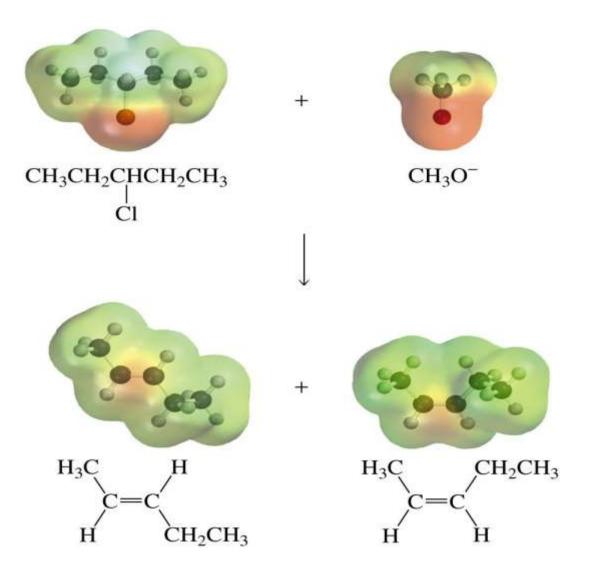
Elimination Reactions (Unit I)

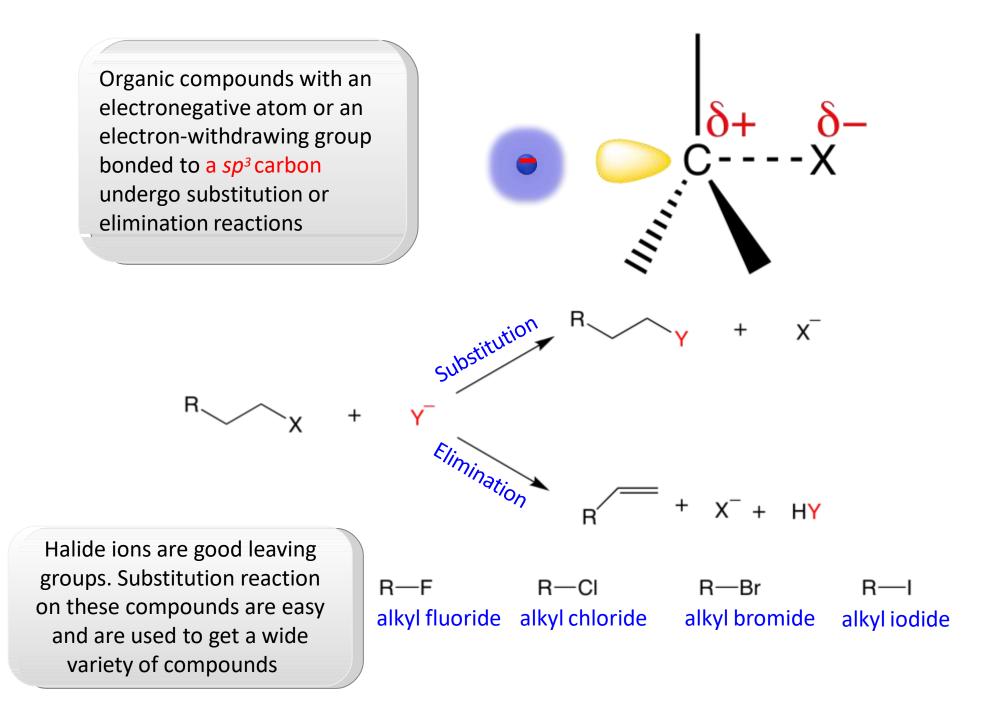
<u>Outline</u>

- 1. Introduction
- 2. E2, E1, and E1 cb mechanisms
- 3. Regiochemistry of Elimination reactions
- 4. Stereochemistry of Elimination reactions
- 6. Dehydration of Alcohols
- 7. Competition Between E2 and E1 Reactions
- 8. Summary

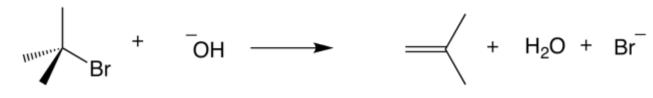
Introduction



•Advanced Organic Chemistry, Reactions Mechanisms and Structure , J. March, 6thEdition, John Wiley.

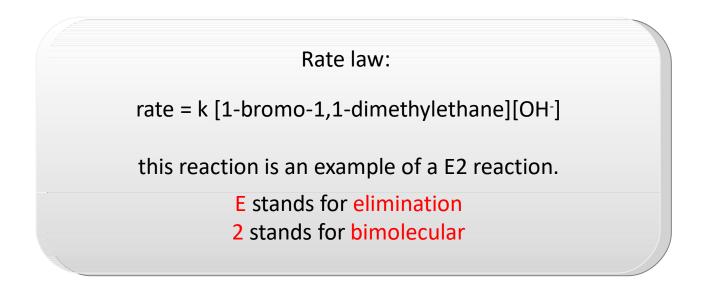


Elimination Reactions

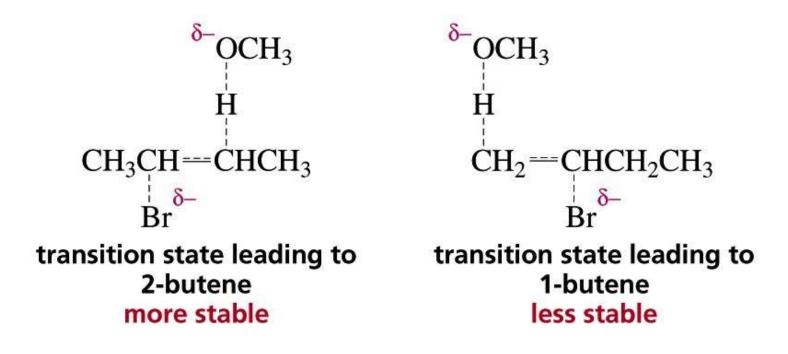


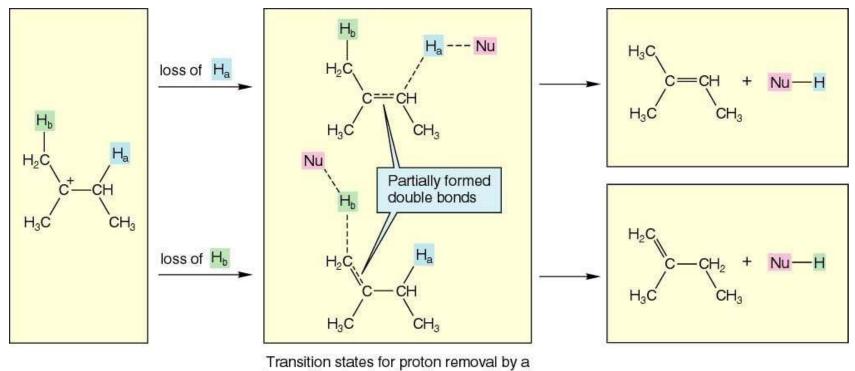
1-bromo-1,1-dimethylethane

2-methylpropene



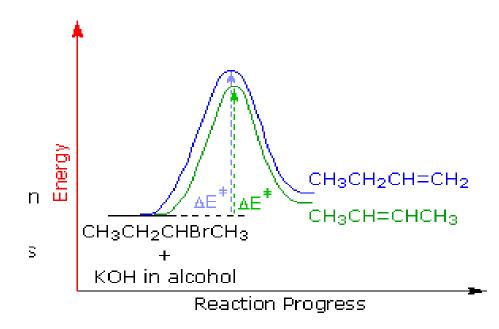
The more substituted alkene will be formed in elimination reactions



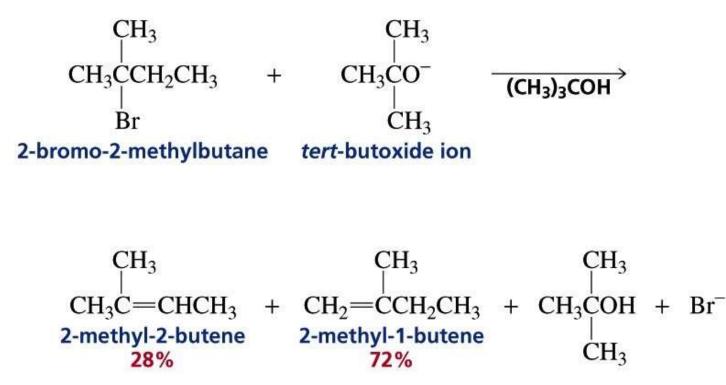


base, :Nu to give the alkene and Nu-H

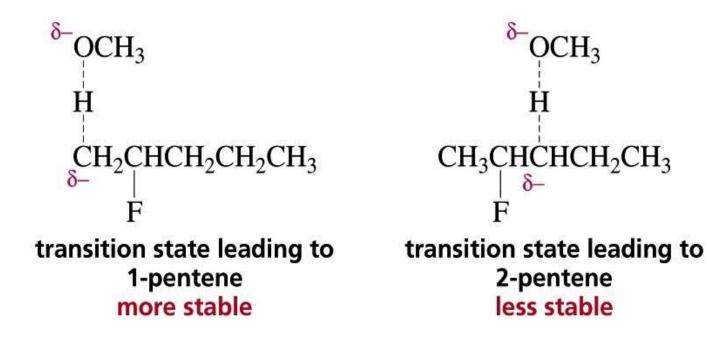
 In the transition state for elimination, the increased stability of the most substituted double bond is already felt so that there is a lower energy barrier for elimination of Ha



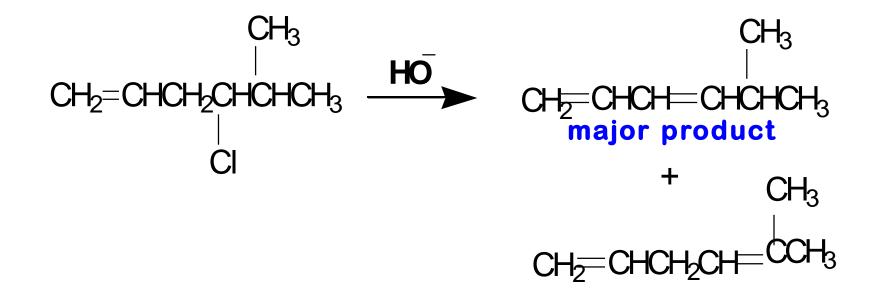
 Zaytzeff's rule dose not apply when the base is bulky



- Zaytzeff's rule does not apply when the leaving group is poor
- E2-carbanion mechanism operative

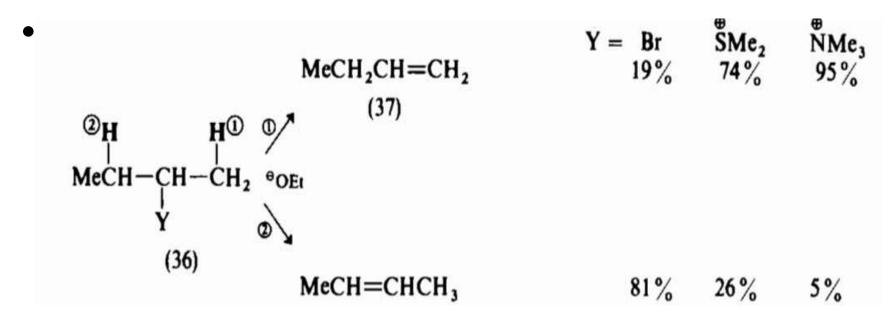


Zaytzeff's rule may not apply when conjugated dienes might be formed



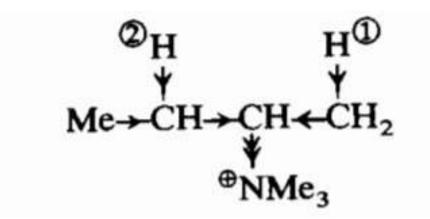
Hofman's rule

 Hofman: the alkene will predominate which has least alkyl substituents on the double bond carbon (1851; working on RN⁺Me compounds, i.e. Y=⁺NMe)



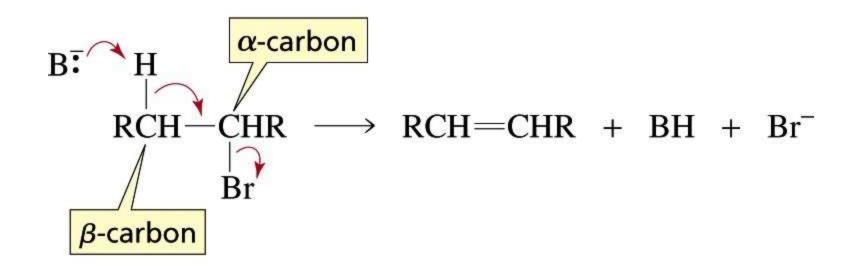
Hofman's rule

+NMe will exert a powerful, electronwithdrawing, inductive/field affect on both βcarbon atoms

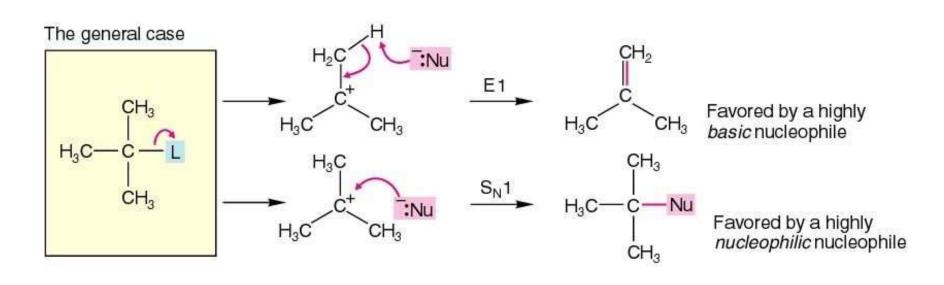


E2, E1, and E1 cb mechanisms

• Mechanism of E1 elimination reaction



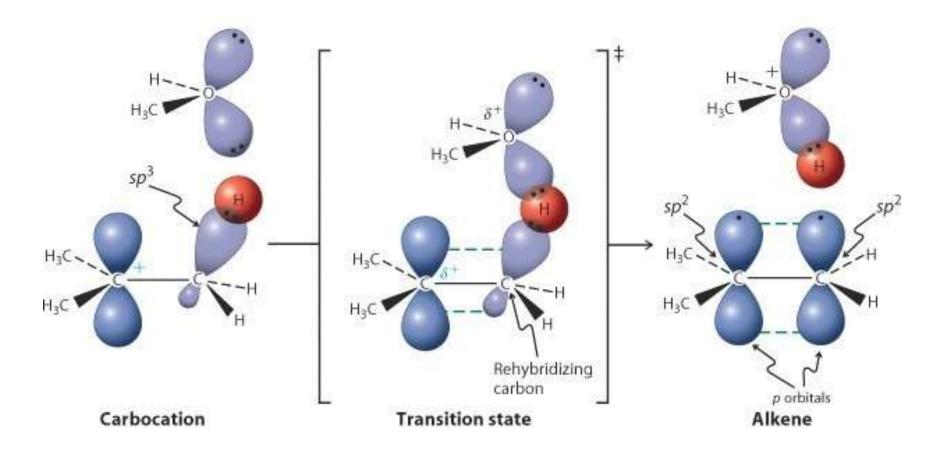
E1-elimination



v = k [substrate]

• The mechanism is similar to that of the $S_N 1$ reaction: the first step is formation of the carbocation via heterolytic cleavage

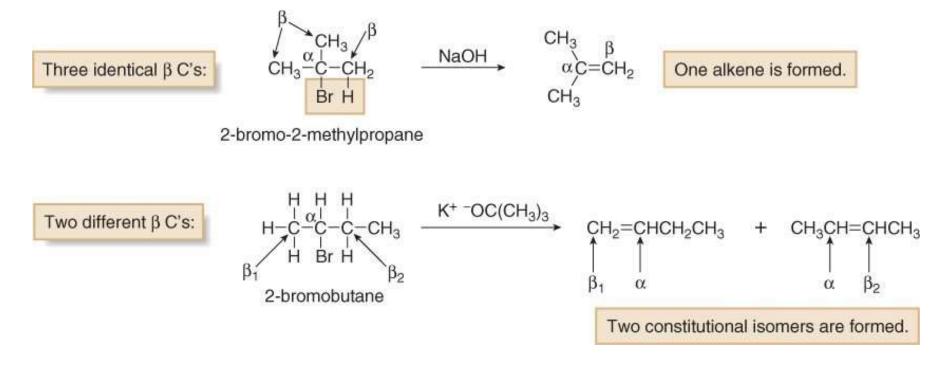
E1 Orbital Picture



•Advanced Organic Chemistry, Reactions Mechanisms and Structure , J. March, 6thEdition, John Wiley.

