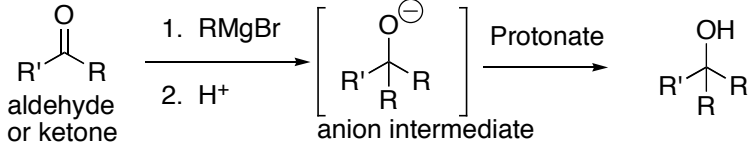
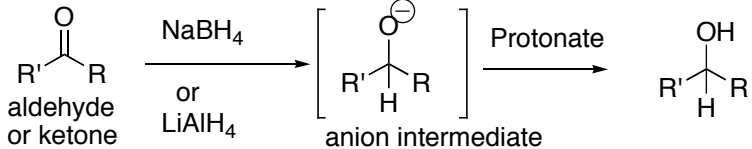
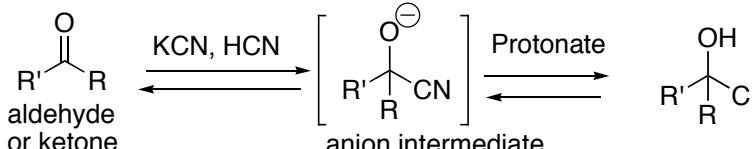
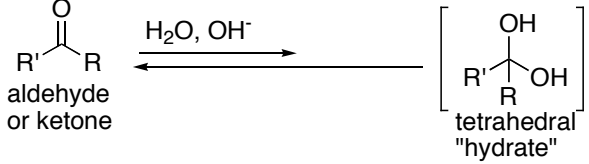
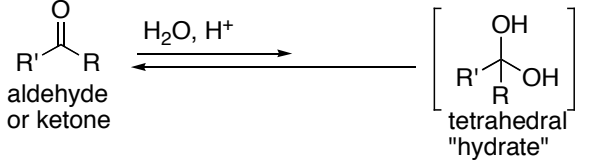


## Synthesis of Ketones and Aldehydes

1	$\text{Ph-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-OH} \xrightarrow{\text{PCC}} \text{Ph-CH}_2\text{-CHO}$	11.2
2	$\text{Ph-CH(OH)-CH}_3 \xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{CrO}_4} \text{Ph-CO-CH}_3$	11.2
3	$\text{Ph-CH=CH}_2 \xrightarrow[2. \text{NaOH, H}_2\text{O}_2]{1. \text{BH}_3\cdot\text{THF}} \text{Ph-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-OH} \xrightarrow{\text{PCC}} \text{Ph-CH}_2\text{-CHO}$	8.7
4	$\text{Ph-CH=CH}_2 \xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{O, H}^+} \text{Ph-CH(OH)-CH}_3 \xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{CrO}_4} \text{Ph-CO-CH}_3$	8.4
5	$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH=CH}_2 \xrightarrow[2. \text{Me}_2\text{S}]{1. \text{O}_3} \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CO-CH}_3 + \text{CH}_2=\text{O}$	8.15
6	$\text{Ph-CHO} \xrightarrow[2. \text{H}^+]{1. \text{RMgBr}} \text{Ph-CH(OH)-R} \xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{CrO}_4} \text{Ph-CO-R}$ Aldehyde Ketone	10.9
7	$\text{Ph-CO-OR} \xrightarrow[2. \text{H}^+]{1. \text{LiAlH}_4} \text{Ph-CH}_2\text{-OH} \xrightarrow{\text{PCC}} \text{Ph-CHO}$ acid or ester aldehyde	10.11
8	$\text{R-CH}_2\text{-Br} \xrightarrow{\text{NaOH}} \text{R-CH}_2\text{-OH} \xrightarrow{\text{PCC}} \text{R-CHO}$	6.8
9	$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH(Br)CH}_3 \xrightarrow{\text{NaOH}} \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH(OH)CH}_3 \xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{CrO}_4} \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CO-CH}_3$	6.8
10	$\text{Ph-C}\equiv\text{C-H} \xrightarrow[\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4]{\text{Hg}^{2+}, \text{H}_2\text{O}} \left[ \text{Ph-C(OH)=CH}_2 \right] \xrightarrow{\text{H}^+, \text{H}_2\text{O}} \text{Ph-CO-CH}_3$ Markovnikov Addition <b>MECH</b> Ketone	9.9F
11	$\text{Ph-C}\equiv\text{C-H} \xrightarrow[2. \text{NaOH, H}_2\text{O}_2]{1. (\text{Sia})_2\text{BH}} \left[ \text{Ph-CH(OH)-CH}_2\text{-OH} \right] \xrightarrow[\text{MECH}]{\text{OH}^-, \text{H}_2\text{O}} \text{Ph-CH}_2\text{-CHO}$ Anti-Markovnikov Addition Aldehyde	9.9F

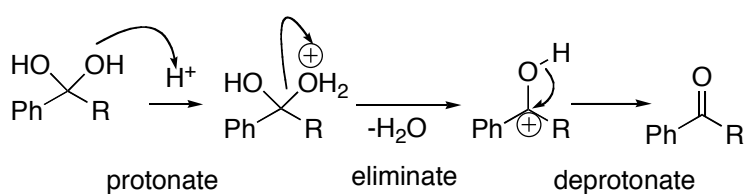
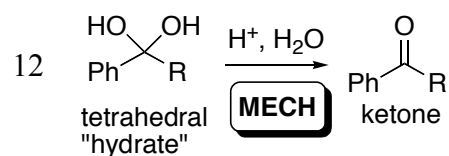
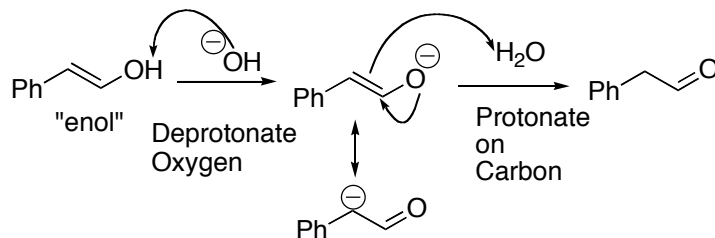
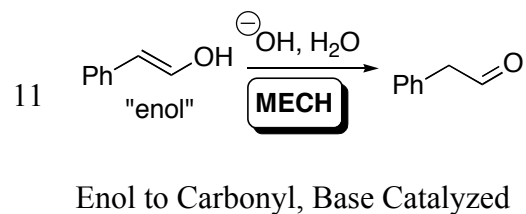
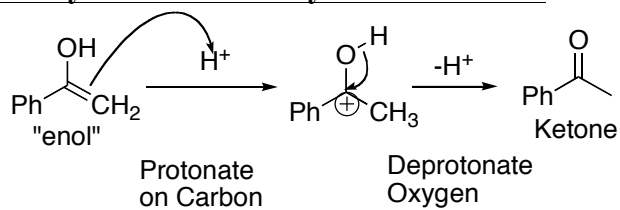
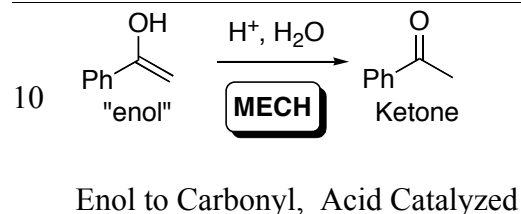
12	$\text{Ph}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}{\text{C}}-\text{OH} \xrightarrow[2. \text{H}^+, \text{H}_2\text{O}]{1. 2 \text{RLi}} \left[ \text{Ph}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}{\text{C}}-\text{OLi} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{acid}} \left[ \text{Ph}-\overset{\text{LiO}}{\underset{\text{OLi}}{\text{C}}}-\text{R} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{acid}} \left[ \text{Ph}-\overset{\text{HO}}{\underset{\text{OH}}{\text{C}}}-\text{R} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{H}^+, \text{H}_2\text{O}} \text{Ph}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}{\text{C}}-\text{R}$ <p>acid carboxylate anion tetrahedral dianion tetrahedral "hydrate" MECH ketone</p>	18.9
13	$\text{Ph}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}{\text{C}}-\text{Cl} \xrightarrow{\text{R}_2\text{CuLi}} \text{Ph}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}{\text{C}}-\text{R}$ <p>acid chloride ketone</p>	18.11
14	$\text{H}-\text{C}_6\text{H}_4 \xrightarrow[\text{AlCl}_3]{\text{R}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}{\text{C}}-\text{Cl}} \text{R}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}{\text{C}}-\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$ <p>Aromatic ketone (from the aryl group's perspective)</p> $\text{R}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}{\text{C}}-\text{Cl} \xrightarrow{\text{Ar-H}, \text{AlCl}_3} \text{R}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}{\text{C}}-\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$ <p>acid chloride Aromatic ketone (from the acyl group's perspective)</p>	18.11
15	$\text{Ph}-\text{CN} \xrightarrow[2. \text{H}^+, \text{H}_2\text{O}]{1. \text{RMgBr}} \left[ \text{Ph}-\overset{\text{R}}{\underset{\text{N}^-}{\text{C}}} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{H}^+} \left[ \text{Ph}-\overset{\text{R}}{\underset{\text{NH}}{\text{C}}} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{H}^+, \text{H}_2\text{O}} \left[ \text{Ph}-\overset{\text{R}}{\underset{\text{HO}-\text{NH}_2}{\text{C}}} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{H}^+, \text{H}_2\text{O}} \text{Ph}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}{\text{C}}-\text{R}$ <p>Nitrile "imine" tetrahedral "aminol" MECH MECH ketone</p>	18.10
16	$\text{Ph}-\text{CH}_2-\text{Br} \xrightarrow[3. \text{H}^+, \text{H}_2\text{O}]{1. \text{KCN}} \text{Ph}-\text{CH}_2-\text{CN} \xrightarrow{\text{Steps 2 + 3}} \text{Ph}-\text{CH}_2-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}{\text{C}}-\text{R}$ <p>Primary Bromide Nitrile Intermediate (after step 1)</p>	18.10

## Reactions of Ketones and Aldehydes

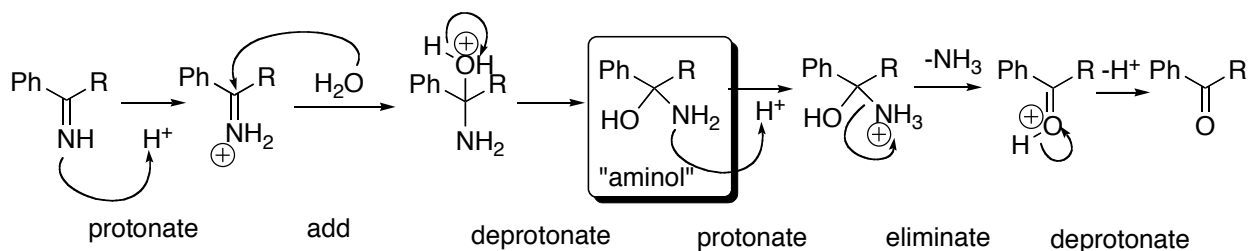
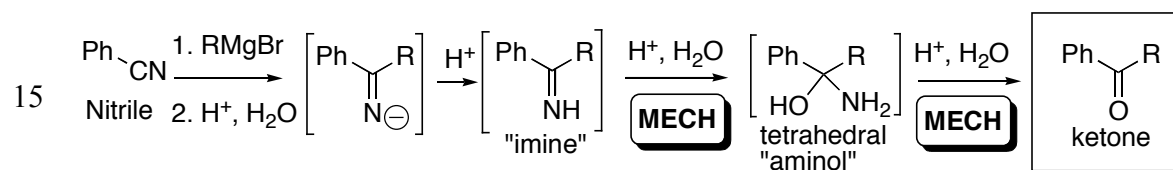
19	 <p>aldehyde or ketone</p> <p><b>Anionic</b> Mech: Addition-Protonation. Strong nucleophile, Strongly anionic. Irreversible.</p>	18.12, 10.9
20	 <p>aldehyde or ketone</p> <p><b>Anionic</b> Mech: Addition-Protonation. Strong nucleophile, Strongly anionic. Irreversible.</p>	18.12, 10.11
21	 <p>aldehyde or ketone</p> <p><b>Anionic</b> Mech: Addition-Protonation. Medium nucleophile, Weakly anionic; literally buffered. Reversible.</p>	18.15
22	 <p>aldehyde or ketone</p> <p><b>Anionic</b> Mech Forward: Addition-Protonation. Nucleophile, anionic mechanism. Reversible. Mech Reverse: Deprotonation-Elimination. Anionic mechanism. Reversible.</p> <p>"Hydrates" are present only as transient equilibrium species. They never form to 100% and are never isolable. Always in equilibrium with their aldehyde or ketone.</p>	18.14
23	 <p>aldehyde or ketone</p> <p><b>Cationic</b> Mech Forward: Protonation-Addition-deprotonation. Weakly nucleophile, cationic mechanism. Reversible. Mech Reverse: Protonation-Elimination-deprotonation. Cationic E1-type mechanism. Reversible.</p> <p>"Hydrates" are present only as transient equilibrium species. They never form to 100% and are never isolable. Always in equilibrium with their aldehyde or ketone.</p>	18.14

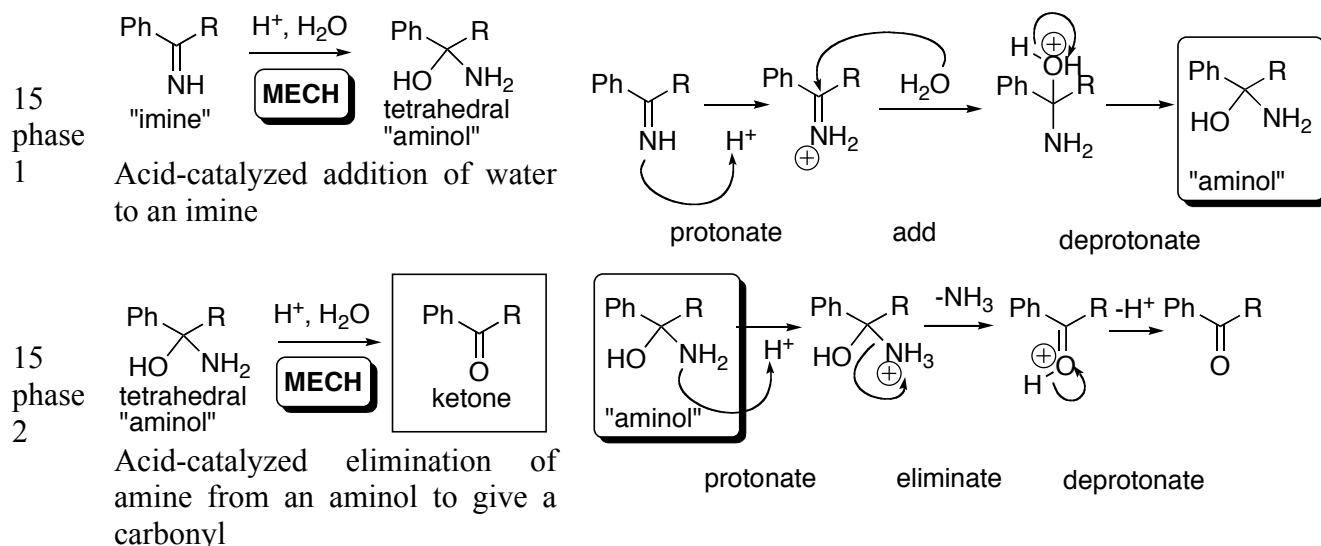
24	<div style="text-align: center;"> <p>aldehyde or ketone</p> <p>tetrahedral "hemiacetal"</p> <p>acetal</p> </div> <p><b>Cationic</b></p> <p>Mech Forward: Protonation-Addition-deprotonation (hemiacetal) Protonation-elimination-addition-deprotonation (acetal). Weak nucleophile, cationic mechanism. Reversible.</p> <p>Mech Reverse: Protonation-Elimination-Addition-deprotonation. (hemiacetal) protonation-elimination-deprotonation (aldehyde or ketone). Reversible.</p> <p>Notes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reactions are reversible</li> <li>• The "hemiacetal" is an intermediate, and can never be isolated</li> <li>• The acetal <u>can</u> be isolated.</li> <li>• Equilibrium considerations (LeChatelier's principle) apply. When water is plentiful, things go to the left. When water is scarce or removed, and alcohol is abundant, things drive to the right.</li> <li>• Use H<sub>2</sub>O/H<sup>+</sup> to hydrolyze an acetal back to an aldehyde or ketone</li> <li>• Use MeOH/H<sup>+</sup> to convert an aldehyde to an acetal</li> <li>• Use HOCH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>OH/H<sup>+</sup> to convert a ketone to an acetal</li> <li>• Aldehydes or ketones can be temporarily "protected" as their acetals, then later "deprotected" by hydrolysis</li> </ul>	18.18, 18.19
25	<div style="text-align: center;"> <p>aldehyde or ketone</p> <p>tetrahedral "aminol"</p> <p>imine</p> </div> <p><b>Cationic</b></p> <p>Mech Forward: Protonation-Addition-deprotonation (aminol) Protonation-elimination- deprotonation (imine). Mild nucleophile, cationic mechanism, buffered conditions. Reversible. Note: sometimes addition precedes protonation, or is concerted with protonation.</p> <p>Mech Reverse: Protonation-Addition-deprotonation (aminol) Protonation-elimination- deprotonation (aldehyde or ketone). Reversible.</p> <p>Notes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• "Z" can be a carbon, nitrogen, oxygen, or hydrogen atom/group.</li> <li>• The "aminol" can't be isolated, it's only present at equilibrium.</li> </ul> <p>Equilibrium factors apply. Water drives to the carbonyl side; removal of water drives to the imine side.</p>	18.16, 18.17

26	$\text{R}'\text{C}(=\text{O})\text{H} \xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{CrO}_4 \text{ or } \text{Ag}^+ \text{ etc.}} \text{R}'\text{C}(=\text{O})\text{OH}$ <p>No Mech Responsibility “Tollens test” is a common chemical test for aldehydes. <math>\text{Ag}^+</math> undergoes redox reaction with aldehydes to produce shiny Ag metal, or a “silver mirror”.</p>	18.20
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**Ch. 18 Mechanisms****Some New Mechanisms Associated with the Syntheses of Aldehydes and Ketones**

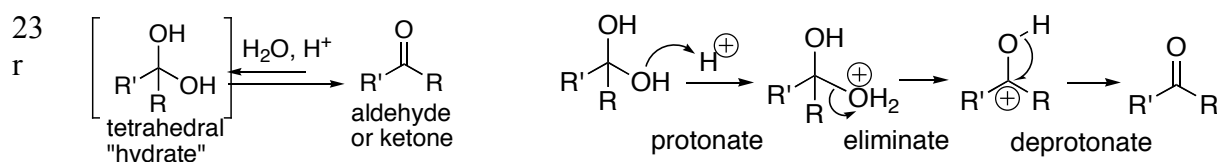
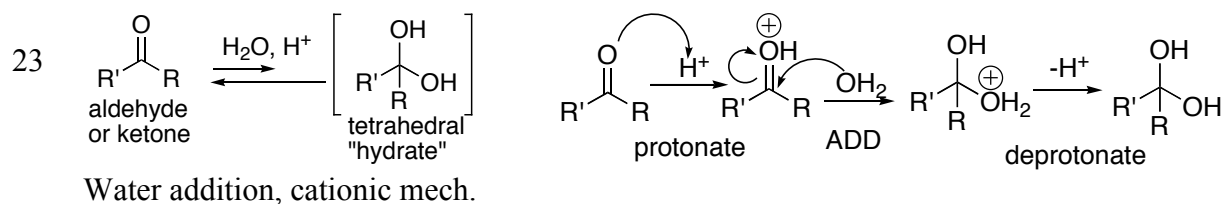
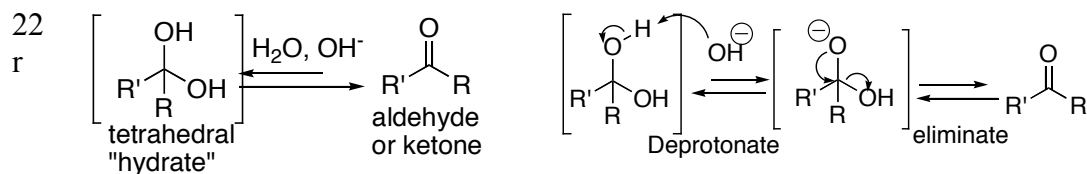
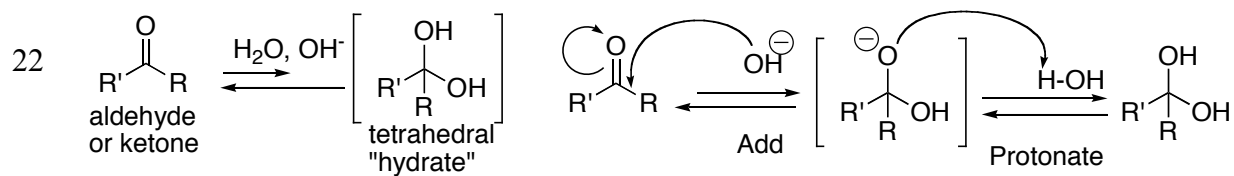
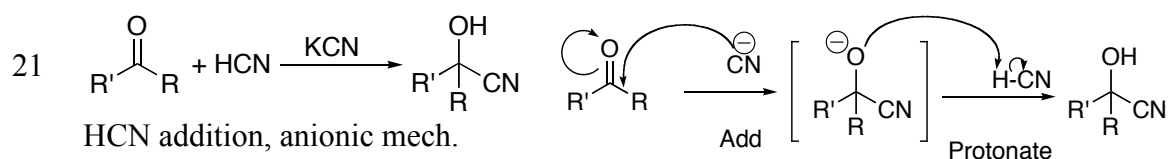
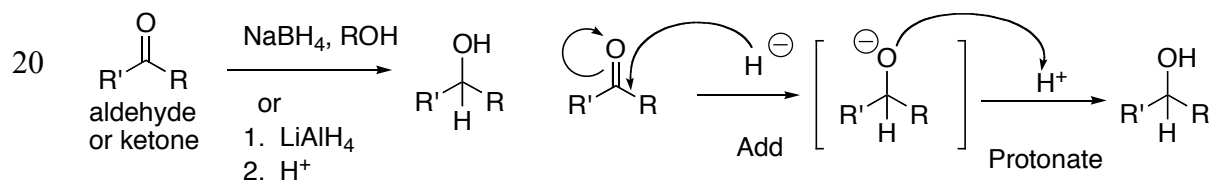
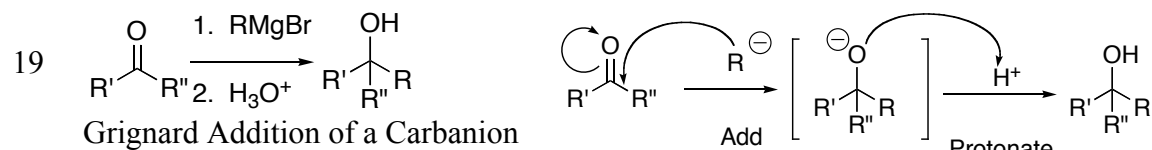
Acid-catalyzed elimination of a hydrate to a carbonyl





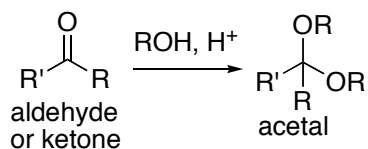
### Review: Several Pertinent Mechanistic Principles

- Recognize anionic mechanisms** (when a strong anion is involved)
  - In an anionic mechanism, a strong anion will drive the first step
  - In an anionic mechanism, intermediates should avoid positive charges
  - Recognize anionic species even when they are disguised by a cationic metal counterion.
- Recognize cationic mechanisms**
  - Recipes that involve acid will be cationic
  - In a cationic mechanism, the first step will routinely involve protonation
  - In a cationic mechanism, the last step will frequently involve deprotonation to return to neutral
  - Normally the main step or steps are sandwiched in between the protonation and deprotonation events
- Focus on bonds made and broken
- Draw in hydrogens on carbons whose bonding changes
- Keep track of lone pairs on reacting centers (in your head if not on paper)
- Always draw in formal charges where appropriate
- Arrows show electron flow, from giver to receiver
- A good mechanism illustrates not only where electrons go as bonds change, but also the timing of bond changes. Avoid drawing bond changes that occur at different times as if they occur in the same step, i.e. as if they were concerted.

