

Nitrogen Compounds

01 · AMINES — BASICITY

The nitrogen lone pair accepts a proton, so amines are bases: $\text{RNH}_2 + \text{HCl} \rightarrow \text{RNH}_3^+\text{Cl}^-$.

Strength order: alkylamine > ammonia > phenylamine. Alkyl groups **release** electrons, making the lone pair more available; in phenylamine the lone pair is delocalised into the ring, so it is far less available.

02 · MAKING AMINES

From a halogenoalkane

$\text{RBr} + \text{excess NH}_3$ in ethanol, sealed tube, heat $\rightarrow$ RNH_2
Excess ammonia limits further substitution.

From a nitrile

$\text{RCN} + 4[\text{H}] \rightarrow \text{RCH}_2\text{NH}_2 \cdot \text{LiAlH}_4$ or H_2/Ni

Phenylamine from nitrobenzene

$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{NO}_2 + 6[\text{H}] \rightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{NH}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
Sn and concentrated HCl, reflux, then NaOH.

03 · REACTIONS OF AMINES

As a **base** with acids to give salts; as a **nucleophile** with halogenoalkanes and with acyl chlorides, giving N-substituted amides.

Phenylamine gives a white precipitate with bromine water without a catalyst — the $-\text{NH}_2$ activates the ring.

04 · AMIDES

RCONH_2 . The nitrogen lone pair is delocalised onto the $\text{C}=\text{O}$, so amides are **neutral, not basic** — a favourite exam contrast with amines.

Hydrolysis: with dilute HCl under reflux $\rightarrow$ carboxylic acid + NH_4^+ ; with NaOH(aq) $\rightarrow$ carboxylate salt + NH_3 . Reduction with LiAlH_4 gives an amine.

05 · NITRILES

$\text{RC}\equiv\text{N}$. Made from a halogenoalkane with KCN in ethanol, or from a carbonyl with HCN — both **add one carbon** to the chain.

Hydrolysis with dilute acid under reflux gives a carboxylic acid; **reduction** with LiAlH_4 or H_2/Ni gives a primary amine. That makes nitriles the hinge of most chain-lengthening routes.

06 · AMINO ACIDS

$\text{RCH}(\text{NH}_2)\text{COOH}$ — one basic and one acidic group in the same molecule. All except glycine have a chiral carbon, so they are optically active.

In the solid and at intermediate pH they exist as a **zwitterion**, $^+\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{CHR}-\text{COO}^-$, which is why they have high melting points and dissolve in water rather than in organic solvents.

07 · AMINO ACIDS AND PH

Low pH — the $-\text{COO}^-$ takes H^+

$^+\text{H}_3\text{N}-\text{CHR}-\text{COOH}$ · a cation, moves to the cathode

Isoelectric point — the zwitterion, no net charge, does not move

High pH — the $^+\text{H}_3\text{N}-$ loses H^+

$\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{CHR}-\text{COO}^-$ · an anion, moves to the anode

This is the basis of electrophoresis.

08 · PEPTIDES AND PROTEINS

Two amino acids join by **condensation**, losing water and forming a **peptide (amide) link** — $\text{CONH}-$. Two amino acids can give two different dipeptides depending on which $-\text{NH}_2$ reacts.

Hydrolysis with 6 mol dm^{-3} HCl under reflux for several hours breaks a protein back into its amino acids, which are then separated by chromatography or electrophoresis.

09 · PROTEIN STRUCTURE

Primary — the sequence of amino acids, held by peptide bonds.

Secondary — α -helix or β -pleated sheet, held by hydrogen bonds between $\text{C}=\text{O}$ and $\text{N}-\text{H}$.

Tertiary — the overall fold, held by hydrogen bonds, ionic attractions between side chains, London forces and disulfide bridges. Heat or extremes of pH break these and denature the protein.

10 · WORKED EXAMPLE — DEDUCE THE ROUTE

Convert bromoethane into propylamine.

The product has one more carbon, so go through a nitrile.

- 1 · KCN in ethanol, reflux $\rightarrow$ propanenitrile
- 2 · LiAlH_4 in dry ether (or H_2/Ni) $\rightarrow$ propylamine

Reacting bromoethane with ammonia directly would give ethylamine — the same number of carbons, so it fails.

11 · EQUATIONS TO KNOW

$\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{Br} + 2\text{NH}_3 \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{NH}_2 + \text{NH}_4\text{Br}$

$\text{CH}_3\text{CN} + 4[\text{H}] \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{NH}_2$

$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{NO}_2 + 6[\text{H}] \rightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{NH}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$

$\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{NH}_2 + \text{HCl} \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{NH}_3^+\text{Cl}^-$

$\text{CH}_3\text{CONH}_2 + \text{HCl} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{COOH} + \text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$

$\text{CH}_3\text{CONH}_2 + \text{NaOH} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{COONa} + \text{NH}_3$

$\text{CH}_3\text{CN} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{HCl} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{COOH} + \text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$

12 · COMPARING THE NITROGEN GROUPS

Group	Lone pair	Behaviour
alkylamine	available	strong base
ammonia	available	base
phenylamine	into the ring	weak base
amide	onto the $\text{C}=\text{O}$	neutral

Every one of these follows from a single question: how available is the nitrogen lone pair?

MARKS LOST HERE

— Calling amides basic; the lone pair is delocalised onto the carbonyl.

— Explaining phenylamine's weakness without mentioning delocalisation into the ring.

— Drawing an amino acid as the neutral form when the question asks for the solid or the isoelectric point.

— Forgetting that alkaline hydrolysis of an amide releases ammonia, not the ammonium salt.