Free-Radical Chemistry: Structure and Mechanism:

A free radical: is any molecular species capable of independent existence that contains an **unpaired electron** in an atomic orbital.

Bond cleavage is the splitting of chemical bond: There are **two types** of bond cleavage:

1-Heterolytic cleavage: one atom gets both of the shard electrons (this cleavage is generated ionic species).

 $\mathbf{X} \underbrace{}_{\mathbf{Y}} \mathbf{Y} \underbrace{}_{\mathbf{X}} \mathbf{Y} \mathbf{Y} \underbrace{}_{\mathbf{Y}} \mathbf{Y}$

2- Homolytic cleavage: The two electrons in the bond are divided equal between the products (this cleavage is generated Free radical). Radicals are intermediates with an unpaired electron (highly reactive, short-lived species, electrophile).

$$x - Y \xrightarrow{\text{heat or light}} x + Y$$

Formation of Free Radicals: Three general methods are used for the generation of free radicals:

- 1- Thermal Generation. 2-Photochemical Generation. 3-Redox Generation.
- When R-X chiral compound, R take place at achiral carbon, racemization is almost observed because free radical (do not retain configuration).

$$R-X \longrightarrow R + X$$

Example:



- When compound is **aromatic** :

The product can be explained a **mechanism** similar to that of **electrophilic aromatic substitution**. In the **first step**, the radical Ar[·] attacks the ring in much the same way as would an electrophile or nuclophile.

Mechanism:



The reaction can terminate in **three ways**:

- a- By simple to give i.
- b-By disproportionation to give ii.
- c- If species Ar is present that abstracts hydrogen by abstraction to give iii.



Reactivity between chlorine and bromine:

Chlorine is more reactive but less selective and does not greatly distinguish between type of hydrogen, bromine less reactive but more selective.

Example:



Neighbouring Group Assistance in Free Radical Reactions:

In certain cases it has been shown that free radical reactions are accelerated by the presence of neighbouring group.

- **Optically active** 1- bromo-2-methyl butane give 1,2-dibromo-2-methyl butane with **retention of configuration**.

Example: Bromination of alkyl bromide give 84-94% substitution at the carbon adjacent to the bromine already in the molecule positions close to a polar group, such as bromine, should actually be deactivated electron withdrawing field effect of the bromine, the unusual regioselectivity is explained by a mechanism in which abstraction assisted by a neighboring bromine atom (I), Br abstract hydrogen from RH, leaving R, when abromine is present in the proper position, it assists this process giving acyclic intermediate (abridged free radical) (II).



- NBS (N-bromosuccinimide) is often used as the Br source in free radical brominations.



Radical stability:

The H atom that is removed is best allylic or benzylic (the C is attached to a C=C π bond or to a benzene ring by resonance). the order of reactivity of H atoms is stability:



radicals stabilized by functional groups

- CI, S increased stability of free radical because it's content empty orbital and resonance.

$$:$$
 Ci — CH₂ \longleftrightarrow : CI == CH₂

The e.s.r. spectra of triphenylmethyl radicals indicate that there is considerable delocalization of the unpaired electron onto the *ortho-* and *para-*positions of the phenyl rings (iii). The extent of delocalization of the unpaired electron was not, however, very much greater for triphenylmethyl radicals than for diphenylmethyl or benzyl radicals .



The stability of triphenylmethyl radicals must thus be due more to steric influences which prevent dimerization rather than delocalization of the unpaired electron. That the unpaired electron is not that much more extensively delocalized in the triphenylmethyl radical than the benzyl radical arises from the lack of coplanarity of the phenyl groups in the former.

Example:



Reactivity:

1- Reactivity for Aliphatic Substrates:

It is the abstraction step that determines which product will be formed in a chain reaction. A free radical almost always abstracts a univalent (hydrogen or halogen) and never a tetra or teracovalent atom, and seldom a divalent one.

Example: a reaction between a chlorine free radical and ethane gives an ethyl radical, not a hydrogen free radical:



The main reaction for this is steric. A univalent atom is much more exposed to attack by the incoming radical than an atom with a higher valency. Another reason is that in many cases abstraction of a univalent atom is energetically more favoured.

