## Physical Properties and Acidity of Carboxylic Acids

## 1. Physical Properties of Carboxylic Acids :

The table at the beginning of this page gave the melting and boiling points for a homologous group of carboxylic acids having from one to ten carbon atoms. The boiling points increased with size in a regular manner, but the melting points did not. Unbranched acids made up of an even number of carbon atoms have melting points higher than the odd numbered homologs having one more or one less carbon. This reflects differences in intermolecular attractive forces in the crystalline state. In the table of fatty acids we see that the presence of a cis-double bond significantly lowers the melting point of a compound. Thus, palmitoleic acid melts over  $60^{\circ}$  lower than palmitic acid, and similar decreases occur for the C<sub>18</sub> and C<sub>20</sub> compounds. Again, changes in crystal packing and intermolecular forces are responsible.

The factors that influence the relative boiling points and water solubilities of various types of compounds were discussed earlier. In general, dipolar attractive forces between molecules act to increase the boiling point of a given compound, with hydrogen bonds being an extreme example. Hydrogen bonding is also a major factor in the water solubility of covalent compounds The following table lists a few examples of these properties for some similar sized polar compounds (the non-polar hydrocarbon hexane is provided for comparison).

Formula	IUPAC Name	Molecular Weight	<b>Boiling Point</b>	Water Solubility			
$CH_3(CH_2)_2CO_2H$	butanoic acid	88	164 °C	very soluble			
CH <sub>3</sub> (CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>4</sub> OH	1-pentanol	88	138 °C	slightly soluble			
CH <sub>3</sub> (CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> CHO	pentanal	86	103 °C	slightly soluble			
$CH_3CO_2C_2H_5$	ethyl ethanoate	88	77 °C	moderately soluble			
$CH_3CH_2CO_2CH_3$	methyl propanoate	88	80 °C	slightly soluble			
CH <sub>3</sub> (CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> CONH <sub>2</sub>	butanamide	87	216 °C	soluble			
CH <sub>3</sub> CON(CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	N,N-dimethylethanamide	87	165 °C	very soluble			
$CH_3(CH_2)_4NH_2$	1-aminobutane	87	103 °C	very soluble			
CH <sub>3</sub> (CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> CN	pentanenitrile	83	140 °C	slightly soluble			

## Physical Properties of Some Organic Compounds

$CH_3(CH_2)_4CH_3$ hexane	86	69 °C	insoluble
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The first five entries all have oxygen functional groups, and the relatively high boiling points of the first two is clearly due to hydrogen bonding. Carboxylic acids have exceptionally high boiling points, due in large part to dimeric associations involving two hydrogen bonds. A structural formula for the dimer of acetic acid is shown here. When the mouse pointer passes over the drawing, an electron cloud diagram will appear. The high boiling points of the amides and nitriles are due in large part to strong dipole attractions, supplemented in some cases by hydrogen bonding.



## 2. Acidity of Carboxylic Acids

The  $pK_a$  's of some typical carboxylic acids are listed in the following table. When we compare these values with those of comparable alcohols, such as ethanol ( $pK_a = 16$ ) and 2-methyl-2-propanol ( $pK_a = 19$ ), it is clear that carboxylic acids are stronger acids by over ten powers of ten! Furthermore, electronegative substituents near the carboxyl group act to increase the acidity.

Compound	pK <sub>a</sub>	Compound	pK <sub>a</sub>
HCO <sub>2</sub> H	3.75	$CH_3CH_2CH_2CO_2H$	4.82
CH <sub>3</sub> CO <sub>2</sub> H	4.74	ClCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>2</sub> H	4.53
FCH <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>2</sub> H	2.65	CH <sub>3</sub> CHClCH <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>2</sub> H	4.05
ClCH <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>2</sub> H	2.85	CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CHClCO <sub>2</sub> H	2.89
BrCH <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>2</sub> H	2.90	$C_6H_5CO_2H$	4.20
ICH <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>2</sub> H	3.10	$p-O_2NC_6H_4CO_2H$	3.45
Cl <sub>3</sub> CCO <sub>2</sub> H	0.77	p-CH <sub>3</sub> OC <sub>6</sub> H <sub>4</sub> CO <sub>2</sub> H	4.45