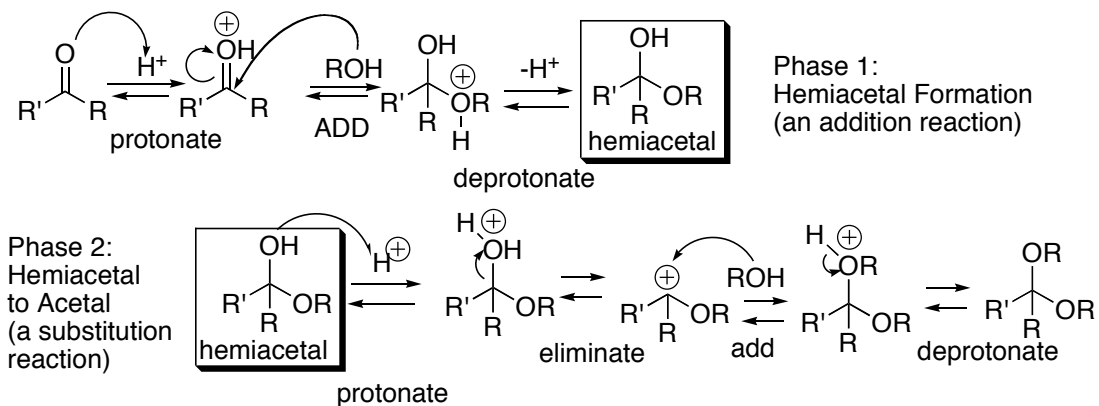
**Some Mechanisms Associated with the Reactions of Aldehydes and Ketones**



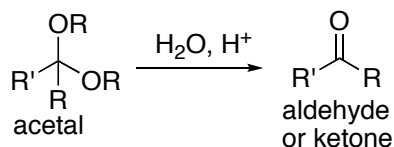
24



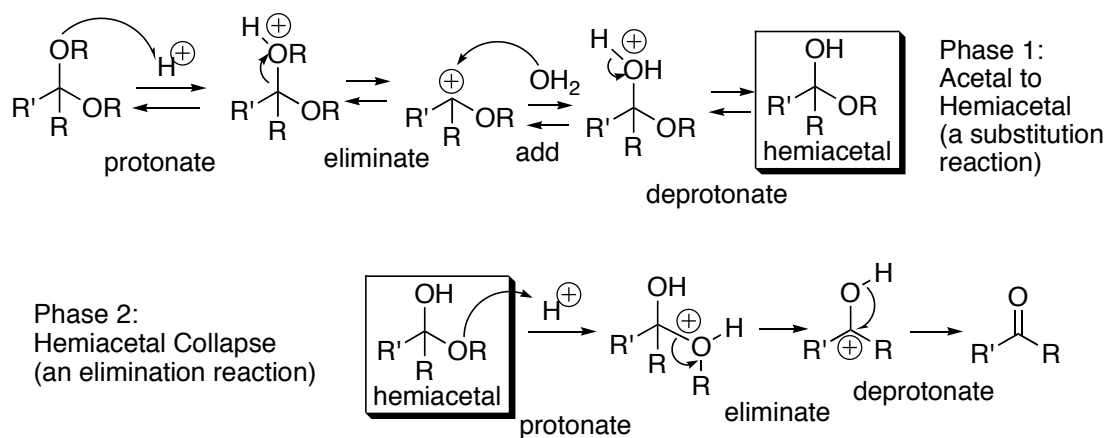
Acetal formation

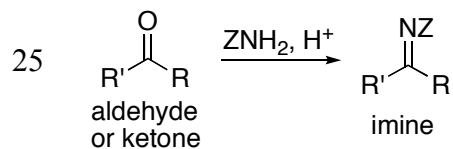


24r

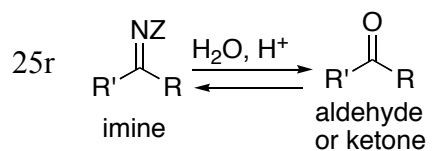
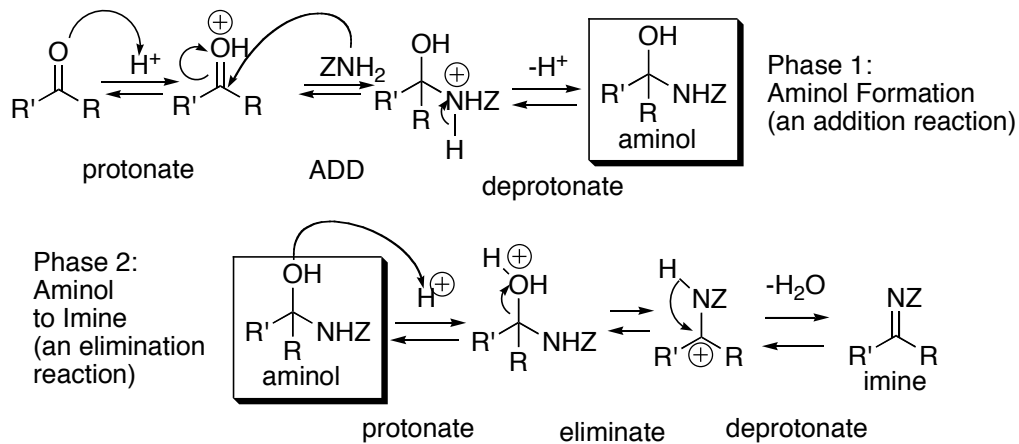


Acetal hydrolysis.

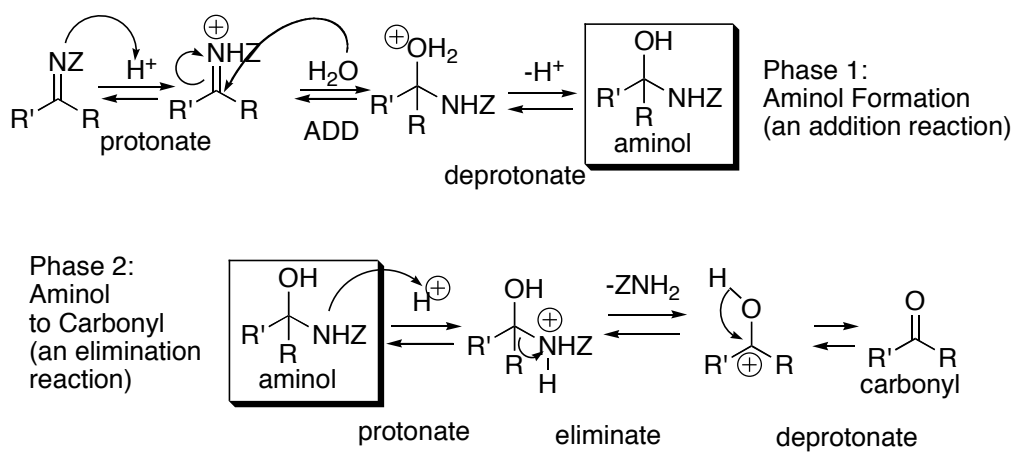




## Imine Formation

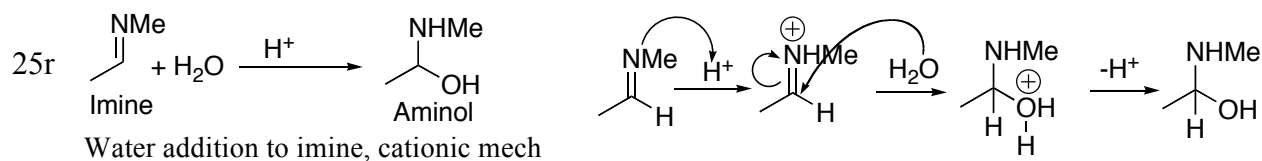
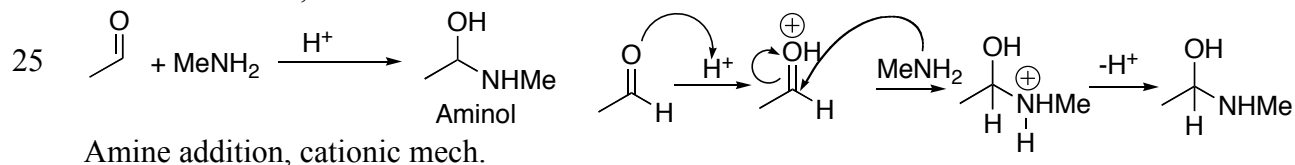
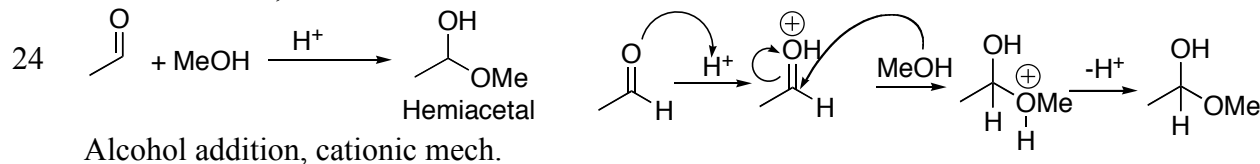
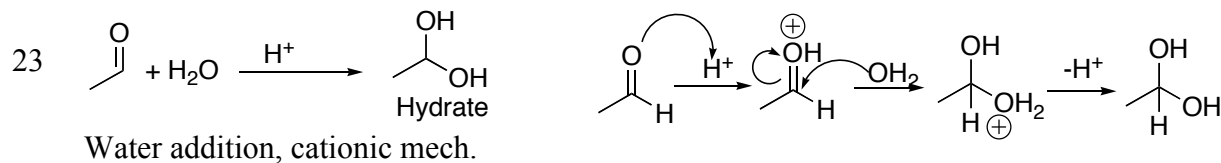
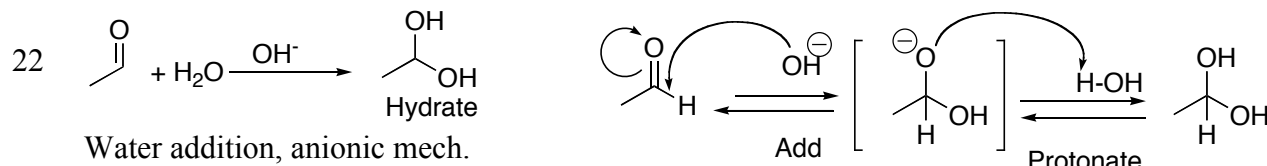
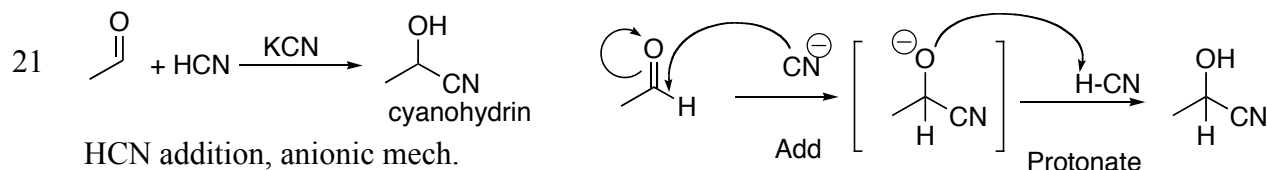
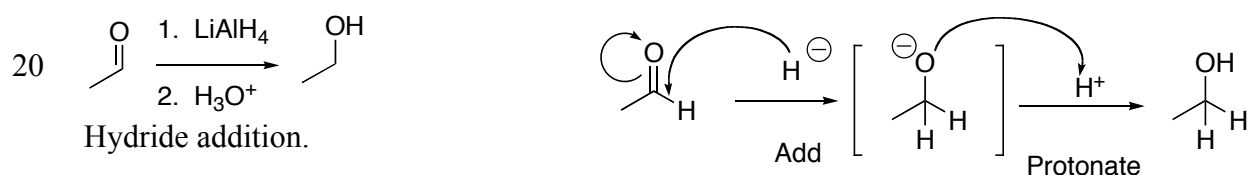
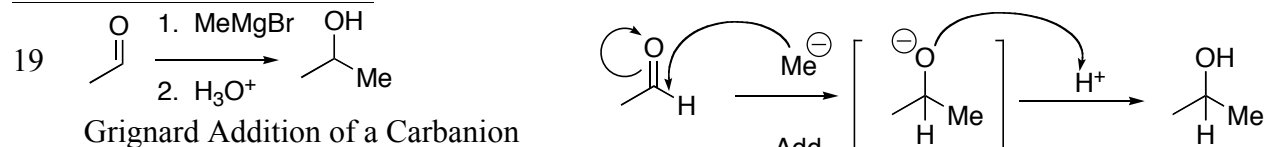


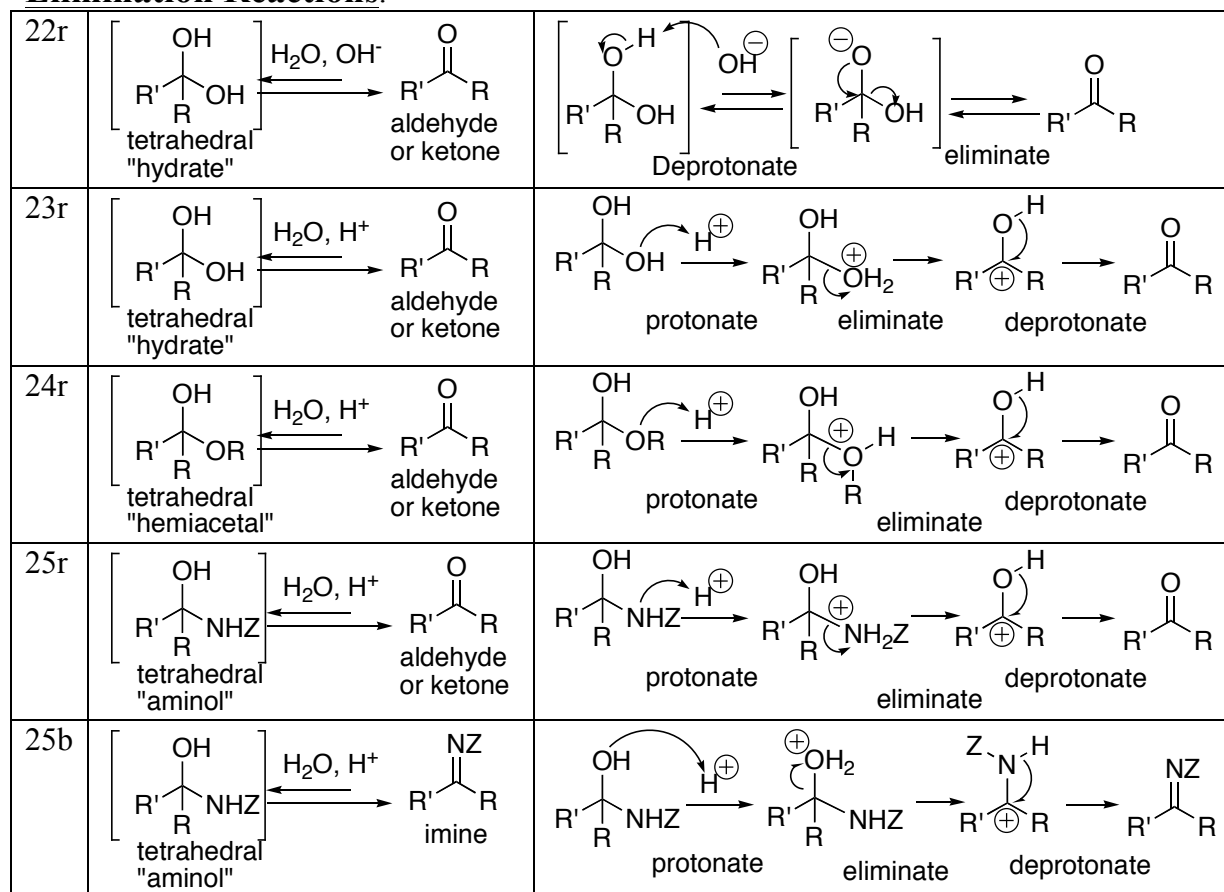
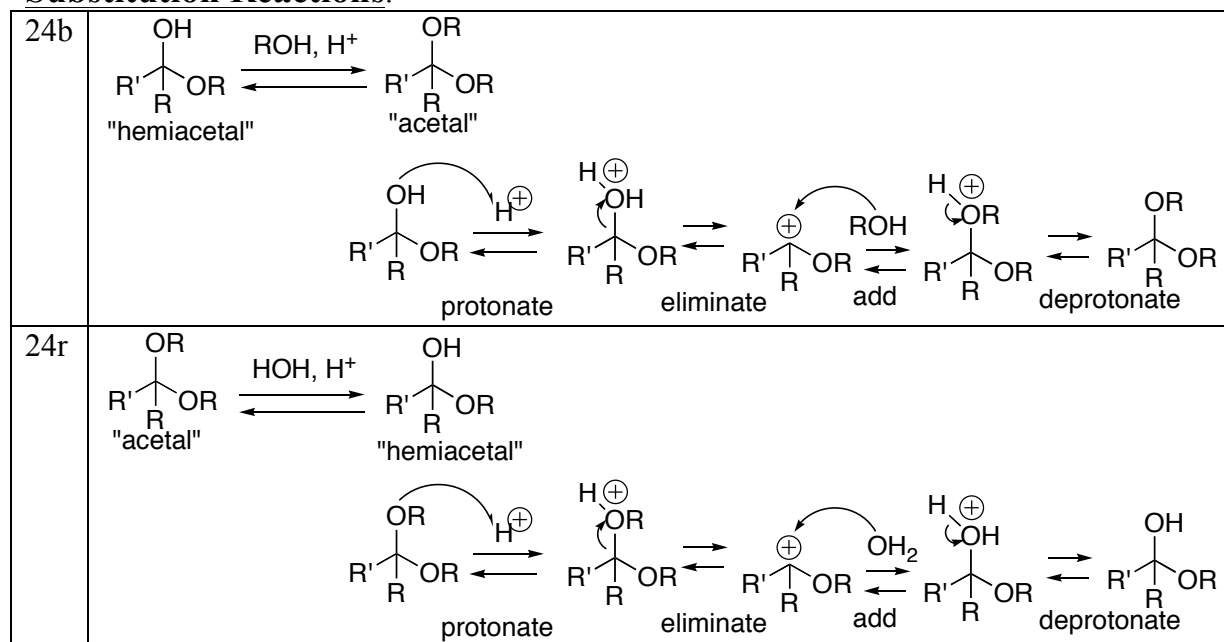
## Imine Hydrolysis



**Classification of Mechanisms Associated With Ketone/Aldehyde Reactions.**

- There may seem to be a dizzying number of mechanisms this chapter. But all of them simplify into some combination of acid- or base-catalyzed **addition reaction**, **elimination reaction** and/or **substitution reaction**.
- To predict what product forms that can be isolated, you will need to know when an addition is all that happens, and when an addition is followed by elimination or substitution.
- Many reactions are reversible, and are controlled by equilibrium principles, so you ought to be able to go in either direction.
- The sequencing of many of the mechanistic steps is dependent on whether you are under acidic (cationic) conditions or basic (anionic) conditions.

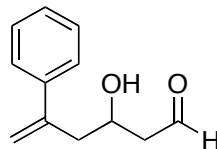
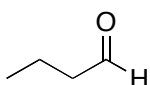
**ADDITION REACTIONS.**

**Elimination Reactions.****Substitution Reactions.**

**A. Nomenclature (Section 18-3)**

## 1. Aldehydes:

## a. IUPAC: Alkanal



- Note: carbonyl takes precedence over alcohols (hydroxy), aromatics, alkenes, halides.
- Aldehyde carbon is always #1, so needs no number (don't forget to count that carbon!)

## b. Aldehydes are often written as RCHO



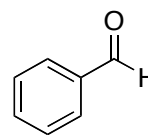
## c. Common Names: (Memorize)



Formaldehyde



Acetaldehyde

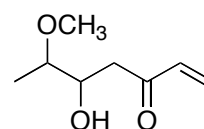
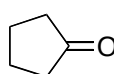
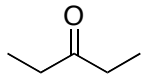
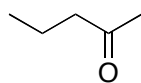


Benzaldehyde

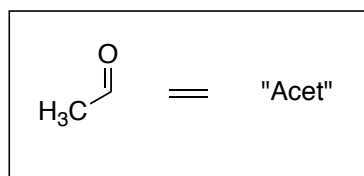
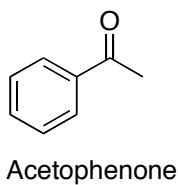
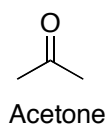
## 2. Ketones:

## a. IUPAC: alkan-x-one

Need number, remember to number!!



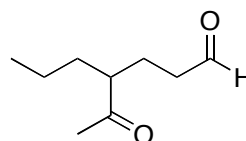
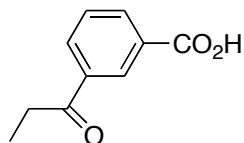
## b. Common Names: (Memorize)



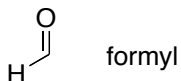
Acetone  
 Acetophenone  
 Acetaldehyde  
 Acetic Acid  
 Acetic Anhydride

3. Carbonyls as Substituents: **Alkanoyl**

- needed when there are higher priority functional groups present, such as carboxylic acids
- alkanoyl assumes the carbonyl is on the 1<sup>st</sup>, connecting carbon of the alkyl substituent
- Not for test: (x-oxoalkyl) when the carbonyl is not on the connecting carbon.



Common Names:



formyl



acetyl

**B. General Review of Basic Nomenclature Principles**

1. **Core name versus Substituents.** Which part of the molecule can be included in the core name, and which parts need to be treated as substituents?
2. **Ranking of Functional Group Priority.**
  - when 2 or more functional groups are present, the priority functional group is included in the core name, and the core numbering is based on the priority group
  - Many common names incorporate two functional groups (benzoic acid, phenol, etc..)

			OH	NH <sub>2</sub>	Aryl	Alkene
Families	Acids Esters	Ketones Aldehydes				
Core Name	Alkanoic acids	alkanal alkan- <b>x-one</b>	alkan- <b>x-ol</b>	alkan- <b>x-amine</b>		alk- <b>x-ene</b>
Substituent		alkanoyl or (x-oxoalkyl)	hydroxy	amino	Phenyl	

3. **Remember Descriptors**

- Position of functional groups
- Position of substituents
- Stereochemical descriptors (cis/trans, E/Z, R/S)

4. **Punctuation**


- Hyphenate numbers and stereochemical descriptors
- Parenthesize stereochemical descriptors: (R)/(S), (E)/(Z)
- Do not put any spaces for molecular-style names
- Do put spaces for ionic style names

Ionic style:

NaCl:

PhCO<sub>2</sub>H:PhCO<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>3</sub>

**C. Properties of Carbonyls (Sections 18.2, 4)**

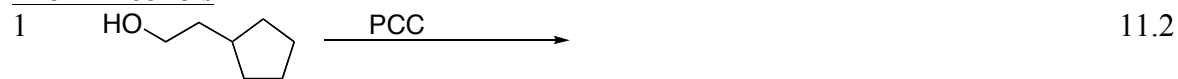
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Strongly polar</li> <li>• <math>sp^2</math>, flat, <math>\sim 120^\circ</math> angles</li> <li>• Can H-bond water (impacting water solubility)</li> <li>• But cannot H-bond self (impacting boiling point)</li> </ul>
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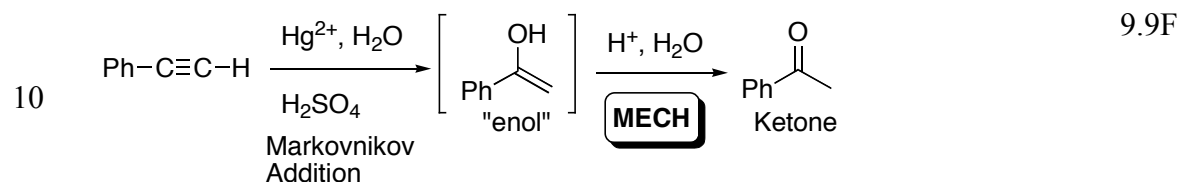
For molecules of similar weight:

1. Boiling Point: Alcohols (H-bonding)  $\gggg$  ketones (polar)  $>$  ethers (less polar)  $>$  alkanes (nonpolar)
  - Large difference between alcohols and ketones because of H-bonding
2. Water solubility: Alcohols  $>$  ketones  $>$  ethers  $\gggg$  alkanes (nonpolar)
  - The difference between alcohols and ketones is much smaller, since both can H-bond to water's hydrogens

**(Section 18-6) Many Ketones and Aldehydes have Famous, Nice Smells**

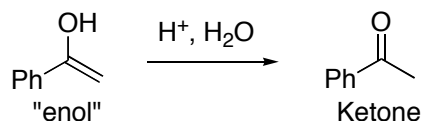
- Vanilla, almond extract, cinnamon, spearmint, pistachio, butter, camphor, etc.

**D. Synthesis of Ketones/Aldehydes: Review Routes, Handout Reactions 1-9 (Sections 18.7 and earlier book sections)****From Alcohols****From Alkenes via Alcohols or Oxidative Cleavage**

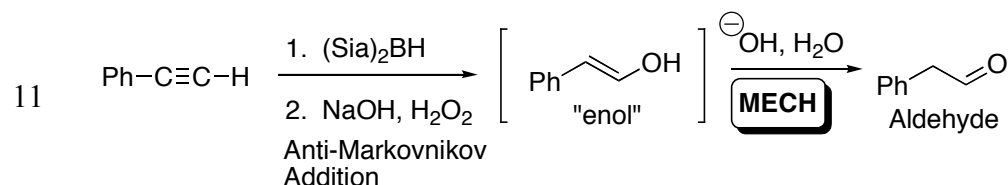
**From Carbonyl via Alcohols****From Halides via Alcohols****E. New Syntheses of Ketones/Aldehydes: Handout Reactions 10-18 (Sections 18.8-10 and earlier book sections)****From Alkynes (Section 9.9F)****Two Phases:**

- The first phase is analogous to oxymercuration of an alkene
  - It involves Hg<sup>2+</sup> and water
  - H-OH adds across the π-bond
  - Markovnikov addition: OH adds to the more substituted end of alkyne
  - NaBH<sub>4</sub> is actually not required
- Phase 2: The “enol” produced in the first phase is unstable and rapidly converts to the carbonyl
  - Phase 2: Mechanism Responsible.

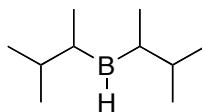


Mechanism: (Acid-Catalyzed enol  $\rightarrow$  carbonyl)New BondsBroken BondsAcid Conditions:

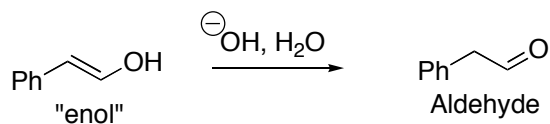
1. Use  $\text{H}^+$  in first step
2. Cationic intermediates
3. At some point deprotonate to return to neutral.

