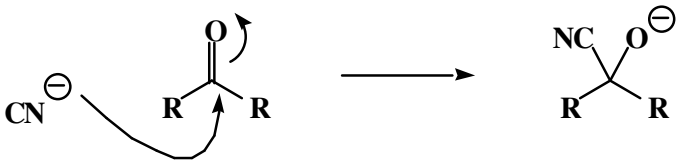
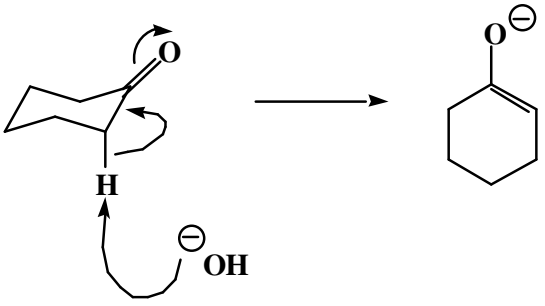
THE CHEMISTRY OF THE CARBONYL GROUP

Professor Tim Donohoe

8 lectures, HT, weeks 1-4, 2006

Handout A





You will be able to download copies of the handouts from this course at

http://users.ox.ac.uk/%7Emagd1571/finalpage/teaching.html

Course Structure

1) Nucleophilic addition **to** C=O

A) Nucleophiles and electrophiles

B) Reversible addition (hydrates and hemiacetals)

C) Irreversible addition (reduction and Grignard addition)

2) Nucleophilic substitution **of** C=O

A) acetals

B) imines, oxmies and hydrazones

3) Nucleophilic substitution **at** C=O

A) tetrahedral intermediates in substitution-

B) leaving group ability

C) Acid chlorides

D) Anhydrides

E) Esters

F) Amides

4) Enolisation of carbonyl compounds

A) keto-enol tautomerism

B) enols and enolates as nucleophiles

C) condensation reactions with carbonyl groups

D) conjugate additions

5) Making Alkenes

- Wittig reaction

Suggested Reading:

Core Carbonyl Chemistry, J. Jones, Oxford Primer

Organic Chemistry, Clayden, Greeves, Warren and Wothers

Organic Chemistry, Volhard and Schore

A guidebook to mechanism in organic chemistry, Sykes

The Chemistry of the Carbonyl Group, Warren

1. Nucleophilic addition **to** C=O

A) Nucleophiles and Electrophiles

Structure of carbonyls consider the σ and π framework

MO picture of a C=O

Antibonding orbital resembles

A p-orbital on carbon

a p-orbital on O

Bonding orbital resembles

So, C=O have a low energy (unfilled) π* orbital that has a large coefficient on carbon and this is crucial to its reactivity.

Canonicals show the C is electron deficient

In order to break a bond we place two electrons in the antibonding orbital; the bond order then becomes

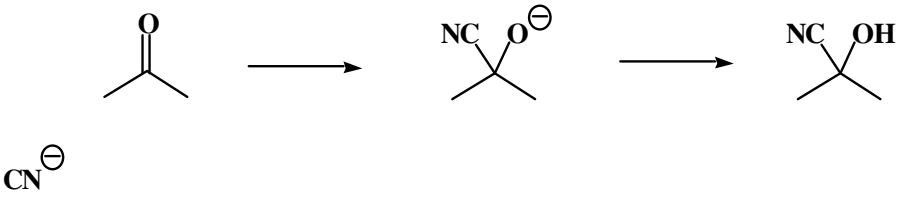
Bond order is:

When nucleophiles attack the C=O group they do so by passing electrons from their highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) to the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) of the carbonyl ie.

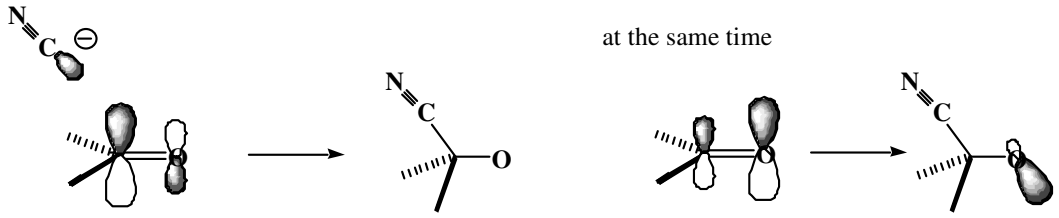
Negatively charged species are also attracted to the electron deficient carbon atom.

So, in the addition of cyanide to acetone, the following electron movements are involved.

a) Curly arrow representation



b) orbitals involved



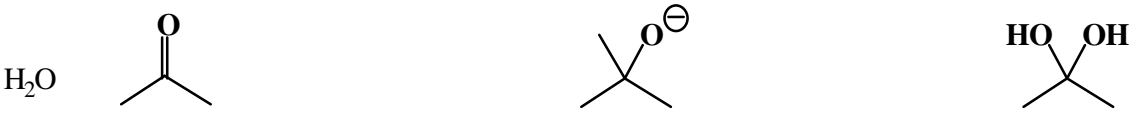
All additions to C=O follow the same pattern of events, but the nature of the HOMO depends on the particular nucleophile used. Once you understand the orbitals involved you do not need to draw the orbitals for every addition to a carbonyl.

We must make a distinction between reversible and irreversible additions:

B Reversible addition: eg. The addition of cyanide can be reversed by adding a base

This happens because $^{-}$CN is a good

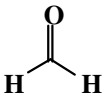
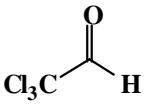
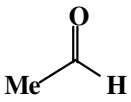
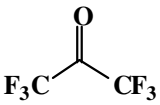
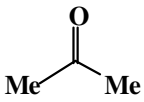
The addition of water is also reversible and observed through the formation and collapse of hydrates



hydrate of ketone

For this reversible reaction, the thermodynamic stability of the carbonyl versus the hydrate will determine the percentage of hydrate at equilibrium.