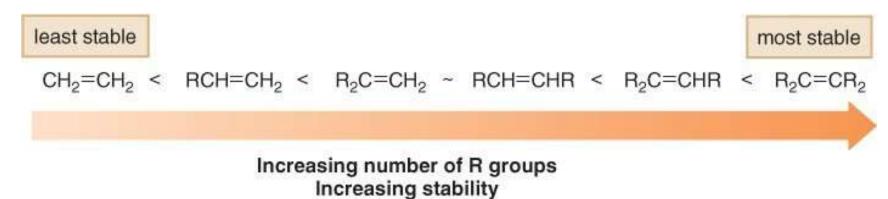
Products of Elimination

• To draw any product of dehydrohalogenation—Find the α carbon. Identify all β carbons with H atoms. Remove the elements of H and X form the α and β carbons and form a π bond.



Order of Alkene Stability

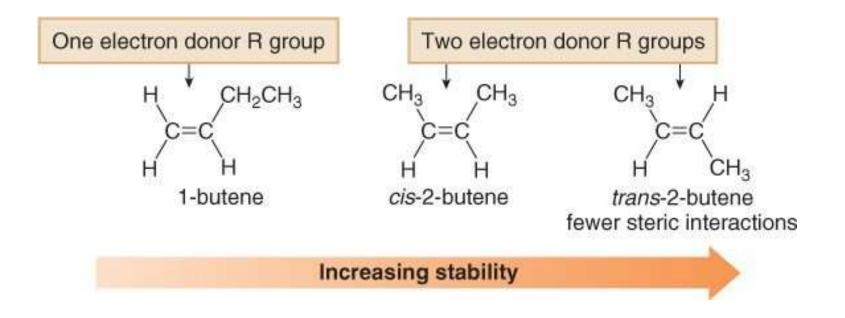
• The stability of an alkene increases as the number of R groups bonded to the double bond carbons increases.



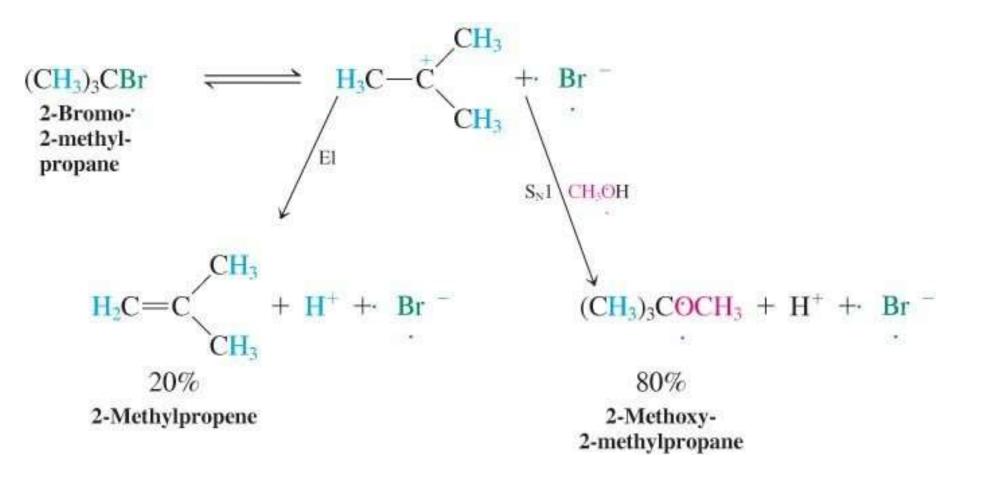
- The higher the percent s-character, the more readily an atom accepts electron density. Thus, sp² carbons are more able to accept electron density and sp³ carbons are more able to donate electron density.
- Consequently, increasing the number of electron donating groups on a carbon atom able to accept electron density makes the alkene more stable.

Stability of Trans Substituted Alkenes

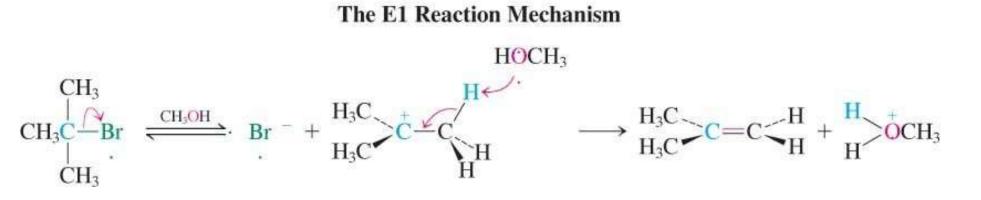
 trans-2-Butene (a disubstituted alkene) is more stable than cis-2-butene (another disubstituted alkene), but both are more stable than 1-butene (a monosubstituted alkene).

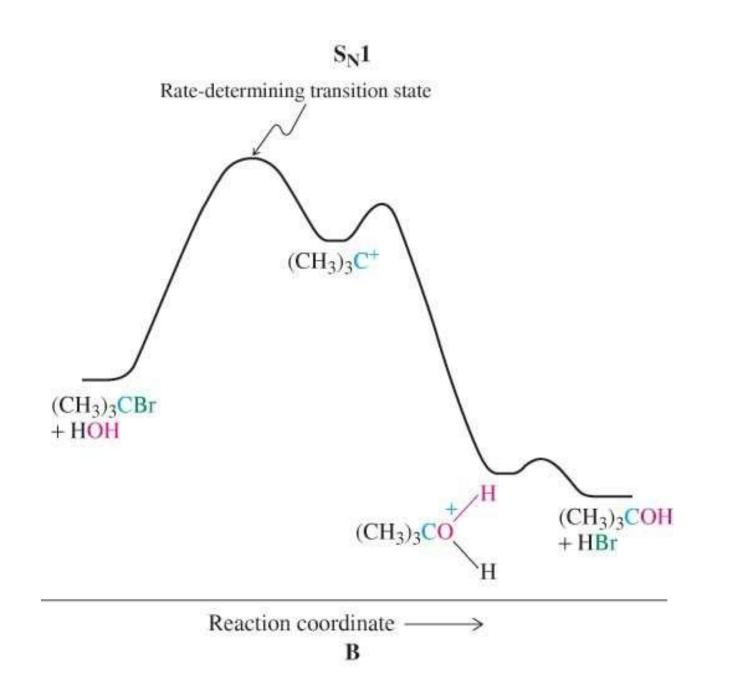


The E1 Pathway Competes with $S_N 1$



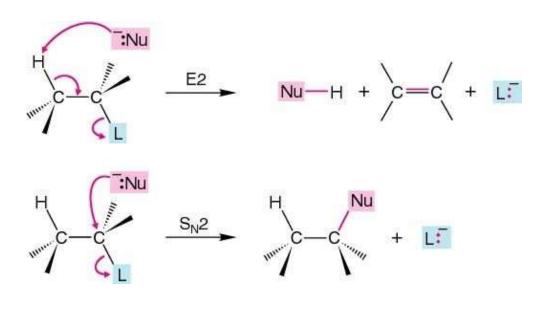
First Step: Same as $S_N 1$





Characteristics of the E1 Mechanism	
Characteristic	Result
Mechanism	Two steps
Identity of R	 More substituted halides react fastest Rate: R₃CX > R₂CHX > RCH₂X
Base	 Favored by weaker bases such as H₂O and ROH
Leaving group	 A better leaving group makes the reaction faster because the bond to the leaving group is partially broken in the rate-determining step.
Solvent	 Polar protic solvents that solvate the ionic intermediates are needed.

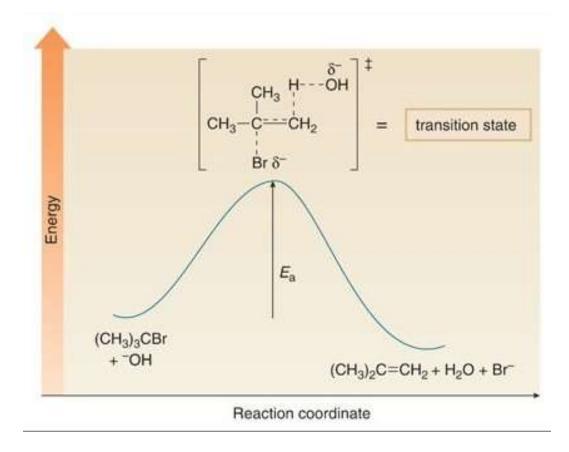
The E2 elimination



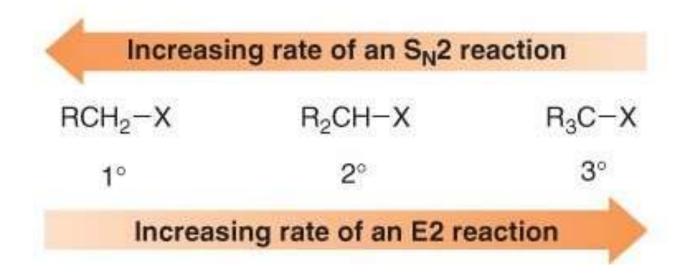
v = k [substrate] [base]

• As in the $S_N 2$ reaction, the rate is dependent on the concentration of both reaction partners

Energy Diagram for the E2 Mechanism

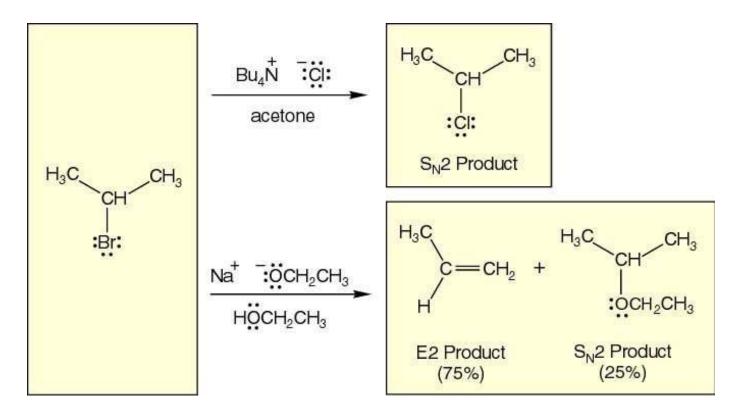


Effect of the Substrate on E2 Reactivity



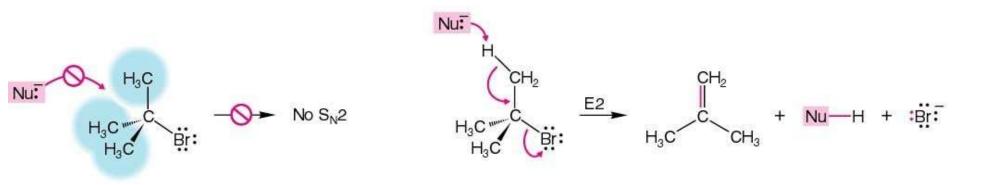
Characteristics of the E2 Mechanism
Result
One step
Second Theorem Contraction Into
 More substituted halides react fastest Rate: R₃CX > R₂CHX > RCH₂X
 Favored by strong bases
 Better leaving group> faster reaction
 Favored by polar aprotic solvents

 $E2 vs S_N 2$



 There is a strong similarity between the E2 and S_N2 reactions: strong nucleophiles favor substitution, while strong bases favor elimination

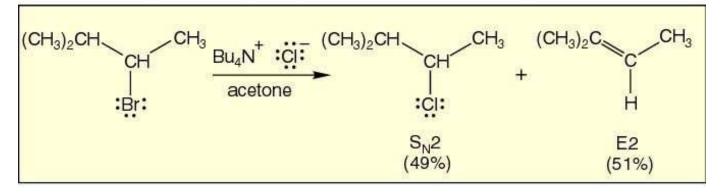
Steric bulk favors elimination



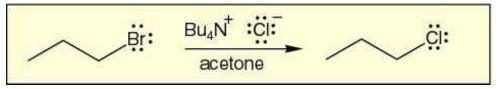
 We already saw that S_N2 substitution on a tertiary carbon is not possible, therefore E2 elimination will prevail (beside E1 elimination)

Other examples

For this secondary substrate, the S_N2 and E2 reactions are competitive

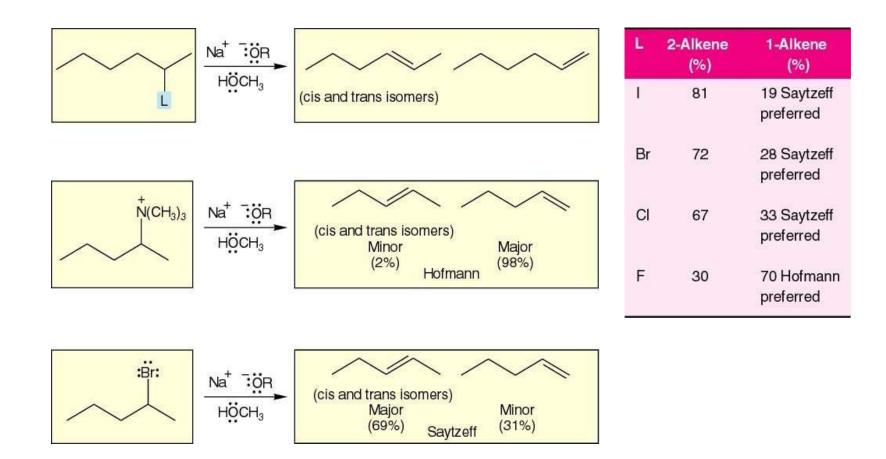


In this primary example, the S_N2 reaction is the only process



• Note that at a primary carbon atom, only $S_N 2$ and no $S_N 1$ substitution is possible

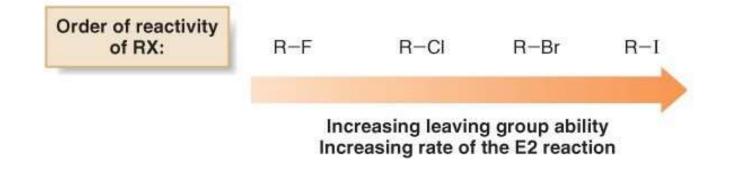
Effect of the leaving group



• Especially quarternary ammonium leaving groups favor the Hofmann product

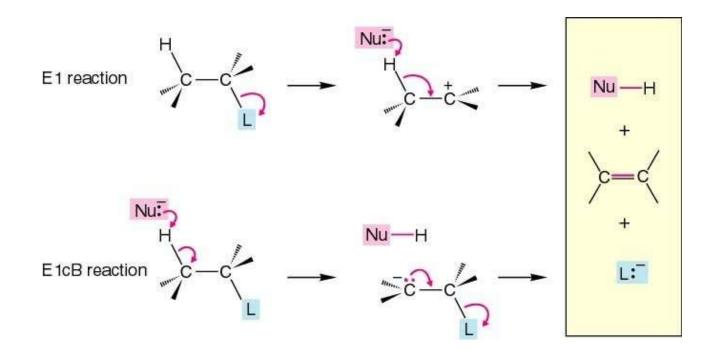
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Effect of the LG on E2 Reactivity



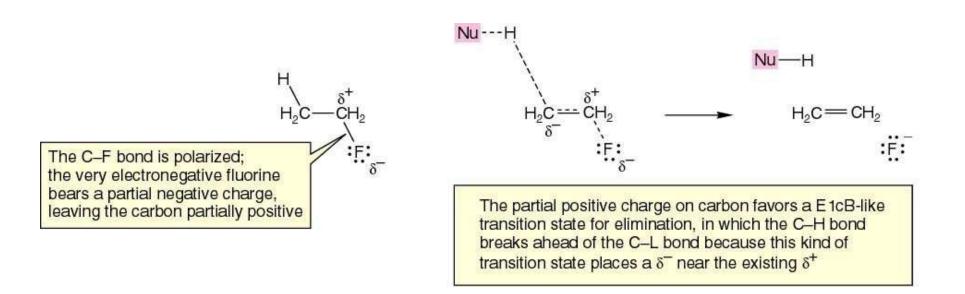
Polar aprotic solvents increase the rate of E2 reactions.

