

↑ Proton acceptor → lone pair, π -bond, σ -bond

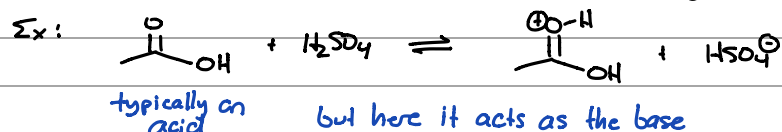
Bronsted Acid = a hydron donor

↳ H^+ , D^+ , T^+

$^1\text{H}^+$ $^2\text{H}^+$ $^3\text{H}^+$

Stable $\text{A}^- \rightarrow$ Strong acid $\rightarrow$ Low pK_a

Compounds may act as an acid or a base depending on environment.



Aqueous Solutions



$$K_a = \frac{[\text{A}^-][\text{H}_3\text{O}^+]}{[\text{HA}]}$$

$\text{pK}_a = -\log K_a$

* For $K_a > 1$ ($\text{pK}_a < 0$) HA is a stronger acid than H_3O^+
 A^- is a weaker base than H_2O

A pK_a unit corresponds to 10x change in acid strength

H_2O	vs	$t\text{BuOH}$
pK_a 16		17
(10x stronger acid)		

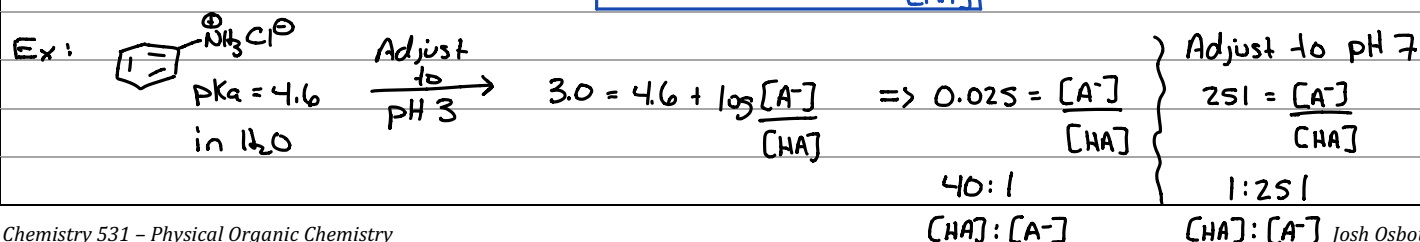
pK_a = fundamental property of the acid in a particular environment

pH = acidity of the solution; related to pK_a of acid and concentration of acid

$$\text{pH} = -\log [\text{H}_3\text{O}^+]$$

Unlike pK_a , you can experimentally adjust pH .

Henderson-Hasselbach Eq:
$$\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a + \log \frac{[\text{A}^-]}{[\text{HA}]}$$



Rules: ① when $\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a$ $[\text{HA}] + [\text{A}^-]$ exist 1:1
 ② when $\text{pH} > \text{pK}_a$ acid exists mostly in A^- form
 ③ when $\text{pH} < \text{pK}_a$ acid exists mostly in HA form

The Leveling Effect

Consider: $\text{HCl} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightleftharpoons \text{H}_3\text{O}^+ + \text{Cl}^-$ } With a strong acid, the equilibrium exists predominately as products
 $\text{pK}_a -6$ $\text{pK}_a -1.74$
 essentially the real acid in the soln ($\text{pK}_a -1.74$)

* The lowest pK_a you can measure in a given solvent is the protonated solvent (H_3O^+ for H_2O).

