COLLEGE ORGANIC CHEMISTRY 2011 OUTLINES

Organic Chemistry Chapter 1 – Structure, Bonding, Acids and Bases, Nomenclature Lewis Structures

Electrons and Bonding

wave $\overline{\text{functions }(\psi)\text{ and probability functions }(\psi^2)}$ sigma and pi bonds

atomic oribitals and molecular orbitals

hybridization

# of e domains	Hybridization	Bond angle
2	sp	180°
3	sp ²	120°
4	sp ³	109.5°

the bond angle decreases if the central element has non-bonding electrons and is in period two

Resonance

Non-bonding electrons can move to an adjacent bond

 π electrons can move to an adjacent atom or adjacent bond

Electrons tend to move toward a '+' formal charge and/or away from a '-' formal charge

Acids and Bases

 \downarrow pKa = stronger acid, \downarrow pKb = stronger base

The stronger the acid, the weaker its conjugate base and vice-versa.

The more stable the base, the weaker the base.

Ranking Acids and Bases

- 1) <u>Charge</u> More negatively charged species are typically more basic, and more positively charged species are typically more acidic.
- 2) Atom The <u>larger</u> and/or more <u>electronegative</u> the atom with a negative charge, the more stable it is.
- 3) Resonance stabilization.
- 4) <u>Dipole Induction</u> Electron withdrawing groups (i.e., electronegative atoms) near the atom that has the negative charge stabilize the ion/molecule.
- 5) Orbitals a pair of electrons is more stable as follows: $sp > sp^2 > sp^3$

Nomenclature

Alkanes

- 1) Find the longest continuous carbon chain to determine base name.
- 2) Number the carbons, starting on the end closest to the first sutstituent.
- 3) Name the substituents attached to the chain. Use the chain number as the locator. Multiple substituents use di-, tri-, tetra- etc.
- 4) List substituents in alphabetical order. Ignore numerical prefixes and hyphenated prefixes (*tert* and *sec*-), but not iso and cyclo.
- 5) If there is more than one way of numbering the chain to give the substituents the lowest possible numbers, rank the substituents by alphabetical order giving the lower number to the substituent beginning with the letter closer to 'A.'
- 6) If there is more than way of to come up with the longest parent chain, then choose the one with the most substituents.

1 meth

2 eth3 prop

4 but

5 pent6 hex

7 hept

8 oct

9 non

10 dec

11 undec

12 dodec

Naming Complex substituents

Naming alkyl halides, ethers, alcohols, amines, alkenes

Organic Chemisry Chapter 2 – Molecular Interactions and Conformations

Intermolecular Forces

London Dispersion Forces (van der Waals Forces) – weak interactions due to a transient (temporary) dipole -all molecules have these; the larger you are, the larger the force

Dipole-Dipole Forces – interaction between molecules having permanent dipole moments -the larger the dipole moment, the larger the force

Hydrogen Bonding – a super strong dipole-dipole force

- -must have hydrogen bound to F, O, N to H-bond as a pure liquid
- -must only have F, O, N to hydrogen bond with water

Effects on melting pt and boiling pt

Branching decreases the boiling pt, but increases the melting pt

Solubility - "Like dissolves like."

Newman Projections

Staggered and eclipsed conformations Gauche Interactions

Chair Conformations of Cyclohexane

Substituents in equatorial positions are lower in energy (i.e. more stable) than when in axial positions

Axial bonds

Equatorial bonds

1,3-diaxial interactions

Organic Chemistry Chapter 3 – Introduction to Reaction Mechanisms

Arrow Pushing

Show curved arrow pushing:

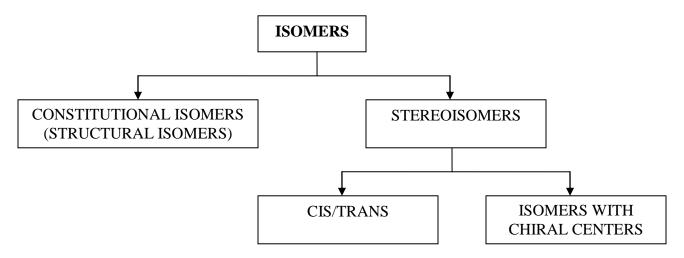
Reaction Coordinate Diagrams

Endogonic vs Exergonic

 $\Delta G = -RTlnK_{eq}$ Transition state, activation energy, rate constant

Hammond Postulate

Organic Chemistry Chapter 4 – Isomers and Stereochemistry



Chiral compounds have non-superimposable (non-identical) mirror images called *enantiomers*.

Achiral compounds have mirror images that are superimposable (identical).

Chiral compounds are said to be *optically active*.

A 50/50 mixture of enantiomers is called a *racemic mixture* and is optically inactive.

Chirality centers are tetrahedral centers with four different substituents (i.e. asymmetric centers). R vs. S

Fischer projections

Multiple chiral centers

Diastereomers

Meso compounds (achiral but having chiral centers)

Amine inversion

Chiral molecules with no chiral centers

Optical Activity

Specific rotation
$$[\alpha] = \underline{\alpha \text{ (observed)}}$$

c = concentration (in g/ml) l = path length (in dm)

Optical purity = ____observed specific rotation___specific rotation of pure enantiomer

Enantiomeric excess = $\frac{\text{excess of single enantiomer}}{\text{entire mixture}}$

Organic Chemistry Chapter 5 – Alkenes

Nomenclature

-E/Z

Addition Reactions to Alkenes

Reagents	What's added	Regioselectivity	Stereoselectivity	Rearrangements
HBr (or HCl, HI)	H ⁺ and Br ⁻	Markovnikov	-	Possible
$\mathrm{H_{3}O}^{+}$	H^+ and OH^-	Markovnikov	-	Possible
H⁺, ROH	H ⁺ and OR ⁻	Markovnikov	-	Possible
Br ₂ /CCl ₄ (or Cl ₂ /CCl ₄)	Br ⁺ and Br ⁻	•	Anti	Not possible
Br ₂ /H ₂ O	Br ⁺ and OH ⁻	Markovnikov	Anti	Not possible
Cl ₂ /H ₂ O				
Br ₂ /ROH	Br ⁺ and OR ⁻	Markovnikov	Anti	Not possible
Cl ₂ /ROH				
(1) $Hg(OAc)_2$, H_2O	H^+ and OH^-	Markovnikov	Anti	Not possible
(2) NaBH ₄				
$(1) Hg(OAc)_2, ROH$	H^+ and OR^-	Markovnikov	Anti	Not possible
(2) NaBH ₄				
(1) BH ₃ ·THF	H^+ and OH^-	Anti-Markovnikov	Syn	Not possible
$(2) H_2O_2, OH^-, H_2O$				
H ₂ /catalyst	H and H	-	Syn	Not possible
(Catalyst = Pt/C, Pd/C, or Ni)				
HBr/ROOR (peroxide)	H ⁻ and Br ⁻	Anti-Markovnikov	-	Not possible
RCO_3H/K_2CO_3 (MCPBA)	epoxide	-	Syn	Not possible
CH_2N_2/Δ (carbene)	cyclopropane	-	Syn	Not Possible

