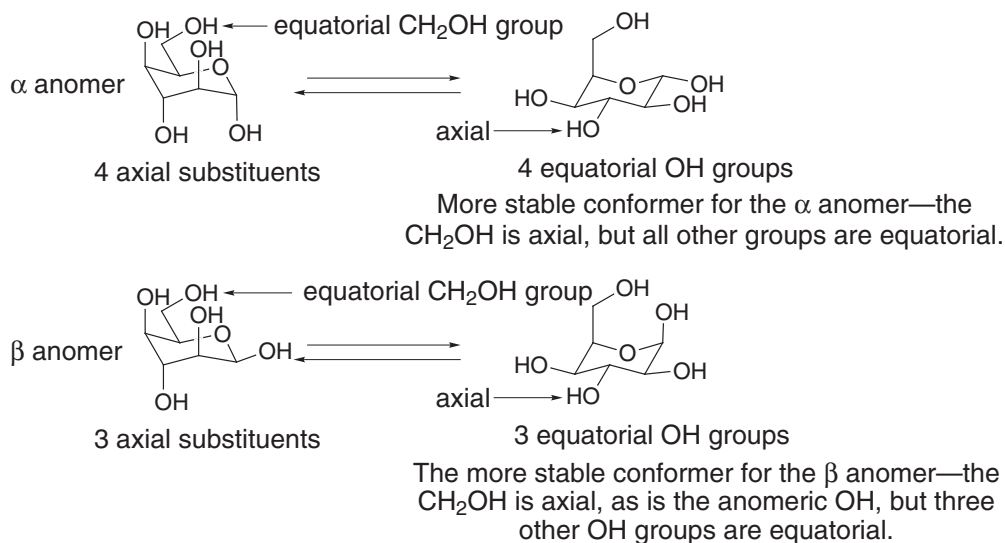


22.27

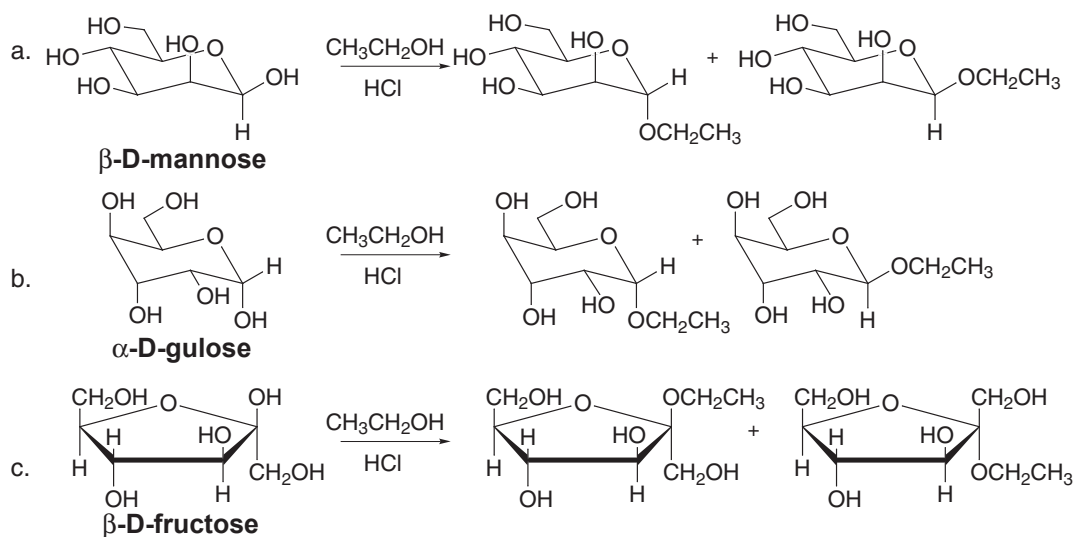


22.28

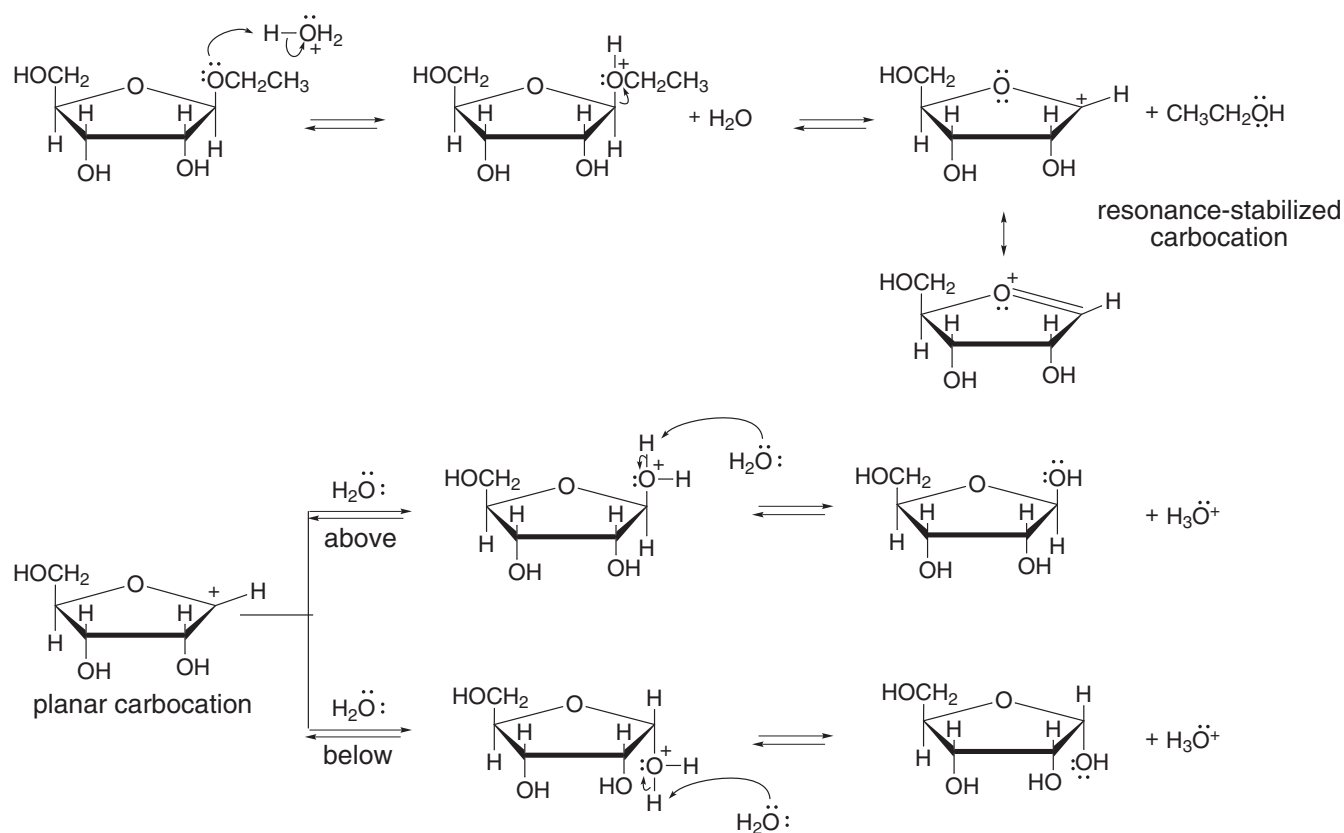
Two anomers of D-idose, as well as two conformers of each anomer:



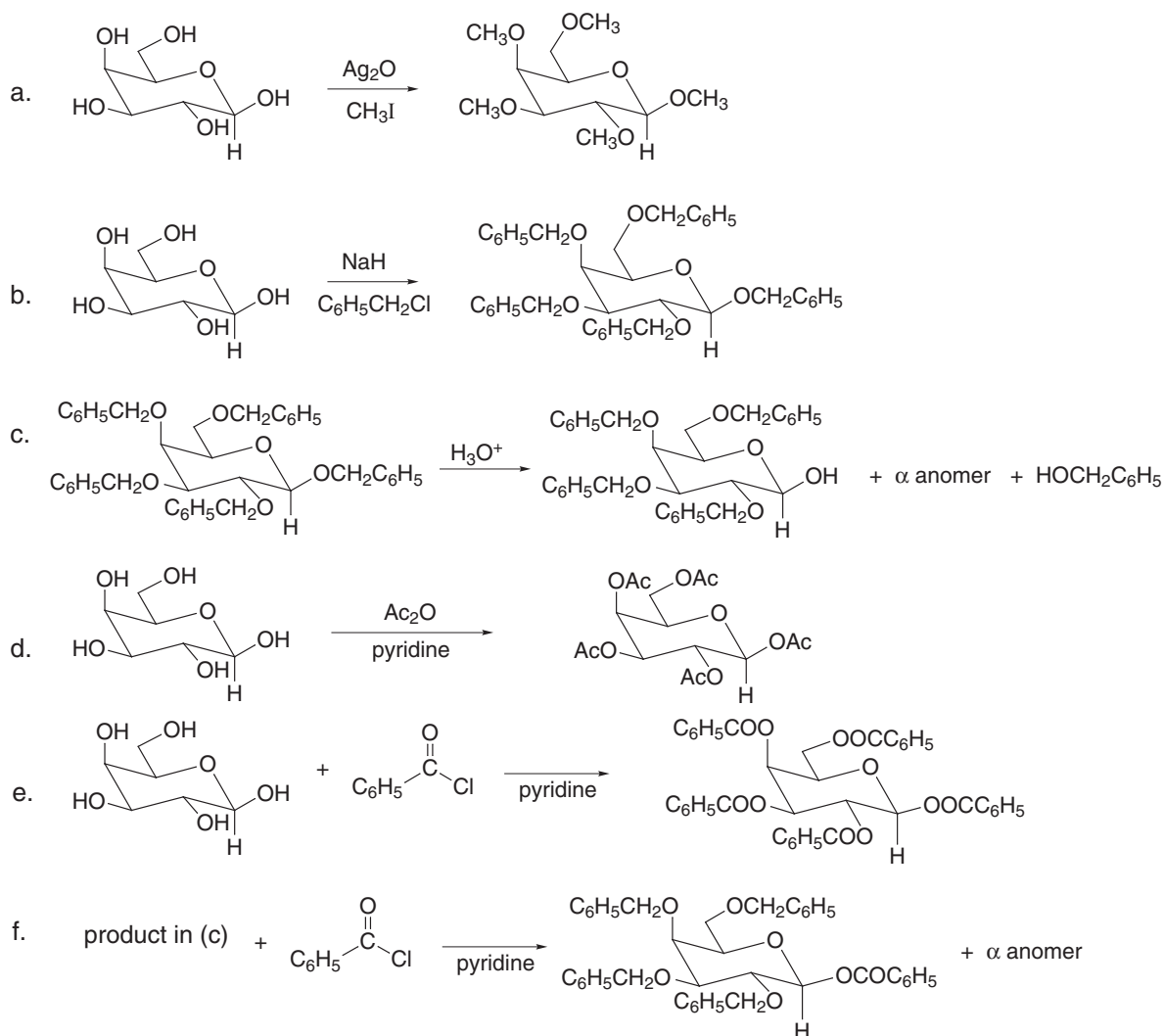
22.29



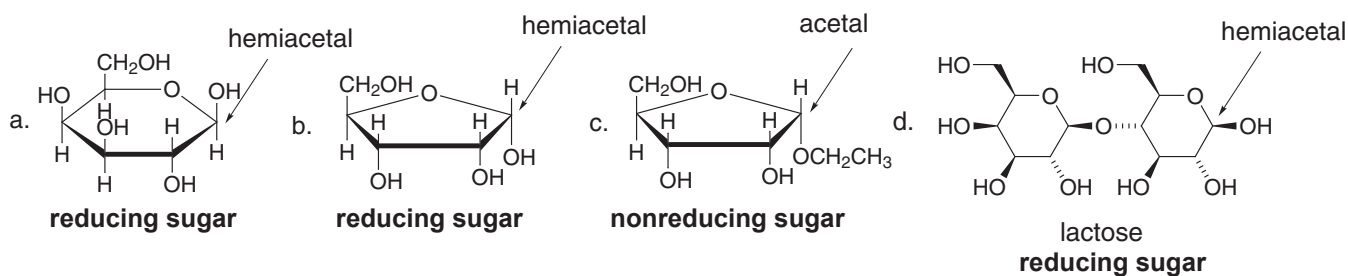
22.30



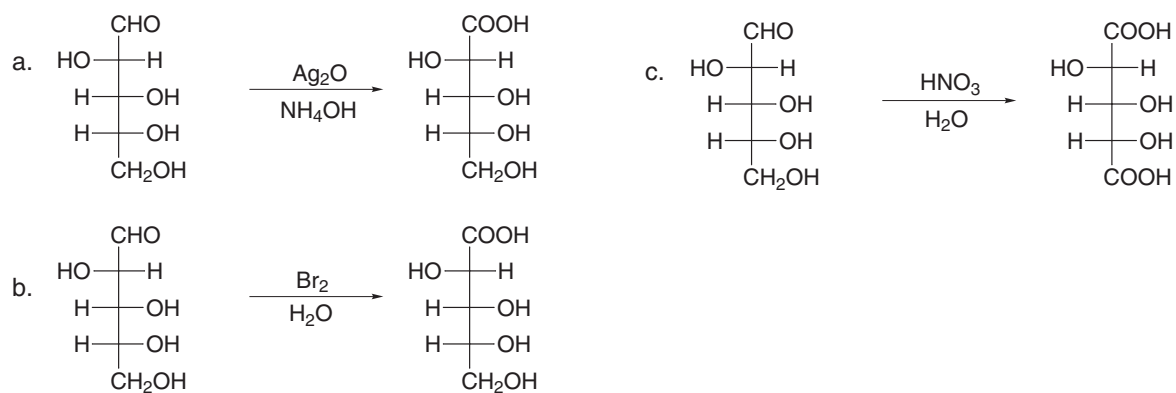
22.31



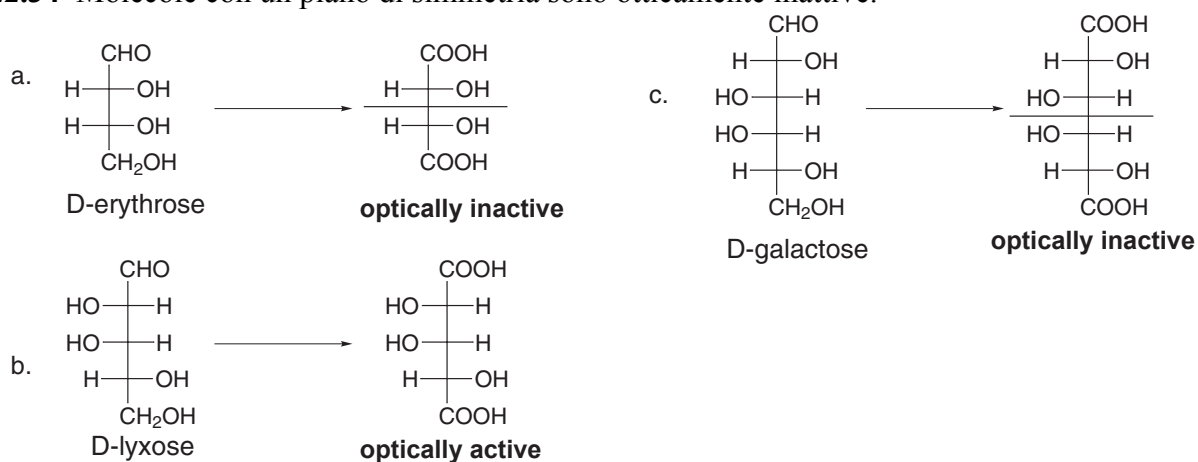
22.32 I carboidrati che contengono un emiacetale sono in equilibrio con un aldeide aciclica, e ciò li rende zuccheri riducenti. I glicosidi sono acetali, e conseguentemente non sono in equilibrio con nessuna aldeide aciclica, e ciò li rende zuccheri non riducenti.