* In H_2O , pK_a 's can be determined from $-1.74 \rightarrow 15.7$

Non-Aqueous Systems

Solvation is an important factor for acidity

pK_a of organic acids are often measured in DMSO $\rightarrow$ doesn't ion pair well $\text{DMSO}^{\oplus}\text{H}^{\ominus}\text{CN}$

Ex: HCN vs $\text{NC}-\text{C}(\text{H})_2-\text{CN}$
 pK_a 9.4 vs 11
 pK_a in H_2O vs pK_a in DMSO
 pK_a 12.9 vs 11.1
 DMSO is less effective at stabilizing CN^- little charge
 Since $\ominus$ is less localized & spread across the molecule
 * pK_a 's are usually larger in org. solvents

Gas Phase Acidity

- Gives insight into intrinsic anion stability
- No solvent effects

Often see a reversal of expected trends in the gas phase

$\text{H}_3\text{C}-\text{OH}$ vs $\text{t}-\text{OH}$ } stronger acid
 $\downarrow$ $\downarrow$
 $\text{H}^{\oplus} + \text{H}_3\text{C}-\text{O}^{\ominus}$ vs $\text{H}^{\oplus} + \text{t}-\text{O}^{\ominus}$ } In gas phase, the larger alkyl groups accept e^- density
 $\text{NH}_4^{\oplus}$ vs $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{NH}_2^{\oplus}$ } stronger acid
 in gas phase the alkyl groups stabilize the $\oplus$

As Organic Chemists, we are primarily concerned w/ solution phase acidity

Predicting Relative Acidity

Choices: Assess relative stability of HA

↳ more stable HA = less acidic

Best for HA^+

Assess relative stability of A^-

↳ more stable A^- comes from the stronger acid

Best for neutral HA

Electronegativity

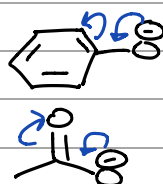
	<u>pKa</u>
$\text{H}_3\text{C}-\text{H}$	50
$\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{H}$	38
$\text{HO}-\text{H}$	16
$\text{F}-\text{H}$	3.2

Inductive Effect

	<u>pKa</u>
$\text{H}_3\text{C}-\text{COOH}$	5
$\text{Cl}_3\text{C}-\text{COOH}$	0.65
$\text{F}_3\text{C}-\text{COOH}$	-0.2

Resonance

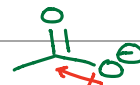
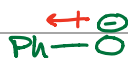
	<u>pKa</u>
$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$	16
$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{OH}$	10
CH_3COOH	5



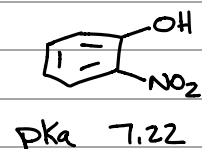
Benefits from delocalization of $\ominus$

Benefits more when $\ominus$ can delocalize onto e- neg atom

Also benefit from inductive effect

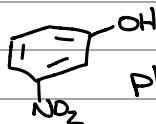


The power of inductive effect:



pKa 7.22

Resonance onto $-\text{NO}_2$
+ Inductive w/ $-\text{NO}_2$

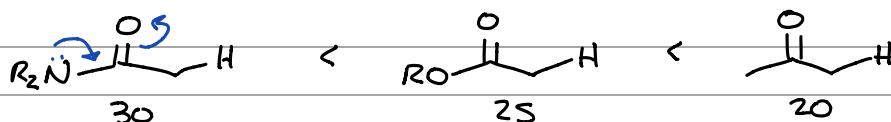
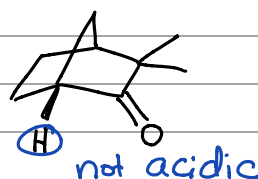
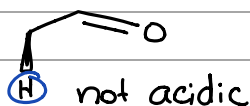
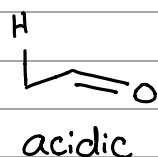
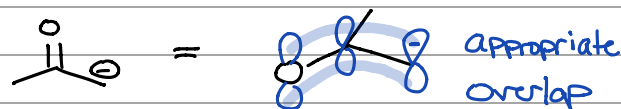
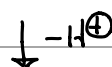