Two Phases:

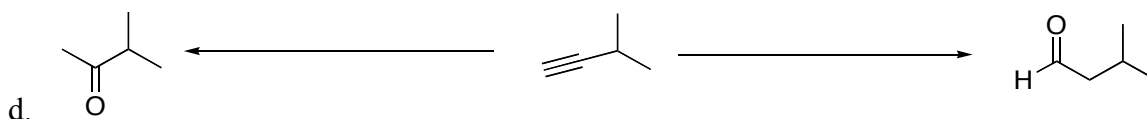
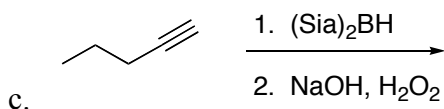
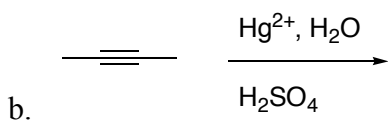
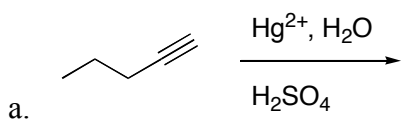
1. The first phase is analogous to hydroboration of an alkene
  - a. H-OH adds across the  $\pi$ -bond
  - b. It involves a borane
  - c. Anti-Markovnikov addition: OH adds to the less substituted end of alkyne
  - d.  $(\text{Sia})_2\text{BH} \sim \text{BH}_3\text{-THF}$ , but is much bulkier in order to ensure high anti-Markovnikov orientation and to ensure that it stop after one addition and leaves the second  $\pi$ -bond untouched. ( $\text{BH}_3$  works but is less selective)



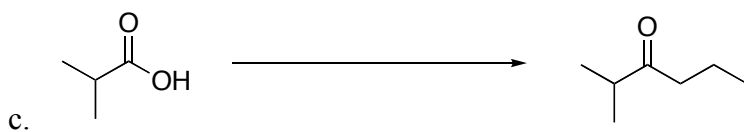
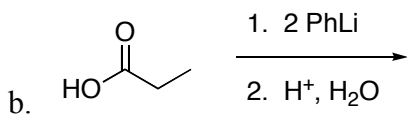
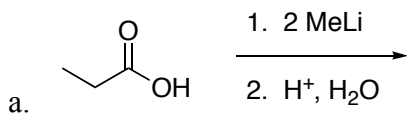
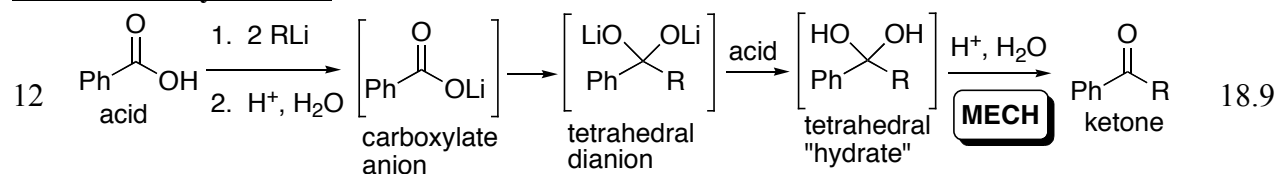
2. Phase 2: The "enol" produced in the first phase is unstable and rapidly converts to the carbonyl
  - Phase 2: Mechanism Responsible.

Mechanism: (Base-Catalyzed enol  $\rightarrow$  carbonyl)New BondsBroken BondsBase Conditions:

1. Use base (hydroxide) in first step
2. Cationic intermediates
3. At some point deprotonate to return to neutral.

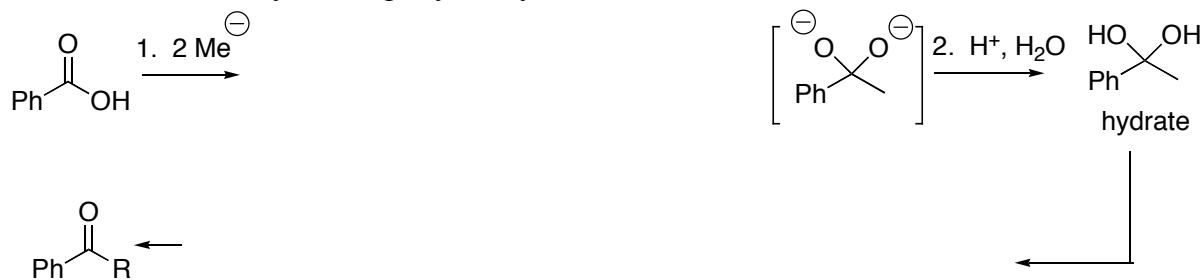
**Remember:**

1. Enols quickly convert to carbonyls
2. Remember these two reactions mainly as Markovnikov or anti-Markovnikov addition of H-OH addition to alkyne

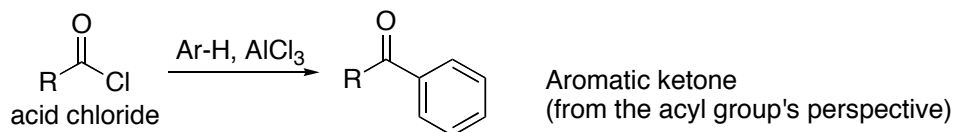
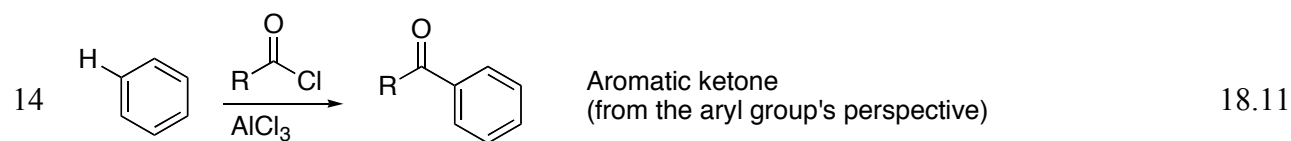
**From Carboxylic Acids**

Mechanism: Key new Mechanism Step is the **acid-catalyzed hydrolysis of the tetrahedral hydrate** to the ketone

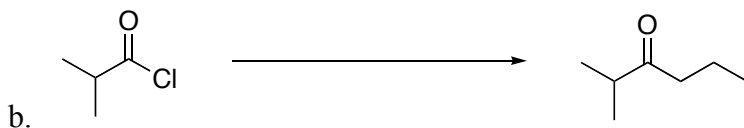
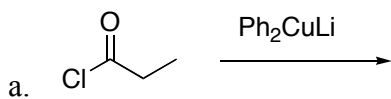
- Tetrahedral anion is stable until acid/water is added
- Tetrahedral hydrate rapidly “dehydrates” to ketone

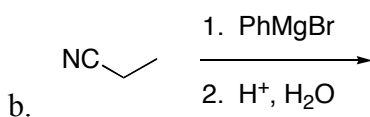
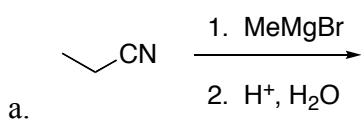
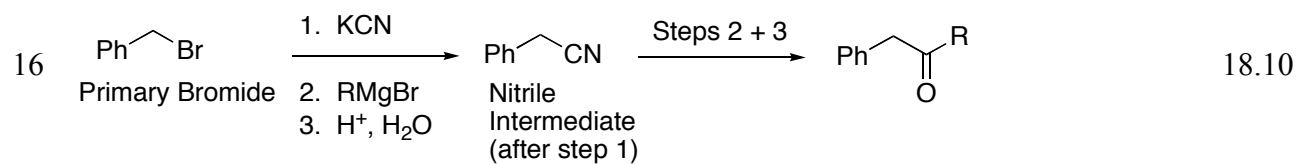
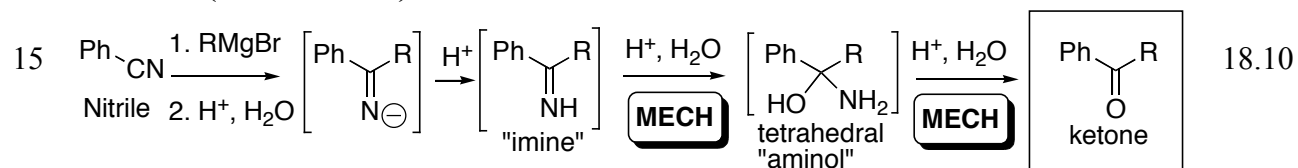
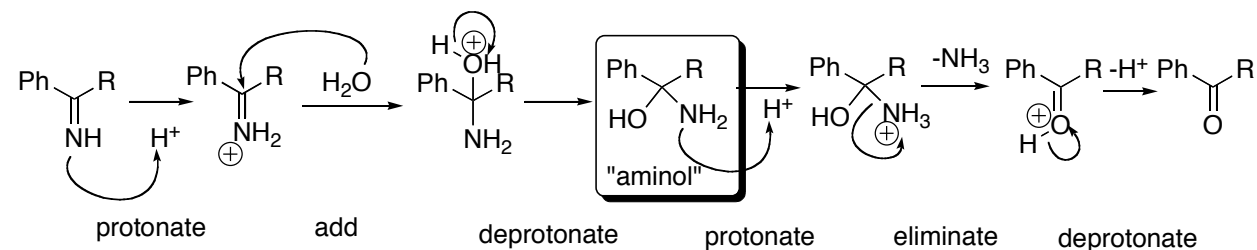
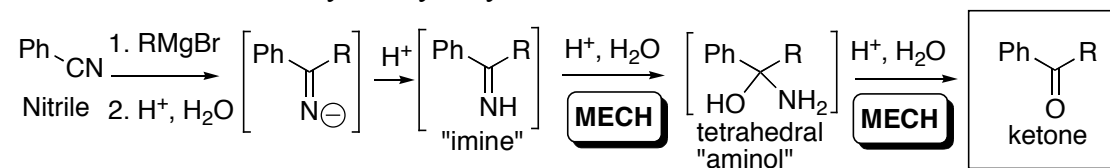


From Acid Chlorides (Section 18.11)



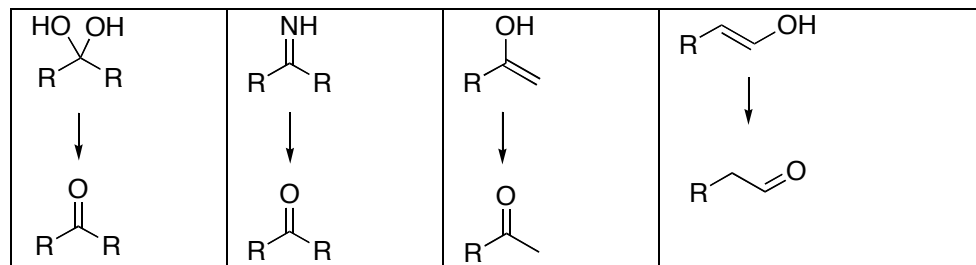
- No mechanism responsibility for reaction 13
- Reaction 14, mechanisms from chapter 17, Semester 1, Test 4
- $\text{R}_2\text{CuLi}$  is a special, mild carbanion equivalent. Some special properties enable it to stop at ketone. ( $\text{RMgBr}$  would not stop at ketone, but would add again to give  $3^\circ$  alcohol)



**From Nitriles (Section 18-10)****Mechanism: Acid-Catalyzed Hydrolysis of C=NH**

Note: Many groups can “hydrolyze” to carbonyls

- A carbon with two heteroatoms attached, single-bonded or double-bonded
- A carbon with one heteroatom and one  $\pi$ -bond
- Often base or acid or some special acid assistant helps



### F. General Reactivity of Ketones and Aldehydes: Addition Reactions (Section 18.12)

**Key: Are reaction conditions anionic/basic or cationic/acidic (or perhaps buffered in between?)**

#### 1. Anionic Conditions (when a strong anion is involved)

##### a. General principles review for strongly anionic/basic conditions apply

1. In an anionic mechanism, a strong anion will drive the first step
2. In an anionic mechanism, intermediates should avoid positive charges
3. Recognize anionic species even when they are disguised by a cationic metal counterion.

##### b. Anionic additions to ketones

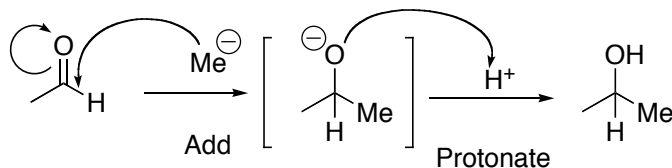
#### 1. Strong nucleophile required ( $\text{R}^-$ , $\text{H}^-$ , $\text{HO}^-$ , ...)

- Intermediates have negative charge

#### 2. Addition first, protonation second

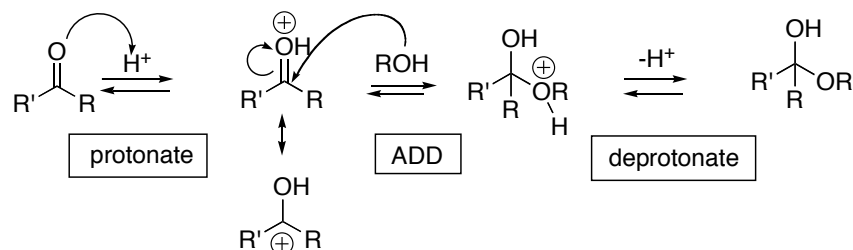
#### 3. Addition is normally irreversible

- Addition is often strongly exothermic
- The proton source is often added in a separate laboratory step, because often the anion and the proton are incompatible

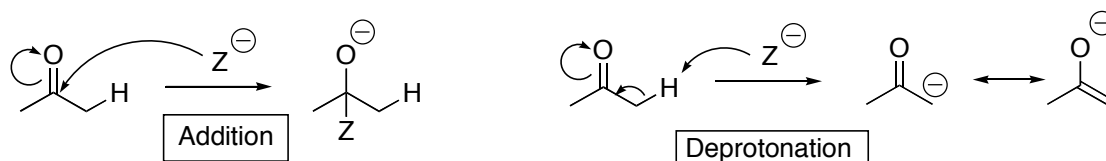


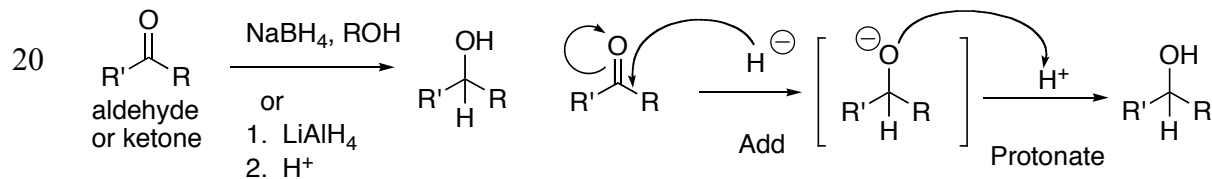
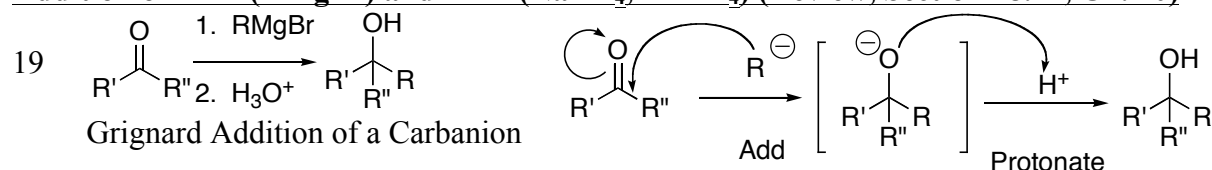
2. **Cationic Conditions** (acid is involved)a. General principles review for acid/cationic conditions apply

- Recipes that involve acid will be cationic
- In a cationic mechanism, the first step will routinely involve protonation
- In a cationic mechanism, the last step will frequently involve deprotonation to return to neutral
- Normally the main step or steps are sandwiched in between the protonation and deprotonation events

b. Cationic additions to ketones

1. Weak, neutral nucleophile involved (ROH, HOH...)
  2. Intermediates have positive charge
  3. **Protonation first, addition second**
    - Weak nucleophile is not strong enough to add to neutral carbonyl
    - Protonation activates the carbonyl as an electrophile
  4. A deprotonation step is routinely required following addition, to get back to neutral
  5. Addition is normally reversible
    - Nucleophile can come back off
    - Nucleophile is normally a reasonable leaving group
3. **Buffer Conditions** (both weak acid and weak base/nucleophile are present at same time)
- $\text{RNH}_2/\text{H}^+$ ,  $\text{KCN}/\text{HCN}$ ...
  - Reversibility again applies
  - Whether addition comes before protonation, or protonation precedes addition depends on the exact case
4. **Anion Conditions**: Nucleophilic addition versus deprotonation
- Sometimes an anion will function as a base and remove a proton rather than functioning as a nucleophile and adding to the carbonyl
  - Comparable to  $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$  versus  $\text{E}2$  reactions
  - Anion size will again factor, with bulky bases more likely to deprotonate and smaller ones to add
  - Chapter 22 will deal with the deprotonation pathway, followed by nucleophilic attack on electrophiles

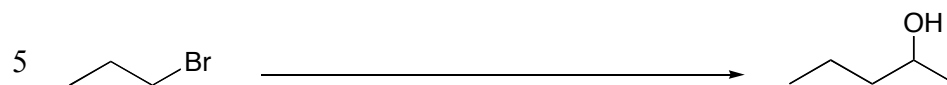
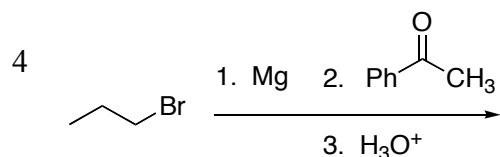
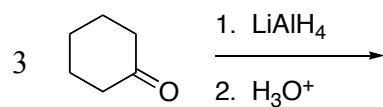
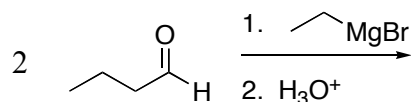
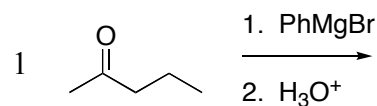


**Addition of  $R^-$  ( $RMgBr$ ) and  $H^-$  ( $NaBH_4, LiAlH_4$ ) (Review, Section 18.12, Ch. 10)**

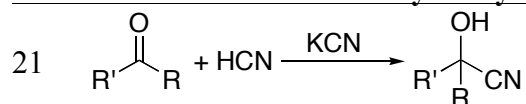
**Note:** For  $RMgBr$  and  $LiAlH_4$ , the basicity of the reagent is too strong to permit a proton source to be present at the same time. Thus the proton source must be added in a subsequent laboratory step. The  $NaBH_4$  is weaker, both as a nucleophile but also as a base.

Draw products from the following reactions.

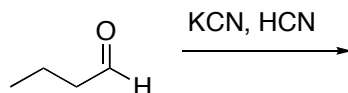
1°, 2° or 3°?



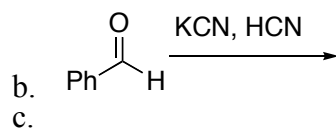
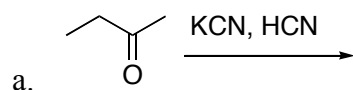
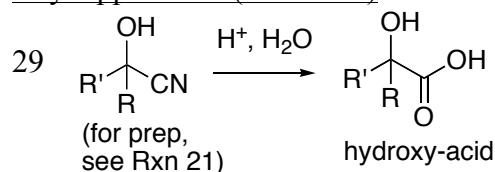
6. Draw the mechanism for reaction 1 above.

**Addition of HCN to make “Cyanohydrins” (Section 18-15): Anionic Mechanism**

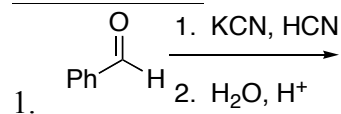
HCN addition, anionic mech.

Draw the product and mechanism for the following:Mechanistic notes

1. Addition first, protonation second
2.  $\ominus \text{CN}$  is a good nucleophile, HCN a decent acid
3. KCN/HCN represents a **buffer situation**: weak base/weak acid, not obvious which dominates. But in this case the anion does and it proceeds via anionic mechanism.
4.  $\ominus \text{CN}$  is actually used as a catalyst: after the HCN donates proton, the  $\ominus \text{CN}$  is regenerated
5. In reality, KCN/HCl or KCN/H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> is often used
  - Easier to put together and handle
6. Reaction is reversible
  - Strongly favors product cyanohydrin, unless a strongly hindered ketone is used

Draw productsKey Application (not tested)

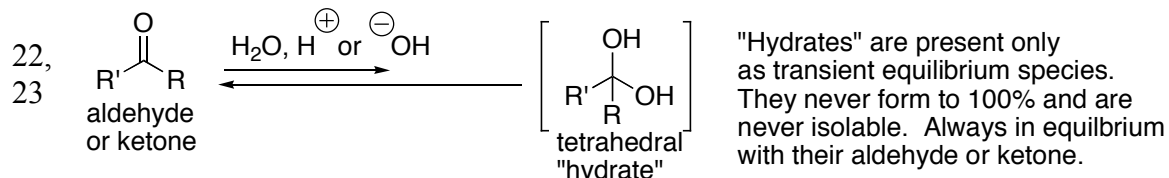
- Unique access to 2-hydroxyacids..
- Indirect provides the equivalent (“Synthon”) for a  $\ominus \text{CO}_2\text{H}$  anion

Draw Products



**Reversible Addition of H<sub>2</sub>O (H-OH) to Make Hydrates: Addition (and elimination) under Acidic or Basic Conditions (Section 18.14).**

- Know mechanism under either base or acid
- Know mechanism for the reverse direction (hydrate to carbonyl) as well

**Anionic**

Mech Forward: Addition-Protonation. Nucleophile, anionic mechanism. Reversible.

Mech Reverse: Deprotonation-Elimination. Anionic mechanism. Reversible.

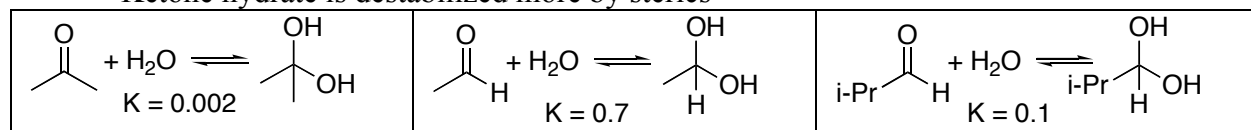
**Cationic**

Mech Forward: Protonation-Addition-deprotonation. Weakly nucleophile, cationic mechanism. Reversible.

Mech Reverse: Protonation-Elimination-deprotonation. Cationic E1-type mechanism. Reversible.

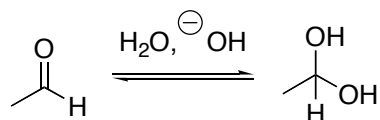
**Notes:**

1. True equilibrium.
2. Super unfavorable for ketones, moderately unfavorable for aldehydes
  - Ketone is stabilized more by the two alkyl donors
  - Ketone hydrate is destabilized more by sterics

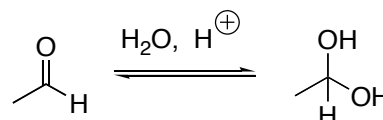


3. Hydrates can never be isolated, because as soon as you try to take them out of water, the drives back to the carbonyl side (LeChatelier's Principle)
4. While the hydrate is not present in high concentration, it is often a crucial intermediate in a variety of biological processes
  - We've also seen its importance in the oxidation of 1° alcohols to carboxylic acids using H<sub>2</sub>CrO<sub>4</sub> in water.

Draw the **ANIONIC addition** mechanism

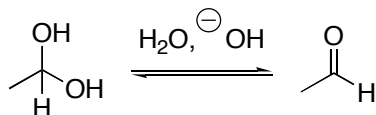


Draw the **CATIONIC addition** mechanism

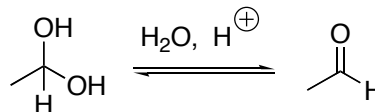


**Hydrate Hydrolysis (Elimination of Water from Hydrate to Generate Carbonyl)**Draw the **ANIONIC elimination** mechanism

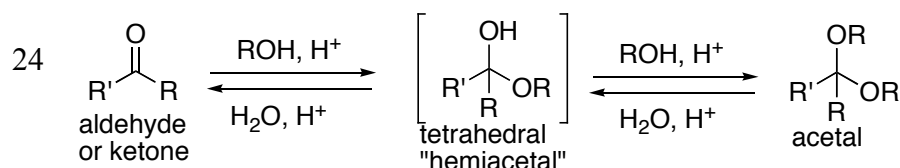
- Deprotonation precedes elimination
- E2-like

Draw the **CATIONIC elimination** mechanism

- Elimination precedes deprotonation
- E1-like



**Reversible Reaction of ROH to Make Acetals via Hemiacetals. (Section 18.18, 19).  
Addition/Substitution under Acidic Conditions (Section 18.18, 19).  
Also know the reverse process, substitution/elimination under acid conditions**

**Cationic**

Mech Forward: Protonation-Addition-deprotonation (hemiacetal) Protonation-elimination-addition-deprotonation (acetal). Weak nucleophile, cationic mechanism. Reversible.

Mech Reverse: Protonation-Elimination-Addition-deprotonation. (hemiacetal) protonation-elimination-deprotonation (aldehyde or ketone). Reversible.