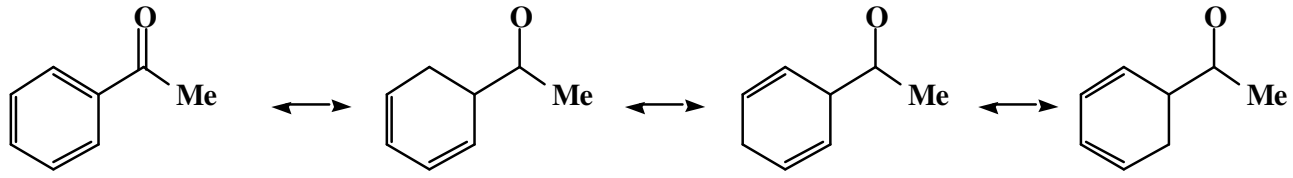
Standard ketones (acetone) contain very little hydrate:

	Keq (in water, 25°C)		Keq (in water, 25°C)
	18		36
	0.01		22000
	1.8×10^{-5}		

<u>Factors influencing extent of hydration</u>
i) Steric hindrance: repulsion between groups that are close in space:

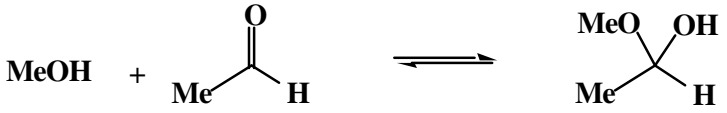
ii) Electron withdrawing groups. Inductive effect increases the reactivity of the C=O to nucleophiles

iii) Delocalisation (conjugation)

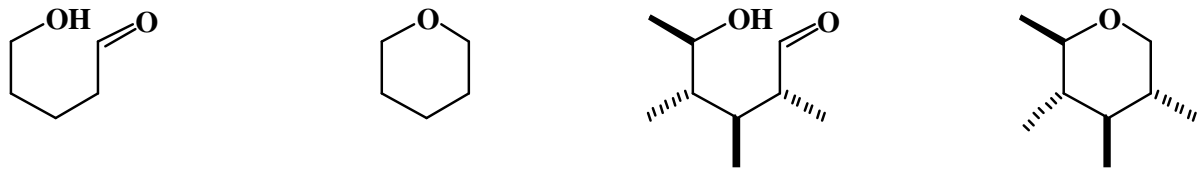


These three factors influence other C=O reactions too.

Of course, the addition of alcohols to C=O is also easy (and reversible).

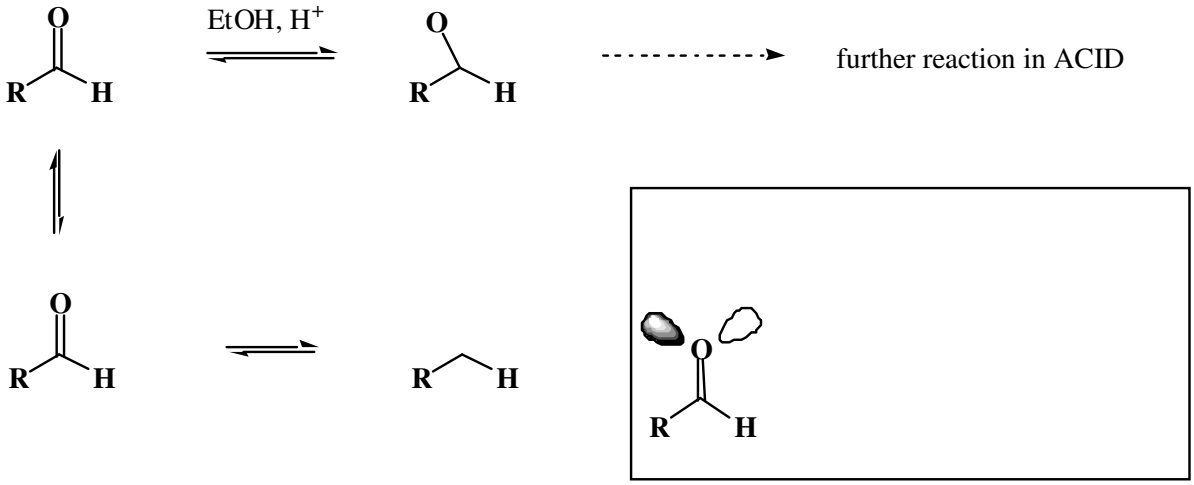


Some hemiacetals are stable because the alcohol attacks in an

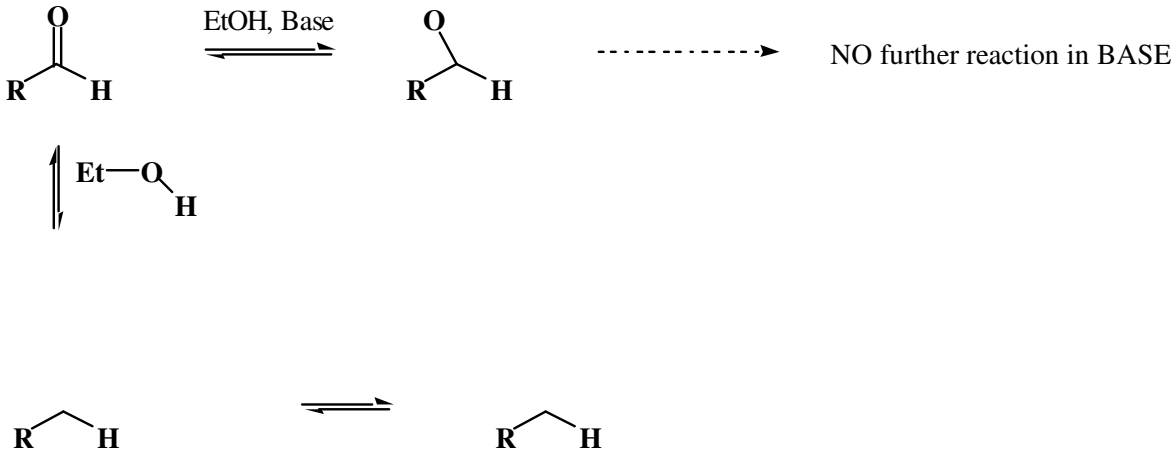


The formation of hemiacetals is catalysed by either ACID or BASE

In ACID



In BASE

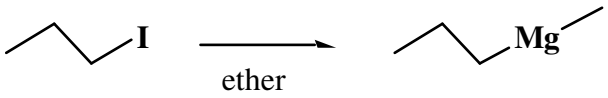


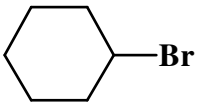
Further reading: look up the (reversible) addition of bisulfite to carbonyl compounds and also the Meerwein Pondorff Verley reduction.