Stability (More substituted alkenes are more stable)

Heats of Hydrogenation

Organic Chemistry Chapter 6 – Alkynes

Nomenclature

Acidity of alkynes

Reduction (Addition of Hydrogen)

Addition of H-X or X₂

Alkynes are less reactive than alkenes in addition rxns

Addition of H₂O

Terminal alkynes require HgSO₄ as a catalyst (Markovnikov)

$$= \underbrace{ \begin{array}{c} \text{HgSO}_4 \\ \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \end{array} } \underbrace{ \begin{array}{c} \text{OH} \\ \text{OH} \end{array} } \underbrace{ \begin{array}{c} \text{tautomerization} \\ \text{OH} \end{array} } \underbrace{ \begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \text{OH} \end{array} }$$

Hydroboration oxidation with a terminal alkyne produces an aldehyde (anti-Markovnikov)

Nucleophilic Addition of Acetylide Ions

Organic Chemistry Chapter 7 – Conjugated Systems

Addition Rxns to Conjugated Dienes

Kinetic Product – has lowest activation energy (has most stable transition state)

Major product at lower temperatures

Thermodynamic Product – most stable product (i.e. most substituted alkene)

Major product at higher temperatures

π Molecular Orbitals

1,3-butadiene allyl system benzene

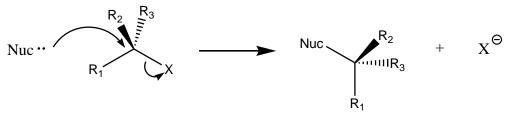
Diels-Alder Rxns ([4 + 2] cycloaddition)

concerted syn addition between dienophile and electron-deficient diene diene must be in the s-cis conformation only 1,2 and 1,4 products observed with unsymmetrical reagents (relationship of D to W) Frontier Molecular Orbital Theory (FMO Theory)
Conservation of orbital symmetry

Organic Chemistry Chapter 8 – Substitution Reactions

S_N**2 reactions** – Substitution Nucleophilic Bimolecular

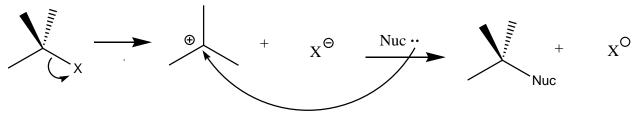
Mechanism



rate = k[substrate][nucleophile] results in inversion of configuration

S_N**1 reactions** – Substitution Nucleophilic Unimolecular

Mechanism



Rate = k[substrate]

Carbocation rearrangements are possible

Results in both inversion and retention of configuration (racemization)

Weak nucleophiles (or low concentrations of strong nucleophiles) are ok as it isn't in the RDS Addition of AgNO₃ facilitates carbocation formation

 $S_N 2$ vs. $S_N 1$

	$S_N 2$	S_N1
Nucleophile	strong required	weak is ok
Electrophile (has LG)	$CH_3 > 1^{\circ} > 2^{\circ}$	3° > 2°
Solvent	polar aprotic (preferred)	polar protic
Leaving Group	Good (I > Br > Cl > F)	Good (I->Br->Cl->F-)
Rearrangements	Not Possible	Possible
Inversion	on Yes No (Racemiza	

polar aprotic solvents include DMSO, acetone, DMF, and acetonitrile (know structures)

benzylic and allylic substrates

aryl and vinyl halides are unreactive

nucleophile strength

in protic solvent

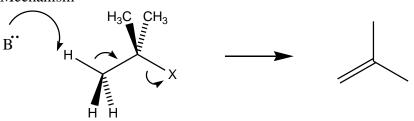
in aprotic solvent

Use of KF with crown ethers for S_N2_rxns

Organic Chemistry Chapter 9 – Elimination Reactions

E2 reactions – Elimination Bimolecular

Mechanism



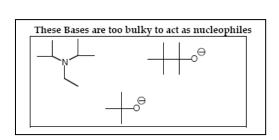
rate = k[substrate][base]

H and X (leaving group) should be anti-periplanar (anti-coplanar)

Forms most substituted double bond (Zaitsev's Rule)

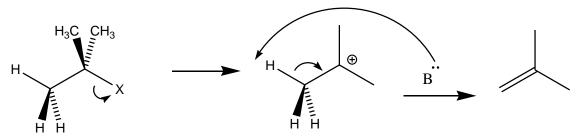
Forms least substituted (Hofmann) if F is the leaving group

Forms least substituted (Hofmann) if a bulky base is used with 3° halide



E1 reactions – Elimination Unimolecular

Mechanism



Rate = k[substrate]

Carbocation rearrangements are possible

Forms most substituted double bond (Zaitsev's Rule)

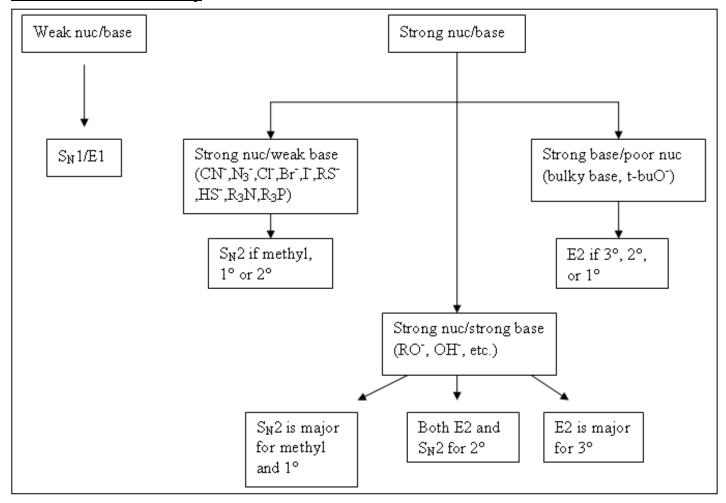
Favored by heat due to entropy

E2 vs. E1

	E2	E1	
Base	strong base	weak base	
Electrophile (has LG)	3° > 2°>1°	3° > 2°	
Solvent	polar aprotic (best)	polar protic	
Leaving Group	Good (I > Br > Cl > F)	Good (I > Br > Cl > F)	
Rearrangements	Not possible	Possible	
Stereochemistry	Anti-coplanar None		

	S _N 2	E2	S _N 1	E 1
Electrophile (has LG)	$CH_3 > 1^{\circ} > 2^{\circ}$	3° > 2°>1°	3° > 2°	3° > 2°
Nucleophile/Base	strong nuc	strong base	weak nuc	weak base
Solvent	polar aprotic (preferred)	polar aprotic (preferred)	polar protic	polar protic
Leaving Group	good	good	good	good

Substitution/Elimination Map



Pinacol Rearrangement

Organic Chemistry Chapter 10 – Radical Rxns

Chlorination vs Bromination

Mechanism

$$Cl_2 \xrightarrow{hv} 2Cl \cdot \Delta H^0 = 58$$
 Initiation

$$Cl \cdot + CH_4 \xrightarrow{Ea = 4} HCl + CH_3 \Delta H^0 = 2$$
 $CH_3 \cdot + Cl_2 \xrightarrow{Ea = 1} CH_3Cl + Cl \cdot \Delta H^0 = -26$
 $Propagation$
 $Cl \cdot + Cl \cdot \longrightarrow Cl_2 \Delta H^0 = -58$
Termination

Selectivity

Addition of HBr/ROOR

Mechanism

Initiation

Propagation

$$R_1$$
 R_2
 R_3
 R_4
 R_4
 R_4
 R_4
 R_4

$$R_2$$
 R_3
 R_3
 R_4
 R_4
 R_3
 R_4
 R_4

Termination

$$R_1$$
 R_3
 R_4
 R_1
 R_1
 R_3
 R_4
 R_4
 R_4

Bromination with NBS Useful for brominating allylically Mechanism

$$H_3C$$
 = R^*

Organic Chemistry Chapter 11 – Mass Spectrometry

A beam of electrons is used to remove an electron (or electrons) from a molecule.

If the molecule doesn't fragment, this results in a radical cation which is called the molecular ion.

The molecule may also fragment forming a radical and a cation.

Only the cation is detected!

The tallest peak on the spectrum is called the base peak.

The rest of the peaks are given values expressed as a percentage of the height of the base peak.

Predicting fragmentation patterns

The most stable fragments will yield the tallest peaks.

Resonance-stabilized and more substituted carbocations are more stable.

Patterns to identify

<u>Bromine's</u> M+2 peak is nearly as tall as its M^+ peak

Chlorine's M+2 peak is about 1/3 the size of its M^+ peak

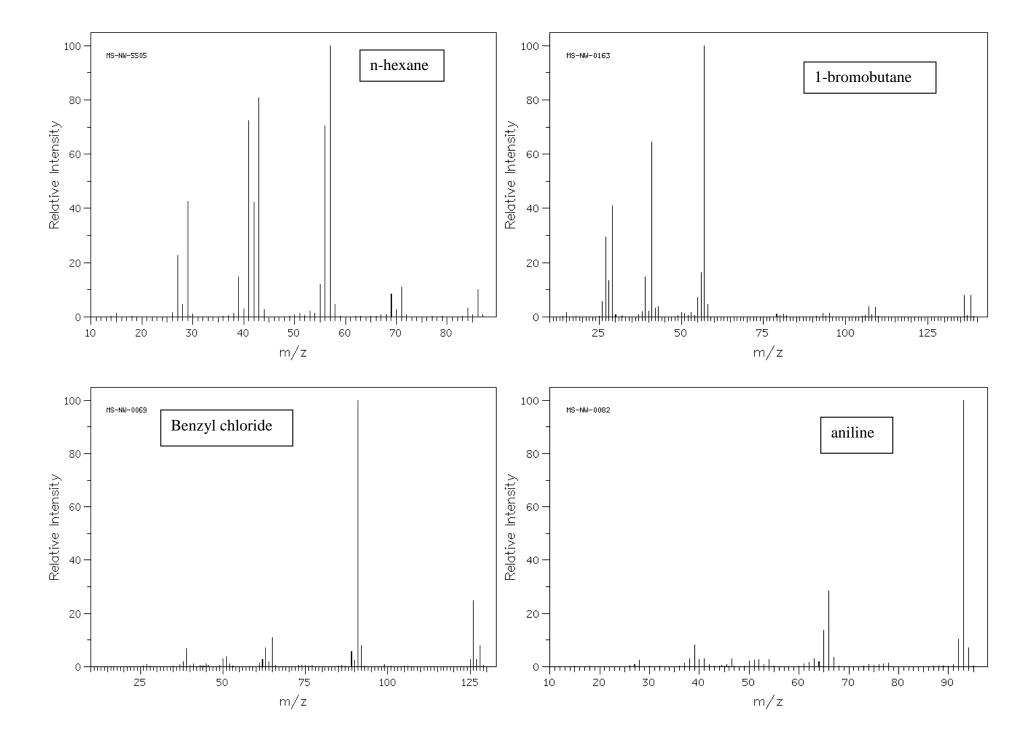
<u>Nitrogen</u>-containing compounds have an odd m/z for the M^+ peak

<u>Iodine</u>-containing compounds have a large 'gap' in the spectrum corresponding to the MW of 127 for iodine; often there is a peak at 127 as well.

Alcohols don't typically have a true parent peak, but usually have an M-18 peak as the peak furthest to the right corresponding to the loss of H_2O

Substituted benzenes typically fragment to form the tropylium ion (m/z 91)

m/z 15	methyl group
m/z 29	ethyl group
m/z 43	propyl group
m/z 57	butyl group
m/z 41	allyl group



Organic Chemistry Chapter 12 – IR Spectroscopy

Infra-red light results in the stretching and/or bending of bonds.

Bonds will stretch or bend at characteristic frequencies that allow us to determine the type of bond.

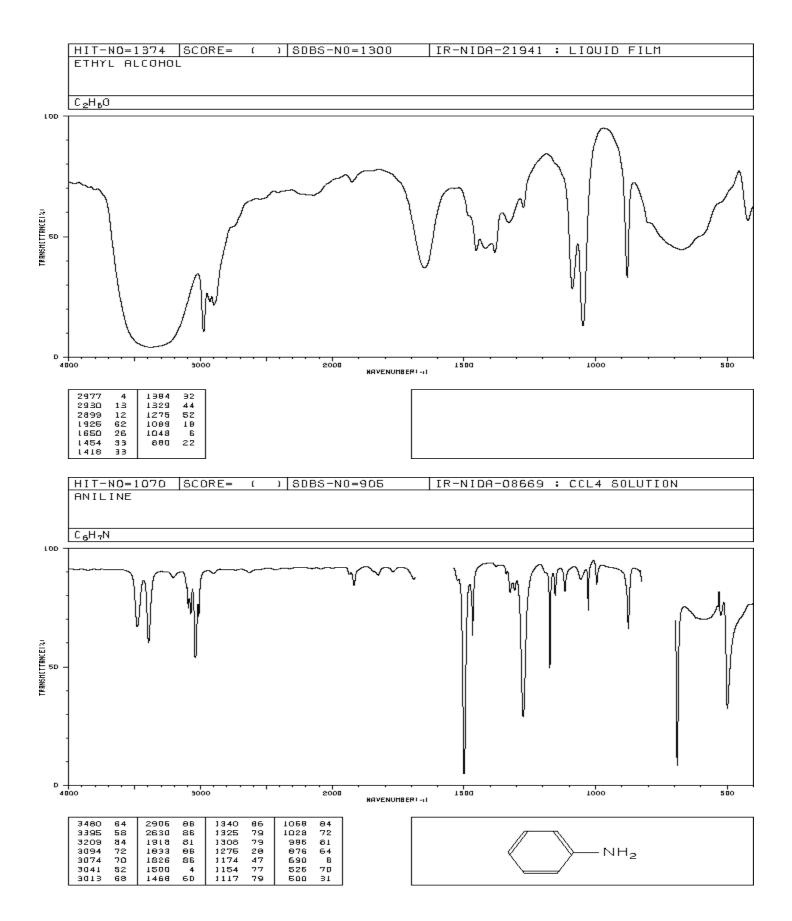
This allows us to identify many of the functional groups.