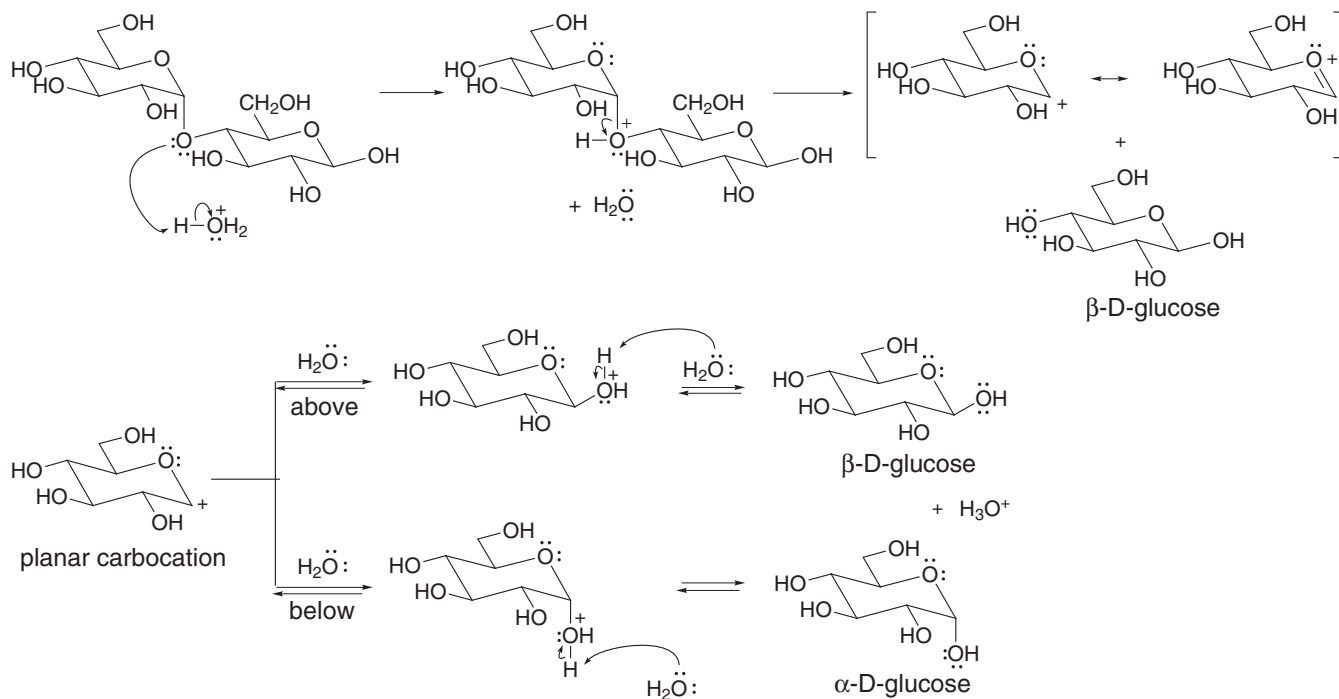
22.33



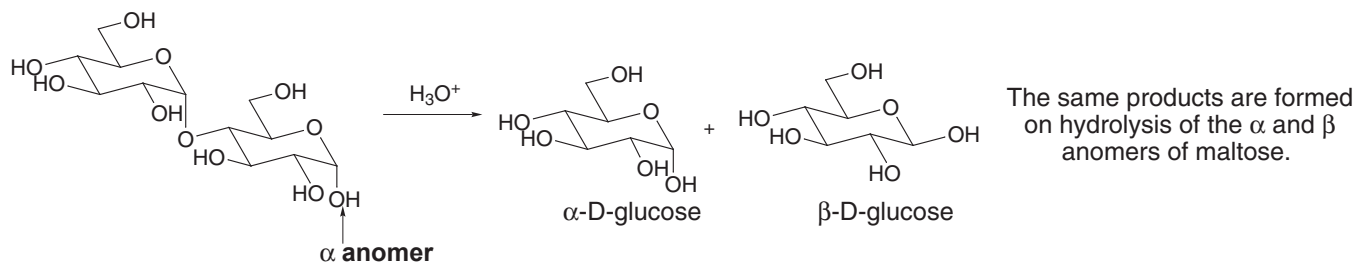
22.34 Molecole con un piano di simmetria sono otticamente inattive.



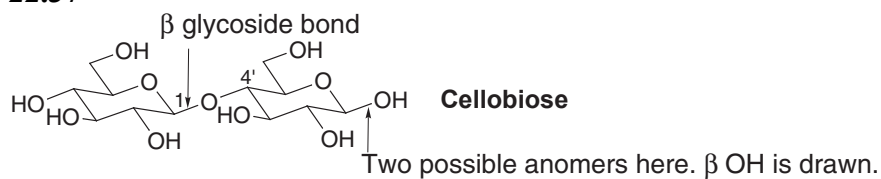
22.35



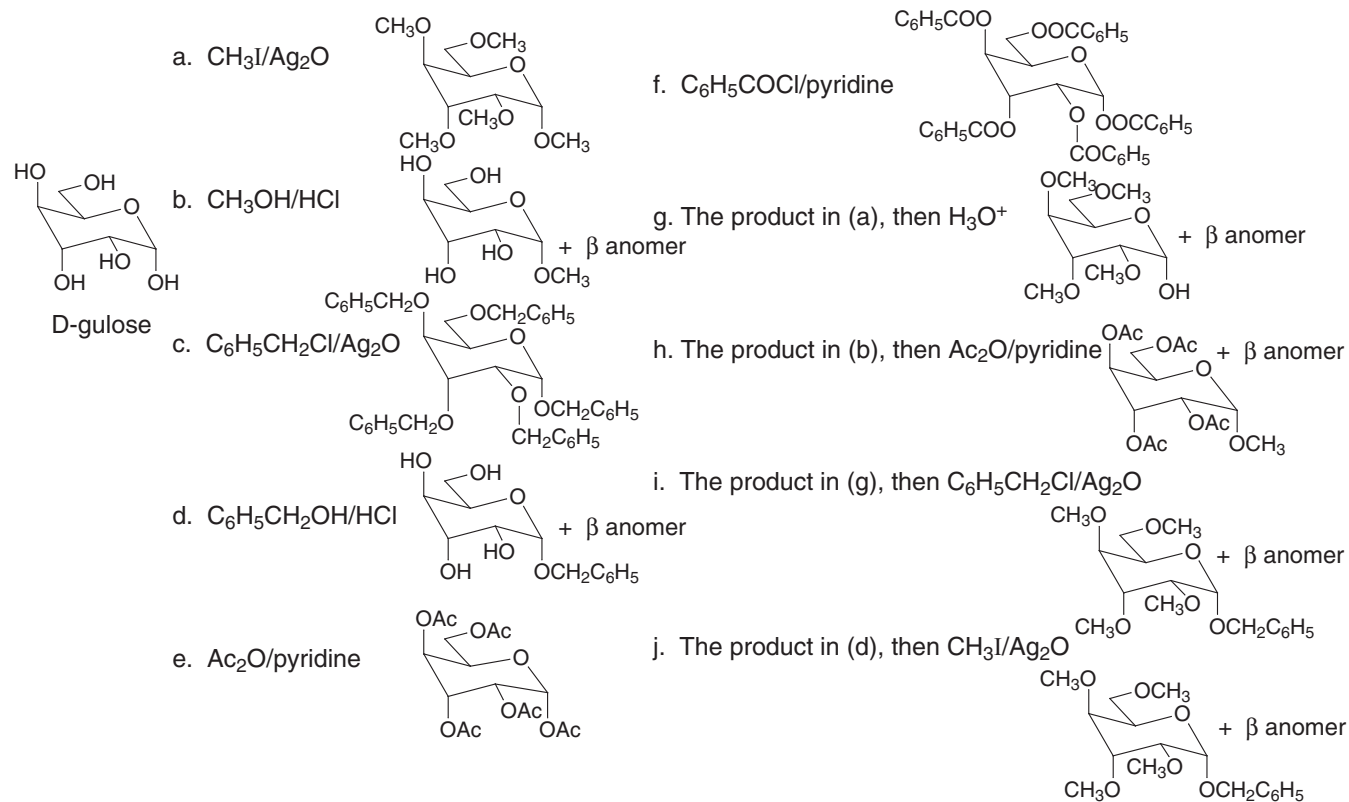
22.36



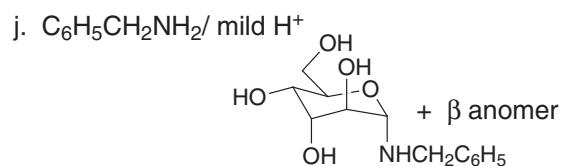
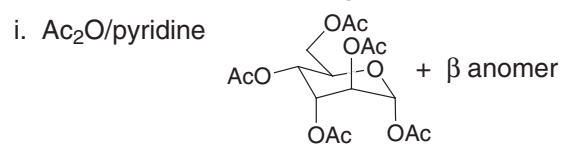
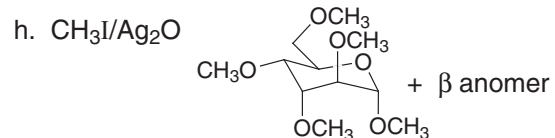
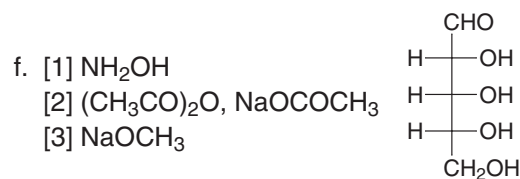
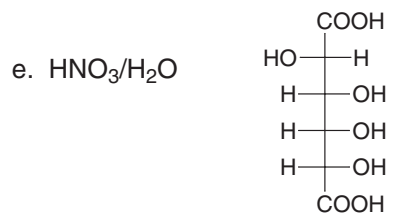
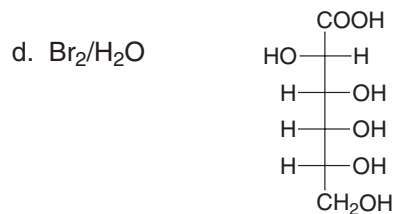
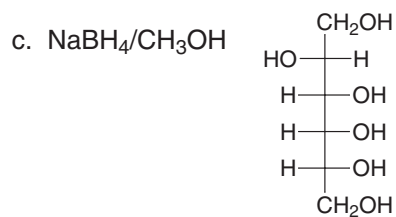
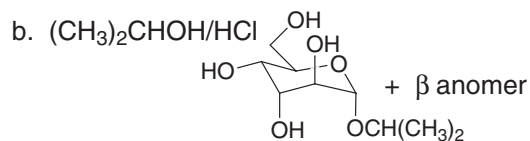
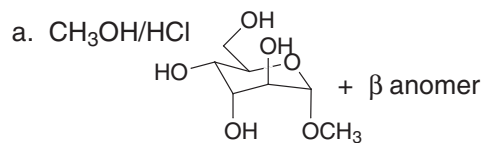
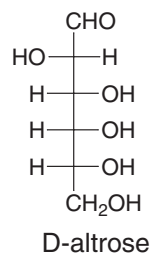
22.37



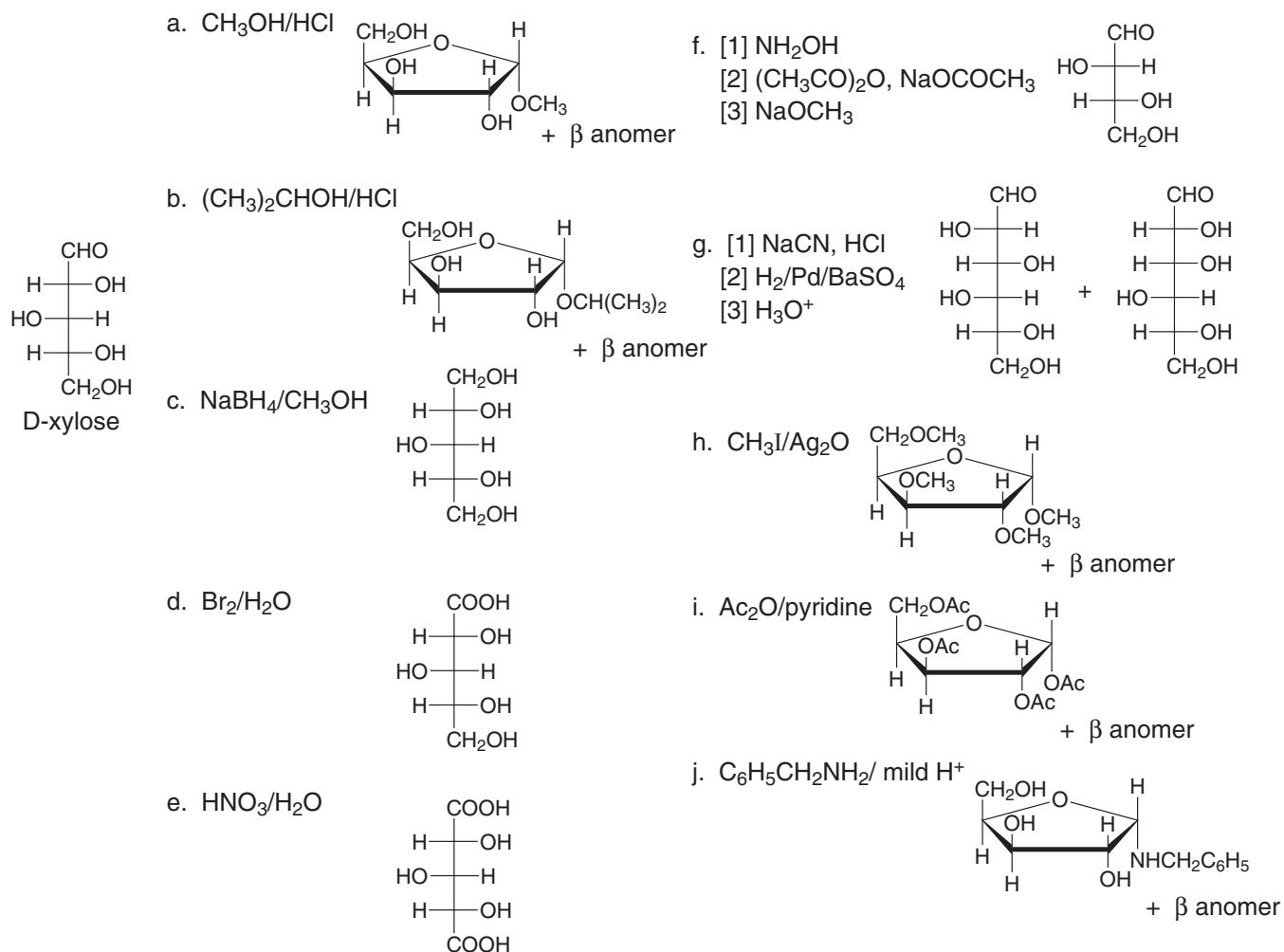
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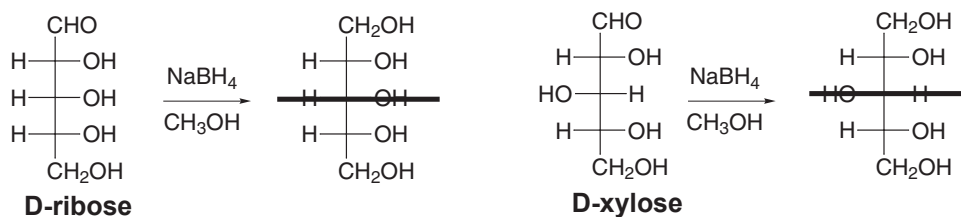
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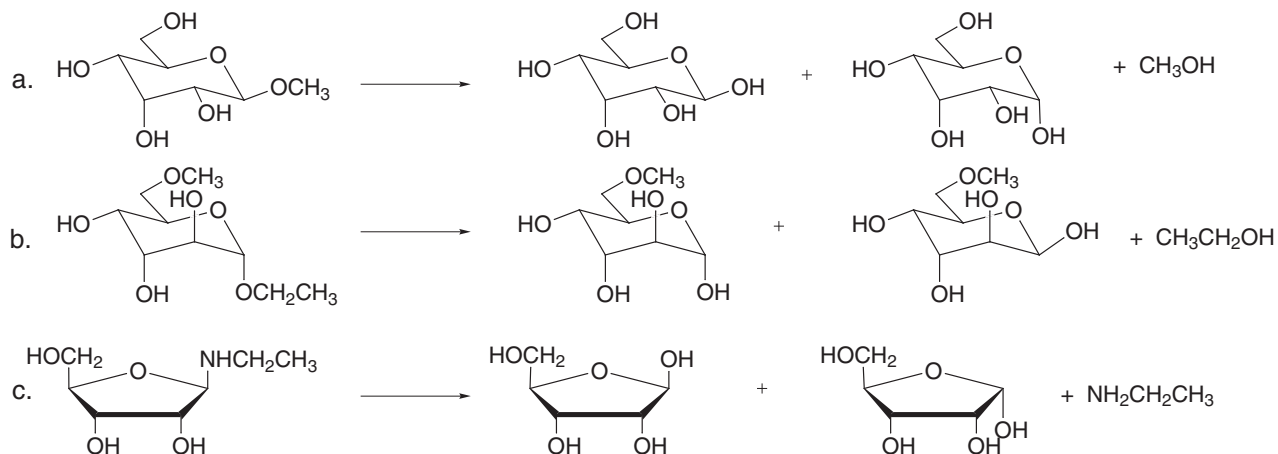
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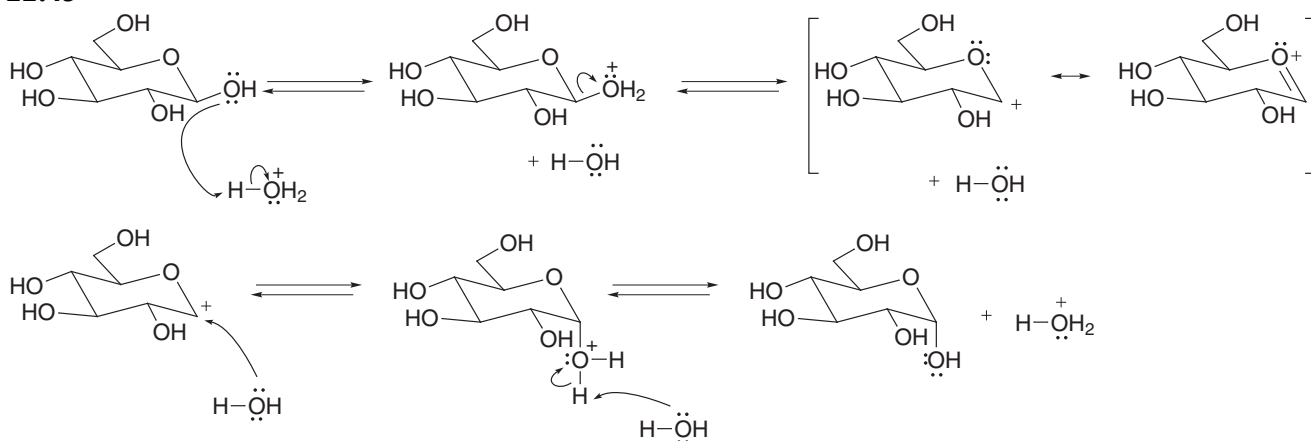
22.41 Molecole con un piano di simmetria sono otticamente inattive.



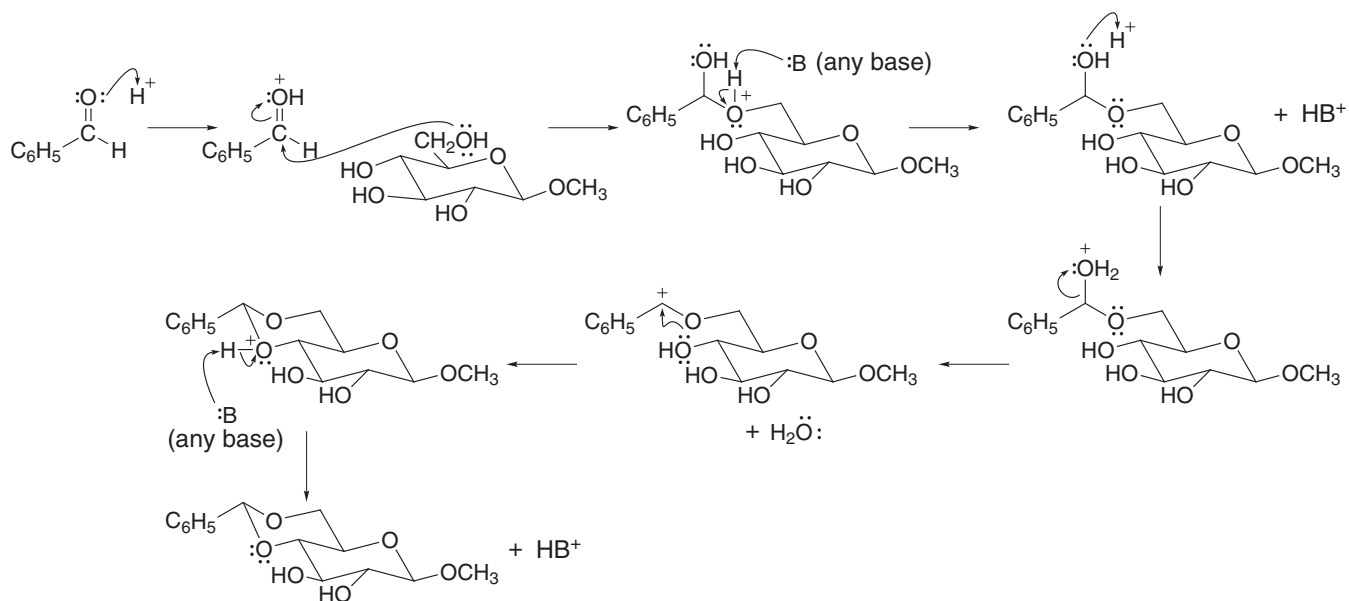
22.42



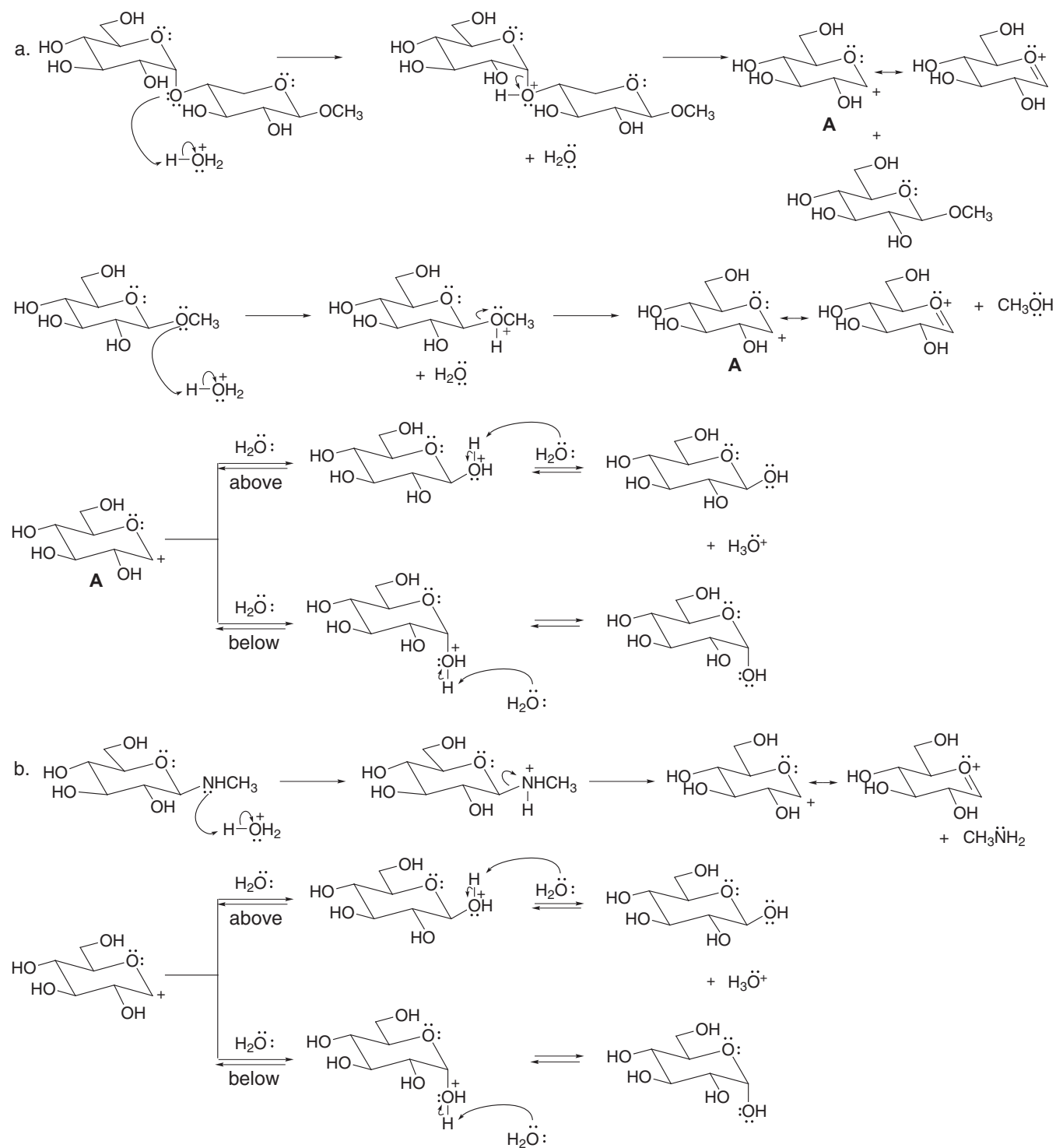
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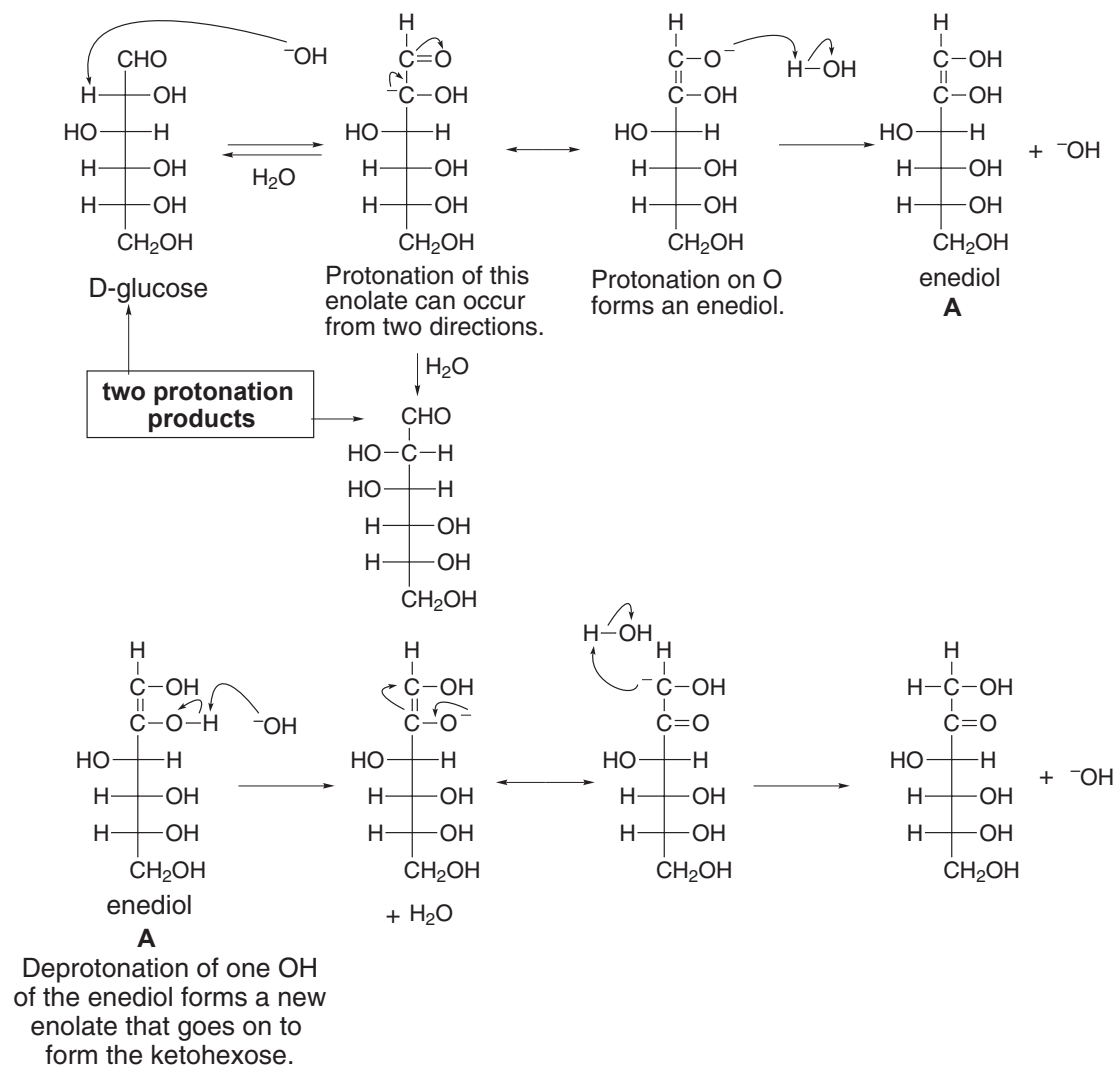
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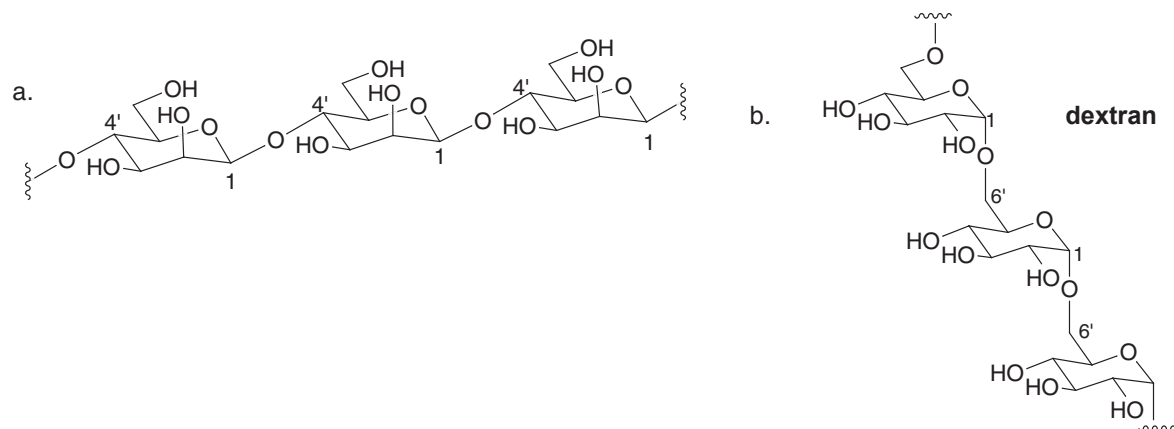
22.45