C. Irreversible addition at a carbonyl is perhaps more common

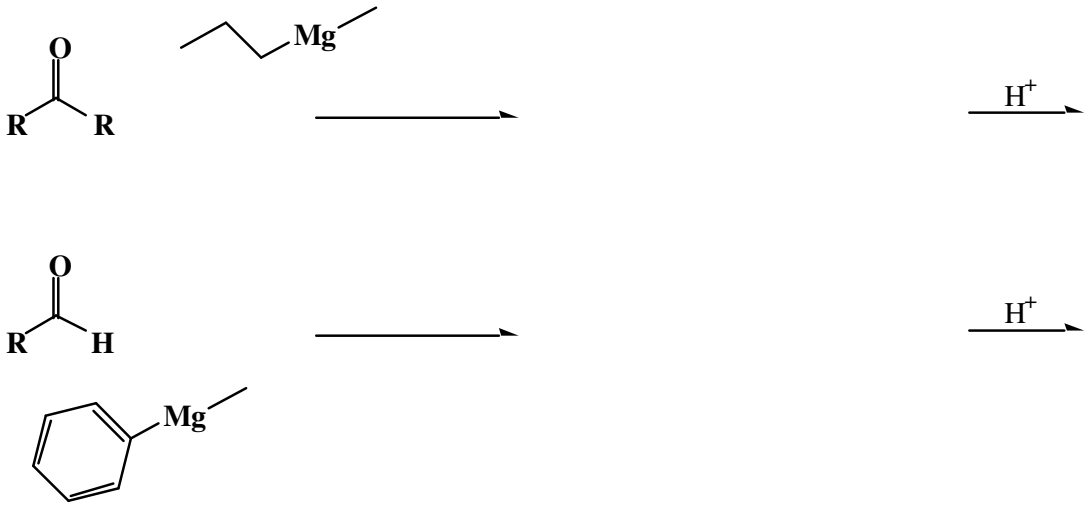
Addition of carbon nucleophiles such as Grignards is v. important in synthesis

formation of Grignard reagents

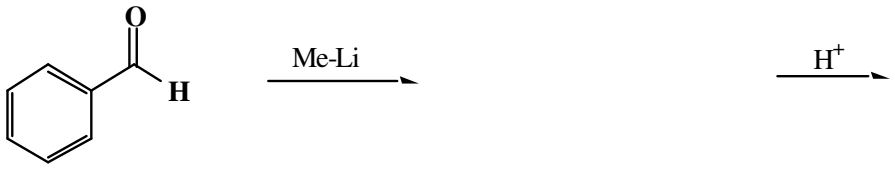




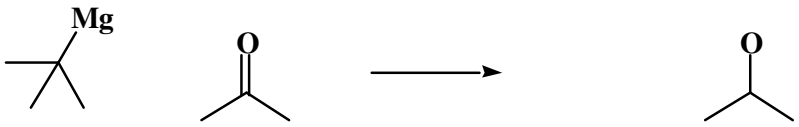
These organometallic reagents add to C=O, although the precise details of the attack are complex because the metal ion acts as a Lewis acid.



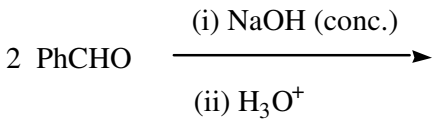
Organolithium reagents are very similar to Grignards in this context



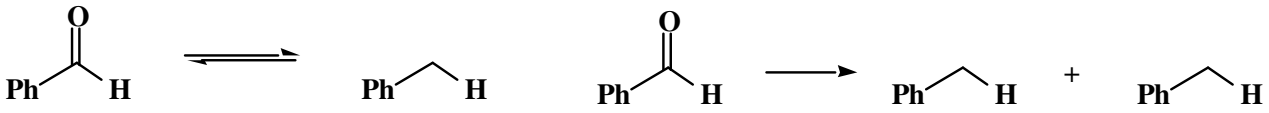
Reduction of carbonyl compounds is observed when bulky Grignards are used e.g. *t*BuMgBr:



We see a similar pattern of reactivity during the **Cannizzaro** reaction:



The mechanism involves base catalysed addition of hydroxide to the aldehyde; followed by hydride transfer.

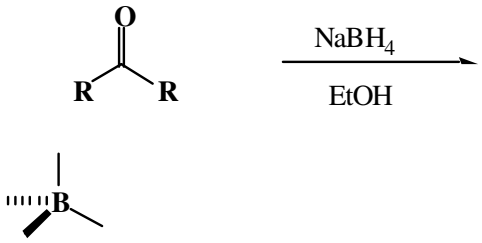


Q. Why does this reaction only work with aldehydes that have NO alpha protons?

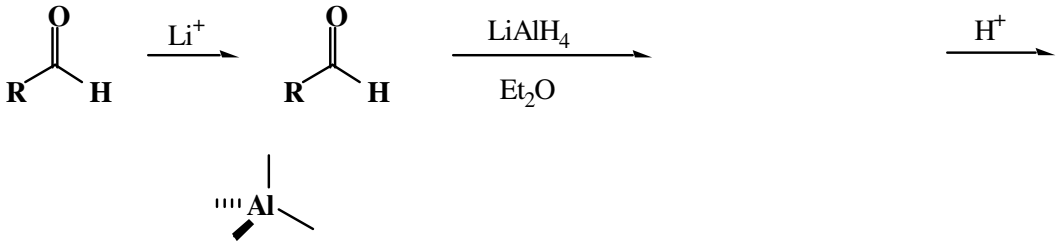
However, reduction of a carbonyl is best accomplished with $NaBH_4$ or $LiAlH_4$

Ketones are reduced to

Aldehydes are reduced to



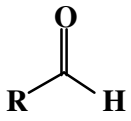
Reaction mechanism with $LiAlH_4$ is more complex and takes place in an inert solvent such as ether (this is because

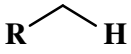


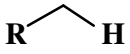
2. Nucleophilic substitution **of** C=O

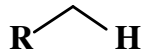
A) Acetals: In acid, hemiacetal formation from an aldehyde or ketone does not

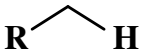
The acid allows

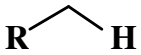












The product is an

Remember, acetals **only** form in

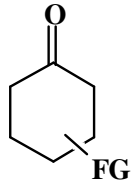
Also

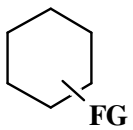
This process is an equilibrium and can be shifted in either direction by removal of the products or addition of excess of one reagent.

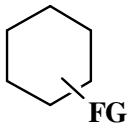
To **form** an acetal use:

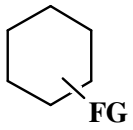
To **hydrolyse** an acetal use:

Acetals are stable to base, nucleophiles and oxidants; so they are commonly used as



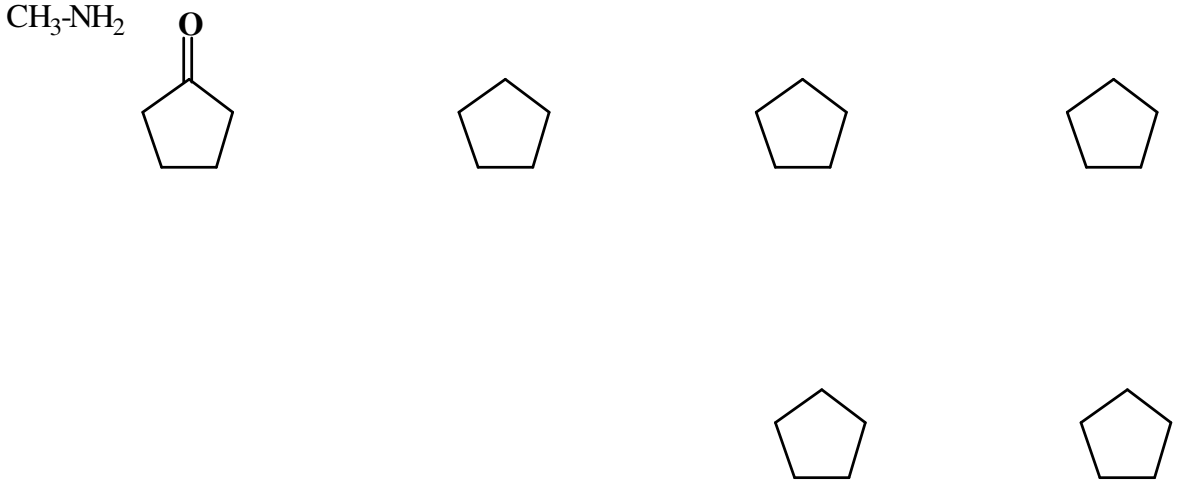






B) Formation of Imines and related derivatives from carbonyls

Nitrogen based nucleophiles also add to carbonyl compounds: consider attack of a primary amine at a ketone.

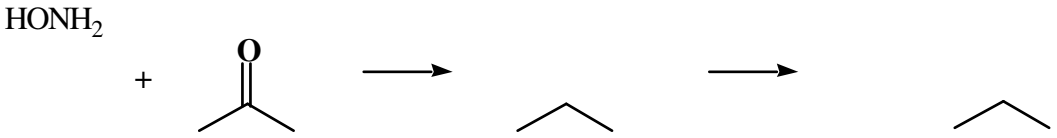


Other amine derivatives add to carbonyl compounds in an analogous manner.

$HO–NH_2$

$H_2N–NH_2$

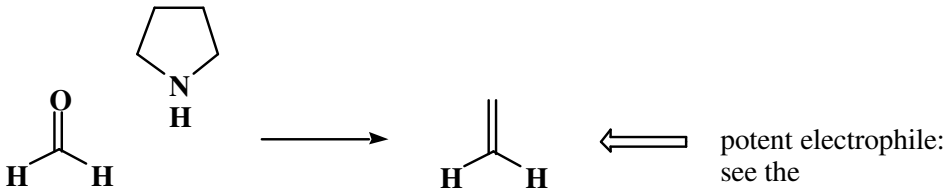
These condensations are very pH dependent

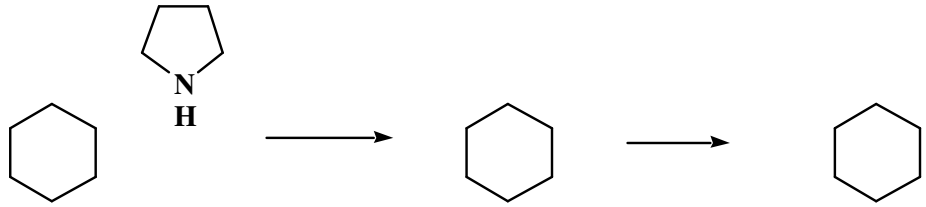


Step 1

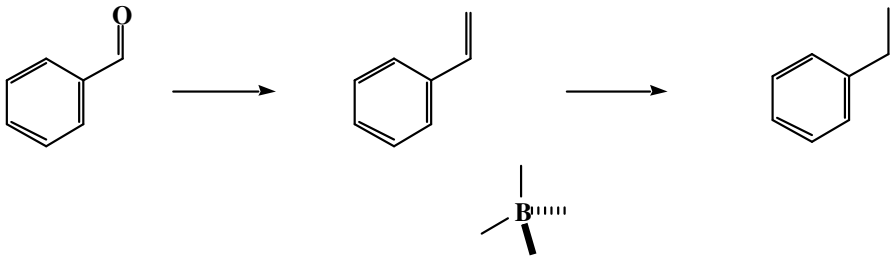
Step 2

Note that secondary amines cannot condense with a carbonyl to produce a neutral compound



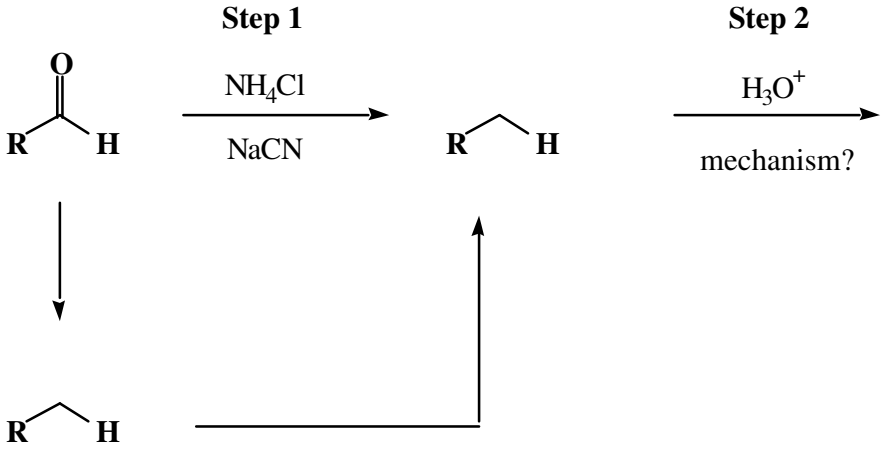


And, just like aldehydes and ketones, imines are useful electrophiles although they are less electrophilic (because nitrogen is less electronegative than oxygen)