The E1cB elimination



 The E1cB reaction resembles the S_N2 reaction, with the difference that there is an anion formed prior to the loss of the leaving group

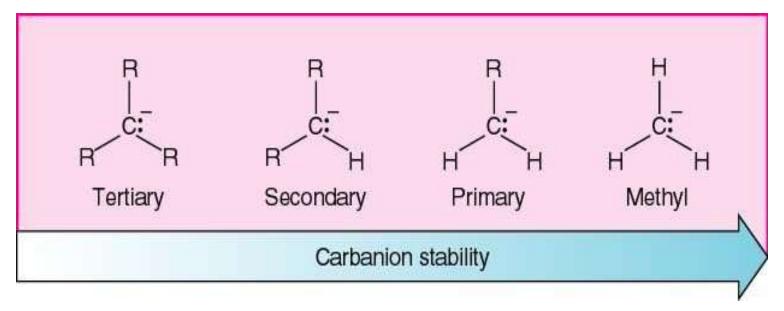
Example of an E1cB reaction



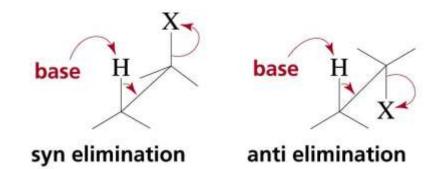
• This reaction is possible if there is a group present that can stabilize the negative charge

Stability of anions

• The more substituted the carbanion, the less stable it is; this is a result of the inductively electron donating alkyl groups

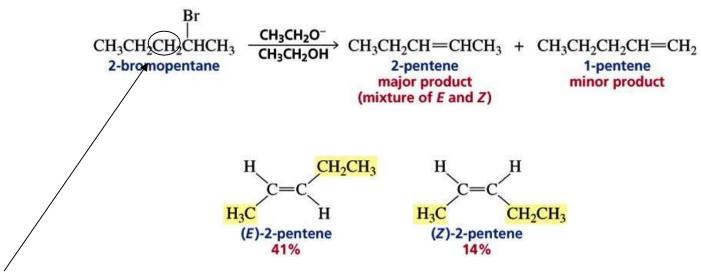


Stereochemistry of Elimination Reactions



- If the elimination reaction removes two substituents from the same side of the molecule it is syn elimination
- If the elimination reaction removes two substituents from opposite sides of the molecule it is anti elimination

The E2 Reaction: Stereochemistry

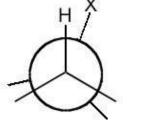


- The E2 Reaction is <u>stereoselective</u>, but <u>not</u> <u>stereospecific</u> if 2 β H's are available on carbon bearing eliminated H
- The H leading to more stable E isomer is selected to be extracted from β carbon regardless of streochem at α carbon

The E2 Reaction: Stereochemistry

- In an E2 reaction, the bonds to the eliminated substituents must be in the same plane
- In this course E2 eliminations will all go via <u>anti-</u> <u>periplanar</u> conformation
- Product analysis possible by drawing Newman projections if only 1 β H is available

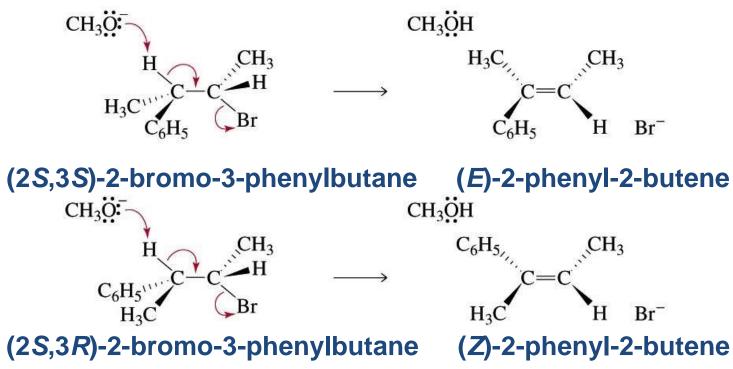




anti-periplanar

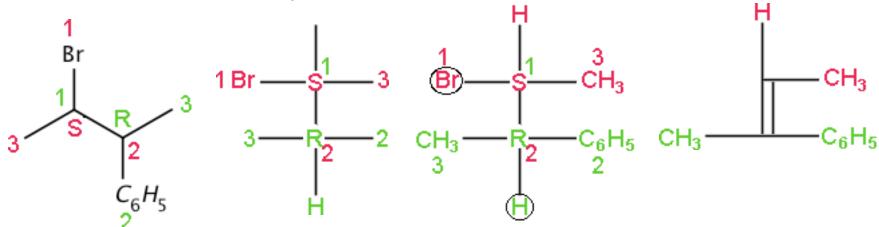
The E2 Reaction: Stereochemistry

When only one hydrogen is on the β carbon predominantly anti elimination leads to high stereospecificity



The E2 Reaction: Stereochemistry

- Retro-pro-Fischer analysis can be done to track stereochemistry of reaction
- For anti elimination put β H on vertical and leaving group on horizontal pos'n
- Erase LG and β H, draw double bond

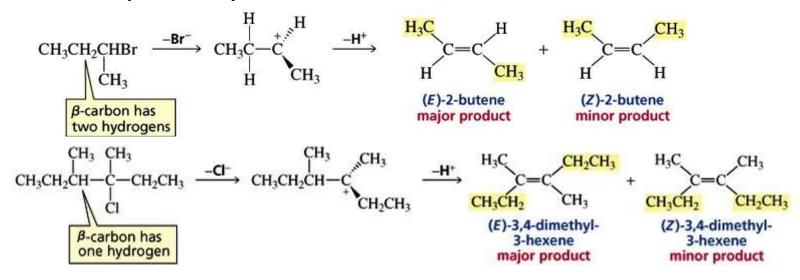


(2S,3R)-2-bromo-3-phenylbutane

Z isomer

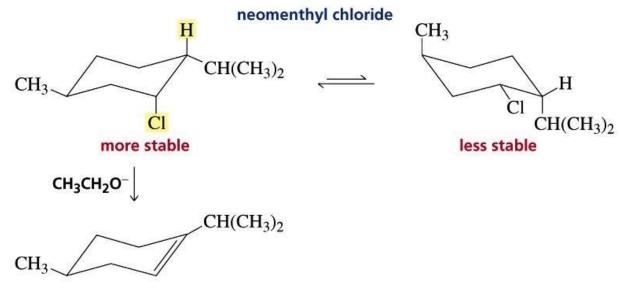
The E1 Reaction: Stereochemistry

- With C+ both syn and anti elimination can occur, so E1 reaction forms both *E* and *Z* products regardless of whether β-carbon is bonded to one or two H's
- Product stability leads to stereoselectivity but not stereospecificity

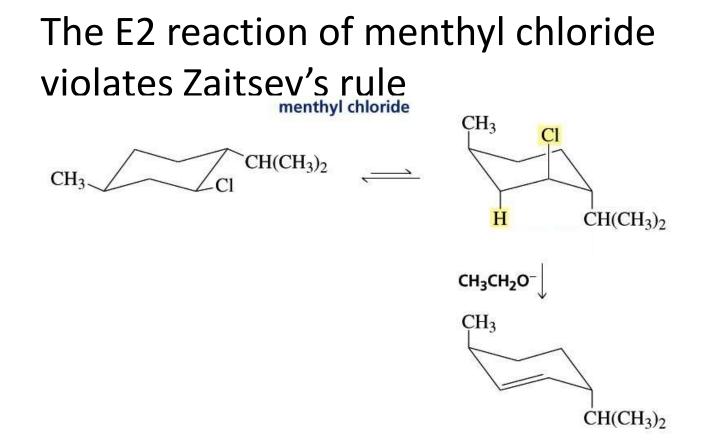


E2 Reactions of Cyclic Compounds

E2 reaction of cyclic compounds follows the same stereochemical rules as from open-chain compounds

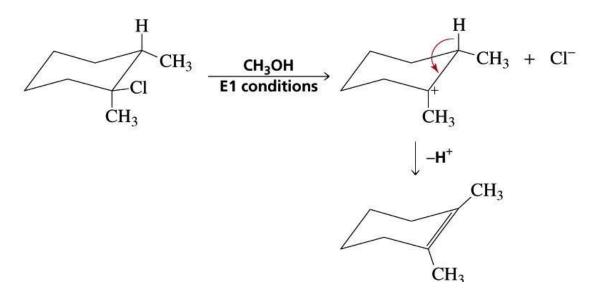


E2 Reactions of Cyclic Compounds



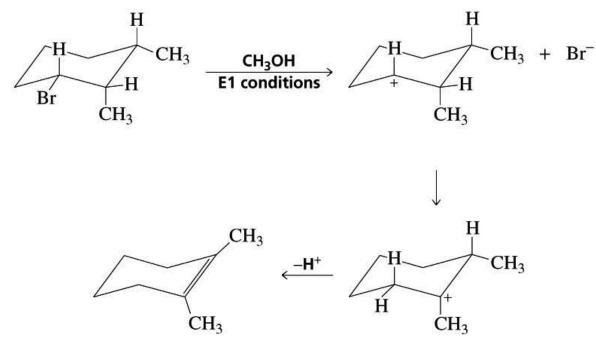
E1 Reactions of Cyclic Compounds

When a cyclohexyl chloride undergoes an E1 reaction, there is no requirement that the two groups to be eliminated be diaxial



E1 Reactions of Cyclic Compounds

Carbocation rearrangements must be considered for E1 reactions



Competition Between Substitution and Elimination

- Conditions that favor E2 also favor $S_N 2$
- Conditions that favor E1 also favor $S_{\scriptscriptstyle N} 1$
- No need to worry about $S_N 2/E1$ or $S_N 1/E2$ combinations
- First decide whether the reaction would favor $S_N 2/E2$ or $S_N 1/E1$ reactions
 - —If the halide is primary, only S_N2/E2 need be considered
 - —If the halide is secondary or tertiary, $S_N 2/E2$ or $S_N 1/E1$ depends on reaction condition

Competition Between Substitution and Elimination

- $S_N 2/E2$ reactions are favored by high conc of a good nuc/strong base and polar aprotic solvent.
- S_N1/E1 reactions are favored by poor nuc/ weak base and polar protic solvents

Competition Between $S_N 2$ and E2

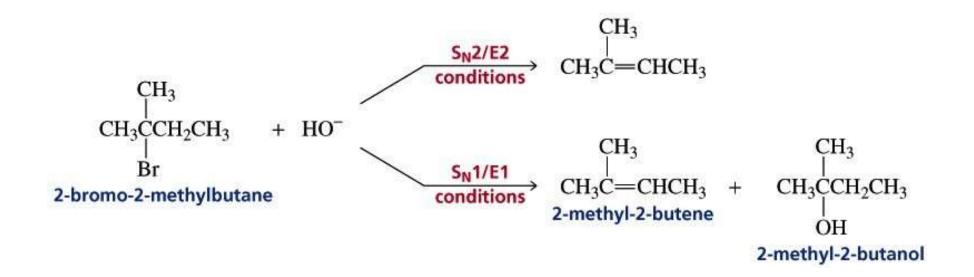
- Primary halides generally undergo substitution, although if the halide or the base is hindered, elimination is possible, favorable if heated
- Secondary halides are more difficult to predict
 - The stronger and more hindered the base, the more elimination product is produced
 - The higher the temperature, the more elimination product is produced
- Tertiary halides never undergo S_N2 reaction elimination is the only possibility

Competition Between $S_N 1$ and E1

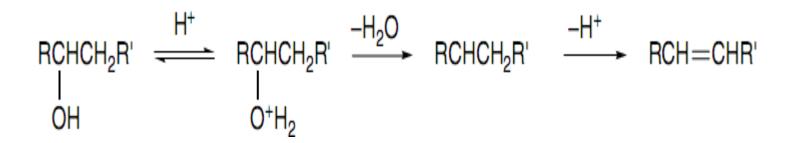
- Because S_N1 and E1 reactions both proceed through a carbocation, they have the same rate-determining step
- Primary halides do not undergo either S_N1 or E1 reactions
- For secondary and tertiary halides, raising the temperature increases the elimination product

Substitution and Elimination Reactions in Synthesis

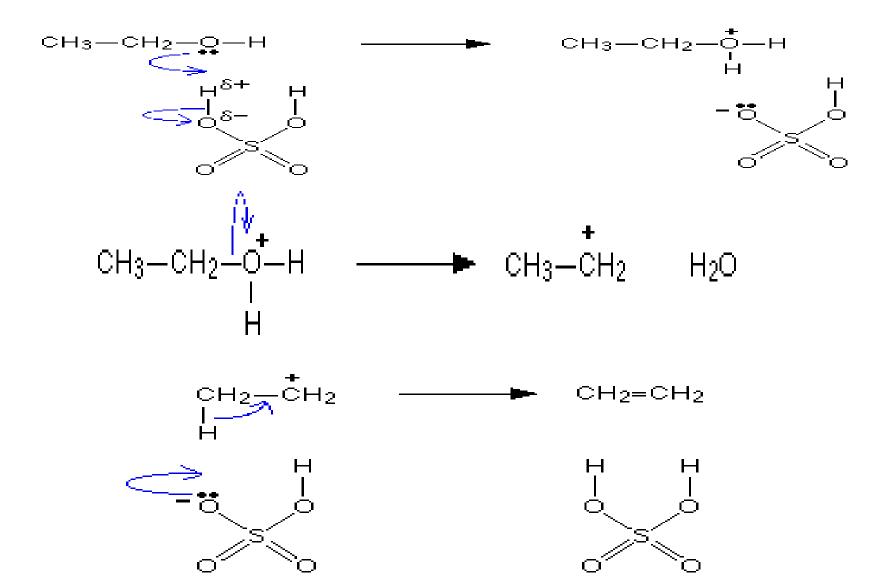
 $S_N 1/E1$ conditions are rarely useful synthetically