Group sequence in reaction with Br and Cl:

CI :more reactive ,less selective

$$MeH \swarrow MeCH_2H \swarrow (CH_3)_2CH_2 \checkmark (Me)_3CH \checkmark PhCH_3 \checkmark Ph_2CH_2 \checkmark Ph_3CH$$

Br less reactive :more selective

2- The compound containing electron withdrawing substituents:

Example: Z-CH₂CH₃ (Z = COOH, COCl, COOR, SO₂Cl or CX₃ position is attached predominantly or β) the exclusively in free radical halogenations. This is because electron withdrawing groups highly) positions. Compound like acetic acid and acetyl chloride are not attacked at α deactivate (all. This is because halogen atoms are electrophilic radicals and look for positions of high electron density. Hydrogens on carbon atoms next to the electron with drawing groups have low electron densities; therefore, the attack is avoided at this position.

3- <u>Reactivity at the bridgehead:</u>

There are many free-radical reactions which have been observed at bridge head carbons.



87%

However treatment of norbornane with sulfuryl chloride and benzoyl peroxide give mostly 2-chloronorbornane, though the bridgehead position is tertiary. Thus the final result is that while bridge head free-radical substitution is possible, it is not preferred, presumably because of the strain involved.

4- <u>Reactivity In Aromatic Substrates:</u>

Free radical substitution at an aromatic carbon seldom takes place by a mechanism in which a ring hydrogen is abstracted to give an aryl radical.

Usually the mechanism is similar to that of aromatic electrophilic and nuleophilic substitutions.



- All substituents increase reactivity at *ortho* and *para* positions as compared to that of benzene. There is no great difference between electron-donating and electron-withdrawing groups. This is because radicals are neutral species and are not influenced by the polar properties of the substrate to any significant extent. Further-more, it has been shown that both electron donating and electron-with drawing groups stabilise a free radical.

5- Reactivity of radical halogenations of alkanes:

There are two components to understanding the selectivity of radical halogenations of alkanes:

a-reactivity of R-H system:

The strength of the R-H varies slightly depending on whether the H is 1° , 2° or 3° . The following table shows the **bond dissociation energy** that is the energy required to break the bond in a homolytic fashion, generating R[•] and H[•]

Туре	R-H	kJ/mol	kcal/mol	
	CH ₃ -H	435	104	Note how the bonds get weaker as
1°	CH ₃ CH ₂ -H	410	98	also get easier to form, with 3°
2°	(CH ₃) ₂ CH-H	397	95	being the easiest.
3°	(CH ₃) ₃ C-H	265		

b-Reactivity of X[·] (Halogen radical, X[·]):

- 1-Bromine radicals are less reactive than chlorine radicals.
- 2-Br tends to be more selective in its reactions, and prefers to react with the weaker R-H bonds.
- 3- The more reactive chlorine radical is less discriminating in what it reacts with.

	Br	Cl
1°	1	1
2°	82	3.9
3°	1640	5.2

Bromination is 1640 times more likely to occur at a 3° position than 1° , chlorination is 5.2 times more likely to occur at a 3° position than 1° .

6- The effect of solvent on reactivity:

The solvent usually has little effect on free radical, but there are two types solvent which different in attack:

a-Aliphatic solvent:



b-Aromatic solvent:



This result is attributed to complex formation between the aromatic solvent and the chlorine atom that makes the chlorine more selective:



Example:



Mechanism:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} O & O \\ H & O \\ Ph - C - O - O - C \\ \end{array} \xrightarrow{II} Ph \longrightarrow 2Ph - \begin{array}{c} O \\ H \\ C \\ \end{array} \xrightarrow{O} 2Ph^{\bullet} + 2CO_2 \end{array}$$

$$Ph^{\bullet} + CHCl_{3} \longrightarrow Ph H + CCl_{3}$$

$$() + CCl_{3} \longrightarrow () + CCCl_{3} \longrightarrow () + CCl_{3} \longrightarrow () + CCCl_{3} \longrightarrow () + CCCl_{3} \longrightarrow () + CCCl_{3} \longrightarrow () + CCC$$

Example:

$$CH_3 - CH = CH_2 \xrightarrow{NBS} Br - CH_2 - CH = CH_2$$

Mechanism:



$$CH_3 - CH = CH_2 + Br \longrightarrow CH_2 - CH = CH_2 + HBr$$



$$CH_2 - CH = CH_2 + Br_2 \longrightarrow Br - CH_2 - CH = CH_2 + Br$$

Example:

$$\begin{array}{c} CH_{3}CH_{2}CH_{3} \xrightarrow{Br_{2}} CH_{3}CH_{2}CH_{2}Br \text{ and } CH_{3}CHCH_{3} \\ Propane & 3^{\circ}_{, o} & Br \\ & 97\% \end{array}$$

Mechanism:

