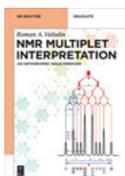


Roman A. Valiulin

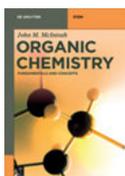
Organic Chemistry: 100 Must-Know Mechanisms

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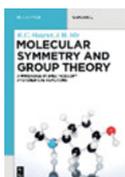
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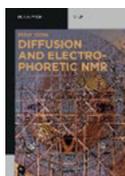
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Roman A. Valiulin

Organic Chemistry: 100 Must-Know Mechanisms

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Nothing in life is to be feared, it is only to be understood. Now is the time to understand more, so that we may fear less.

— Marie Curie

Preface and Overview

Pedagogical Principles. At first, every body of knowledge that is new to us seems to have boundless complexity and creates the initial impression of incomprehensibility and even fear. Organic chemistry provides an excellent example of this phenomenon. The discipline is replete with complex and initially abstract concepts, as a result the information may seem overwhelming, particularly for the young chemist. But as with most new subjects, consistent study and practice reveals patterns, commonalities, rules, and an apparent logic. Eventually, an “architecture” becomes more apparent as we grow to become more experienced chemists. To develop this intuition, it requires close study, repetition, and breadth of exposure. A significant element of that learning is intrinsic and simply requires time and immersion. However, to help with the development of this intuition, an organic chemist would also be wise to focus on mechanisms for organic reactions as a foundation or anchoring point. This, in combination with deep study, can help organize knowledge into skill and expertise. An understanding of reaction mechanisms provides a solid foundation for the field and a scaffold for further study and life-long learning. Mechanisms are highly useful because they can logically explain how a chemical bond in a molecule was formed or broken and help to rationalize the formation of the final synthetic target or an undesired side-product. Moreover, as we parse an increasing number of mechanisms, we begin to see the similarities and an invisible conceptual “thread” then forms in our mind’s eye that was not previously apparent. It helps to organize thinking and brings sense to the otherwise foreign concepts such as reactive intermediates, transition states, charges, radicals, and mechanistic arrows.

The Approach. To help galvanize – and perhaps catalyze – the organic chemist’s inductive ability and to provide a “go-to” reference for closer study, this book strives to present an abridged summary of some of the most important mechanisms. In today’s terms, these are 100 MUST-KNOW Mechanisms. The author draws upon scientific knowledge developed through undergraduate and graduate years, including post-doctoral research and study focused on organic synthesis. With a keen awareness of the incremental learning process, the book curates and presents mechanisms by category, starting with the fundamental and basic mechanisms (e.g., *nucleophilic substitution* or *elimination*), and mechanisms associated with the most well-known named reactions (e.g., the **Diels–Alder** reaction or the **Mitsunobu** reaction). Additionally, the collection is complemented with historically important mechanisms (e.g., the *diazotization* or the *haloform reaction*). Finally, it includes some mechanisms dear to the author’s heart, which he deems elegant or simply “cool” (e.g., the **Paternò–Büchi** cycloaddition or the *alkyne zipper* reaction).

Organization. The mechanisms are organized alphabetically by chapter for ease of reference, and numbered from 1 to 100. The dedicated student will consistently proceed through every single mechanism, giving each one time to study, practice with, memorize, and ponder. At the same time, the book can be used as a quick visual

reference or as a starting point for further research and reading. The 100 mechanisms are selected for being classic and famous, core or fundamental, and useful in practice. Of course, a good degree of personal intuition is involved in the selection and it is definitely not a dogmatic ordering or a comprehensive anthology. The book is intended to be a visual guide as distinguished from a traditional text book. The presentation of each mechanism constitutes a complete InfoGraphic (or “MechanoGraphic”) and provides distilled information focusing on key concepts, rules, acronyms, and terminology. It heavily focuses on the basic core – the starting amount of information, the extract – that a good organic chemist can commit to memory and understanding. Starting initially as a daily micro-blog post with a “hash tag” (#100MustKnowMechanisms) that gained a lot of support from students and chemists around the world, the book is really intended to bring together an array of mechanisms, organize them, provide additional historical context, and enable a conceptual space where the reader can focus on learning them as well as serve as a desk-reference or a “flip-book”.

The book is color-coded: each key reaction is enclosed in a dark blue frame; each key mechanism (the center piece of the book) is presented in a red frame; other reactions and mechanisms related to the core 100 mechanisms covered in this book are usually summarized in grey frames. The book also collects a few useful rules, facts, and concepts that are presented in green frames. The reader may find several star diagrams, representing synthetic diversity, for example, throughout the book as well. Relevant comments and clarifications can be found in footnotes.

Sources. The underlying information stays very close to information usually covered in classic or key organic chemistry text books [1]. More specialized literature may be necessary in some cases (for organometallic or photochemical transformations, for example) [2]. The reader is also encouraged to familiarize themselves with some other supporting bibliography [3]. Where appropriate, it also references texts that the author trusts and cites for further in-depth study if the reader so chooses. Since this book strives to be an abridged visual illustration, students are encouraged to use other, more comprehensive books on the subject, especially those related to the *named reactions* in organic chemistry [4]. Additionally, open on-line sources, when thoughtfully selected, can also be very useful [5]. Such sources may be mentioned here when the information was deemed accurate, thorough, and supported by the references. This is further supplemented by the author’s aggregate knowledge and education gained through college, graduate school, and post-doctoral academic research. The author also found the encyclopedia of organic reagents [6] to be an extremely useful “go-to” starting point in his personal experience and professional career, especially when embracing a new chemistry topic or using a new reagent. Moreover, each *MechanoGraphic* is supported by reference to the likely first original publication where the related reaction or mechanism was first mentioned (see the time-scale after each mechanism). Finally, several key and fundamental reviews; publications on recently elucidated mechanisms; and other research articles are referenced, as needed. The author uses his best judgement in each case. However, even though the

provided information was carefully checked, and presented in agreement with standard and accepted chemistry rules, this does not guarantee that it is free of all errors. A further caveat, the variety of text and scholarly references does not imply a comprehensive and chronological review of the literature and history – it is not a global historic review of mechanisms from 1800–2020. Mechanisms and our understanding of them can also change as this book is being prepared and the corresponding literature revised. Thus, the reader should supplement the use of the book with primary source reading and deeper study through a comprehensive textbook prepared by a cohort of experienced professors and experts. Here, the most common and known pathways, those that do not violate basic standard chemistry rules and that are frequently referenced in the classic and contemporary literature, are summarized visually.

A Few Things to Keep in Mind. It is also important that the reader remain flexible and mindful that mechanisms are represented based on our current understanding, taking into consideration basic chemistry rules, valency, electron pushing rules, charge preservation, Lewis dot structures, etc. They may not be the most “cutting-edge” or up-to-date (e.g., cross-coupling reactions that may not be well-understood). They may also be substrate-dependent and each reaction may undergo a slightly different pathway. Thus, the reader should not treat the book as a dogmatic guide, and should keep an open mind for new data, creativity, and view the book as part of a continuous debate in the subject.

Background Knowledge. To fully benefit from the book, the reader should have basic knowledge of organic chemistry. Figures are presented with an assumption that the reader understands common terms and symbols. Thus, basic concepts are not introduced or explained. Undergraduate students, graduate students, scientists, teachers, and professors in the discipline should be able to utilize the book. The book can also serve as a good condensed “refresher” for the experienced organic chemist who wants to “zero-in” on the most basic and fundamental core mechanisms as judged by the author.

The Inspiration and Further Reading. The author heavily draws upon his personal experience as a student of chemistry and later an academic researcher. Never having taken a formal course on mechanisms in organic chemistry, he approached the material initially through memorization as opposed to derivation. The first impression was fear and a sense of being overwhelmed. However, after many years of experience, more obvious patterns, trends, rules, and dependencies appear to have crystallized providing an inductive ability to navigate and identify the mechanisms behind reactions. This personal experience has definitely shaped the teaching philosophy of the book, and is further enhanced by the efficient way in which information can be conveyed through visuals and space. Moreover, as most individuals have a predisposition for visual learning – this book is more intuitively aligned with the way that we seem to learn the fastest. It strives to be a focused collection of the most useful, basic, and fundamental mechanisms. Started initially as a micro-blog post, the discussion, engagement, and interest it sparked indicated a clear need for a more-carefully prepared,

organized, and curated presentation in a format that could be placed in a physical library and easily internalized. The author hopes the book serves as a good starting point for the developing chemist who may need the most guidance and encouragement. No doubt it may stimulate constructive discussion, but nevertheless this will ultimately encourage and challenge everyone to learn, to search for a different answer, to think critically, and grow as a chemist and stay sharp as a scientist. Finally, knowledge is a fractal-like concept, the closer we look the more detail we see and learn. Here, we strive to reach a reasonable asymptote of precision and comprehensiveness given the purpose of the book. Further core reading [1], reference of primary and secondary sources [2–4], and on-line sources [5 and 6] as well as actual experimentation and practice will help paint the complete picture and prepare the organic chemist to be a well-rounded and informed scientist.

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List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

≡	identical to [a depiction of a chemical structure]
1°	primary [e.g., carbocation] or first generation [e.g., catalyst]
2°	secondary [e.g., carbocation] or second generation [e.g., catalyst]
3°	tertiary [e.g., carbocation] or third generation [e.g., catalyst]
Ac	acetyl
acac	acetylacetonate
Ad ₂	bimolecular electrophilic addition
Ad ₃	trimolecular electrophilic addition
ADMET	acyclic diene metathesis [polymerization]
AIBN	azobisisobutyronitrile; 2,2'-azobis(2-methylpropionitrile)
Alk = R	alkyl group
<i>anti</i>	from opposite sides (in <i>anti</i> -addition or <i>anti</i> -elimination)
APA	3-aminopropylamine; 1,3-diaminopropane
aq	aqueous [work-up]
Ar	aryl; aromatic ring
B (B ⁻)	general Brønsted–Lowry base (proton acceptor)
B ₂ pin ₂	<i>bis</i> (pinacolato)diboron; 4,4,4',4',5,5,5',5'-octamethyl-2,2'-bi-1,3,2-dioxaborolane
9-BBN	9-borabicyclo[3.3.1]nonane
BH (BH ⁺)	general Brønsted–Lowry acid (proton donor)
Bn	benzyl
Boc	<i>tert</i> -butoxycarbonyl; <i>t</i> -butoxycarbonyl
Bs	brosyl; 4-bromobenzenesulfonyl
Bu	butyl (if not specified = <i>n</i> -Bu)
CHD	1,4-cyclohexadiene
CM = XMET	[olefin] cross-metathesis
con	conrotatory
3-CR (MCR)	3-component reaction (multi-component reaction)
4-CR (MCR)	4-component reaction (multi-component reaction)
CuAAC	copper(I)-catalyzed azide-alkyne cycloaddition
CuTC	copper(I) thiophene-2-carboxylate
Cy	cyclohexyl
Cy ₂ BH	dicyclohexylborane
DABCO	1,4-diazabicyclo[2.2.2]octane
DBU	1,8-diazabicyclo[5.4.0]undec-7-ene
DCC	<i>N,N'</i> -dicyclohexylcarbodiimide; 1,3-dicyclohexylcarbodiimide
DCM	dichloromethane; methylene chloride
DEAD	diethyl azodicarboxylate
DIAD	diisopropyl azodicarboxylate
DIBAL = DIBAL-H	diisobutylaluminum hydride = (<i>i</i> -Bu) ₂ AlH
dis	disrotatory
DMAP	4-dimethylaminopyridine; 4-(dimethylamino)pyridine
DMP	Dess–Martin periodinane
DMSO	dimethyl sulfoxide
<i>E</i> -	<i>entgegen</i> (<i>trans</i> - or opposite)
e ⁻	electron
E (or E ⁺)	electrophile

E1	unimolecular elimination
E1cB (E1cb)	unimolecular elimination conjugate base
E2	bimolecular elimination
EDC = EDCI	1-ethyl-3-(3'-dimethylaminopropyl)carbodiimide hydrochloride; <i>N</i> -(3-dimethylaminopropyl)- <i>N'</i> -ethylcarbodiimide hydrochloride
EDCI = EDC	1-ethyl-3-(3'-dimethylaminopropyl)carbodiimide hydrochloride; <i>N</i> -(3-dimethylaminopropyl)- <i>N'</i> -ethylcarbodiimide hydrochloride
EDG (= ERG)	electron donating group (same as ERG)
E_i	internal or intramolecular elimination
eq	equivalent (e.g., 2 eq = 2 equivalents; 2 moles)
ERG (= EDG)	electron releasing group (same as EDG)
Et₂BH	diethylborane
EWG	electron withdrawing group
EYM	enyne metathesis
Grubbs 1°	the Grubbs catalyst first generation
Grubbs 2°	the Grubbs catalyst second generation
H₃B•THF	borane–tetrahydrofuran complex; borane tetrahydrofuran complex
H₃B•Me₂S = BMS	borane–dimethyl sulfide complex; borane dimethyl sulfide complex
HATU	<i>N</i> -[(dimethylamino)-1 <i>H</i> -1,2,3-triazolo[4,5- <i>b</i>]pyridin-1-ylmethylene]- <i>N</i> -methylmethanaminium hexafluorophosphate <i>N</i> -oxide; 1-[bis(dimethylamino)methylene]-1 <i>H</i> -1,2,3-triazolo[4,5- <i>b</i>]pyridinium 3-oxide hexafluorophosphate
HBTU	<i>O</i> -benzotriazol-1-yl- <i>N,N,N',N'</i> -tetramethyluronium hexafluorophosphate; 3-[bis(dimethylamino)methylumyl]-3 <i>H</i> -benzotriazol-1-oxide hexafluorophosphate
HET = ^{HET}Ar	heterocycle; heteroaromatic ring; heteroaryl
HOAt = HOAT	1-hydroxy-7-azabenzotriazole; 3-hydroxy-3 <i>H</i> -1,2,3-triazolo[4,5- <i>b</i>]pyridine
HOBT = HOBT	1-hydroxybenzotriazole
HOMO	highest occupied molecular orbital
hν	light (direct irradiation) or excited state
I_i(BR)	intermediate (biradical)
I_i(RP)	intermediate (radical pair)
IBX	2-iodoxybenzoic acid; <i>o</i> -iodoxybenzoic acid
IC	internal conversion
Ipc₂BH	<i>diisopinocampheyl</i> borane
IpcBH₂	<i>monoisopinocampheyl</i> borane
ISC	intersystem crossing
KAPA	potassium 3-aminopropylamide
L	ligand or leaving group
(<i>l</i>)	liquid [as in liquid ammonia: NH ₃ (<i>l</i>)]
LA	Lewis acid
LAPA	lithium 3-aminopropylamide
LDA	lithium diisopropylamide = (<i>i</i> -Pr) ₂ NLi
L_mPd	palladium(0) cross coupling catalyst
L_nPd	low-coordinate palladium(0) cross coupling catalyst
LUMO	lowest occupied molecular orbital
M	metal
[M]	metal catalyst (not specified)

8 — List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

$M^{+3} = M(\text{III})$	oxidation state (oxidation number) of an element [e.g., $\text{Cu}^{+2} = \text{Cu}(\text{II})$; $\text{Pd}^0 = \text{Pd}(0)$]
M^{3+}	charge [e.g., Ti^{3+} in TiCl_3 versus $\text{Ti}^{+3} = \text{Ti}(\text{III})$]
<i>m</i> -CPBA (MCPBA)	<i>meta</i> -chloroperbenzoic acid; <i>m</i> -chloroperbenzoic acid; 3-chloroperbenzoic acid
MCR	multi-component reaction
Mes	mesityl (from mesitylene = 1,3,5-trimethylbenzene)
Ms	mesyl; methanesulfony = SO_2Me
n	nonbonding [molecular] orbital
NACM	nitrile-alkyne cross-metathesis
NBS	<i>N</i> -bromosuccinimide; 1-bromo-2,5-pyrrolidinedione
<i>N</i> -HBTU	1-[bis(dimethylamino)methylene]-1 <i>H</i> -benzotriazolium hexafluorophosphate 3-oxide
NiAAC	nickel-catalyzed azide-alkyne cycloaddition
NMM	<i>N</i> -methylmorpholine; 4-methylmorpholine
NMO	<i>N</i> -methylmorpholine <i>N</i> -oxide; 4-methylmorpholine <i>N</i> -oxide
Ns	nosyl; 4-nitrobenzenesulfonyl or 2-nitrobenzenesulfonyl
Nu (or Nu ⁻)	nucleophile
NuH	general Brønsted–Lowry acid (proton donor, like BH)
[O]	general oxidant (e.g., $2\text{KHSO}_5 \bullet \text{KHSO}_4 \bullet \text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$)
<i>O</i> -HBTU	<i>N</i> -[(1 <i>H</i> -benzotriazol-1-yl)oxy](dimethylamino)methylene]- <i>N</i> -methylmethanaminium hexafluorophosphate
p [sp, sp ² , sp ³]	p orbital
P	product [in photochemical reactions]
PCC	pyridinium chlorochromate
PDC	pyridinium dichromate
Ph	phenyl
Ph ₃ P = TPP	triphenylphosphine
PhthNH	phthalimide (Phth = phthaloyl)
pK _a	acidity constant = $-\log_{10}(K_a)$
Pr	propyl (if not specified = <i>n</i> -Pr)
Py	pyridine
R	reactant; starting material [in photochemical reactions]
R (-R ₁ , -R ₂ , -R', -R'', ...)	[radical] group; alkyl group; substituent; [molecular] fragment
R [*]	excited reactant [in photochemical reactions]
RCAM	ring-closing alkyne metathesis
RCEYM	ring-closing enyne metathesis
RCM	ring-closing metathesis
R _L	large group (substituent)
ROM	ring-opening metathesis
ROMP	ring-opening metathesis polymerization
R _s	small group (substituent)
RuAAC	ruthenium-catalyzed azide-alkyne cycloaddition
s [sp, sp ² , sp ³]	s orbital
S ₀	ground state
S ₁	first [energy level] singlet excited state
S ₂	second [energy level] singlet excited state
S _E Ar = S _E (Ar) = S _E 2Ar	[bimolecular] aromatic electrophilic substitution = arenium ion mechanism

$^3\text{sens}$	sensitized irradiation [to the triplet excited state]
SET	single electron transfer
Si_N2BH	disiamylborane; <i>bis</i> (1,2-dimethylpropyl)borane
S_N1	uni molecular nucleophilic substitution
S_N2	bi molecular nucleophilic substitution
S_NAr = S_N2Ar	[bi molecular] aromatic nucleophilic substitution
S_{RN}1	uni molecular radical nucleophilic substitution
syn	from the same side (in <i>syn</i> -addition or <i>syn</i> -elimination)
T₁	first [energy level] triplet excited state
T₂	second [energy level] triplet excited state
TBAF	tetrabutylammonium (tetra- <i>n</i> -butylammonium) fluoride = <i>n</i> -Bu ₄ NF
Tf	triflyl; trifluoromethanesulfonyl = SO ₂ CF ₃
TFA	trifluoroacetic acid
TFAA	trifluoroacetic anhydride
THF	tetrahydrofuran
Thx₂BH₂	thexylborane; (2-methylpentan-2-yl)borane
TLC	thin-layer chromatography
TMEDA	<i>N,N,N',N'</i> -tetramethylethylenediamine; 1,2- <i>bis</i> (dimethylamino)ethane
TMS	trimethylsilyl = SiMe ₃
TPAP	tetrapropylammonium (tetra- <i>n</i> -propylammonium) perruthenate = (<i>n</i> -Pr) ₄ NRuO ₄
TPP = Ph₃P	triphenylphosphine
Ts	tosyl; <i>p</i> -toluenesulfonyl
X (in -X)	halogen or a general leaving group (see L)
X (in =X)	variable atom; variable group (usually O or N)
XMET = CM	[olefin] cross-metathesis
Z-	<i>zusammen</i> (<i>cis</i> - or same)
Z (in -Z)	variable group (often EWG)
α	alpha position (first position)
β	beta position (second position)
γ	gamma position (third position)
Δ	temperature; heat or ground state [in photochemical reactions]
δ+	partial positive charge (low electron density)
δ-	partial negative charge (high electron density)
π	involving a π-bond (for example, π-complex)
1π e⁻, 2π e⁻, ...	number of electrons in a π-orbital
σ	involving a σ-bond (for example, σ-complex)
σ*	[antibonding] sigma star [molecular] orbital
Φ_{isc}	quantum yield [for intersystem crossing]

1 Electrophilic Addition Mechanism

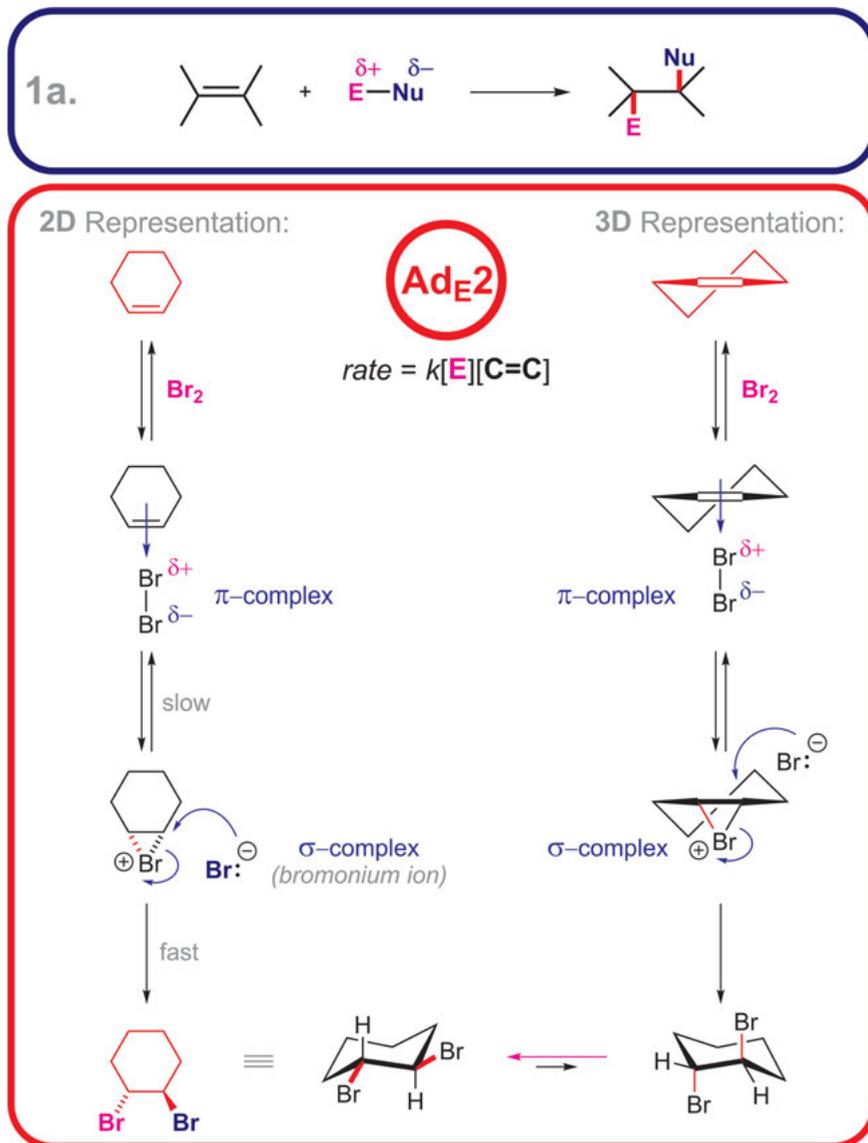


Fig. 1.1: Bimolecular electrophilic addition mechanism (Ad_E2).¹

¹ Symbol **Ad_E2** stands for **A**ddition **E**lectrophilic **Bi**-molecular (**2**), that is, the rate of the reaction is **second order** and the rate-determining step (i.e., the *slow* step) depends on the concentration of two

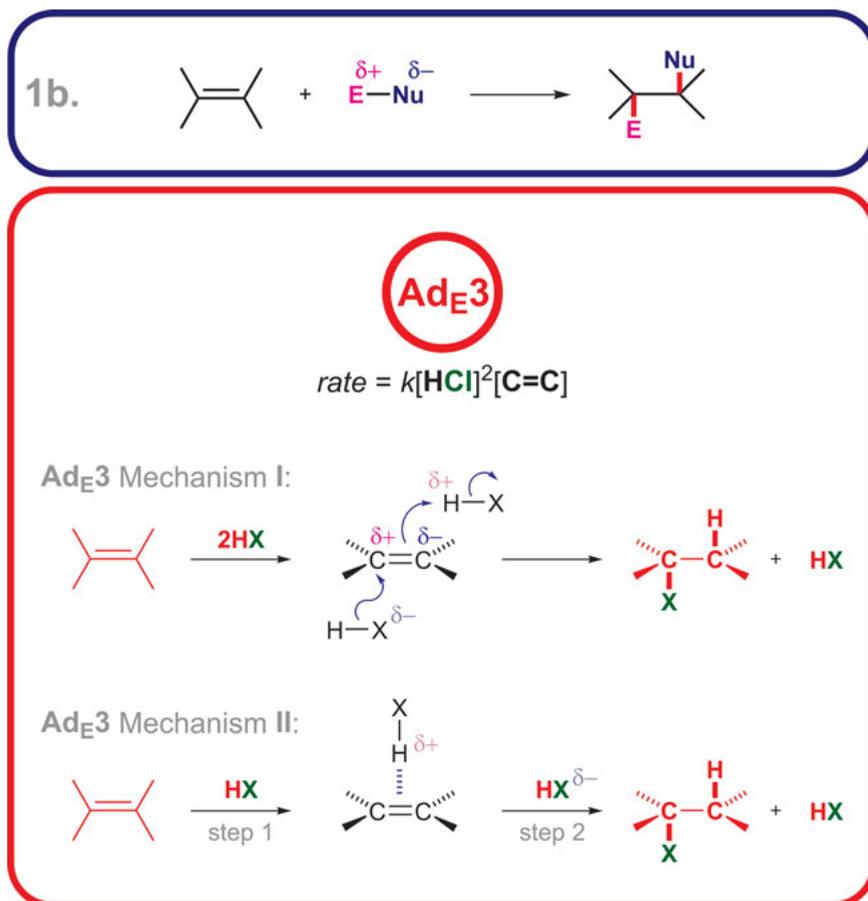


Fig. 1.2: Trimolecular electrophilic addition mechanism (**Ad_E3**).²

reactants. In the bromination of cyclohexene, it is the **electrophile** (**E** or **Br₂**) and **alkene** (**C=C**): $rate = k[\text{E}]^1[\text{C}=\text{C}]^1$.

2 Symbol **Ad_E3** stands for **Addition Electrophilic Tri-molecular (3)**, that is, the rate of the reaction is **third order** and the rate-determining step (i.e., the *slow* step) depends on the concentration of three reactants. In this less common example, it is the two **electrophiles** (**2HX** or **HCl + HCl**) and **alkene** (**C=C**): $rate = k[\text{HCl}]^1[\text{HCl}]^1[\text{C}=\text{C}]^1 = k[\text{HCl}]^2[\text{C}=\text{C}]^1$. In Mechanism I the collision of all three components is less probable and simultaneous. In more probable Mechanism II, a complex between the first HX and alkene is formed first (step 1), followed by step 2 (addition of the second HX).

2 Nucleophilic Substitution Mechanism

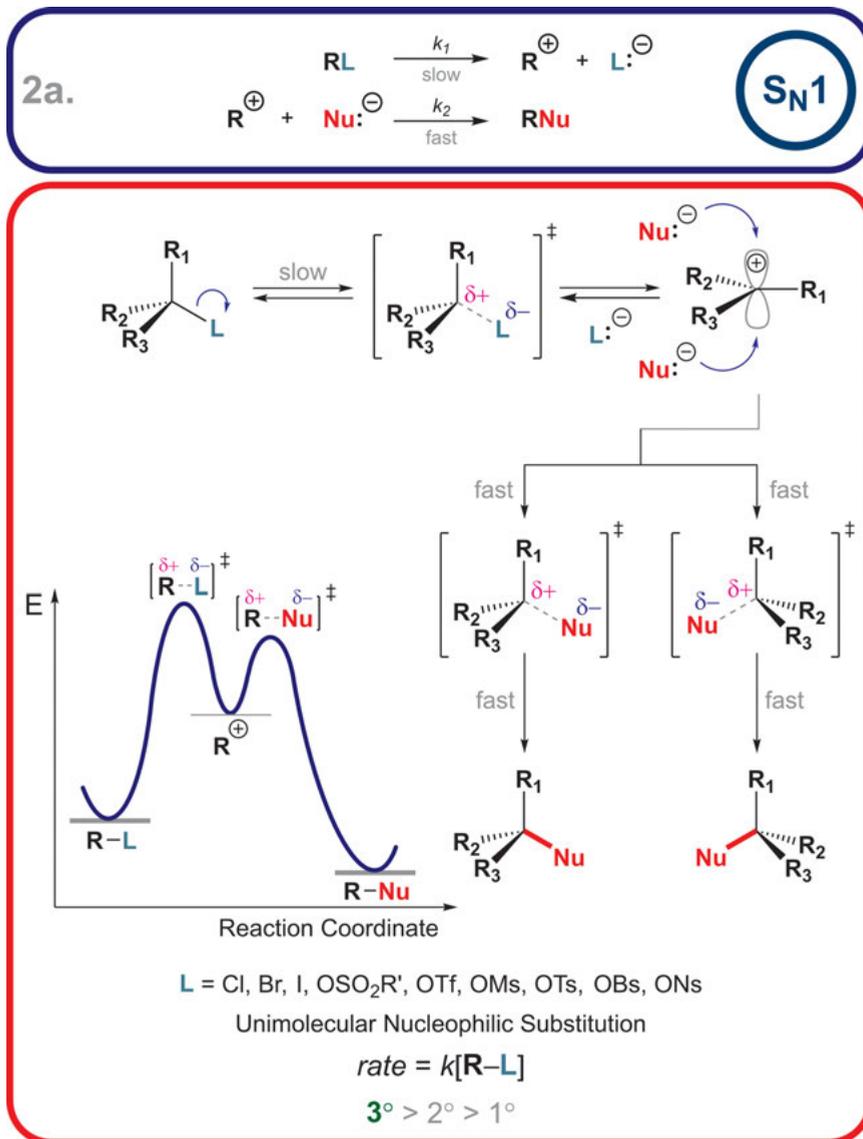


Fig. 2.1: Unimolecular nucleophilic substitution mechanism (S_N1).³

³ Symbol S_N1 stands for **S**ubstitution **N**ucleophilic **U**ni-molecular (**1**), that is, the rate of the reaction is **first order** and the rate-determining step (i.e., the *slow* step) depends on the concentration of one

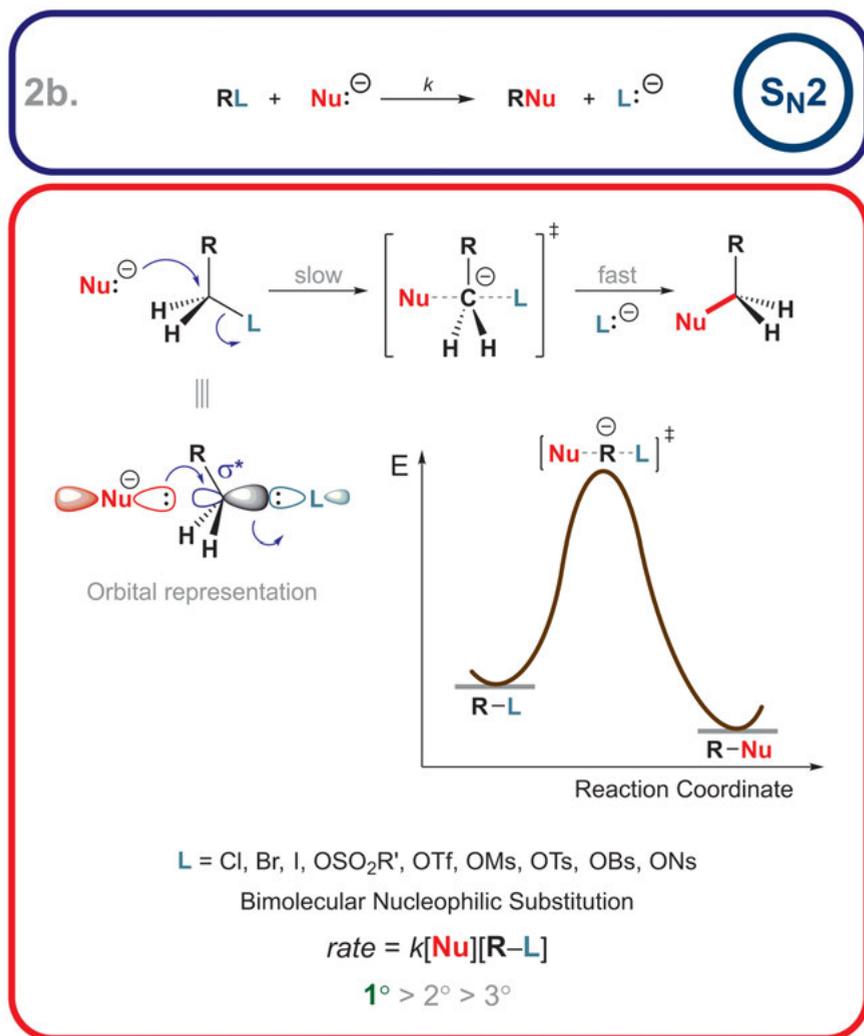


Fig. 2.2: Bimolecular nucleophilic substitution mechanism ($\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$).⁴

reactant. In this example, it is the **starting material** (substrate) containing a leaving group (**RL**): $\text{rate} = k[\text{RL}]^1$.

4 Symbol $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$ stands for **Substitution Nucleophilic Bi-molecular (2)**, that is, the rate of the reaction is **second order** and the rate-determining step (i.e., the *slow* step) depends on the concentration of two reactants. In this example, it is the **nucleophile (Nu)** and the **starting material (RL)**: $\text{rate} = k[\text{Nu}]^1[\text{RL}]^1$.

3 Aromatic Electrophilic Substitution Mechanism

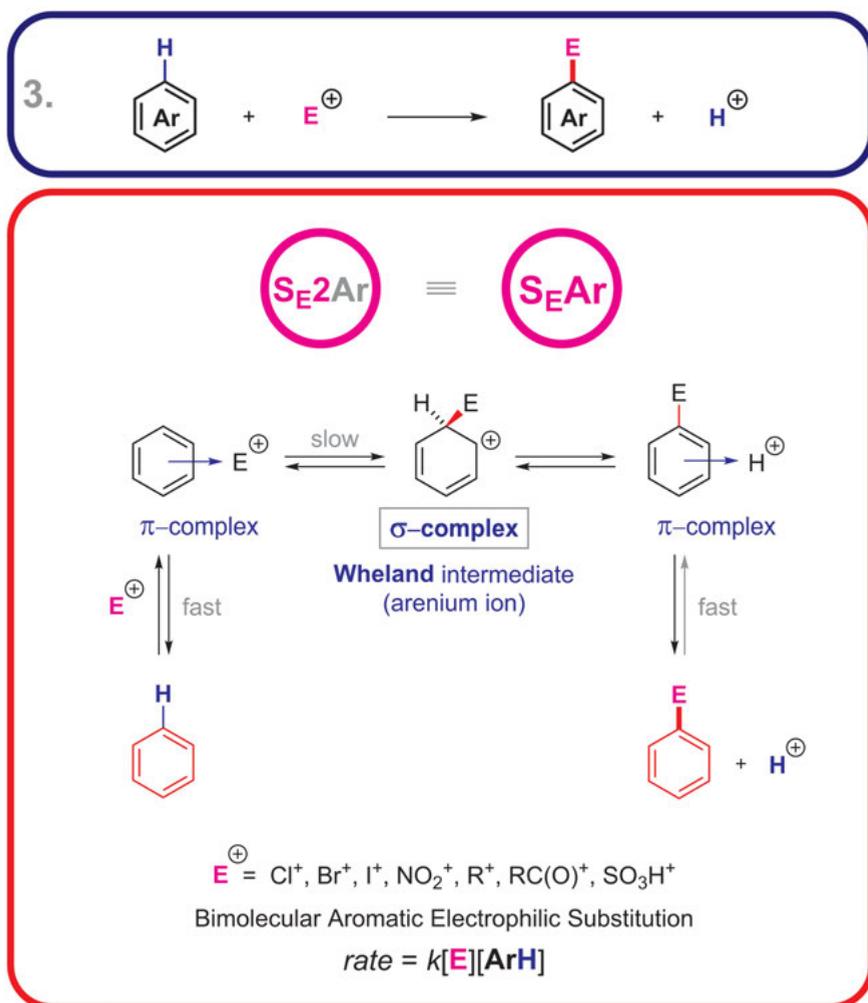


Fig. 3.1: The arenium ion mechanism (S_{EAr}).⁵

⁵ Symbol S_{EAr} or $\text{S}_{\text{E}}(\text{Ar})$ stands for Substitution Electrophilic Arenium (ion) (often confused with Aromatic), that is, the *arenium ion* mechanism. In this example, it is a **Bi**-molecular (2) reaction, that is, the rate of the reaction is **second order** and the rate-determining step (i.e., the *slow* step) depends on the concentration of two reactants. It is the **electrophile (E)** and **arene (ArH)**: $\text{rate} = k[\text{E}][\text{ArH}]^1$. To emphasize that it is a bi-molecular mechanism, sometimes $\text{S}_{\text{E}2\text{Ar}}$ or $\text{S}_{\text{E}2}(\text{Ar})$ notation is used (the use of a simple $\text{S}_{\text{E}2}$ symbol can be confusing, since it can also apply to an Aliphatic Electrophilic Substitution).

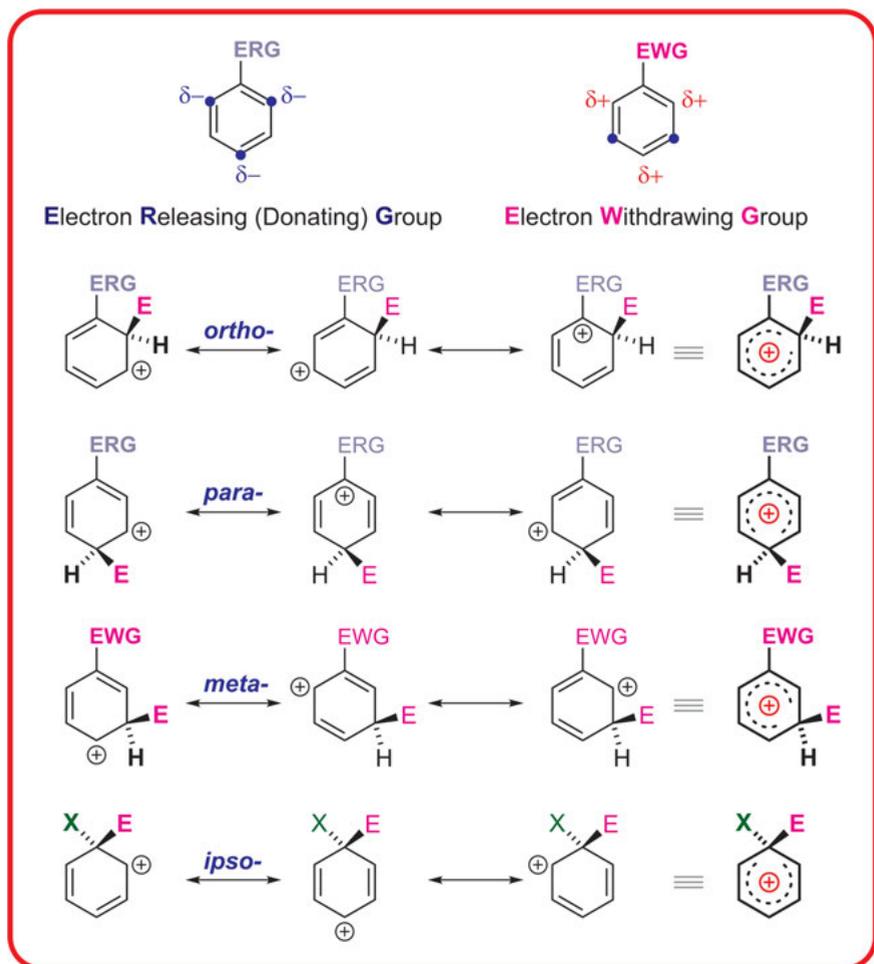


Fig. 3.2: The orientation of substitution with substrates containing EWG and ERG.⁶

⁶ In this book the terms Electron Releasing Group (ERG) and Electron Donating Group (EDG) are used interchangeably. Please note, *ipso*-substitution is provided only for the comparison with *ortho*-, *para*-, and *meta*-substitution.

4 Aromatic Nucleophilic Substitution Mechanism

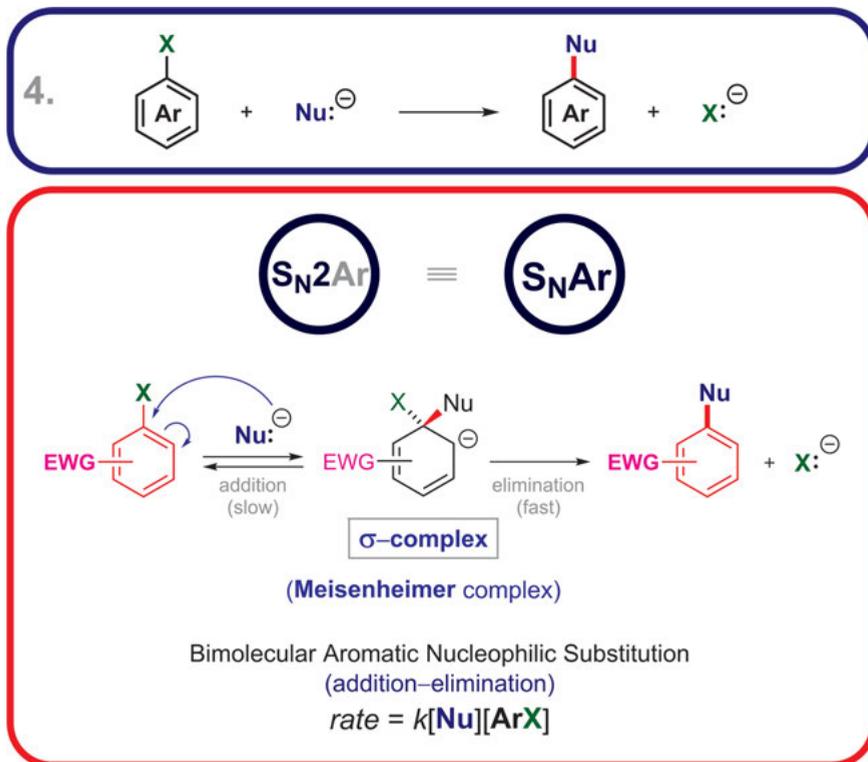


Fig. 4.1: Bimolecular aromatic nucleophilic substitution (addition-elimination) mechanism ($\text{S}_{\text{N}}\text{Ar}$).⁷

⁷ Symbol $\text{S}_{\text{N}}\text{Ar}$ stands for **S**ubstitution **N**ucleophilic **A**romatic; it is also called the *addition-elimination* mechanism. In this example, it is a **Bi**-molecular (**2**) reaction, that is, the rate of the reaction is **second order** and the rate-determining step (i.e., the *slow* step) depends on the concentration of two reactants. It is the **nucleophile (Nu)** and **arene (ArX)**: $\text{rate} = k[\text{Nu}]^1[\text{ArX}]^1$. To emphasize that it is a bi-molecular mechanism, sometimes $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2\text{Ar}$ notation is used.

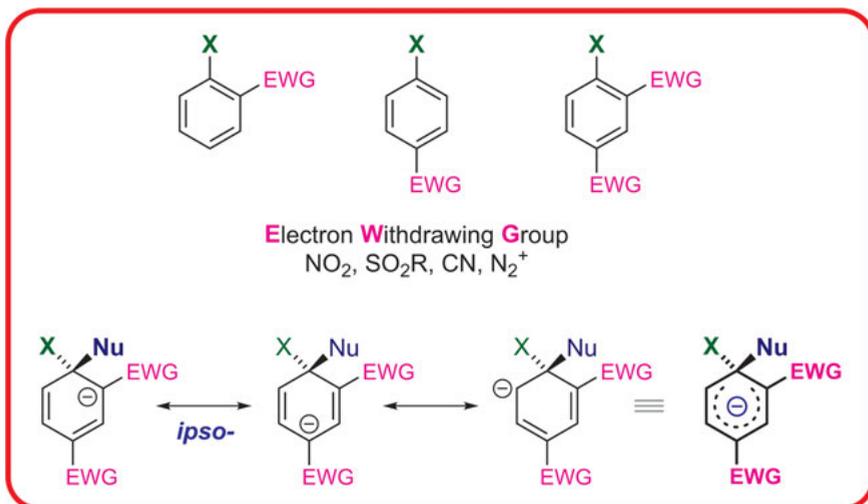


Fig. 4.2: Typical activated S_NAr substrates.⁸

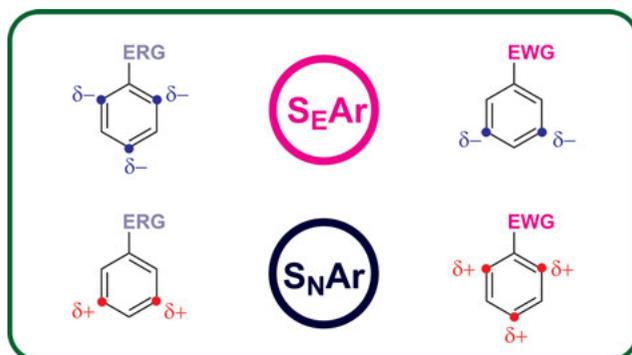


Fig. 4.3: The orientation of substitution in S_EAr and S_NAr .⁹

8 A typical S_NAr substrate usually contains an activating electron withdrawing group (EWG) and a leaving group (X).

9 In the S_EAr reaction, an EWG group orients (directs) the substitution in the *meta*-position and an ERG (EDG) directs the substitution in the *ortho*-position and/or *para*-position. However, in the S_NAr reaction, this trend is reversed: an EWG group orients (directs) the substitution in the *ortho*-position and/or *para*-position and ERG (EDG) directs the substitution in the *meta*-position.

5 Aromatic Radical Nucleophilic Substitution Mechanism

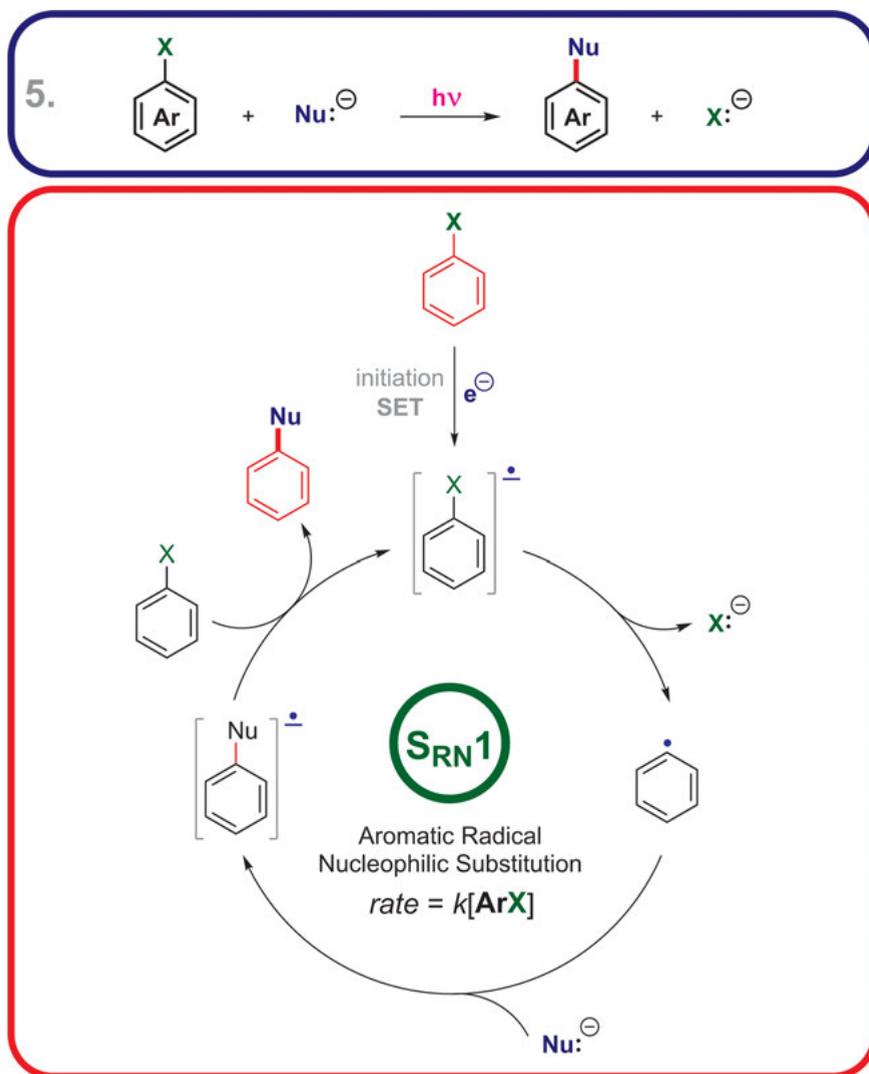


Fig. 5.1: Unimolecular aromatic radical nucleophilic substitution mechanism ($S_{RN}1$).¹⁰

10 Symbol $S_{RN}1$ stands for **S**ubstitution **R**adical **N**ucleophilic **U**ni-molecular (**1**), that is, the rate of the reaction is **first order** and the rate-determining step (the *slow step*) depends on the concentration of one reactant. In this example, it is the **starting material** that contains a leaving group (**ArX**): rate = $k[ArX]^1$.

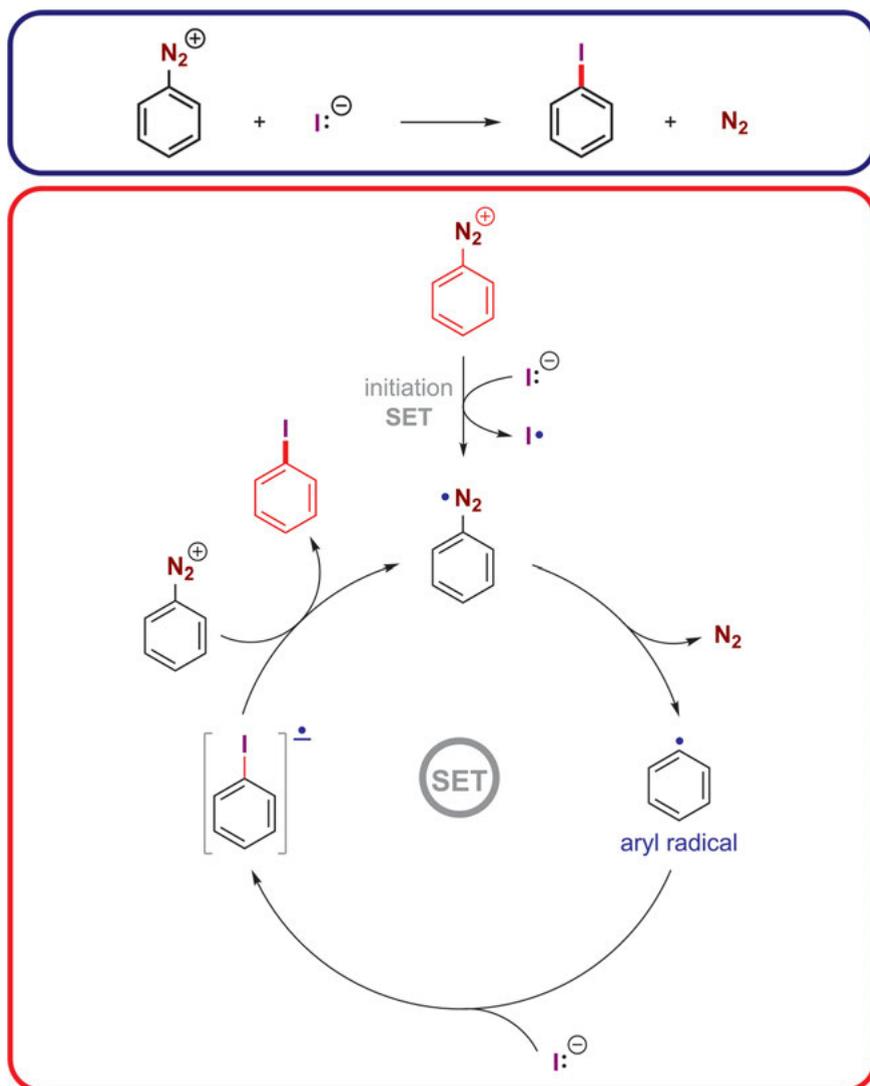


Fig. 5.2: Replacement of the diazonium group by iodide.¹¹

11 The substitution of a diazonium group by iodide is an example of the **SET** (Single Electron Transfer) mechanism. Please note, the $\text{S}_{\text{RN}}1$ mechanism and the **SET** mechanism are closely related and are not differentiated in this book. Jerry March [1a] distinguishes the $\text{S}_{\text{RN}}1$ mechanism (the initial attack of the aromatic substrate occurs by an electron donor) from the SET mechanism (the initial attack occurs by a nucleophile). The Sandmeyer reaction mechanism (not shown) is related [see <https://doi.org/10.1002/cber.18840170219> and <https://doi.org/10.1002/cber.188401702202>, accessed December 5, 2019].

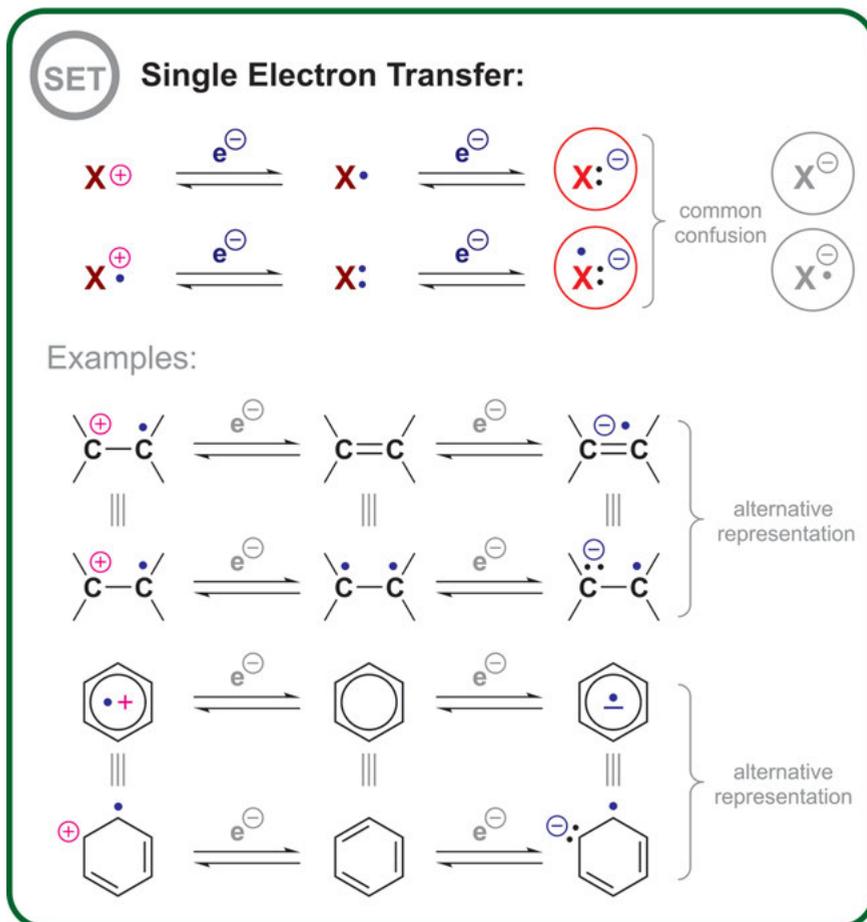


Fig. 5.3: Lewis electron dot structures of radical species involved in SET.¹²

¹² This figure summarizes the Lewis (electron) dot structures of various SET processes: **cation** → **radical** → **anion** or **cation-radical** → **di-radical** or **lone pair** → **anion-radical**, and provides several common examples. Please note, in the literature **cation-radical** is often called **radical cation** and **anion-radical** is called **radical anion**. In some instances, a **lone pair** associated with an **anion** or **anion-radical** is not represented for clarity (sometimes this simplification causes confusion).

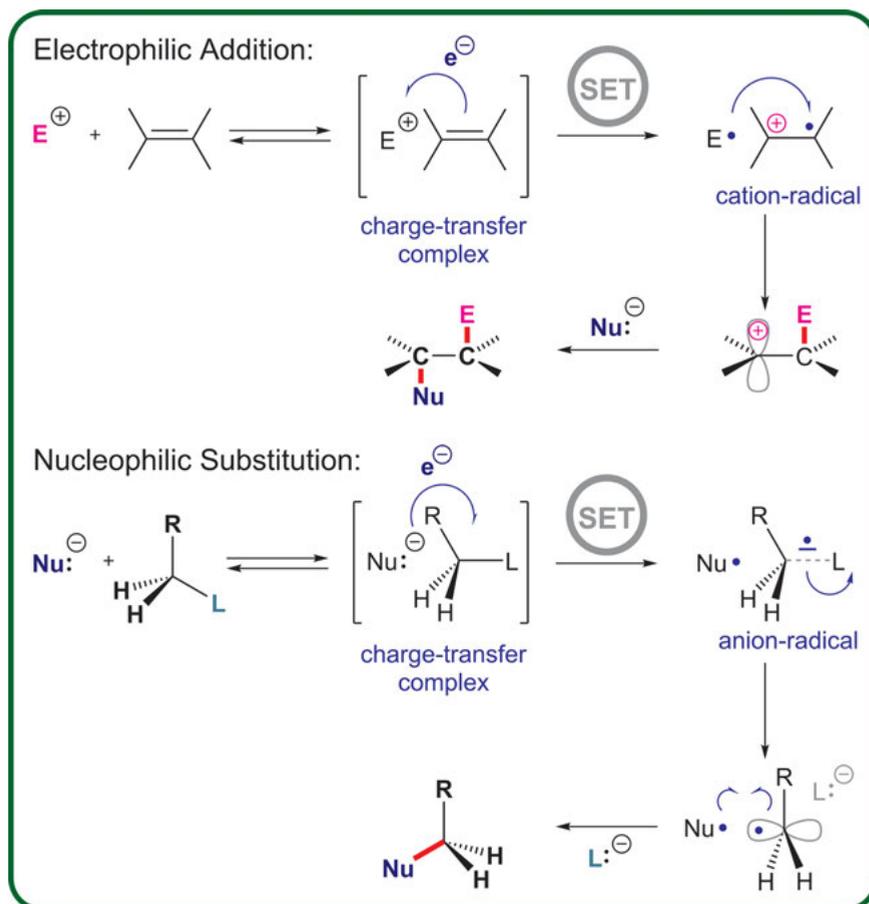


Fig. 5.4: The single electron transfer mechanism (SET) examples.¹³

13 An example of *Electrophilic Addition* described by the SET mechanism: a single electron transfer from an alkene to an electrophile and the formation of a *cation-radical* (radical cation). An example of *Nucleophilic Substitution* described by the SET mechanism: a single electron transfer from a nucleophile to a substrate and the formation of an *anion-radical* (radical anion) [3].

6 Elimination Mechanism

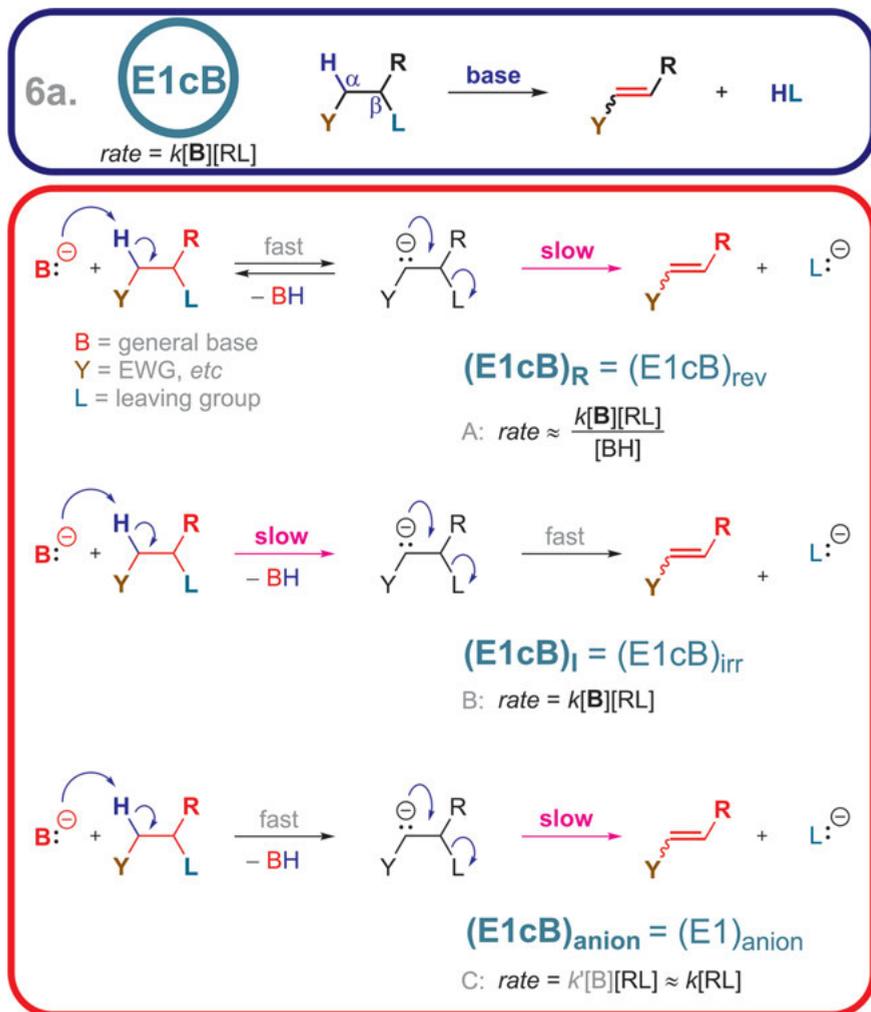
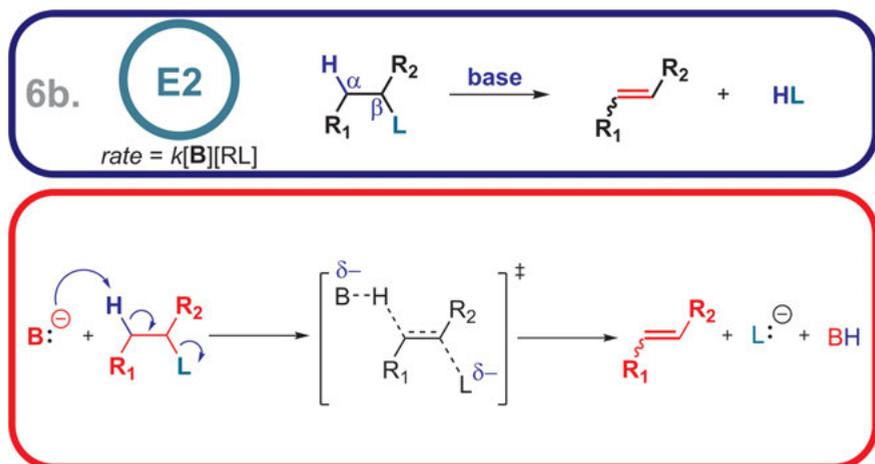
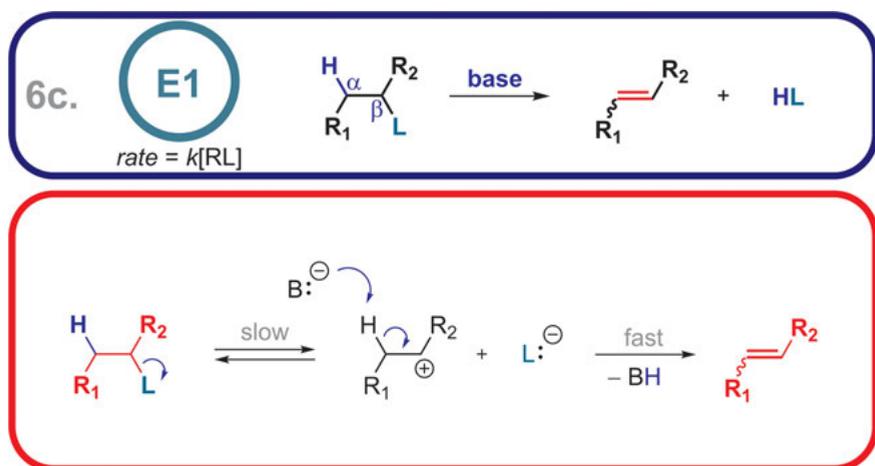


Fig. 6.1: Unimolecular β -elimination mechanism (**E1cB**).¹⁴

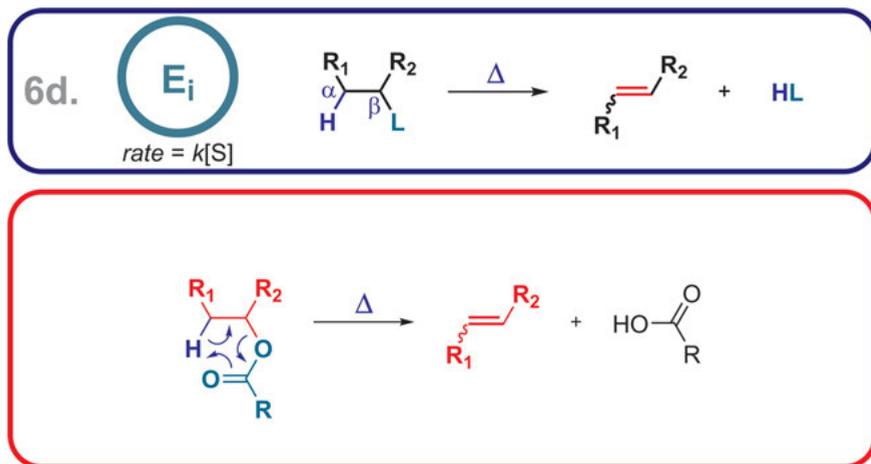
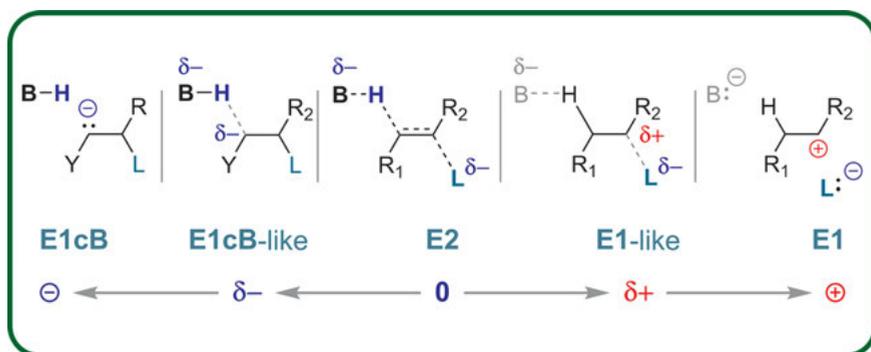
14 Symbol **E1cB** (**E1cb**) stands for **E**limination **U**ni-molecular (**1**) conjugate **B**ase (**base**); it is also called the **carbanion** mechanism [McLennan DJ]. The carbanion mechanism of olefin-forming elimination. *Q. Rev. Chem. Soc.* **1967**, 21 (4), 490–506]. The mechanism consists of two steps: the formation of a carbanion (step 1) and subsequent elimination (step 2). (Scenario A) Step 1 is fast and reversible (**R** or **rev**) and step 2 is rate-determining (slow): **(E1cB)_R = (E1cB)_{rev}**. Here, the rate of the reaction is **second order** and the rate-determining step depends on the concentration of two reactants, that is, the **base** (**B**) and **substrate** (**RL**): rate $\approx k[\mathbf{B}][\mathbf{RL}]/[\mathbf{BH}]$. (Scenario B) Step 1 is slow and irreversible (**I** or **irr**) (rate-determining) and step 2 is fast: **(E1cB)_I = (E1cB)_{irr}**. Here, the rate of the reaction is **sec-**

Fig. 6.2: Bimolecular β -elimination mechanism (E2).¹⁵Fig. 6.3: Unimolecular β -elimination mechanism (E1).¹⁶

ond order and the rate-determining step depends on the concentration of two reactants, that is, the **base (B)** and **substrate (RL)**: $\text{rate} = k[\text{B}]^1[\text{RL}]^1$. (Scenario C) Step 1 is fast and step 2 is rate-determining (slow): $(\text{E1cB})_{\text{anion}} = (\text{E1})_{\text{anion}}$. Here, the rate of the reaction is **first order** and the rate-determining step depends on the concentration of one reactant, that is, the **substrate (RL)**: $\text{rate} \approx k[\text{RL}]^1$.

15 Symbol **E2** stands for **Elimination Bi**-molecular (**2**), that is, the rate of the reaction is **second order** and the rate-determining step (i.e., the *slow* step) depends on the concentration of two reactants. In this example, it is the **base (B)** and the **substrate (RL)**: $\text{rate} = k[\text{B}]^1[\text{RL}]^1$.

16 Symbol **E1** stands for **Elimination Uni**-molecular (**1**), that is, the rate of the reaction is **first order** and the rate-determining step (i.e., the *slow* step) depends on the concentration of one reactant. In this example, it is the **substrate (RL)**: $\text{rate} = k[\text{RL}]^1$.

Fig. 6.4: Internal or Intramolecular β -elimination mechanism (E_i).¹⁷Fig. 6.5: $E1cB$, $E2$, and $E1$ mechanisms.¹⁸

17 Symbol E_i stands for **Elimination Internal or Intramolecular**. The rate of the reaction is **first order** and the rate-determining step (i.e., the *slow* step) depends on the concentration of one reactant. In this example, it is the **substrate (S)**: $rate = k[S]^1$.

18 The **$E1cB$** mechanism is also called the carbanion mechanism, its transition state is the most extreme case with a full negative charge. The **$E2$** mechanism is simultaneous and the transition state lies in the middle. A typical $E2$ reaction often competes with an S_N2 reaction and vice versa. The **$E1$** mechanism is exactly the opposite of $E1cB$ and its transition state has a positive charge. A typical $E1$ reaction often competes with an S_N1 reaction and vice versa.

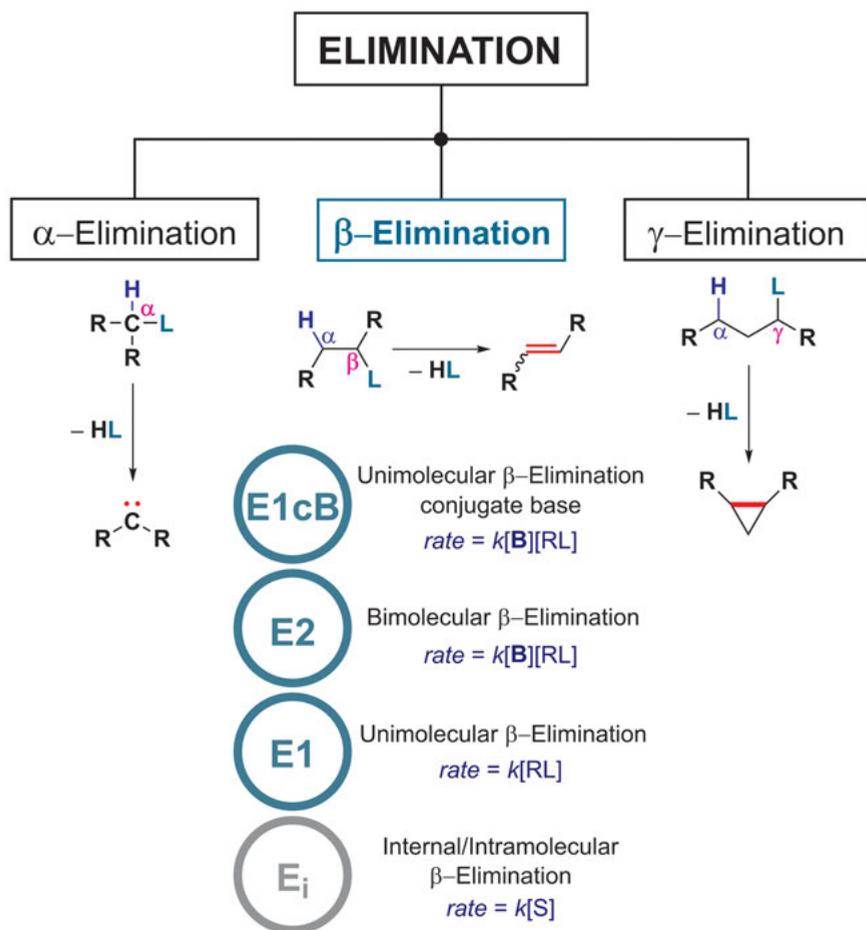


Fig. 6.6: The classification of characteristic elimination reactions.¹⁹

¹⁹ Only the key β-elimination examples are covered in this book.

7 Acyloin Condensation

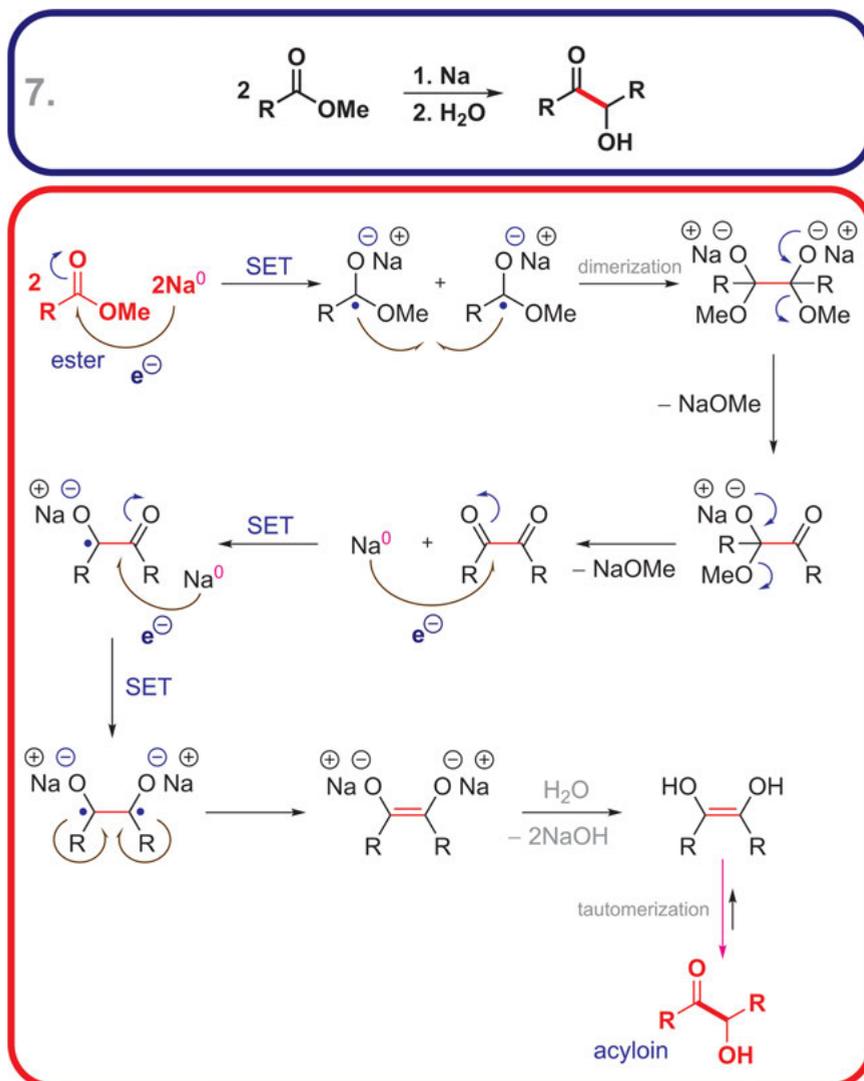


Fig. 7.1: The acyloin condensation mechanism.²⁰

²⁰ The reaction is also called the *acyloin ester condensation*. Please note, an *acyloin* is an α -hydroxy ketone.

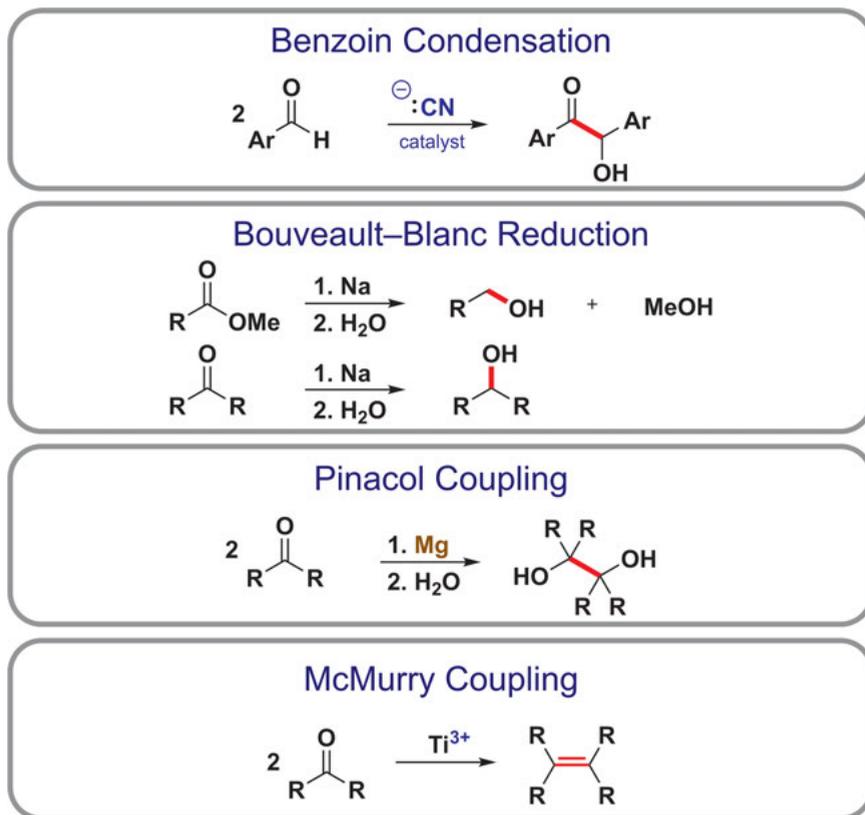


Fig. 7.2: Reactions related to the *acyloin condensation*.²¹

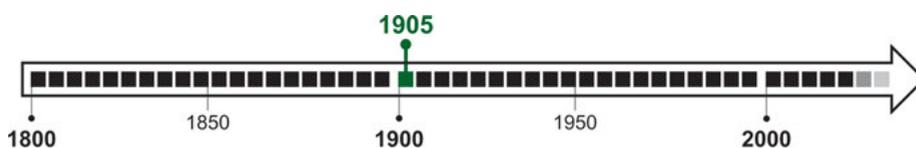


Fig. 7.3: The discovery of the *acyloin condensation*.²²

²¹ Several reactions are mechanistically related to the *acyloin condensation*: the **Bouveault–Blanc reduction** [1a and 7a], the **pinacol coupling** and the **McMurry coupling** (both covered in Chapter 57). The **benzoin condensation** (covered in Chapter 15) undergoes a different mechanism, but it also yields α -hydroxy ketones containing aromatic groups (*benzoin*s).

²² The reaction was likely first described around 1905 [7b].