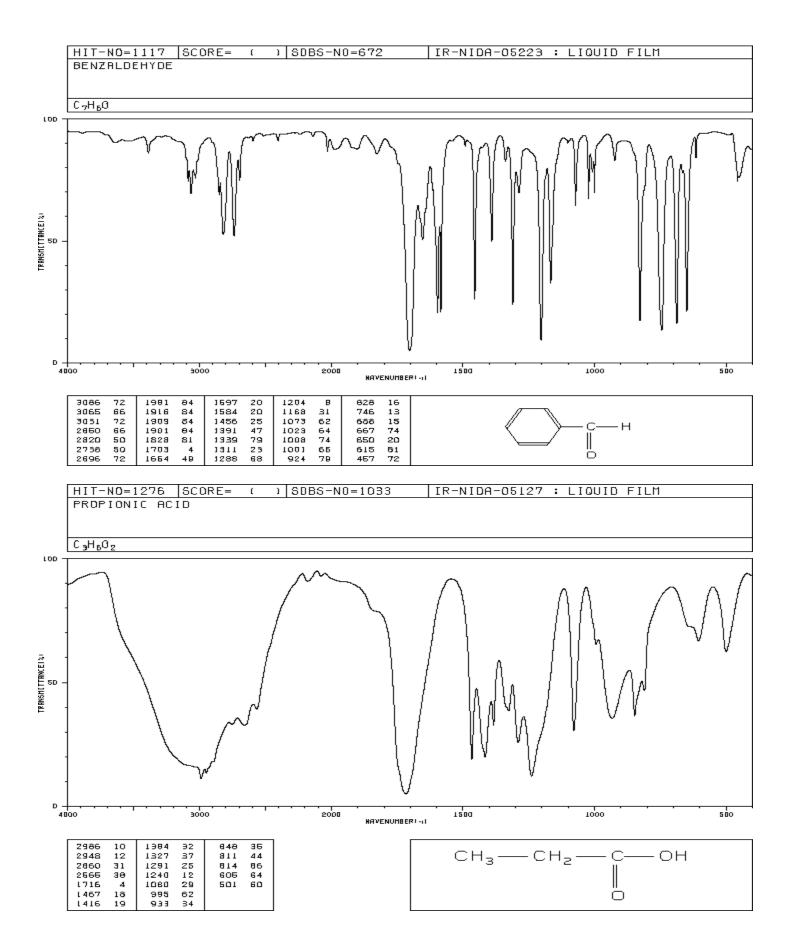
Frequencies are measured in inverse cm (cm⁻¹) which are called wavenumbers.

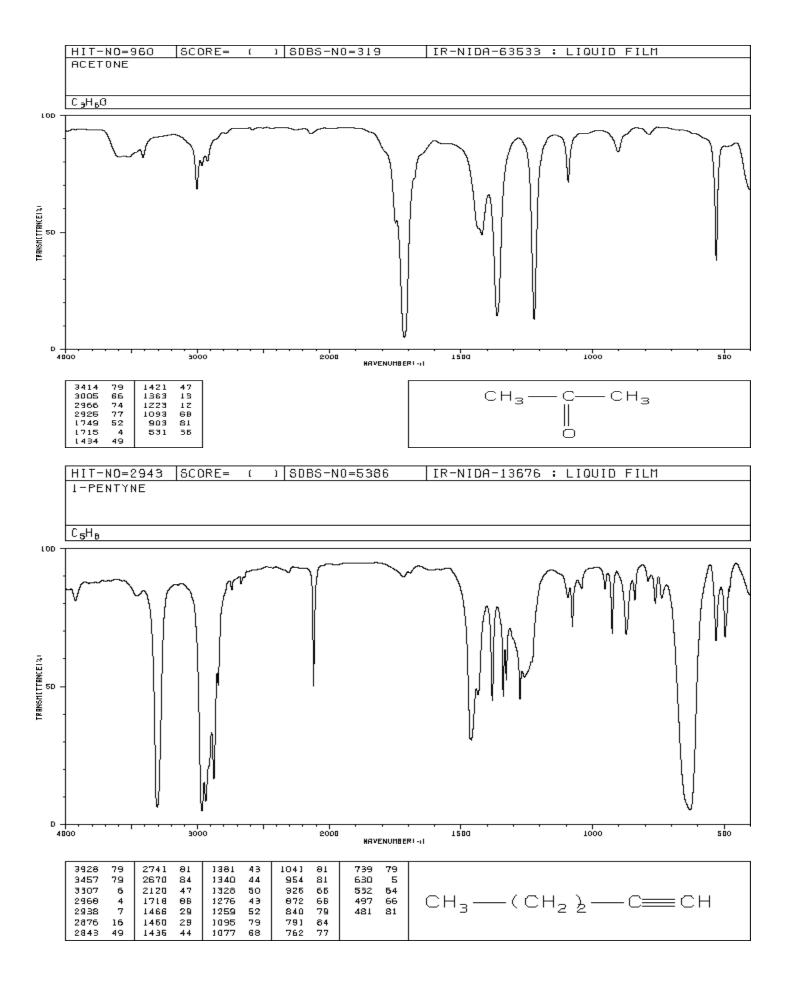
Stretching a bond must change the dipole of a molecule for the bond to be IR active.

You need to be able to identify the following absorbtions:

Tou need to be able to identify the following absorbtions.		
two peaks usually in the range of 1500-1600 cm ⁻¹		
~1650 cm ⁻¹		
$\sim 1710 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (shifts to $\sim 1735 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ for esters)		
~2100-2300 cm ⁻¹		
~2100-2300 cm ⁻¹		
Two peaks at 2710 and 2810 cm ⁻¹		
just to the right of 3000 cm ⁻¹		
just to the left of 3000 cm ⁻¹		
~3300 cm ⁻¹		
~3300 cm ⁻¹ (one peak for –NH-, two peaks for –NH ₂)		
~3400 cm ⁻¹ (a broad, smooth peak)		
~2500-3500 cm ⁻¹ (a very broad, ugly peak—not smooth)		