pKa 8.36

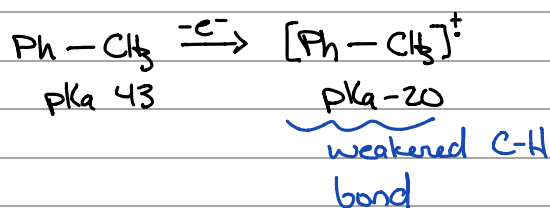
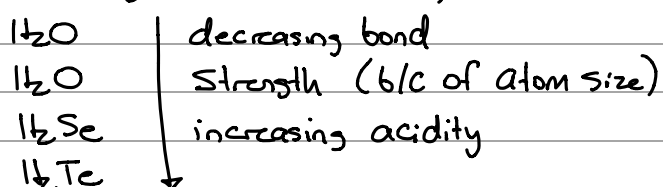
Inductive effect w/ $-\text{NO}_2$
only

* Here resonance only lowers pKa by ~1 unit over the inductive effect.

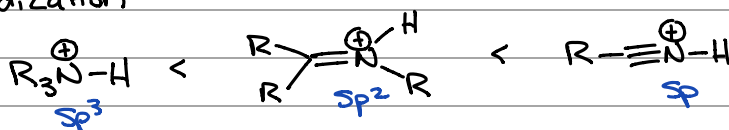
Enolates

Resonance donation lowers α -H acidity

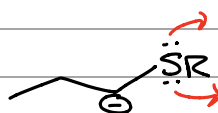
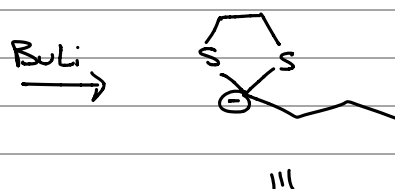
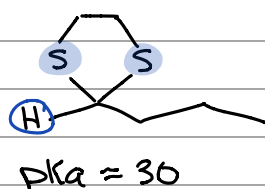
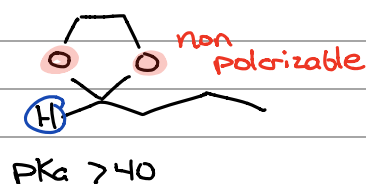
Bond Strength (i.e. atom size)



Hybridization

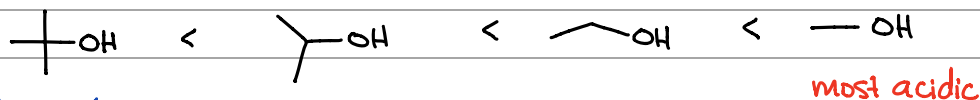


Polarizable Neighboring Atoms



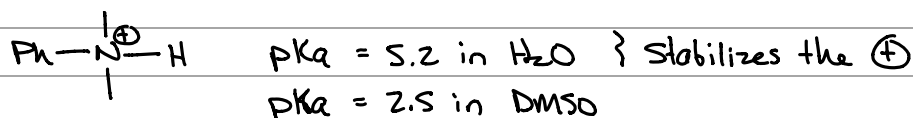
Polarizability stabilizes anions
lone pairs move out of the way

Solvation Effects

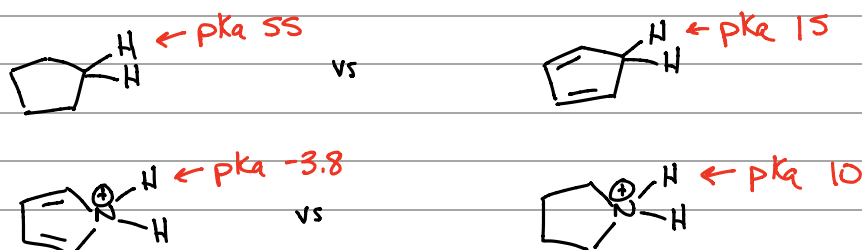


w/ the bulkier R-group it is more difficult for the solvent to make close contact to solvate and stabilize O^-