8 Alkyne Zipper Reaction

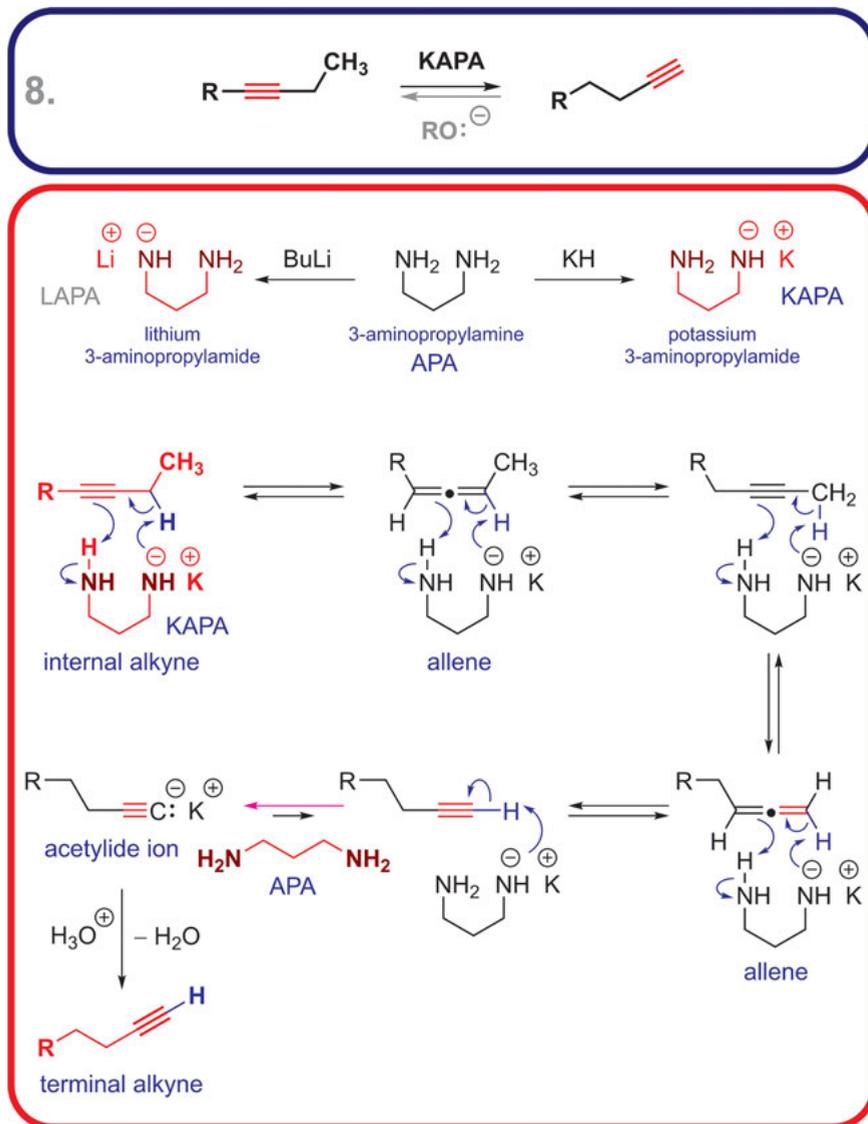


Fig. 8.1: The alkyne zipper reaction mechanism.²³

²³ The reaction is also called the *alkyne isomerization reaction* or the *alkyne-allene rearrangement*.

9 Arbuzov Reaction

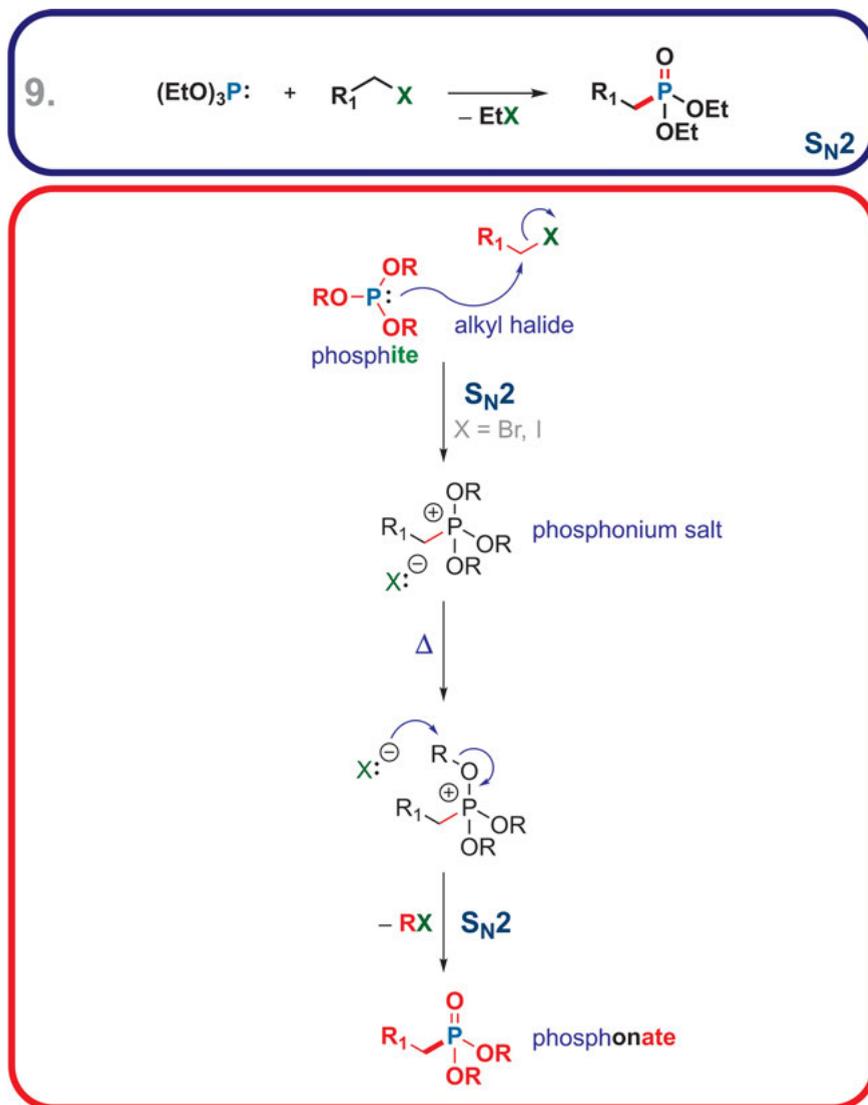


Fig. 9.1: The *Arbuzov* reaction mechanism.²⁶

26 The *Arbuzov* reaction is an example of bimolecular nucleophilic substitution (S_N2), covered in Chapter 2. It is also referred to as the *Michaelis–Arbuzov* reaction or the *Michaelis–Arbuzov* rearrangement.

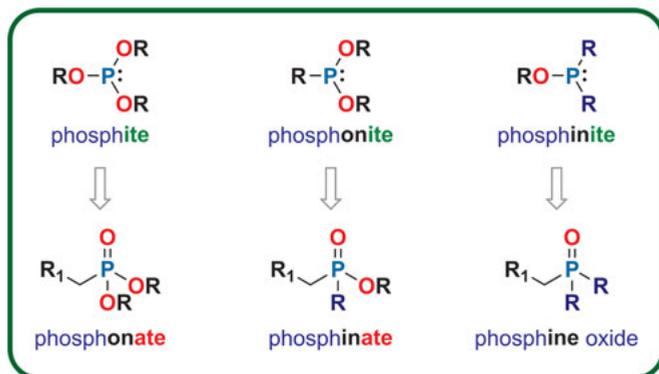


Fig. 9.2: The nomenclature of selected organophosphorus (III) and (V) compounds.²⁷

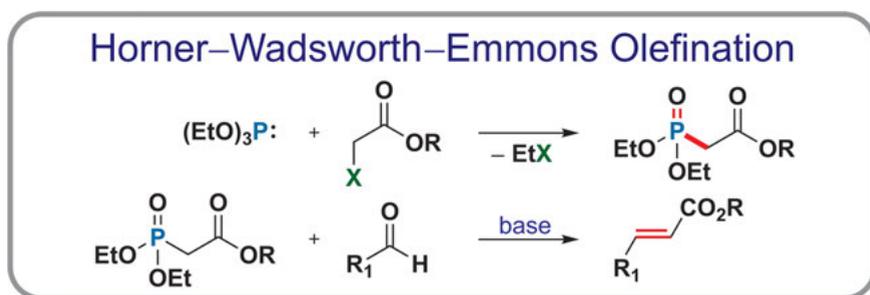


Fig. 9.3: The *HWE* olefination.²⁸

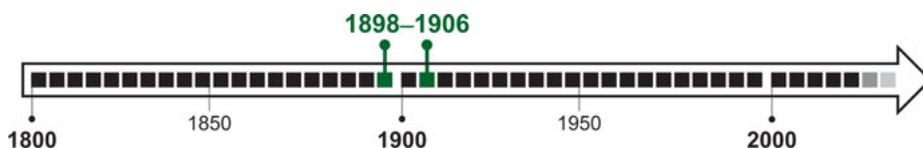


Fig. 9.4: The discovery of the *Arbuzov* reaction.²⁹

27 A selected example of the complex organophosphorus nomenclature: the organophosphorus (III) compounds have a common suffix *-ite* [phosphites $\text{P}(\text{OR})_3$, phosphonites $\text{P}(\text{OR})_2\text{R}$] and the organophosphorus (V) compounds have a common suffix *-ate* [phosphonates $\text{PO}(\text{OR})_2\text{R}$, phosphinates $\text{PO}(\text{OR})\text{R}_2$] [9a].

28 The *phosphonates* produced in the *Arbuzov* reaction are essential in the *Horner–Wadsworth–Emmons* (*HWE*) olefination (covered in Chapter 50).

29 The reaction was likely first described around 1898 by Michaelis [9b] and around 1906 by Arbuzov [9c].

10 Arndt–Eistert Synthesis

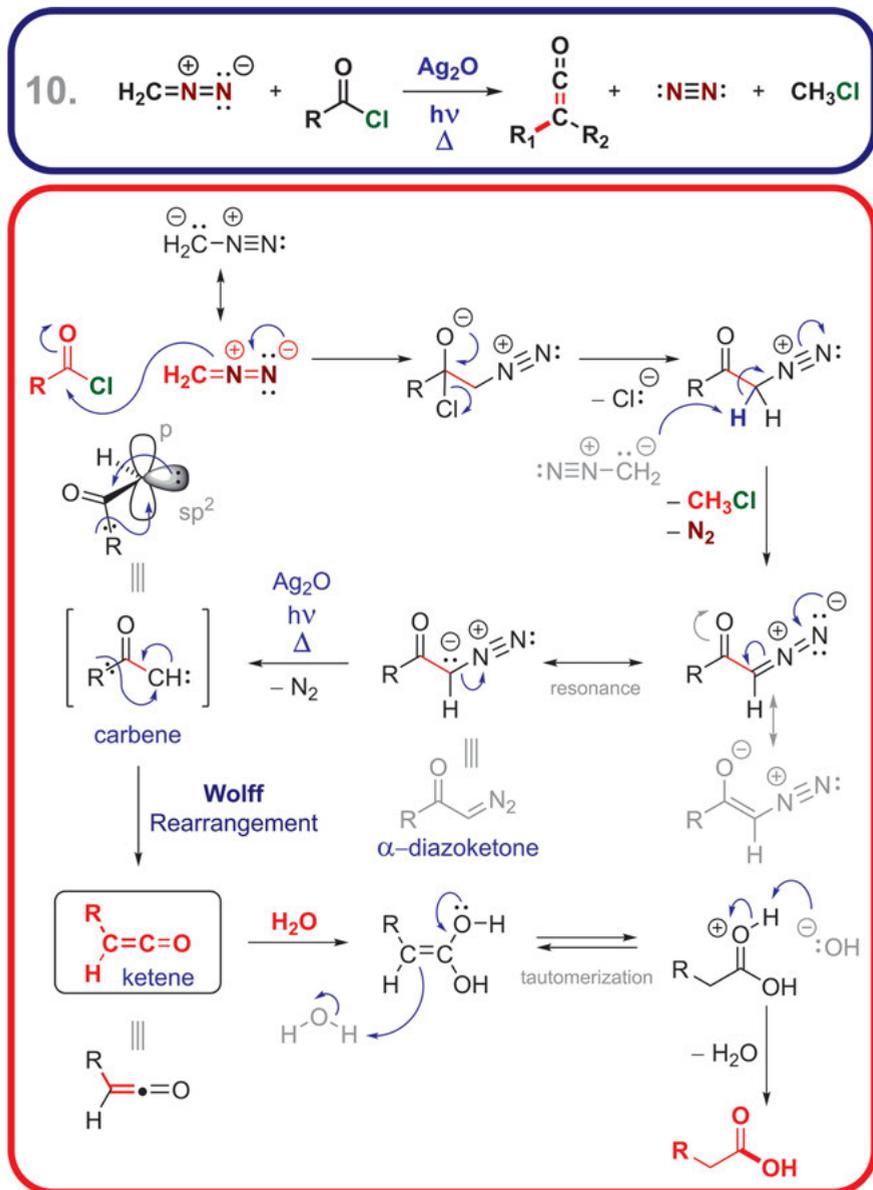


Fig. 10.1: The *Arndt–Eistert* synthesis mechanism.³⁰

30 The *Arndt–Eistert* synthesis is also called the *Arndt–Eistert* reaction (homologation). The *Wolff* rearrangement (α -diazoketone) is part of the *Arndt–Eistert* synthesis mechanism [10a].

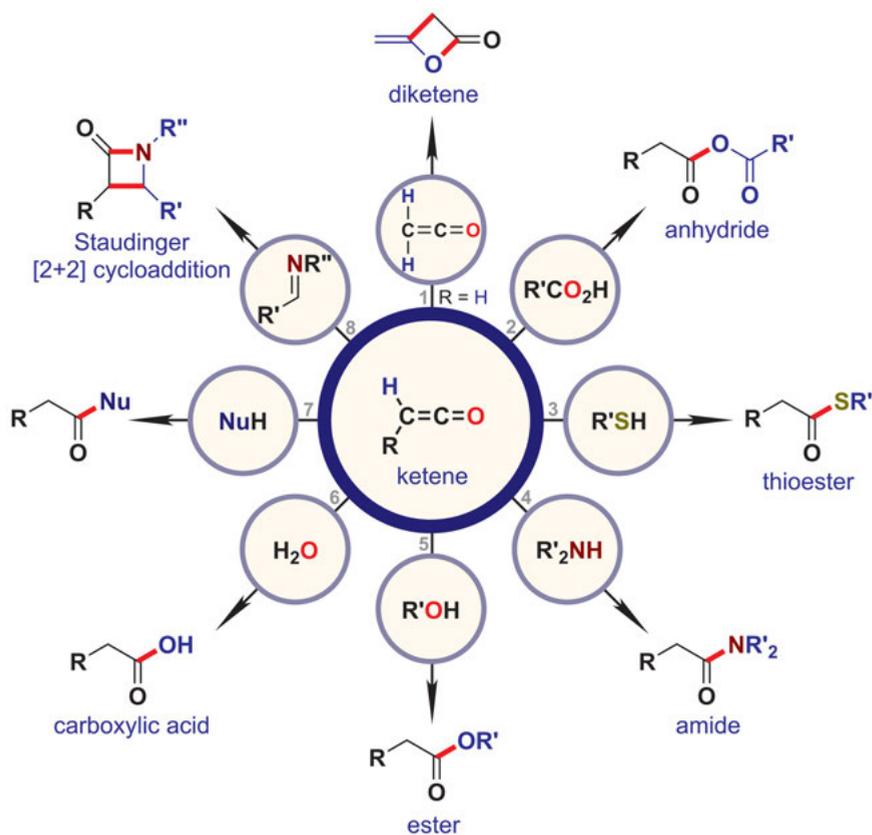


Fig. 10.2: The synthetic versatility of ketenes.³¹

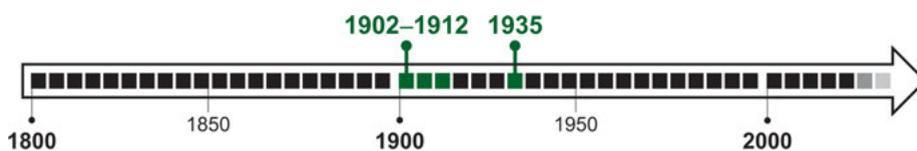


Fig. 10.3: The discovery of the *Arndt-Eistert* synthesis.³²

31 The *ketenes* formed during the *Arndt-Eistert* synthesis can either be trapped by a variety of nucleophiles, or undergo [2+2] cycloaddition including dimerization.

32 The related reaction was likely first described by Wolff between 1902-1912 [10a, 10b] and by Arndt and Eistert around 1935 [10c].

11 Baeyer–Villiger Oxidation

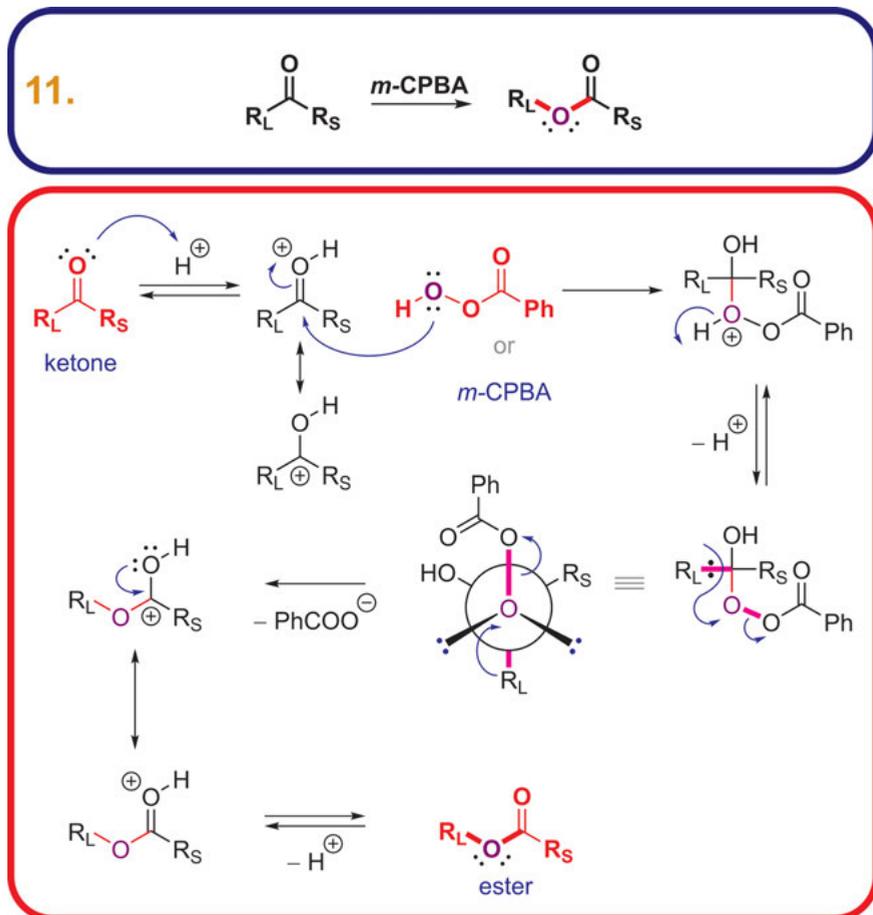


Fig. 11.1: The *Baeyer–Villiger* oxidation mechanism.³³

³³ The *Baeyer–Villiger* oxidation is also called the *Baeyer–Villiger* rearrangement.

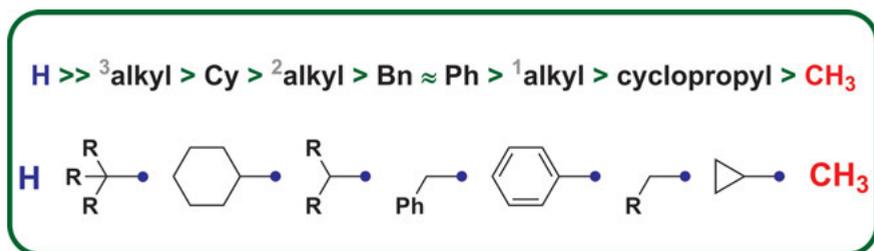


Fig. 11.2: The order of group migration in the *Baeyer–Villiger oxidation*.³⁴



Fig. 11.3: The *Dakin reaction*.³⁵

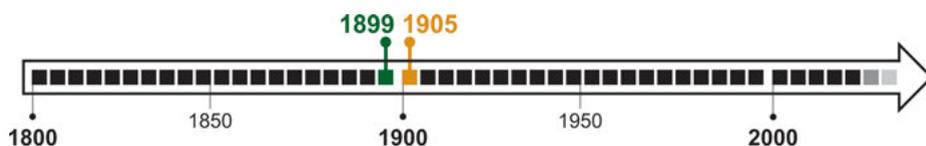


Fig. 11.4: The discovery of the *Baeyer–Villiger oxidation*.³⁶

34 The order of group migration is essential for the *asymmetrical ketones*. Please note, this preference for migration is a general empirical trend and not an absolute rule [1].

35 The *Dakin reaction (oxidation)* is closely related to the *Baeyer–Villiger oxidation* and it usually yields *ortho*-hydroxy or *para*-hydroxy phenols (or phenols with a strong *ortho*- or *para*- ERG) [11a].

36 The reaction was likely first described around 1899 [11b]. In 1905, Johann Friedrich Wilhelm Adolf von Baeyer received the Nobel Prize in Chemistry [11c].

12 Barton Decarboxylation

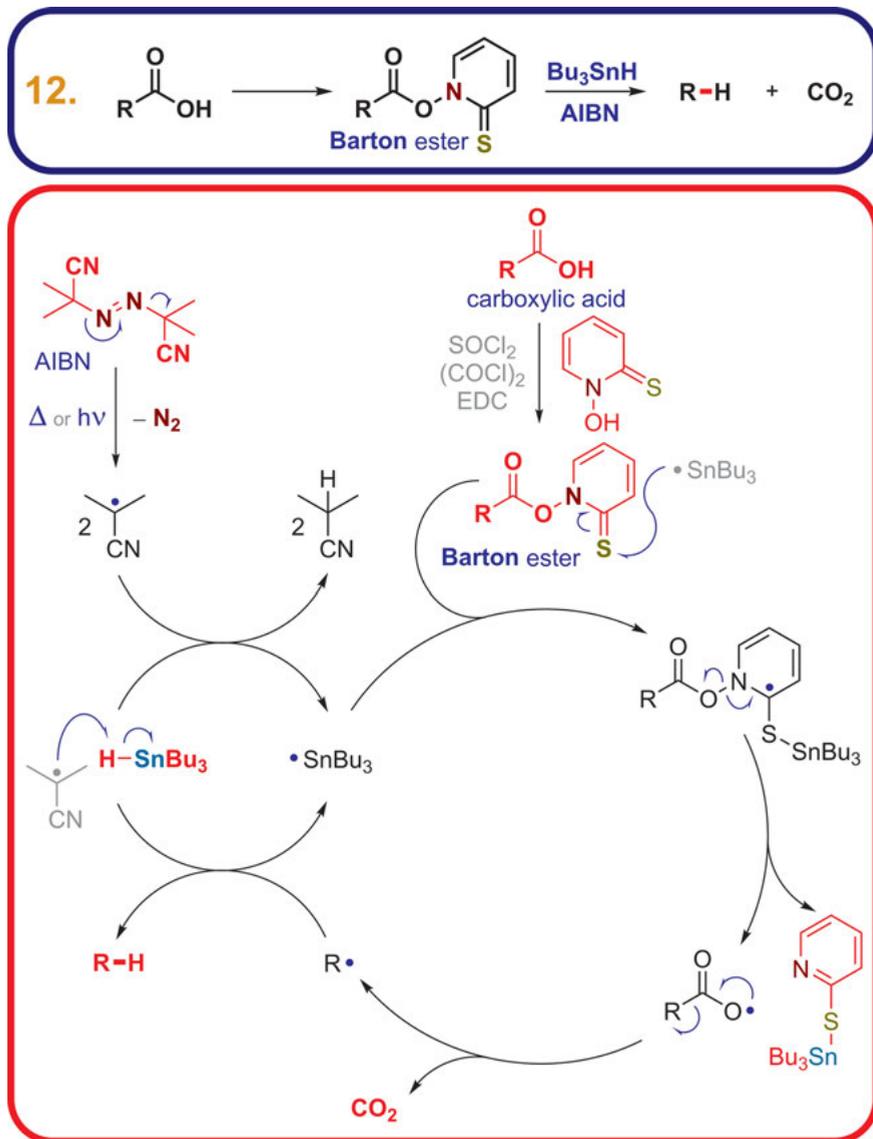


Fig. 12.1: The **Barton decarboxylation** mechanism.³⁷

³⁷ The **Barton decarboxylation** is a radical decarboxylation reaction of the **Barton ester**.

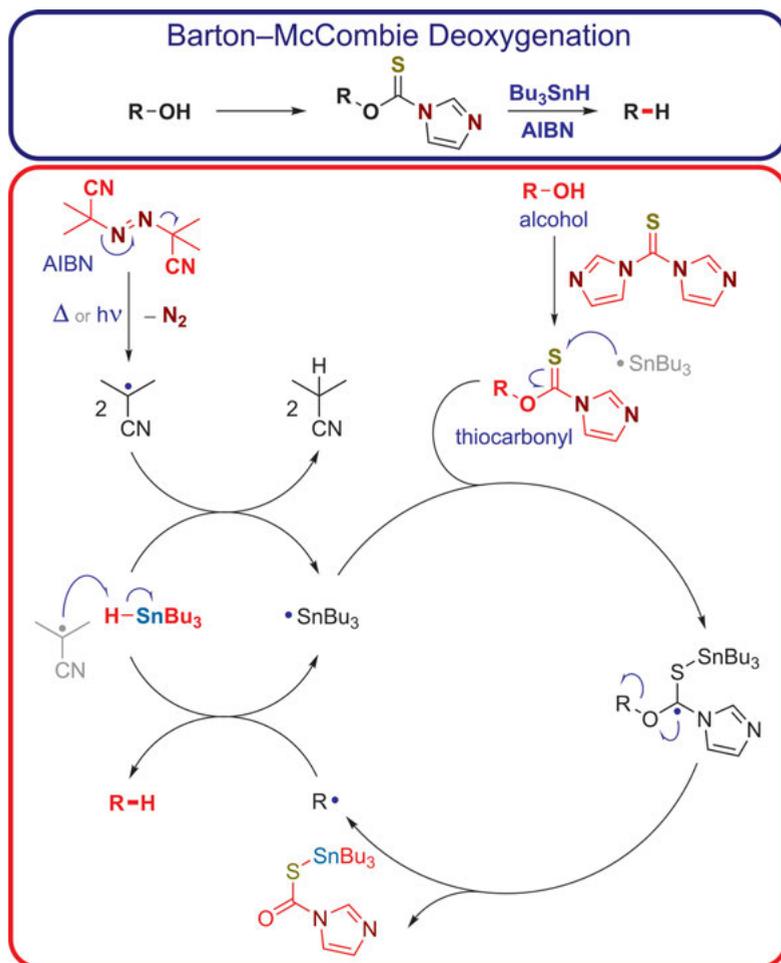


Fig. 12.2: The *Barton–McCombie* deoxygenation mechanism.³⁸

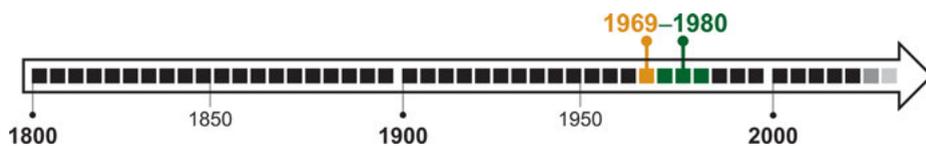


Fig. 12.3: The discovery of the *Barton* decarboxylation.³⁹

38 The *Barton–McCombie* deoxygenation is a radical deoxygenation of a *thiocarbonyl*: *O,O*-thiocarbonate ROC(S)OR ; *S,O*-dithiocarbonate = xanthate ROC(S)SR ; or *O*-thiocarbamate ROC(S)NR_2 .

39 The *decarboxylation* reaction was likely first described between 1980–1985 [12a, 12b] and the *deoxygenation* reaction was likely first described between 1975–1980 [12c, 12d]. In 1969, Derek H. R. Barton (jointly with Odd Hassel) received the Nobel Prize in Chemistry [12e].

13 Baylis–Hillman Reaction

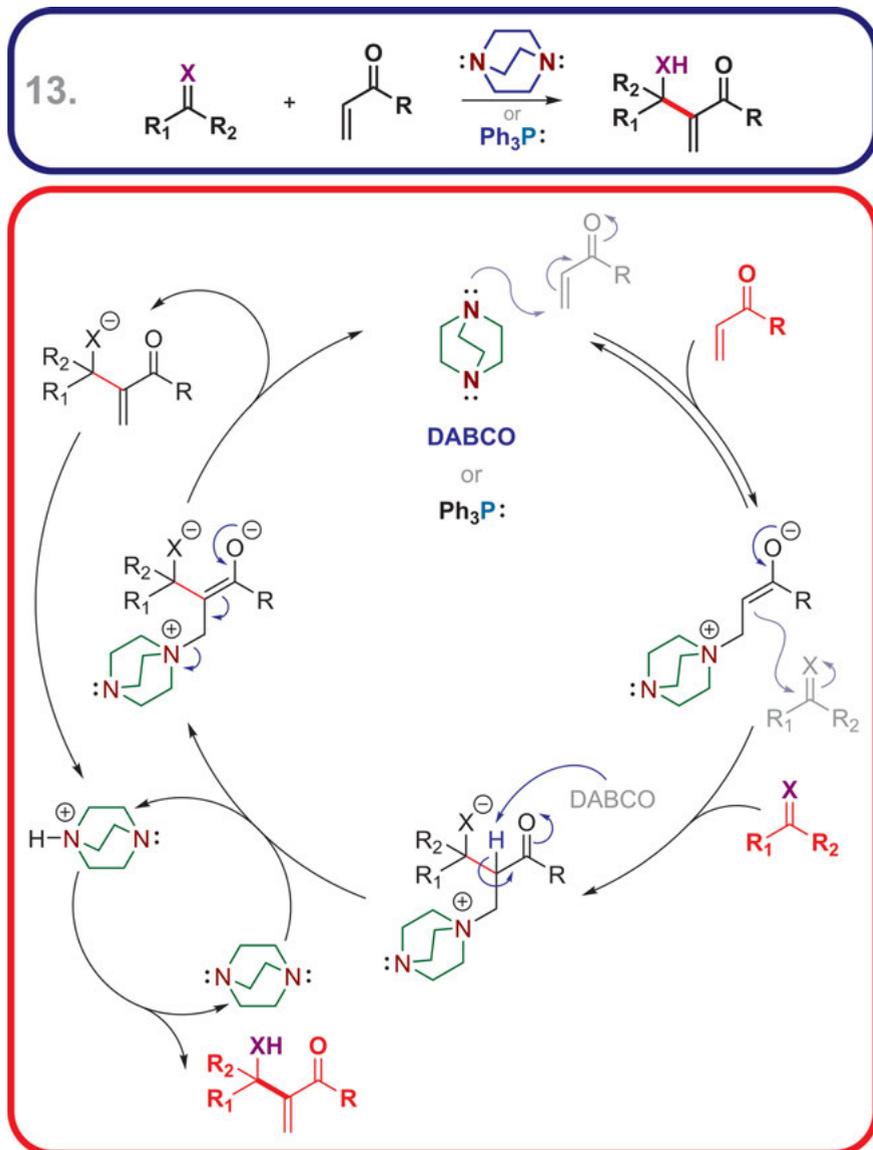


Fig. 13.1: The *Baylis–Hillman* reaction mechanism.⁴⁰

⁴⁰ The *Baylis–Hillman* reaction is also called the *Morita–Baylis–Hillman* reaction.

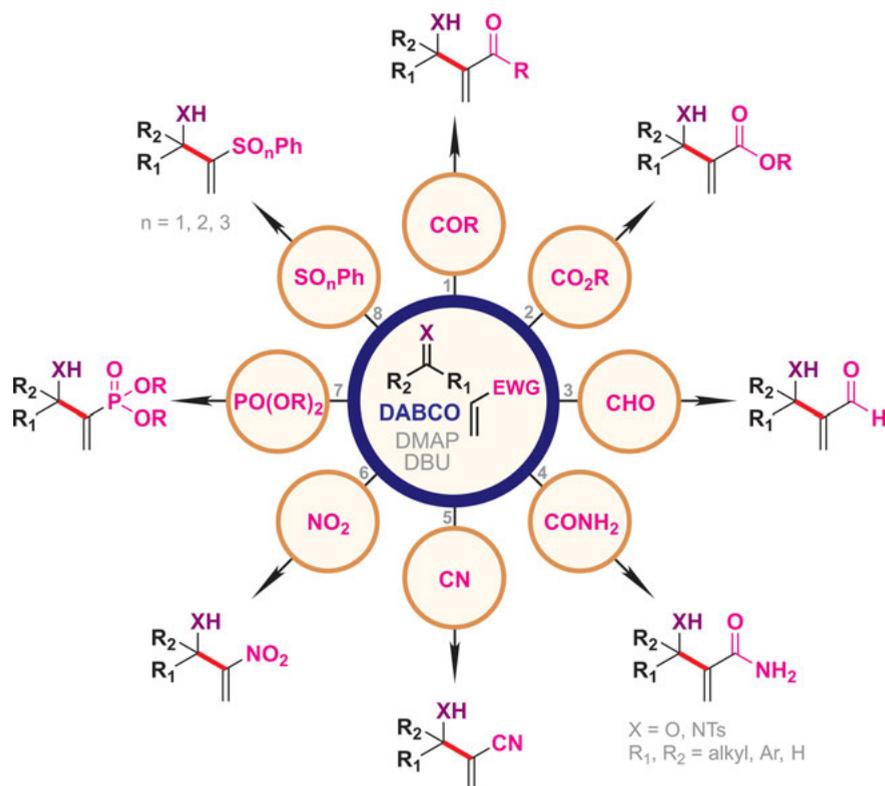


Fig. 13.2: The synthetic versatility of the *Baylis–Hillman* reaction.⁴¹

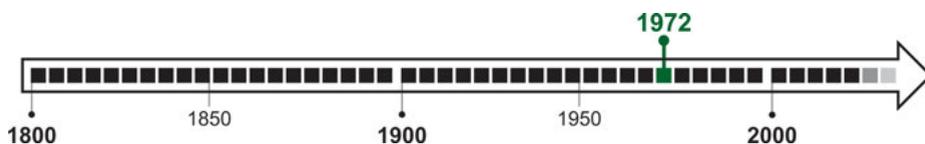


Fig. 13.3: The discovery of the *Baylis–Hillman* reaction.⁴²

⁴¹ Many variations of the *Baylis–Hillman* reaction exist, depending on the nature of EWG (the *Michael* acceptor) and carbonyl compound (the electrophile). Please note, for $X = NR$ it is called the *aza-Baylis–Hillman* reaction.

⁴² The reaction was likely first described around 1972 [13].

14 Beckmann Rearrangement

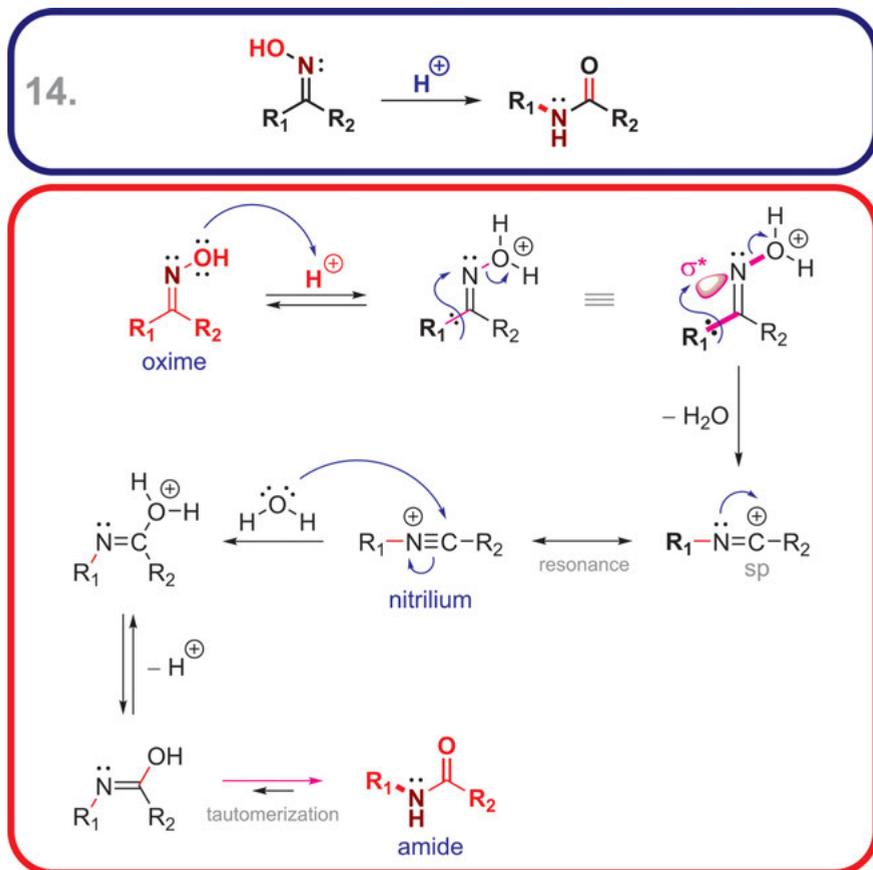


Fig. 14.1: The **Beckmann rearrangement** mechanism.⁴³

⁴³ The **Beckmann rearrangement** is seldom called the **Beckmann oxime-amide rearrangement**.

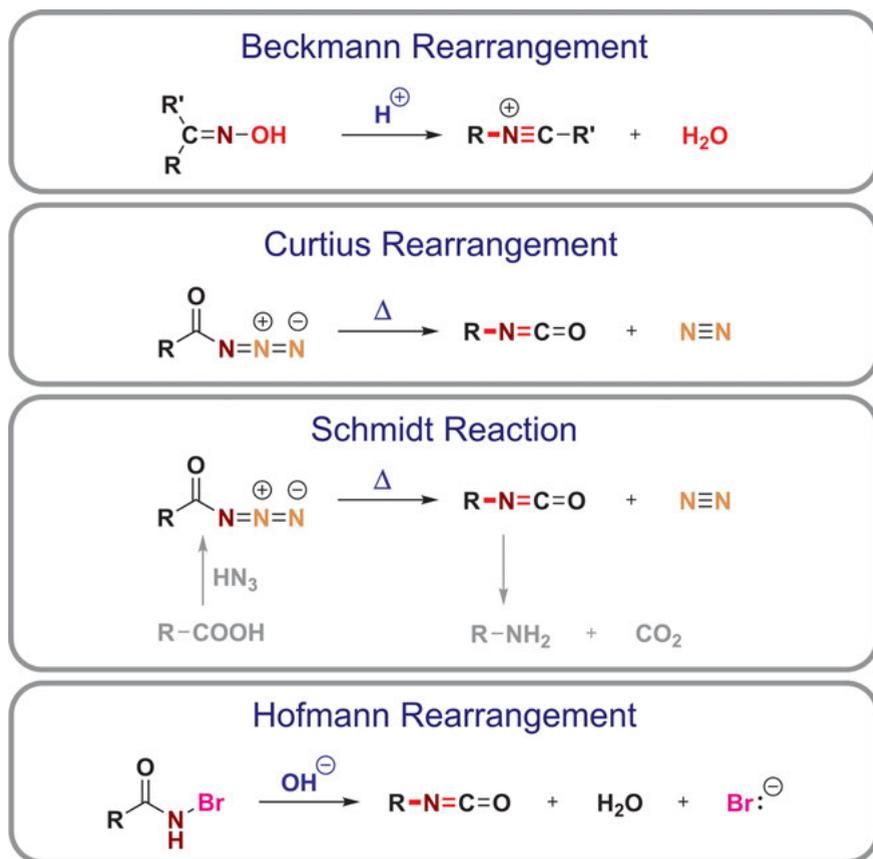


Fig. 14.2: Reactions related to the *Beckmann rearrangement*.⁴⁴

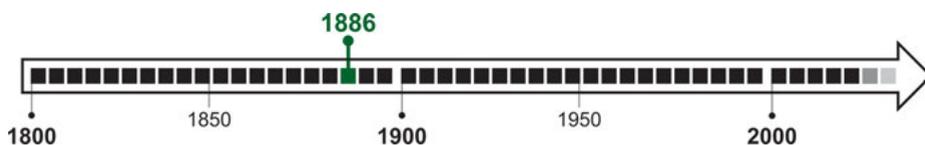


Fig. 14.3: The discovery of the *Beckmann rearrangement*.⁴⁵

⁴⁴ Several reactions are mechanistically related to the *Beckmann rearrangement*: the *Curtius rearrangement*, the *Schmidt reaction*, the *Hofmann rearrangement*, and the *Lossen rearrangement* (all covered in Chapter 31). The first example (the *Beckmann rearrangement*) is redrawn to emphasize the rearrangement of an *oxime* into a *nitrilium ion*. In other examples, the key step is the rearrangement of a *nitrene* (formed from a carbonyl derivative) into an *isocyanate*.

⁴⁵ The reaction was likely first described around 1886 [14].