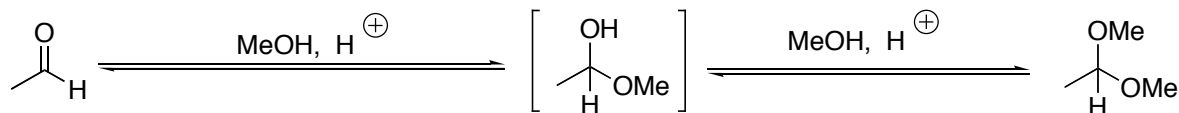
Notes:

- Reactions are reversible
- The "hemiacetal" is an intermediate, and can never be isolated
- The acetal can be isolated. (It is stable in absence of water)
- Equilibrium considerations (LeChatelier's principle) apply. When water is plentiful, things go to the left. When water is scarce or removed, and alcohol is abundant, things drive to the right.
- Use  $\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{H}^+$  to hydrolyze an acetal back to an aldehyde or ketone
- Use  $\text{MeOH}/\text{H}^+$  to convert an aldehyde to an acetal
- Use  $\text{HOCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}/\text{H}^+$  to convert a ketone to an acetal
- Aldehydes or ketones can be temporarily "protected" as their acetals, then later "deprotected" by hydrolysis

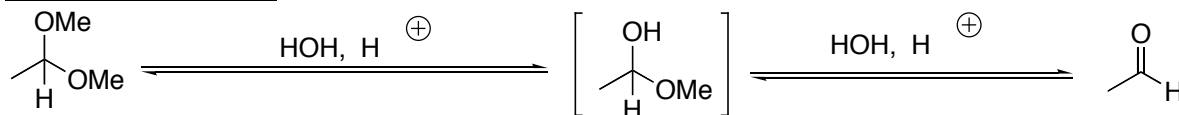
**Notes:**

1. While the acetal can be isolated, the hemiacetal cannot
2. Four reactions, each with their own mechanism:
  - a. Carbonyl to hemiacetal = acid-catalyzed addition reaction.
  - b. Hemiacetal to acetal = acid-catalyzed substitution reaction ( $S_N1$ -type)
  - c. Acetal back to hemiacetal = acid-catalyzed substitution reaction ( $S_N1$ -type)
  - d. Hemiacetal back to carbonyl = acid-catalyzed elimination ( $E1$ -type)

Draw the mechanism



Draw the mechanism

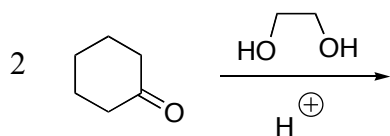
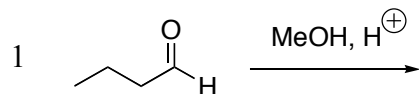


**We have now seen three major acid-catalyzed reaction types in this chapter**

1. Additions (protonate-**add**-deprotonate)
2. Eliminations (protonate-**eliminate**-deprotonate)
3. Substitutions (protonate-**eliminate-add**-deprotonate)

**Notice that a protonation/deprotonation sandwiches the key step(s) in each of them**

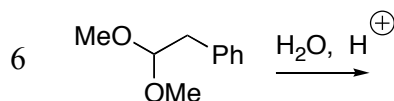
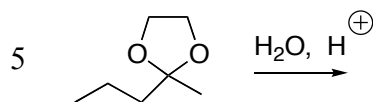
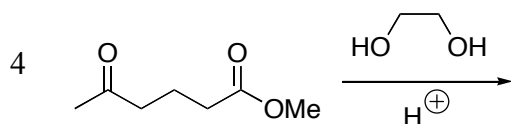
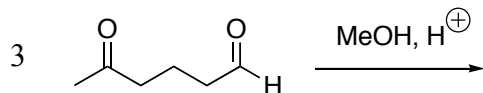
Draw the products for the following reactions



“Cyclic  
Acetal”

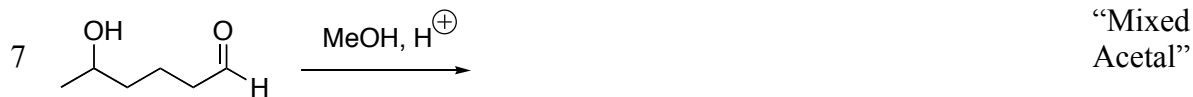
### Key Synthetic Notes:

- Ethylene glycol** works well for making acetals from aldehydes or ketones. Use **ethylene glycol for KETONES**.
  - Once the first oxygen adds, the second oxygen is always close by and ready to add
  - The cyclic acetal is more stable; even if one oxygen comes off, it can come right back on.
  - The cyclic acetal formation is actually more favorable energetically (enthalpy)
  - The cyclic acetal also has entropy advantages (entropy)
- Methanol is simpler for making acetals from aldehydes, but often has problems for ketones. Use **methanol for ALDEHYDES**
- Selective protection:**
  - Methanol can be used to protect an aldehyde, while a ketone or ester will go untouched.
  - Ethylene glycol can be used to protect a ketone, while an ester will be untouched.

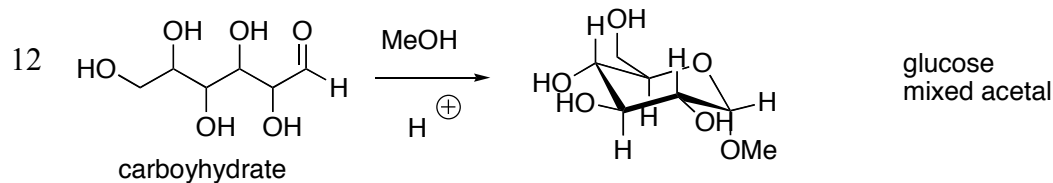
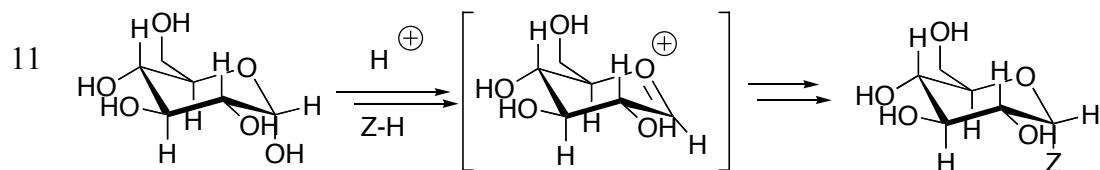
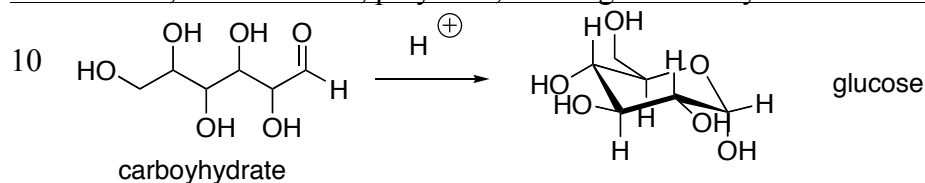


### Equilibrium and Acetals

- Normally favors the carbonyl, especially for ketones
- Push to the acetal side by using excess alcohol
- Push to carbonyl side by using excess water
- Equilibrium improves greatly for cyclic acetals.**
- Hemiacetals have a favorable equilibrium if and only if a 5- or 6-ring hemiacetal can form.** (This is central to carbohydrate/sugar chemistry.)

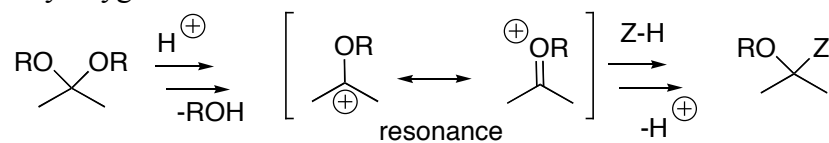


### Hemiacetals, mixed acetals, polymers, and Sugar/Carbohydrate Chemistry



#### Notes:

1. Acetal or hemiacetal carbons have two single-bond oxygens
2. When thinking about an acetal being hydrolyzed, the carbon with two single-bond oxygens hydrolyzes to a carbonyl
3. Acetal or hemiacetal carbons are **highly reactive as S<sub>N</sub>1 substrates** thanks to cation stabilization by oxygen donor



4. Carbohydrates exist as hemiacetals or acetals
5. Carbohydrates can polymerize or make complex derivatives via substitution at their acetal carbons

**Acetals as Protecting Groups in Synthesis (Section 18-19)**

1. Reactivity: Aldehydes &gt; Ketones &gt;&gt; Esters

a. Aldehydes versus Ketones Why:

- Sterics, ketones are more cluttered and additions make things worse
- Electronics, ketones are more stable with two electron-donating groups

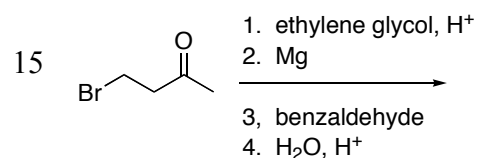
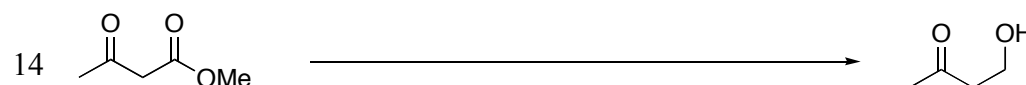
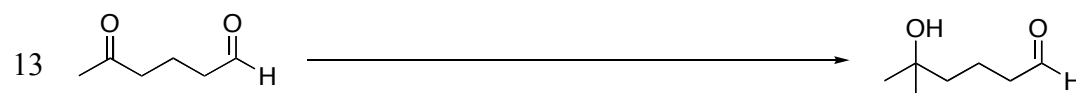
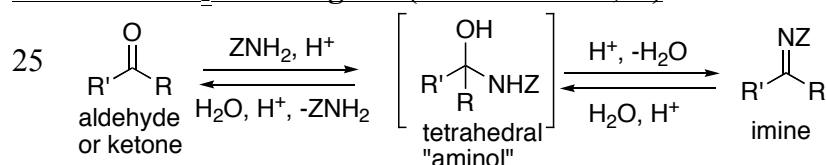
b. Ketones versus Esters Why:

- Electronics, the conjugation stabilizes esters

2. **Selective protection:**

a. Methanol can be used to protect an aldehyde, while a ketone or ester will go untouched.

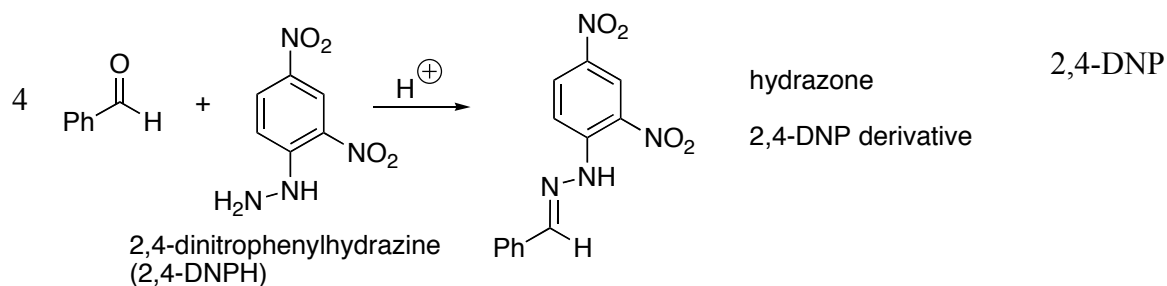
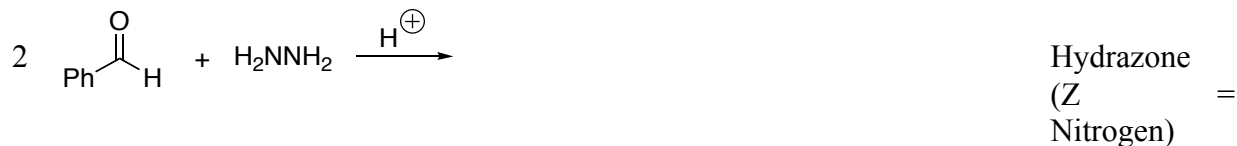
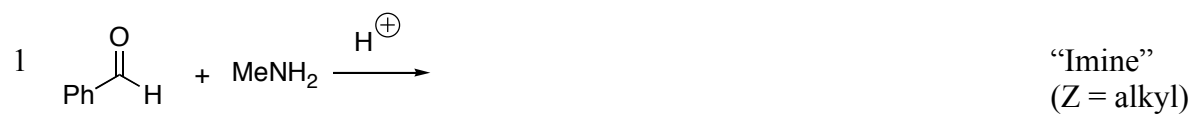
b. Ethylene glycol can be used to protect a ketone, while an ester will be untouched.

**Addition of H<sub>2</sub>N-Z Reagents (Sections 18-16,17)****Cationic**

- Mech Forward: Protonation-Addition-deprotonation (aminol) Protonation-elimination- deprotonation (imine). Mild nucleophile, cationic mechanism, buffered conditions. Reversible.
- Note: sometimes addition precedes protonation, or is concerted with protonation.
- Mech Reverse: Protonation-Addition-deprotonation (aminol) Protonation-elimination- deprotonation (aldehyde or ketone). Reversible.

Notes:

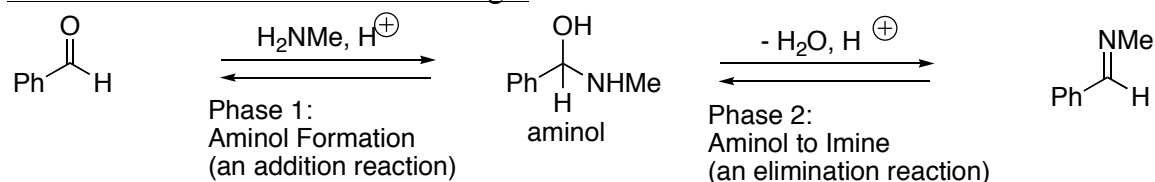
- “Z” can be a carbon, nitrogen, oxygen, or hydrogen atom/group.
- The “aminol” can’t be isolated, it’s only present at equilibrium.
- Equilibrium factors apply. Water drives to the carbonyl side; removal of water drives to the imine side.

Notes:

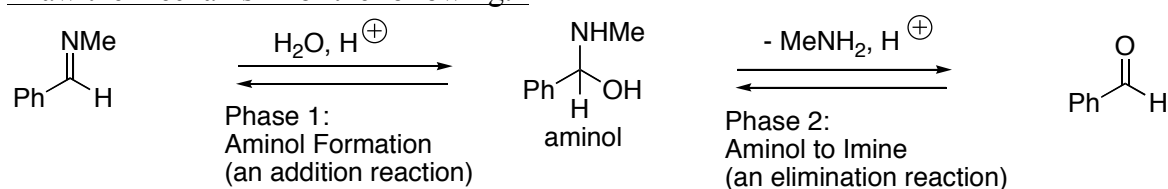
1. C=N species can sometimes be hydrolyzed back to carbonyls by  $\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{H}^+$
2. "Imines" are frequent biology intermediates
3. 2,4-DNP derivatives are easily made and usually crystalline
  - a. reaction of an unknown with DNPH to make a solid DNP-derivative is proof of aldehyde or ketone
  - b. The melting point of DNP-derivatives permits identification



Draw the mechanism for the following:



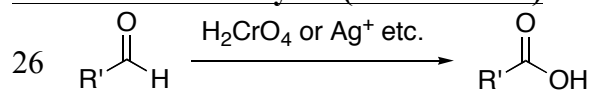
Draw the mechanism for the following:



Notes:

1. All steps are reversible, under equilibrium control
2. I'm writing these as cationic, acid-catalyzed steps
  - a. Conditions are actually buffered;
  - b.  $1 \text{ RNH}_2 + 0.5 \text{ H}^+ \rightarrow 0.5 \text{ RNH}_2 + 0.5 \text{ RNH}_3^+ \rightarrow$  a buffer system.
  - c. In some cases, nucleophilic addition by the neutral but reactive amines (to give oxyanions) may actually precede protonation



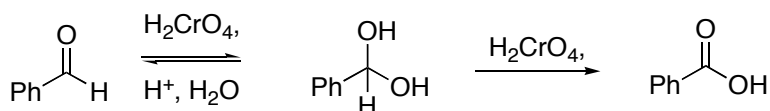
**Oxidation of Aldehydes (Section 18.20)**

18.20

No Mech Responsibility

“Tollens test” is a common chemical test for aldehydes.  $\text{Ag}^+$  undergoes redox reaction with aldehydes to produce shiny Ag metal, or a “silver mirror”.

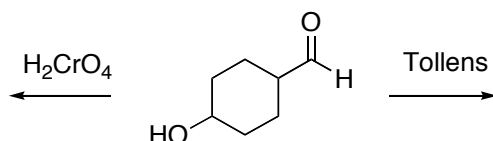
Review: Chromic Acid Oxidation proceeds in water via hydrate

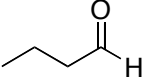
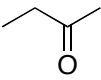
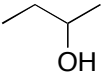


New:  $\text{Ag}^+$  salts oxidize aldehydes in presence of alcohols, ketones

**Tollens reagent:**  $\text{Ag}(\text{NH}_3)_2^+$  Chemical test for **aldehydes**

- A silver mirror forms

Chemical Tests

Class		DNP	Tollens	$\text{H}_2\text{CrO}_4$
Aldehydes				
Ketones				
Alcohols				

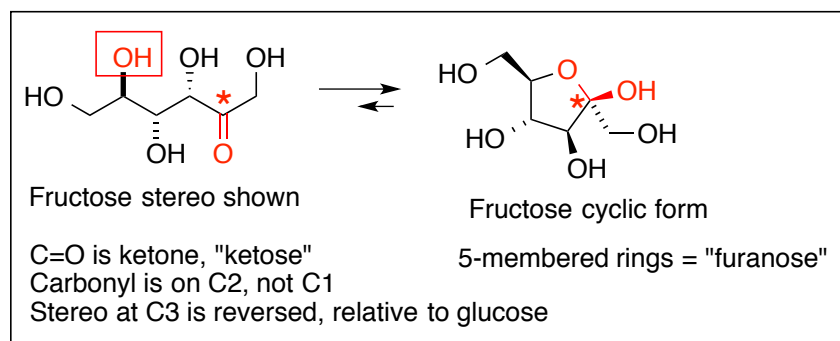
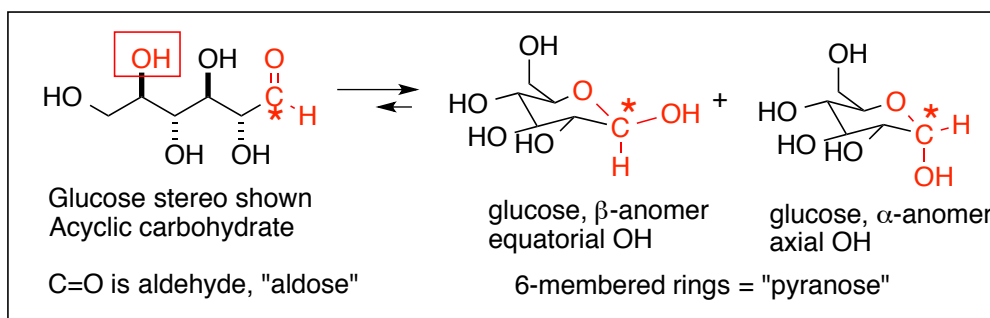
**Hemiacetals, mixed acetals, polymers, and Sugar/Carbohydrate Chemistry (Ch 23)**

“Carbohydrate”: most sugars have formula  $C_N(H_2O)_N$

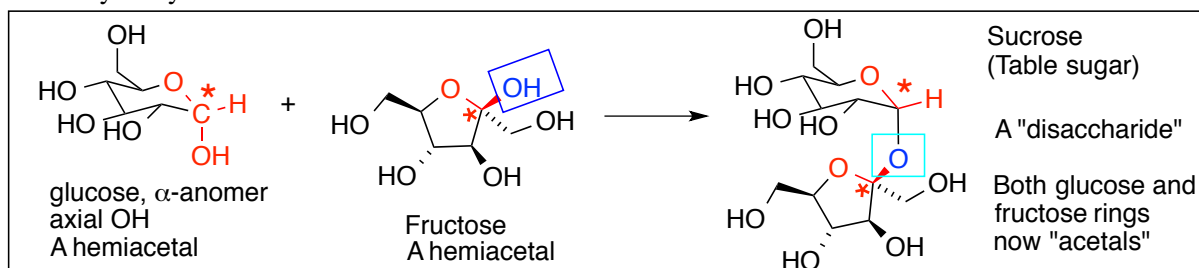
- Glucose:  $C_6H_{12}O_6 = C_6(H_2O)_6$
- Fructose:  $C_6H_{12}O_6 = C_6(H_2O)_6$
- Sucrose:  $C_{12}H_{24}O_{12} = C_{12}(H_2O)_{12}$
- Lactose:  $C_{12}H_{24}O_{12} = C_{12}(H_2O)_{12}$

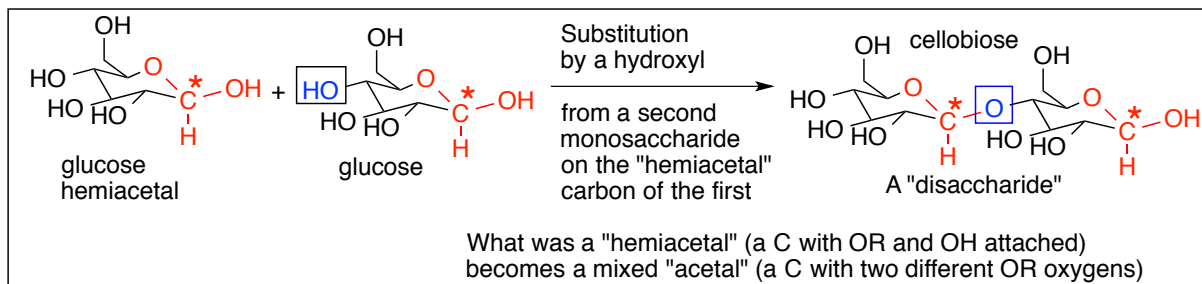
**Monosaccharides: (23:3-7)**

1. Has a carbonyl and multiple hydroxyls
2. Can reversibly interconvert between acyclic and cyclic versions
  - One of the hydroxyls adds to the carbonyl to make a hemiacetal
  - Typically use the OH that produces a 6-membered ring (“pyranose”) (ex. Glucose)
  - Sometimes use an OH that produces 5-membered ring (“furanose”) (ex. Fructose)
  - DNA and RNA skeletons use 5-membered “furanose” rings
3. Glucose is most famous and abundant monosaccharide
  - Stereochem is such that all of the ring-substituents can be equatorial
  - Other monosaccharides such as mannose, galactose, etc. have some axial substituents
4. Ring forms can have two stereoisomer forms:
  - a. When the alcohol oxygen adds to the carbonyl carbon, that becomes a chiral center,
  - b. The OH on the newly chiral center can be equatorial (“β”) or axial (“α”)
  - c. The two isomers are called “anomers”



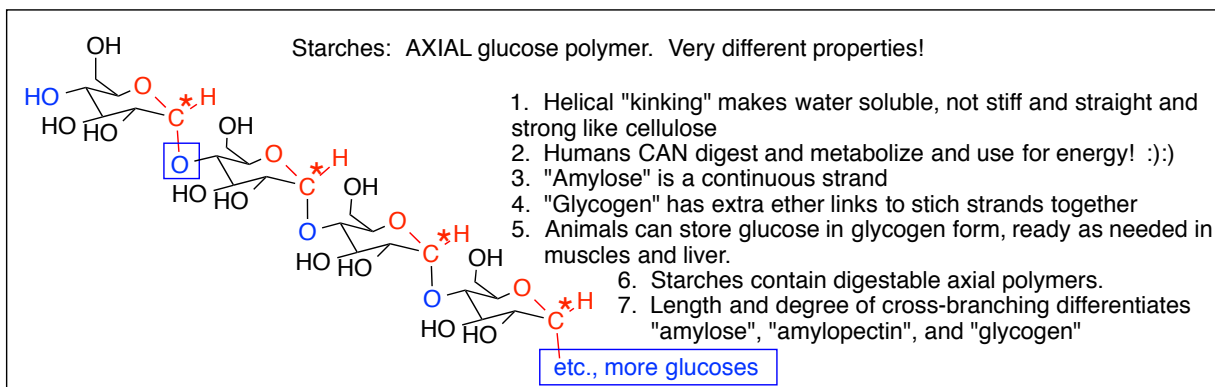
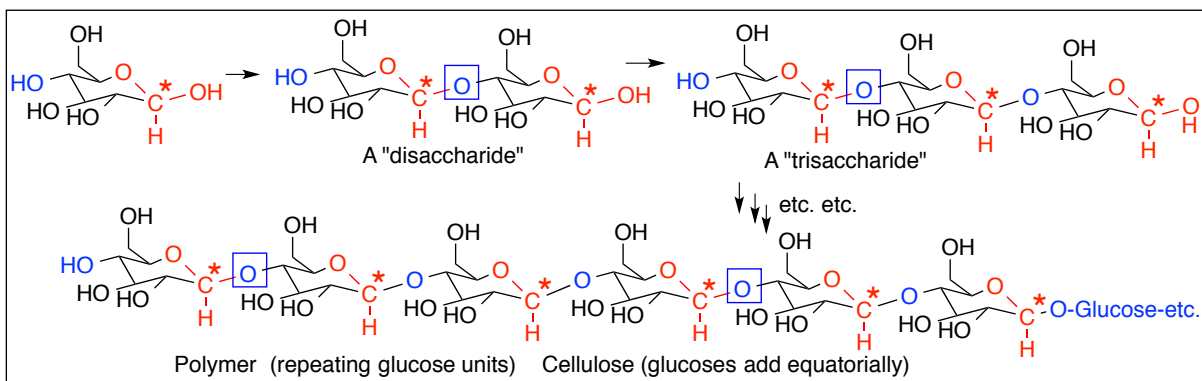
**Disaccharides (23.17):** Two units combine, by substitution of a hydroxyl from one monosaccharide for the hydroxyl on the hemiacetal carbon of the other. The hemiacetal carbon becomes “acetal”