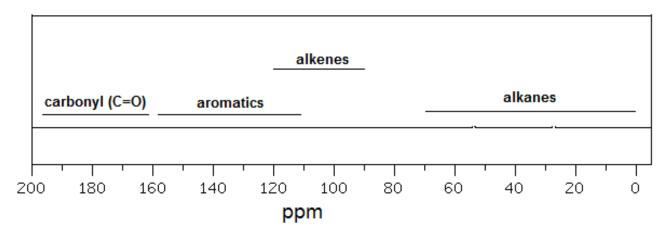


Organic Chemistry Chapter 13 – NMR Spectroscopy

¹³C NMR

Gives the number of carbon environments in a molecule

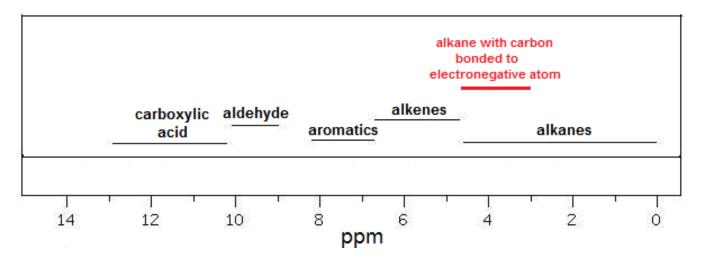
The chemical shift also tells whether the carbon is an alkane, alkene, aromatic, or carbonyl (C=O)

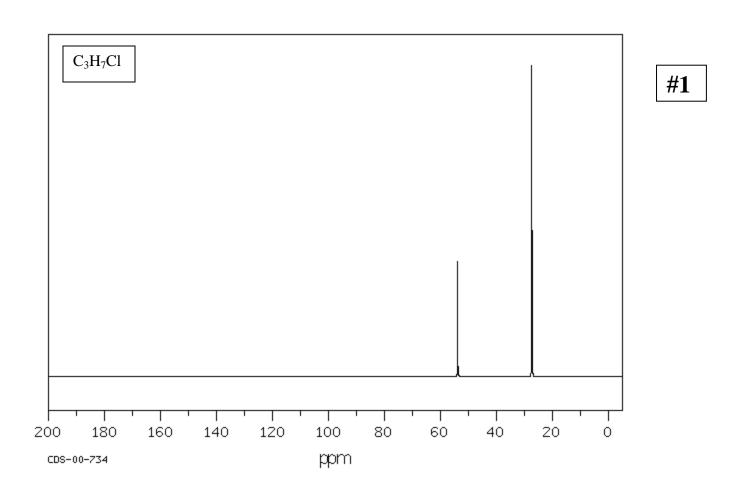


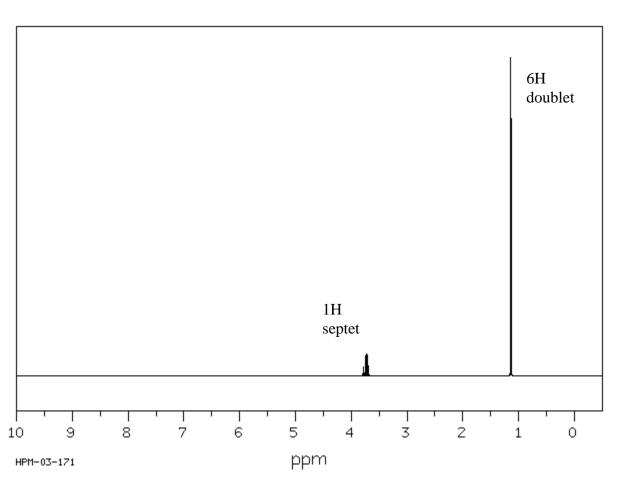
H NMR

Gives the number of hydrogen environments in a molecule

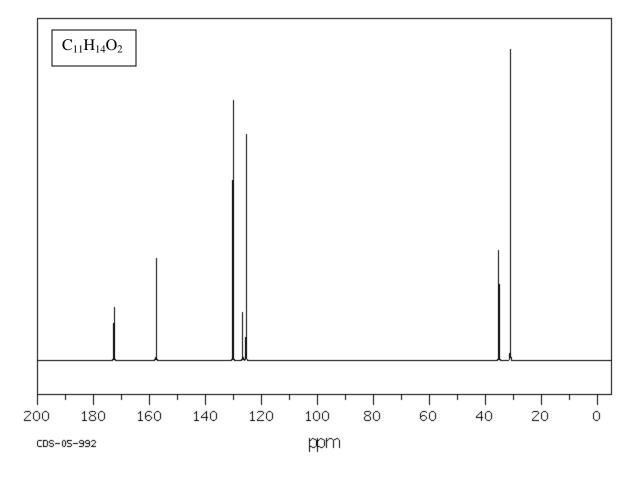
- 1) The chemical shift tells whether the hydrogen is an alkane, alkene, aromatic, aldehyde, or carboxylic acid
- 2) The area under the signal or integration tells how many hydrogens a signal represents (or at least the ratio)
- 3) The number of peaks tells the number of neighbors (# peaks = n + 1)