Polar Solvents stabilize charged species

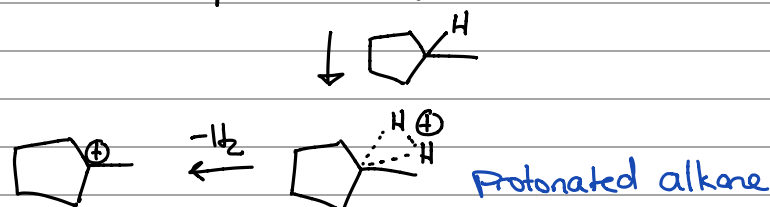
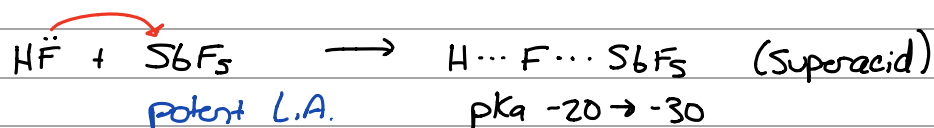
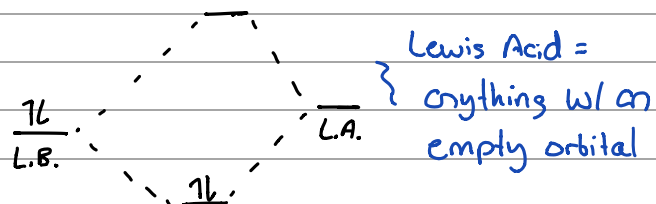


Aromaticity



Lewis Acids and Bases

$\hookrightarrow$ e⁻ pair donor
 $\hookrightarrow$ e⁻ pair acceptor

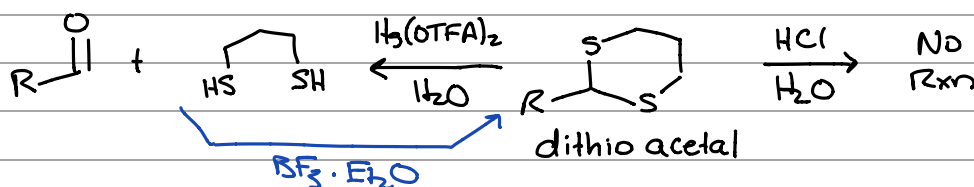
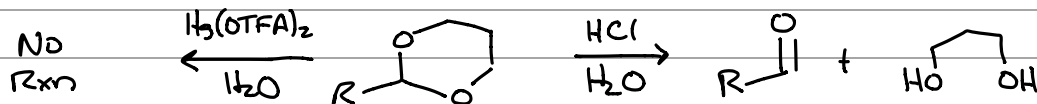


Olah
JOC 2001, 66, 5943



HSAB - Principle of Hard and Soft Acids and Bases

Consider:



* A primary example of HSAB

- Hard Lewis Acids interact best with hard Lewis bases
- Soft Lewis Acids interact best with soft Lewis bases

Related to orbital energy

$\frac{\text{H.L.}}{\text{L.B.}} \downarrow \begin{matrix} \text{Lower E} \\ = \text{Harder} \end{matrix}$	$\frac{\text{L.A.}}{\text{L.B.}} \uparrow \begin{matrix} \text{Higher E} \\ = \text{Harder} \end{matrix}$
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Salem-Klopman Eqn: $\Delta E = E_{\text{strics}} + E_{\text{electrostatics}} + E_{\text{orbital overlap}}$
 "energy change for chemical rxn"

Hard

- non-polarizable
- Primarily electrostatic attractions
- Acids: H^+ , Li^+ , BF_3 , AlCl_3
- Bases: H_2O , RO^- , ROR , NH_3

Soft

- Polarizable
- Primarily orbital mixing
- Bases: RS^- , R_2S , I^- , PPh_3 , CN^- , R^-
- Acids: I_2 , Cu^+ , Hg^+