This is called <u>reductive amination</u>: a method for converting aldehydes and ketone to amines

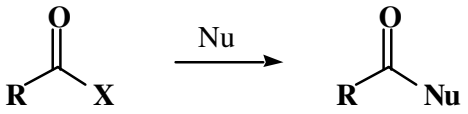
Bearing in mind the reaction of aldehydes and ketones with cyanide, we can rationalise the **Strecker** reaction



3. Nucleophilic substitution **at** C=O

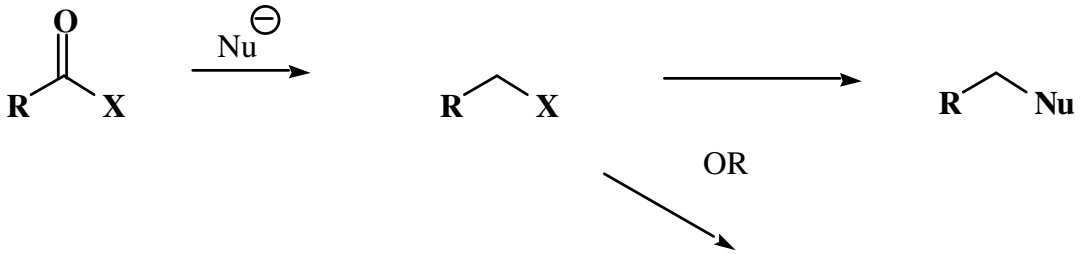
A) tetrahedral intermediates in substitution

Overall, the substitution process can be represented as:



This reaction does **NOT** go through a direct displacement: instead, the nucleophile finds it easier to add to the carbonyl group (the π^* is lower in energy and more accessible to the HOMO of the nucleophile than a σ^* orbital).

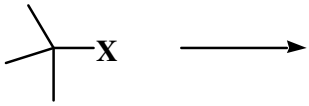
The intermediate (known as a TETRAHEDRAL INTERMEDIATE) can do two things,



This clearly depends upon

B) Leaving group ability

Leaving group ability: correlation with pKa How do we know which is the best leaving group?



There is already a scale that can help us: pKa: 

Large values of pKa mean small values of Ka ie
Small values of pKa mean large values of Ka ie

Strong acids readily ionise to

ie the conjugate base X^- of a strong acid H-X is easily lost as X^-
put simply

Large values of pKa mean
Small values of pKa mean

Leaving group X^- **pKa of H-X**

Me

H

NH_2

EtO

HO

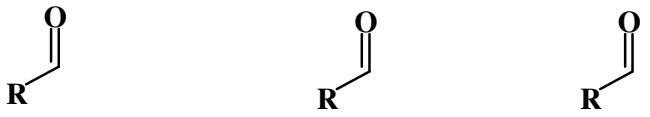
$MeCO_2$

Cl

Q: How does the nature of X affect the reactivity of the carbonyl group towards nucleophiles?

There are two effects here:

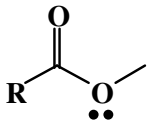
(i) Inductive electron withdrawal



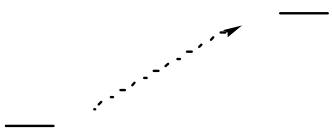
Increased electronegativity of X

(ii) Conjugation of a lone pair on X with the C=O

Think about the shape of the ester oxygen



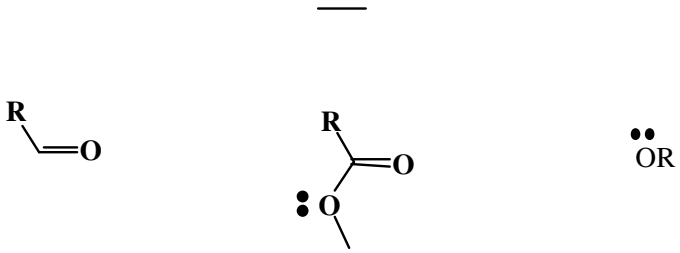
In molecular orbital terms:



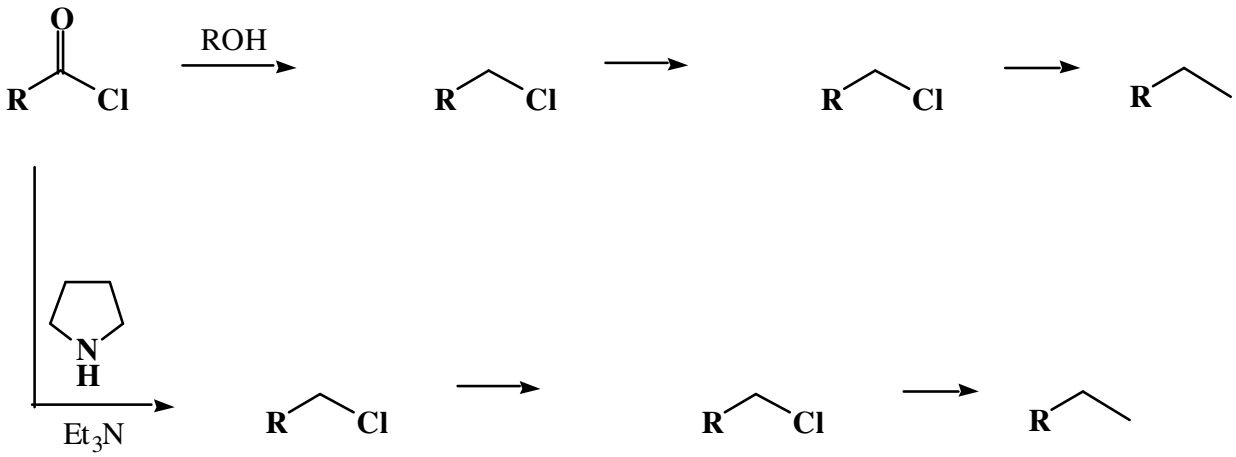
By conjugating the two species

the LUMO

and the HOMO

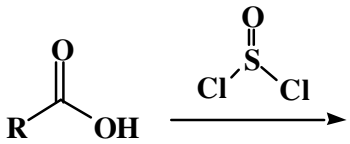


C) **X= chlorine** then we have an **acid chloride** which are very reactive species because