15 Benzoin Condensation

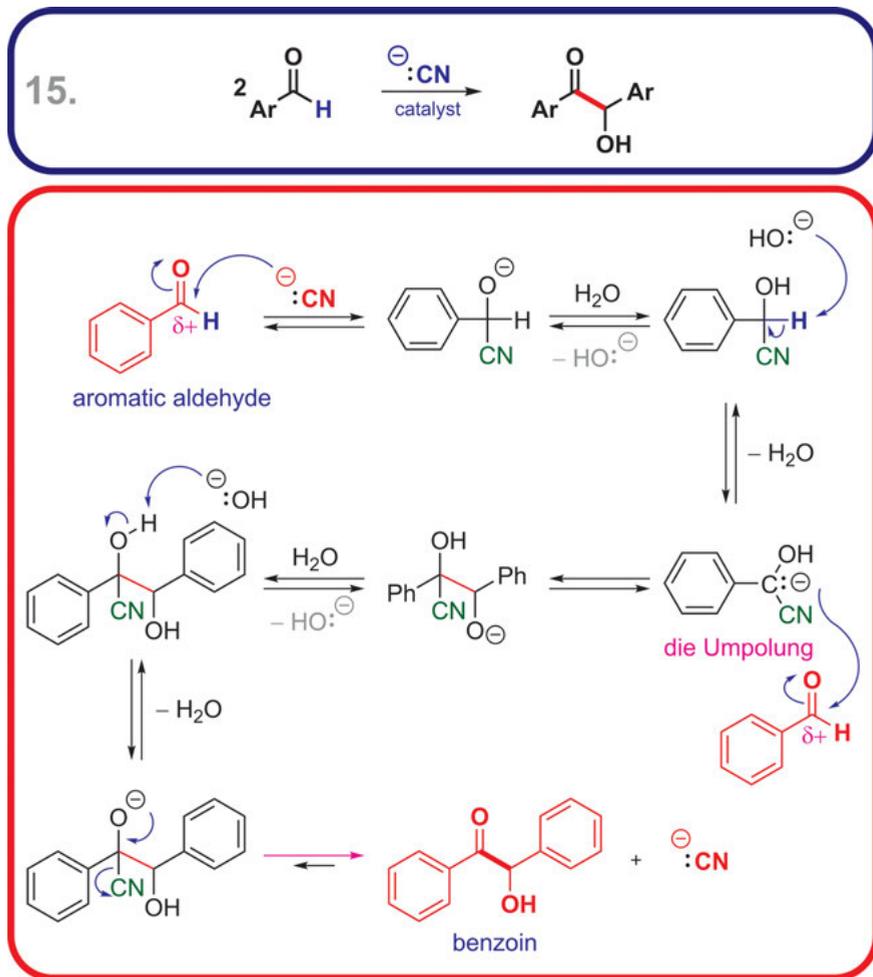


Fig. 15.1: The benzoin condensation mechanism.⁴⁶

⁴⁶ The benzoin condensation is one of the oldest reactions in organic chemistry.

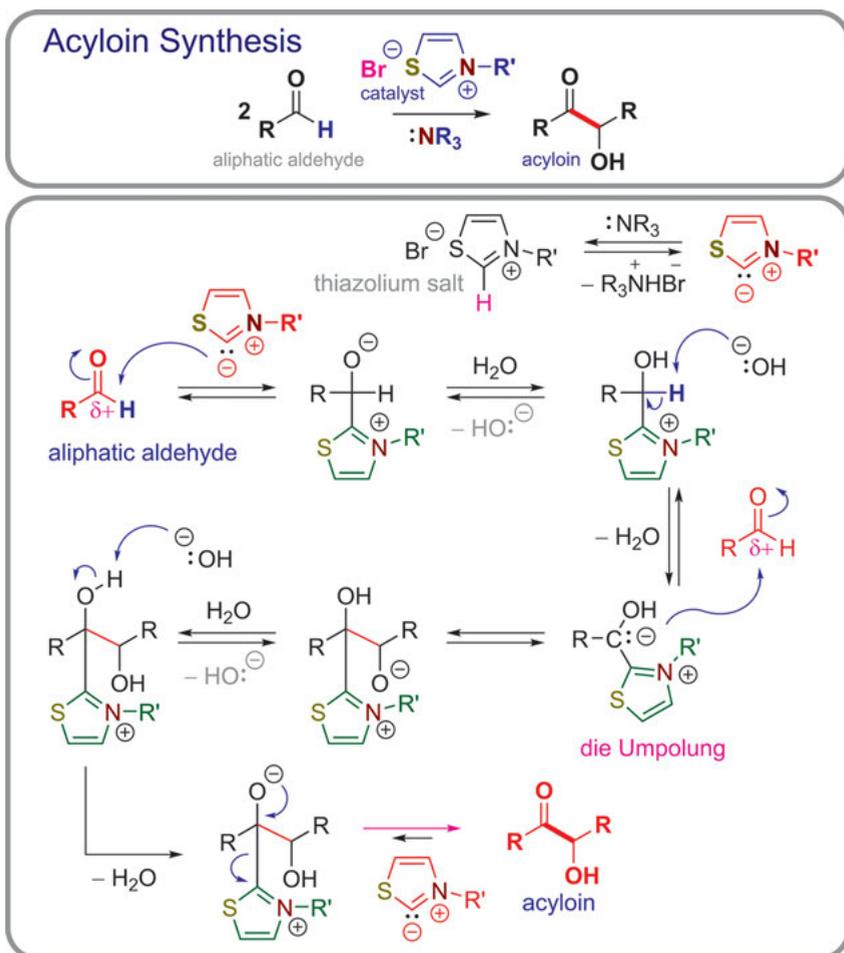


Fig. 15.2: The *acyloin synthesis* mechanism using thiazolium salts.⁴⁷

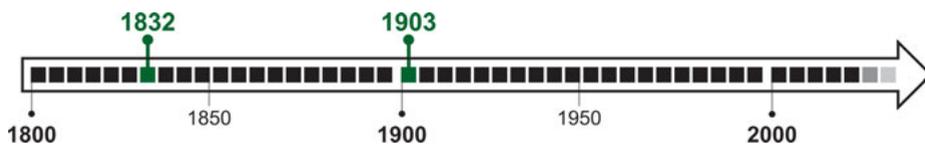


Fig. 15.3: The discovery of the *benzoin condensation*.⁴⁸

47 The *benzoin condensation* involves two aromatic aldehydes and is catalyzed by **cyanide ion** forming aromatic α -hydroxy ketones (*benzoins*). The *acyloin synthesis* is a condensation of two aliphatic aldehydes, it is catalyzed by **thiazolium salts** [15a, 15b] and yields aliphatic (or mixed) α -hydroxy ketones (*acyloins*). The *acyloin synthesis* should not be confused with the *acyloin condensation* (Chapter 7).

48 The reaction was likely first described around 1832 and the mechanism in 1903 [15c, 15d].

16 Benzyne Mechanism

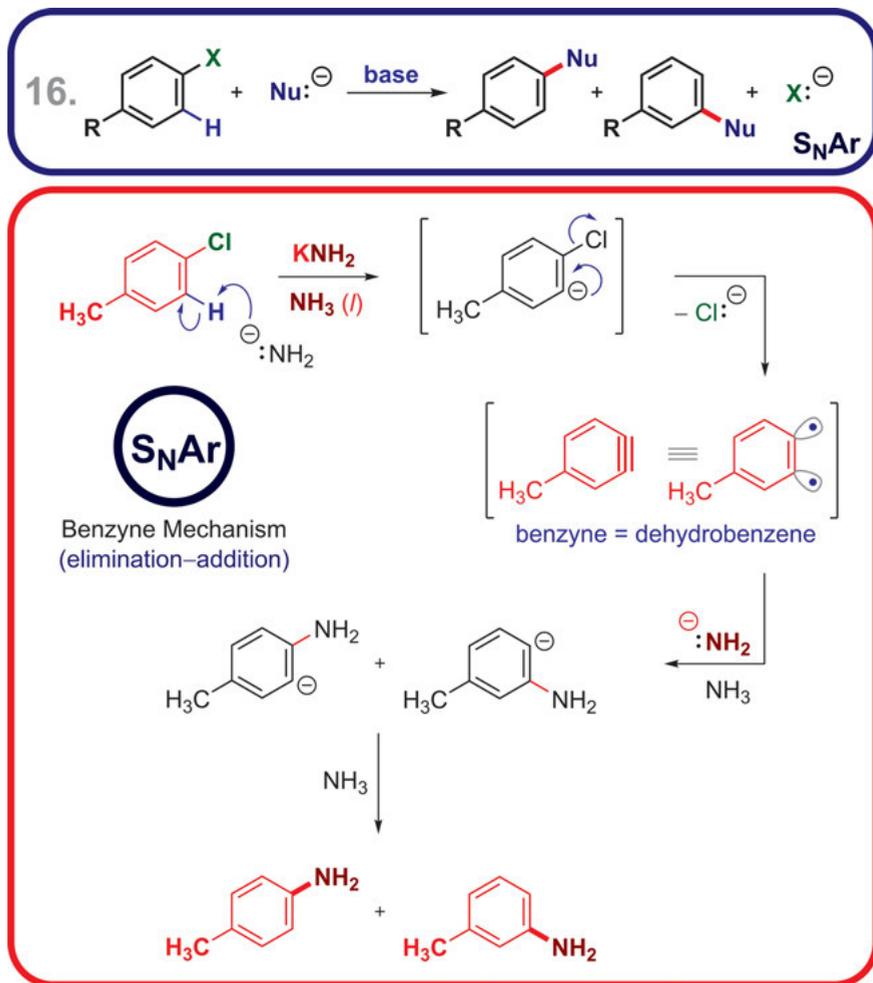


Fig. 16.1: The benzyne (elimination-addition) mechanism.⁴⁹

⁴⁹ The benzyne mechanism is one of the fundamental aromatic nucleophilic substitution mechanisms; it is also called the elimination-addition mechanism, that is, the opposite of $\text{S}_{\text{N}}\text{Ar}$ ($\text{S}_{\text{N}}2\text{Ar}$), or the addition-elimination mechanism (covered in Chapter 4).

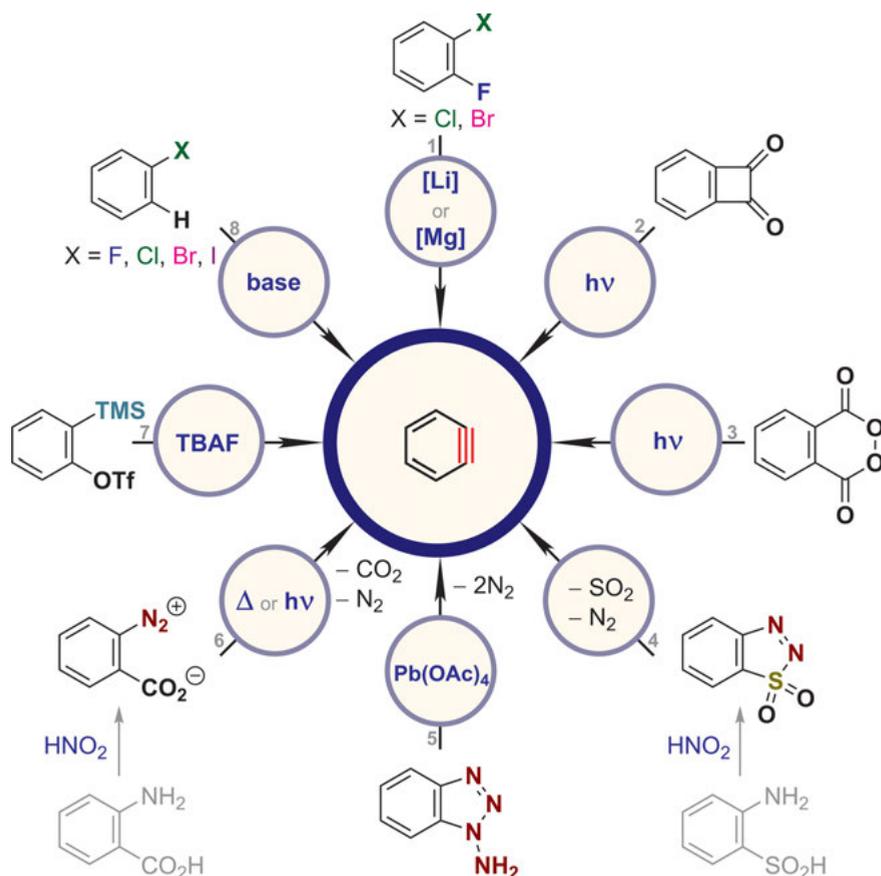


Fig. 16.2: Various synthetic methods leading to the formation of benzyne.⁵⁰

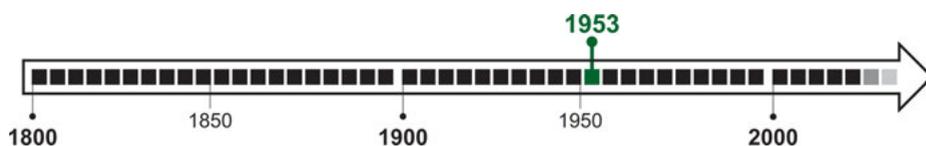


Fig. 16.3: The discovery of the *benzyne mechanism*.⁵¹

⁵⁰ Since its first discovery, numerous methods evolved leading to the formation of the *benzyne* intermediate (*aryne*). Please note, *benzyne* (*aryne*) can also be called *dehydrobenzene* (*dehydroarene*) [16a, 16b].

⁵¹ The mechanism in its present form was likely first proposed around 1953 [16c].

17 Bergman Cyclization

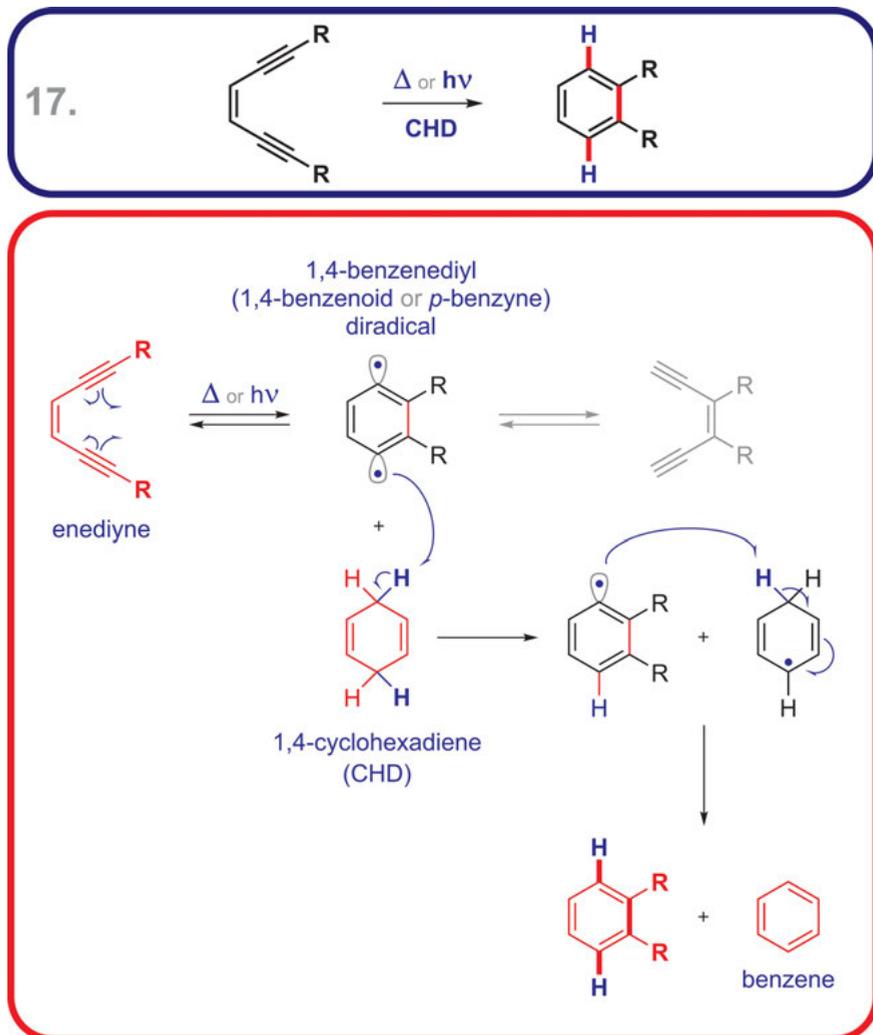


Fig. 17.1: The **Bergman** cyclization mechanism.⁵²

⁵² The **Bergman** cyclization is also known as the **Bergman** reaction (isomerization, cycloaromatization).

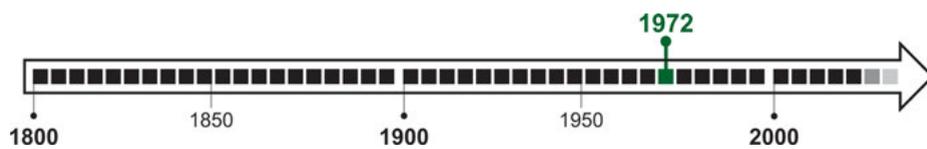


Fig. 17.2: The discovery of the *Bergman* cyclization.⁵³

⁵³ The reaction was likely first described around 1972 [17].

18 Birch Reduction

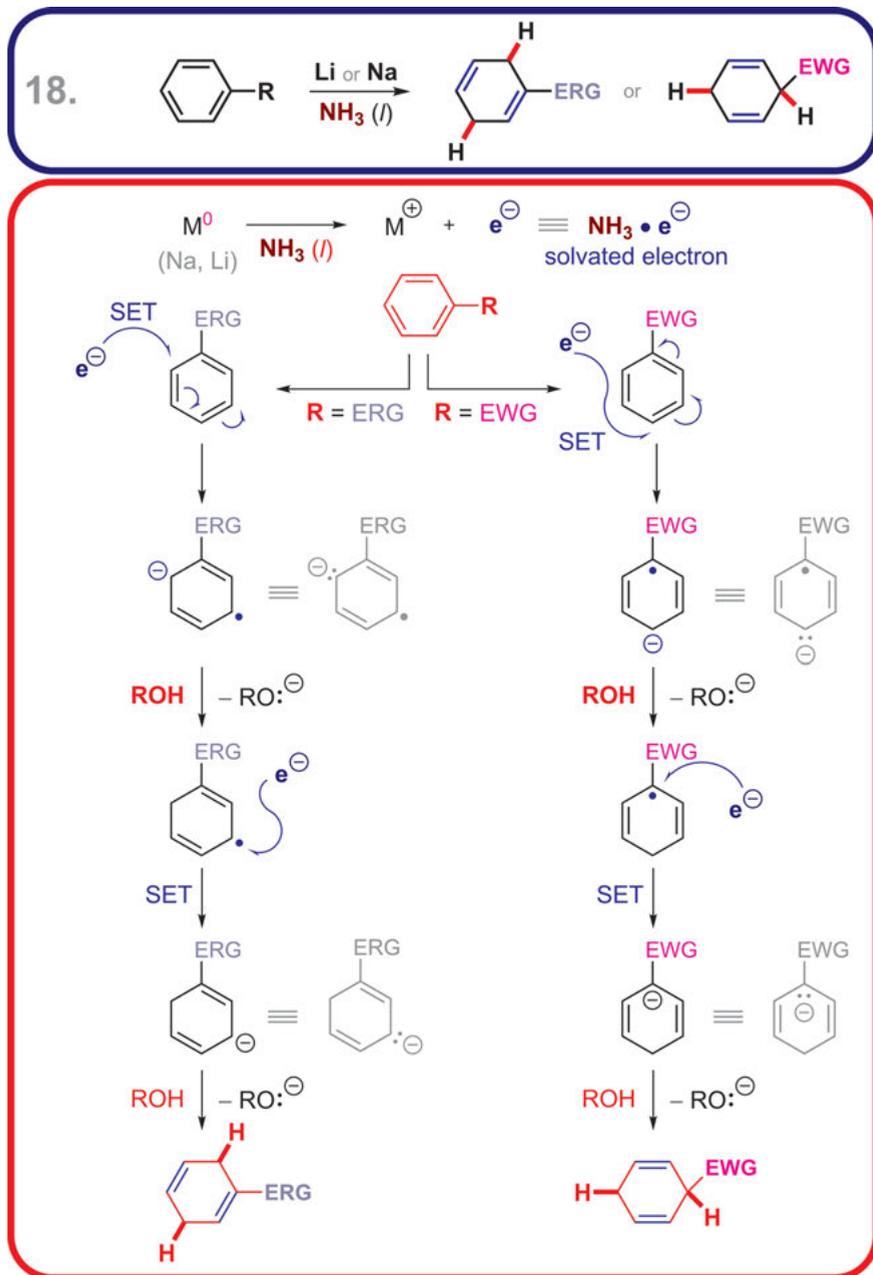


Fig. 18.1: The *Birch reduction* mechanism.⁵⁴

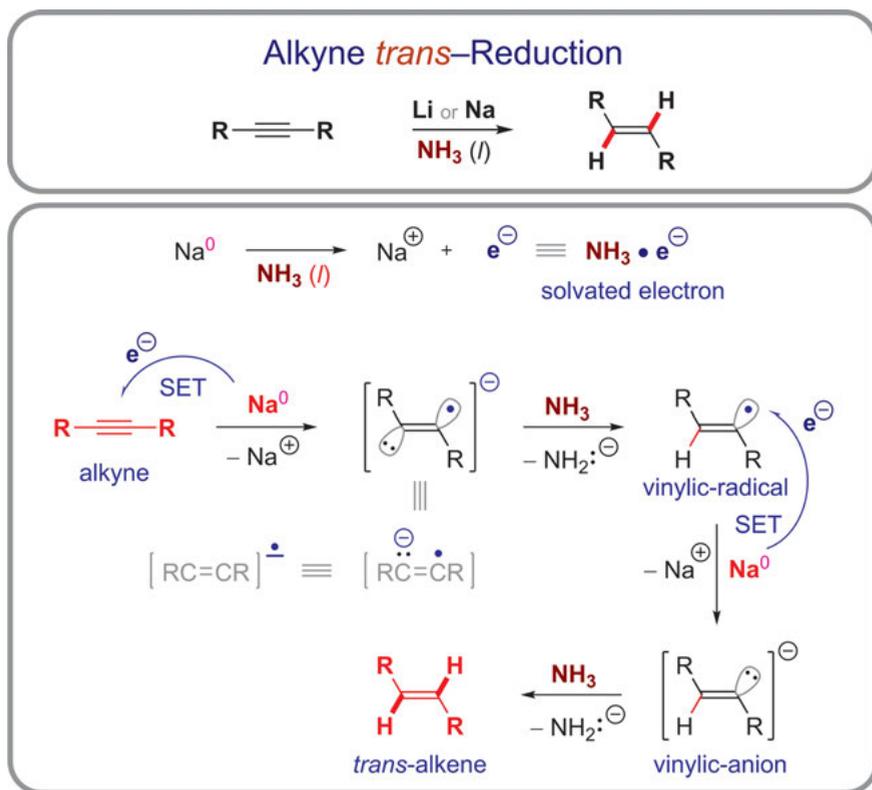


Fig. 18.2: The alkyne *trans*-reduction mechanism.⁵⁵

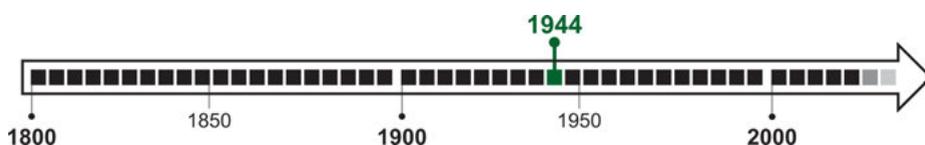


Fig. 18.3: The discovery of the **Birch** reduction.⁵⁶

⁵⁴ The first step in the **Birch** reduction mechanism is a *single electron transfer* (SET) (see Chapter 5). The regiochemistry of the formed products depends on the nature of the substitution (ERG versus EWG).

⁵⁵ The alkyne *trans*-reduction (*alkyne metal reduction*) mechanism is much like the **Birch** reduction. Please note, under the **Birch** reduction conditions alkynes are reduced to **trans**-alkenes [18a, 18b]. Under Pd/C-catalyzed conditions, the **cis**-alkene is usually the major product.

⁵⁶ The reaction was likely first described around 1944 [18c].

19 Bischler–Napieralski Cyclization

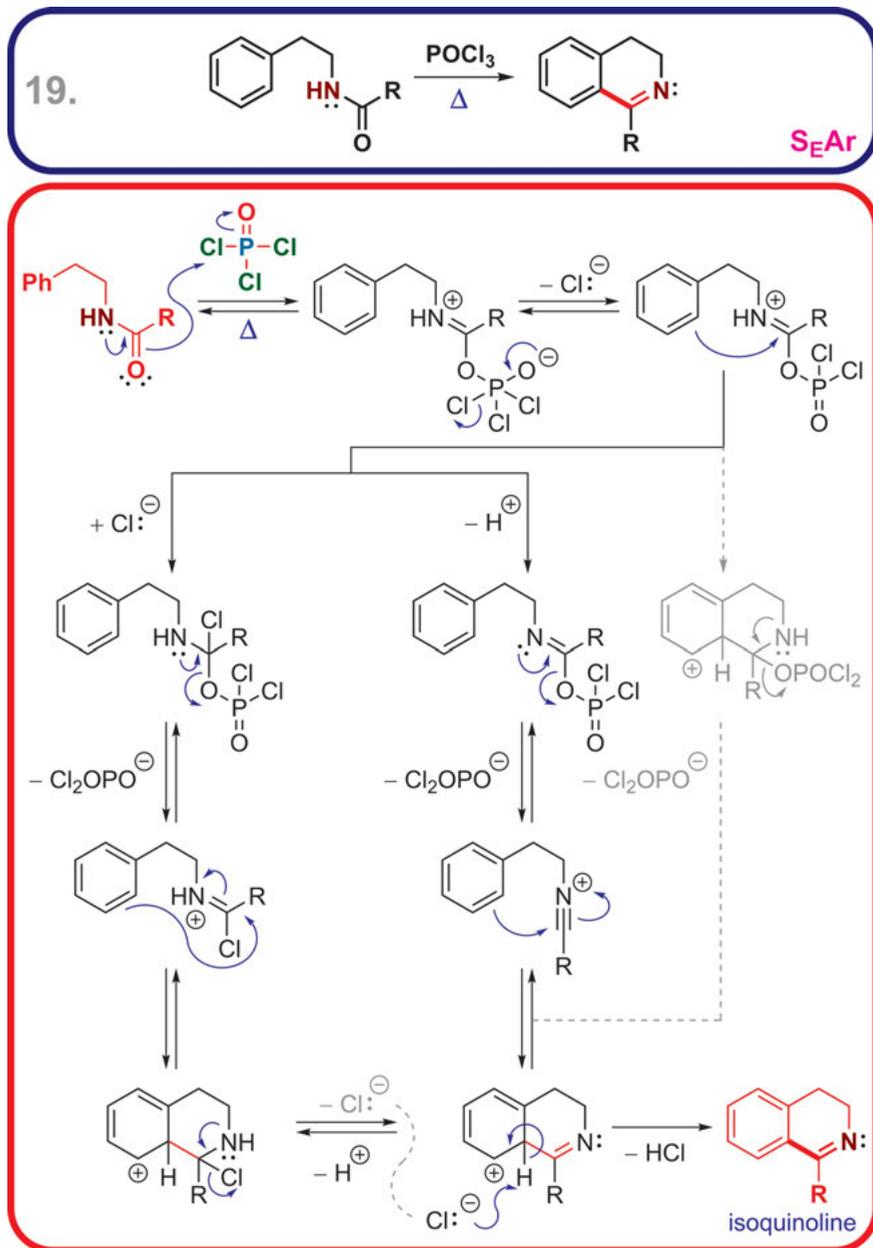


Fig. 19.1: The *Bischler–Napieralski* cyclization mechanism.⁵⁷

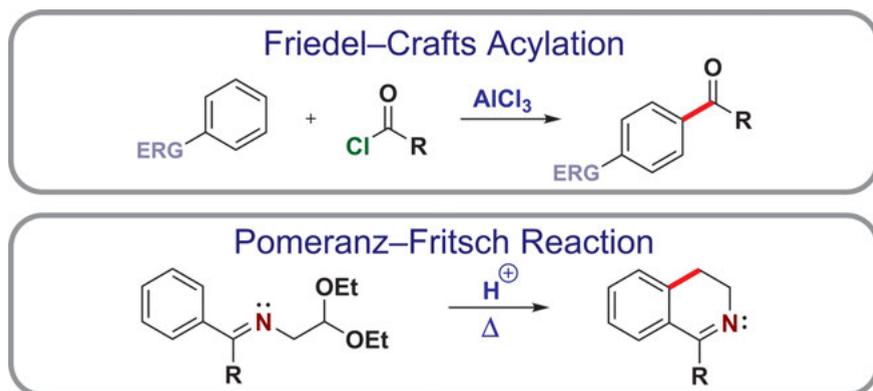


Fig. 19.2: Reactions related to the *Bischler–Napieralski* cyclization.⁵⁸



Fig. 19.3: The discovery of the *Bischler–Napieralski* cyclization.⁵⁹

⁵⁷ The *Bischler–Napieralski* cyclization also called the *Bischler–Napieralski* reaction. It is a classic example of **aromatic electrophilic substitution** (the **arenium ion** mechanism or S_EAr , Chapter 3).

⁵⁸ Several named reactions are related to the *Bischler–Napieralski* cyclization: the *Friedel–Crafts acylation* and *alkylation* (covered in Chapter 39), and the closely related *Pomeranz–Fritsch* reaction, which is an alternative way to make *isoquinolines* [19a, 19b].

⁵⁹ The reaction was likely first described around 1893 [19c].

20 Brown Hydroboration

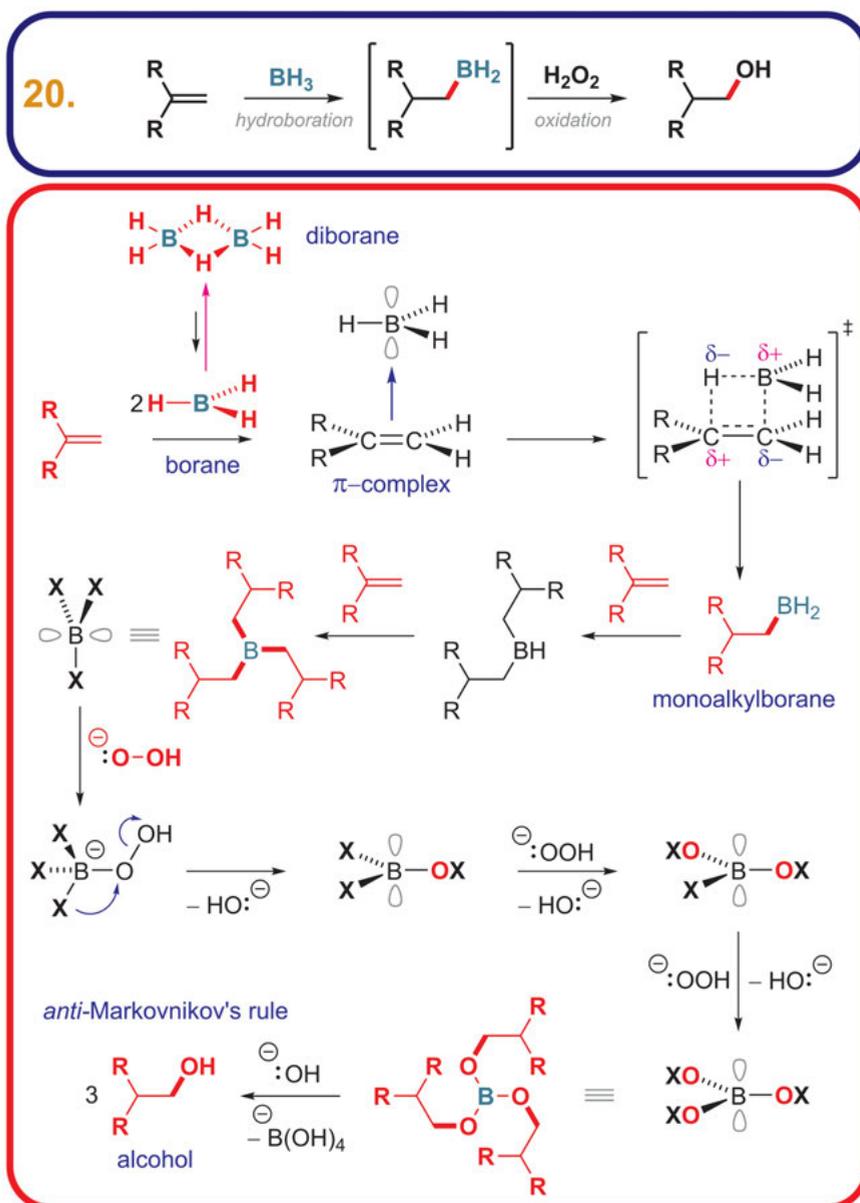


Fig. 20.1: The **Brown hydroboration** mechanism.⁶⁰

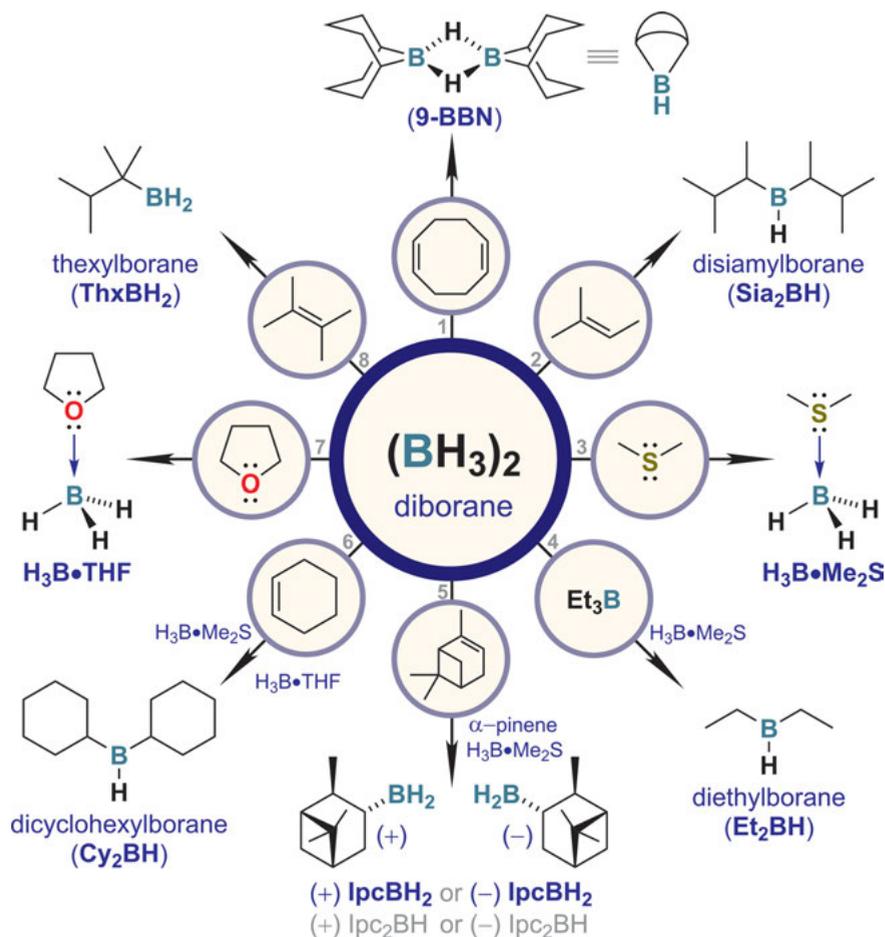


Fig. 20.2: Various borane derivatives formed from diborane.⁶¹

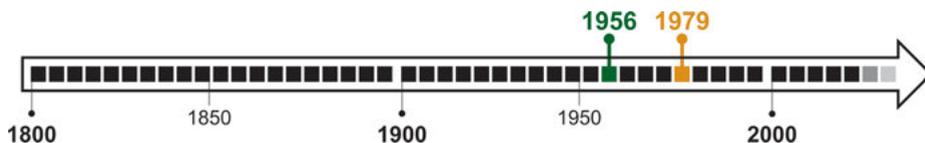


Fig. 20.3: The discovery of the **Brown hydroboration**.⁶²

60 The **Brown hydroboration** is also known as the *hydroboration-oxidation*. The mechanism is believed to be concerted and *anti-Markovnikov's* product is usually formed. Compare to Chapter 52.

61 There are numerous examples of the borane complexes ($\text{BH}_3\cdot\text{X}$); the monoalkylborane (RBH_2); and dialkylborane (R_2BH) reagents, which can be prepared from the *diborane* (B_2H_6) via the *hydroboration reaction*: 9-BBN reagent is one of the most important among them [20a].

62 The reaction was likely described around 1956 [20b]. In 1979, Herbert C. Brown (jointly with Georg Wittig) received the Nobel Prize in Chemistry for the development of boron chemistry [20c].

21 Buchwald–Hartwig Cross Coupling

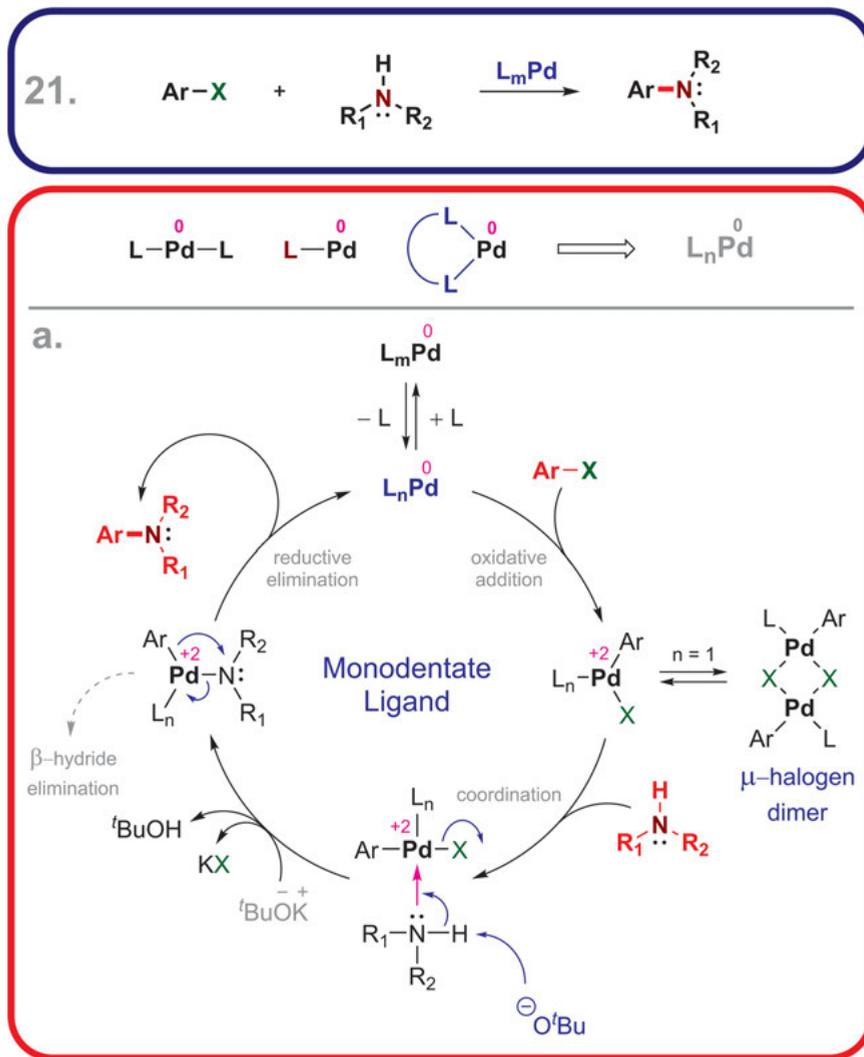


Fig. 21.1: The **Buchwald–Hartwig** cross coupling mechanism (monodentate ligand).⁶³

63 The **Buchwald–Hartwig** cross coupling (amination) is a type of **Pd-catalyzed cross coupling** reaction (C–N bond formation using *aryl halides* and *amines*). The mechanism varies and is usually substrate and ligand dependent. For teaching purposes, a simplified and general example is shown, which may take place in the presence of a *monodentate ligand*.

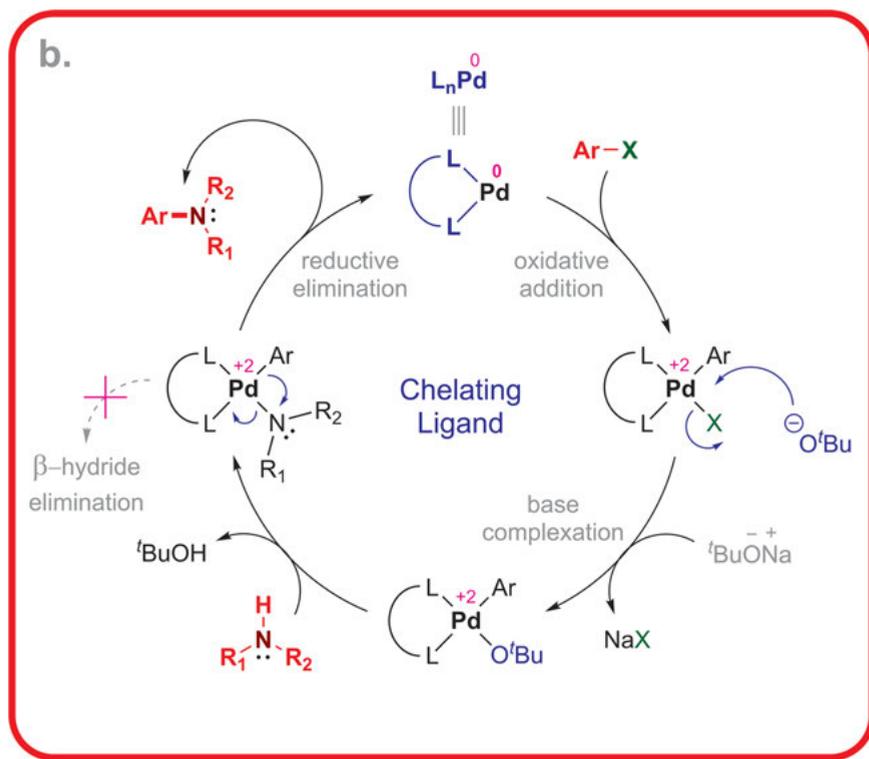


Fig. 21.2: The **Buchwald–Hartwig cross coupling** mechanism (chelating ligand).⁶⁴

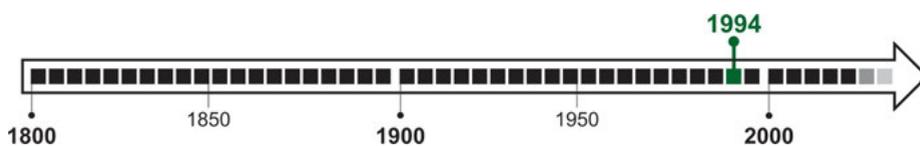


Fig. 21.3: The discovery of the **Buchwald–Hartwig cross coupling**.⁶⁵

⁶⁴ For teaching purposes, a simplified and general example is shown, which may take place in the presence of a *chelating ligand*.

⁶⁵ The reaction was likely first described around 1994 [21].

22 Cannizzaro Reaction

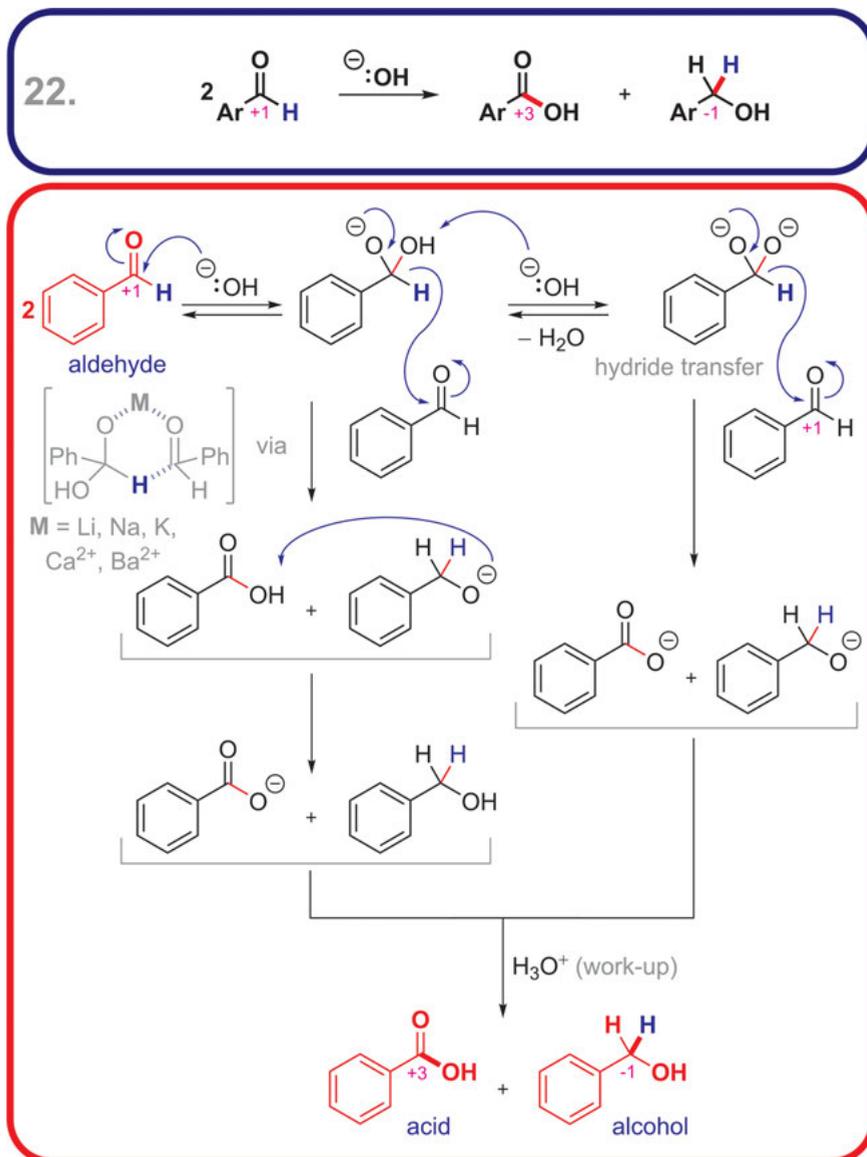


Fig. 22.1: The *Cannizzaro* reaction mechanism.⁶⁶

⁶⁶ The *Cannizzaro* reaction is seldom called the *Cannizzaro disproportionation* (RedOx) reaction. It is one of the oldest reactions in organic chemistry.

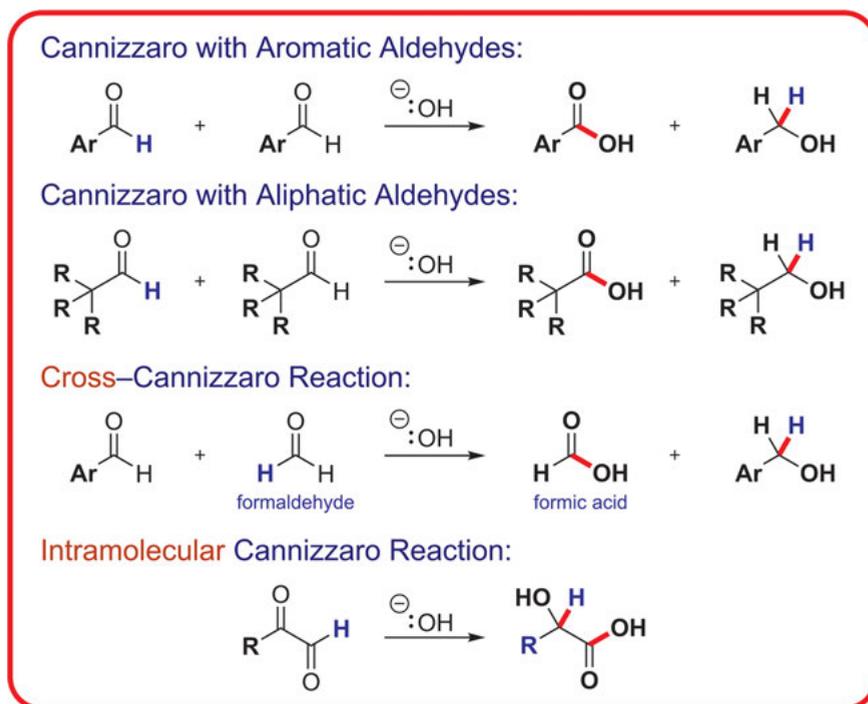


Fig. 22.2: Variations of the *Cannizzaro* reaction.⁶⁷

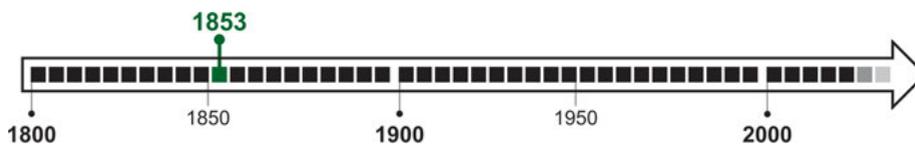


Fig. 22.3: The discovery of the *Cannizzaro* reaction.⁶⁸

⁶⁷ There are many variations of the *Cannizzaro* reaction: the *Cannizzaro* reaction with aromatic and aliphatic aldehydes containing no α -hydrogen atoms, and the *cross-Cannizzaro* reaction and the *intramolecular Cannizzaro* reaction [1].

⁶⁸ The reaction was likely first described around 1853 [22].

23 Chan–Evans–Lam Cross Coupling

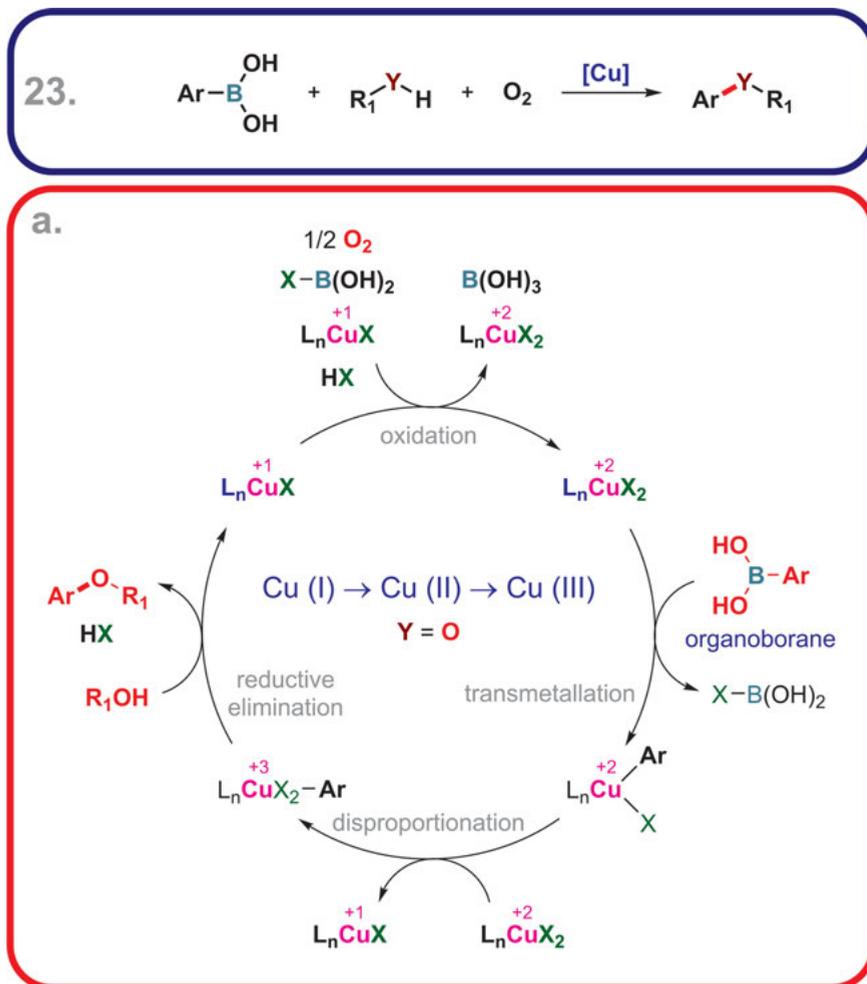


Fig. 23.1: The *Chan–Evans–Lam* cross coupling mechanism ($\text{Y} = \text{O}$).⁶⁹

⁶⁹ The *Chan–Evans–Lam* cross coupling (also simply called the *Chan–Lam* cross coupling) is a type of *Cu*-catalyzed cross coupling reaction (C–O and C–N bond formation using *aryl boronic acids* and *alcohols* or *amines*). The mechanism is not well-understood and is usually very substrate and ligand dependent. For teaching purposes, a simplified and general example is shown, which may take place in etherification reactions (C–O bond formation, $\text{Y} = \text{O}$) [23a, 23b].

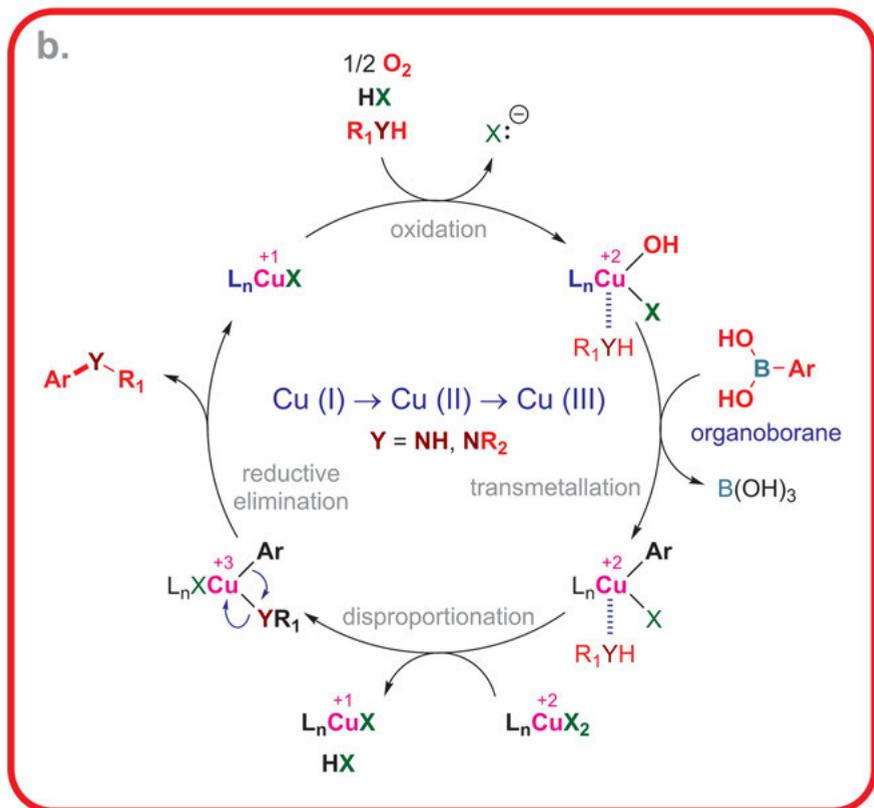


Fig. 23.2: The *Chan–Evans–Lam* cross coupling mechanism ($\text{Y} = \text{NH}, \text{NR}_2$).⁷⁰

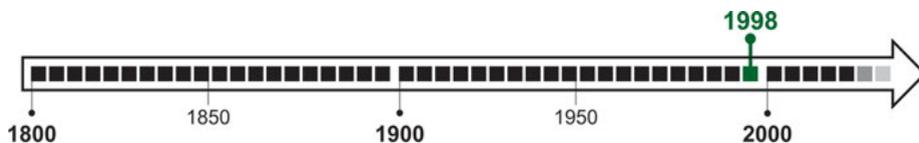


Fig. 23.3: The discovery of the *Chan–Evans–Lam* cross coupling.⁷¹

⁷⁰ The mechanism is not well-understood and is usually very substrate and ligand dependent. For teaching purposes, a simplified and general example is shown, which may take place in amination reactions (C–N bond formation, $\text{Y} = \text{NH}, \text{NR}_2$) [23c].

⁷¹ The reaction was likely first described around 1998 [23d, 23e, 23f].

24 Chichibabin Amination

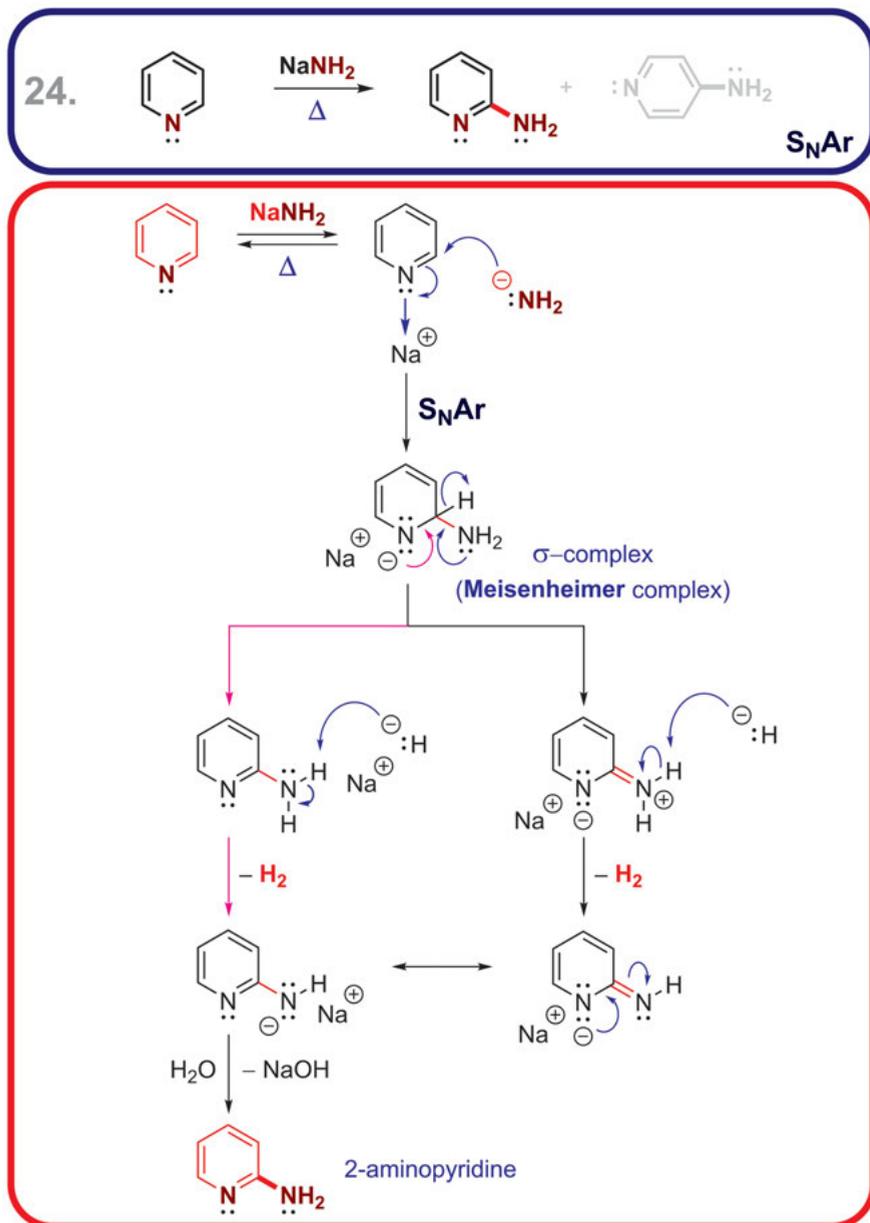


Fig. 24.1: The *Chichibabin* amination mechanism.⁷²

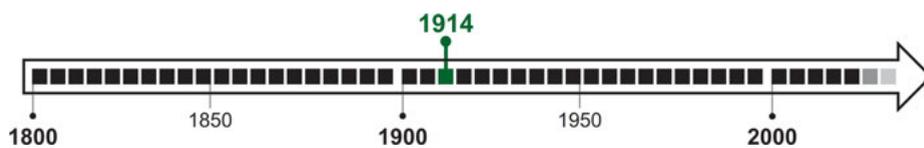


Fig. 24.2: The discovery of the *Chichibabin amination*.⁷³

⁷² The *Chichibabin amination* (in Russian Чичибабин) is also called the *Chichibabin reaction*. It is a classic example of **aromatic nucleophilic substitution**. Specifically, it undergoes the *addition-elimination* mechanism: S_NAr (S_N2Ar), covered in Chapter 4.

⁷³ The reaction was likely first described around 1914 [24].

25 Claisen Condensation

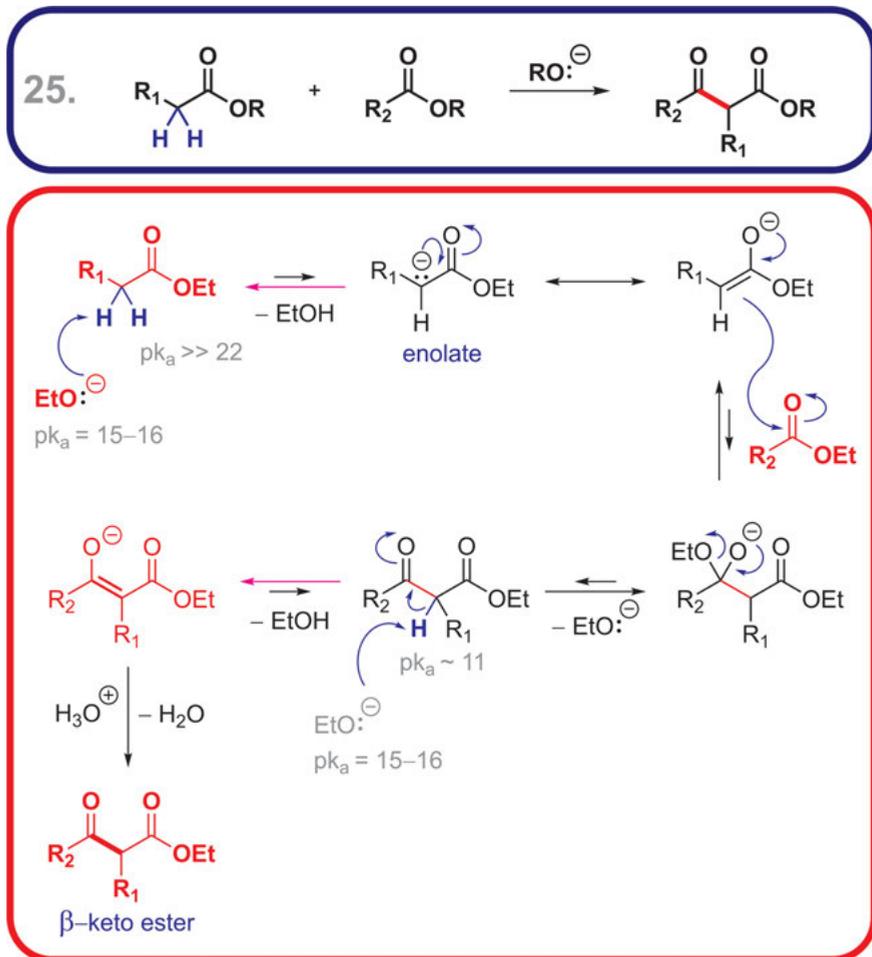


Fig. 25.1: The **Claisen condensation** mechanism.⁷⁴

⁷⁴ The **Claisen condensation** is a condensation reaction between an *ester* and another carbonyl compound containing two enolizable H-atoms (α -hydrogen atoms).

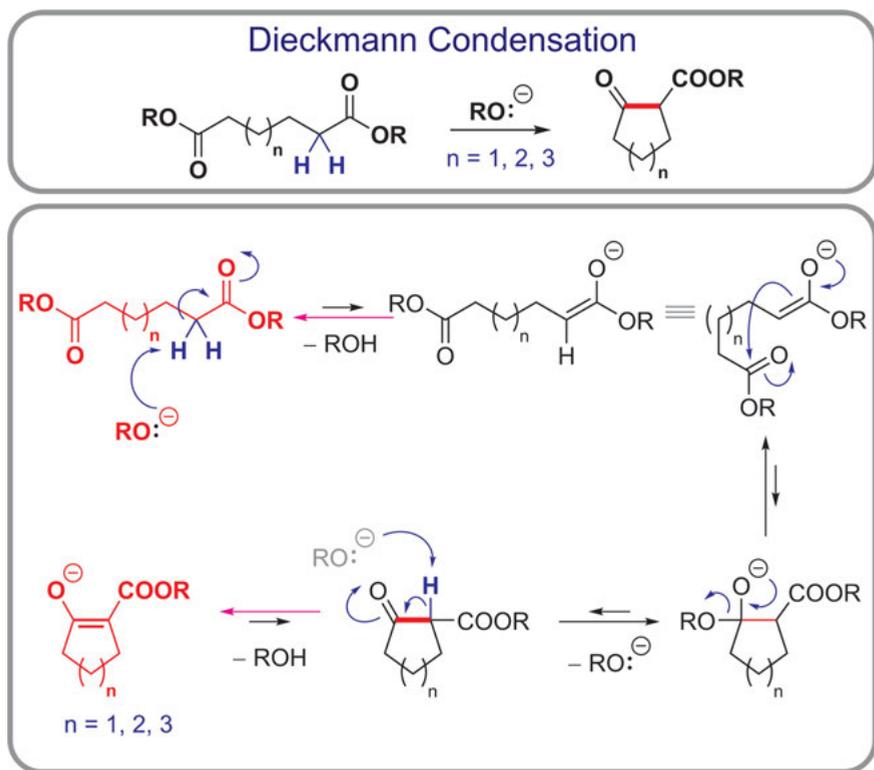


Fig. 25.2: The *Dieckmann* condensation mechanism.⁷⁵

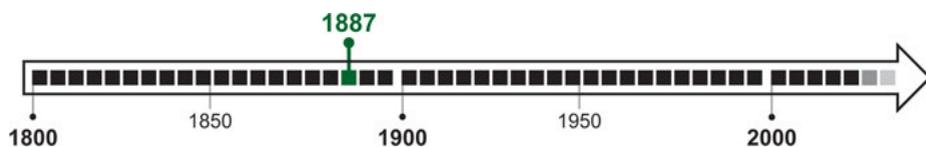


Fig. 25.3: The discovery of the *Claisen* condensation.⁷⁶

⁷⁵ The *Dieckmann* condensation is the intramolecular *Claisen* condensation and their mechanisms are almost identical. The *Dieckmann* condensation is ideal for the formation of 5-, 6-, and 7-membered rings [25a].

⁷⁶ The reaction was likely first described around 1887 [25b].

26 Claisen Rearrangement

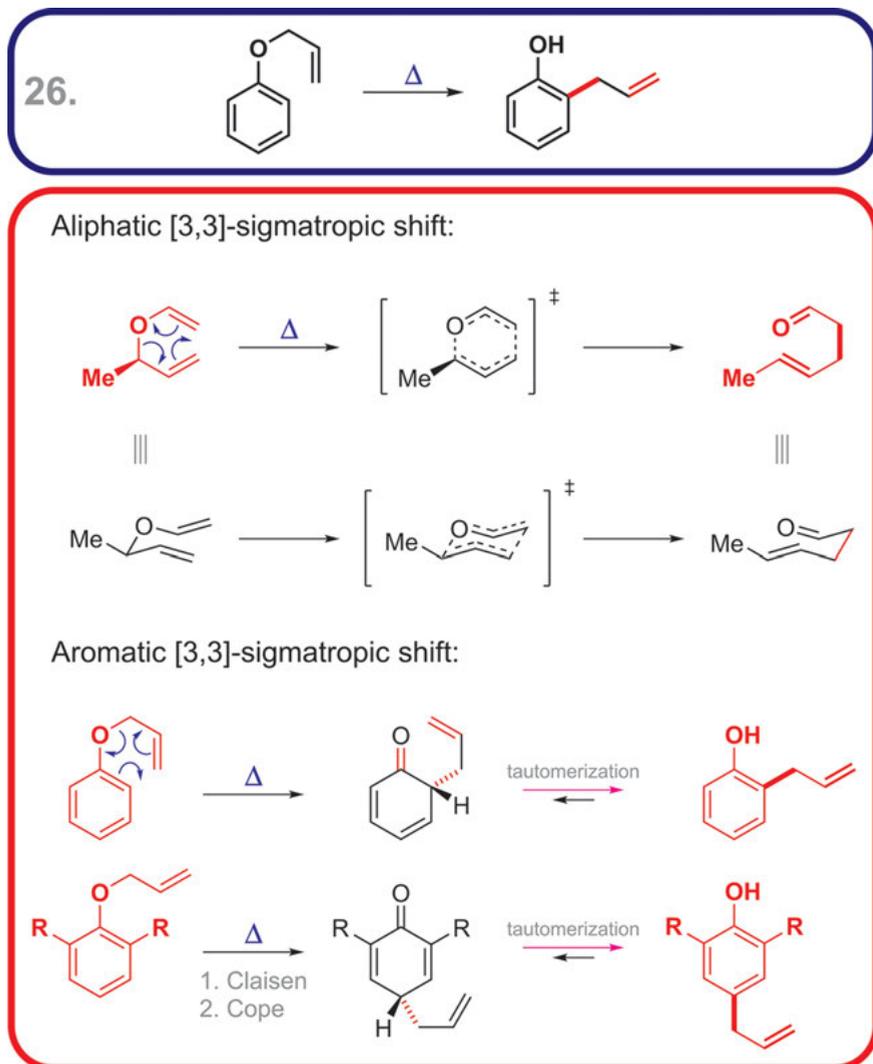


Fig. 26.1: The **Claisen** rearrangement mechanism.⁷⁷

⁷⁷ The **Claisen** rearrangement (different from the **Claisen** condensation and much like the **Cope** rearrangement, see Chapter 28) is a pericyclic reaction with a concerted mechanism. This is a classic example of a [3,3]-sigmatropic rearrangement (*shift*).

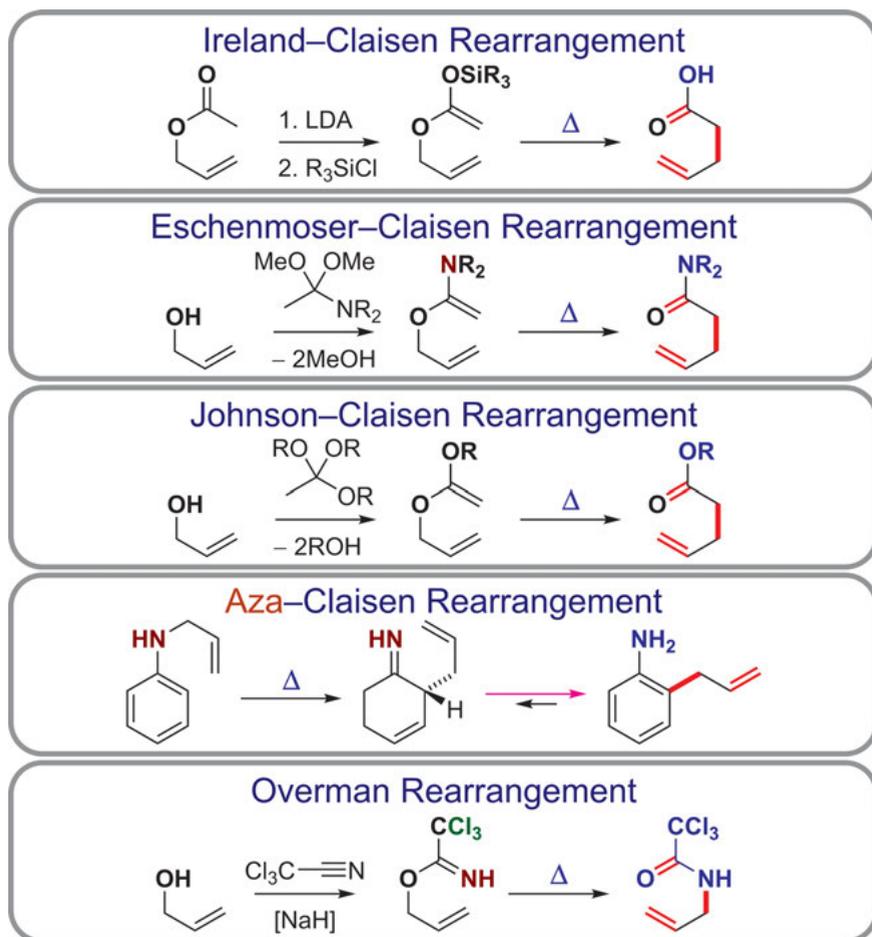


Fig. 26.2: Reactions related to the *Claisen* rearrangement.⁷⁸

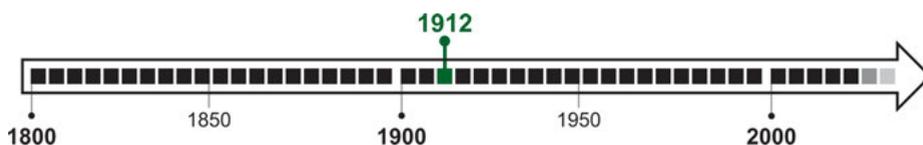


Fig. 26.3: The discovery of the *Claisen* rearrangement.⁷⁹

⁷⁸ There are numerous variations and modifications of the *Claisen* rearrangement reaction, to name a few: the *Ireland–Claisen* rearrangement, the *Eschenmoser–Claisen* rearrangement, the *Johnson–Claisen* rearrangement, the *aza–Claisen* (*aza–Cope*) rearrangement, the *Overman* rearrangement, and others [26a].

⁷⁹ The reaction was likely first described around 1912 [26b].

27 Cope Elimination

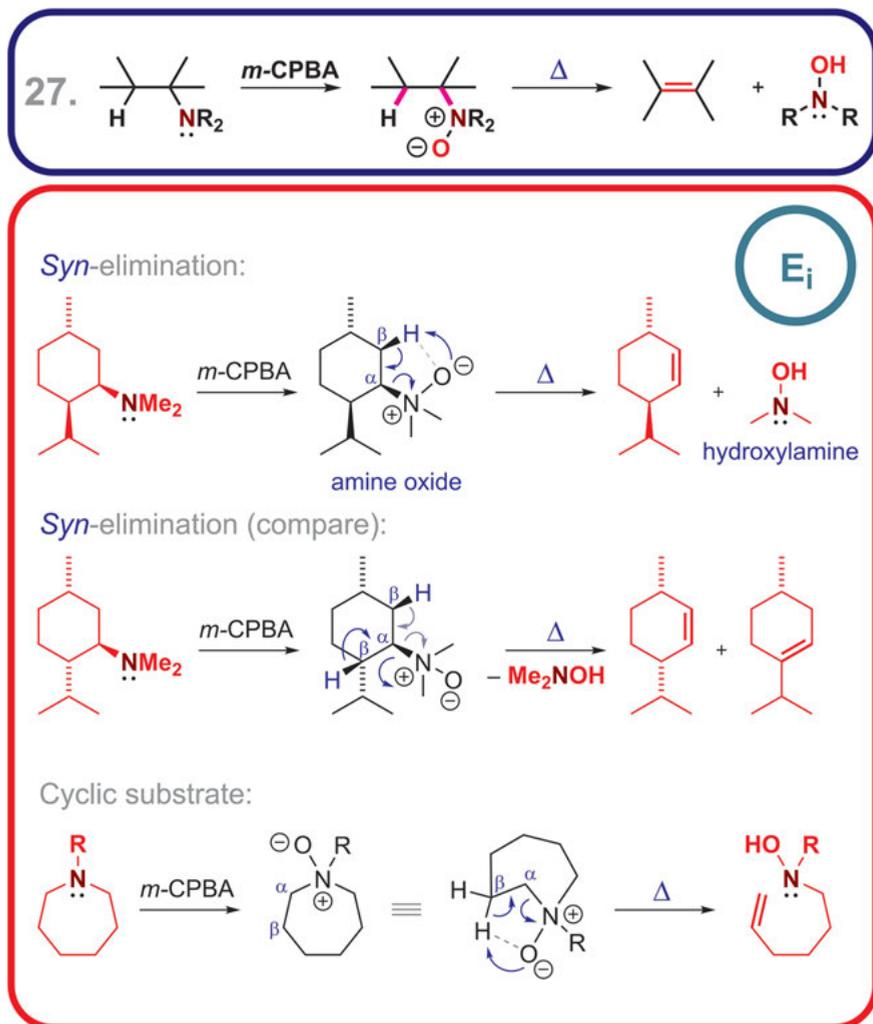


Fig. 27.1: The *Cope* elimination mechanism.⁸⁰

⁸⁰ The *Cope* elimination or the *Cope* reaction is an example of the 5-membered internal or intramolecular β -elimination reaction (E_i), mentioned in Chapter 6.

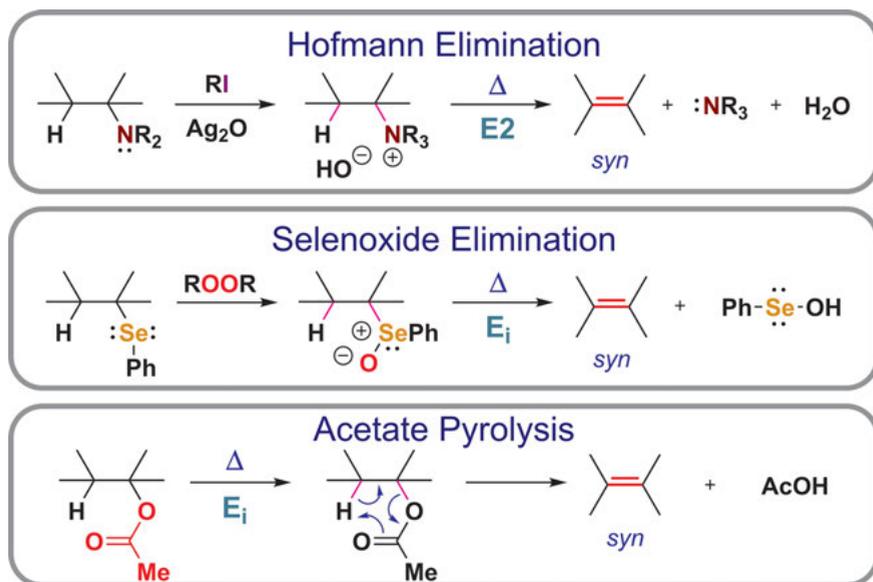


Fig. 27.2: Reactions related to the *Cope* elimination.⁸¹

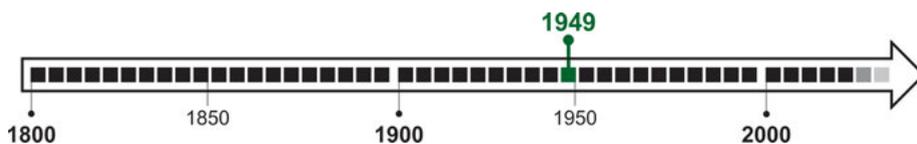


Fig. 27.3: The discovery of the *Cope* elimination.⁸²

⁸¹ Several reactions are related to the *Cope* elimination: the *Hofmann* elimination (usually E_2 -type elimination, rarely E_i , covered in Chapter 49), the *selenoxide* elimination [27a, 27b], the *acetate* pyrolysis [1], and others (not mentioned here).

⁸² The reaction was likely first described around 1949 [27c].