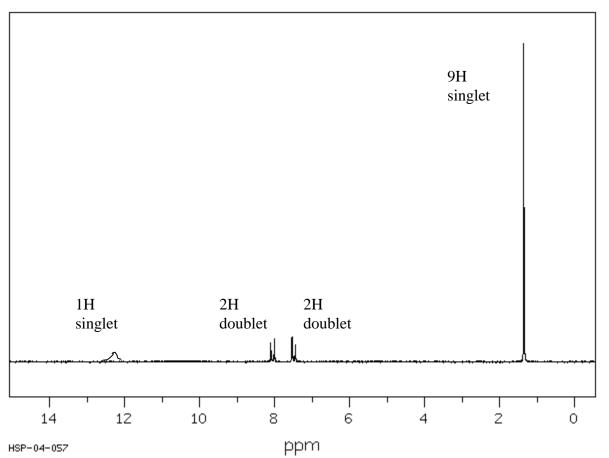




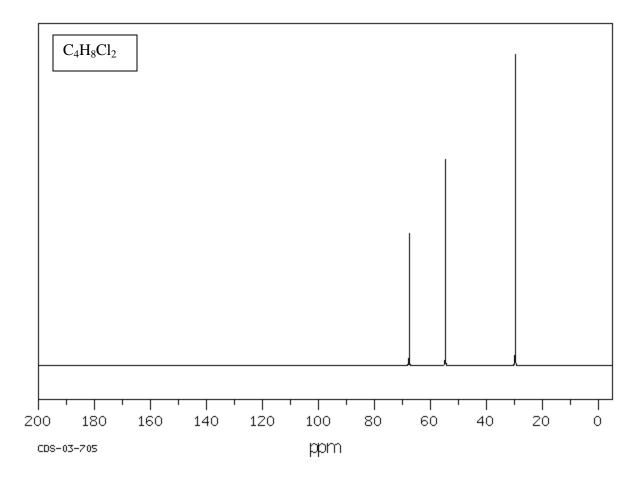


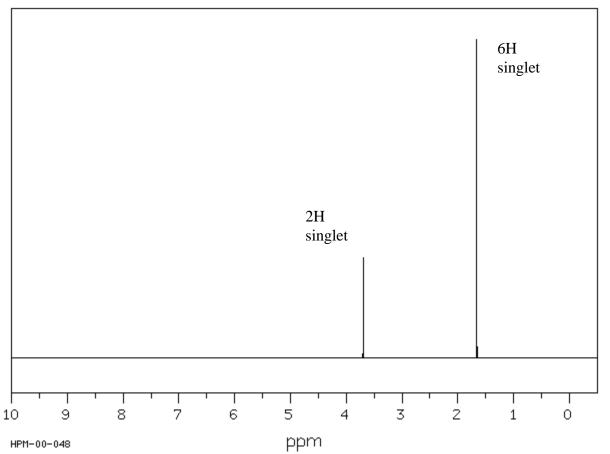


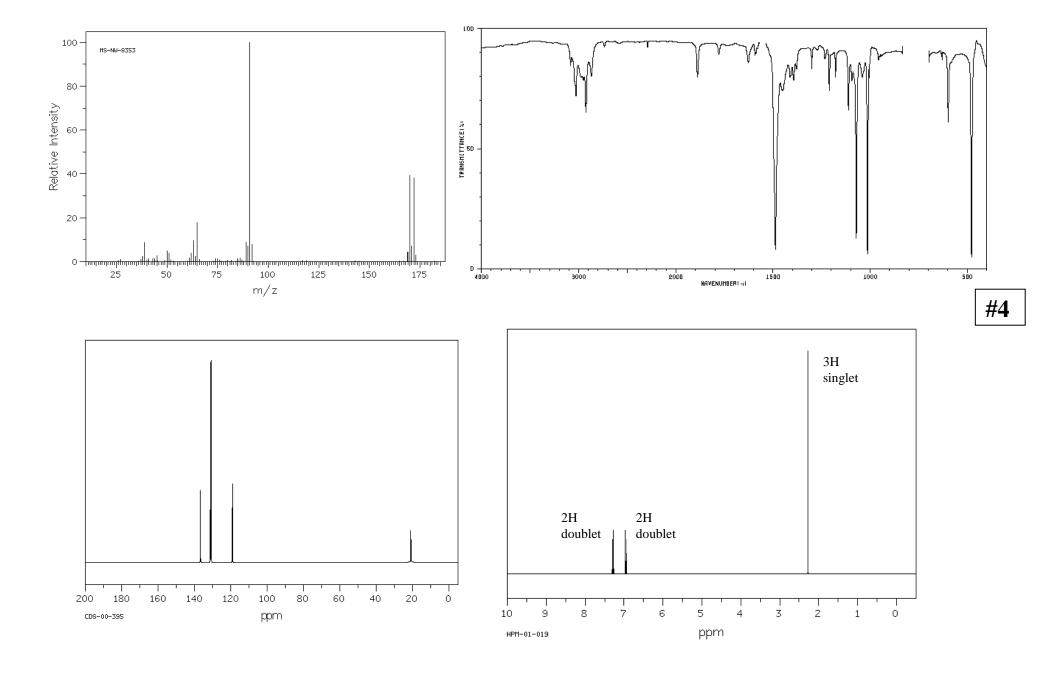




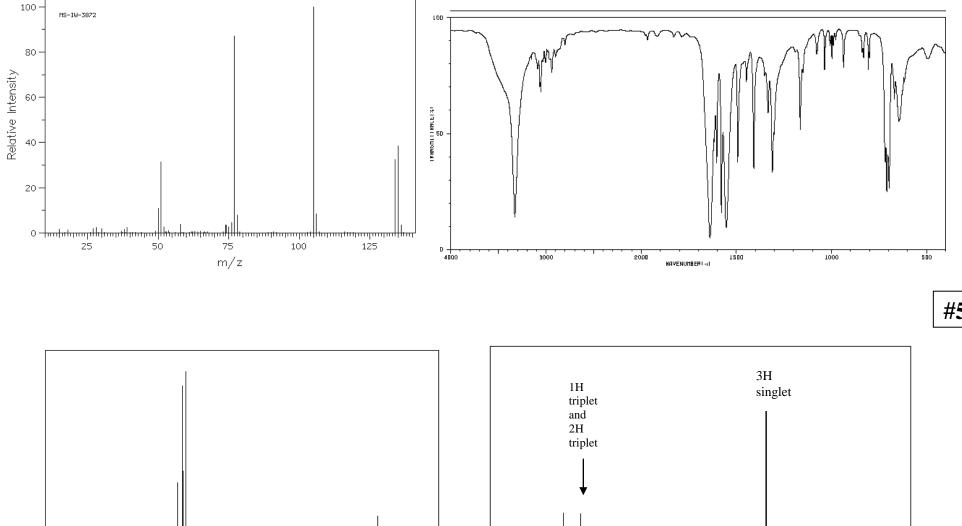












2H

HSP-43-687

ppm

CDS-02-640

doublet

1H

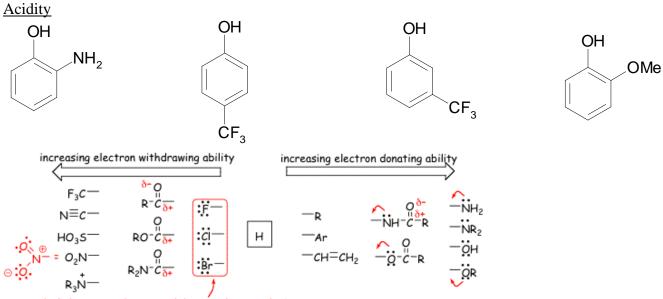
singlet

ррт

Organic Chemistry Chapter 14 – Alcohols, Ethers, and Epoxides

Alcohols

Nomenclature



the halogens are electron withdrawing when attached to a $\pi\text{-system}$ even though they have non-bonding electrons due to electronegativity

Reactions of Alcohols

Rxn with H-X (HBr or HCl/ZnCl₂)

 S_N1 for 2° and 3° alcohols

S_N2 for 1° alcohols

Rxn with PBr₃ (for 1° and 2° alcohols)

Rxn with SOCl₂ (for 1° and 2° alcohols)

Conversion to Sulfonate Esters

Dehydration with H₂SO₄

Dehydration with POCl₃ (Hofmann Product)

Oxidation

Na₂Cr₂O₇/H₂SO₄ oxidizes 1° alcohols to carboxylic acids, 2° alcohols to ketones, and aldehydes to acids

PCC oxidizes 1° alcohols to aldehydes and 2° alcohols to ketones

Ethers

Nomenclature

Nomenclature of Epoxides (Oxiranes)

$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{Synthesis via Substitution} \; (S_N 2 \; \text{or} \; S_N 1) \\ \text{Williamson Ether Synthesis} \; (S_N 2) \end{array}$

Rxn with H-X

Ring Opening of Epoxides (In Acid or Base)