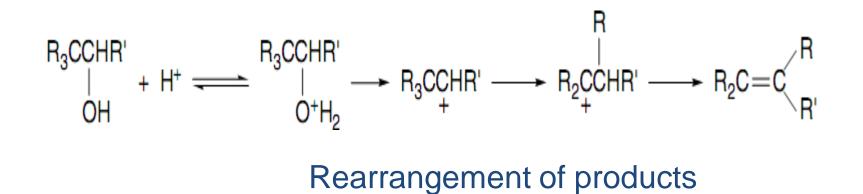
Dehydration of alcohol



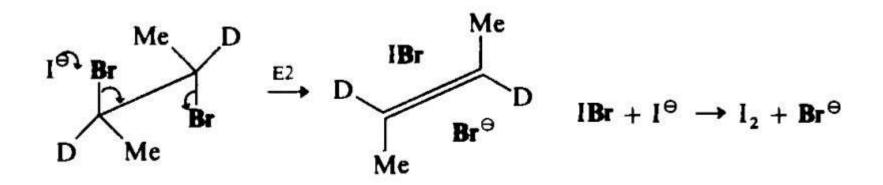
Under the acidic reagent and involves an E1 mechanism

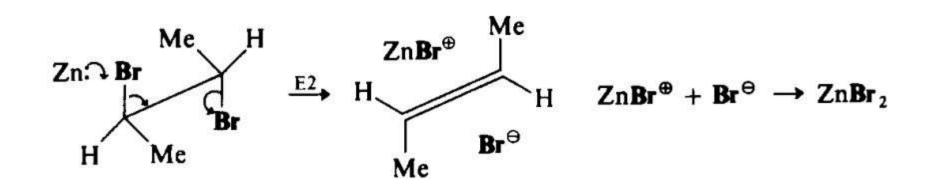


Dehydration of alcohol



Other 1,2-Elimination





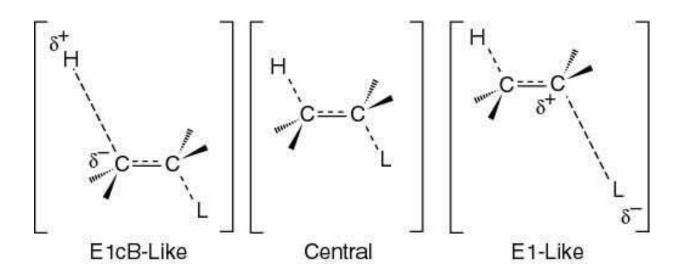
1,1-(α)-Elimination

A very strong base

$$\begin{array}{c} B: \widehat{H} & H & H \\ MeCH_2CH_2CH_2CH \rightarrow MeCH_2CH_2 \xrightarrow{-} CH \rightarrow MeCH_2CH=CH \end{array}$$
Powerfully electron-withdrawing group

Absence of β -H atom

Summary

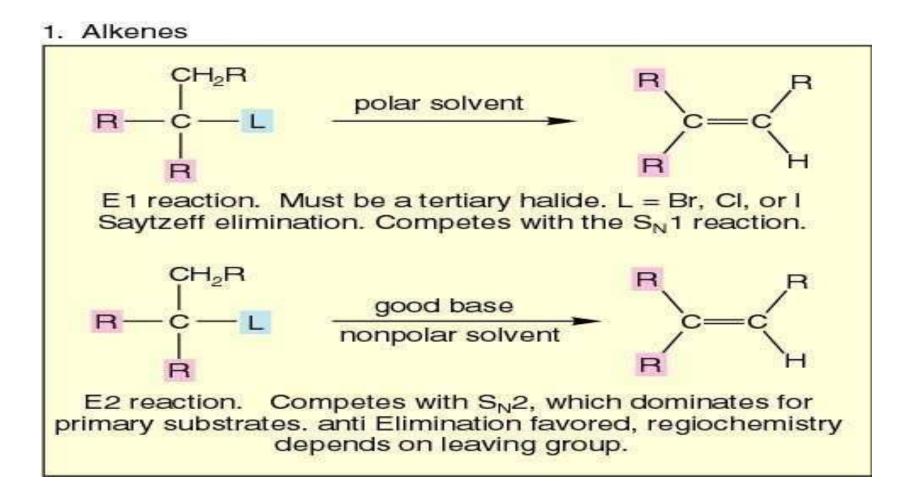


- E1cB: the proton is removed first, an anion is formed
- E_1 : the leaving group departs first, a cation is formed

55

• E₂: all processes occur at the same time

Summary



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Highlights of Elimination Reaction

- Elimination Reactions.
- E1 & E2 Reactions & Mechanisms.
- Energy Diagrams of E1 & E2.
- Transition States of E1 & E2.
- Characteristics of E1 & E2.
- The Saytzeff Rule (Z-rule).
- Elimination with Bulky Leaving Groups and Bulky Bases -- Hofmann Rule -- E2

Elimination Reactions

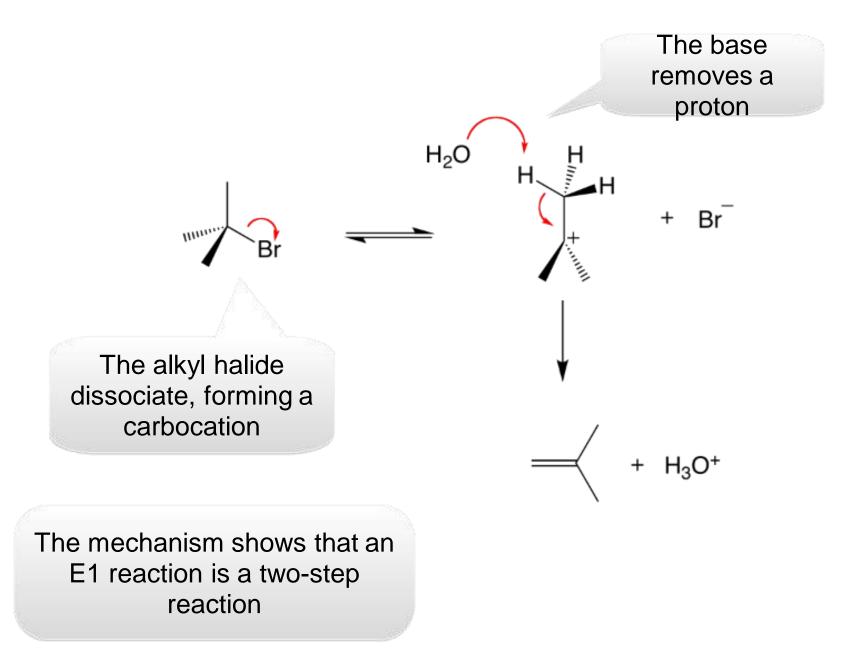
- An elimination reaction is a type of organic reaction in which two substituents are removed from a molecule in either a one or twostep mechanism.
- Either the <u>unsaturation</u> of the molecule increases (as in most organic elimination reactions) or the valence of an atom in the molecule decreases by two, a process known as <u>reductive</u> <u>elimination</u>.
- An important class of elimination reactions are those involving <u>alkyl</u> <u>halides</u>, or alkanes in general, with good <u>leaving groups</u>, reacting with a <u>Lewis base</u> to form an <u>alkene</u> in the reverse of an <u>addition</u> <u>reaction</u>. When the substrate is asymmetric, <u>regioselectivity</u> is determined by <u>Saytzeff rule</u>.

The one and two-step mechanisms are named and known as **E2** reaction and **E1 reaction**, respectively.

E1 Reactions

- These reactions proceed under neutral conditions where a *polar* solvent helps to stabilize the carbocation intermediate.
- This solvent also acts as a weak base and removes a proton in the fast step.
- These types of reactions are referred to as *solvolysis* reactions.

The E1 Reaction



Alkyl Halides and Elimination Reactions Mechanisms of Elimination—E1

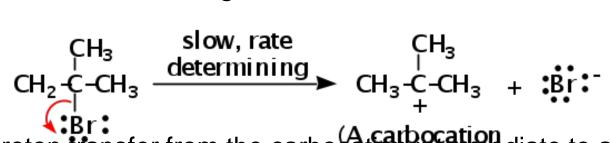
• An E1 reaction exhibits first-order kinetics:

rate = k[(CH3)3CI]

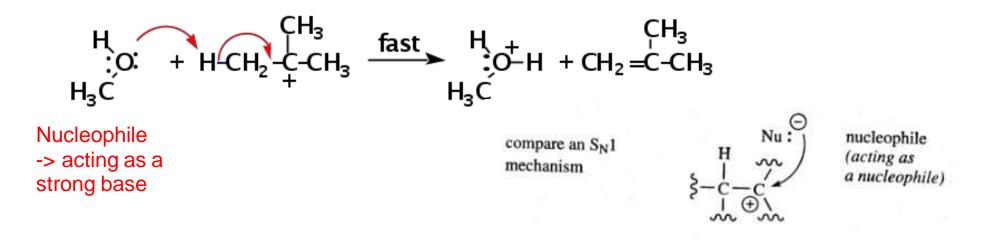
- The E1 reaction proceed via a two-step mechanism: the bond to the leaving group breaks first before the floondis formed. The slow step is unimolecular, involving only the alkyl halide.
- The E1 and E2 mechanisms both involve the same number of bonds broken and formed. The only difference is timing. In an E1, the leaving group comes off before the e proton is removed, and the reaction occurs in two steps. In an E2 reaction, the leaving group comes off as the . proton is removed, and the reaction occurs in one step.

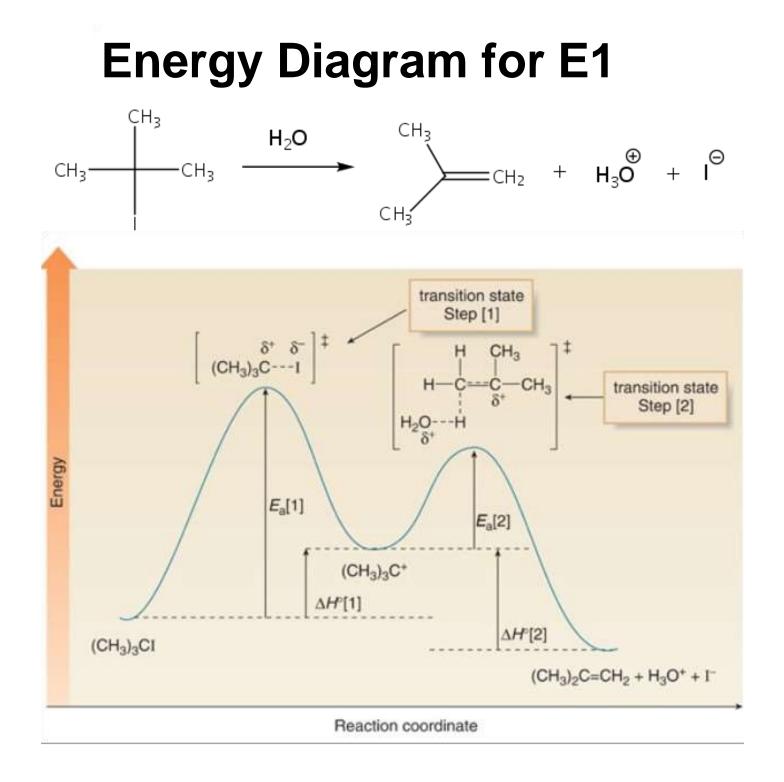
E1 Mechanism

• Step 1: ionization of C-X gives a carbocation intermediate

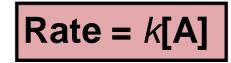


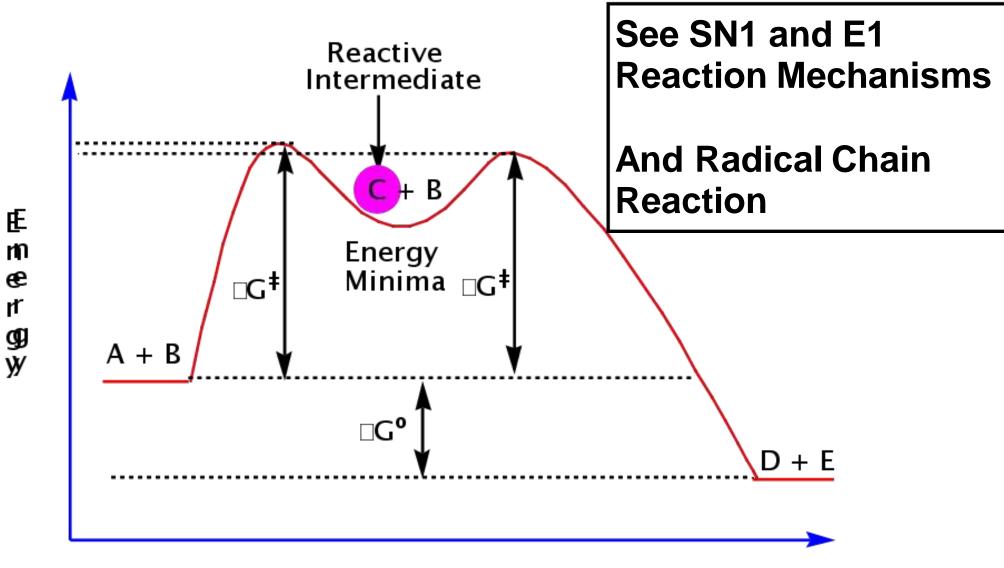
• Step 2: proton transfer from the carbocation intermediate to a base (in this case, the solvent) gives the alkene





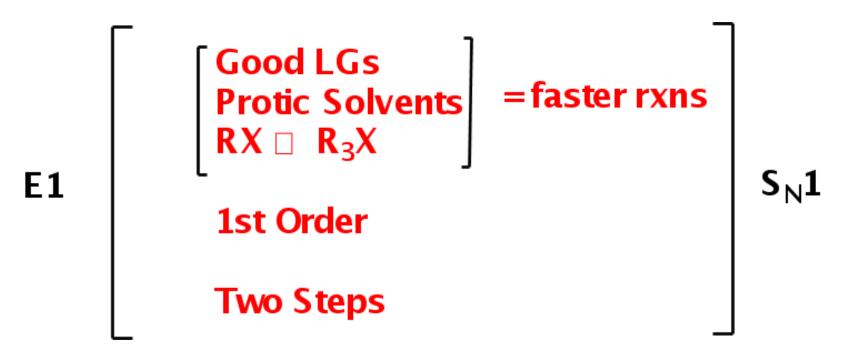
Transition States





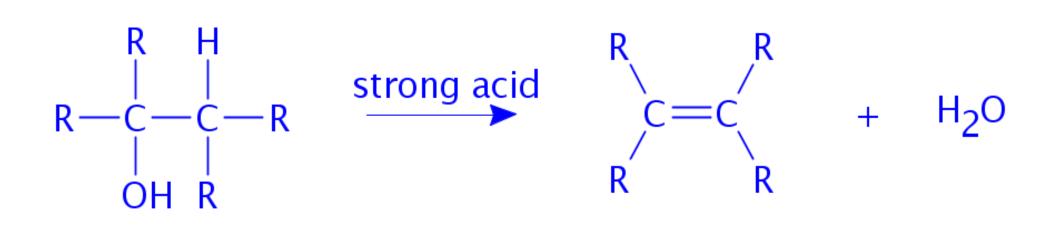
Reaction Coordinate

Here are four characteristics that the E1 / SN mechanisms have in common.