28 Cope Rearrangement

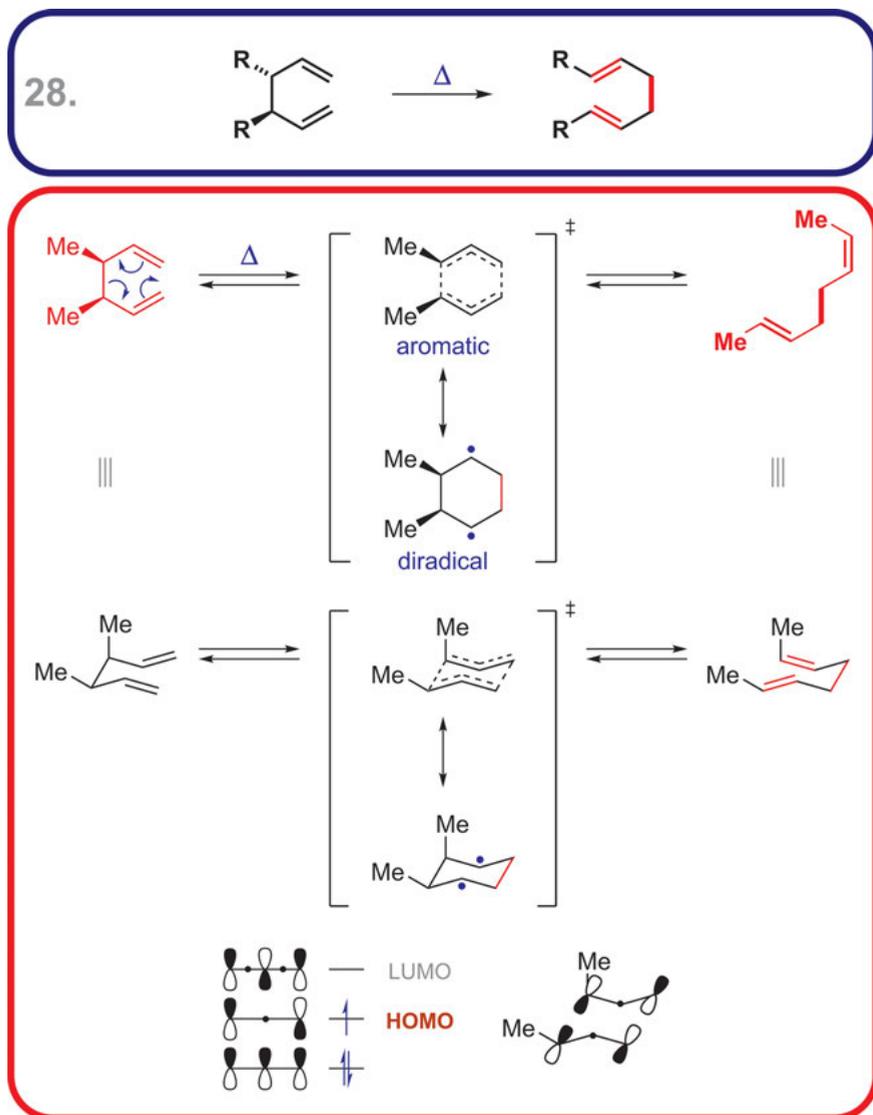


Fig. 28.1: The **Cope** rearrangement mechanism.⁸³

83 The **Cope** rearrangement (different from the **Cope** elimination and much like the **Claisen** rearrangement, see Chapter 26) is a pericyclic reaction with a concerted mechanism. This is a classic example of a [3,3']-sigmatropic rearrangement (also referred to as [3,3']-sigmatropic shift).

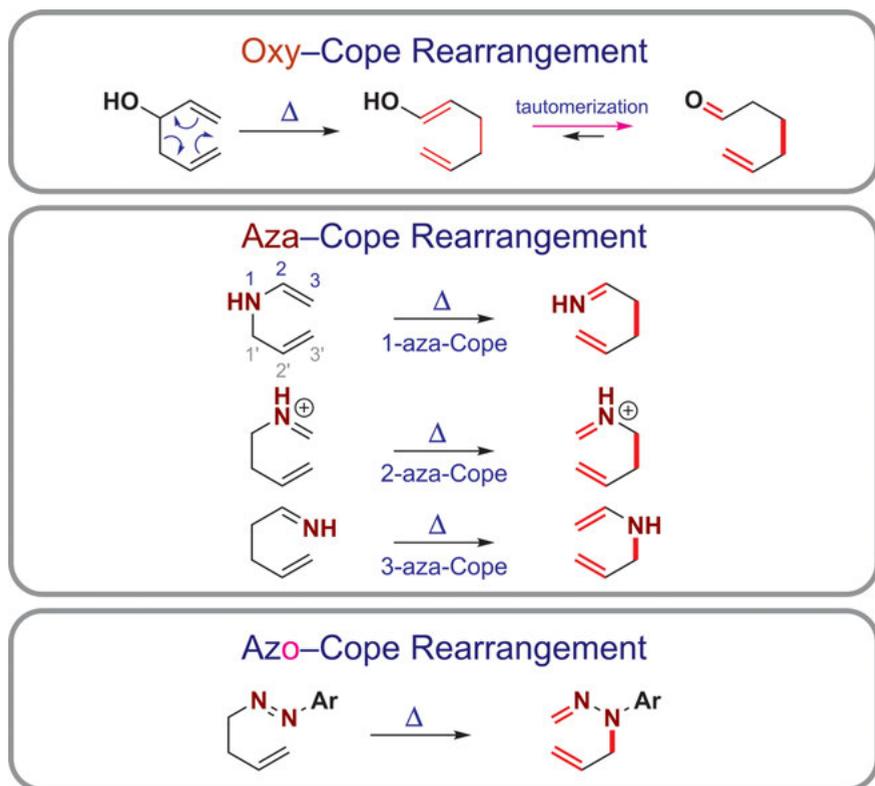


Fig. 28.2: Reactions related to the *Cope* rearrangement.⁸⁴

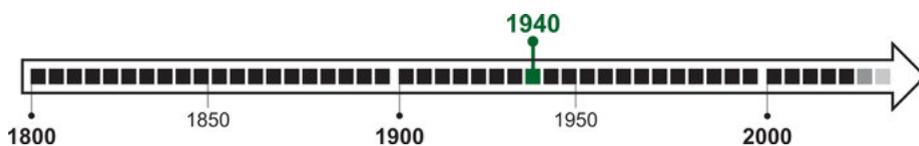


Fig. 28.3: The discovery of the *Cope* rearrangement.⁸⁵

⁸⁴ There are numerous variations of the *Cope* rearrangement [1], such as: the (*anionic*) *oxy-Cope* rearrangement, the *aza-Cope* and/or *aza-Claisen* rearrangement (confusing), the *azo-Cope* rearrangement [28a].

⁸⁵ The reaction was likely first described around 1940 [28b].

29 Criegee & Malaprade Oxidation

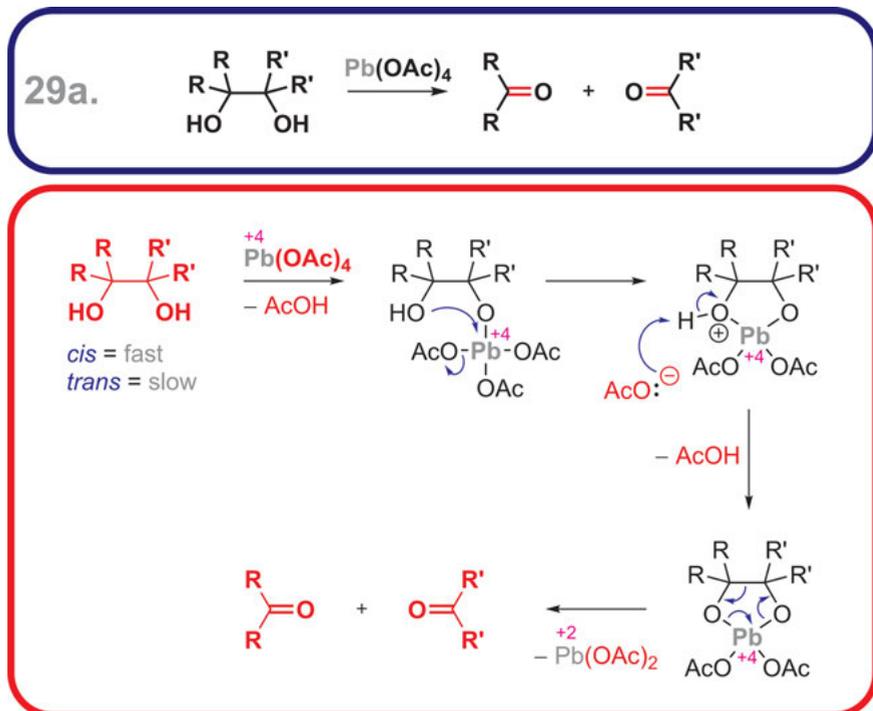


Fig. 29.1: The *Criegee* oxidation mechanism.⁸⁶

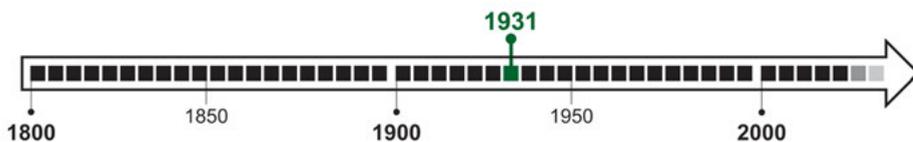


Fig. 29.2: The discovery of the *Criegee* oxidation.⁸⁷

⁸⁶ The *Criegee* oxidation or simply the *Criegee* reaction is different from the *Criegee* mechanism proposed for ozonolysis (covered in Chapter 70).

⁸⁷ The reaction was likely first described around 1931 [29a].

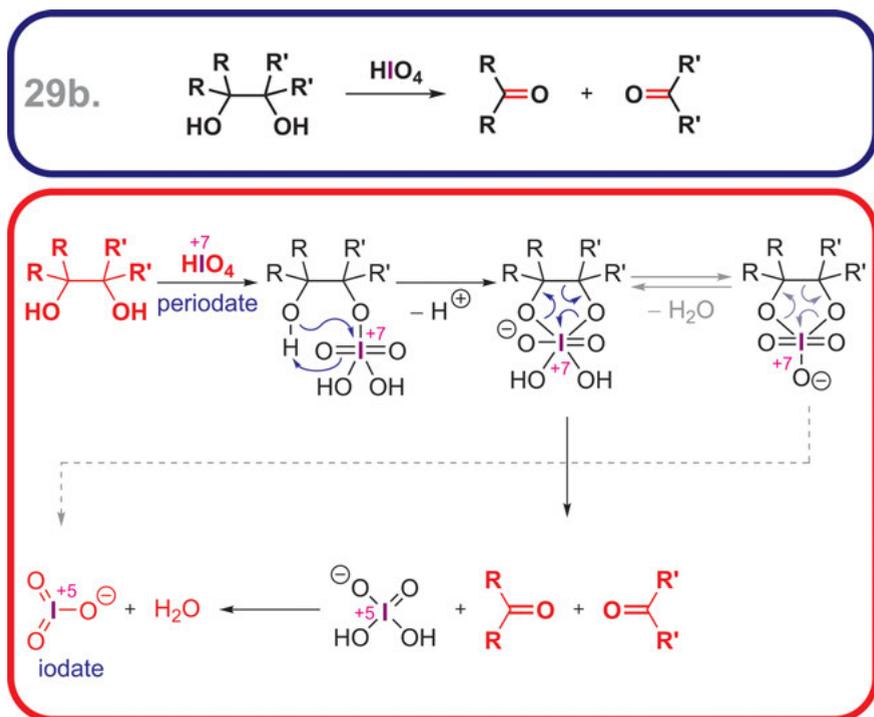


Fig. 29.3: The *Malaprade* oxidation mechanism.⁸⁸

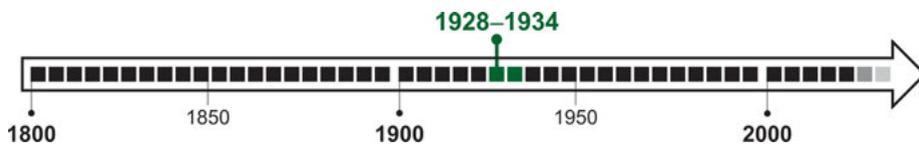


Fig. 29.4: The discovery of the *Malaprade* oxidation.⁸⁹

⁸⁸ The *Malaprade* oxidation is analogous to the *Criegee* reaction.

⁸⁹ The reaction was likely first described between 1928 and 1934 [29b, 29c].

30 CuAAC

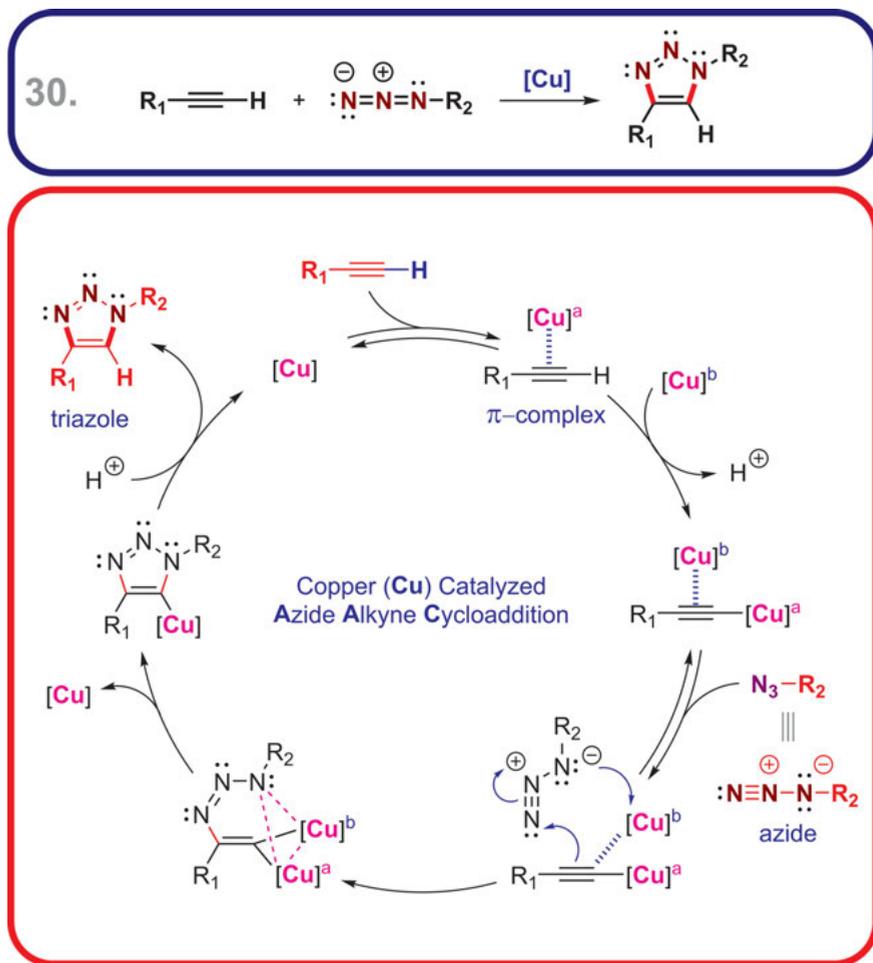


Fig. 30.1: The CuAAC mechanism.⁹⁰

⁹⁰ The acronym **CuAAC** stands for **Cu**-catalyzed **Azide-Alkyne Cycloaddition** (Copper(I)-catalyzed azide-alkyne cycloaddition). It is also often referred to as "**click chemistry**". Formally, it is a *1,3-dipolar cycloaddition reaction* or a (3+2)-cycloaddition reaction. Please note, the notation (3+2) means the atom count is used; the notation [4+2] means the electron count involved in the reaction is used [30a]. IUPAC does not recommend mixed usage, but it is seen frequently in the literature: [3+2].

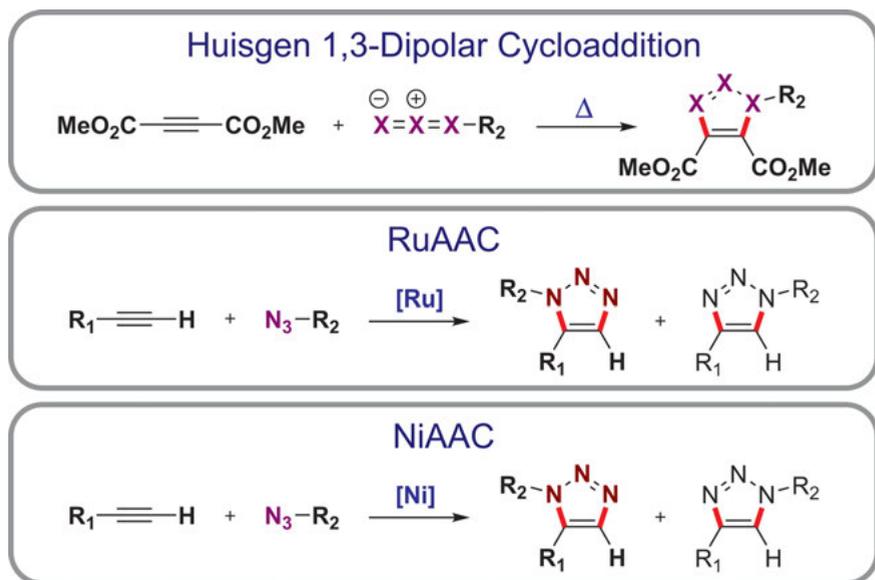


Fig. 30.2: Reactions related to the CuAAC.⁹¹

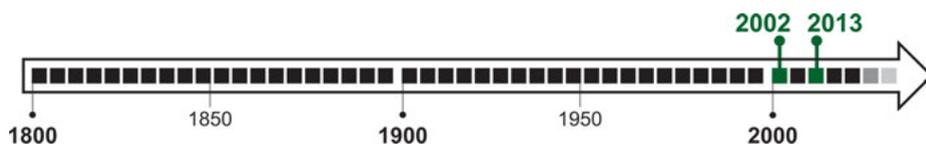


Fig. 30.3: The discovery of the CuAAC.⁹²

⁹¹ The **Huisgen cycloaddition** [30b, 30c] is not catalytic but related to **CuAAC**. The *azide-alkyne cycloaddition* can also be catalyzed by Ruthenium (**RuAAC**) or Nickel (**NiAAC**), however, it undergoes a different mechanism (not shown).

⁹² The reaction was likely first described around 2002 [30d, 30e] and the mechanism, in its current form, proposed around 2013 [30f].

31 Curtius Rearrangement

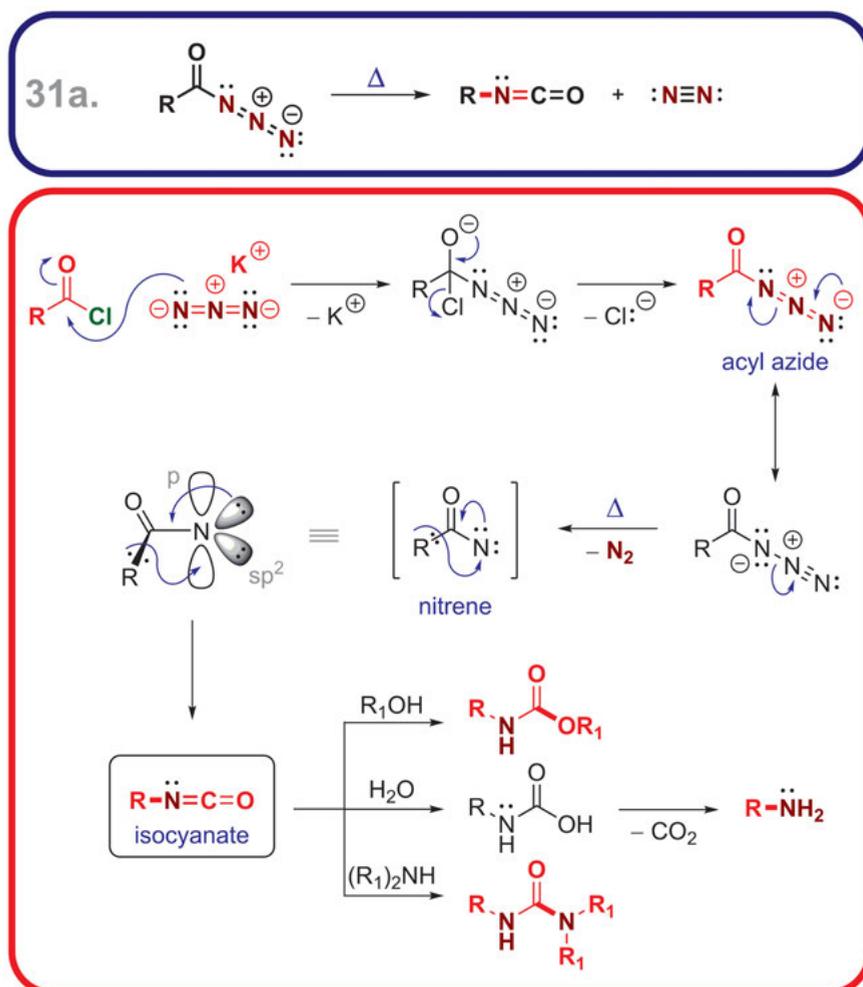


Fig. 31.1: The *Curtius* rearrangement mechanism.⁹³

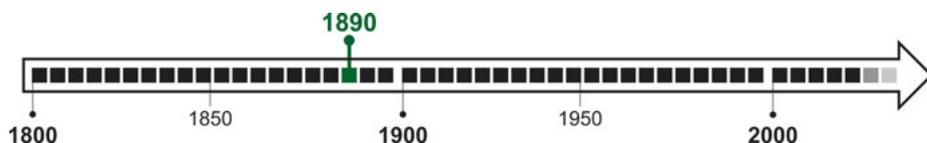


Fig. 31.2: The discovery of the *Curtius* rearrangement.⁹⁴

⁹³ The *Curtius* rearrangement is also called the *Curtius* reaction.

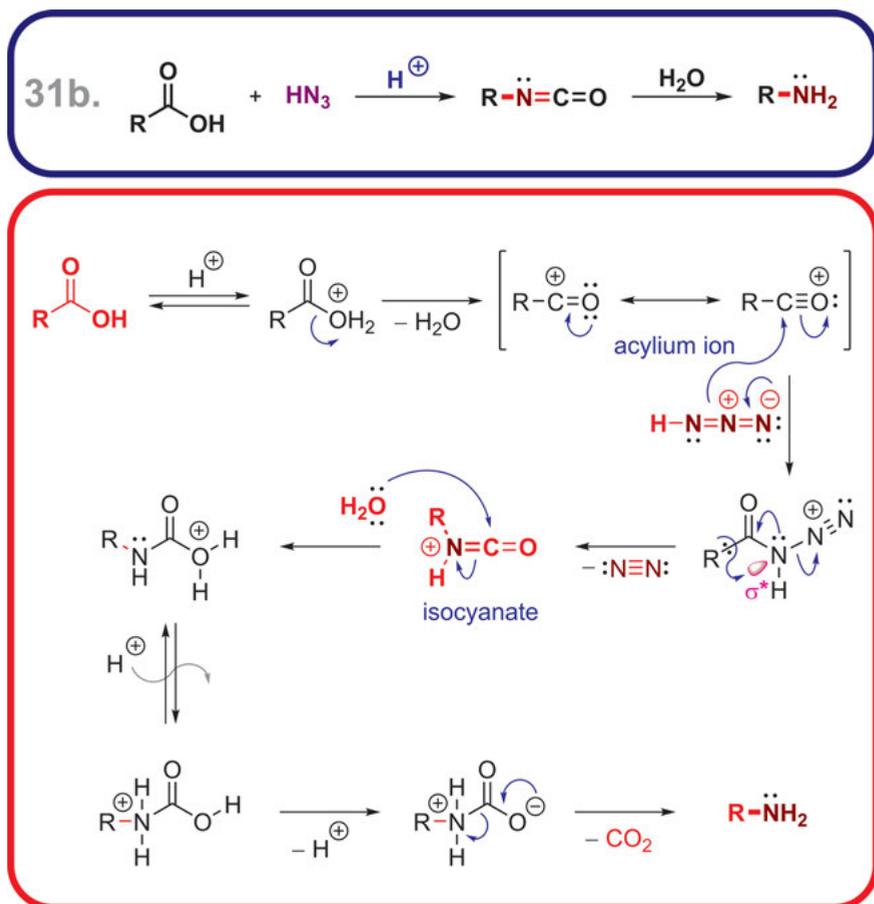


Fig. 31.3: The *Schmidt reaction* mechanism.⁹⁵

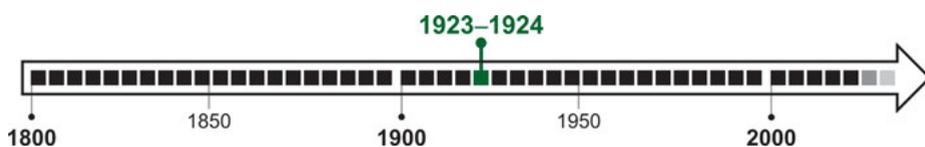


Fig. 31.4: The discovery of the *Schmidt reaction* mechanism.⁹⁶

94 The reaction was likely first described around 1890 [31a, 31b].

95 The *Schmidt reaction* is also a rearrangement.

96 The reaction was likely first described between 1923–1924 [31c, 31d].

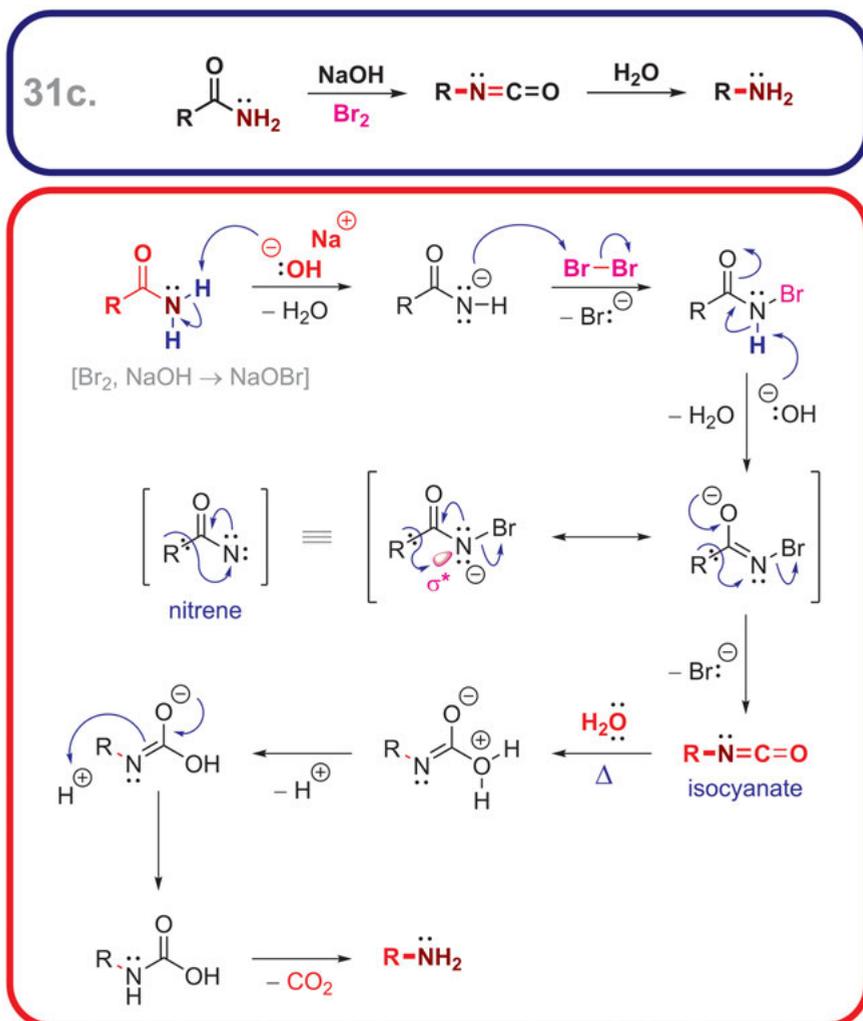


Fig. 31.5: The *Hofmann* rearrangement mechanism.⁹⁷

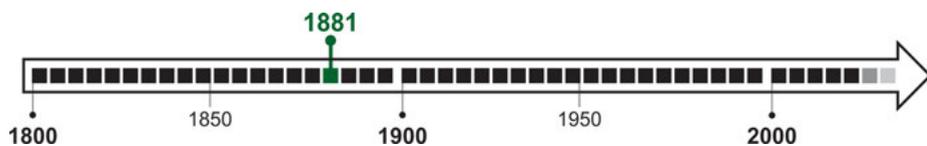


Fig. 31.6: The discovery of the *Hofmann* rearrangement.⁹⁸

⁹⁷ The *Hofmann* rearrangement is also known as the *Hofmann* reaction. It is completely different from the *Hofmann* elimination, see Chapter 49.

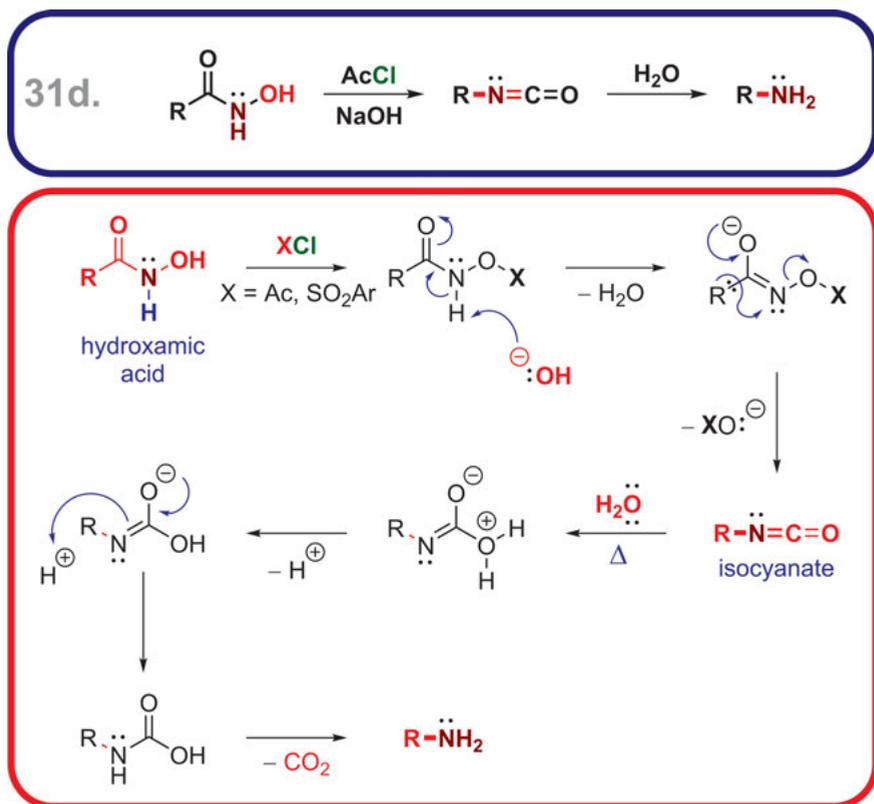


Fig. 31.7: The *Lossen* rearrangement mechanism.⁹⁹

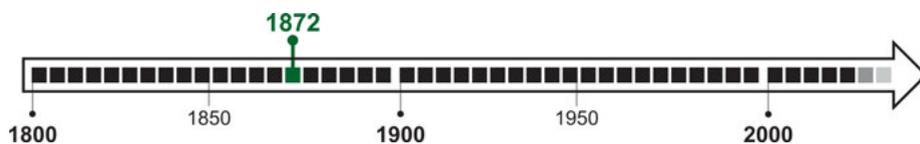


Fig. 31.8: The discovery of the *Lossen* rearrangement.¹⁰⁰

⁹⁸ The reaction was likely first described around 1881 [31e].

⁹⁹ The *Lossen* rearrangement is much like these reactions and is related to the *Beckmann* rearrangement, covered in Chapter 14.

¹⁰⁰ The reaction was likely first described around 1872 [31f].

32 Darzens Condensation

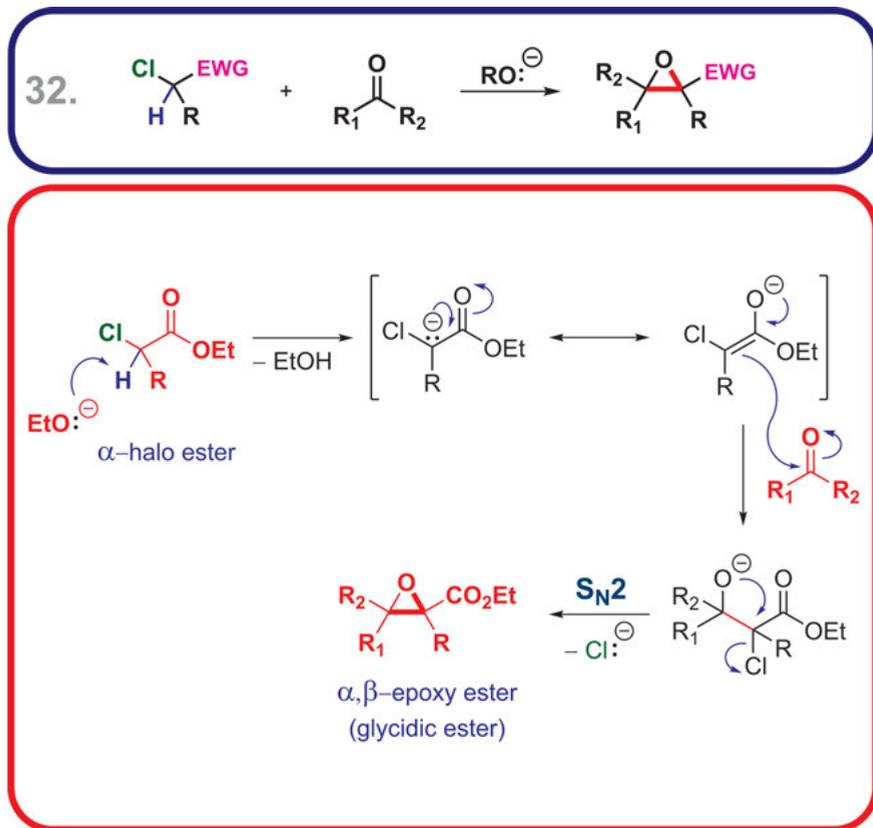


Fig. 32.1: The *Darzens* condensation mechanism.¹⁰¹

¹⁰¹ The *Darzens* condensation is also called the *Darzens* glycidic ester condensation or the *Darzens* reaction. Please note, a *glycidic ester* is an α,β -epoxy ester.

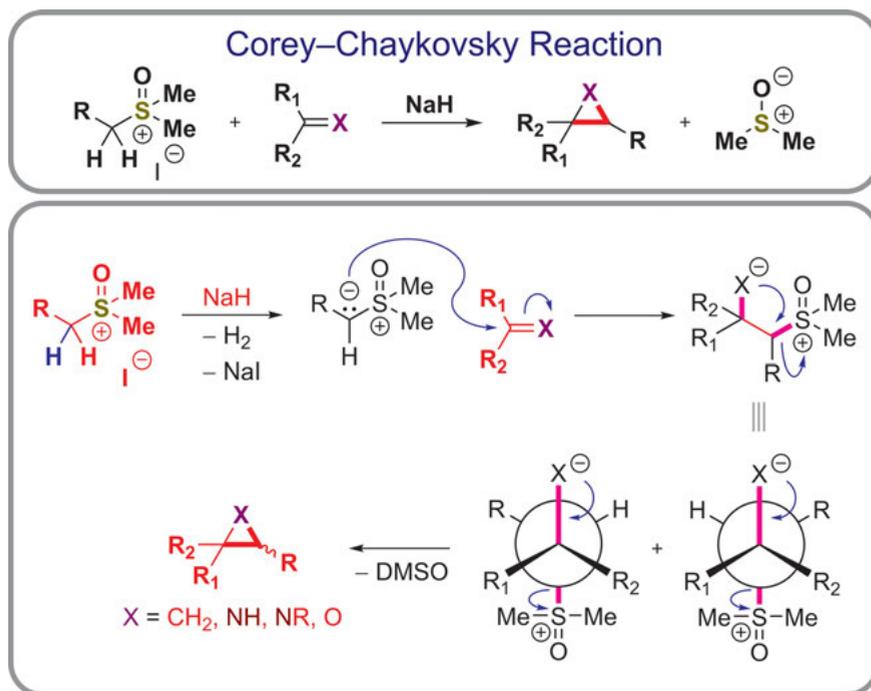


Fig. 32.2: The *Corey–Chaykovsky reaction* mechanism.¹⁰²

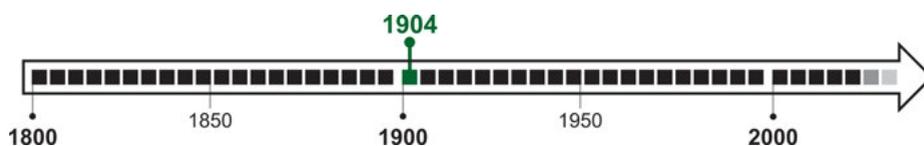


Fig. 32.3: The discovery of the *Darzens condensation*.¹⁰³

102 The *Corey–Chaykovsky reaction* (also known as the *Johnson–Corey–Chaykovsky reaction*) [32a, 32b] is related to both the *Darzens condensation*, and the *Wittig reaction* (covered in Chapter 98).

103 The reaction was likely first described around 1904 [32c].

33 Dess–Martin Oxidation

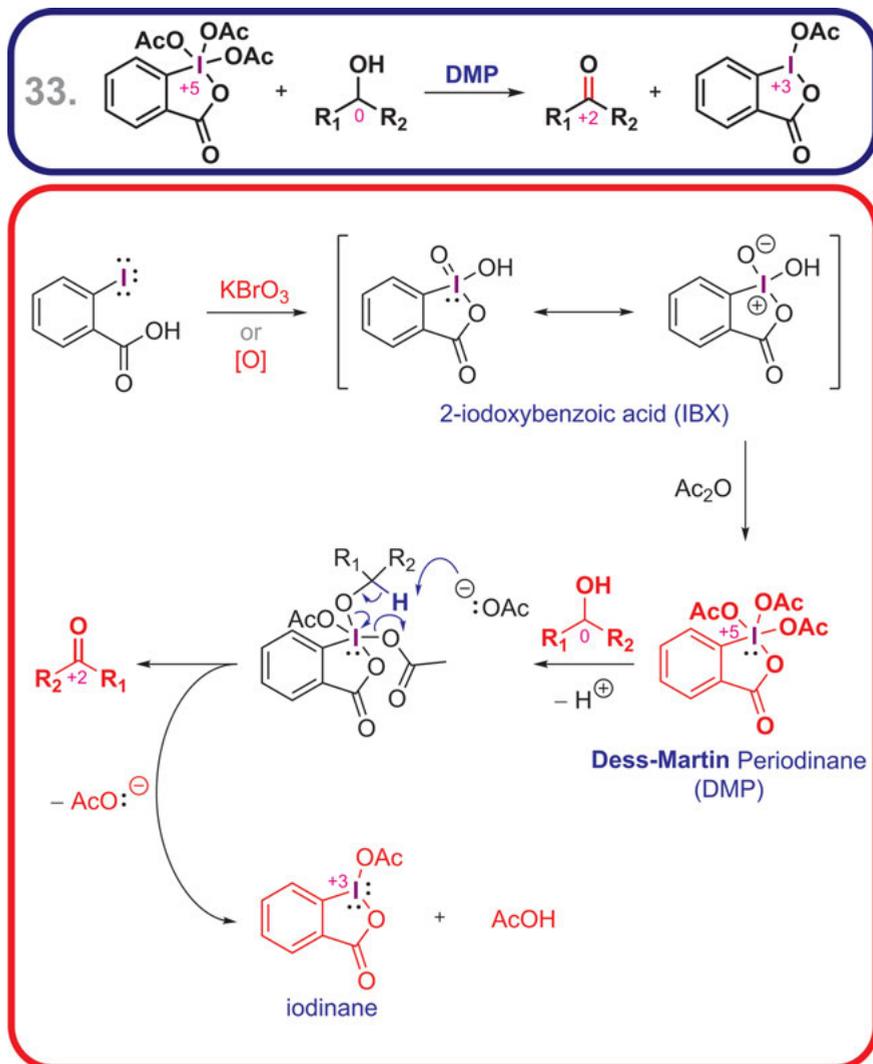


Fig. 33.1: The *Dess–Martin* oxidation mechanism.¹⁰⁴

¹⁰⁴ The *Dess–Martin* oxidation is based on the use of a named reagent: the *Dess–Martin periodinane* (DMP) [33a, 33b].

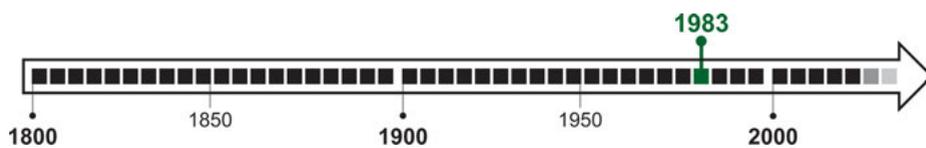


Fig. 33.2: The discovery of the *Dess–Martin oxidation*.¹⁰⁵

¹⁰⁵ The reaction was likely first described around 1983 [33c].