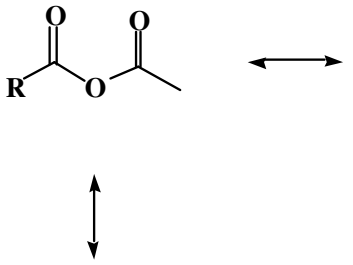


Note that a base must be present here because

You can make acid chlorides from carboxylic acids like this:

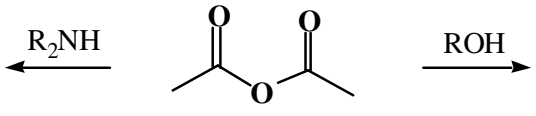


D) When X=OCOR these are called **anhydrides** and are slightly less reactive than acid chlorides



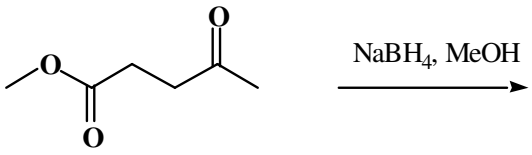
So, oxygen shares its

As one would expect, reaction of anhydrides mirrors that of acid chlorides

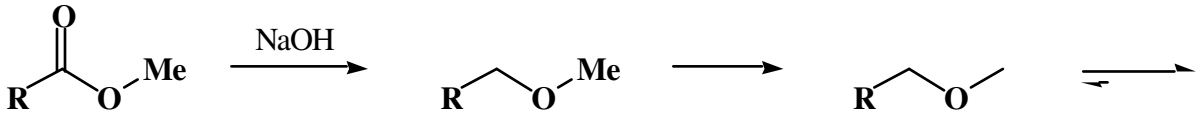


E) X= OR, esters

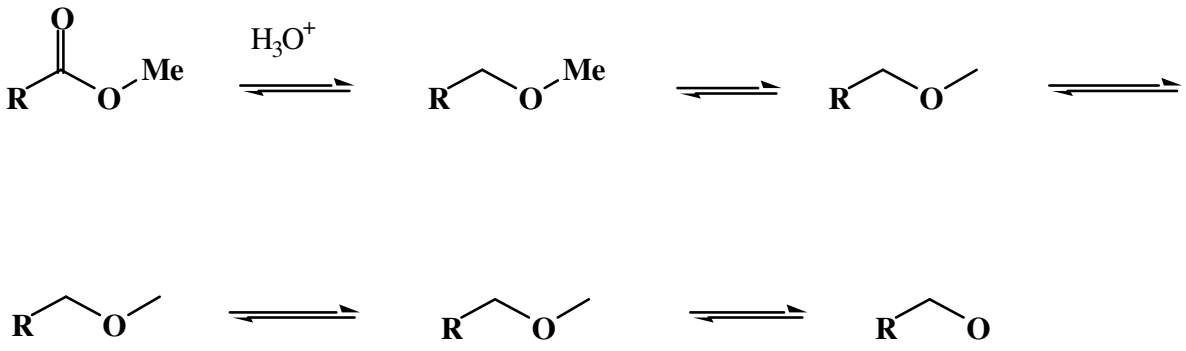
Esters are substantially less reactive towards nucleophiles than aldehydes and ketones;



Esters do react, but only with more powerful nucleophiles, eg NaOH



We can also increase the reactivity of esters by using ACID catalysis

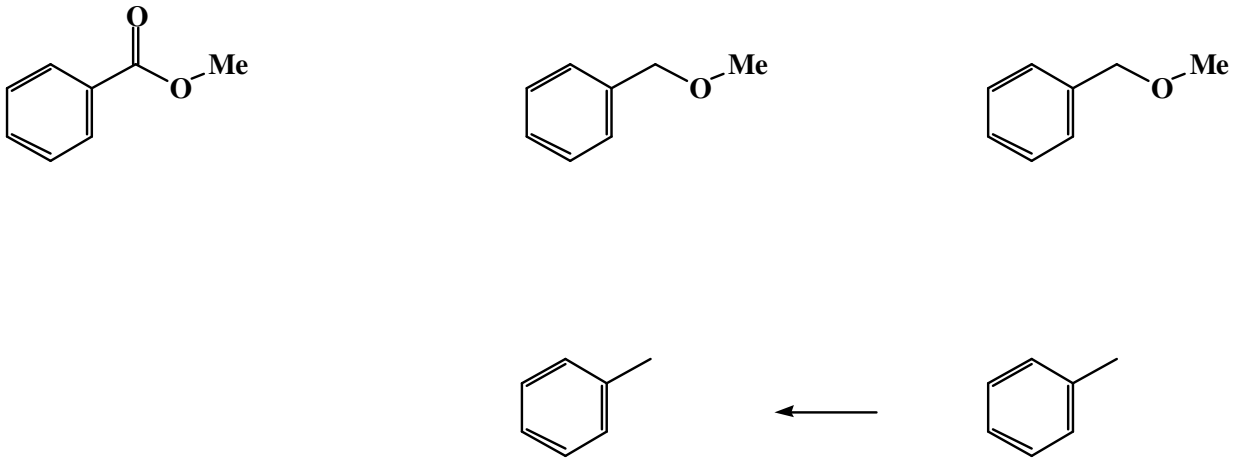


Drive reaction to completion by using an excess of water or remove the alcohol by-product

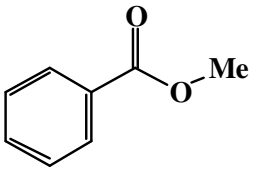
Further reading: the acid and base catalysed hydrolysis of esters can be classified into 8 different catagories ($A_{AC}1$, $A_{AC}2$, $A_{AL}1$, $A_{AL}2$, $B_{AC}1$, $B_{AC}2$, $B_{AL}1$, $B_{AL}2$) depending upon the mechanism-see
J. March, Advanced Organic Chemistry, Fourth Ed, P378.
Given the above, the following should come as no surprise:

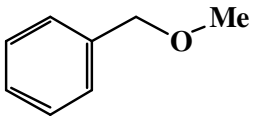
1) reaction with an amine (Δ)