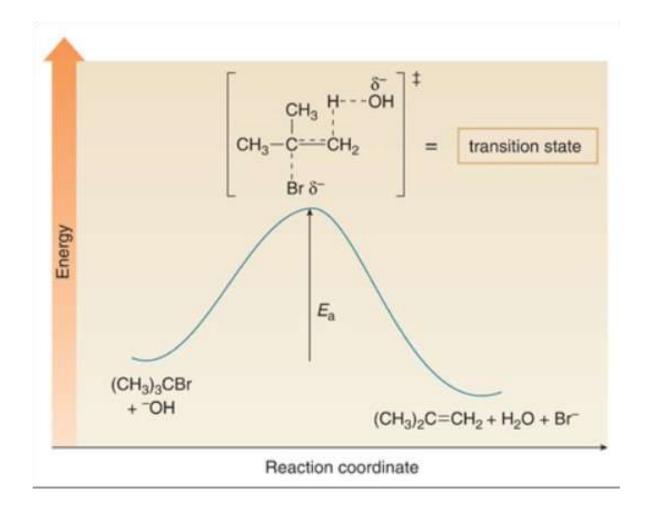


Dehydration of Alcohols

Acid assisted reactions are always E1



Energy Diagram for the E2 Mechanism

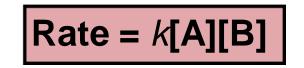


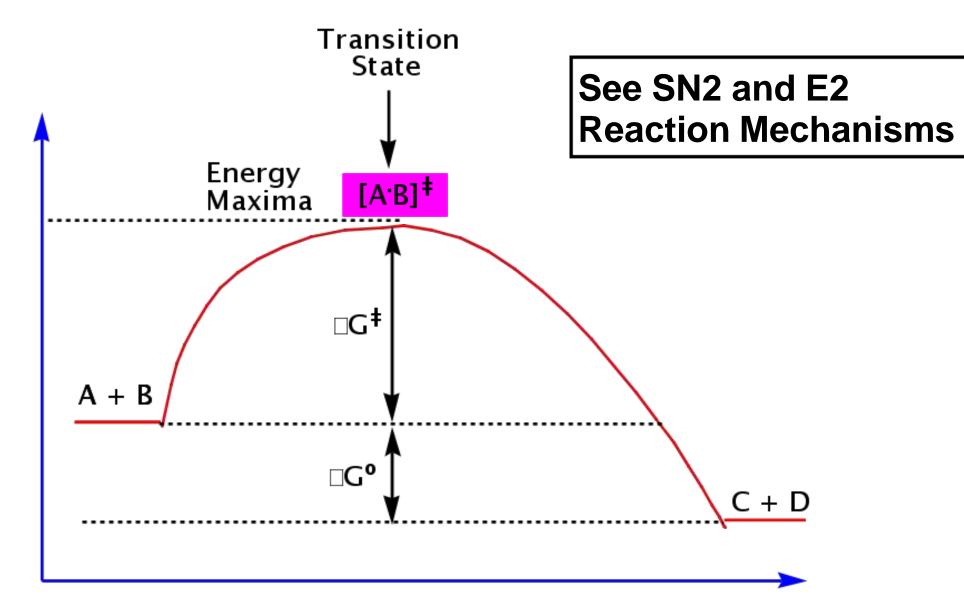
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Reaction Coordinate

Alkyl Halides and Elimination Reactions

Mechanisms of Elimination—E2

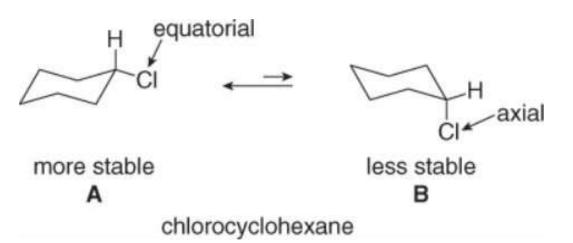
- The most common mechanism for dehydrohalogenation is the E2 mechanism.
- It exhibits second-order kinetics, and both the alkyl halide and the base appear in the rate equation i.e.

rate = k[(CH3)3CBr][-OH]

 The reaction is concerted—all bonds are broken and formed in a single step.

Alkyl Halides and Elimination Reactions Stereochemistry of the E2 Reaction:

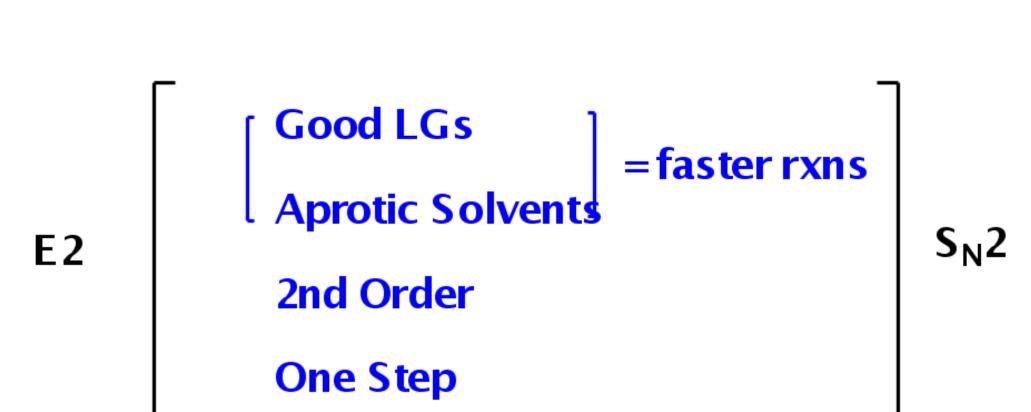
- The stereochemical requirement of an anti periplanar geometry in an E2 reaction has important consequences for compounds containing six-membered rings.
- Consider chlorocyclohexane which exists as two chair conformations. Conformation A is preferred since the bulkier Cl group is in the equatorial position.



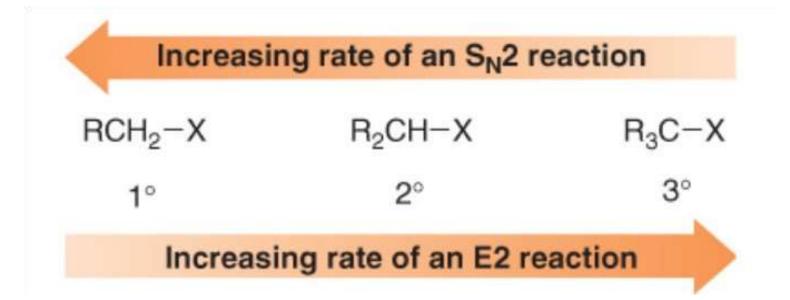
 For E2 elimination, the C-CI bond must be anti periplanar to the C—H bond on a £

CI atoms are both in the axial position. The requirement for *trans* diaxial geometry means that elimination must occur from the less stable conformer, B.

Here are four characteristics that the E2 / SN2 mechanisms have in common.

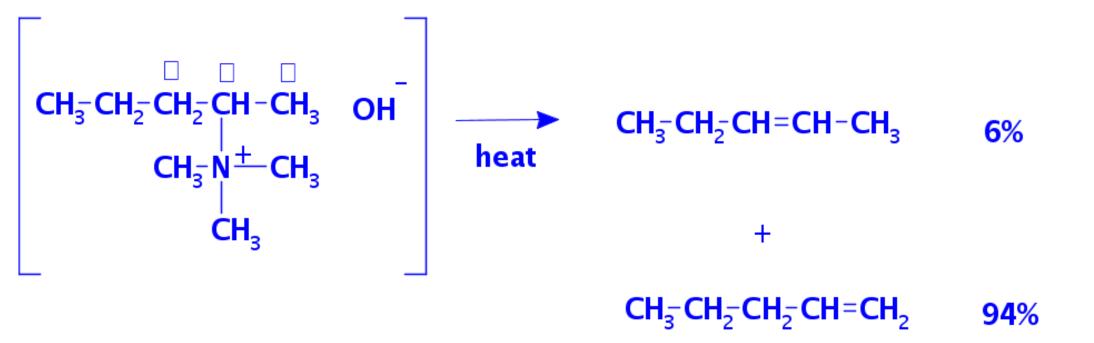


Effect of the Substrate on E2 Reactivity



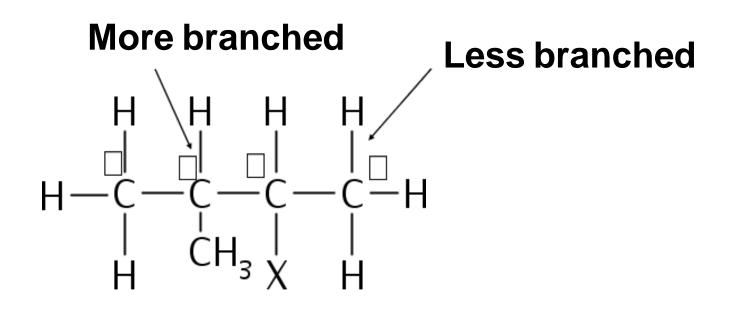
Bulky leaving groups: Hofmann Elimination

This give the *anti-Saytzeff* product (least substituted product is formed)!



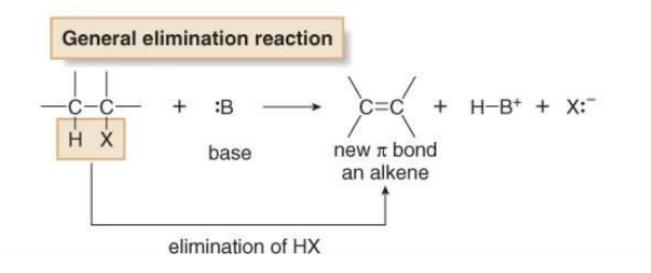
Orientation of elimination: regiochemistry/ Hofmann's Rule

 In bimolecular elimination reactions in the presence of either a bulky leaving group or a bulky base, the *hydrogen* that is lost will come from the *LEAST highly-branched i* -carbon.



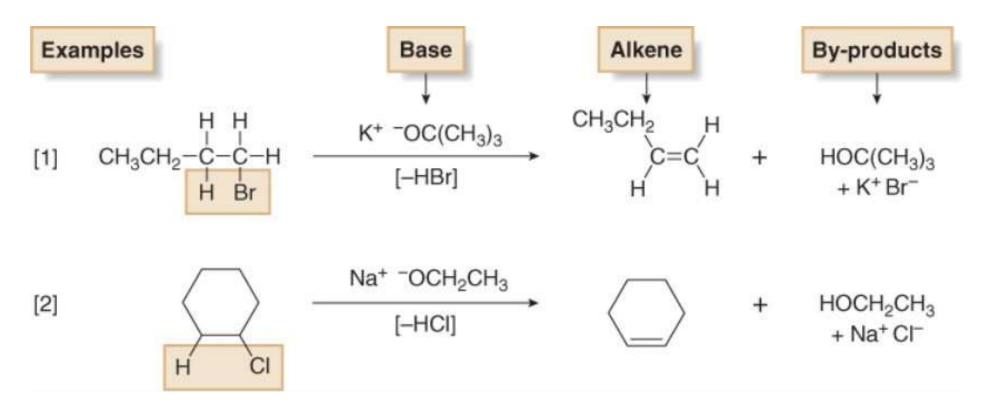
General Features of Elimination

- Elimination reactions involve the loss of elements from the starting material to form a new s product.
 - Alkyl halides undergo elimination reactions with Brønsted–Lowry bases. The elements
 of HX are lost and an alkene is formed.



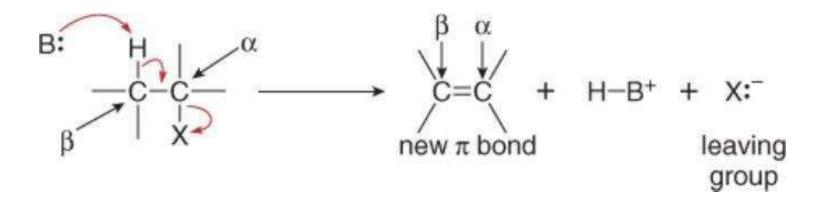
General Features of Elimination

 Equations [1] and [2] illustrate examples of elimination reactions. In both reactions a base removes the elements of an acid, HX, from the organic starting material.



General Features of Elimination

- Removal of the elements HX is called dehydrohalogenation.
- Dehydrohalogenation is an example of n elimination.
- The curved arrow formalism shown below illustrates how four bonds are broken or formed in the process.

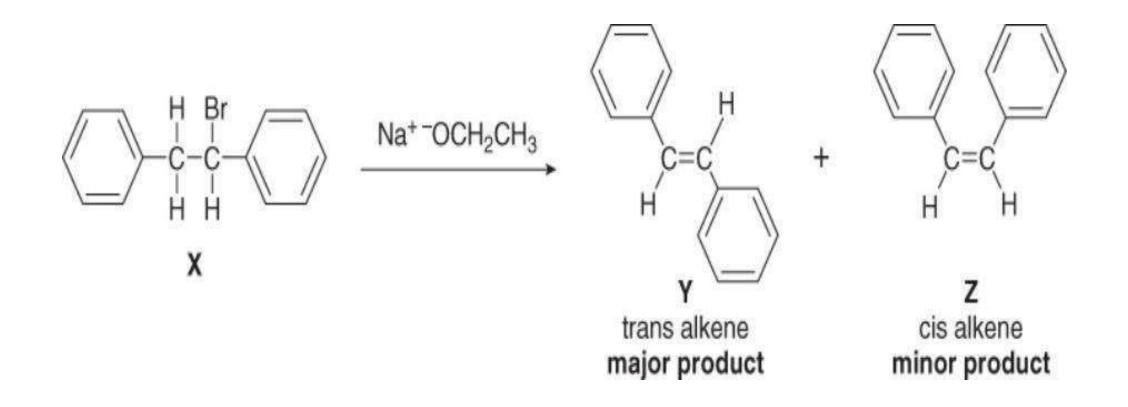


General Features of Elimination

 The most common bases used in elimination reactions are negatively charged oxygen compounds, such as HO⁻ and its alkyl derivatives, RO⁻, called alkoxides.

The Saytzeff) Rule (Z-rule)

According to the Z-rule, the major product in a dehydrohalgenation is the *most stable product*.

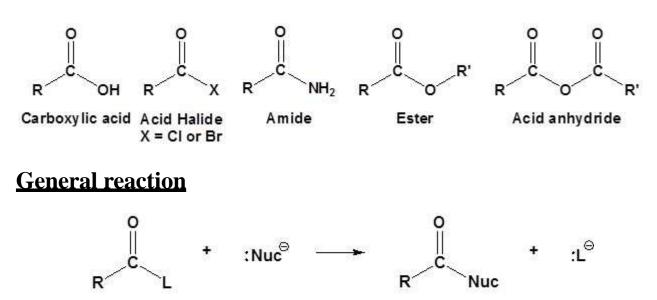


Summary

- Alkyl halides undergo two kinds of nucleophilic subtitutions: SN1 and SN2, and two kinds of elimination: E1 and E2.
- SN2 and E2 are bimolecular one-step reactions
- SN1 and E1 are unimolecular two step reactions
- SN1 lead to a mixture of stereoisomers
- The major product of a elimination is the most stable alkene
- SN2 are E2 are favoured by strong nucleophile/strong base
- SN2 reactions are favoured by primary alkyl halides
- E2 reactions are favoured by tertiary alkyl halides

Nucleophilic Substitution at the carbonyl (C=O)

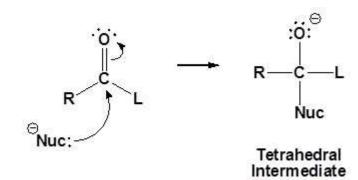
Carbonyl compounds with leaving groups have reactions similar to aldehydes and ketones.