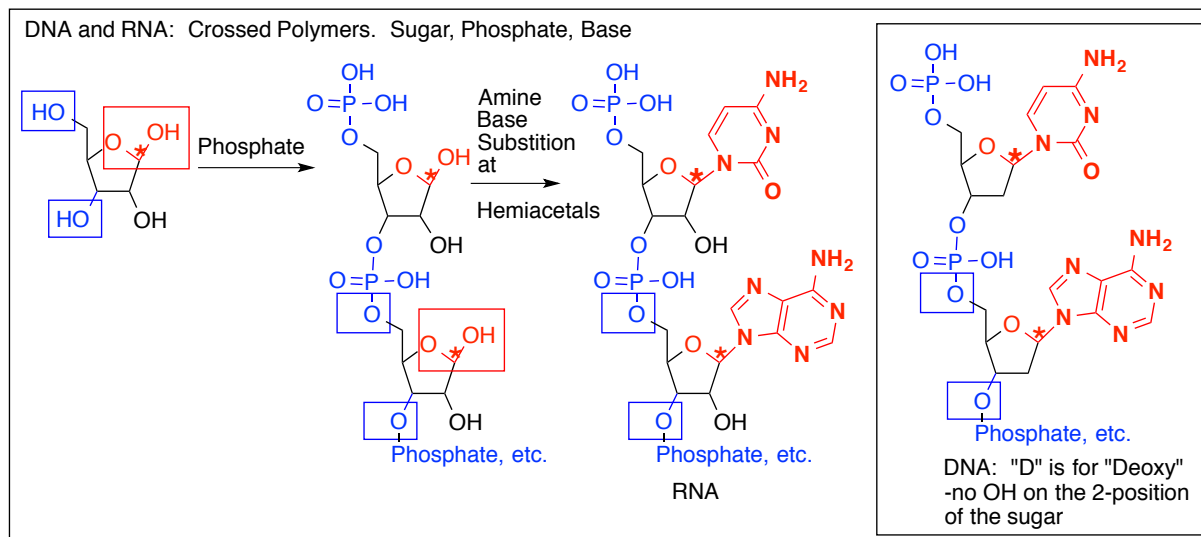
### Polysaccharades: Saccharide polymers. (23.18)

1. The hemiacetal carbons are highly subject to SN1 substitution
2. Just as we could add on to convert a monosaccharide into a disaccharide, so we can continue to extend longer and longer, so long as their remains a hemiacetal on the end.
3. Cellulose: equatorial glucose string
4. These can be long, straight, and strong
5. Provide the stiff structural stuff of wood and plant stems
6. Humans lack enzyme to digest and break down into digestable, usable glucose
  - Plant-eating animals do have the enzymes needed!
7. "Starches" are polymers that ARE digestible to release glucose, due to axial substitution



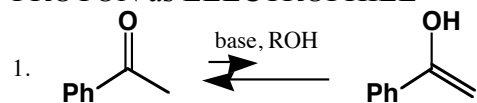
**DNA and RNA: More Polymers involving sugars/carbohydrates (23.19-21)**

1. DNA and RNA are the stuff of genetics and cell reproduction!
2. Both involve carbohydrates
3. More complex biopolymers than cellulose and starches
  - Instead of simple sugar-sugar-sugar polymer, the sugars are instead connected by phosphate bridges
  - Main strand is sugar-phosphate-sugar-phosphate-sugar-phosphate, etc..
4. The sugars are 5-membered furanose sugars.
5. Sugar uses the hydroxyls at C3 and C5 to connect to phosphate linkers
6. The structural different between RNA and DNA is that DNA doesn't have the hydroxyl group at the C2 position of the sugar.
  - Thus called "deoxy", which is where the "D" in "DNA" comes from!
7. Amine bases SN1 substitute for hydroxyls on the hemiacetal carbons of the sugars
  - These would then be referred to as mixed "aminals"
8. 4 different bases are used in DNA; 4 bases in RNA
  - a. Cytosine, Adenine, Guanine: both RNA and DNA
  - b. Uracil in RNA; Thymine in DNA. (Thymine is uracil with an extra methyl)
9. The sugar-phosphate-sugar-phosphate skeleton is common to both RNA and DNA; the bio-informatics coding comes from the specific sequence of the amine bases.
10. DNA has a beautiful curling helical structure. Two DNA strands wrap together, with hydrogen-bonding connections between complementary amine-base pairs from opposite strands.
11. During cell reproduction, the two strands unwind, then the "other" strand builds back into place in each cell to recreate the two-strand "double-helix"

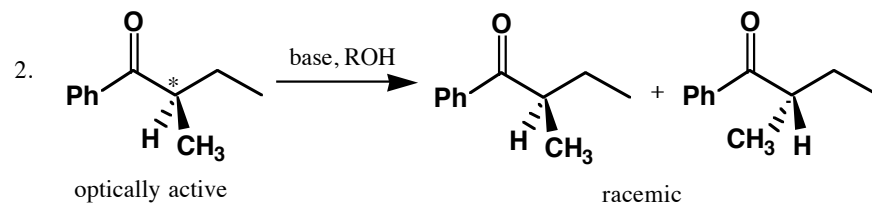


Chem 360-Jasperse **Chapter 22 (Enolate Chemistry) Reaction Summary**

## PROTON as ELECTROPHILE

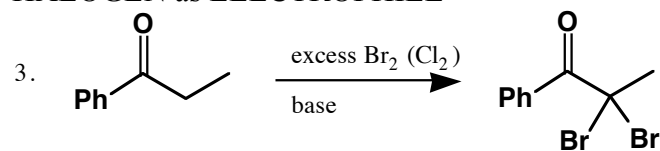


- Base-catalyzed keto-enol equilibrium
- know mech (either direction)
- know impact of substituents on enol concentration

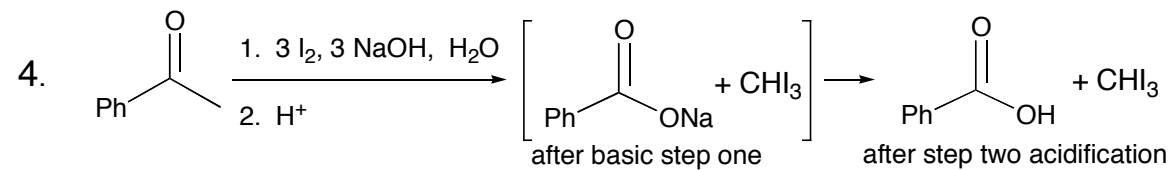


- Racemization of  $\alpha$ -chiral optically active carbonyls
- Mech

## HALOGEN as ELECTROPHILE

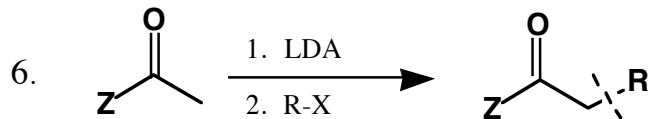


- Base catalyzed halogenation
- with excess halogen, all  $\alpha$ -hydrogens get replaced
- Mech

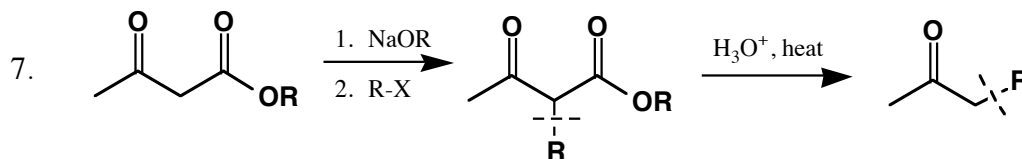


- Iodoform reaction.
- chemical test for methyl ketones

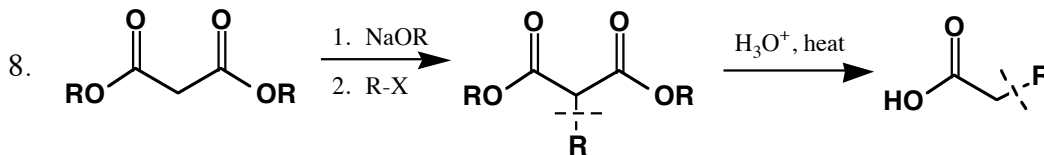
## ALKYL HALIDE as ELECTROPHILE



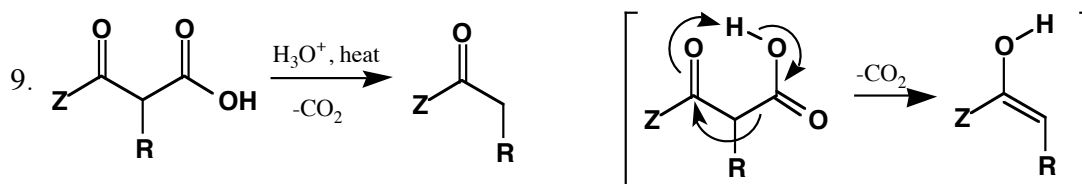
- Enolate alkylation
- strong LDA base required to completely deprotonate carbonyl
- Mech
- Ketones, Esters, Amides, Aldehydes: doesn't matter which kind of carbonyl
- unsymmetrical ketones give isomer problems
- S<sub>N</sub>2 alkylation restricts R-X to active ones



- Enolate alkylation of 1,3-ketoester
- alkoxide base strong enough to completely generate enolate
- Mech for alkylation
- S<sub>N</sub>2 alkylation restricts R-X
- position of alkylation is unambiguous
- acid-catalyzed hydrolysis/decarboxylation

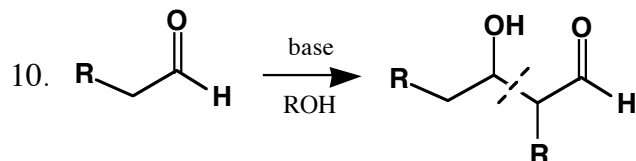


- Enolate alkylation of 1,3-diester
- alkoxide base strong enough to completely generate enolate
- Mech for alkylation
- S<sub>N</sub>2 alkylation restricts R-X
- acid catalyzed hydrolysis/decarboxylation
- Final product is an ACID (Diester → Acid)



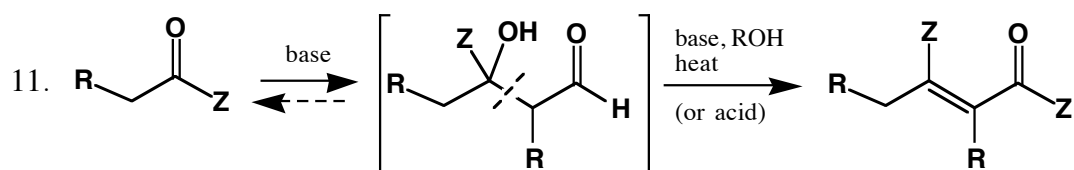
- decarboxylation of a 1,3-carboxylic acid
- "Z" can be anything so that you end with a ketone, aldehyde, or acid at the end
- know the mechanism for the decarboxylation, and acid-catalyzed enol to carbonyl isomerization
- rate will be impacted by stability of the enol intermediate

## ALDEHYDE/KETONE as ELECTROPHILE



-Aldol Reaction

-Mech



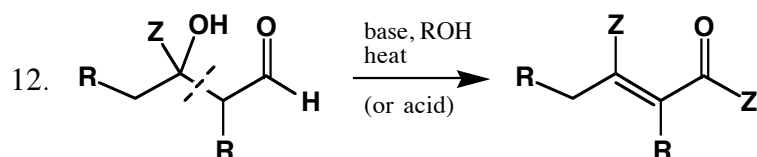
-Aldol Condensation

-Ketones as well as Aldehydes can be used

-In ketone case, unfavorable aldol equilibrium is still drawn off to enone

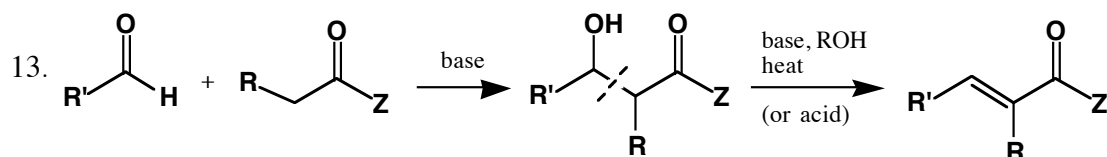
-In Aldehyde case, can stop at aldol if you don't heat

-Mech



-Aldol dehydration

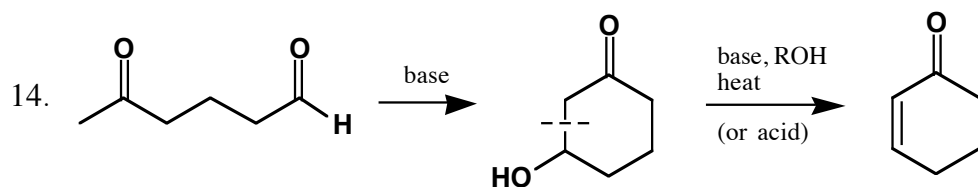
-Mech under basic conditions



-Crossed Aldol (2 different carbonyls)

-Many variations, but there must be some differentiation so that one acts selectively as the enolate and the other as the electrophile

-Mech



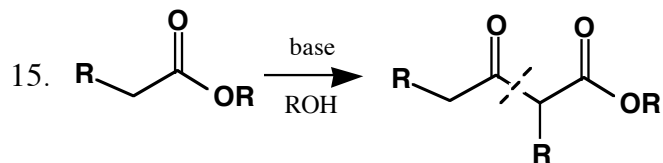
-Intramolecular aldol

-Mech

-many variations

-Normally only good for 5, 6-membered rings

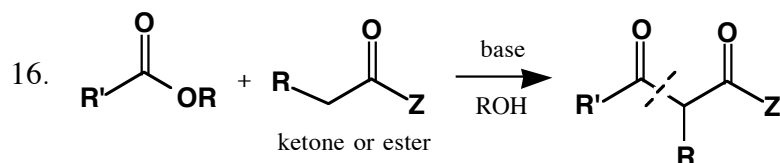
## ESTER as ELECTROPHILE



-Claisen Reaction

-Mech

-Produces 1,3-ketoester



-Crossed Claisen

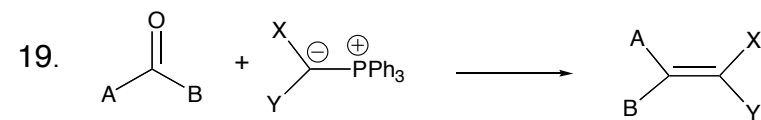
-May include cyclic Claisen reactions

-If the “enolate” carbonyl is a ketone, get a 1,3-diketone

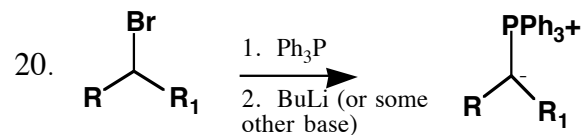
-If the “enolate” carbonyl is an ester, get a 1,3-ketoester

-Mech

## WITTIG REACTION



-Mech



-Mech

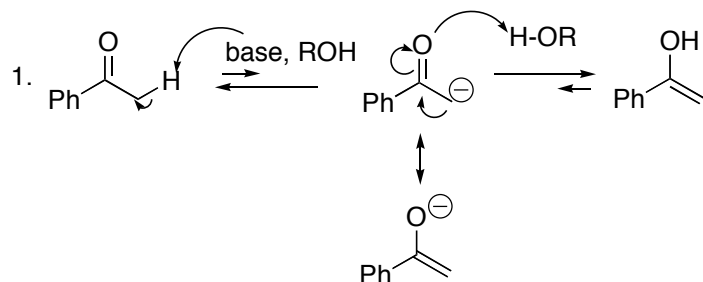


## Chem 360-Jasperse Chapter 22 (Enolate Chemistry) Reaction Mechanisms Summary

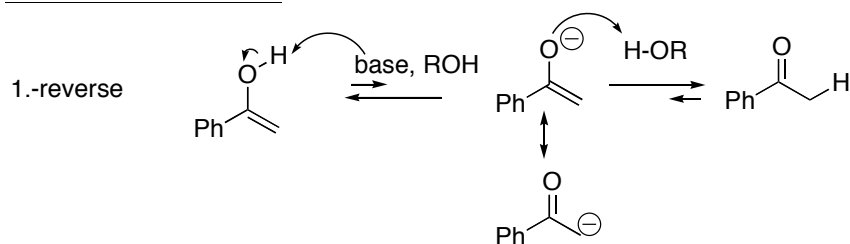
- Note: in many of these reactions, I simply write in "base". But for specific reactions, you need to recognize and specify the actual base that does the work.

### PROTON as ELECTROPHILE

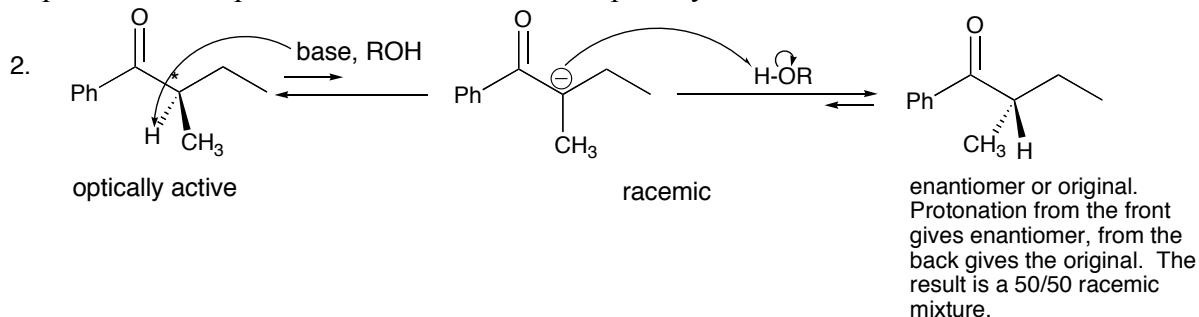
#### Ketone to Enol



#### Enol Back to Ketone:



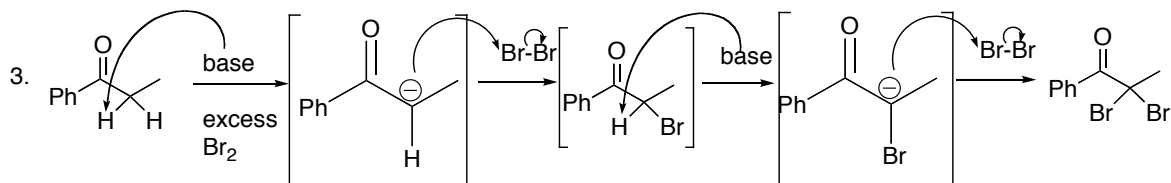
#### Deprotonation/Reprotonation to Racemize an optically active $\alpha$ -chiral center



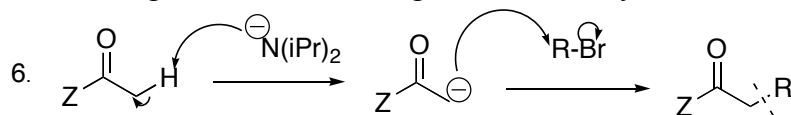
### HALOGEN as ELECTROPHILE

Base catalyzed halogenation. Sequential deprotonation/halogenation until all the  $\alpha$ -hydrogens are replaced.

- Note: addition of an electronegative, electron-withdrawing halogen stabilizes subsequent anion formation. As a result, the bromoketone formed after the first substitution is actually more acidic and therefore more reactive than the original ketone. For this reason you can't just stop with a single halogenation under base conditions. (But you can under acid conditions, via an enol rather than enolate mechanism.)

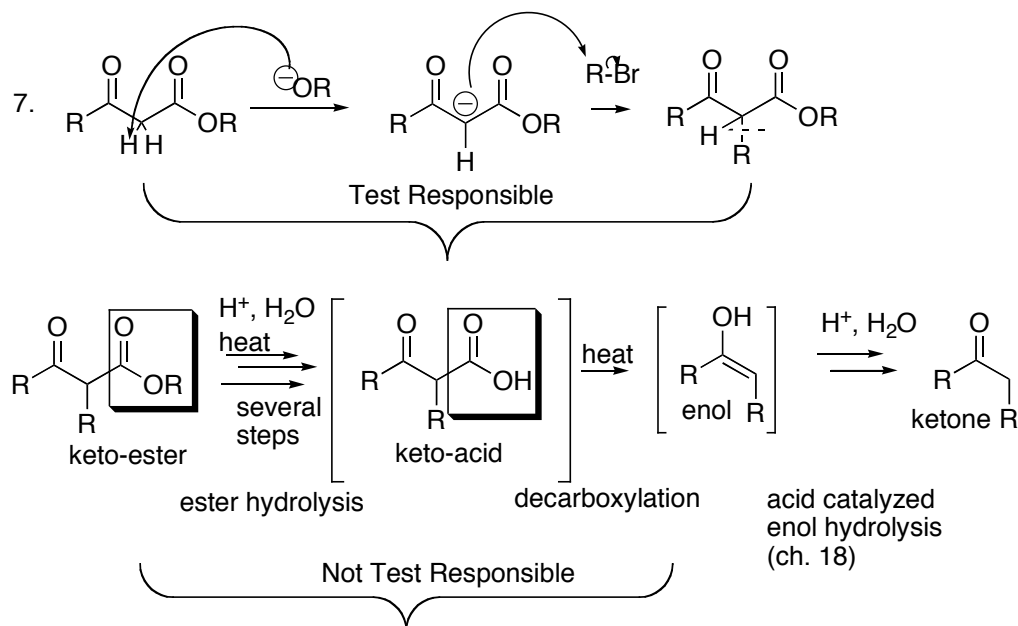


ALKYL HALIDE as ELECTROPHILE  
With Strong LDA as Base, using a Monocarbonyl

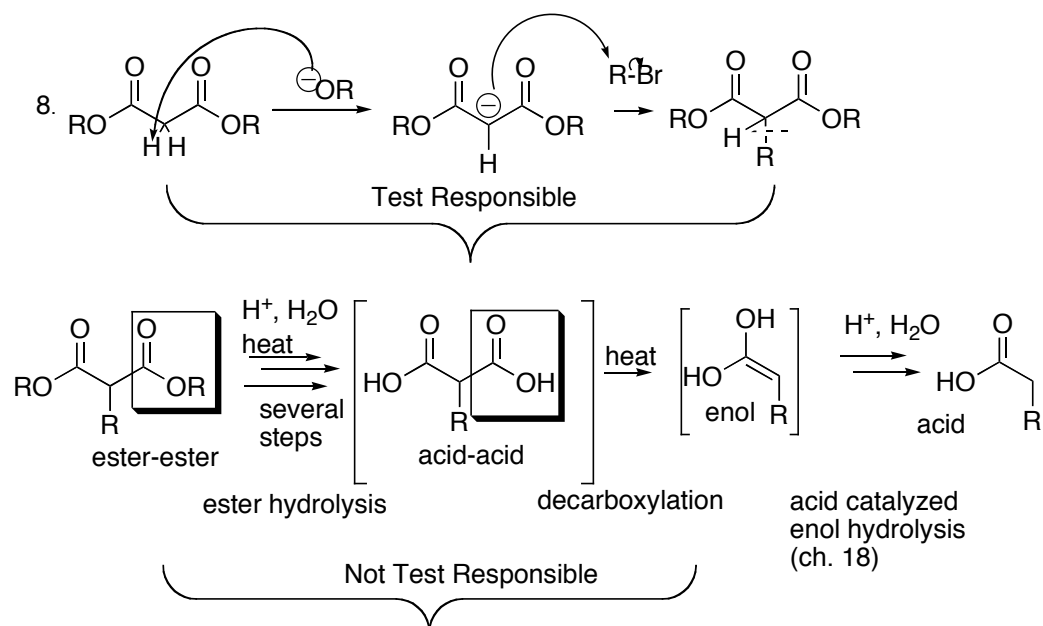


1. Z can be anything: works for ketones, esters, aldehydes, esters,...
2. "LDA" is lithium diisopropylamine, provides the nitrogen anion shown
3. strong LDA base required to completely deprotonate carbonyl. The base strength enables the enolate to form completely, no equilibrium or reversibility issues.
4. unsymmetrical ketones give isomer problems. If there are  $\alpha$ -hydrogens on both left and right side of ketone, which will get deprotonated selectively?
5.  $S_N2$  alkylation restricts R-X to active ones (ideally primary or allylic/benzylic...)
6. Sequencing: the LDA must be added first, allowing the enolate to form completely; then the alkyl halide is added subsequently. If you add the halide at the beginning, it reacts with LDA
7. LDA deprotonates the carbonyl rather than adding to the carbonyl carbon for steric reasons

Using 1,3-Dicarbonyls, Such that Weaker Oxygen Bases are Strong Enough  
Strong LDA as Base, using a Monocarbonyl



- alkoxide base strong enough to completely generate enolate
- $S_N2$  alkylation restricts R-X
- acid-catalyzed hydrolysis/decarboxylation
- not test responsible for the acid/catalyzed ester hydrolysis or the keto-acid decarboxylation mechanisms
- you are responsible for the acid-catalyzed enol hydrolysis (not detailed here, but was in Ch. 18)



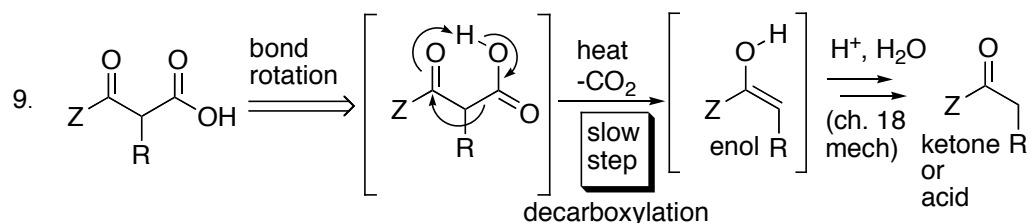
-alkoxide base strong enough to completely generate enolate

-S<sub>N</sub>2 alkylation restricts R-X

-acid-catalyzed hydrolysis/decarboxylation

-not test responsible for the acid/catalyzed ester hydrolysis or the keto-acid decarboxylation mechanisms

-you are responsible for the acid-catalyzed enol hydrolysis (not detailed here, but was in Ch. 18)



Not Fully Test Responsible. But must know that ENOL is key intermediate that forms in the slow step.