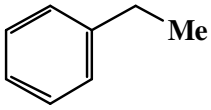
2) reduction with $LiAlH_4$

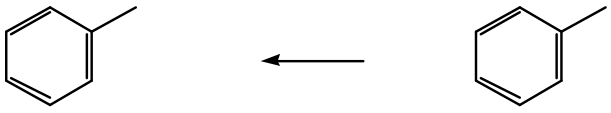


So, what happens if we try to make a ketone via reaction of an ester with







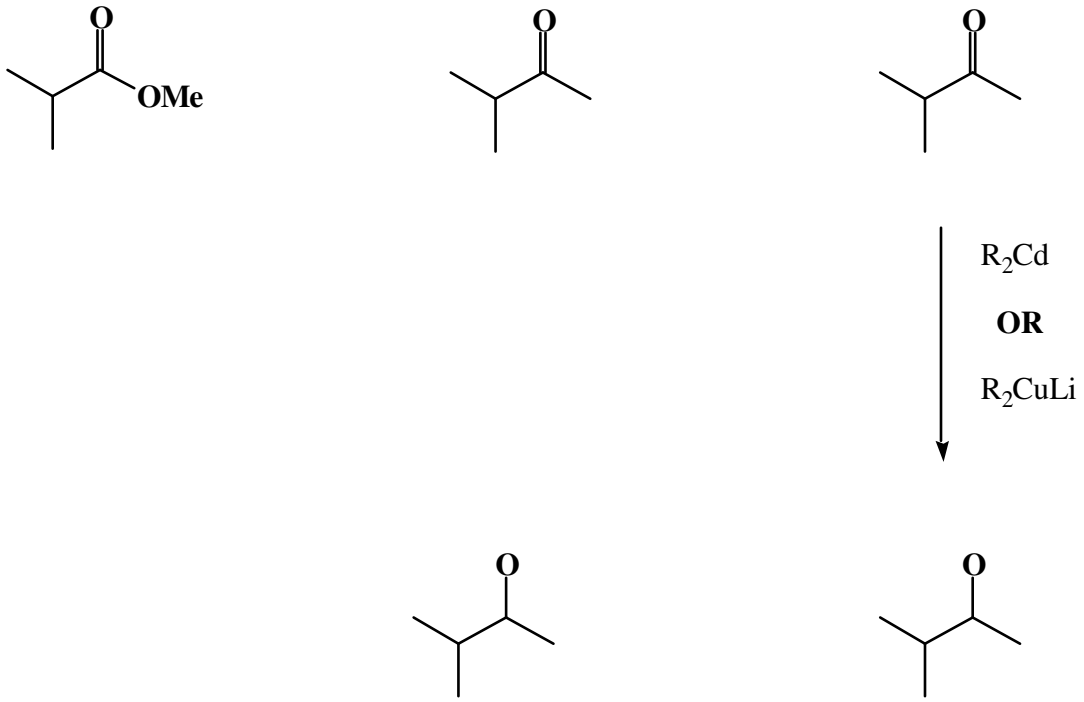


In fact, this is a good method for making tertiary alcohols whereby two R groups are the same

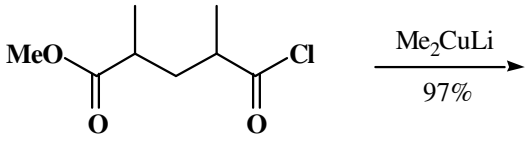
Clearly there is a problem in making ketones with this chemistry. Two solutions are available.

1) React a <u>carboxylic acid</u> with TWO equivalents of a reactive <u>organolithium</u> reagent

2) Use an acid chloride rather than an ester; AND decrease the reactivity of the nucleophile by changing the metal counterion from lithium to

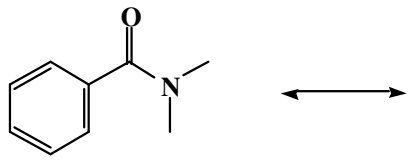


The selectivity displayed below was used as a key step in the syntheis of an antibiotic, septamycin



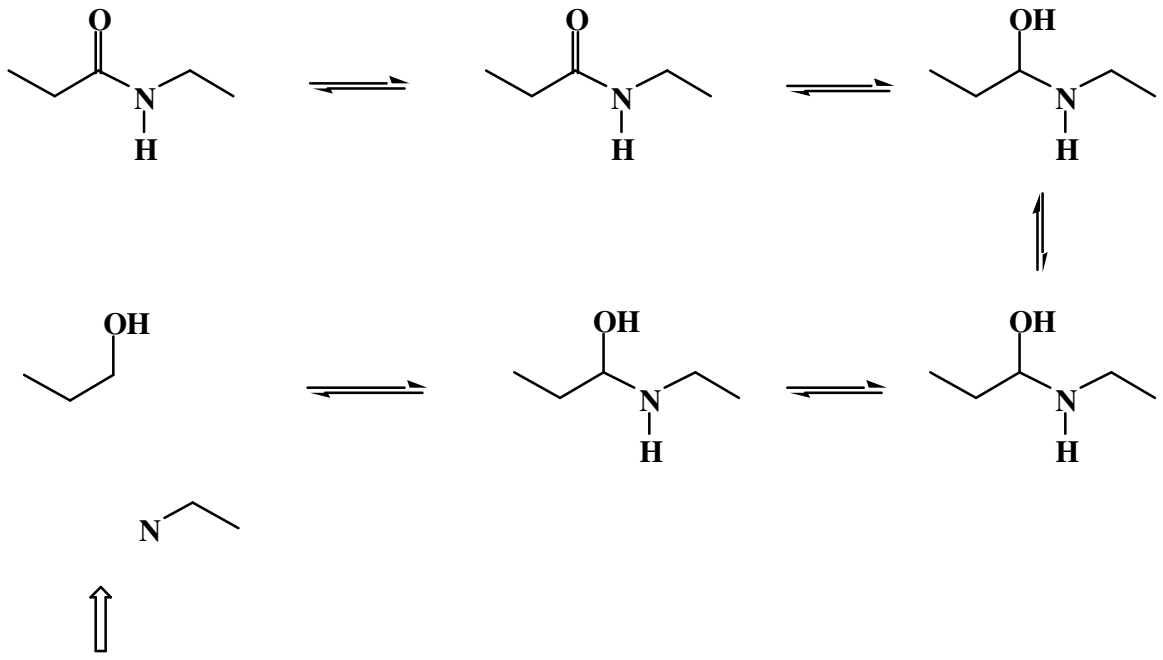
F) X= NR_2, amides

These are the least reactive of the derivatives (towards nucleophiles) discussed so far because