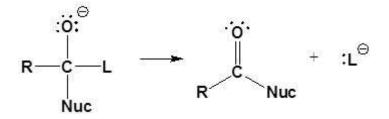
L = Leaving Group

General mechanism

1) Nucleophilic attack on the carbonyl

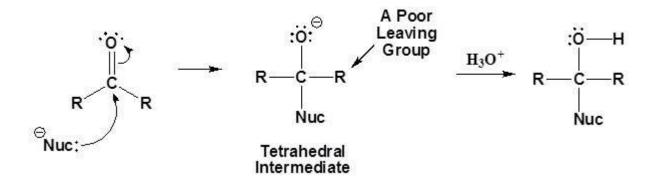


2) Leaving group is removed



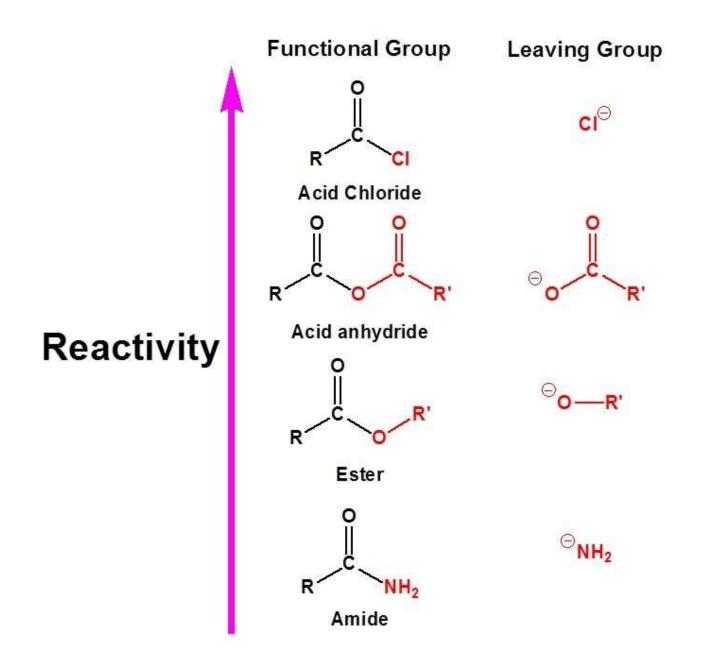
Once a tetrahedral intermediate is formed, aldehydes and ketones cannot reform their carbonyls.

Because of this, aldehydes and ketones typically undergo nucleophilic additions and not substitutions.

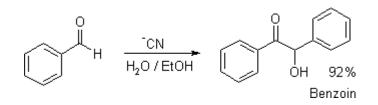


The relative reactivity of carboxylic acid derivatives toward nucleophilic substitutions is related to the electronegative leaving group's ability to activate the carbonyl.

The more electronegative leaving groups withdraw electron density from the carbonyl, thereby increasing its electrophilicity.



Benzoin Condensation

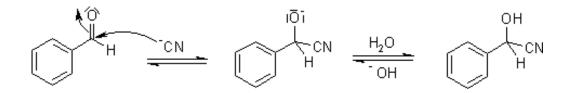


The Benzoin Condensation is a coupling reaction between two aldehydes that allows the preparation of α -hydroxyketones.

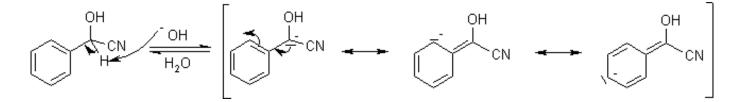
The first methods were only suitable for the conversion of aromatic aldehydes.

Mechanism of Benzoin Condensation

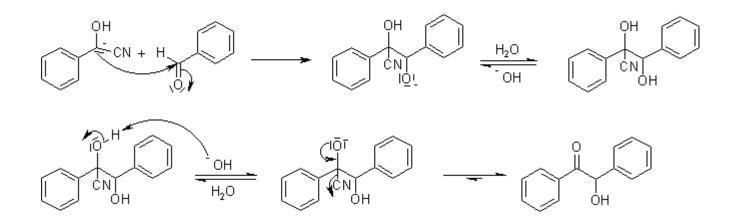
Addition of the cyanide ion to create a cyanohydrin effects an umpolung of the normal carbonyl charge affinity, and the electrophilic aldehyde carbon becomes nucleophilic after deprotonation: A thiazolium salt may also be used as the catalyst in this reaction.



A strong base is now able to deprotonate at the former carbonyl C-atom:

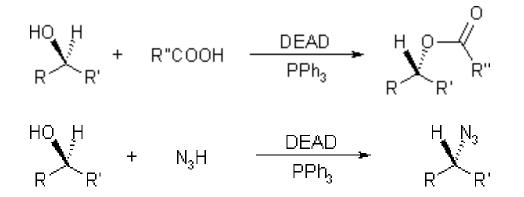


A second equivalent of aldehyde reacts with this carbanion; elimination of the catalyst regenerates the carbonyl compound at the end of the reaction:



Nucleophilic Substitution at the Alcohol

Mitsunobu Reaction



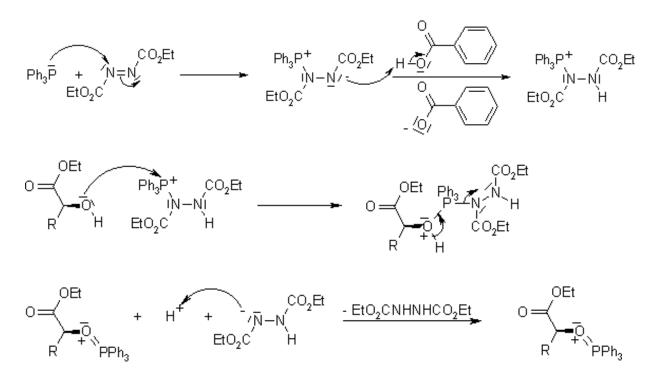
The Mitsunobu Reaction allows the conversion of primary and secondary alcohols to esters, phenyl ethers, thioethers and various other compounds.

The nucleophile employed should be acidic, since one of the reagents (<u>DEAD</u>, diethylazodicarboxylate) must be protonated during the course of the reaction to prevent from side reactions.

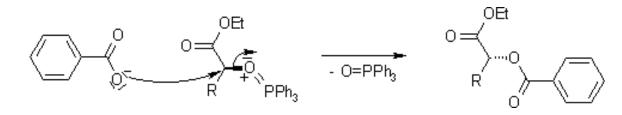
Mechanism of the Mitsunobu Reaction

The <u>triphenylphosphine</u> combines with DEAD to generate a phosphonium intermediate that binds to the alcohol oxygen, activating it as a leaving group.

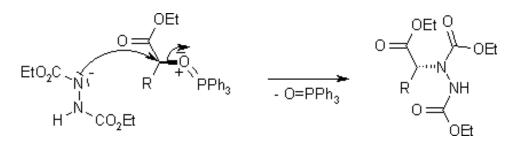
Substitution by the carboxylate, mercaptyl, or other nucleophile completes the process.



The reaction proceeds with clean inversion, which makes the Mitsunobu Reaction with secondary alcohols a powerful method for the inversion of stereogenic centers in natural product synthesis.



Side Reaction:



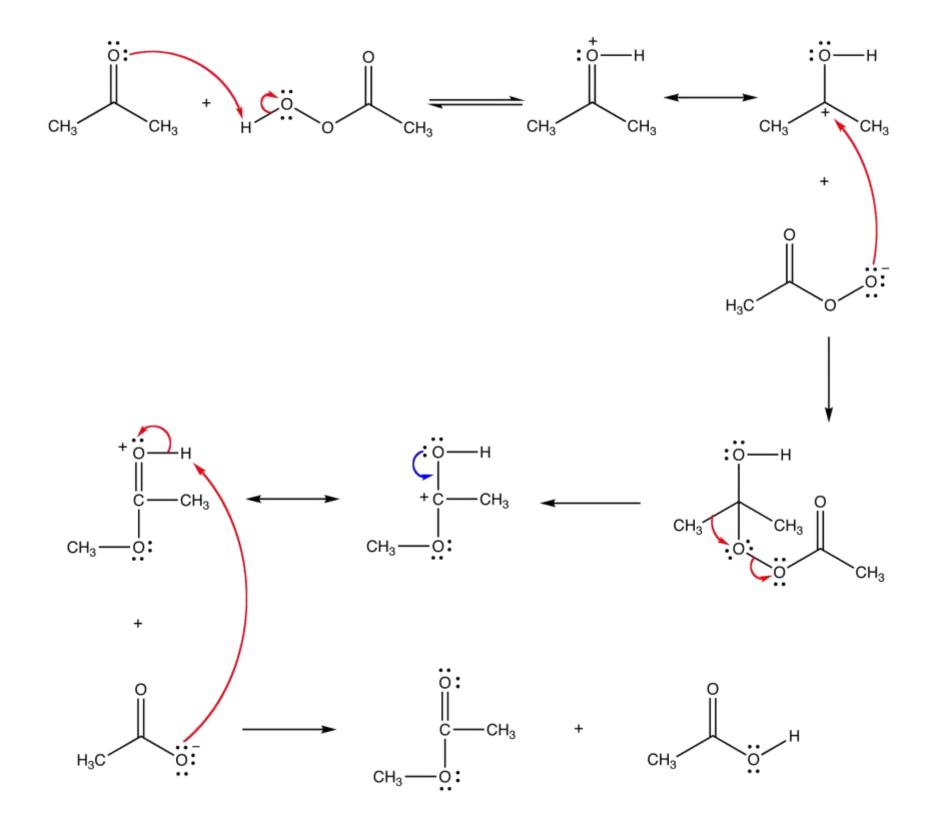
New protocols have been developed which allow better removal of side products and/or the conversion of more basic nucleophiles.

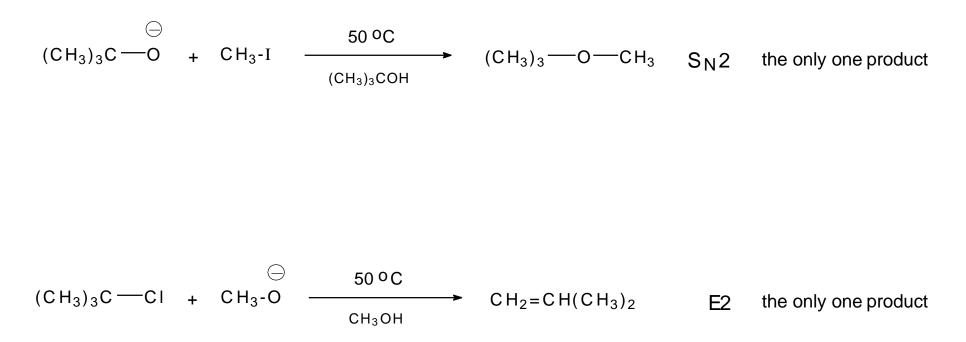
Baeyer-Villiger Oxidation

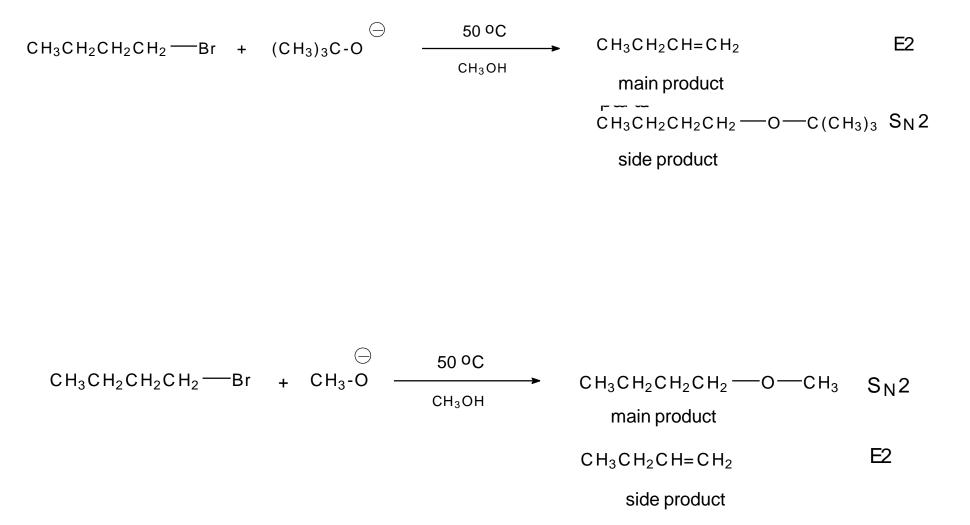
The Baeyer-Villiger oxidation, also known as the Baeyer-Villiger rearrangement, was first reported on December 17, 1899 by Adolf Baeyer and Victor Villiger in Chemische Berichte. They referred to the oxidation of menthone and tetrahydrocarvone by monoperoxysulfuric acid.

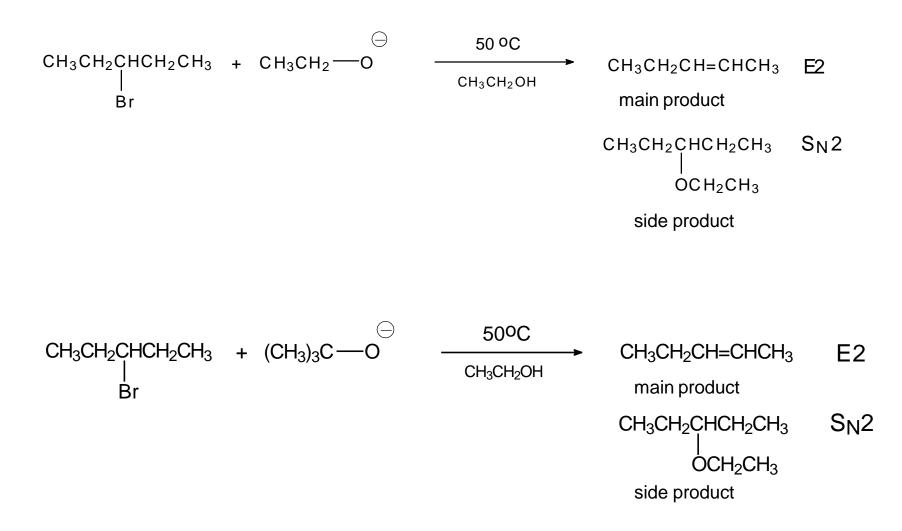
It is a popular synthetic tool for the conversion of cyclic ketones to lactones and acyclic ketones to esters; lactones are precursors to hydroxy acids and acyclic diols.