What is good for the enol (and it's alkene) accelerates the decarboxylation

-decarboxylation of a 1,3-carboxylic acid

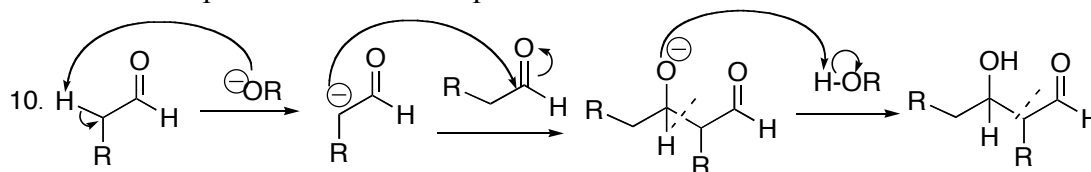
-“Z” can be anything so that you end with a ketone, aldehyde, or acid at the end

-rate will be impacted by stability of the enol intermediate (more highly substituted enol alkene is better; conjugated enol alkene will form faster....)

-since the mechanism depends on the conversion of the left carbonyl into an enol, decarboxylations are limited to 1,3-carboxylic acids. If you have a 1,2-carboxylic acid or a 1,4-carboxylic acid (etc), the formation of an enol will not be possible and the decarboxylation will not occur

## ALDEHYDE/KETONE as ELECTROPHILE

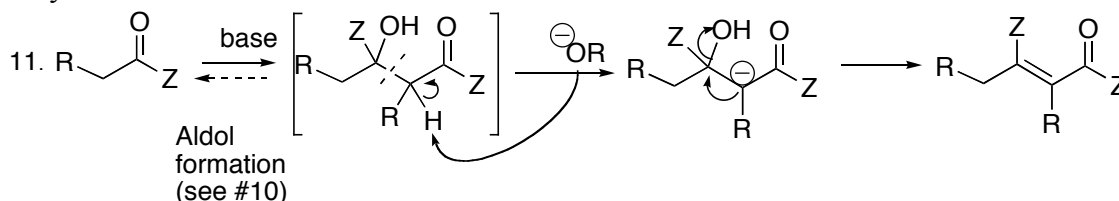
Simple Aldol Reaction, giving a  $\beta$ -hydroxy-carbonyl. In which the same carbonyl functions as both enolate precursor and electrophile.



-Deprotonate-react-protonate

-Notice in this case that it's the same carbonyl that functions as both the enolate precursor but also as the electrophile.

Aldol Condensation, giving an enone. In which the initial aldol product undergoes dehydration.



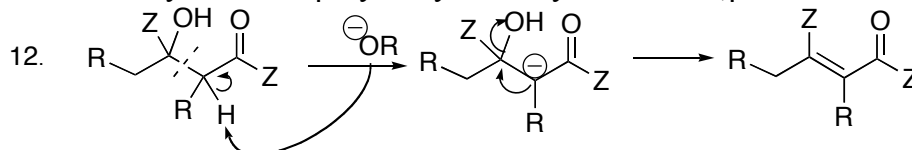
-The aldol product is formed as shown in mechanism 10. But under extended opportunity or heat, the product  $\beta$ -hydroxy group is eliminated to give the enone.

-The elimination mechanism involves deprotonation to enolate, followed by hydroxide extrusion

-Ketones as well as Aldehydes can be used

-In ketone case, unfavorable aldol equilibrium is still drawn off to enone

-In Aldehyde case, can stop at aldol if you don't heat and/or if you stop quickly enough

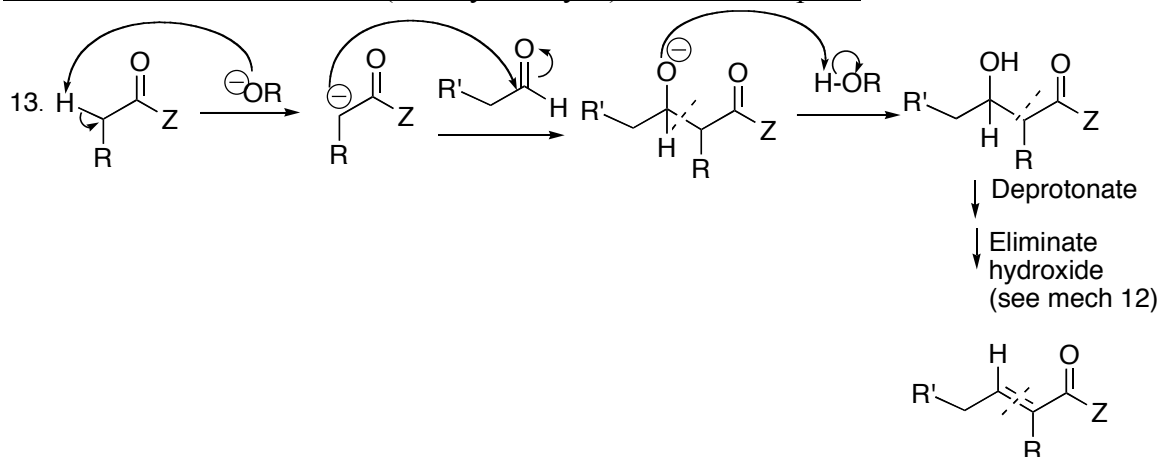
General Dehydration of  $\beta$ -hydroxy Carbonyls to Give  $\alpha,\beta$ -unsaturated carbonyls

-Aldol dehydration

-Mech under basic conditions

- $\beta$ -hydroxy Carbonyls can also eliminate water to give enones under acid conditions, via a different mechanism.

Crossed Aldol Reaction, in Which One carbonyl compound serves selectively as the Enolate Precursor and a different one (usually aldehyde) as the electrophile



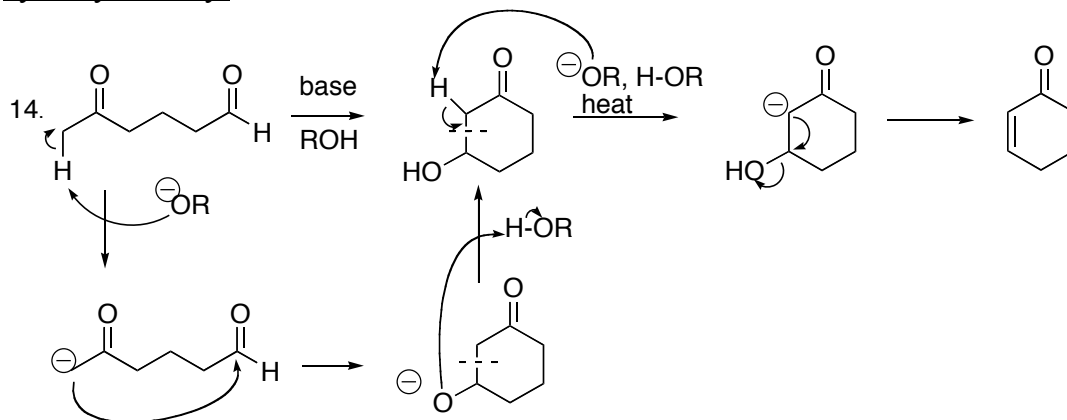
-Crossed Aldol (2 different carbonyls)

-Many variations, but there must be some differentiation so that one acts selectively as the enolate and the other as the electrophile

-because aldehydes are so much more reactive as electrophiles, and because ketones are so much weaker as electrophiles and even when they do function as electrophiles the addition is reversible, crossed aldols between ketones and aldehydes work well, with the ketone reacting as the enolate and the aldehyde as the electrophile.

-The mechanisms for the addition and also the subsequent possibly dehydration are essentially the same as for reactions 10-12.

Aldol Cyclization: Basically a crossed aldol reaction in which both carbonyls are tied together, and in which aldol reaction results in formation of a cyclic rather than an acyclic  $\beta$ -hydroxy carbonyl



-Intramolecular aldol

-many variations

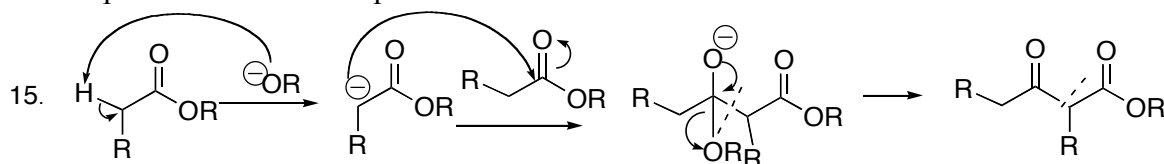
-Normally only good for 5, 6-membered rings

-There are often multiple  $\alpha$ -hydrogens that can give multiple different enolates. But since enolate formation is reversible, reaction proceeds via the enolate that can:

react with the best electrophile. (Aldehyde rather than a ketone), and react to give the best ring size (5 or 6 membered rings  $\gg$  7-membered rings  $\gg$  3-, 4-, or  $\geq$ 8-membered rings)

## ESTER as ELECTROPHILE

Simple Claisen Reaction, giving a  $\beta$ -ketoester. In which the same ester functions as both enolate precursor and electrophile.

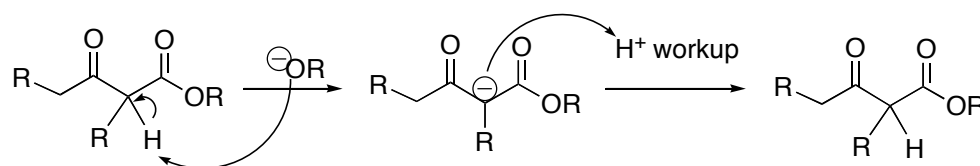


-Produces 1,3-ketoester

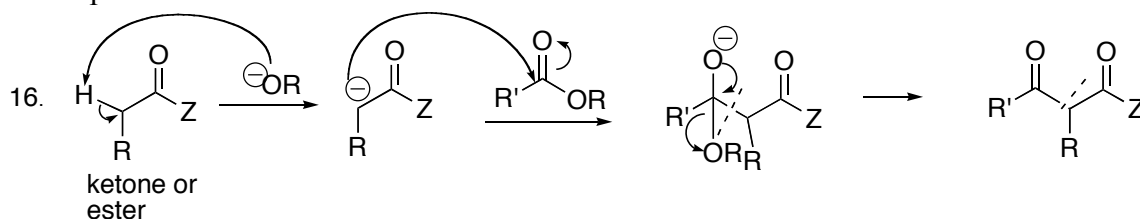
-The alkoxide used as base should match the R-group found in the ester. For example, if the ester OR group is OMe, then the base should be NaOMe/MeOH. If the ester OR group is OEt, then NaOEt/EtOH should be used, etc.

-Following enolate addition, the tetrahedral intermediate is *not* stable, and eliminates alkoxide to regenerate the carbonyl.

-Note: Under basic reaction conditions, the keto-ester is normally deprotonated to a stabilized enolate. Following acidic workup, the enolate is reprotonated to give the actual keto-ester product. The enolate formation is actually crucial, because it “protects” the ketone from nucleophilic attack.



Crossed Claisen Reaction, giving either a  $\beta$ -ketoester or a 1,3-diketone. In which either a ketone or an ester functions as the enolated precursor, and a different ester functions as electrophile.



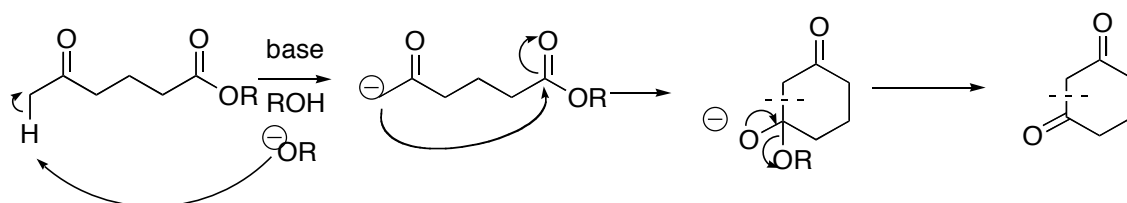
-Crossed Claisen

-If the “enolate” carbonyl is a ketone, get a 1,3-diketone

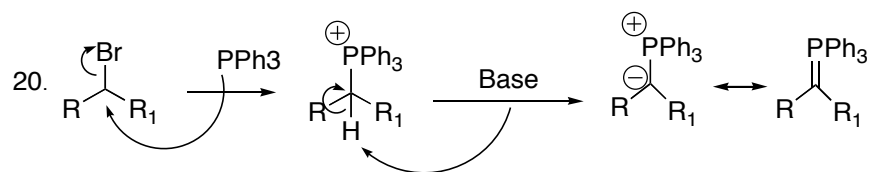
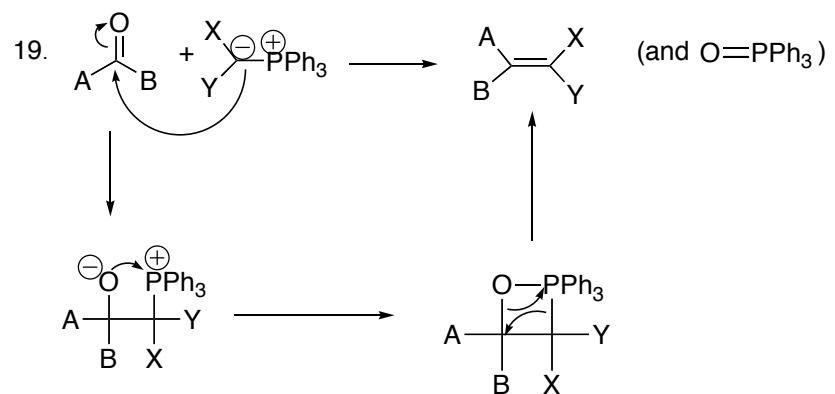
-When ketones and esters are mixed, the ketone usually functions as the enolate and the ester as the electrophile, because a) the ketone is more acidic, so makes enolate more easily, and b) addition/elimination to the ester is irreversible, whereas addition to ketone is reversible

-If the “enolate” carbonyl is an ester, get a 1,3-ketoester. These work best if only one of the esters has  $\alpha$ -hydrogens, so that you have just one enolate available.

-May include cyclic Claisen reactions (see example below)



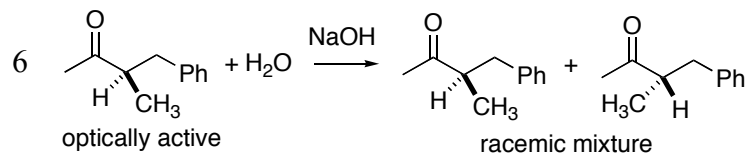
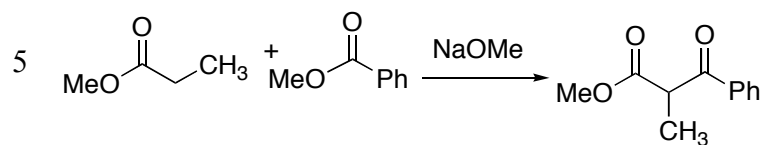
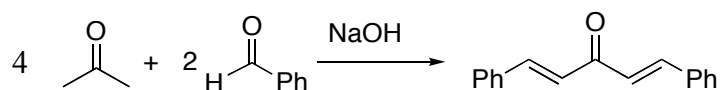
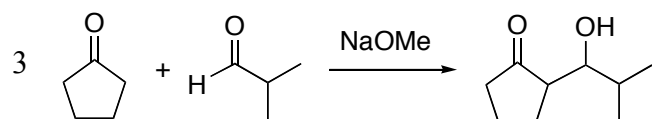
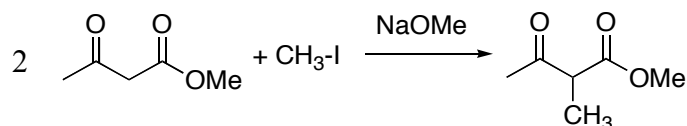
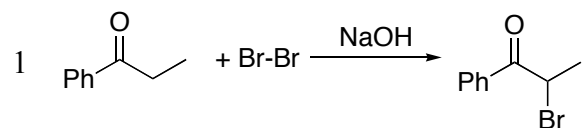
## WITTIG REACTION



**Ch. 22 Additions and Condensations of Enols and Enolate Ions**

A. Intro: What is in Common for the Following Reactions, and How Do They Work?

- You should eventually be able to draw the mechanism for these (and other) reactions...

Key IntermediateThings in Common**KEY:**

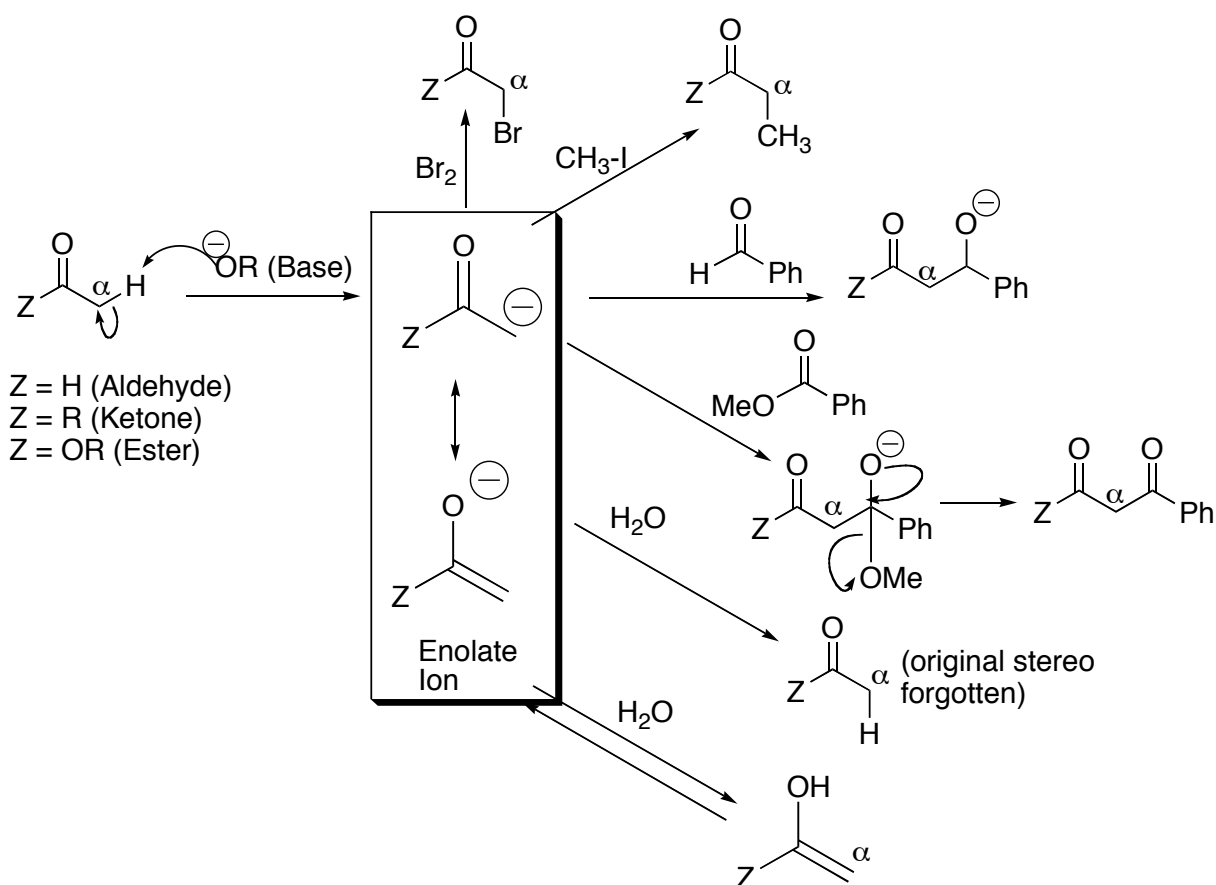
1.

2.

3.

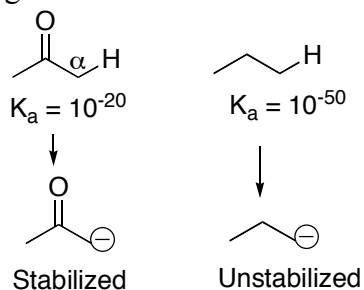
4.



**TYPICAL MECHANISM: Via ENOLATE Anion**


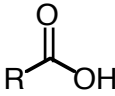
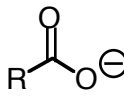
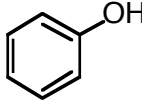
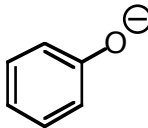
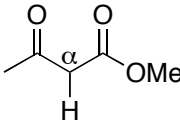
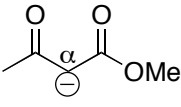


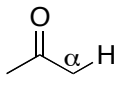

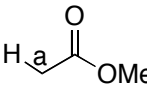
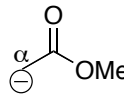
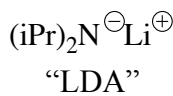

**Under base conditions, a carbonyl compound with an  $\alpha$ -hydrogen can be deprotonated to give a resonance-stabilized, delocalized “enolate” anion, which is nucleophilic at the  $\alpha$ -carbon.**

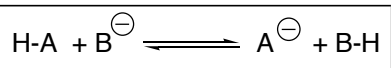
- Normal C-H bonds are very non-acidic. But C-H bonds  $\alpha$  to a carbonyl are much more acidic because the resulting anion is resonance stabilized and is shared by the oxygen.



- The  $\alpha$ -carbon has two other attachments in addition to the carbonyl and the H shown in this page. The other attachments will remain attached as spectators, and need to be accounted for in drawing products.
- $\alpha$ -Hydrogens are only slightly less acidic than is water or alcohol hydrogens

• **B: Acid/Base Considerations (Sections 22.2, 15) Acidity Table**

<u>Class</u>	<u>Structure</u>	<u>K<sub>a</sub></u>	<u>Acid Strength</u>	<u>Anion</u>	<u>Base Strength</u>
Strong Acids	H-Cl	10 <sup>2</sup>			
Carboxylic Acid		10 <sup>-5</sup>			
Phenol		10 <sup>-10</sup>			
1,3-Dicarbonyl		10 <sup>-12</sup>			
Water	HOH	10 <sup>-16</sup>			
Alcohol	ROH	10 <sup>-17</sup>			
Ketones and Aldehydes		10 <sup>-20</sup>			
Ester		10 <sup>-24</sup>			
Amine (N-H)	(iPr) <sub>2</sub> N-H	10 <sup>-33</sup>		 "LDA"	
Alkane (C-H)	RCH <sub>3</sub>	10 <sup>-50</sup>			

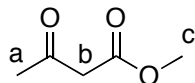


Relative stability of anions dictates equilibrium

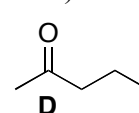
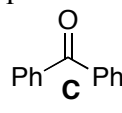
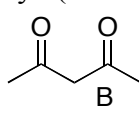
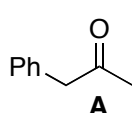
Notes to remember

1. Carbonyls acidify  $\alpha$ -H's (anion stabilized)
2. 1,3-Dicarbonyls are much more acidic than monocarbonyls (anion is more stabilized)
3. Ketones are more acidic than esters
4. A "lower" anion on the chart can favorably deprotonate any acid that's "higher" on chart. Because any acid-base equilibrium will always favor the more stable anion.
5. "LDA" is strong enough to **completely** deprotonate **ketones, esters**, or 1,3-dicarbonyls
6. NaOH, NaOR can **completely** deprotonate a 1,3-dicarbonyl (but not ketones or esters)
7. NaOH, NaOR do **not** completely deprotonate ketones or esters, but do provide a usable equilibrium supply of the enolate that can proceed to product in some reactions.

1. Rank the acidity of the hydrogens at the labeled positions, 1 being most acidic. Draw the three anions that would result from deprotonation at the three spots, and any pertinent resonance structures.



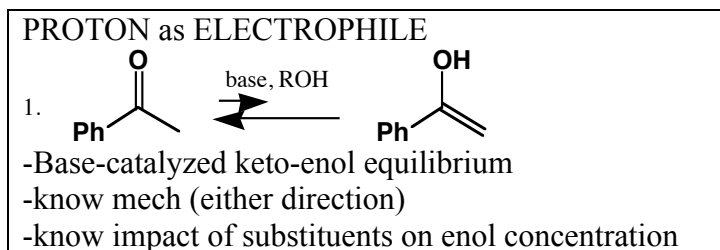
2. For the following compounds, record to what degree they would be deprotonated by NaOCH<sub>3</sub> or LDA [LiN(iPr)<sub>2</sub>] respectively. The basic choices are “totally” (>98%), “zero” (no enolate whatsoever) or “slightly” (definitely some equilibrium amount, but <10%).



LDA:

NaOMe:

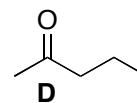
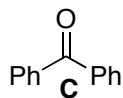
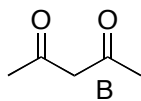
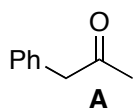
### C. Enolates and Enols: Protons as Electrophile (22.2)



Notes:

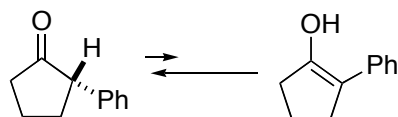
1. Rapid equilibrium exists between the keto and the enol form
2. Both acid and base catalyze the equilibrium
3. All carbonyls with  $\alpha$ -hydrogens can equilibrate with enols
  - But if there are no  $\alpha$ -hydrogens, a carbonyl can **not** have any enol (or enolate!)
4. Ranking the population of enol:
  - a. Normally, <5% enol will be present in solution, and >95% will be in the ketone form
  - b. No  $\alpha$ -hydrogens  $\rightarrow$  no enol
  - c. Two factors can stabilize enols and enrich the equilibrium enol population
    - Hydrogen bonding of the enol O-H to some other heteroatom (stabilizing)
    - Conjugation of the enol alkene (stabilizing)

1. For the following compounds, draw the best possible enol (if any) rank them according to which would have the greatest amount of **enol isomer** present at equilibrium, 1 being most.