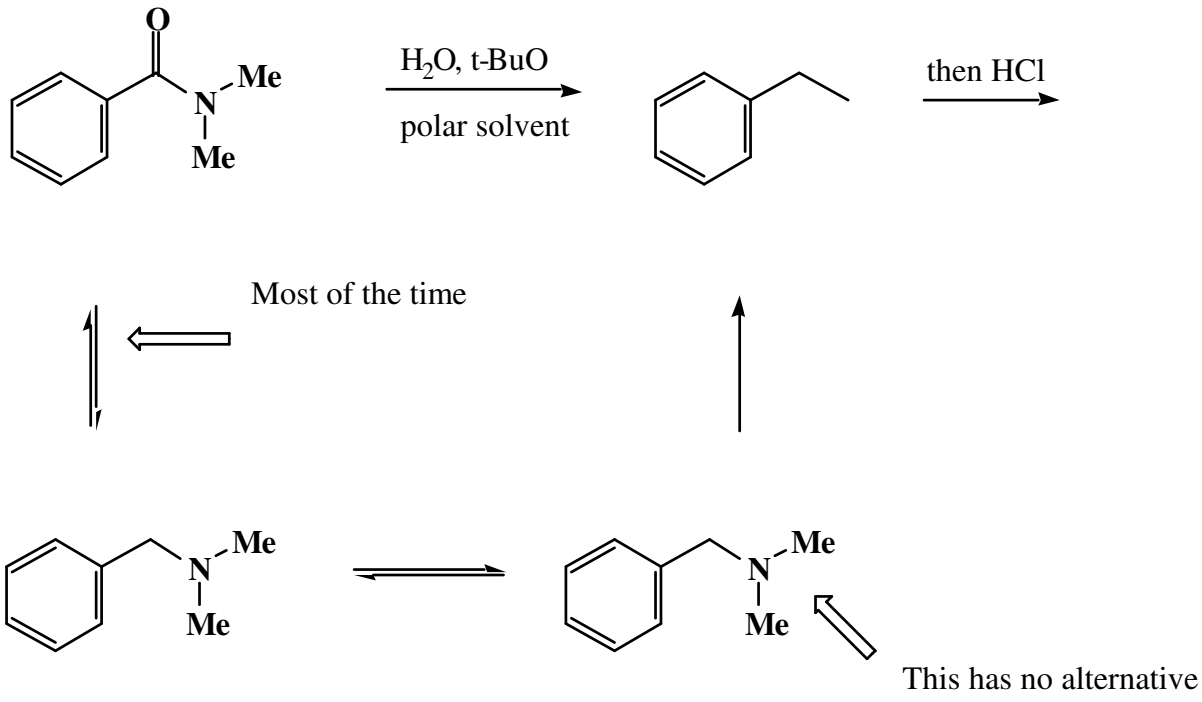
As the constituents of poly amides (ie peptides) these functional groups are essential parts of biological systems.

We can hydrolyse an amide bond in the laboratory, but require harsh acidic or basic conditions to do it

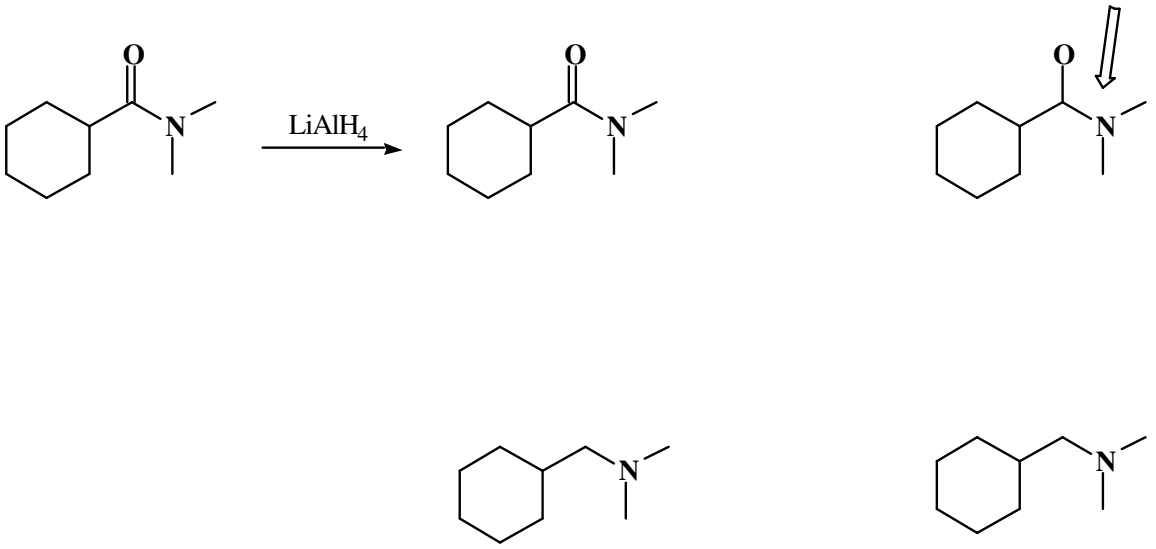


notice that one equivalent of acid is

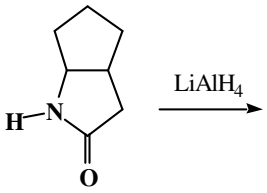
Generally, acid is better than base for hydrolysing amide, although strong bases such as can do the hydrolysis.



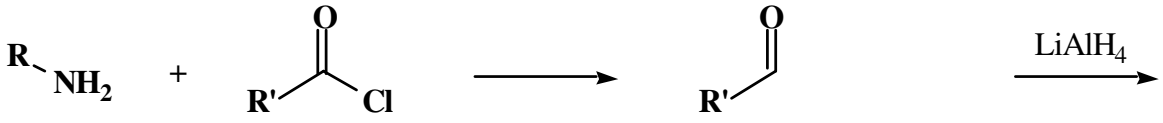
Think about the reduction of amides with $LiAlH_4$



Keystep in the synthesis of ramipril (hypertension)



A simple way of making substituted amines involves coupling of an acid chloride with an amine to give an amide, followed by



The following scheme says it all