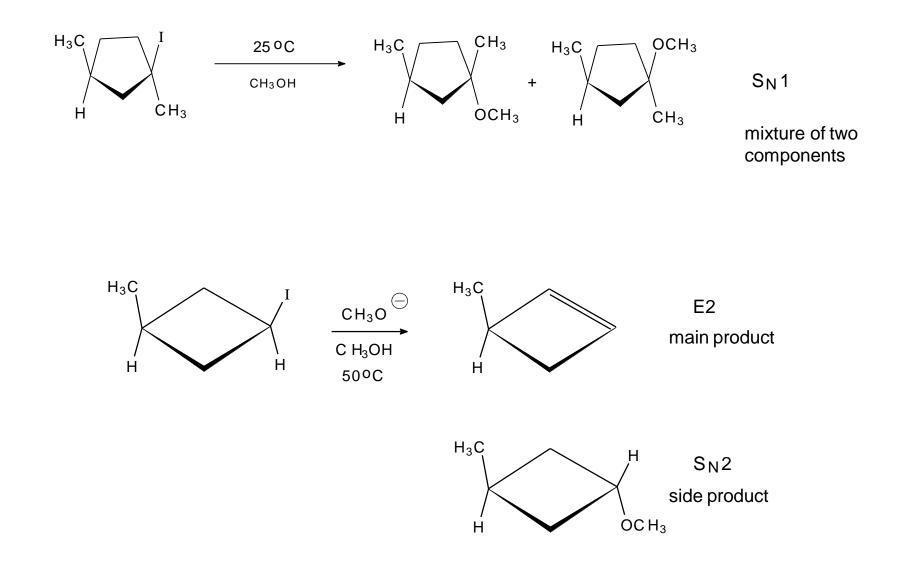
Peracids, hydrogen peroxide, magnesium salt of monoperoxyphthalic acid and oxone are established reagents for this reaction. Phenols and formates can be obtained from the corresponding aromatic aldehydes.

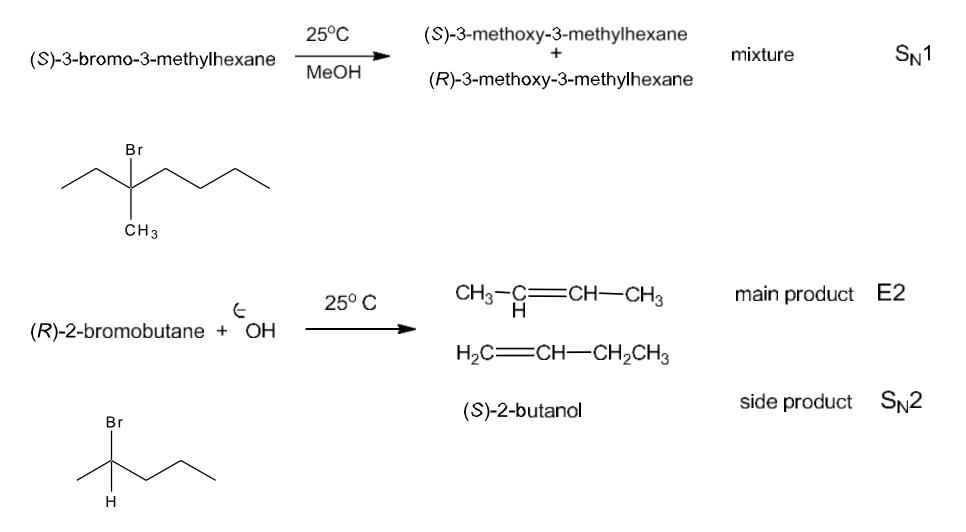








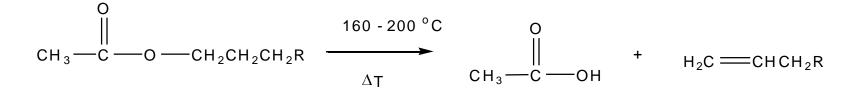




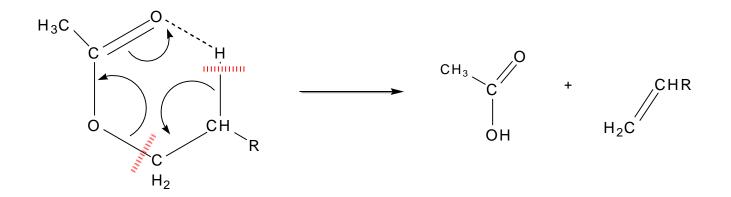
Reactions are characteristic for acetates or xanthates –Chugaev reaction and *t*-aminoxides – Cope elimination

Acetates pyrolysis

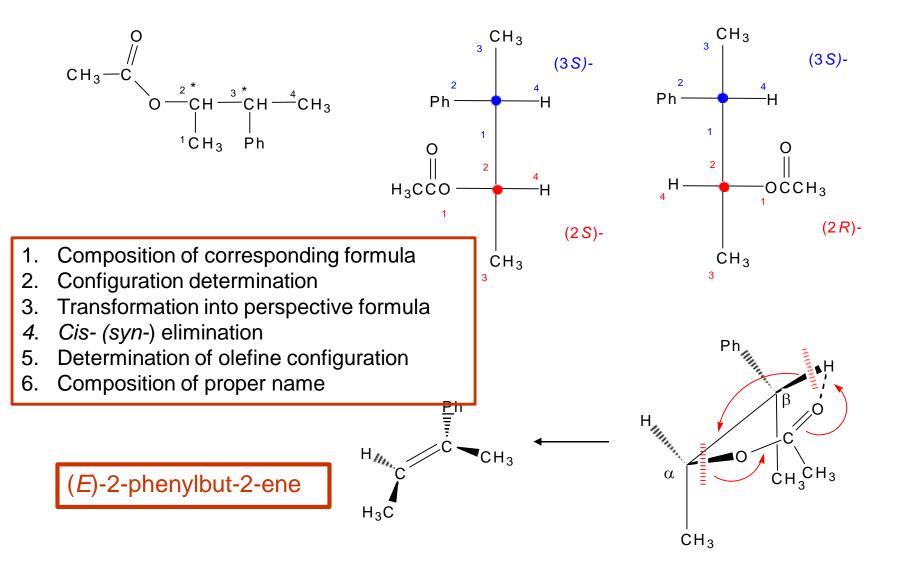
Reactions are *cis*- stereospecific and regiospecific



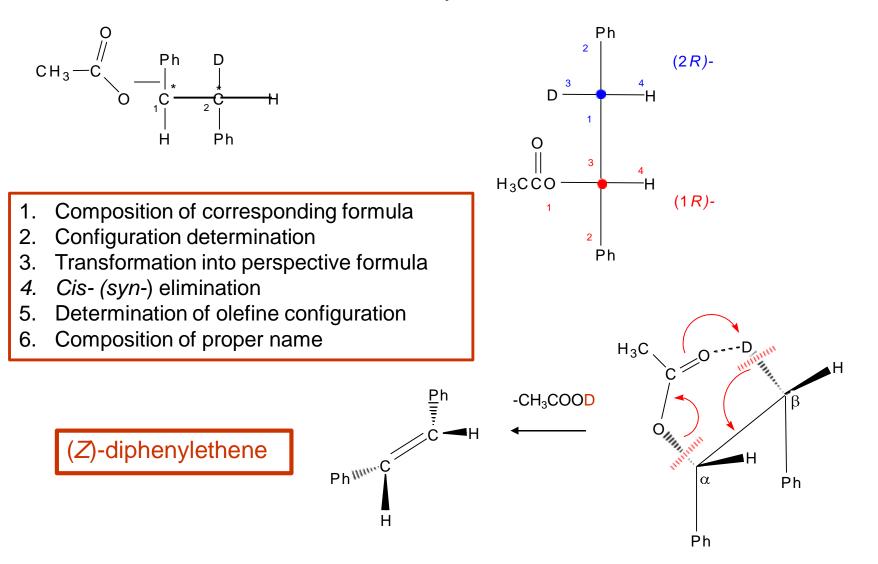
Reaction proceeds via cyclic intermediate



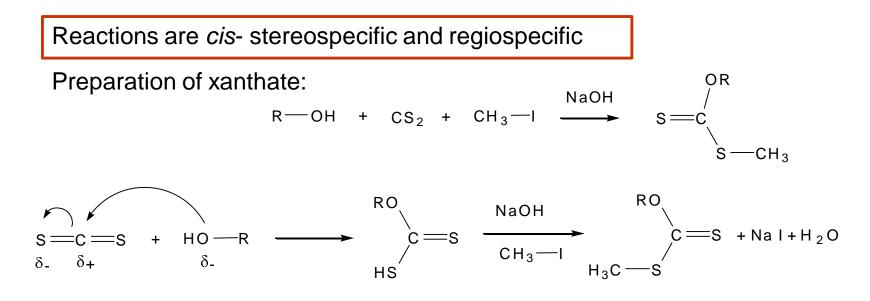
What is the product of (2*R*,3*S*)-2-(3-phenylbutyl)acetate?



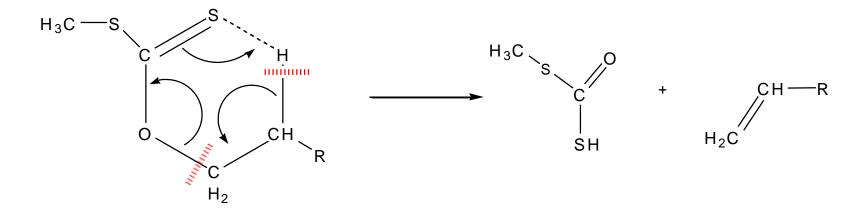
What is the product of pyrolysis of (1*R*,2*R*)-1,2-diphenyl-2deuterioethylacetate?



Pyrolytic elimination – Chugayev reaction

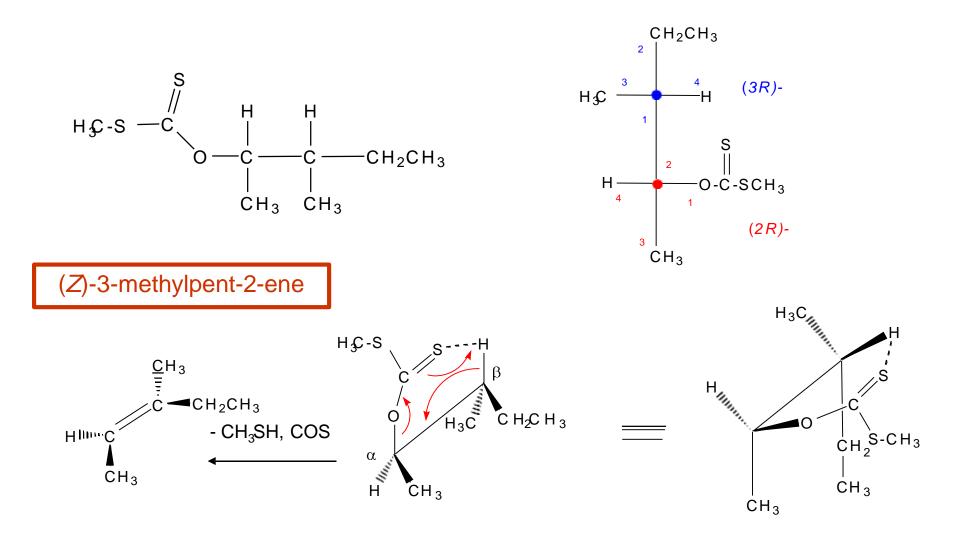


Reactions proceed via cyclic state



Pyrolytické eliminace

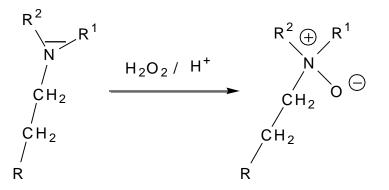
What is the product of (S)-methyl-(2R,3R)-O-(3-methylpent-2-yl) xanthate pyrolysis?



Pyrolytic elimination – Cope reaction

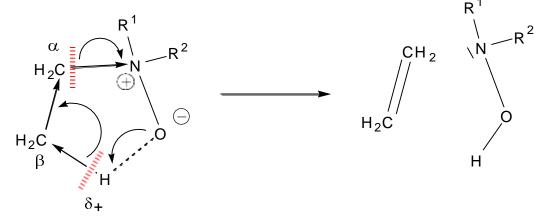
Reactions are *cis*- stereospecific and regiospecific

Preparation of *t*-aminoxide



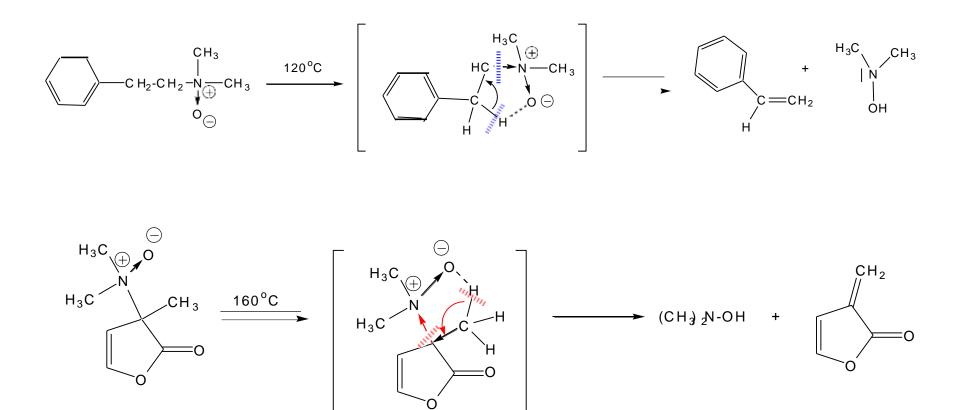
oxidation of *t*-amines

Reactions proceed via cyclic intermediate



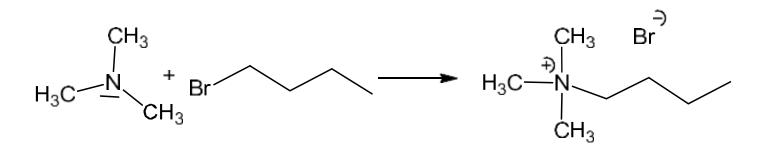
after reaction olefin and substituted hydroxylamin are obtained

Cope elimination of N-oxides

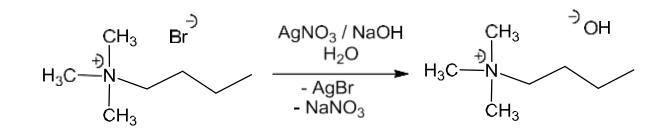


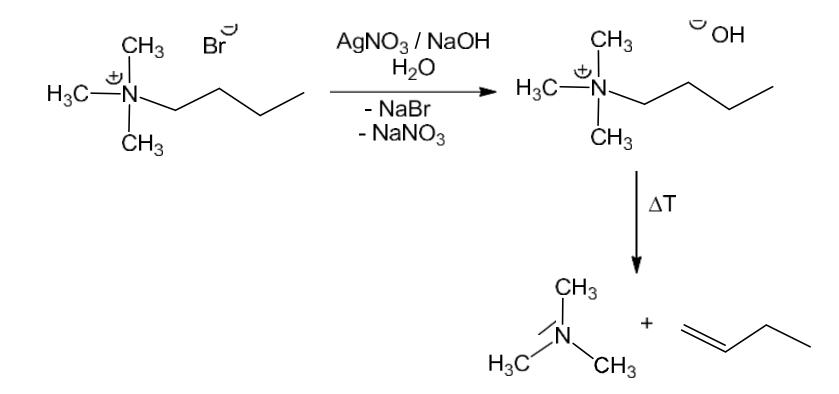
Hofmann elimination of quarternary ammonium hydroxides

Reaction starts with t-alkylamines, which in the following reaction are alkylated to quaternary ammonium salts



In the further step they are transferred into quaternary ammonium hydroxides



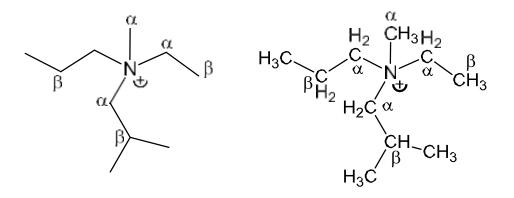


Hofmann elimination of quarternary ammonium hydroxides

Reactions are regiospecific, but not stereospecific

During the reaction the most acidic β -hydrogen atom is split off.