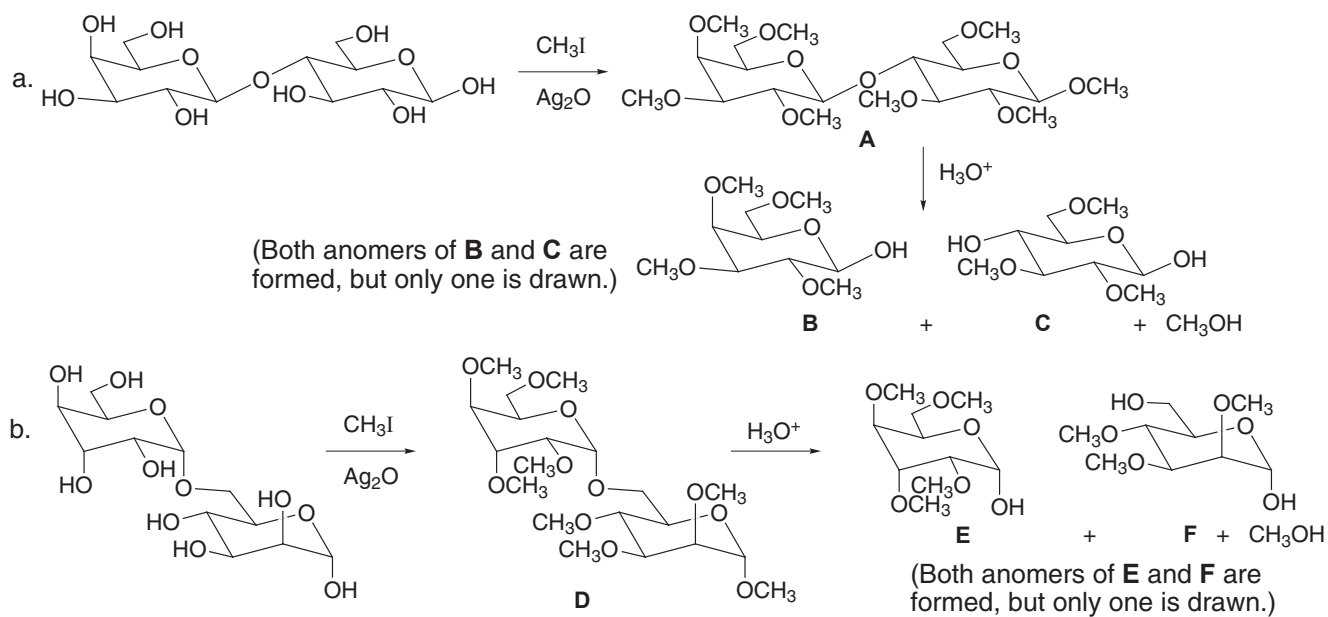
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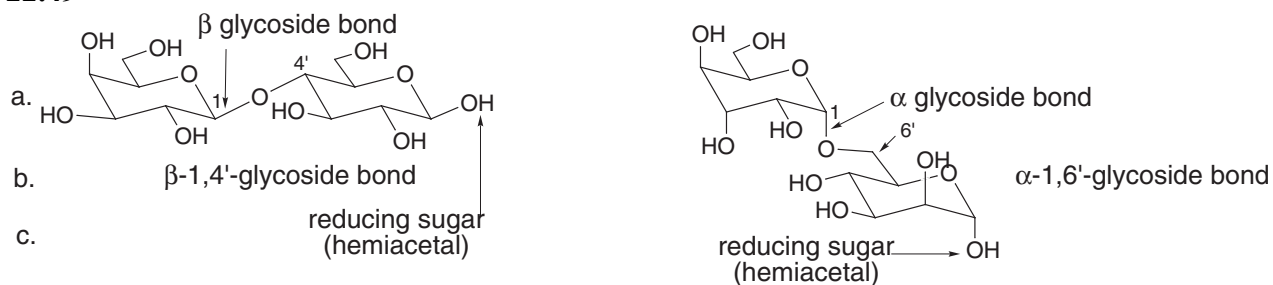
22.47



22.48

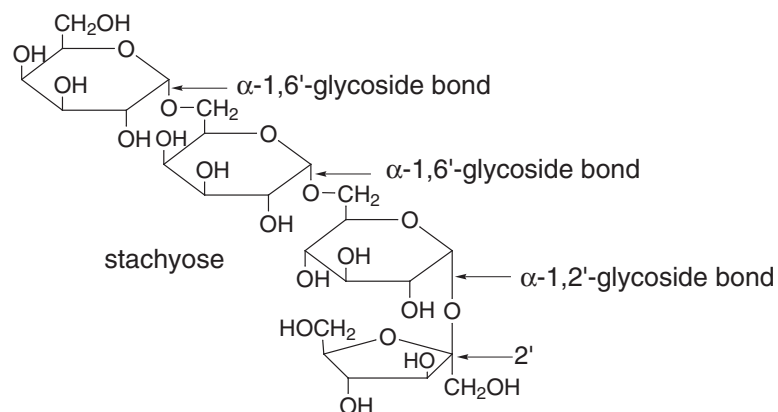


22.49

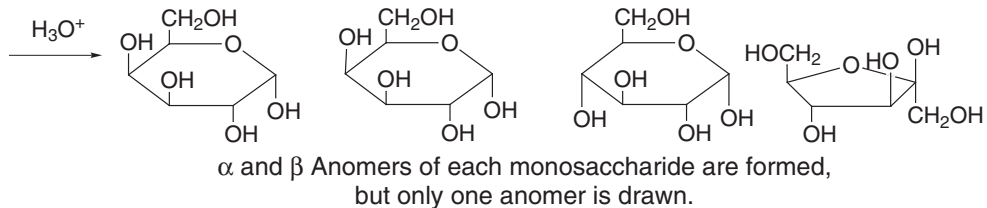


22.50

a and b.

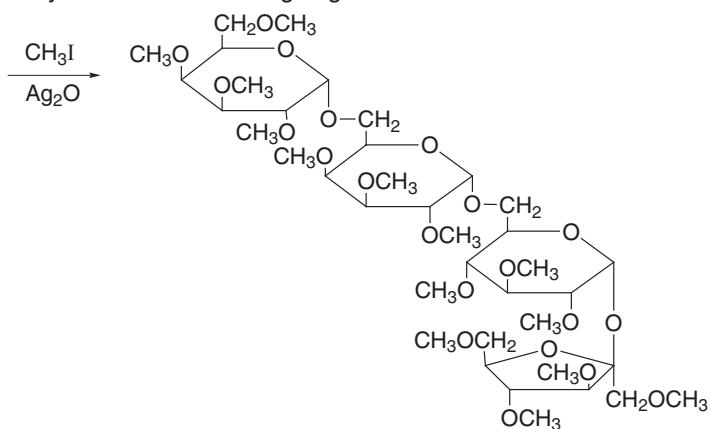


c.



d. Stachyose is not a reducing sugar since it contains no hemiacetal.

e.

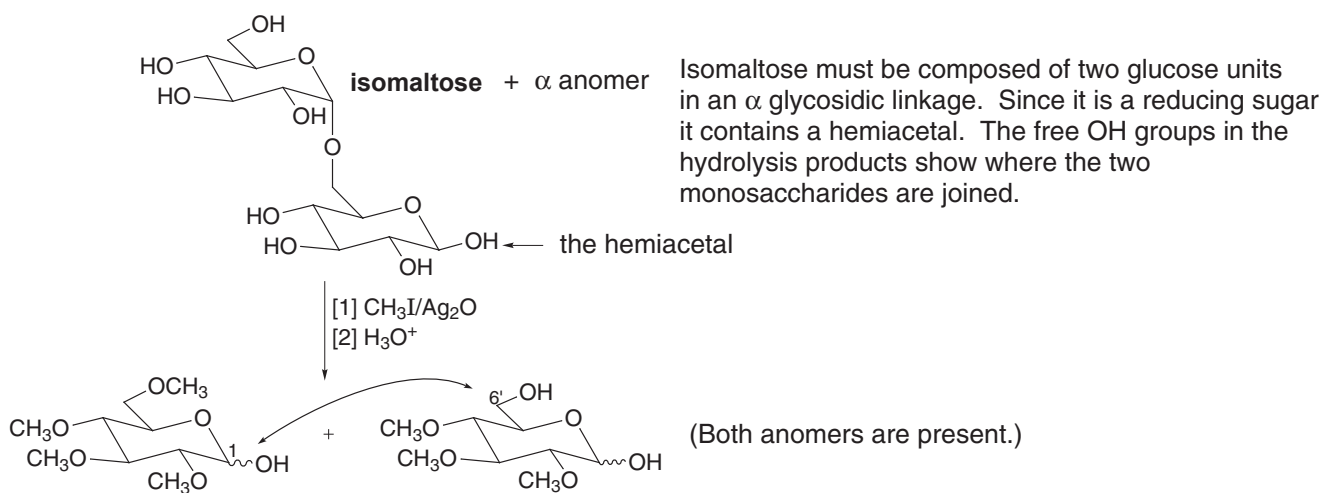


f.

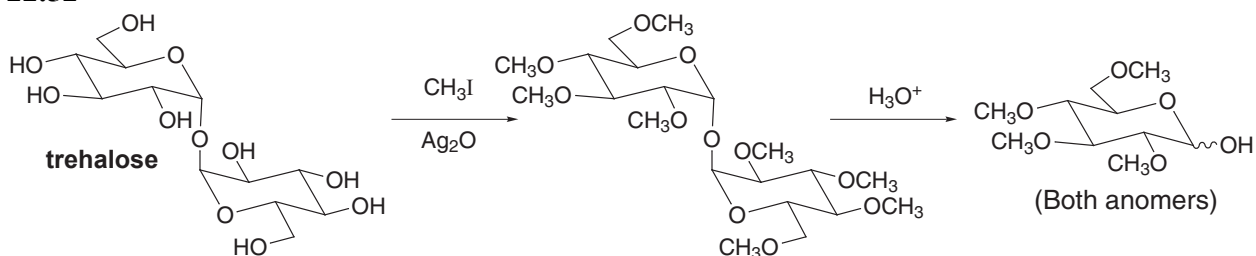
product
in (e)

α and β Anomers of each monosaccharide are formed.

22.51

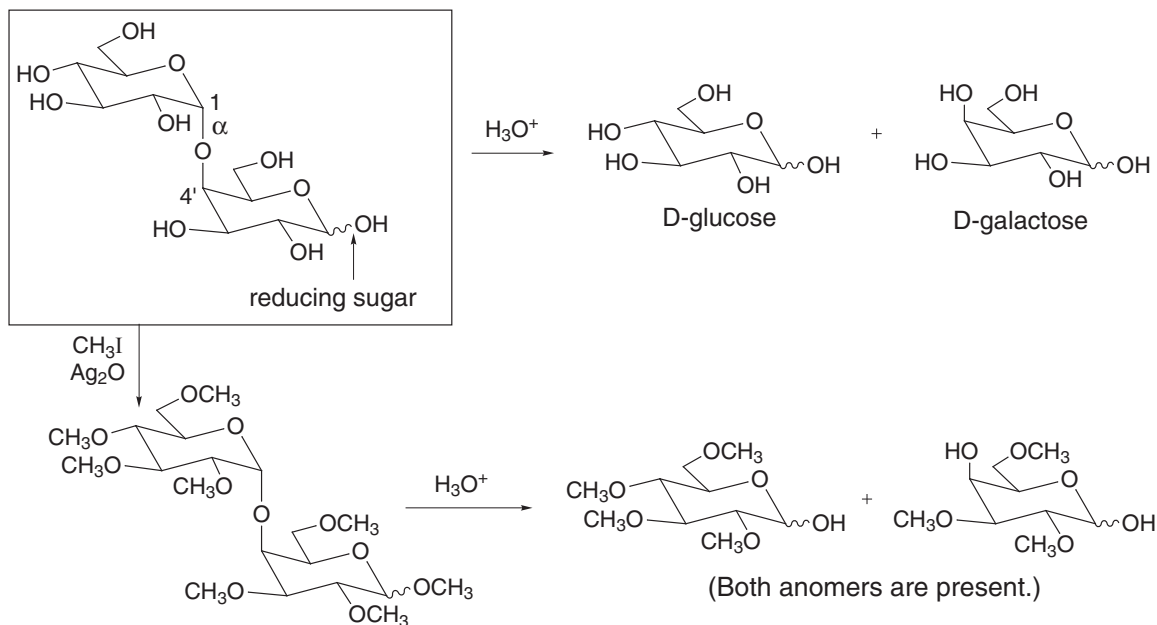


22.52



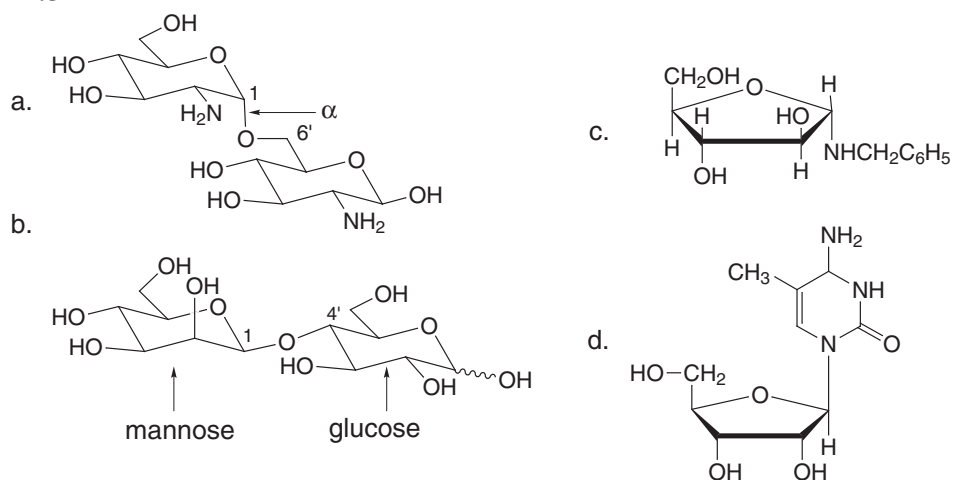
Trehalose must be composed of D-glucose units only, joined in an α glycosidic linkage. Since trehalose is nonreducing it contains no hemiacetal. Since there is only one product formed after methylation and hydrolysis, the two anomeric C's must be joined.