Why should the presence of a carbonyl group adjacent to a hydroxyl group have such a profound effect on the acidity of the hydroxyl proton? To answer this question we must return to the nature of acid-base equilibria and the definition of  $pK_a$ , illustrated by the general equations given below. These relationships were described in an previous section of this text.

$$H-A + H_{2}O \iff H_{3}O^{\oplus} + A^{\oplus} \qquad K_{eq} = \frac{[H_{3}O^{\oplus}][A^{\oplus}]}{[HA][H_{2}O]}$$
$$K_{a} = \frac{[H_{3}O^{\oplus}][A^{\oplus}]}{[HA]} \qquad pK_{a} = -\log K_{a} = \log \left(\frac{1}{K_{a}}\right)$$

We know that an equilibrium favors the thermodynamically more stable side, and that the magnitude of the equilibrium constant reflects the energy difference between the components of each side. In an acid base equilibrium the equilibrium always favors the weaker acid and base (these are the more stable components). Water is the standard base used for  $pK_a$  measurements; consequently, anything that stabilizes the conjugate base (A:<sup>(-)</sup>) of an acid will necessarily make that acid (H–A) stronger and shift the equilibrium to the right. Both the carboxyl group and the carboxylate anion are stabilized by resonance, but the stabilization of the anion is much greater than that of the neutral function, as shown in the following diagram. In the carboxylate anion the two contributing structures have equal weight in the hybrid, and the C–O bonds are of equal length (between a double and a single bond). This stabilization leads to a markedly increased acidity, as illustrated by the energy diagram displayed by clicking the "Toggle Display" button.



The resonance effect described here is undoubtedly the major contributor to the exceptional acidity of carboxylic acids. However, inductive effects also play a role. For example, alcohols have pK<sub>a</sub>'s of 16 or greater but their acidity is increased by electron withdrawing substituents on the alkyl group. The following diagram illustrates this factor for several simple inorganic and organic compounds (row #1), and shows how inductive electron withdrawal may also increase the acidity of carboxylic acids (rows #2 & 3). The acidic hydrogen is colored red in all examples.



Water is less acidic than hydrogen peroxide because hydrogen is less electronegative than oxygen, and the covalent bond joining these atoms is polarized in the manner shown. Alcohols are slightly less acidic than water, due to the poor electronegativity of carbon, but chloral hydrate, CI<sub>3</sub>CCH(OH)<sub>2</sub>, and 2,2,2,-trifluoroethanol are significantly more acidic than water, due to inductive electron withdrawal by the electronegative halogens (and the second oxygen in chloral hydrate). In the case of carboxylic acids, if the electrophilic character of the carbonyl carbon is decreased the acidity of the carboxylic acid will also decrease. Similarly, an increase in its electrophilicity will increase the acidity of the acid. Acetic acid is ten times weaker an acid than formic acid (first two entries in the second row), confirming the electron donating character of an alkyl group relative to hydrogen, as noted earlier in a discussion of carbocation stability. Electronegative substituents increase acidity by inductive electron withdrawal. As expected, the higher the electronegativity of the substituent the greater the increase in acidity (F > CI > Br > I), and the closer the substituent is to the carboxyl group the greater is its effect (isomers in the 3rd row). Substituents also influence the acidity of benzoic acid derivatives, but resonance effects compete with inductive effects. The methoxy group is electron donating and the nitro group is electron withdrawing (last three entries in the table of pK<sub>a</sub> values).

Source : http://www2.chemistry.msu.edu/faculty/reusch/VirtTxtJml/ crbacid1.htm#crbacd1