(<code>"antisaytzeff rule" – that $_\beta$ hydrogen atom splits off to produce the least branched olefin</code>

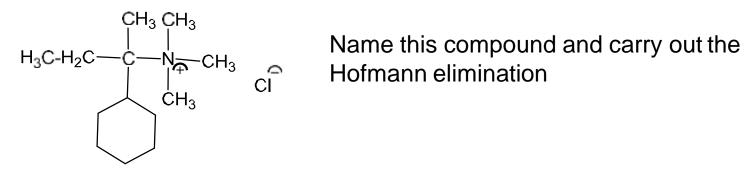


In the molecule there are 3 β -hydrogen atoms, which might be eliminated ----

in the reaction the most acidic proton splits off and the least branched olefin is formed

Hofmann elimination of quarternary ammonium hydroxides

During reaction the most acidic β -hydrogen atom splits off



in the molecule they are 2 different β - hydrogen atoms, which might be eliminated ----

during the reaction the most acidic hydrogen is eliminated and the least branched olefin is formed

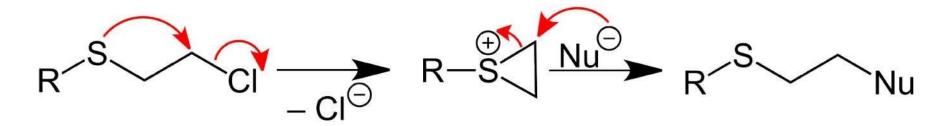
Neighboring group Participation in Nucleophilic substitution

Neighbouring group Participation in Nucleophilic substitution

- Neighbouring group participation (NGP) in organic chemistry is defined by <u>IUPAC</u> as the interaction of a reaction centre with a <u>lone pair</u> of electrons in an atom or the electrons present in a <u>sigma bond</u> or <u>pi bond</u> contained within the parent molecule but not <u>conjugated</u> with the reaction centre.
- When NGP is in operation it is normal for the <u>reaction rate</u> to be increased.
- It is also possible for the <u>stereochemistry</u> of the reaction to be abnormal (or unexpected) when compared with a *normal* reaction.

NGP by heteroatom lone pairs

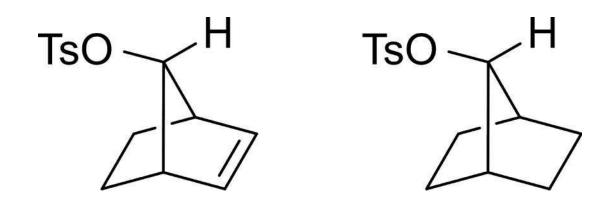
 A classic example of NGP is the reaction of a sulfur or nitrogen mustard with a nucleophile, the rate of reaction is much higher for the sulfur mustard and a nucleophile than it would be for a primary alkyl chloride without a heteroatom.



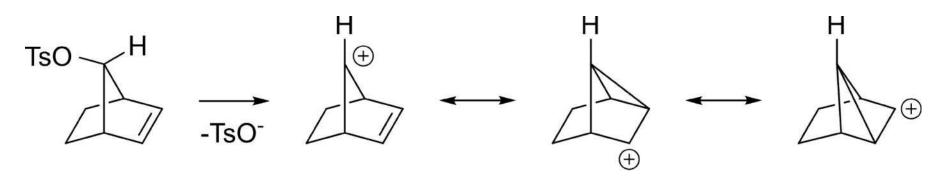
Ph-S-CH₂-CH₂-Cl reacts with water 600 times faster than CH_3 -CH₂-CH₂-Cl

NGP by an alkene

• The π orbitals of an alkene can stabilize a transition state by helping to delocalize the positive charge of the <u>carbocation</u>. For instance the <u>unsaturated tosylate</u> will react more quickly (10¹¹ times faster for aqueous solvolysis) with a nucleophile than the saturated tosylate.

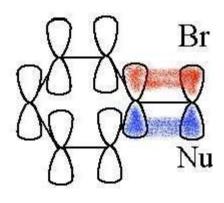


 The carbocationic intermediate will be stabilized by resonance where the positive charge is spread over several atoms, in the diagram below this is shown.

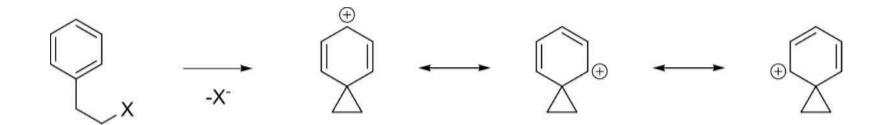


NGP by an aromatic ring

• In the case of a benzyl halide the reactivity is higher because the $S_N 2$ transition state enjoys a similar overlap effect to that in the allyl system.



 An aromatic ring can assist in the formation of a carbocationic intermediate called a phenonium ion by delocalising the positive charge.



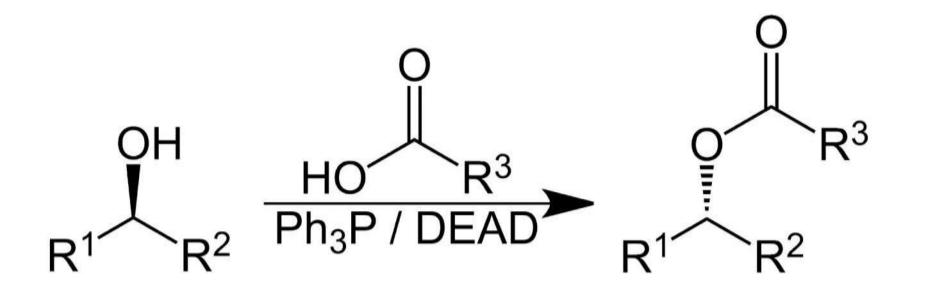
NGP by aliphatic C-C or C-H bonds

 Aliphatic C-C or C-H bonds can lead to charge delocalization if these bonds are close and antiperiplanar to the leaving group. Corresponding intermediates are referred to a nonclassical ions, with the 2-norbornyl system as the most well known case.

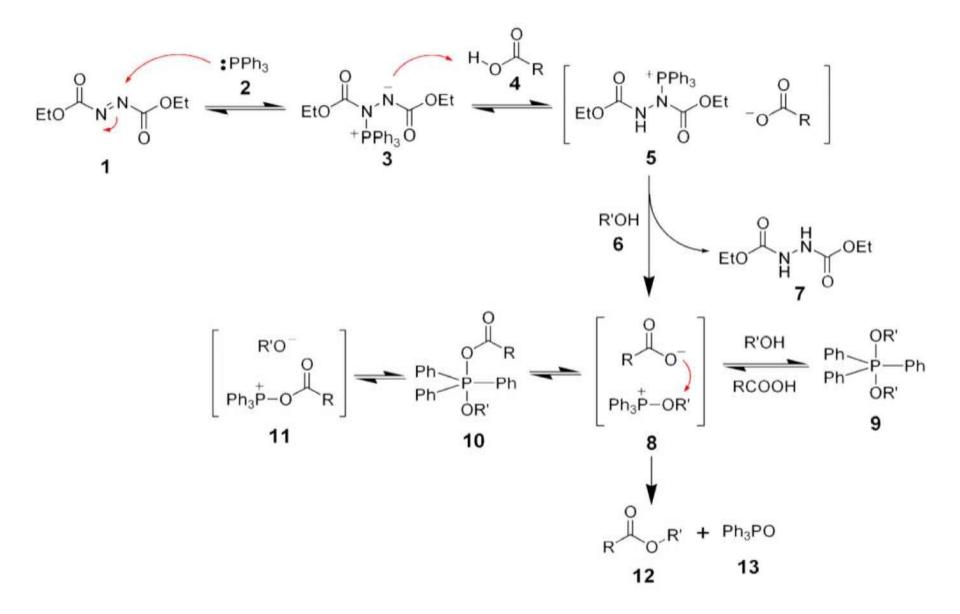
Mitsunobu reaction

- The Mitsunobu reaction is an organic reaction that converts an alcohol into a variety of functional groups, such as an ester, using triphenylphosphine and an azodicarboxylate such as diethyl azodicarboxylate (DEAD) or diisopropyl azodicarboxylate (DIAD).
- The alcohol undergoes an inversion of stereochemistry.
- It was discovered by Oyo Mitsunobu (1934–2003)

Mitsunobu reaction



Mitsunobu reaction Mechanism



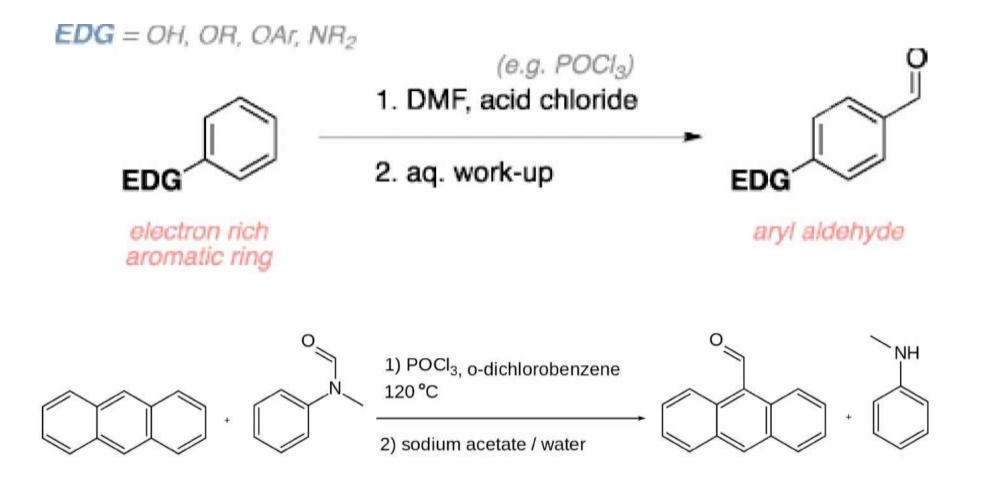
Mitsunobu reaction mechanism

- Initially, the triphenyl phosphine (2) makes a nucleophilic attack upon diethyl azodicarboxylate (1)producing a betaine intermediate 3, which deprotonates the carboxylic acid (4) to form the ion pair 5.
- DEAD itself deprotonates the alcohol (6) forming an alkoxide that can form the key oxyphosphonium ion 8. The ratio and interconversion of intermediates 8–11 depend on the carboxylic acid pKa and the solvent polarity.

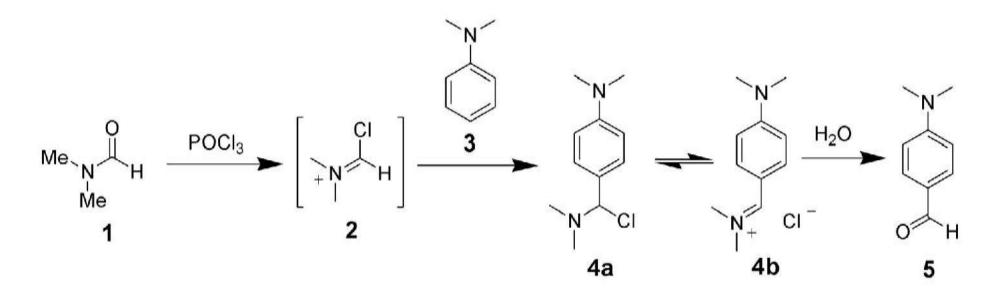
Mitsunobu reaction mechanism

- Although several phosphorus intermediates are present, the attack of the carboxylate anion upon intermediate 8 is the only productive pathway forming the desired product 12 and triphenylphosphine oxide (13).
- The formation of the oxyphosphonium intermediate **8** is slow and facilitated by the alkoxide. Therefore, the overall rate of reaction is controlled by carboxylate basicity and solvation.

Vilsmeier-Haack reaction



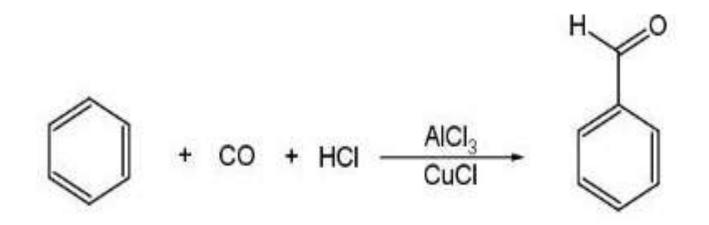
Vilsmeier-Haack reaction mechanism



The reaction of a substituted amide with phosphorus oxychloride gives a substituted chloroiminium ion (**2**), also called the Vilsmeier reagent. The initial product is an iminium ion (**4b**), which is hydrolyzed to the corresponding ketone or aldehyde during workup.

Gattermann – Koch Reaction

 Gattermann Koch Reaction Mechanism begins with the formation of the reactive species with the help of the acid. The overall aim of the reaction is to attach a formyl group (-CHO group) to an aromatic system. An example of the Gattermann – Koch reaction is given below.



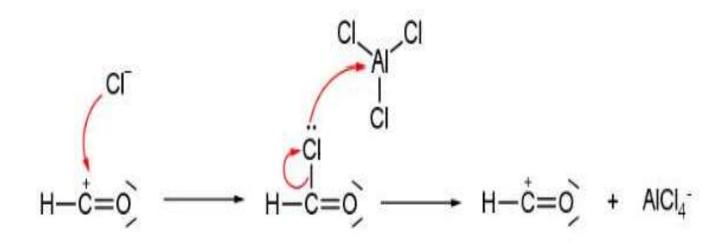
Gattermann – Koch Reaction Mechanism

- Step 1
- The first step of the Gattermann Koch reaction mechanism is the generation of the reactive species which can later be used to react on the aromatic ring. Since carbon monoxide acts as a lewis base, it can accept a proton from the hydrochloric acid.
- This results in a positively charged molecule which has different resonance structures. One such resonance structure displays a positive charge on the carbon, explaining the reactivity of the hybrid. This species can act as an electrophile while reacting with the aromatic ring. However, it is more likely to be the target of a nucleophilic attack from the chloride ion in the hydrochloric acid.

$$c_1^2 H$$
 $c_1 \equiv o_1^{\dagger} \longrightarrow H \longrightarrow H^{\dagger} = o_1^{\dagger} \longrightarrow H^{-1} = o_1^{\dagger}$

Gattermann – Koch Reaction Mechanism

Step 2- When a Lewis acid (aluminium chloride) is added, it easily removes a chloride ion from the species. The species now reverts back to the reactive formyl cation.



Gattermann – Koch Reaction Mechanism

Step 3

An electrophilic aromatic substitution occurs at the aromatic ring. The aromatic ring acts as a nucleophile and donates an electron pair to the formyl cation. The temporary loss of aromaticity is quickly solved by the expulsion of a proton.