22.53



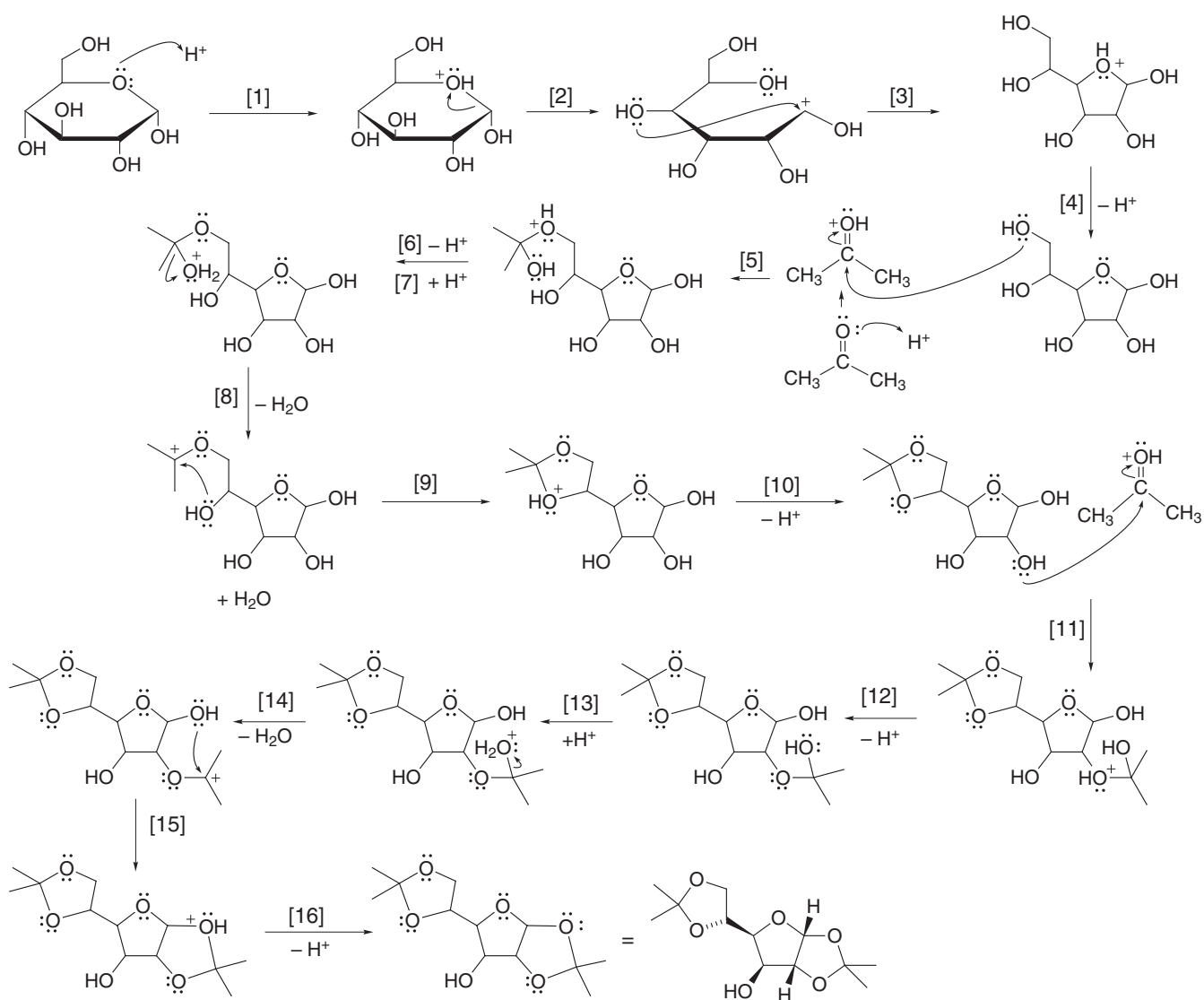
The disaccharide is composed of D-glucose and D-galactose joined in an α -glycosidic linkage. Since it is a reducing sugar it contains a hemiacetal. The free OH's in the two-step reaction show where the two monosaccharides were joined.

22.54



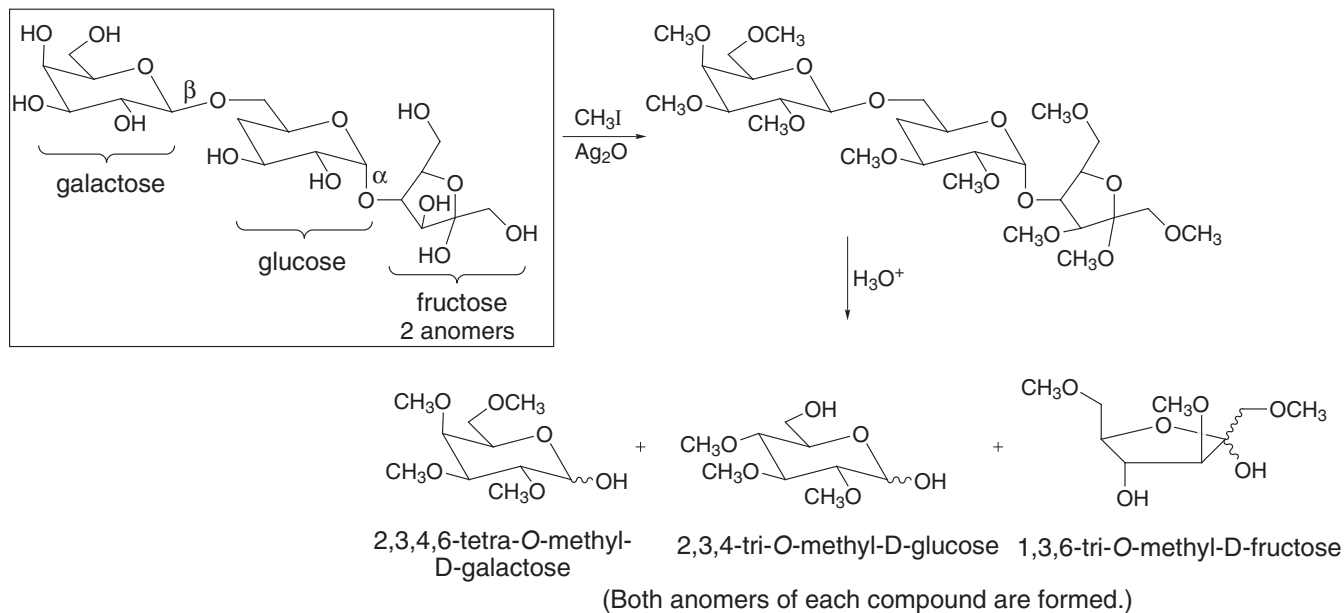
22.55

Ignoring stereochemistry along the way:



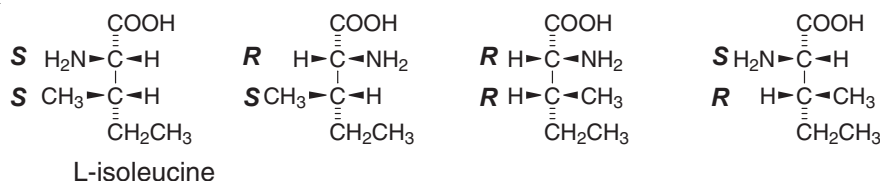
22.56

The hydrolysis data suggest that the trisaccharide has D-galactose on one end and D-fructose on the other. D-galactose must be joined to its adjacent sugar by a β glycosidic linkage. D-Fructose must be joined to its adjacent sugar by an α glycosidic linkage.

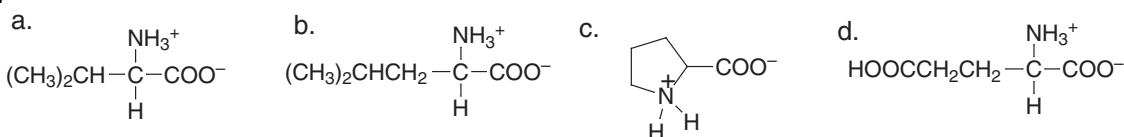


Capitolo 23

23.1

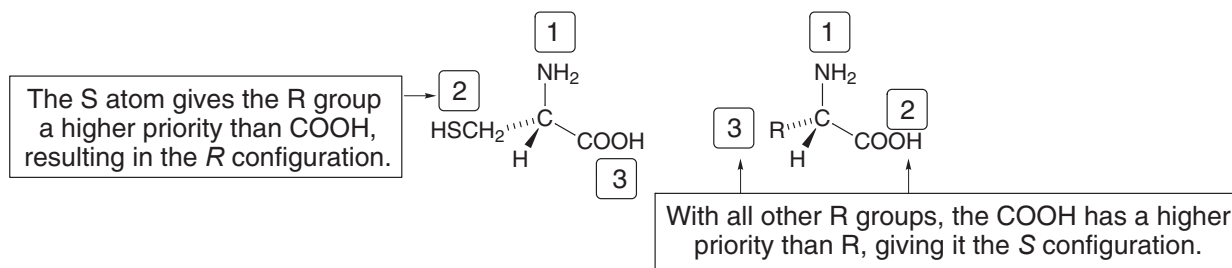


23.2

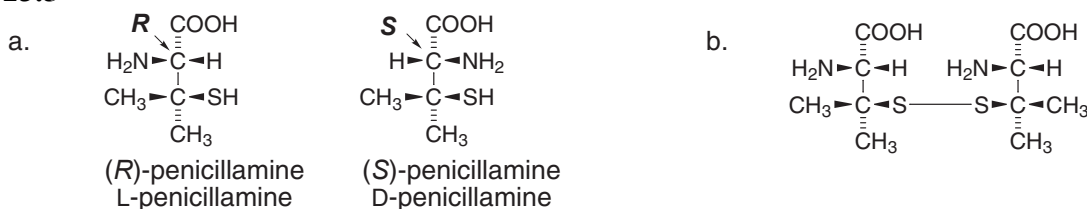


23.3 In un amminoacido, il gruppo carbossilico elettron attrattore destabilizza lo ione ammonio (NH_3^+), rendendolo più disponibile a donare un protone; cioè, lo rende un acido più forte. Inoltre, il gruppo carbossilico elettron attrattore sottrae densità elettronica dal gruppo amminico (NH_2) della base coniugata, rendendola una base più debole di un'ammina 1°, che non ha nessun gruppo elettron attrattore.

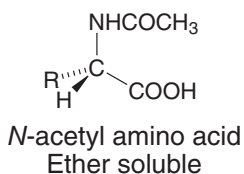
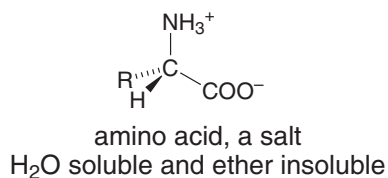
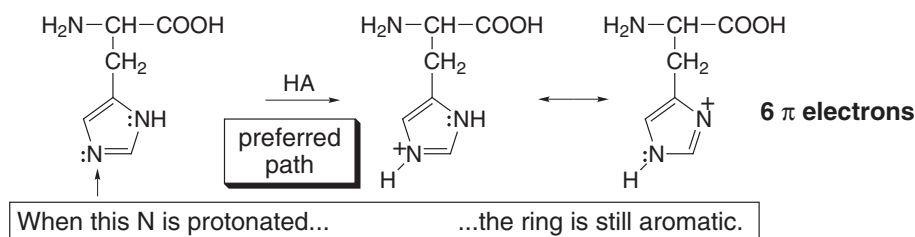
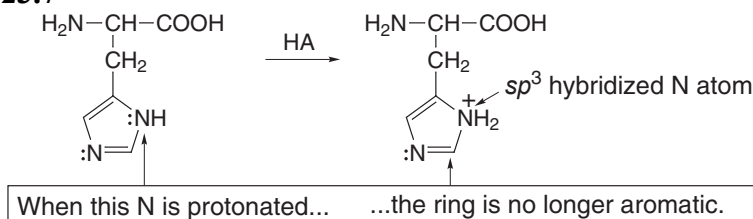
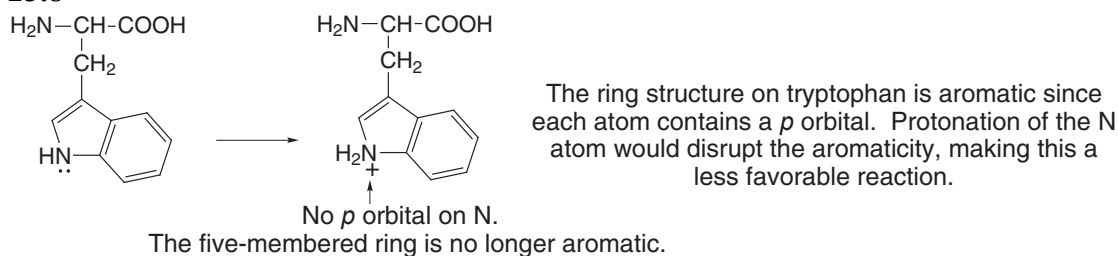
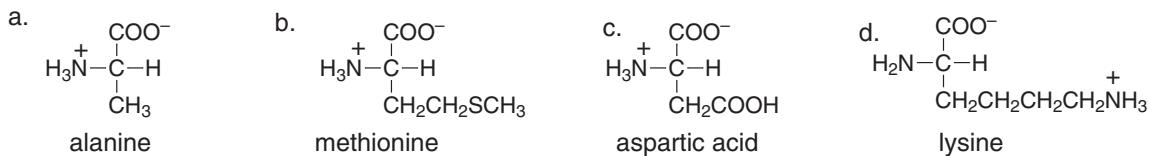
23.4 Tutti gli L-amminoacidi, eccetto la cisteina, hanno **configurazione S**. La L-cisteina ha configurazione **R** perché il gruppo R contiene un atomo di zolfo, che ha priorità maggiore.



23.5



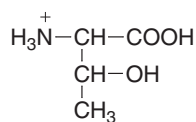
23.6 Gli amminoacidi sono insolubili in dietil etere perché sono molto polari; nella forma neutra, esistono come sali. Il dietil etere è debolmente polare, così gli amminoacidi non sono solubili. Gli *N*-acetil amminoacidi sono solubili perché sono polari ma non sono sotto forma di sale.

**23.7****23.8****23.9** Al proprio punto isoelettrico, ogni amminoacido è neutro.**23.10**

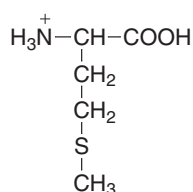
- a. [1] acido glutammico usare i valori di pK_a 2.10 + 4.07
 [2] lisina: usare i valori di pK_a 8.95 + 10.53
 [3] arginina: usare i valori di pK_a 9.04 + 12.48
 b. In generale il *pI* di un amminoacido acido è minore di quello di un amminoacido neutro.
 c. In generale il *pI* di un amminoacido basico è maggiore di quello di un amminoacido neutro.

23.11

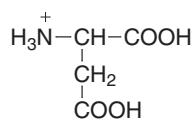
a. **threonine**
 $pI = 5.06$
 (+1) charge at $pH = 1$



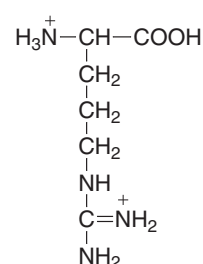
b. **methionine**
 $pI = 5.74$
 (+1) charge at $pH = 1$



c. **aspartic acid**
 $pI = 2.98$
 (+1) charge at $pH = 1$

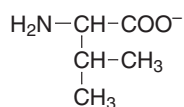


d. **arginine**
 $pI = 5.41$
 (+2) charge at $pH = 1$

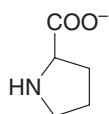


23.12

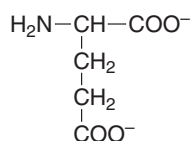
a. **valine**
 $pI = 6.00$
 (-1) charge at $pH = 11$



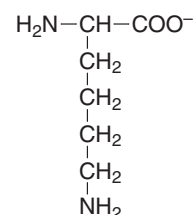
b. **proline**
 $pI = 6.30$
 (-1) charge at $pH = 11$



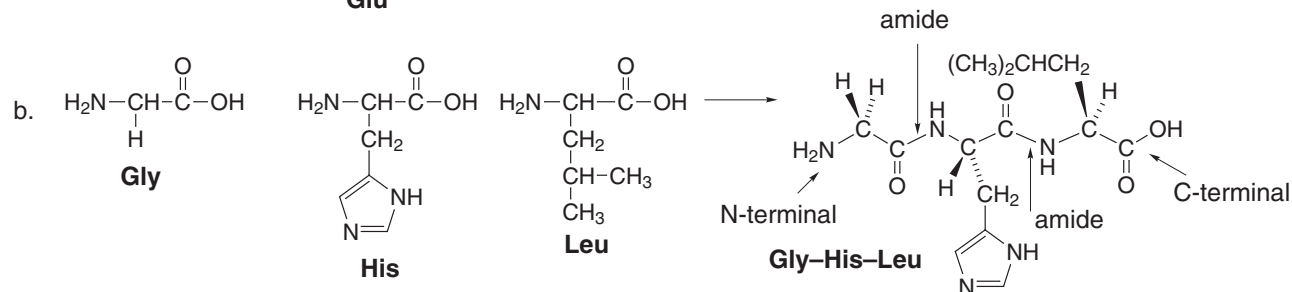
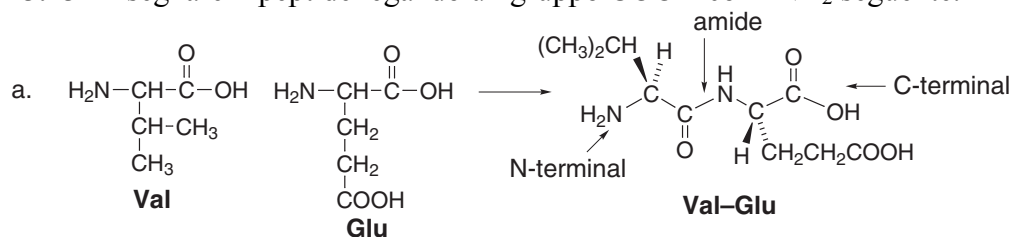
c. **glutamic acid**
 $pI = 3.08$
 (-2) charge at $pH = 11$

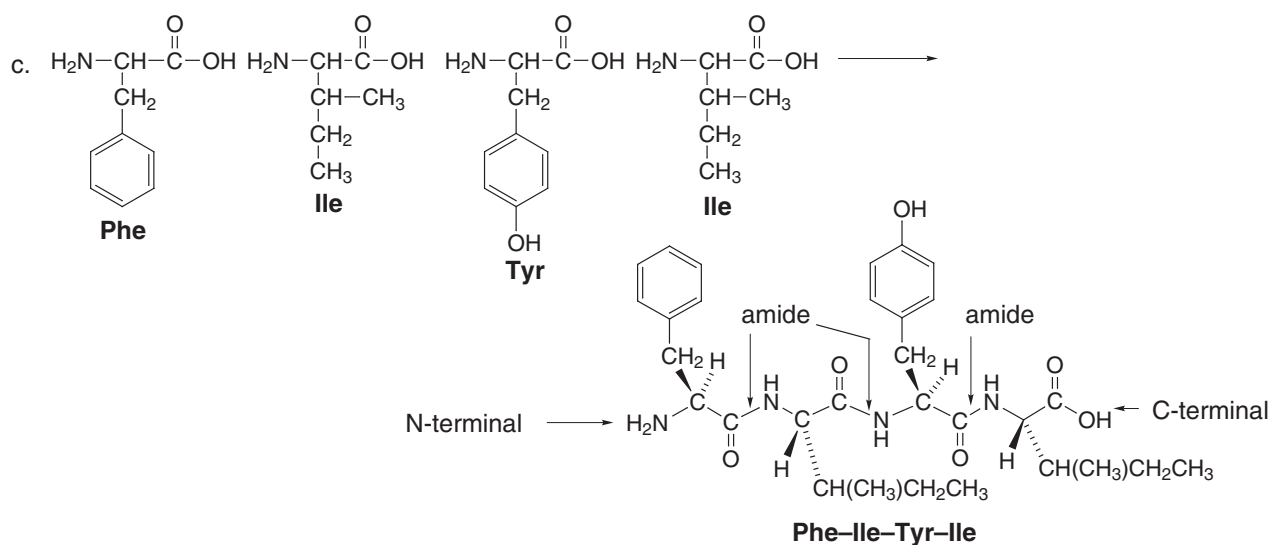


d. **lysine**
 $pI = 9.74$
 (-1) charge at $pH = 11$

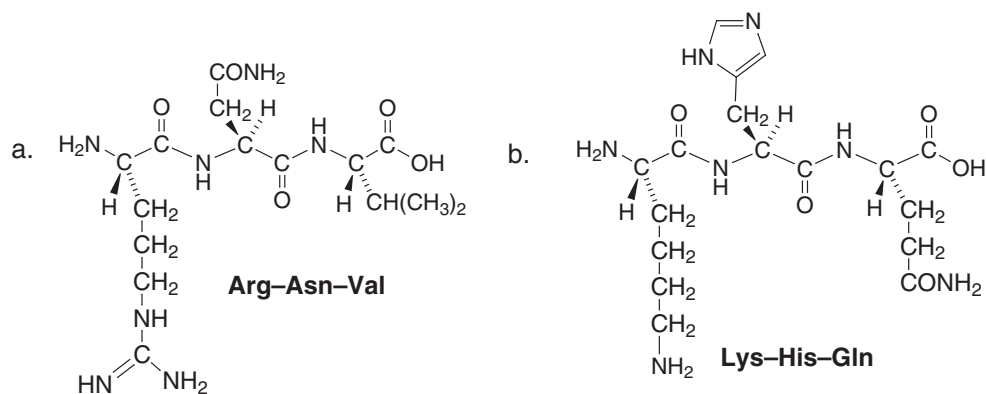


23.13 Disegnare il peptide legando un gruppo COOH con l' NH_2 seguente.



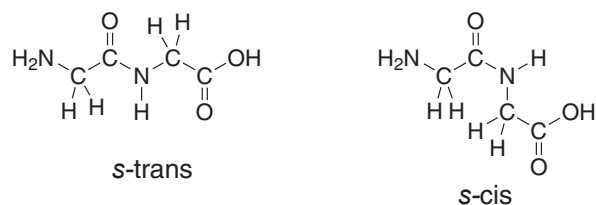


23.14

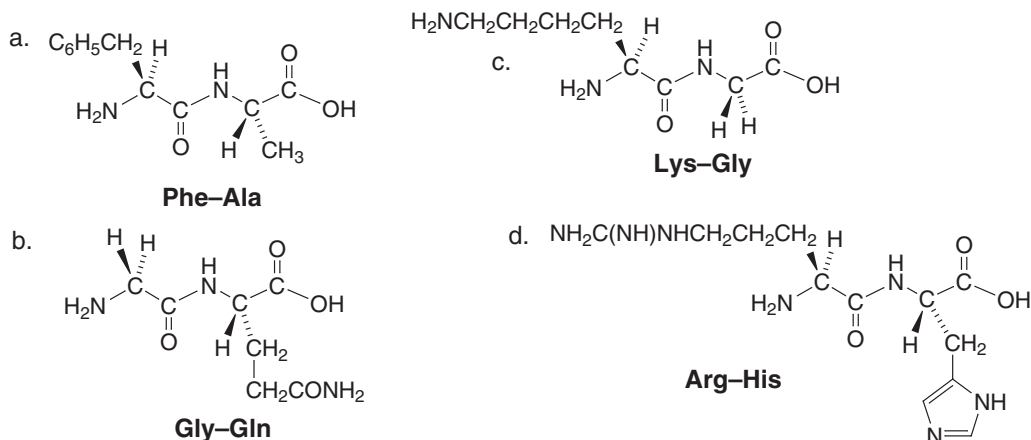


23.15 Ci sono sei diversi tripeptidi che si possono formare da tre amminoacidi: A-B-C, A-C-B, B-A-C, B-C-A, C-A-B, C-B-A.

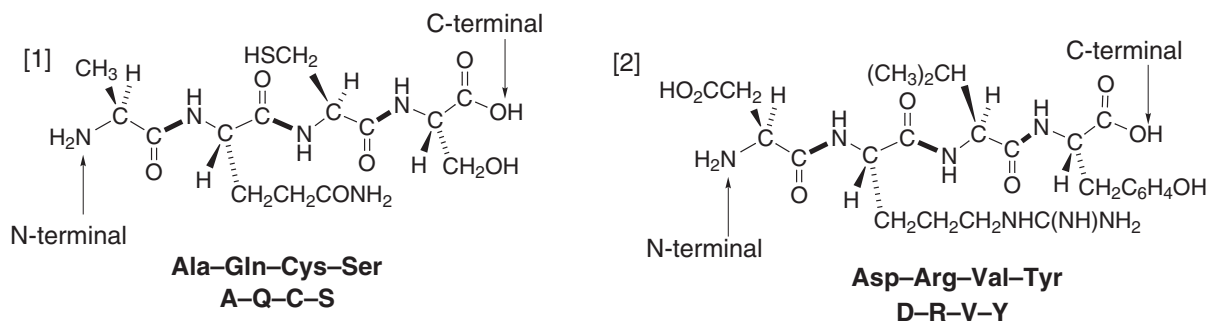
23.16 La conformazione *s-trans* ha i due gruppi R orientati da parti *opposte* rispetto al legame C-N. La conformazione *s-cis* ha i due gruppi R orientati dalla *stessa* parte rispetto al legame C-N.



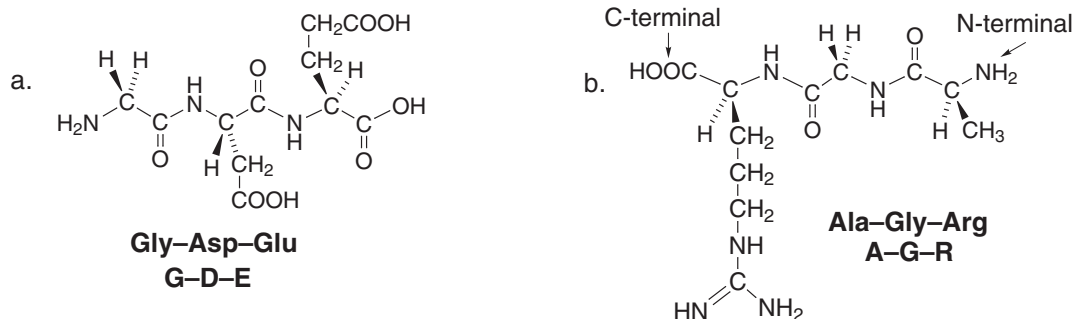
23.17



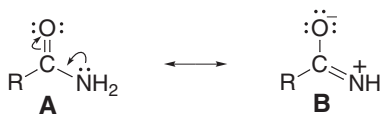
23.18 I legami ammidici sono linee piene, non cunei.



23.19 Attribuire il nome al peptide dall'estremità N-terminale alla C-terminale.

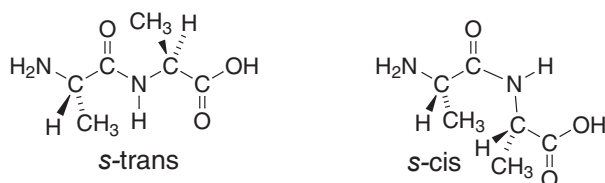


23.20 Un legame peptidico C-N è più forte di un legame estereo C-O perché il legame C-N ha maggior carattere di doppio legame a causa della risonanza. Poiché l'N è più basico dell'O, un legame ammidico C-N è più stabilizzato dalla delocalizzazione del doppietto solitario sull'N.