34 Diazotization (Diazonium Salt)

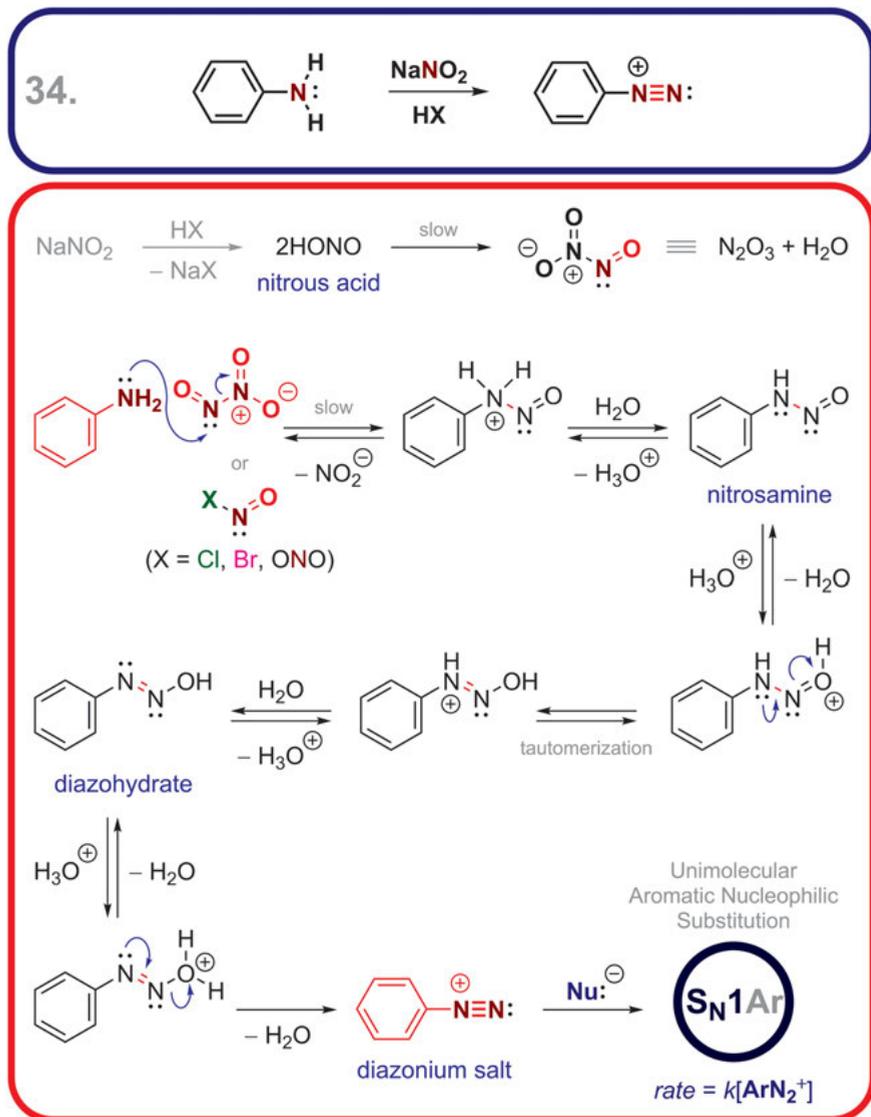


Fig. 34.1: The diazonium salt formation (diazotization) mechanism.¹⁰⁶

¹⁰⁶ The diazonium salt formation reaction is also known as the **diazotization** [1] (the term is also preferred in this book), or the *diazonation* [1a], or the *diazotation* [34a].

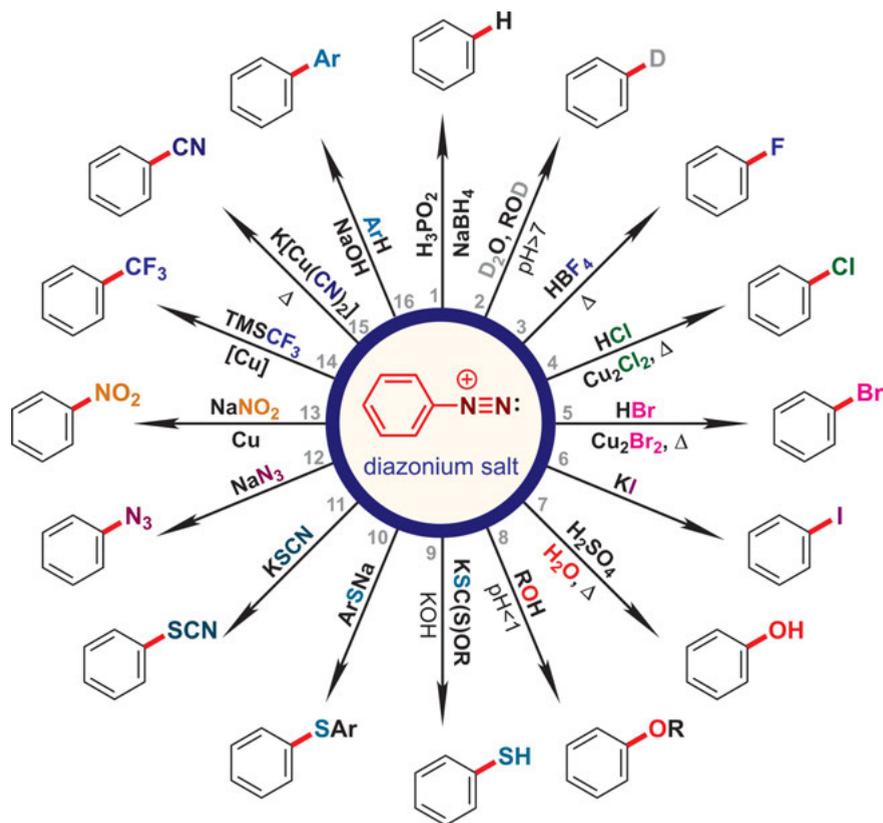


Fig. 34.2: Synthetic versatility of the diazonium salts.¹⁰⁷

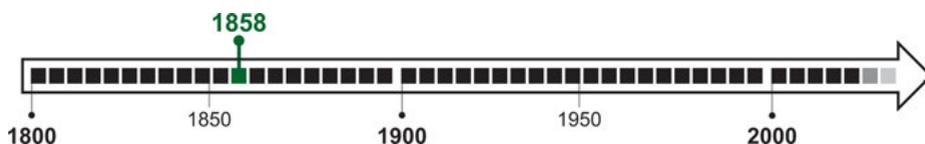


Fig. 34.3: The discovery of the diazotization reaction.¹⁰⁸

107 The *diazonium salts* formed during the *diazotization* process have wide synthetic application and they can react with a variety of nucleophiles. These reactions go through the **aromatic nucleophilic substitution** mechanism ($\text{S}_{\text{N}}1\text{Ar}$ or sometimes $\text{S}_{\text{RN}}1$). Symbol $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1\text{Ar}$ stands for **S**ubstitution **N**ucleophilic **A**romatic. It is a **Uni**-molecular (1) reaction, that is, the rate of the reaction is first order and the rate-determining step (i.e., the slow step) depends on the concentration of one reactant, the diazonium salt (ArN_2^+): $\text{rate} = k[\text{ArN}_2^+]$. This mechanism is different from the *addition-elimination* mechanism ($\text{S}_{\text{N}}\text{Ar}$ or $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2\text{Ar}$), covered in Chapter 4, because the first step is elimination and the formation of an *aryl cation*. Please note, it is also different from the *benzyne* mechanism (the *elimination-addition* mechanism) covered in Chapter 16.

108 The reaction was likely first described around 1858 [34b].

35 Diels–Alder Cycloaddition

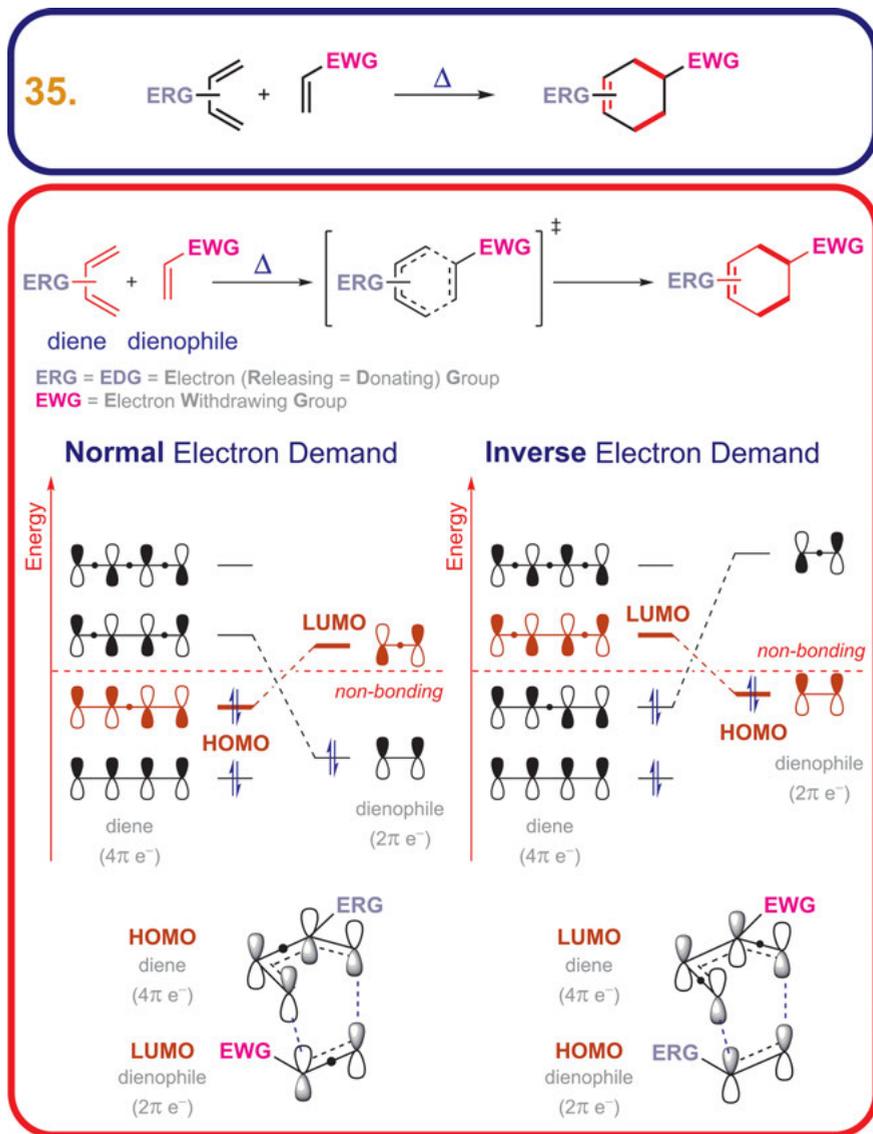


Fig. 35.1: The *Diels–Alder* cycloaddition mechanism.¹⁰⁹

109 The *Diels–Alder* cycloaddition, the *Diels–Alder* reaction or the [4+2]-cycloaddition reaction is a pericyclic reaction with a concerted mechanism. Please note, the notation (4+2) means the atom count is used; the notation [4+2] means the electron count involved in the reaction is used [30a]. Compare to the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition (Chapter 30).

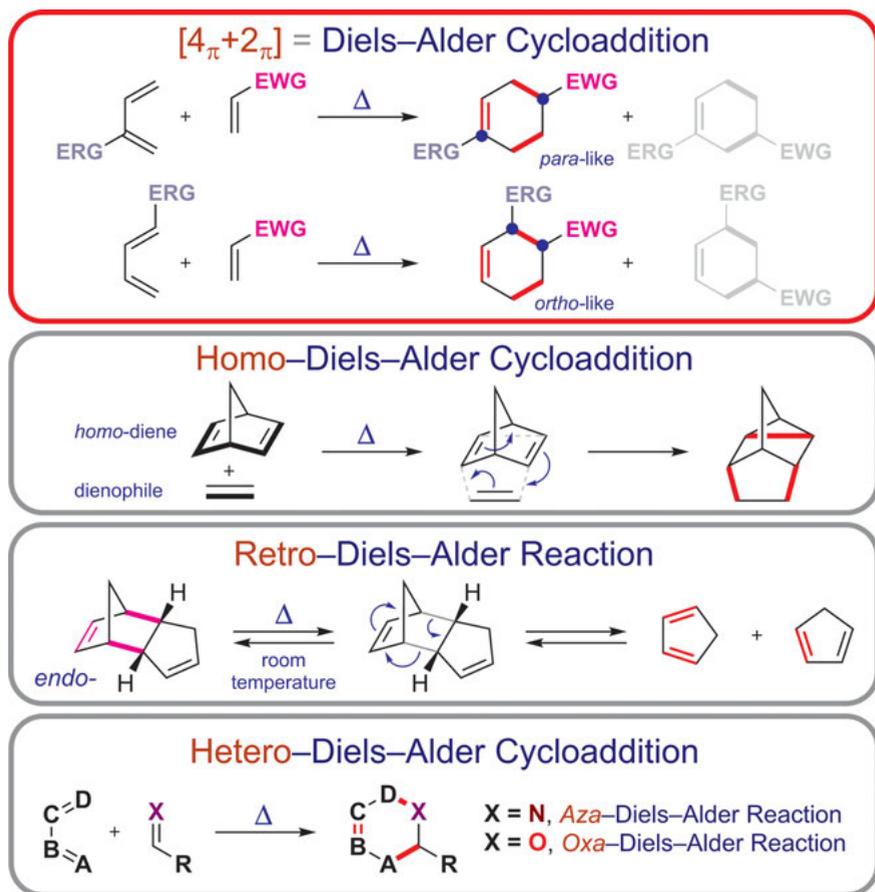


Fig. 35.2: Reactions related to the *Diels–Alder cycloaddition*.¹¹⁰

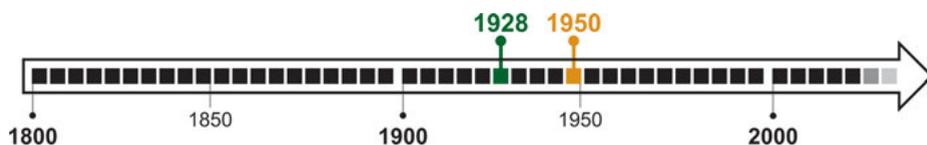


Fig. 35.3: The discovery of the *Diels–Alder cycloaddition*.¹¹¹

¹¹⁰ There are numerous variations of this reaction: the *homo-Diels–Alder cycloaddition*, the *retro-Diels–Alder reaction*, the *hetero-Diels–Alder cycloaddition*, and many others (not shown). Please note the regiochemistry observed in the first case of the $[4\pi+2\pi] = \text{Diels–Alder cycloaddition}$.

¹¹¹ The reaction was likely first described around 1928 [35a, 35b]. In 1950, Otto Paul Hermann Diels and Kurt Alder received the Nobel Prize in Chemistry for the discovery of the diene synthesis [35c].

36 Di- π -Methane Rearrangement

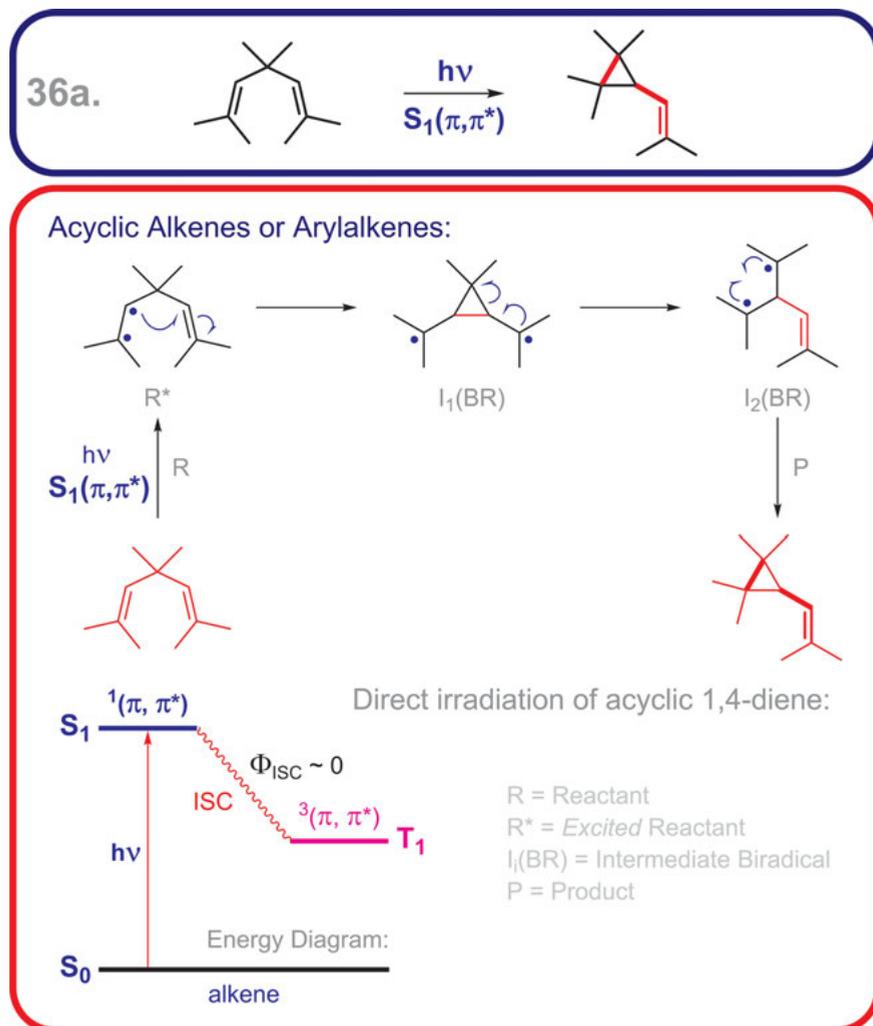


Fig. 36.1: The Di- π -Methane rearrangement mechanism: direct irradiation.¹¹²

¹¹² The Di- π -Methane rearrangement (DPM) is rarely called the **Zimmerman** reaction. If the reaction undergoes *direct irradiation*: the reaction occurs from the singlet excited state S_1 , in this case $^1(\pi, \pi^*)$ [2b].

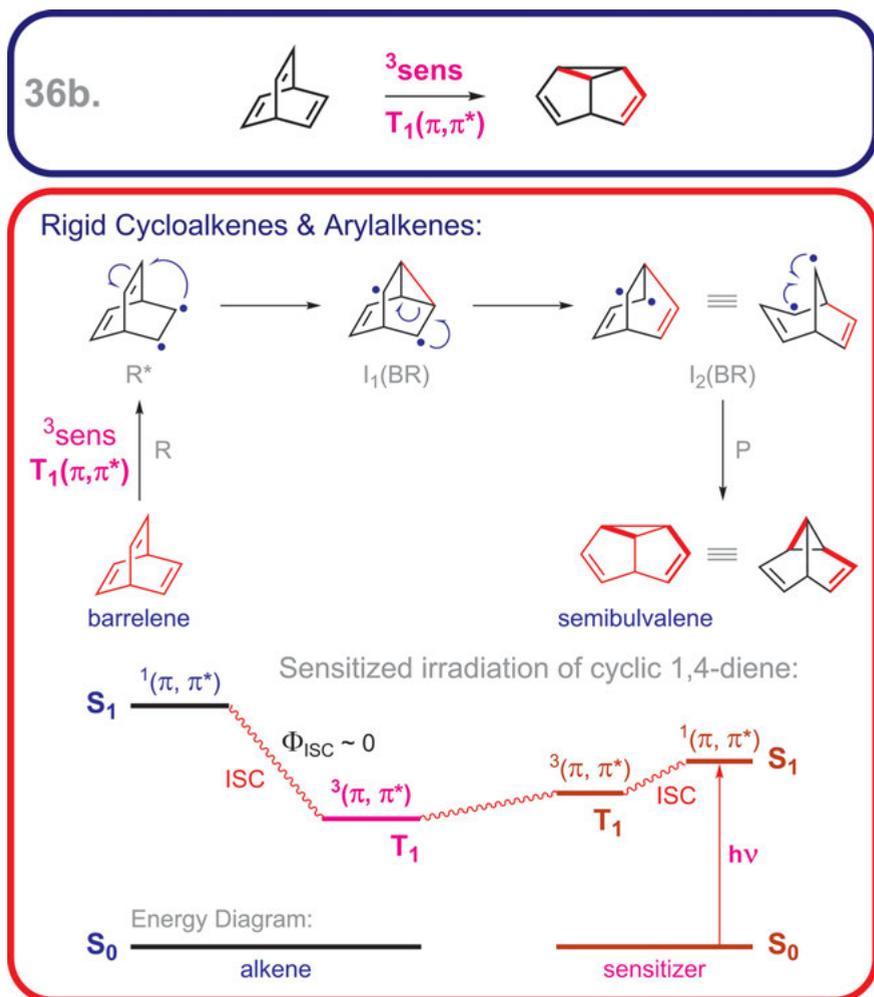


Fig. 36.2: The Di- π -Methane rearrangement mechanism: sensitized irradiation.¹¹³

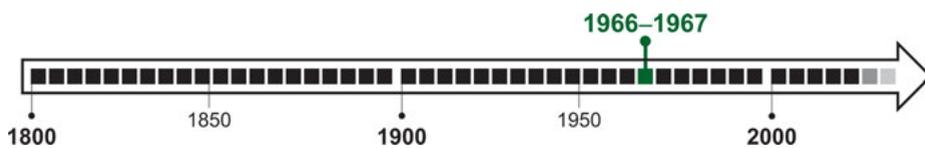


Fig. 36.3: The discovery of the Di- π -Methane rearrangement.¹¹⁴

¹¹³ The Di- π -Methane rearrangement in the presence of a photosensitizer, that is the reaction undergoes the sensitized irradiation: the product formation occurs from the triplet excited state T_1 , here $^3(\pi, \pi^*)$ [2b].

¹¹⁴ The reaction was likely first described between 1966–1967 [36].

37 Favorskii Rearrangement

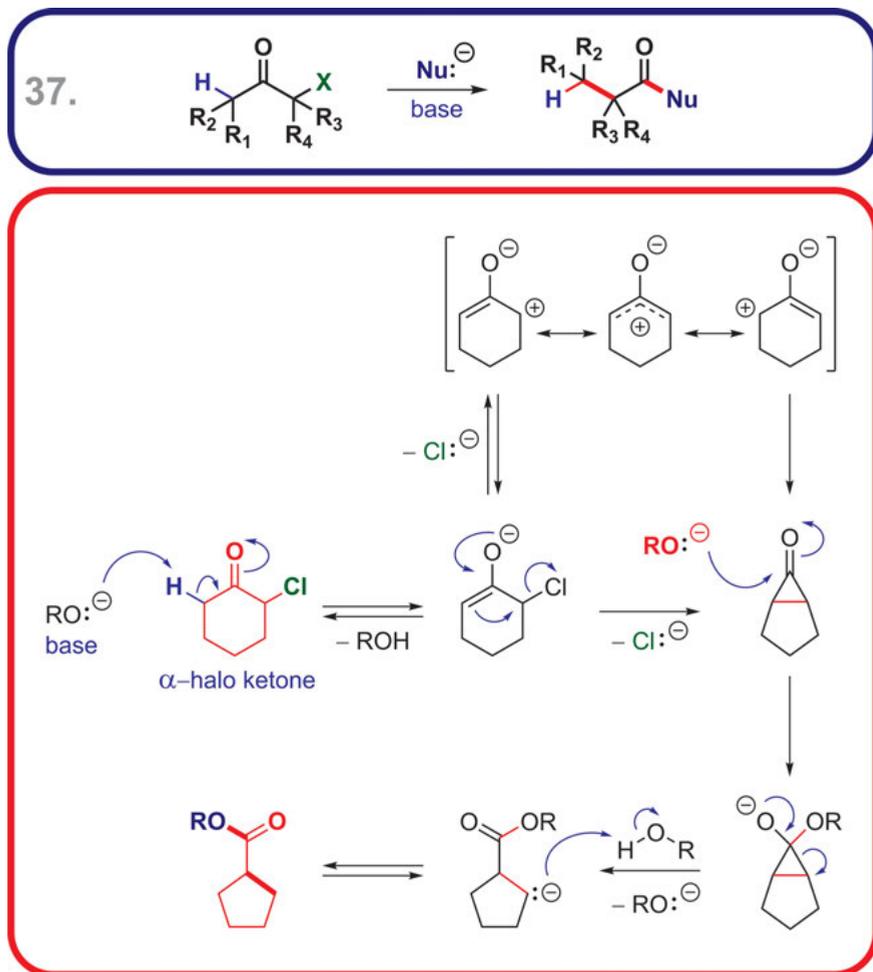


Fig. 37.1: The *Favorskii rearrangement* mechanism.¹¹⁵

115 The *Favorskii rearrangement* (also spelled Favorsky, in German transliteration Faworsky, and in Russian Алексей Евграфович Фаворский or А. Е. Фаворский) is different from the *Favorskii reaction* (not shown here).

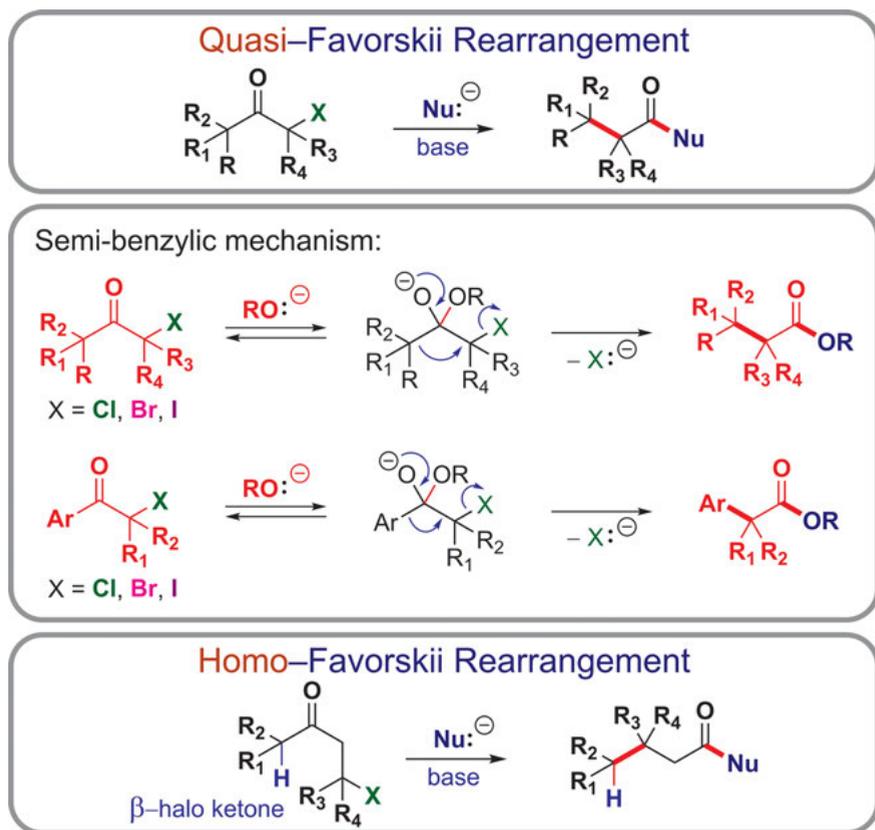


Fig. 37.2: The *quasi-Favorskii* rearrangement mechanism and related reactions.¹¹⁶

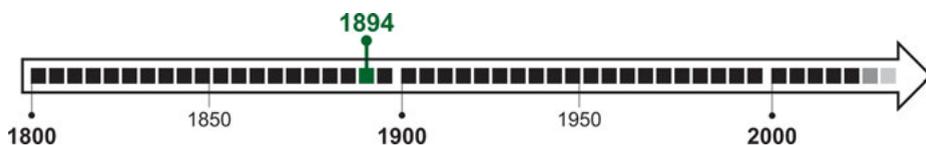


Fig. 37.3: The discovery of the *Favorskii* rearrangement.¹¹⁷

¹¹⁶ There are numerous variations of this reaction: for example, the *quasi-Favorskii* rearrangement, which undergoes a process similar to the *semi-benzylic* mechanism [37a, 37b], the *homo-Favorskii* rearrangement, and others (not shown).

¹¹⁷ The reaction was likely first described around 1894 [37c, 37d].

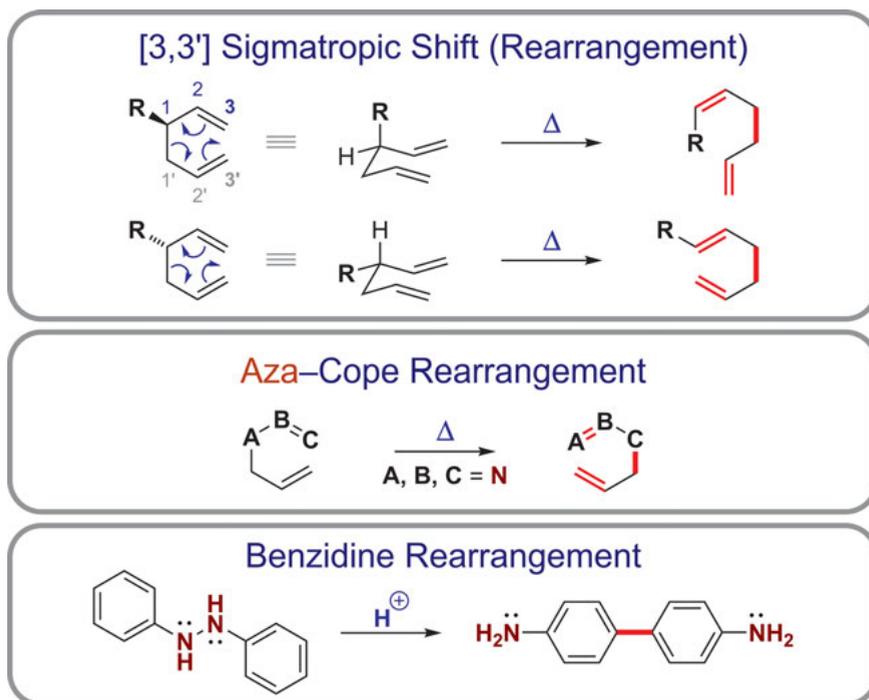


Fig. 38.2: Reactions related to the *Fischer indole synthesis*.¹¹⁹

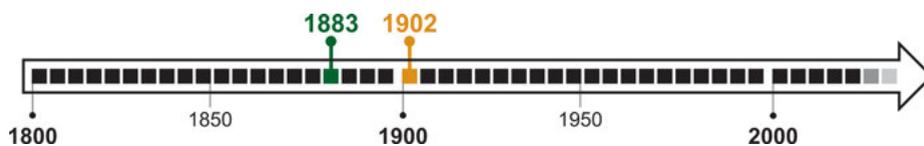


Fig. 38.3: The discovery of the *Fischer indole synthesis*.¹²⁰

118 he *Fischer indole synthesis* (different from the *Fischer esterification*) is one of the most important reactions in organic chemistry. The key mechanistic step is the [3,3']-sigmatropic shift (*rearrangement*).

119 The key mechanistic step is related to the *Cope rearrangement*, the *aza-Cope* and/or *aza-Claisen rearrangement* (Chapter 28). Other reactions related to this transformation include the *Benzidine rearrangement* (its mechanism is not well-understood) [1, 38a].

120 The reaction was likely first described around 1883 [38b, 38c]. In 1902, Emil Fischer received the Nobel Prize in Chemistry [38d].

39 Friedel–Crafts Acylation & Alkylation

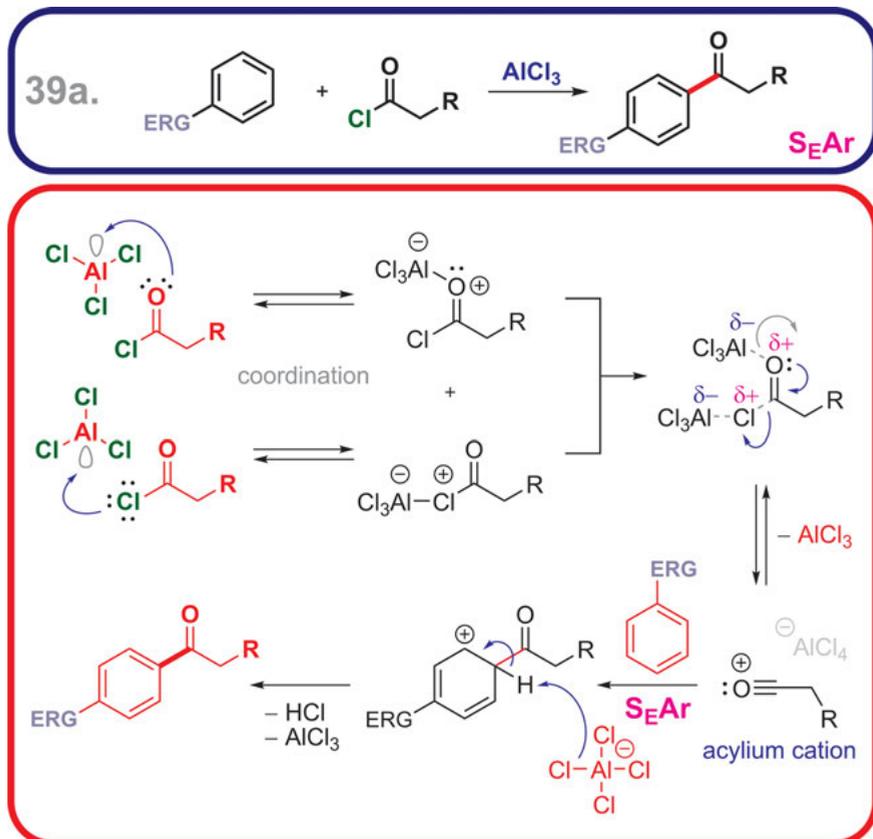


Fig. 39.1: The *Friedel–Crafts* acylation mechanism.¹²¹

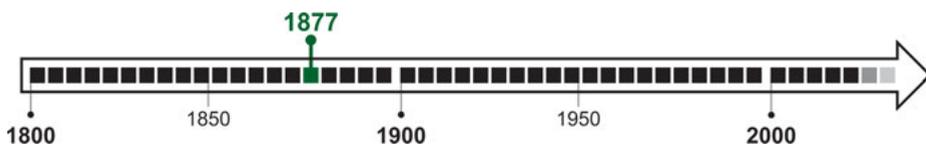


Fig. 39.2: The discovery of the *Friedel–Crafts* acylation.¹²²

121 The *Friedel–Crafts* acylation mechanism is an example of the **aromatic electrophilic substitution** (the *arenium ion* mechanism or S_EAr , covered in Chapter 3). The linear *acyl halides* react via *acylium cation* and form *aryl ketones* with linear alkyl chains.

122 The reaction was likely first described around 1877 [39a].

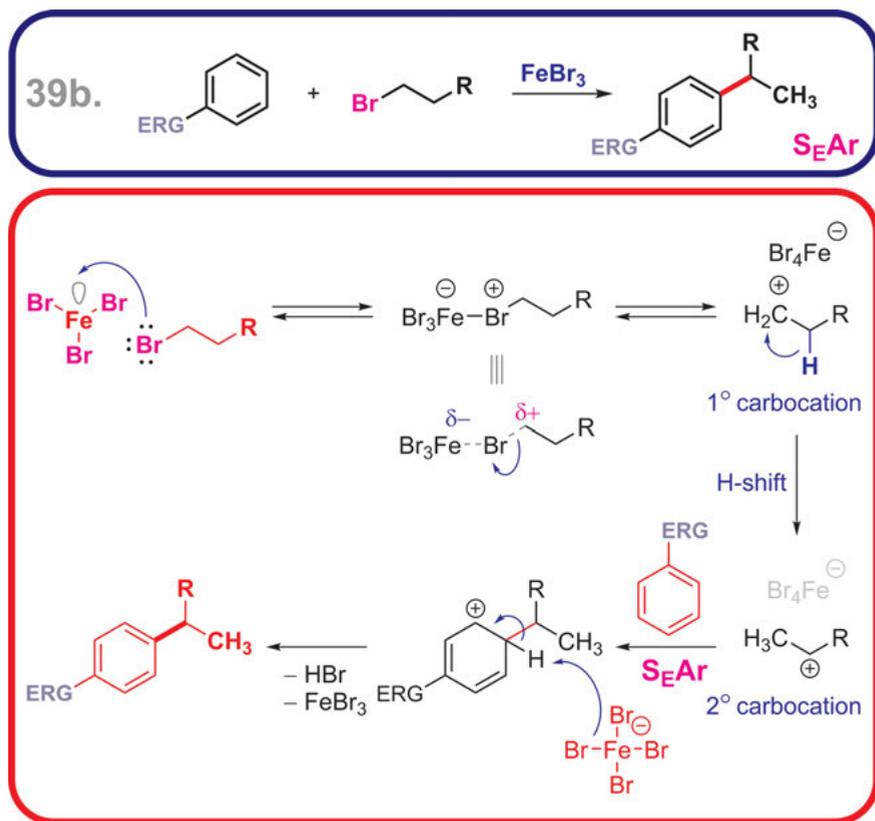


Fig. 39.3: The *Friedel–Crafts* alkylation mechanism.¹²³

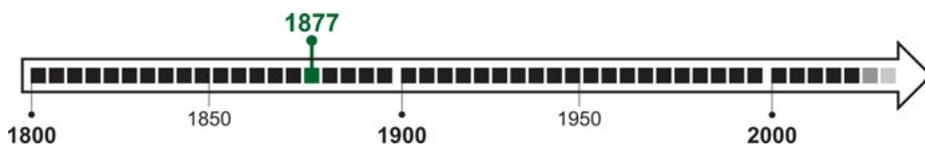


Fig. 39.4: The discovery of the *Friedel–Crafts* alkylation.¹²⁴

¹²³ The *Friedel–Crafts* alkylation is also the **aromatic electrophilic substitution**. The linear *alkyl halides* undergo the *carbocation rearrangement* (also called the *Wagner–Meerwein rearrangement* covered in Chapter 96) and always produce branched products.

¹²⁴ The reaction was likely first described around 1877 [39b].

40 Gabriel Synthesis

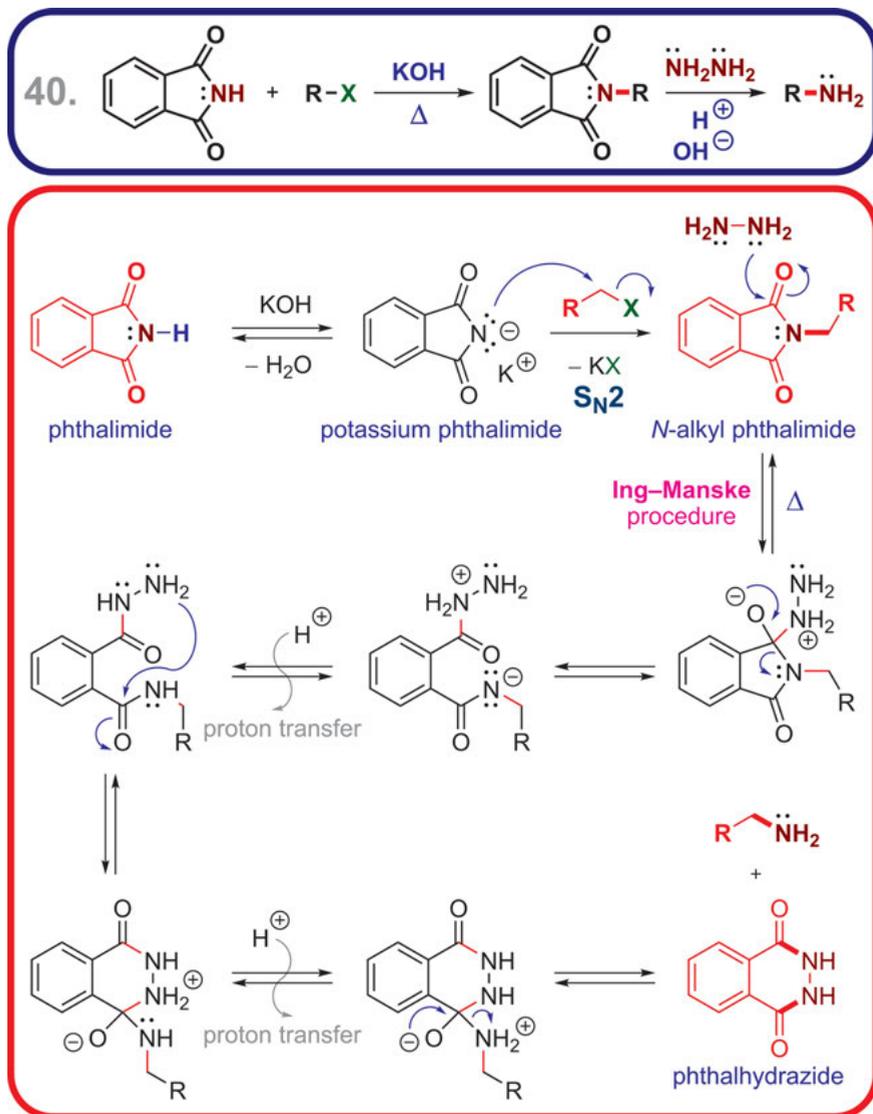


Fig. 40.1: The **Gabriel** synthesis mechanism.¹²⁵

125 The **Gabriel** synthesis is a chemical reaction that converts *alkyl halides* to *primary (1°) amines* via the $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$ reaction using *phthalimide*. The **Ing-Manske** procedure [40a] is a chemical reaction that converts *N-alkyl phthalimide* to *primary (1°) amine* using *hydrazine*.