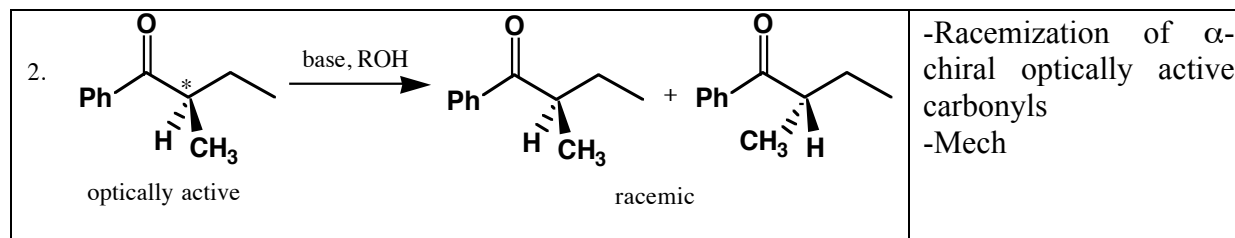
Mechanism for Base-Catalyzed Keto-Enol Equilibration:

2. Keto-Enol Mechanisms (use hydroxide as base, but many bases will do...)  
 a. Draw the mechanism for conversion of the keto form to the enol form

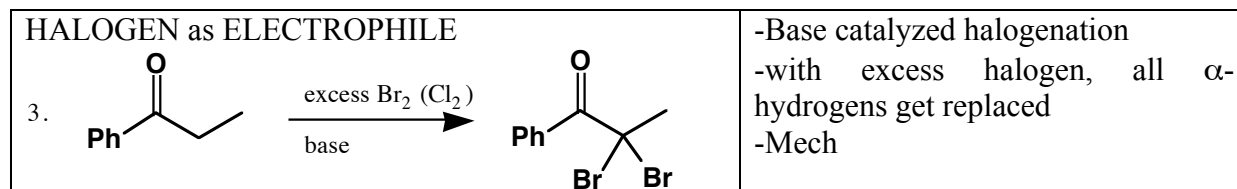


- b. Draw the mechanism for conversion of the enol form to the ketone

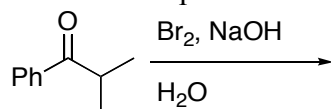
Racemization of  $\alpha$ -chiral Compounds via Enolates



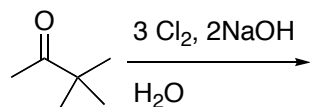
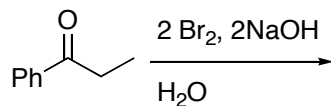
## D. Halogen Electrophiles (22.3) (Skip 22.4)



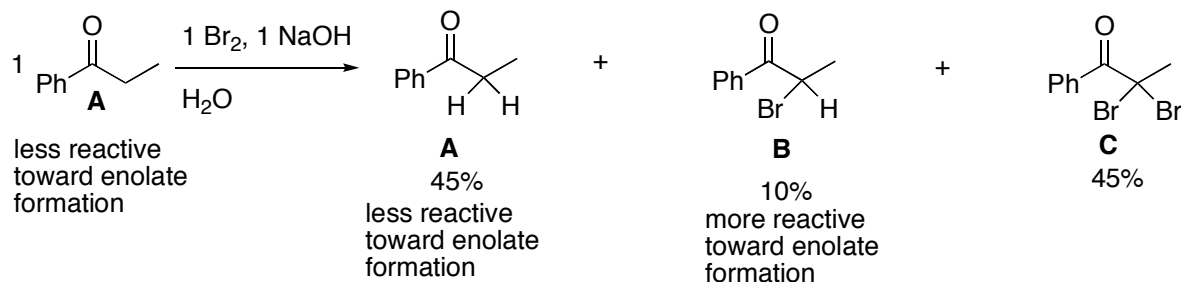
1. Draw the product and mechanism for the following

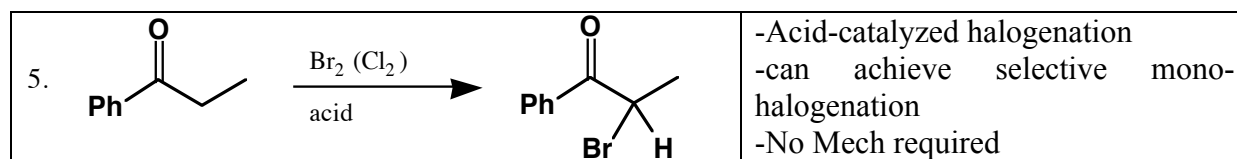


2. Draw products for the following reactions

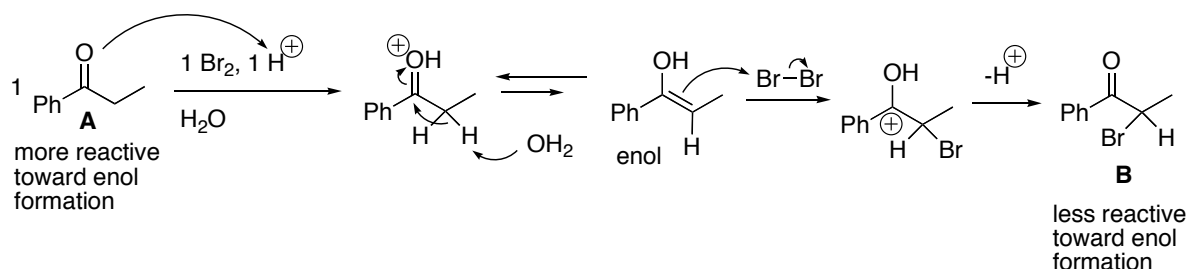
Polyhalogenation versus monohalogenation

- Under base conditions, if you add only one equivalent of  $\text{Br}_2$  (or  $\text{Cl}_2$ ) when an  $\alpha$ -carbon has more than one  $\alpha$ -hydrogen, clean mono-halogenation (product **B**) does not occur
- Instead messy mixtures result
- The major product is polyhalogenated (**C**), combined with a bunch of unreacted starting material (**A**)
- Why? Because the electron-withdrawing halogen makes product **B** more acidic (resulting in faster enolate formation) than the starting material **A**

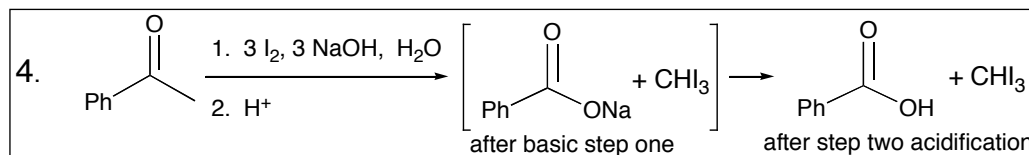


Acid-Catalyzed Monohalogenation (not for test)

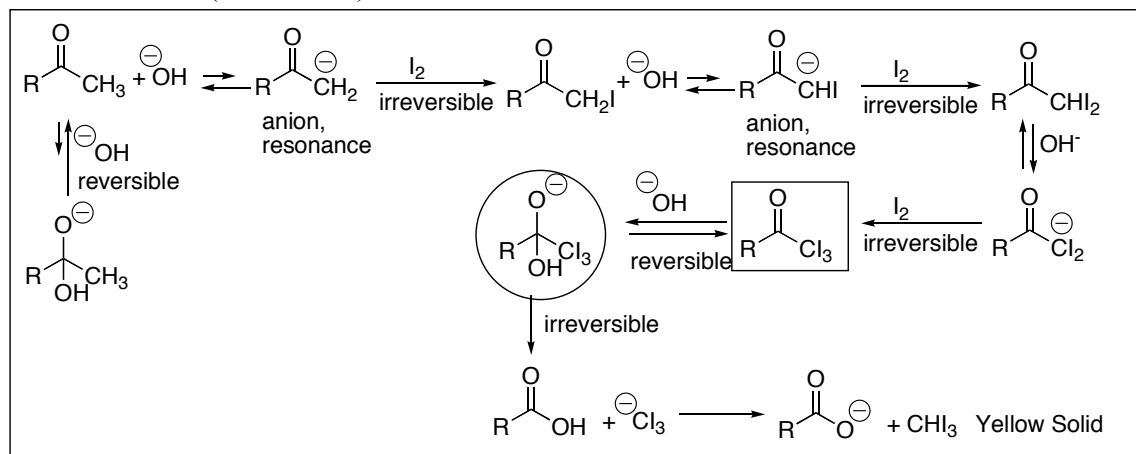
- Under acid conditions, a very different mechanism takes place which allows clean monohalogenation to proceed
- Enol mechanism (not for test)
- Cationic mechanism
- An electron-withdrawing anion stabilizes and accelerates enolate formation, but destabilizes and decelerated enol formation

The Iodoform Reaction:

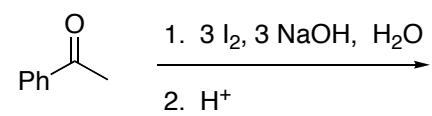
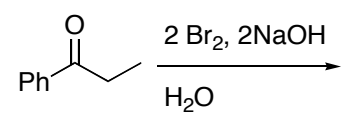
- A Chemical Test for methyl ketones (unknowns problems)
- A synthetic technique for converting methyl ketones to carboxylic acids



- You lose one carbon
- This only works for methyl ketones
- The chemical test involves formation of  $\text{CHI}_3$  (iodoform), which is a yellow precipitate (and smelly)
- Mechanism (not for test):

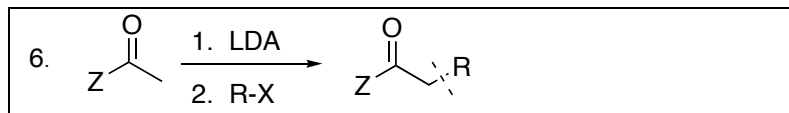


1. Draw products for the following reactions



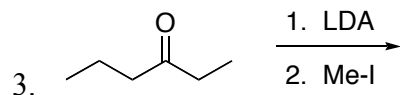
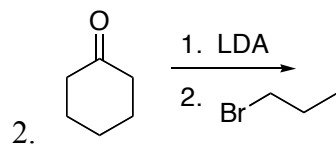
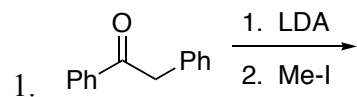
## E. Enolate Alkylation: Alkyl Halides or Tosylates as Electrophiles

Alkylation of Monocarbonyls: Use strong, bulky LDA [ $\text{LiN}(\text{iPr})_2$ ] as base

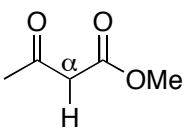
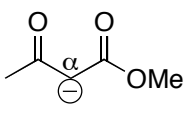
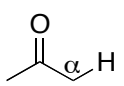
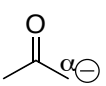


1.  $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$  alkylation reaction restricts R-X (or ROTs) to active,  $1^\circ$  electrophile
2. Ketones, Esters, Amides, Aldehydes all work, so long as they have an  $\alpha$ -hydrogen that can be deprotonated
  - For unsymmetrical ketones, isomer problems can occur (which enolate forms?)
3. Predict the products: Attach the electrophile R group to the  $\alpha$ -carbon
  - This is a substitution reaction:  $\alpha\text{-C-H} + \text{R-X} \rightarrow \alpha\text{-C-R}$
4. Mechanism: Deprotonate first, add the electrophile second
  - Treat LDA as  $\ominus \text{NR}_2$

Practice: Draw products and mechanisms for the following alkylation reactions.





<u>Class</u>	<u>Structure</u>	<u>K<sub>a</sub></u>	<u>Acid Strength</u>	<u>Anion</u>	<u>Base Strength</u>
1,3-Dicarbonyl		10 <sup>-12</sup>			
Water	HOH	10 <sup>-16</sup>		HO <sup>⊖</sup>	
Alcohol	ROH	10 <sup>-17</sup>		RO <sup>⊖</sup>	
Ketones and Aldehydes		10 <sup>-20</sup>			
Amine (N-H)	(iPr) <sub>2</sub> N-H	10 <sup>-33</sup>		(iPr) <sub>2</sub> N <sup>⊖</sup> Li <sup>⊕</sup> "LDA"	

For Monocarbonyls, why must we use LDA as base, rather than a normal oxygen base (NaOH or NaOCH<sub>3</sub>) or a simpler Nitrogen base (NaNH<sub>2</sub>)?

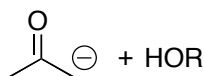
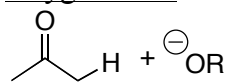
**LDA is strong and bulky**

**1. Base Strength:** the LDA base must be strong enough to **completely** deprotonate the carbonyl before the electrophile is added

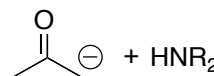
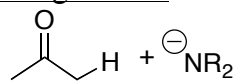
- With oxygen bases, the equilibrium favors the oxygen anion rather than the enolate, and it's just the oxygen anion which attacks the electrophile

For the following, which side would the equilibrium favor, and what product(s) would form?

Oxygen Base



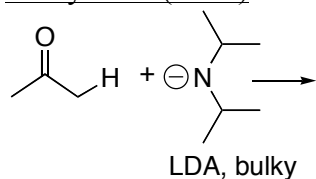
Nitrogen Base



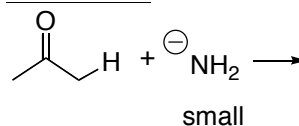
**2. Base size:** A bulky base favors deprotonation over nucleophilic attack

- Comparable to E<sub>2</sub> versus S<sub>N</sub>2 competition

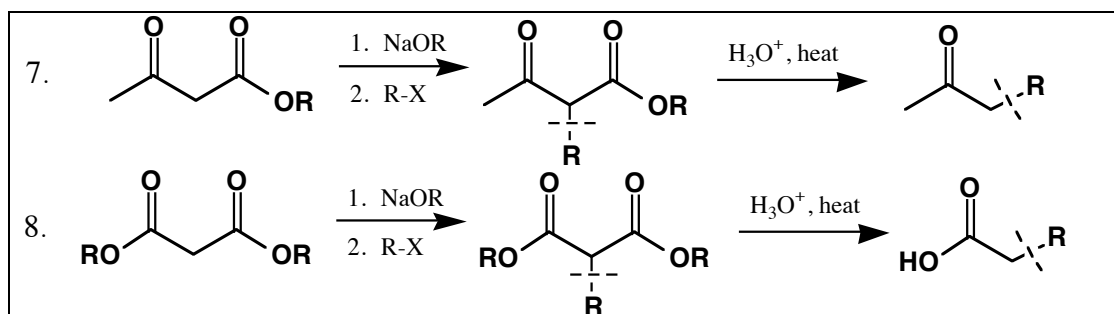
Bulky Base (LDA)



Small Base



## Alkylation of 1,3-dicarbonyls: Now oxygen bases are fine

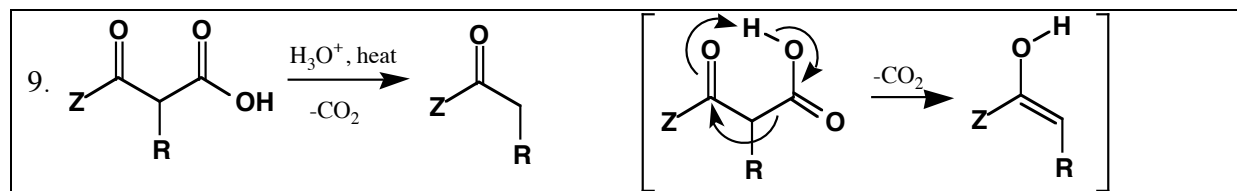
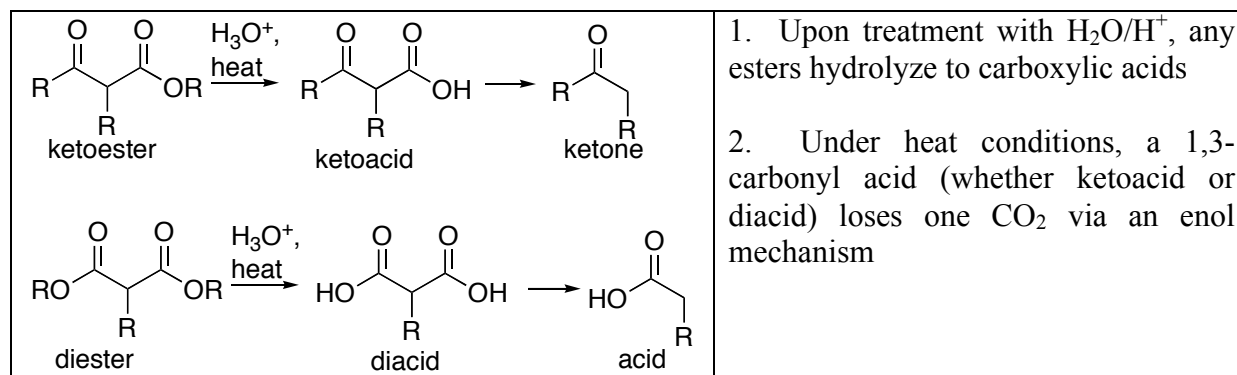


## Stage One: Alkylation of a 1,3-Dicarbonyl

1.  $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$  alkylation reaction restricts R-X (or ROTs) to active, 1° electrophile
2. The dicarbonyl can be a 1,3-diketone, a 1,3 ketoester, or a 1,3-diester
3. Predict the products: Attach the electrophile R group to the  $\alpha$ -carbon
4. Position of alkylation is unambiguous: in between the two carbonyls
5. Mechanism: Deprotonate first, add the electrophile second

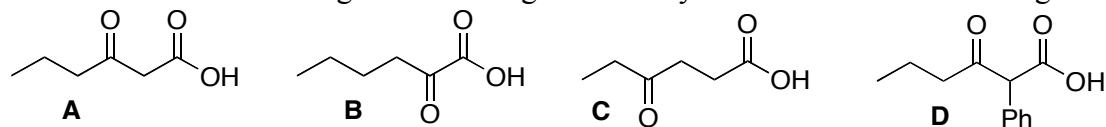
- $\ominus$  OR bases are fine, no need for LDA

## Stage Two: Acid/water hydrolysis of any esters, and decarboxylation of 1,3-carbonyl acids

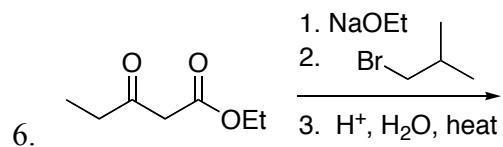
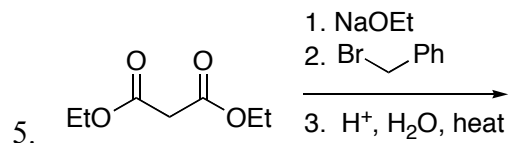
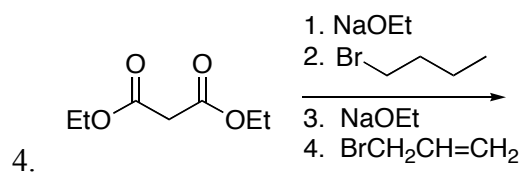
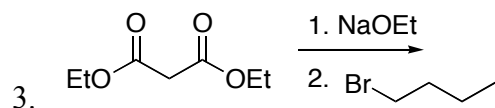
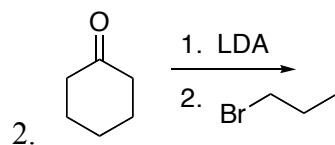


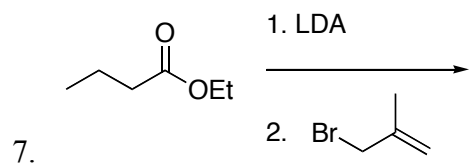
1. Decarboxylation of a 1,3-carbonyl acid
2. "Z" can be anything so that you end with a ketone, aldehyde, or acid at the end
3. Mechanism responsibility
  - a. Be able to write the acid-catalyzed enol to carbonyl isomerization (see chapter 18)
  - b. Know that an enol is involved in the rate-determining step
    - -rate will be impacted by stability of the enol intermediate
      1. conjugation of the enol alkene will help
      2. hydrogen-bonding of the enol O-H will help

1. Which of the following would undergo decarboxylation? And which would go fastest?



Draw products for the following alkylation reactions, often involving ester hydrolyses and thermal decarboxylations.

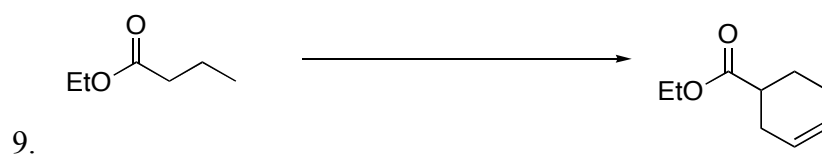
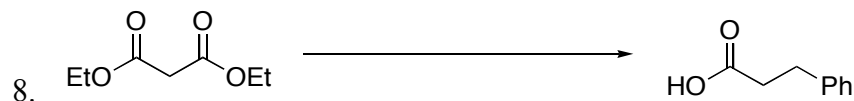




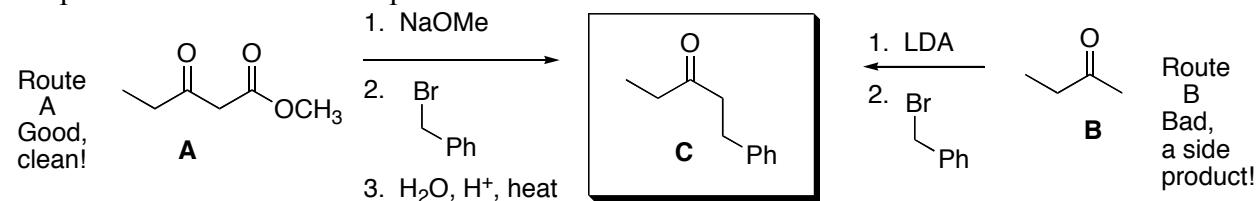
### Some Synthetic Strategy Tips

- Alkylation resulting eventually in an **acid**: from 1,3-diester, via NaOR, then subsequent ester hydrolysis/decarboxylation
- Alkylation resulting eventually in a **mono-ester**: from ester using LDA
- Alkylation resulting eventually in a **mono-ketone**, where unambiguous deprotonation was possible: from ketone using LDA
- Alkylation resulting in a **mono-ketone**, where unambiguous LDA deprotonation would not have been possible: from keto-ester using NaOR, then subsequent ester hydrolysis/decarboxylation

Provide reagents for the following:

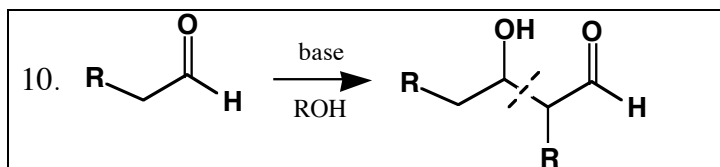


10. Shown below are two possible precursors **A** and **B** for making target ketone **C**. One works well, the other has a problem. Which is the good precursor, and which precursor/route will have problems?

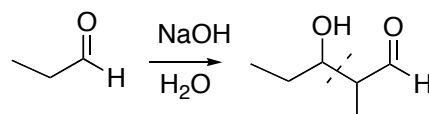


## F. Aldehydes or Ketones as Electrophiles: The Aldol Reaction (22.7-11)

**The basic aldol reaction:** in which the same aldehyde functions as both enolate and electrophile, and in which a  $\beta$ -hydroxyaldehyde is produced.