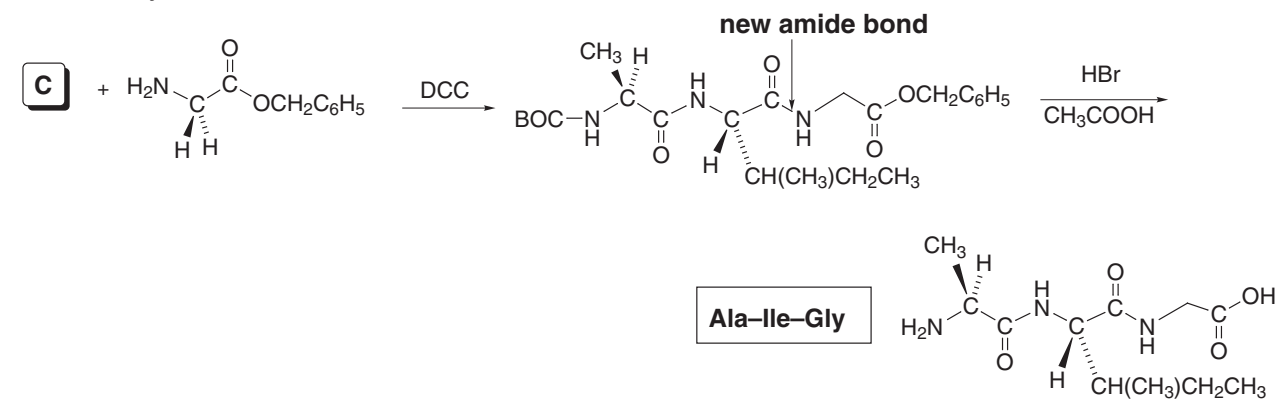
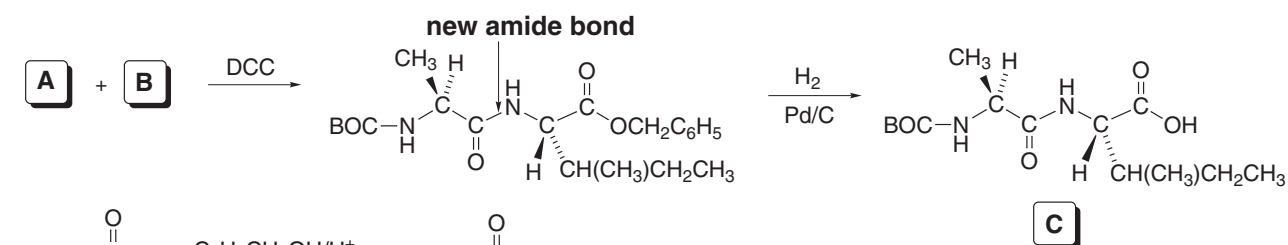
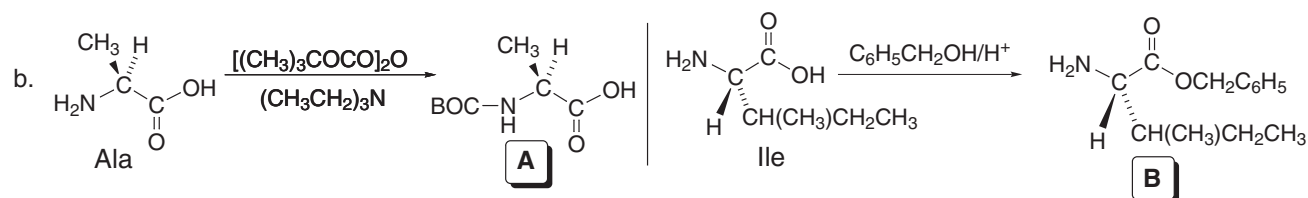
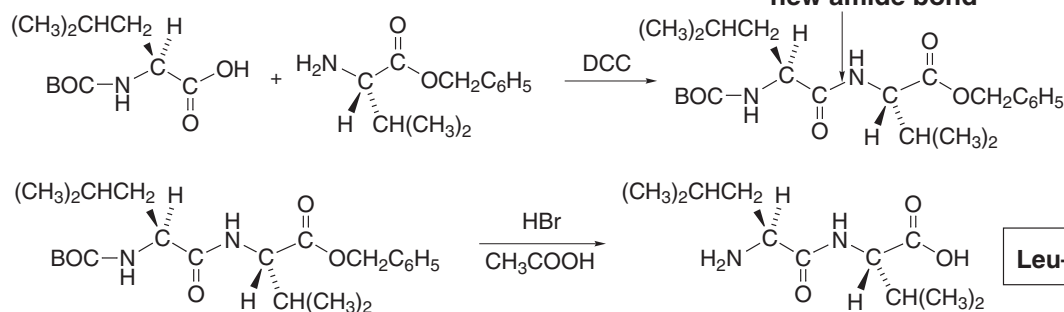
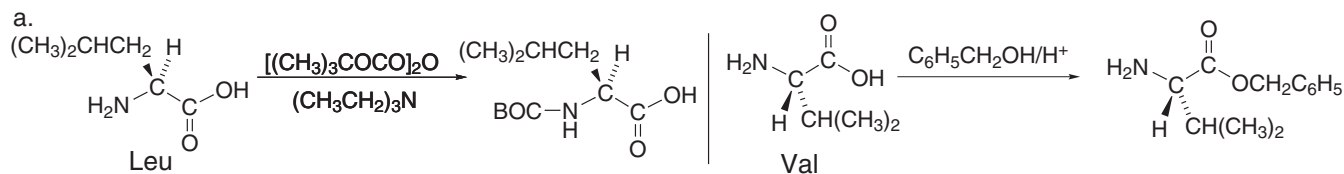


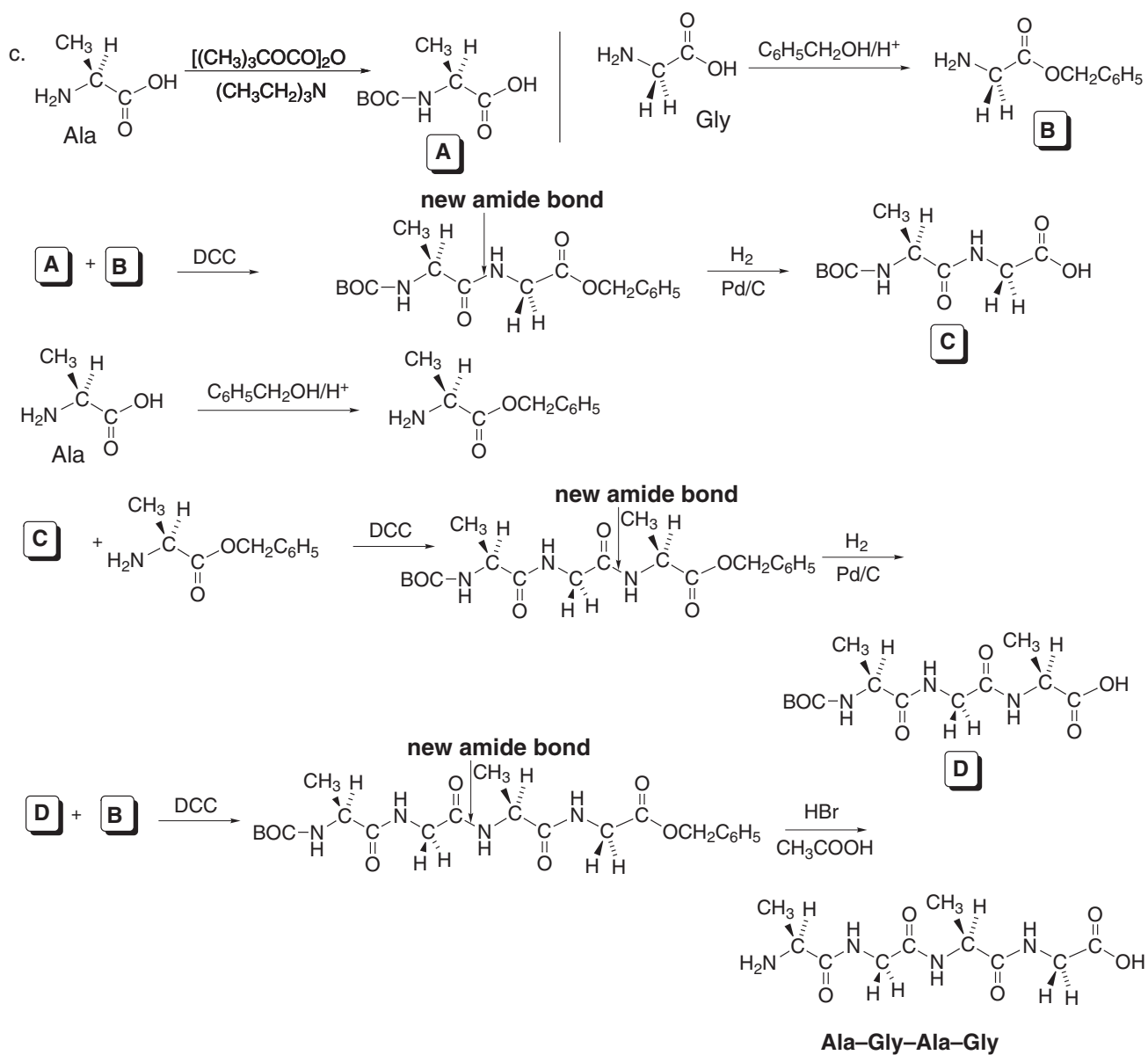
Structure **B** contributes greatly to the resonance hybrid and thus shortens and strengthens the C-N bond.

23.21 Usare le definizioni della risposta 26.16.

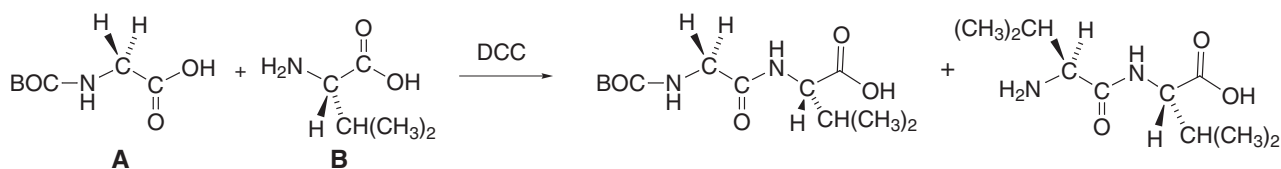


23.22

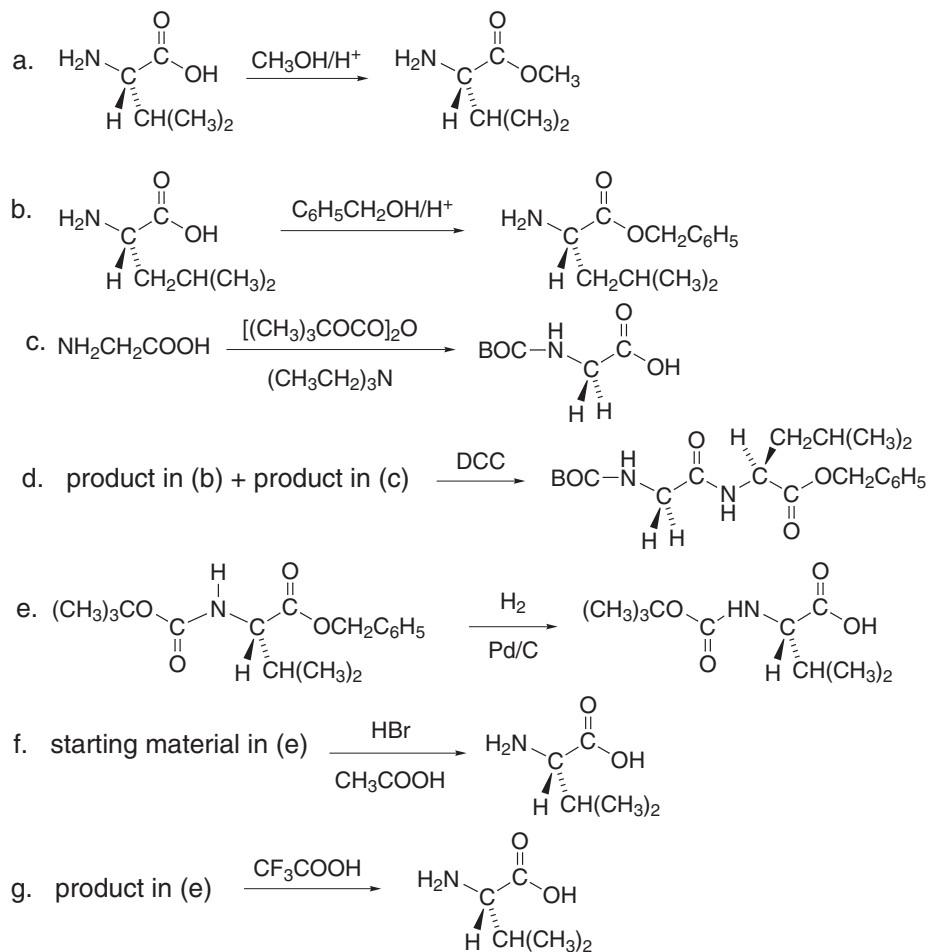




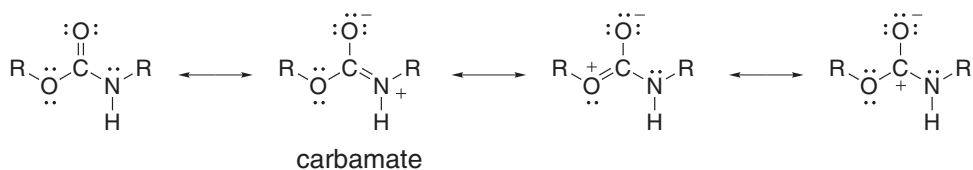
23.23 **A** e **B** possono reagire per formare un'amide, oppure due molecole di **B** possono formare un'amide.