In Base

In Acid

Organic Chemistry Chapter 15 – Aromatic Compounds

Criteria for Aromatic Compounds

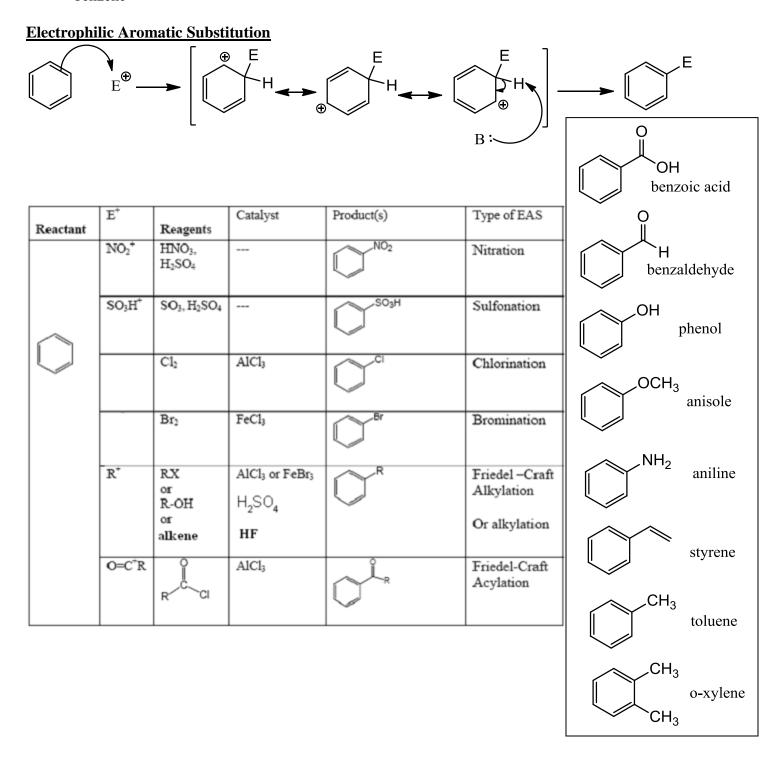
- 1) cyclic and containing conjugated pi bonds
- 2) each atom in the ring must have an unhybridized p orbital (no sp³ atoms in ring)
- 3) planar structure
- 4) delocalization of the pi electrons must lower the electronic energy (4N+2 electrons)

<u>Antiaromatic</u> compounds satisfy the first 3 rules above but delocalization of the pi electrons increases the electronic energy (4N electrons)

Nonaromatic compounds are those that don't satisfy one or more of the first 3 rules above

π Molecular Orbitals

benzene



Friedel-Crafts Alkylation R-X/AlCl₃

- 1) Fails with strongly deactivated benzenes (benzenes with strong electron withdrawing groups attached)
- 2) Carbocation rearrangement
- 3) Alkylation activates the ring: multiple alkylations are hard to avoid

Friedel-Crafts Acylation

Fails with strongly deactivated rings

Mechanism involves acylium ion

Favors para if ortho/para director is on benzene due to bulkiness

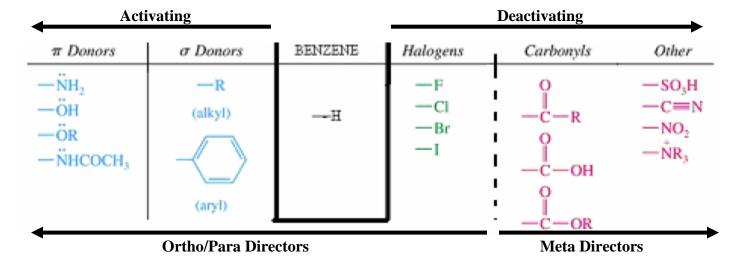
<u>Formylation</u> (adds one carbon to form an aldehyde) CO, HCl, AlCl₃/CuCl Called the Gatterman-Koch synthesis

Ortho/Para Directors (Activating except for halogens)

halogens are deactivating ortho/para directors (pi donating but withdrawing inductively)

Meta Directors (Deactivating)

Strongest donating group usually directs when there are competing substituents



Side-Chain Reactions of Benzenes

Permanganate Oxidation

$$\frac{1. \text{ KMnO}_4, \text{OH}^-, \text{boil}}{2. \text{ H}_3 \text{O}^+}$$

Chromic acid (Na₂Cr₂O₇ / H₂SO₄) achieves the same reaction

Side-chain Reduction

Clemmenson Reduction – reduces ketones and aldehydes to alkanes

$$\frac{\operatorname{Zn}\left(\operatorname{Hg}\right)}{\operatorname{HCl},\operatorname{H}_{2}\operatorname{O}}$$

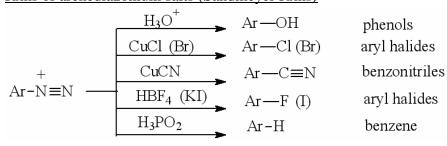
Wolff Kishner Reduction does the same thing with H₂NNH₂, OH⁻, heat

General reduction

<u>Rxn with Nitrous Acid</u> - NaNO₂/HCl leads to formation of nitrosonium ion (NO⁺)

1° become diazonium salts, 2° become nitrosamines

Rxns of arenediazonium salts (Sandmeyer Rxns)



Nucleophilic Aromatic Substitution (NAS)

strong nucleophile (NH₂ or OH for example) replaces halide electron withdrawing groups ortho/para to halide facilitate reaction

1) Addition-Elimination mechanism

2) Benzyne mechanism (Elimination-Addition Mechanism)

Non-benzenoid Aromatics

EAS with 5-membered Aromatic Heterocycles

$$\begin{pmatrix}
H \\
\dot{N} \\
\vdots
\end{pmatrix}
\xrightarrow{EAS}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix}
H \\
\dot{N} \\
\vdots
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$E$$

EAS with pyridine (at the 3-position)

Organic Chemistry Chapter 16 – Ketones and Aldehydes

Nomenclature

Synthesis

Oxidation using chromic acid (H₂CrO₄) or PCC

Na₂Cr₂O₇/H₂SO₄ oxidizes 1° alcohols to carboxylic acids, 2° alcohols to ketones, and aldehydes to acids

OH
$$\frac{\text{Na}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7}{\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4}$$
 OH $\frac{\text{Na}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7}{\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4}$ OH $\frac{\text{Na}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7}{\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4}$

PCC oxidizes 1° alcohols to aldehydes and 2° alcohols to ketones

Ozonolysis of alkenes - (1)O₃ (2) (CH₃)₂S

Friedel Crafts Acylation (a phenyl ketone) and Formylation (benzaldehyde)

Hydration of a Terminal Alkyne

(1) (Sia)₂BH (2) H₂O₂, NaOH to yield an aldehyde (anti-Markovnikov addition) HgSO₄, H₂SO₄, H₂O to yield a ketone (Markovnikov addition)

Grignard Addition to Nitriles

R-CN
$$\frac{1. \text{ H}_3\text{C}-\text{MgBr}}{2. \text{ acid work up}}$$
 R CH_3

Organolithium Addition to DMF

$$R-Li$$
 + N H \longrightarrow R H

Reactions of Ketones and Aldehydes

Nucleophilic addition to a carbonyl (with and without acid catalysis) aldehydes are more reactive than ketones