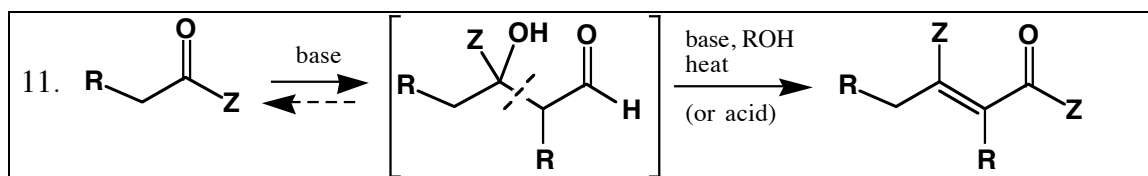


1. Try to draw the mechanism for the following.

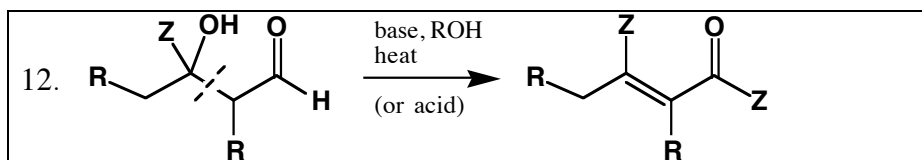
Notes:

- Product:  $\beta$ -hydroxycarbonyl
- One carbonyl converts to an enolate, another in its neutral form functions as electrophile
  - with oxygen anion as base, most carbonyl is in neutral form, only a small equilibrium population of enolate anion at any time.
- Products and spectators: The  $\alpha$ -carbon loses an H to make the enolate, but otherwise both the enolate and the electrophile retain all their spectator attachments
- 3-step mechanism: deprotonate (to make enolate) – react (with electrophile) – protonate
  - the react-protonate steps are like normal Grignard addition-protonation
- Aldol formation is reversible: favorable equilibrium for aldehydes, not for ketone
  - With ketones, either you don't isolate  $\beta$ -hydroxycarbonyl. Either you proceed on to alkene (see below) or else you just recover starting ketone

**Aldol Condensation:** In which a  $\beta$ -hydroxycarbonyl is formed but then is pushed on via loss of H and OH to produce an "enone" ( $\alpha,\beta$ -unsaturated carbonyl)

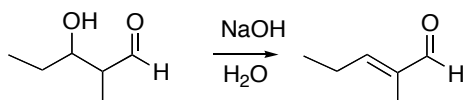
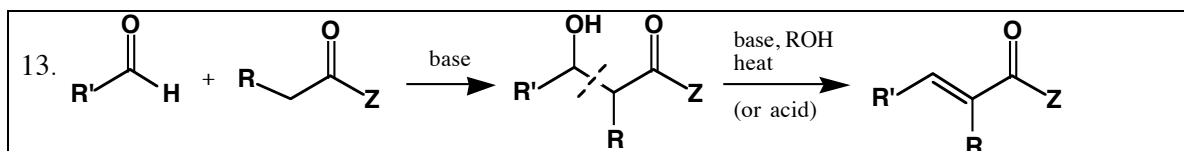


- Elimination is irreversible
- Ketones as well as Aldehydes can be used
  - In ketone case, unfavorable aldol equilibrium is still drawn off to enone
- In Aldehyde case, can stop at aldol if you don't heat
  - To force toward the enone, give extra time or extra heat
- Two  $\alpha$ -hydrogens must be available for removal; otherwise product retains all spectators
- Mechanism required

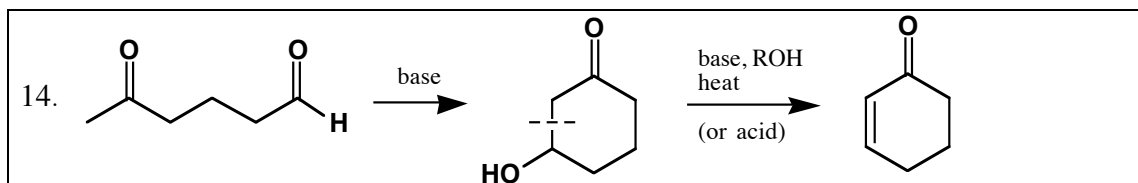
**General Process for Dehydration of  $\beta$ -Hydroxy Carbonyl Compounds**

- We will focus on the base/enolate mechanism
- But this elimination is also possible using acid catalysis, via a different mechanism

1. Try to draw the mechanism for the following.

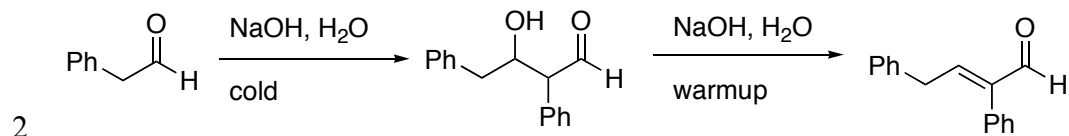
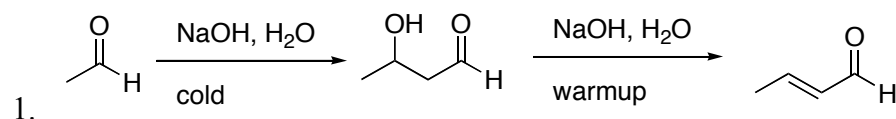
**Crossed Aldol Reactions: Using 2 Different Carbonyls, One of Which Functions as Neutral Electrophile (normally an aldehyde) and the Other as the Nucleophilic Enolate**

- Mechanisms required
- Many variations, but there must be some differentiation so that one carbonyl acts selectively as the enolate and the other as the electrophile
  - If one carbonyl lacks any  $\alpha$ -hydrogens, it can't be converted to nucleophile and can only function as electrophile
  - Aldehydes are much better electrophiles than ketones
    - When ketones do function as electrophiles in aldol reactions, the reactions usually just reverses itself anyway
  - Sometimes conjugation favors formation of one enolate over another

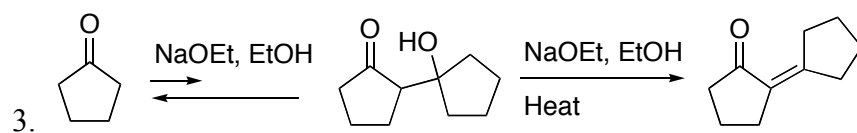
**Ring-Forming Aldol Reactions**

- Intramolecular crossed aldol reactions
- Electrophile: if one of the carbonyls is an aldehyde, it will function as the electrophile
- Normally only good for 5, 6-membered rings
  - If more than one enolate can form, use the one that could produce a 5- or 6-ring

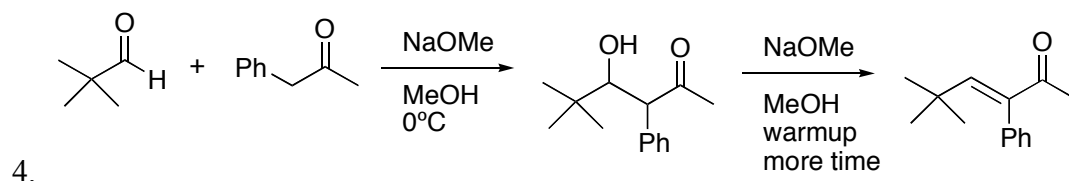
## Aldol Examples: Aldehydes/Ketones as Electrophiles



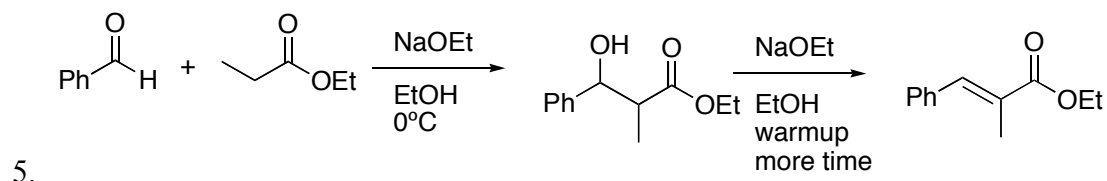
- With aldehydes, you can usually stop at the  $\beta$ -hydroxy carbonyl stage or proceed on to the  $\alpha,\beta$ -unsaturated carbonyl, depending on time and temperature.



- With ketones as electrophiles, the aldol reaction to give the  $\beta$ -hydroxy carbonyl is normally reversible with an unfavorable equilibrium. However, while it is not possible to isolate high yields of the  $\beta$ -hydroxy ketone, further dehydration to give the enone is irreversible and can give good yields of the enone.

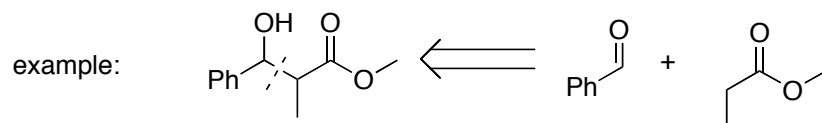


- With two different carbonyl compounds, one must function selectively as the enolate precursor, and the other as the electrophile.
- Since aldehydes are much more electrophilic, when mixed with a ketone **the aldehyde will always be the electrophile**
- If there are more than one site where an enolate might form, the most acidic site that would give a stabilized anion will form preferentially

Comments

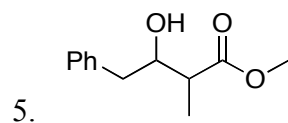
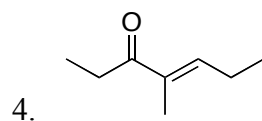
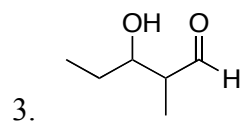
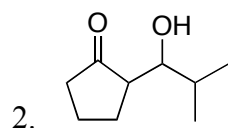
- Basic
- One carbonyl functions as the enolate nucleophile, a second carbonyl as the neutral electrophile. The enolate precursor and the electrophile carbonyl may be the same (examples 1-3) or different (examples 4 and 5)
- Loss of an  $\alpha$ -H, replaced by an  $\alpha,\beta$  C-C bond.

All of the following molecules can be made by an aldol-type reaction or an aldol-type condensation (aldol followed by loss of H<sub>2</sub>O). Draw the carbonyl compound or compounds from which each is derived.

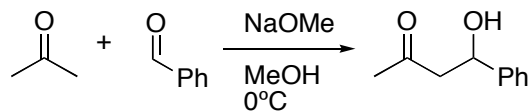


Strategy:

- Identify the carbonyl in the product, and mark off which are the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  carbons. **The key bond connection will have been between the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  carbons.**
- $\beta$  was originally a carbonyl (the electrophile carbonyl)
- $\alpha$  originally had H's (it was the enolate carbanion)
- Note: **any attachments on the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  carbons are spectators.** If they are there at the end, they must have been attached at the beginning!

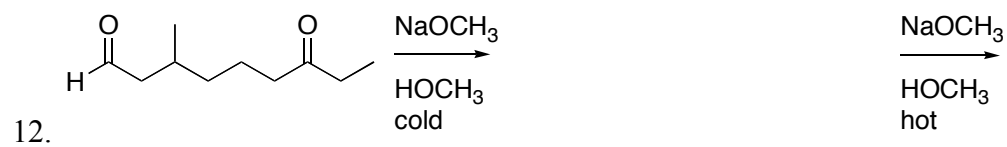
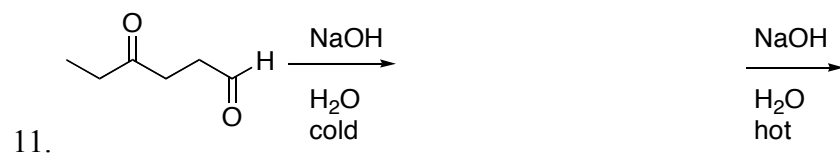
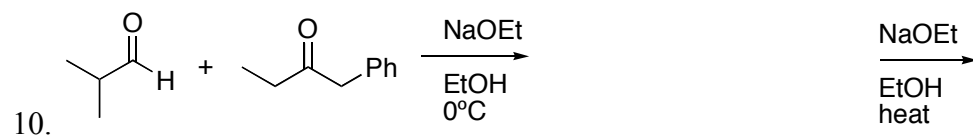
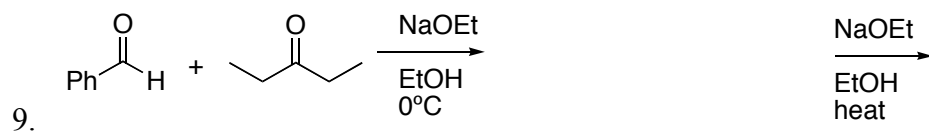
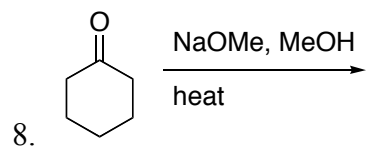


6. Draw the mechanism for the following reaction.

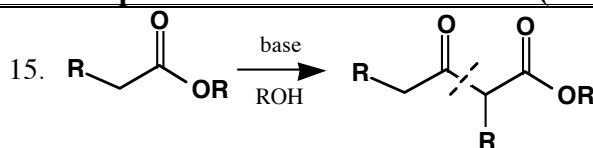




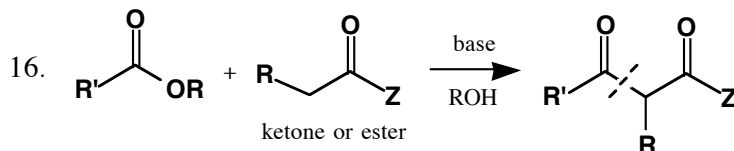
Provide products for the following aldol reactions.



13. Draw the mechanism for phase one and then phase two of the reaction in problem 10.

**G. Esters as Electrophiles. The Claisen Reaction. (22.12-14)**

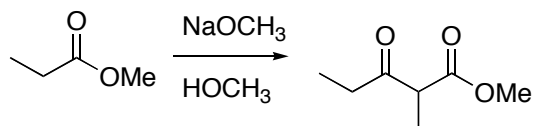
- Claisen Reaction
- Mech
- Produces 1,3-ketoester



- Crossed Claisen
- May include cyclic Claisen reactions
- If the “enolate” carbonyl is a ketone, get a 1,3-diketone
- If the “enolate” carbonyl is an ester, get a 1,3-ketoester
- Mech

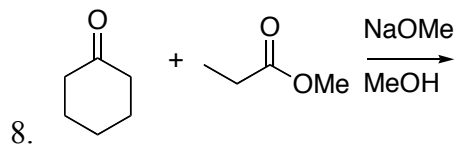
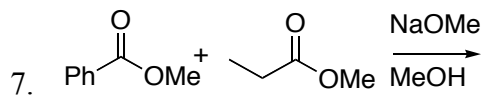
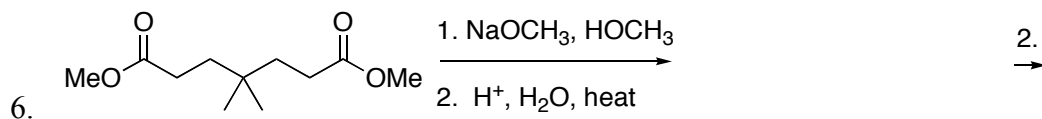
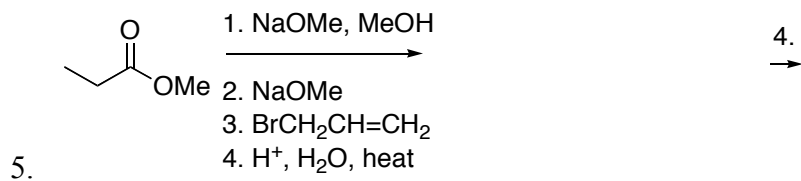
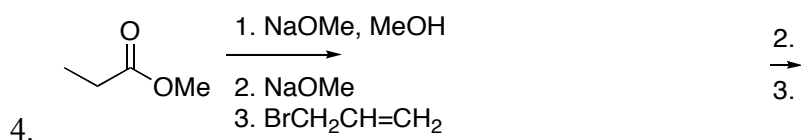
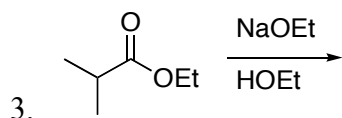
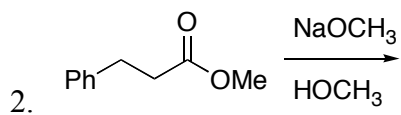
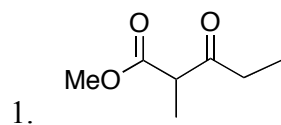
Mechanism: enolate formation – addition to ester carbonyl – elimination of alkoxy anion

1. Draw the mechanism for the following reaction. (Claisen reaction).

Notes

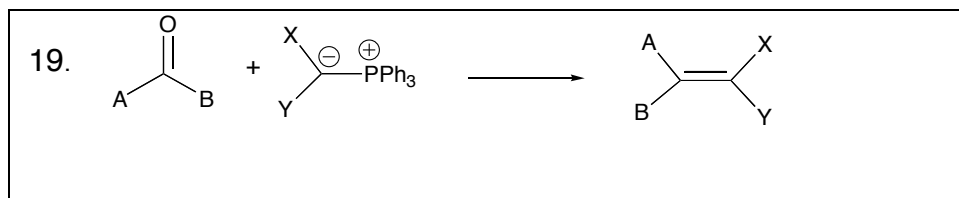
- a. Product:  $\beta$ -keto ester (or ketone). The  $\beta$ -carbonyl was an ester, and the  $\alpha$ -carbon was enolate
- b. In actual laboratory, an acid workup is always required
  - The product, which has a 1,3-dicarbonyl, is actually more acidic than anything else, so it also gets deprotonated to the enolate; acid required to reprotonate it
  - The enolate of a 1,3-dicarbonyl is too stable to attack esters, so it doesn't compete as a nucleophile
- c. Mechanism: does **not** involve direct  $S_N2$  displacement on ester; addition to the carbonyl first to make a tetrahedral carbon (just like a Grignard addition) is followed by rapid fragmentation of the alkoxy group
- d. In crossed Claisens that involve ketones, why does the ketone function as enolate nucleophile and the ester as the electrophile, even though ketones are normally better electrophiles?
  - Ketones are more acidic, so are more easily converted to enolates
  - While ketones are more reactive as electrophiles, addition to ketones is reversible and doesn't lead to product; whereas addition to esters leads irreversibly to product

Provide products or reactants for the following Claisen reactions.



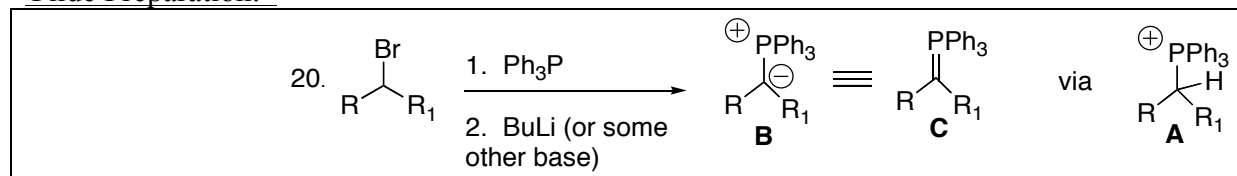
H. The WITTIG REACTION. A process involving carbonyls for coupling carbons to make alkenes. (18.13)

- No enolate chemistry is involved
- But this process is complementary to the aldol condensation for making alkenes
- Very Powerful route to alkene synthesis



- The carbonyl can be an aldehyde or a ketone
- Phosphorus “ylide”: a molecule with adjacent positive and negative charge, but overall neutral
- The ylide carbon is strongly nucleophilic

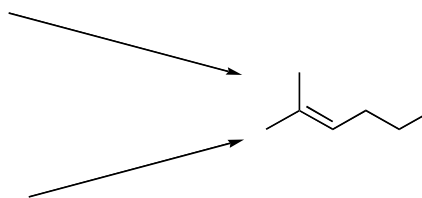
Ylide Preparation:



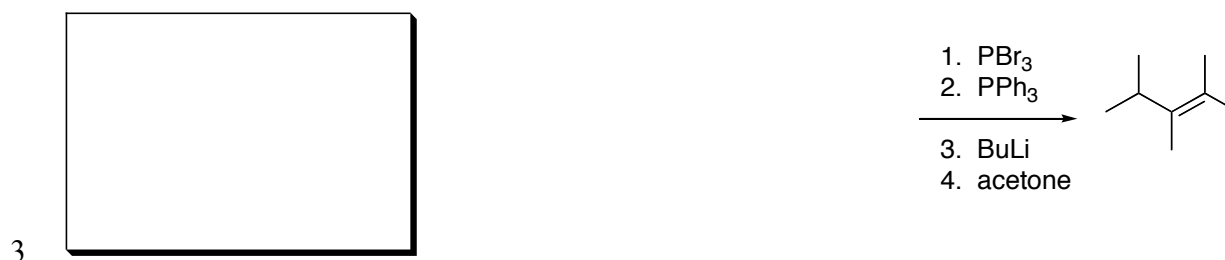
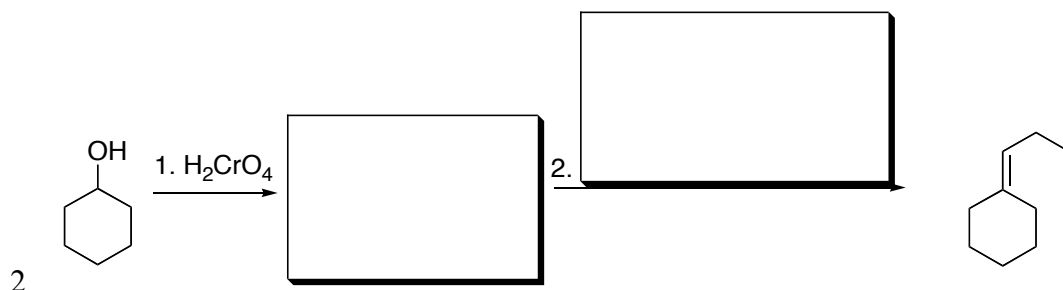
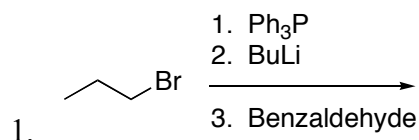
- $\text{PPh}_3$  is a decent nucleophile, produces phosphonium salt (A)
- Alkyl bromide is best  $1^\circ$  ( $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$  mechanism), but  $2^\circ$  can also work
- The phosphonium salts A are weakly acidic and can be deprotonated by strong base (LDA also works) to produce Wittig reagent B
- Wittig Reagent B is really in resonance with version C
  - B helps explain why the carbon is so nucleophilic
  - C is good for predicting alkene products
- Bromide precursors for Wittig reagents are often available from alcohols, via  $\text{PBr}_3$ 
  - $\text{PBr}_3 - \text{PPh}_3 - \text{BuLi}$  is a common sequence for converting alcohols into Wittig reagents
  - PCC or  $\text{H}_2\text{CrO}_4$  is a common conversion for alcohols into aldehydes or ketones (Wittig acceptors)

Draw the product, reagent, or starting material for the following Wittig reactions.

Combo 1:



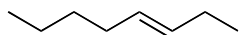
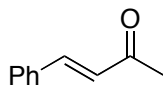
Combo 2:



### General Routes to Make Alkenes

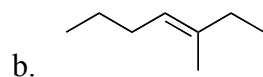
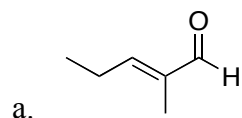
- **Wittig Reactions.**
  - Very general
  - Useful for making more elaborate organics, because two subcomponents can be coupled to make a larger product.
  - Technically longer and more difficult than an aldol condensation, so should not be used to make enones when an aldol condensation could be used instead.
- **Aldol Condensations.**
  - Great for making enones ( $\alpha,\beta$ -unsaturated carbonyls). But limited to making enones.
  - If you see an enone target, make via aldol condensation.
  - Useful for making more elaborate organics, because two subcomponents can be coupled to make a larger product.
- **Elimination reactions** (from either halides or alcohols).
  - Not useful for building up carbon chain lengths. Simply involves transforming one functional group into another.

4. For the following alkenes, which method should you use, and what would be the immediate precursors that would be suitable?



5. Synthesis design. Design syntheses of the following products, starting from **alcohols of 4 carbons or less**. Some key reminder reactions:

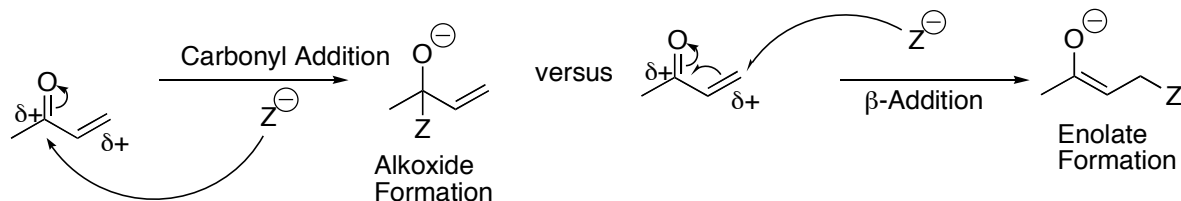
- PCC for oxidizing 1° alcohols to aldehydes
- $\text{H}_2\text{CrO}_4$  for oxidizing 2° alcohols to ketones
- $\text{PBr}_3$  for converting 1° or 2° alcohols to bromides needed for making Wittig reagents



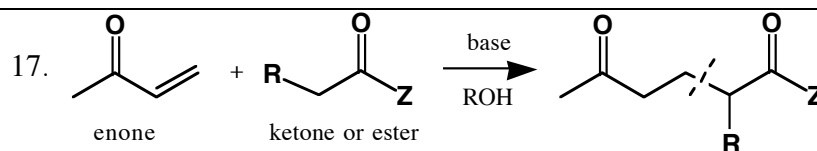
I. Enones as Electrophiles (22.18-19) Michael Reactions/ $\beta$ -Addition (Not for Test)

General: Enones as Electrophiles. Nucleophiles that attack enones must choose between:

- Carbonyl addition
- $\beta$ -Addition
  - this isn't bad, as it results in enolate formation

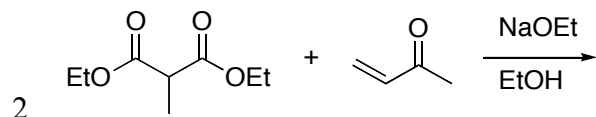
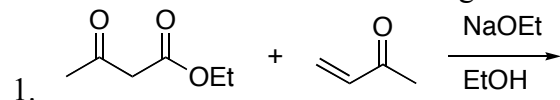


<p><u>Carbonyl addition normally dominates with:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• RMgBr</li> <li>• RLi</li> <li>• NaBH<sub>4</sub></li> <li>• LiAlH<sub>4</sub></li> <li>• LiCCR</li> </ul>	<p><u><math>\beta</math>- addition normally dominates with:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• enolates of dicarbonyls</li> <li>• sometimes enolates of monocarbonyls (but not always)</li> <li>• Cuprates (R<sub>2</sub>CuLi)</li> </ul> <p style="text-align: center;">Prep: 2RBr <math>\xrightarrow[2. 1 \text{ CuI}]{1. 4 \text{ Li}}</math> R<sub>2</sub>CuLi</p>
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-<sup>o</sup>Michael Addition

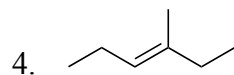
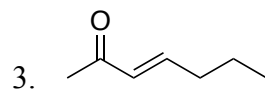
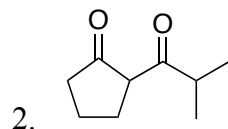
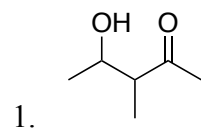
-1,5 dicarbonyls are well suited for ring-forming aldol or Claisen reactions

Draw the Products for the following Michael reactions



**Retrosynthesis Practice:** Design syntheses for the following targets, starting FROM ALCOHOLS WITH NO MORE THAN 5 CARBONS.

- Cyclopentanol is allowed.
- Esters may be used.
- Aldehydes, ketones, or Wittig reagents must be built from  $\leq 5$ -carbon alcohols.





**Chemical Tests Practice Problems.** For each of the formulas provided, provide a possible structure given the chemical test results.

Common Chemical Tests, for this chapter:

DNP	Tollens	Iodoform	H <sub>2</sub> /Pt	Jones
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Tests for:

Problems:

DNP	Tollens	Iodoform	H <sub>2</sub> /Pt	Jones
Yes	No	No	Yes, gives C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>12</sub> O	No

C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>10</sub>O

DNP	Tollens	Iodoform	H <sub>2</sub> /Pt	Jones
Yes	Yes	No	Yes, gives C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>10</sub> O	Yes

C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>8</sub>O

DNP	Tollens	Iodoform	H <sub>2</sub> /Pt	Jones
Yes	No	Yes	Yes, gives C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>12</sub> O	No

C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>8</sub>O