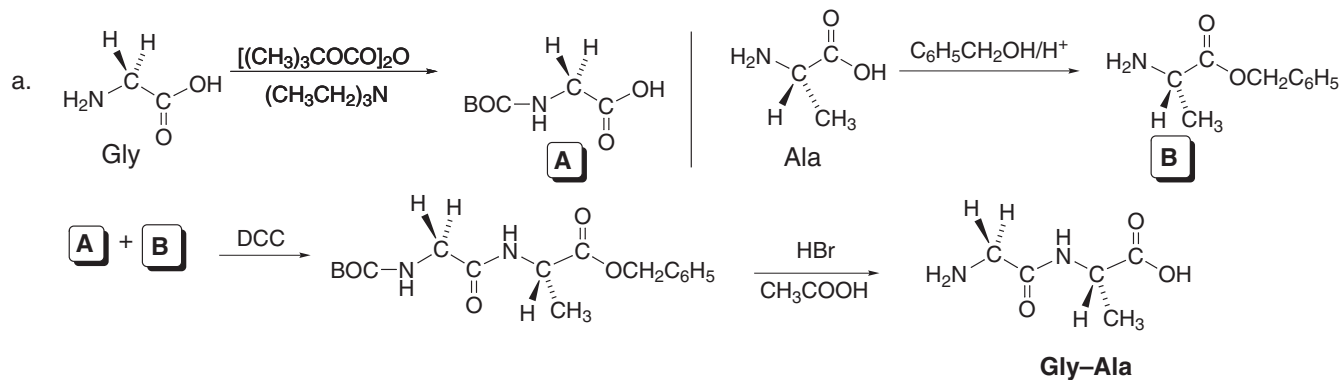
23.24

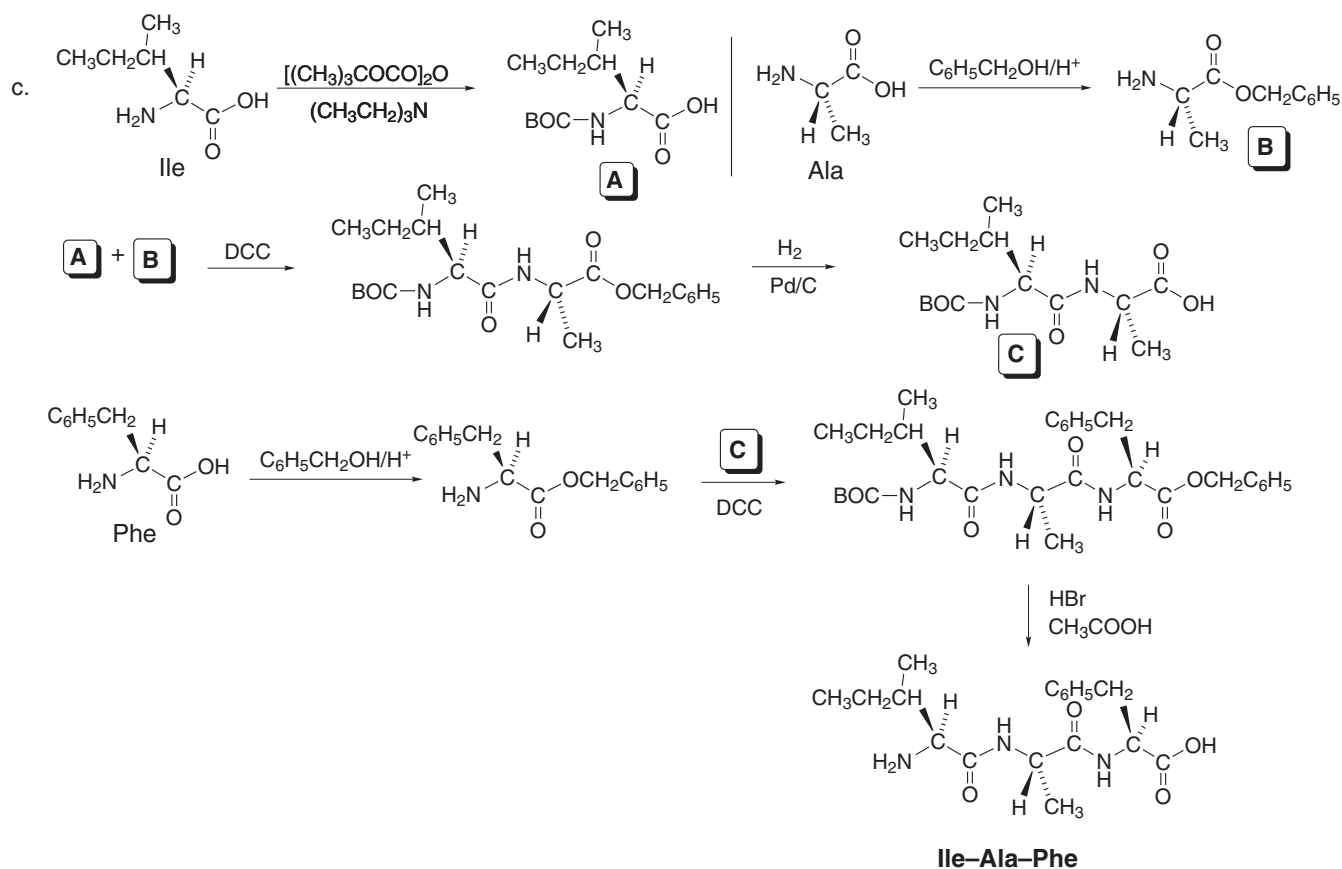
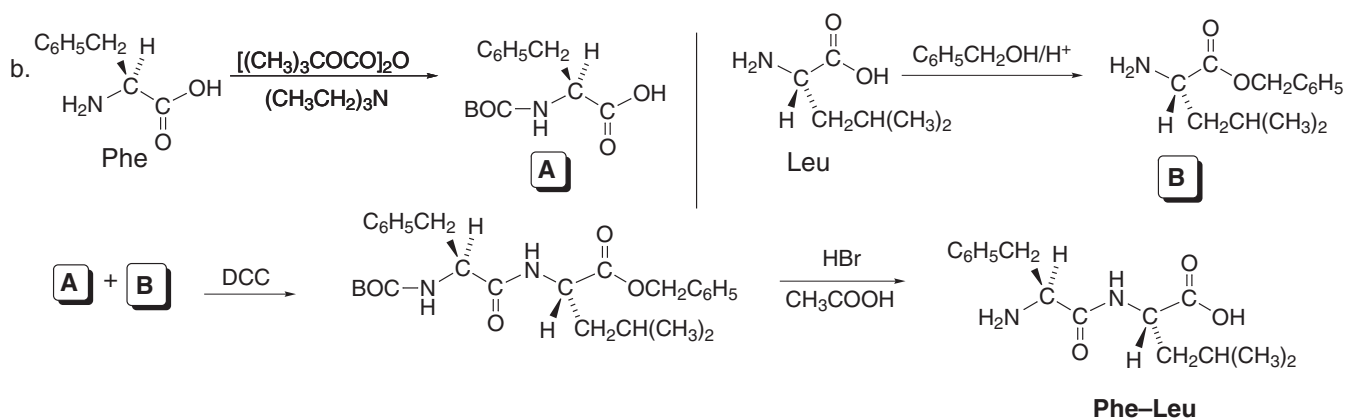


23.25

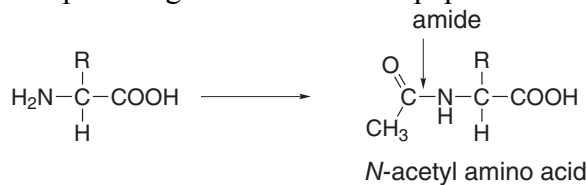


23.26



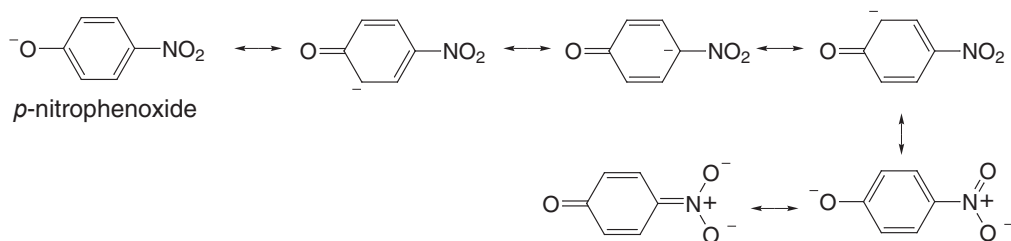


23.27 Un gruppo acetile sull' NH_2 forma un'amide. Sebbene questa amide protegga il gruppo amminico durante la reazione, l'amide non ha una reattività diversa rispetto a ciascun legame ammidico del peptide. Per rimuovere il gruppo acetile dopo la formazione del legame peptidico, sarebbero necessarie forti condizioni di reazione, che potrebbero anche rompere i legami ammidici del peptide.



23.28

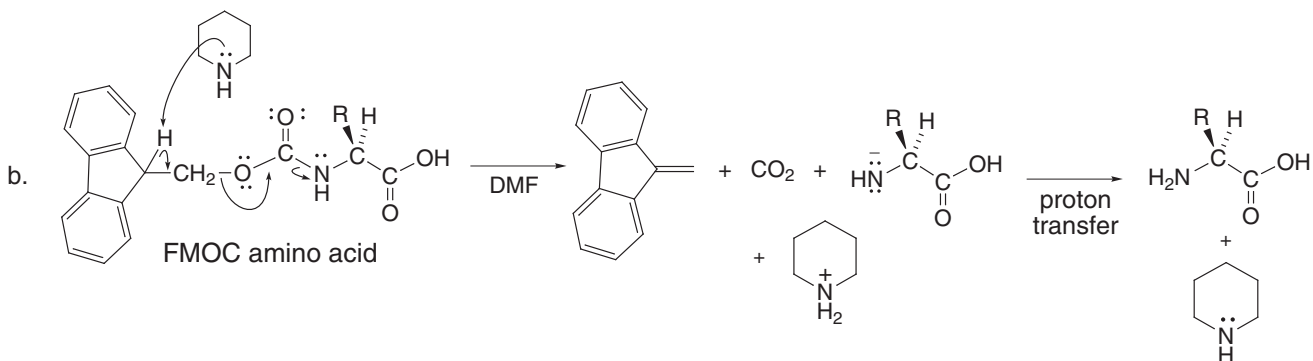
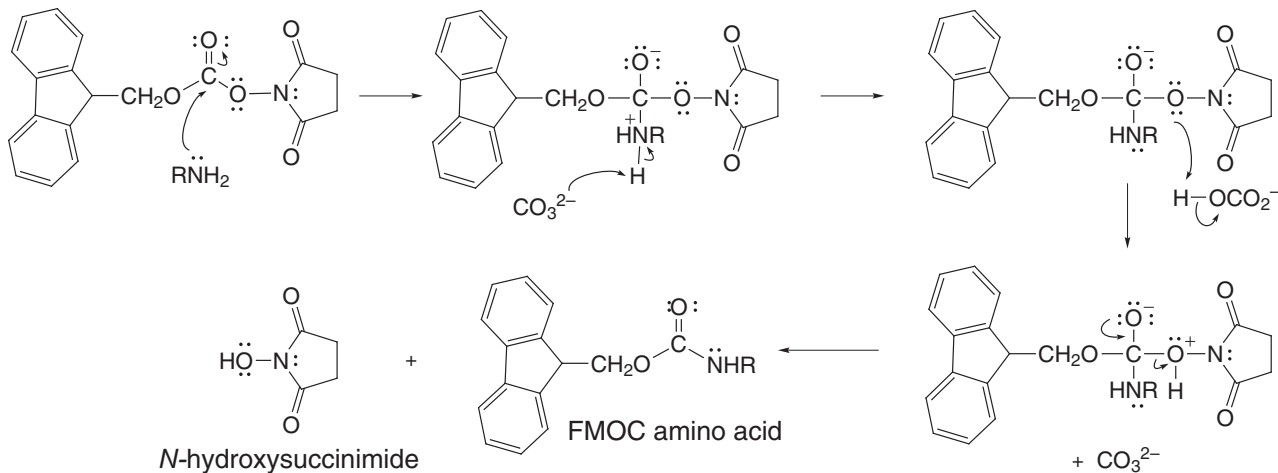
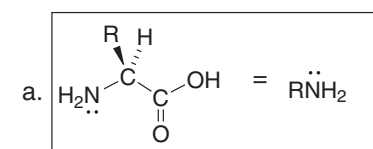
a. A *p*-nitrophenyl ester activates the carboxyl group of the first amino acid to amide formation by converting the OH group into a good leaving group, the *p*-nitrophenoxide group, which is highly resonance stabilized. In this case the electron withdrawing NO₂ group further stabilizes the leaving group.



The negative charge is delocalized on the O atom of the NO₂ group.

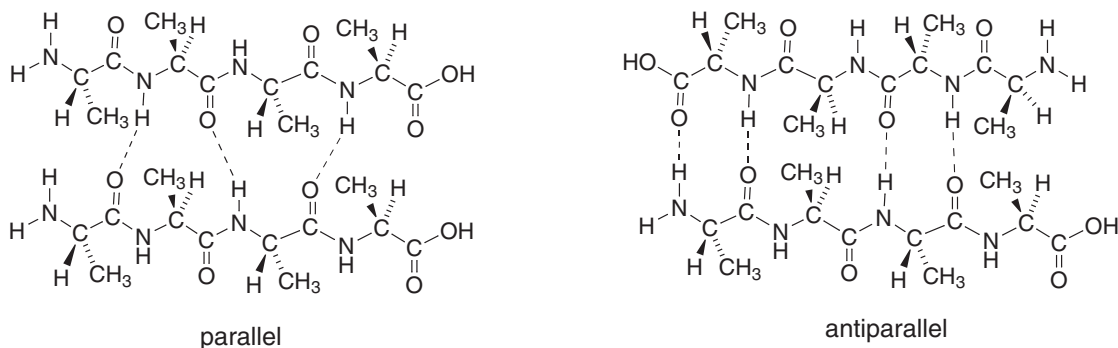
b. The *p*-methoxyphenyl ester contains an electron donating OCH₃ group, making CH₃OC₆H₄O[−] a poorer leaving group than NO₂OC₆H₄O[−], so this ester does not activate the amino acid to amide formation as much.

23.29

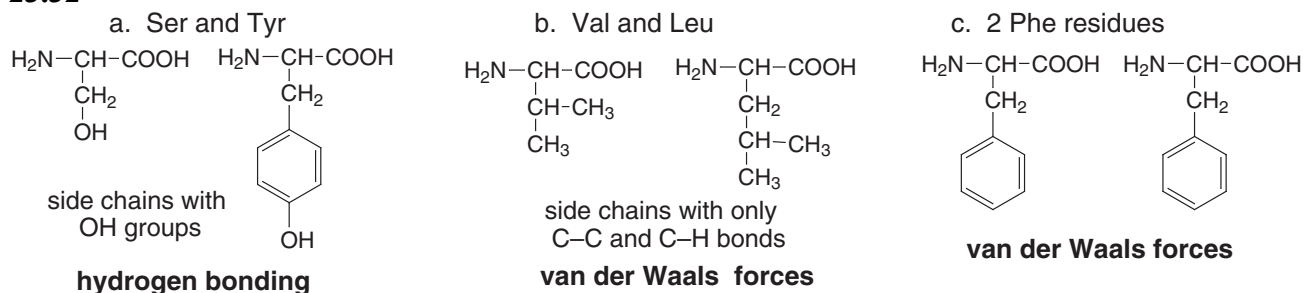


23.30 I foglietti β antiparalleli sono più stabili dei foglietti β paralleli per la geometria. L' N-H e il C=O di una catena sono direttamente allineati con l' N-H e il C=O di una catena adiacente nei foglietti β antiparalleli, mentre non lo sono nei foglietti β paralleli. Ciò rende più debole quest'ultimo gruppo di legami a idrogeno.

23.31 Nel foglietto β *parallelo*, i filamenti sono allineati nella *stessa* direzione dall'amminoacido N-terminale al C-terminale. Nel foglietto β *antiparallelo*, i filamenti sono allineati in direzioni *opposte*.



23.32



23.33 Gli amminoacidi comunemente presenti all'interno delle proteine globulari hanno catene laterali non polari o debolmente polari: isoleucina e fenilalanina. Gli amminoacidi comunemente presenti sulla superficie hanno COOH , NH_2 , e altri gruppi che possono formare legami idrogeno con l'acqua: acido aspartico, lisina, arginina, e acido glutammico.

23.34 I residui di prolina nel collagene sono idrossilati per aumentare le interazioni di legame idrogeno.