Acetylide and Grignard addition

Grignard addition to acid halides, acid anhydrides, and esters

Hydride Reduction Rxns

NaBH₄ reduces ketones, aldehydes, and acid halides

O 1. NaBH₄ OH OH
$$2. H_3O^+$$
 OH $2. H_3O^+$ OH OH

LiAlH₄ reduces ketones, aldehydes, acid chlorides, esters, carboxylic acids, and amides (and others)

DIBALH reduces esters to aldehydes

H₂, Pd/C reduces alkenes, alkynes, and nitro groups

OH

$$H_2$$

 Pd/C
 H_2
 Pd/C
OH
 H_2
 Pd/C
OH
 H_2
 Pd/C
OH
 H_2
 Pd/C

Formation of imines (Schiff bases) and imine derivatives

rxn with a 1° amine

$$\begin{array}{c|c} O & & NH_2R' & NR' \\ R & & H_3O^+ & R & R \end{array}$$

Formation of enamines

rxn with a 2° amine

Hydration (Acid- or Base-catalyzed)

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
 & & & & OH \\
 & & & & \\
 & & & \\
 & & & \\
 & & & \\
 & & & \\
 & & & \\
 & & & \\
 & & & \\
 & & & \\
 & & & \\
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Addition of alcohols (formation of hemiacetals, acetals, hemiketals, and ketals) – acid- and base-catalyzed Base-catalyzed

Using ethylene glycol to form a cyclic acetal as a protecting group

Addition to a Conjugated Carbonyl

NaBH₄/CeCl₃ and organolithium add to the carbonyl (1,2-addition)

Grignards often result in both 1,2- and 1,4-addition

CN, OH, R₂CuLi, and bulky grignards add to the β carbon (1,4-addition)

$$\stackrel{\text{O}}{\longleftarrow} \underbrace{\text{(CH}_3\text{CH}_2)_2\text{CuLi}}_{\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3}$$

Wittig $\mathbf{Rxn} - P(Ph)_3 + R-X + BuLi$ gives a phosphorous ylide

-ylide reacts with a ketone or aldehyde to yield an alkene (C=O converted to C=C)

$$R' = C$$

$$R'' = C$$

Organic Chemistry Chapter 17 – Carboxylic Acids and Carboxylic Acid Derivatives

Carboxylic Acids

Nomenclature

Synthesis

Grignard addition to CO₂ (Adds 1 carbon)

Hydrolysis of Nitriles – R-CN + $H_3O^+ \leftrightarrow RCOOH$ (Adds 1 carbon)

Oxidation of 1° alcohols and aldehydes – Na₂Cr₂O₇/H₂SO₄

Cleavage of alkenes with KMnO₄ – conc. KMnO₄/heat, H₃O⁺

Oxidation of alkylbenzenes to benzoic acids with KMnO₄ or chromic acid

Carboxylic Acid Derivatives

Acid halides, anhydrides, esters, amides, and nitriles

Nomenclature (acid halides, anhydrides, esters, cyclic esters, amides, cyclic amides, and nitriles)

Nucleophilic Acyl Substitution

-Reactivity (acid chlorides > anhydrides > esters > amides > carboxylates)

• can convert *more* reactive derivatives into *less* reactive derivatives, <u>not</u> the other way around!! Saponification of Esters

Gabriel Synthesis – template synthesis using phthalimide

Organic Chemistry Chapter 18 – Alpha Additions

Acidity of alpha hydrogens

Keto-enol tautomerism

LDA (lithium diisopropyl amide) is a strong base used to form enolate ions

Alpha halogenation

Base-promoted (X₂/OH⁻, H₂O)

Acid-catalyzed halogenation of ketones

HVZ Rxn

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
\hline
 & O \\
 & \hline
 & O \\
 & OH
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
\hline
 & 1. & PBr_3, Br_2 \\
\hline
 & 2. & H2O
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
 & O \\
 & Br
\end{array}$$
OH

Alpha alkylation

Alkylation of enolate ions ($S_N 2$ rxn with an enolate attacking an alkyl halide); only for ketones Stork rxn – convert ketone to enamine with 2° amine and α -alkylate followed by hydrolysis

Alkylation at Beta Carbon

Michael addition – a 1,4-addition of a conjugated ketone

Michael donor is typically a stabilized enolate ion or R₂CuLi

Acceptor is a conjugated carbonyl, cyano, or nitro group

Aldol Condensation – Acid catalyzed – **enol** adds to a ketone or aldehyde

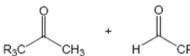
Base-catalyzed - **enolate** adds to a ketone or aldehyde

Robinson Annulation

- 1) Michael Rxn
- 2) Aldol (Intramolecular)



β-ketoalcohol from Aldol addition to ketone or aldehyde Only stable if alpha C contains no enolizable



enone
(i.e. α,β-unsatuated ketone)
from Aldol addition to ketone
or aldehyde
Occurs if any enolizable
hydrogens at alpha carbon

Claisen Condensation – enolate attacks an ester to form a β-dicarbonyl (self and crossed)

β-dicarbonyl compound from Claisen addition to an ester

Malonic Ester Synthesis – forms a substituted acetic acid (adds 2 carbons)

malonic ester

Acetoacetic Ester Synthesis – forms a substituted acetone (methyl ketones)

ethyl acetoacetate

Organic Chemistry Chapter 19 – Amines

Nomenclature

Basicity

Synthesis

Gabriel Synthesis – template synthesis using phthalimide

Reduction of nitro-compounds, azides, nitriles (H₂/Pd/C or LAH)

Reduction of Amides (1. LiAlH₄ 2. H₃O⁺)

Hofmann Rearrangement

$$\begin{array}{c} O \\ NH_2 \end{array} \begin{array}{c} NaOBr \\ NH_2 \end{array}$$

Curtius
$$R-CO_{2}H = \begin{array}{c} 1. SOCI_{2} \\ 2. NaN_{3} \\ \hline 3. heat / H_{2}O \end{array} R-NH_{2}$$

Schmidt
$$R-CO_{2}H \xrightarrow{NaN_{3}/H_{2}SO_{4}} R-NH_{2}$$

Beckman Rearrangement

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
 & \text{NOH} & \text{O} \\
\hline
 & \text{NH}_2\text{OH} & \text{PCI}_5 & \text{NH} \\
\hline
 & \text{2. H}_3\text{O+} & \text{NH}
\end{array}$$

Rxns of Amines

Hinsberg Test (for 1° and 2° amines only)

Product with 1° amine is soluble in base while product with 2° amine is not

Hofmann Elimination (1) Excess CH₃I (2) Ag₂O/H₂O (3) Heat

Cope Elimination (elimination of an amine-oxide) (1) H_2O_2 (2) Heat

Phase Transfer Catalysis (with quaternary ammonium salts) TEBAC

Reductive Amination

Organic Chemistry Chapter 20 – Carbon-Carbon Coupling Reactions

Gilman Reagent (lithium dialkyl cuprate with conjugated carbonyl)

Heck (vinyl halide with conjugated ester, nitrile, or aldehyde with Pd(PAr₃)₄ and Et₃N)

+ OCH₃
$$\frac{Pd[(Ar_3)]_4}{(Et)_3N}$$