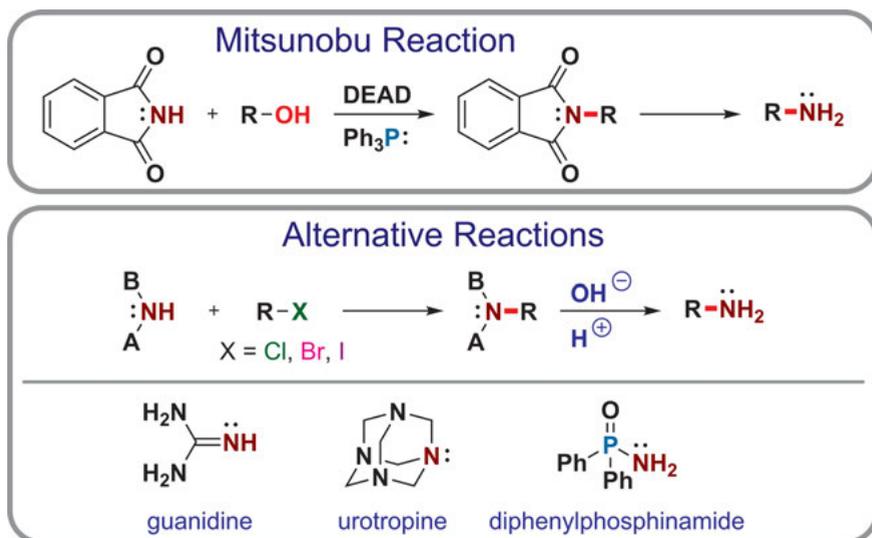


Fig. 40.2: Reactions related to the *Gabriel synthesis*.¹²⁶

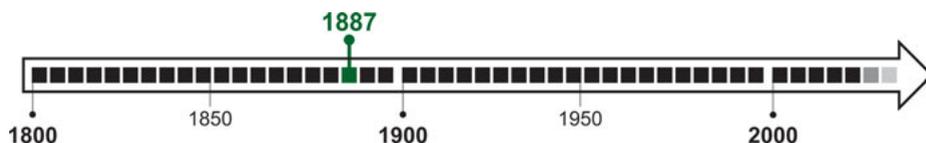


Fig. 40.3: The discovery of the *Gabriel synthesis*.¹²⁷

¹²⁶ There are alternative synthetic transformations to yield *primary amines*: the *Mitsunobu reaction* (covered in Chapter 61) or other S_N2 reactions using various **N** (nitrogen) nucleophiles. Some of them are named reactions as well: the *Delépine reaction* (*urotropine* is the nitrogen nucleophile) [40b].

¹²⁷ The reaction was likely first described around 1887 [40c].

41 Gewald Reaction

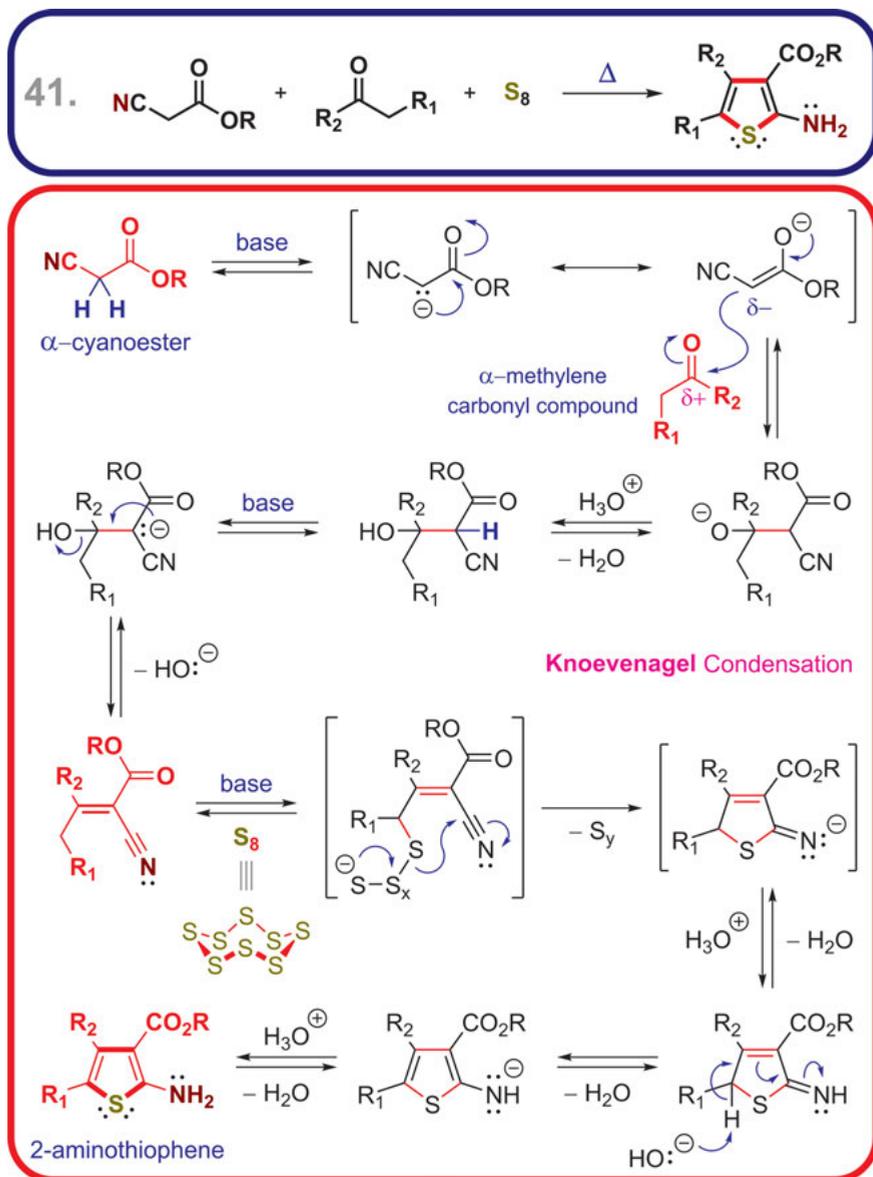


Fig. 41.1: The **Gewald** reaction mechanism.¹²⁸

128 The **Gewald** reaction, also called the **Gewald** condensation, is a three-component reaction (3-CR) producing 2-aminothiophenes. The key condensation step is the **Knoevenagel** condensation [41a].

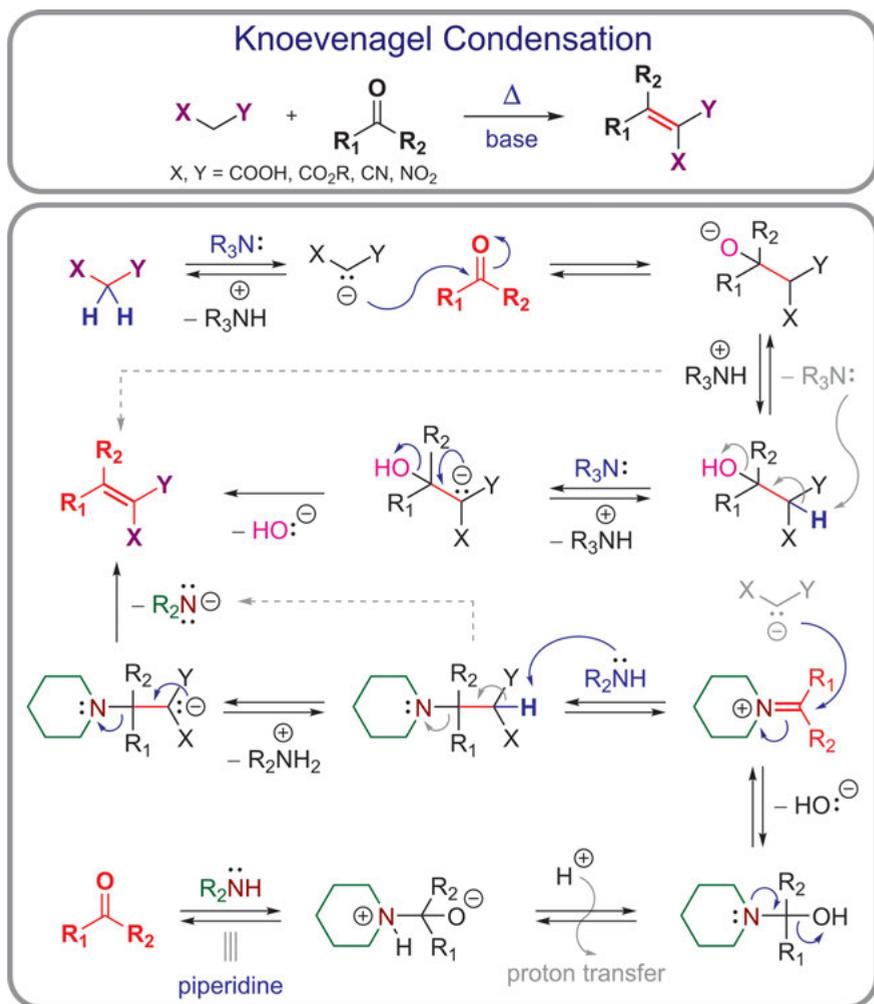


Fig. 41.2: The *Knoevenagel* condensation mechanism.¹²⁹

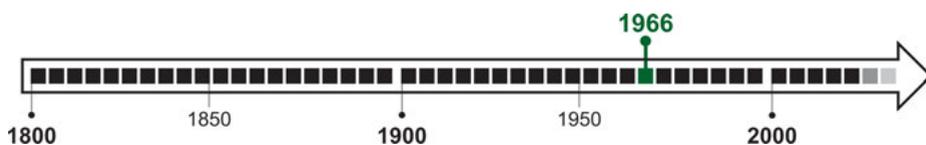


Fig. 41.3: The discovery of the *Gewald* reaction.¹³⁰

¹²⁹ The *Knoevenagel* condensation is a variation of the *aldol* condensation followed by *crotonation* (covered in Chapter 83). The reaction is often catalyzed by *piperidine*.

¹³⁰ The reaction was likely first described around 1966 [41b].

42 Glaser–Eglinton–Hay Coupling

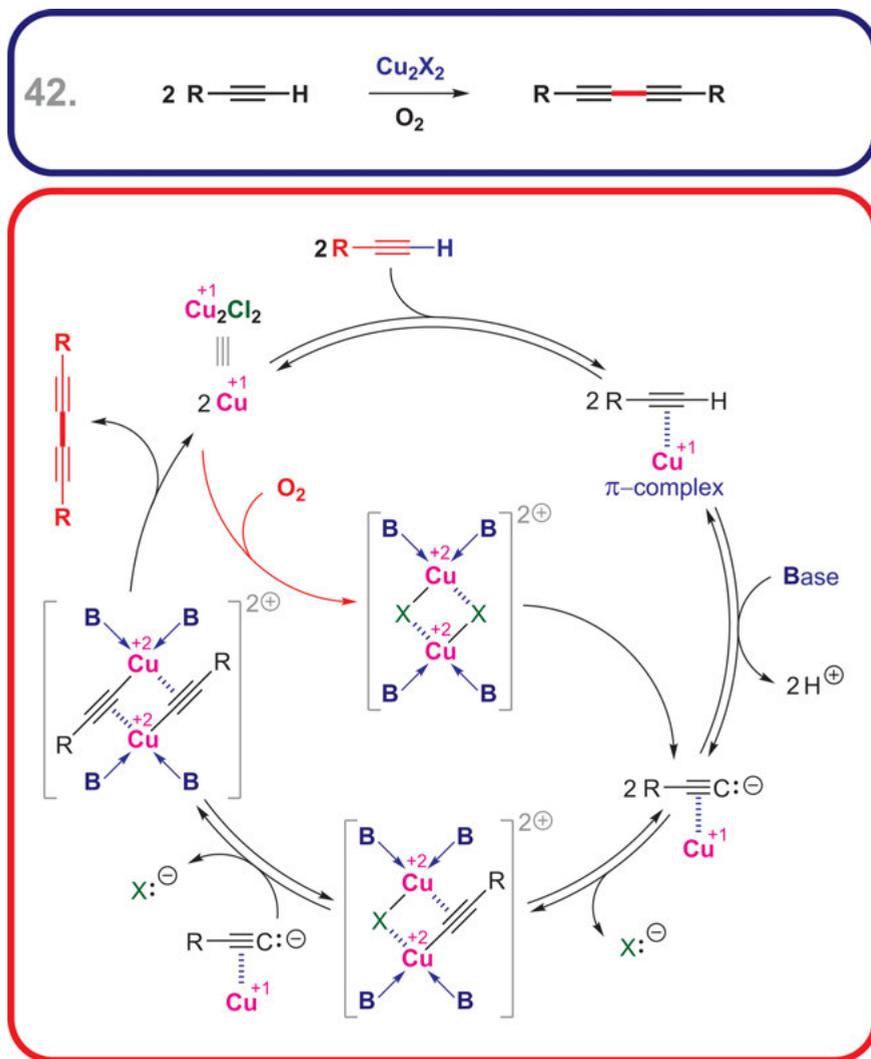


Fig. 42.1: The *Glaser–Eglinton–Hay* coupling mechanism.¹³¹

131 The *Glaser–Eglinton–Hay* coupling is a general name for three named reactions: the *Glaser* coupling, the *Eglinton* coupling, and the *Hay* coupling. It is one of many examples of *Cu*-mediated dimerization of terminal alkynes. In all three cases, the formed products are symmetrical.

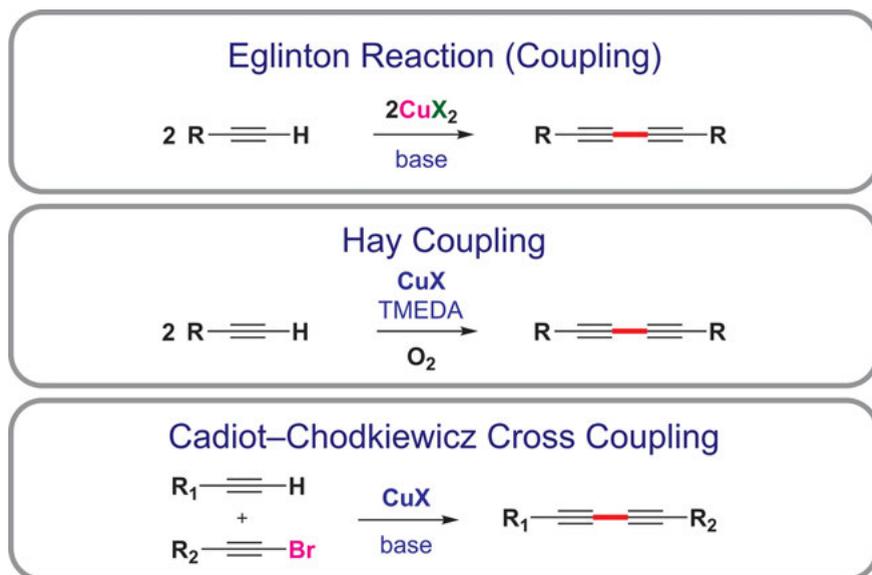


Fig. 42.2: Reactions related to the *Glaser–Eglinton–Hay coupling*.¹³²

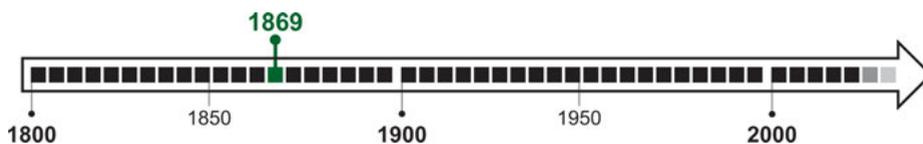


Fig. 42.3: The discovery of the *Glaser–Eglinton–Hay coupling*.¹³³

132 More specifically: in the *Eglinton coupling*, the product is (a) symmetrical, (b) **Cu** is used as a stoichiometric reagent [42a, 42b]; in the *Glaser coupling*, the product is (a) symmetrical, (b) **CuX** is used as a catalyst with NH_3 or NH_4OH [42c]; in the *Hay coupling*, the product is (a) symmetrical, (b) **CuX**•TMEDA complex is used as a catalyst [42d, 42e]; in the *Cadiot–Chodkiewicz coupling*, the product is (a) **asymmetrical**, (b) **Cu** is used as a catalyst [42f], and other examples [1, 4].

133 The reaction was likely first described around 1869 [42c].

43 Grignard Reaction

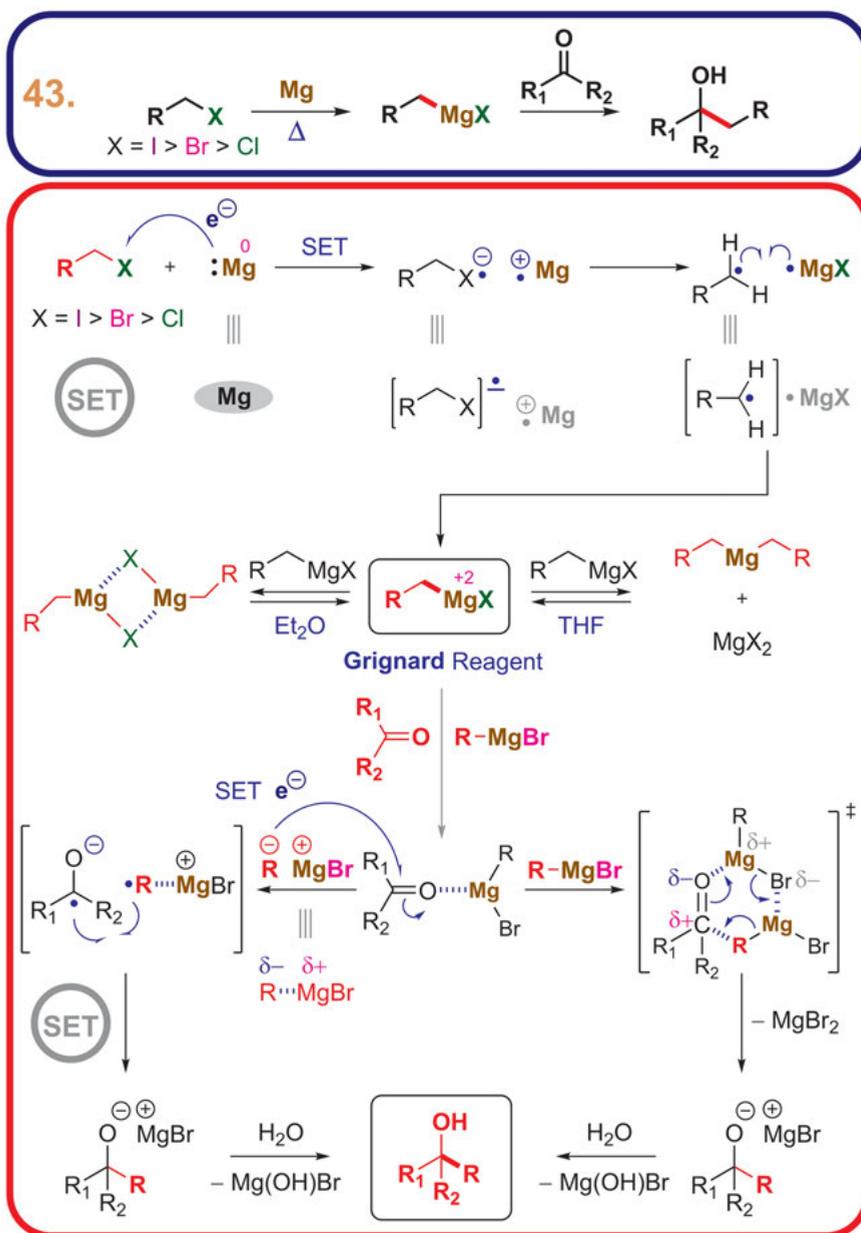


Fig. 43.1: The **Grignard** reaction mechanism.¹³⁴

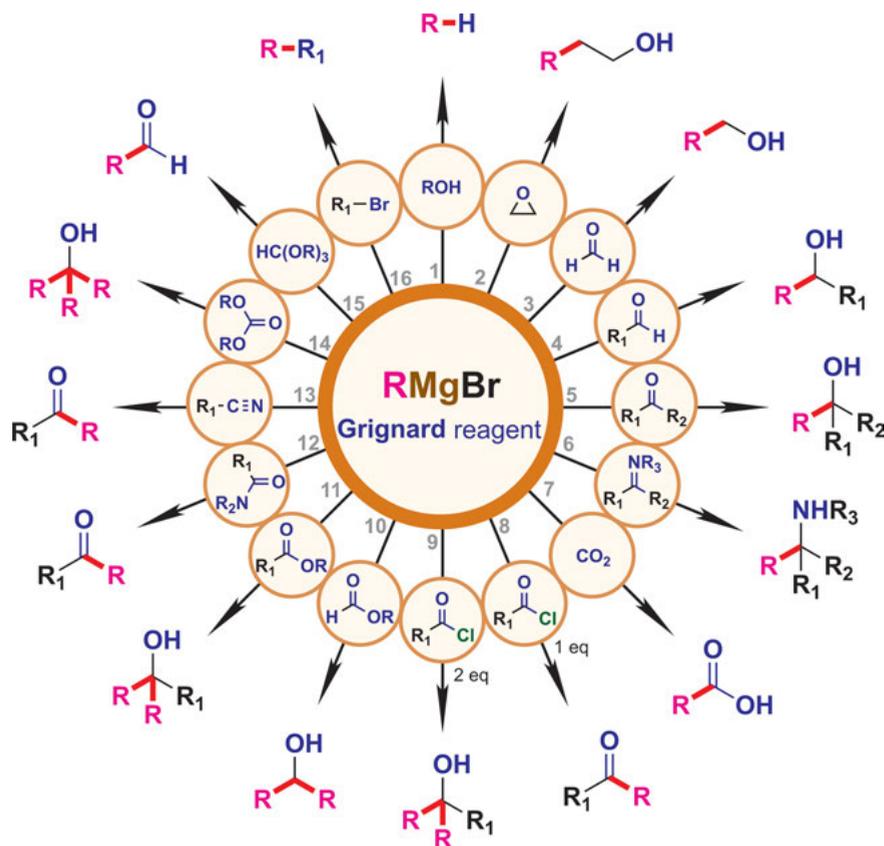


Fig. 43.2: Synthetic versatility of the *Grignard reagent*.¹³⁵

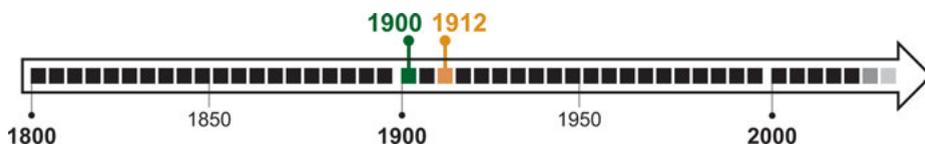


Fig. 43.3: The discovery of the *Grignard reaction*.¹³⁶

134 The *Grignard reaction* is based on the use of a named reagent: the *Grignard reagent* (RMgX). The mechanism is not well-understood and most likely involves a **single electron transfer (SET)** (Chapter 5).

135 The *Grignard reagent* has wide synthetic applications, it can react with a variety of electrophiles (electrophilic centers): 1. alcohols, deuterated water; 2. epoxides; 3. formaldehyde; 4. aldehydes; 5. ketones; 6. imines; 7. carbon dioxide (disulfide); 8. acyl chlorides (1 eq); 9. acyl chlorides (excess); 10. formates; 11. esters; 12. amides; 13. nitriles; 14. carbonates; 15. orthoesters; 16. alkyl halides; and others [1].

136 The reaction was likely first described around 1900 [43a]. In 1912, Victor Grignard (jointly with Paul Sabatier) received the Nobel Prize in Chemistry for the discovery of the *Grignard reagent* (and other achievements in chemistry) [43b].

44 Grob Fragmentation

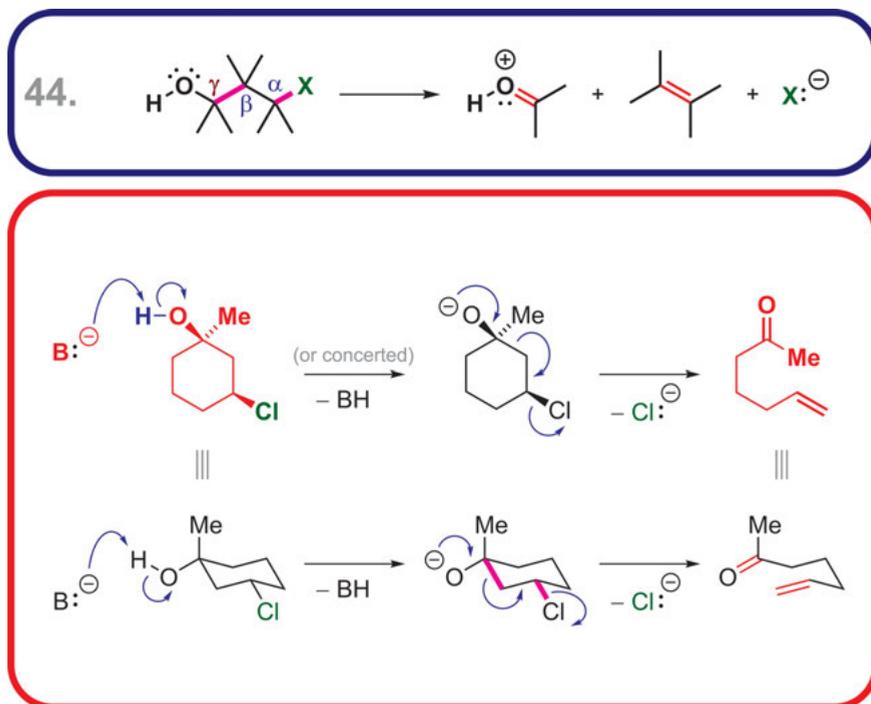


Fig. 44.1: The **Grob** fragmentation mechanism.¹³⁷

137 The **Grob** fragmentation mechanism is most likely related to the **β -elimination** mechanisms (in this case 1,4-elimination) covered in Chapter 6. The common feature of this fragmentation is the formation of three species: positively charged (*electrofuge*), neutral unsaturated fragment, and negatively charged (*nucleofuge*). A stepwise or concerted mechanism can take place.

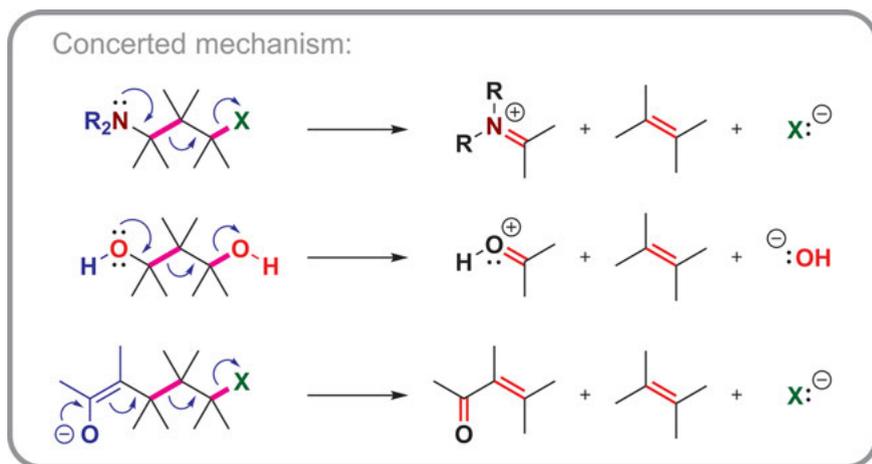


Fig. 44.2: Variations of the **Grob fragmentation**.¹³⁸

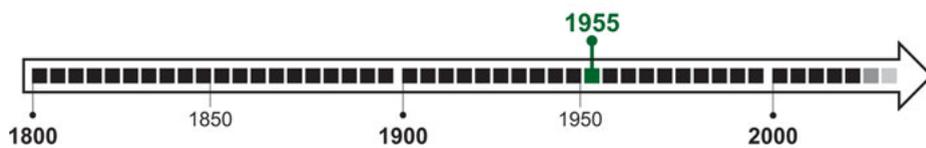


Fig. 44.3: The discovery of the **Grob fragmentation**.¹³⁹

138 There are many variations of the **Grob fragmentation** involving: γ -hydroxy halides (shown here); γ -amino halides; 1,3-diols; and others [44a].

139 The reaction was likely first described around 1955 [44b, 44c].

45 Haloform Reaction

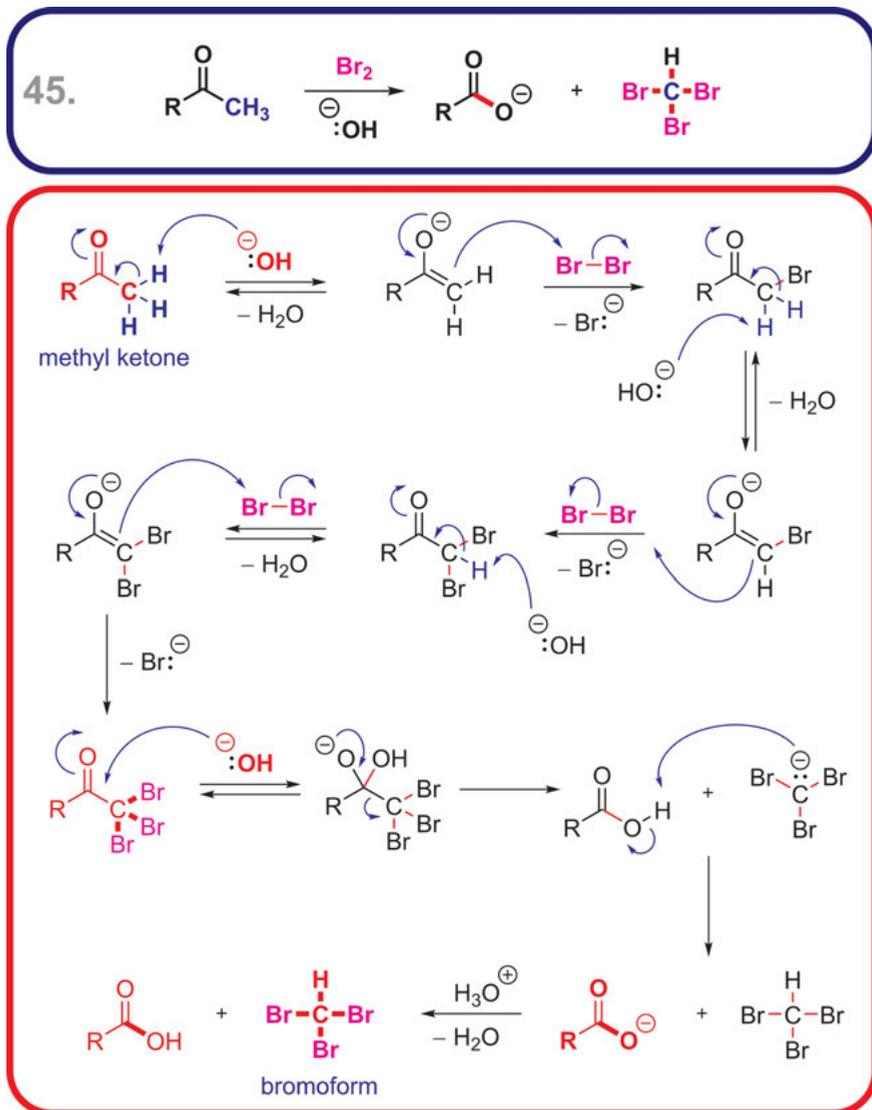


Fig. 45.1: The *haloform reaction* mechanism.¹⁴⁰

140 The *haloform reaction* is one of the oldest reactions in organic chemistry. It is an example of **aliphatic electrophilic substitution**, which is not covered in this book (Chapter 3).

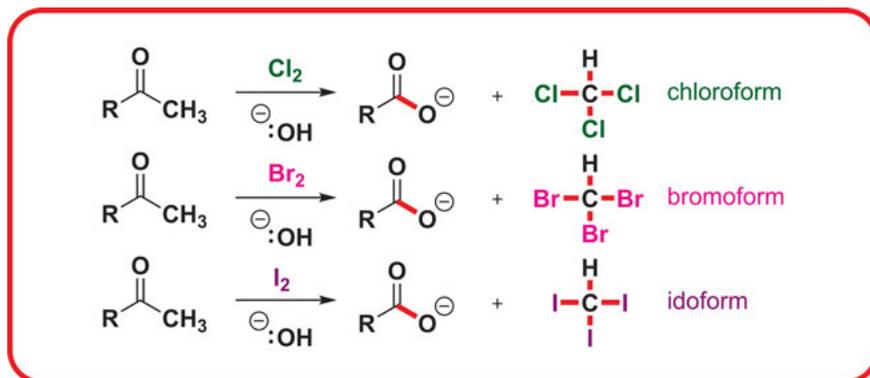


Fig. 45.2: Variations of the *haloform reaction*.¹⁴¹

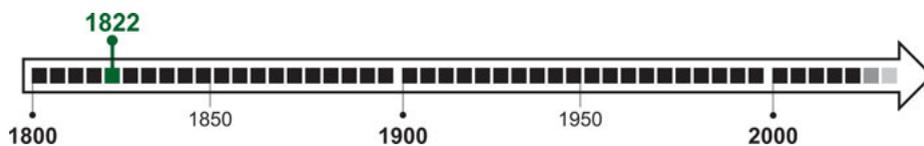


Fig. 45.3: The discovery of the *haloform reaction*.¹⁴²

¹⁴¹ The *haloform reaction* can be carried out with most halogens: (Cl) the *chloroform reaction*; (Br) the *bromoform reaction*, (I) the *iodoform reaction*, also known as the *iodoform test* or the **Lieberman test** (it is used as an indication of the methyl ketones presence) [45].

¹⁴² The reaction was likely first described between 1822 and 1870 [45].

46 Heck Cross Coupling

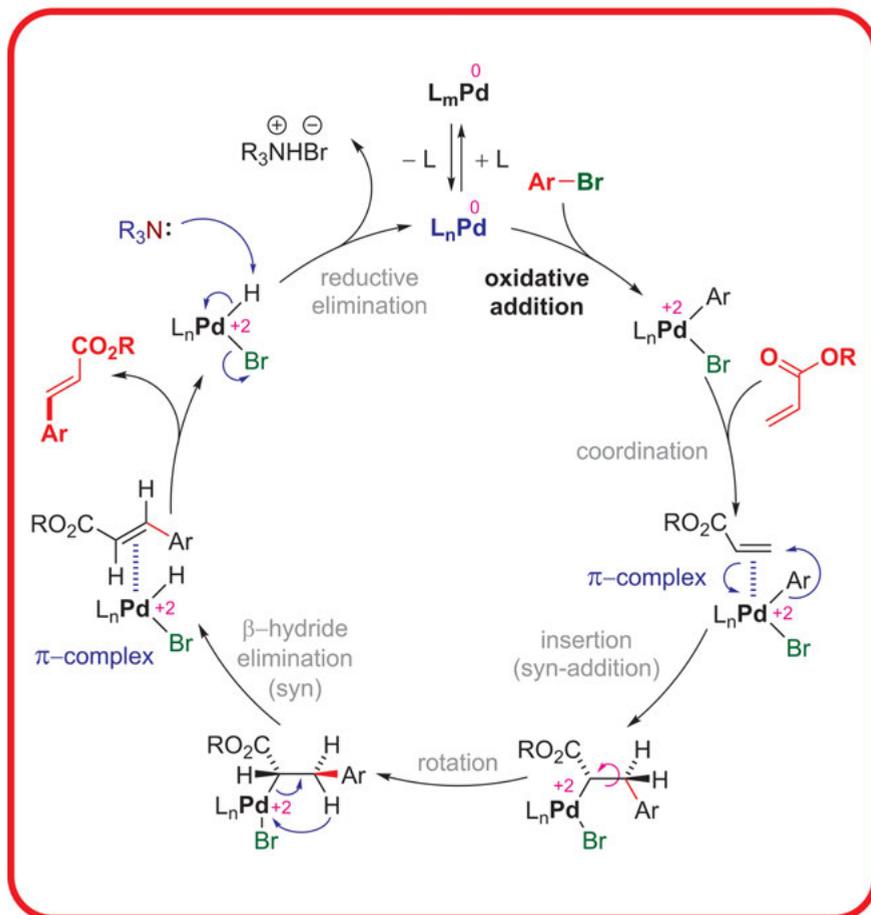
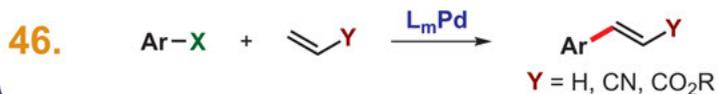


Fig. 46.1: The Heck cross coupling mechanism.¹⁴³

143 The Heck cross coupling or the Heck reaction is also called the Mizoroki–Heck reaction. It is one of the most important types of Pd-catalyzed cross coupling reactions (C–C bond formation using aryl halides and alkenes). For teaching purposes, a simplified and general mechanism is shown.

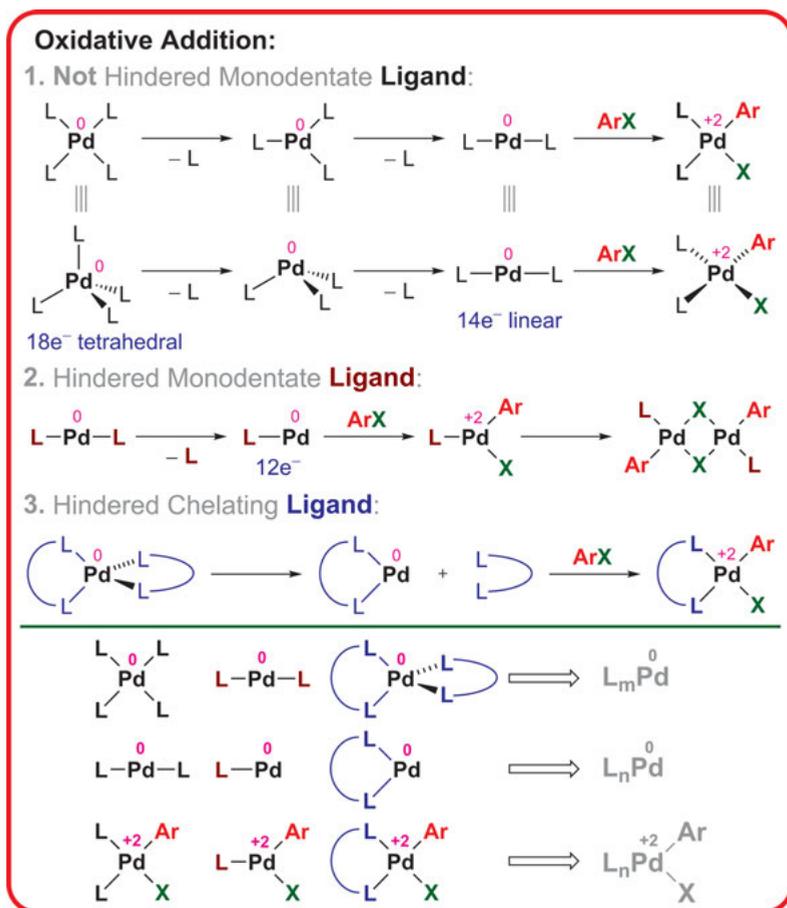


Fig. 46.2: General illustration of the *oxidative addition* step.¹⁴⁴

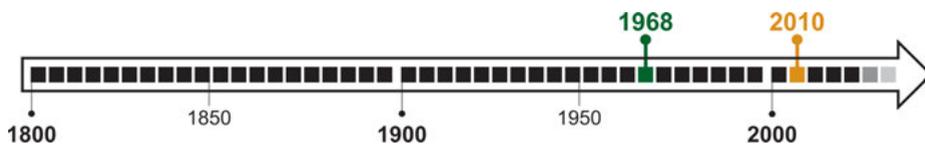


Fig. 46.3: The discovery of the *Heck cross coupling*.¹⁴⁵

144 The *oxidative addition* step can be represented in several ways in the literature; including a catalyst with: 1. a *not (less) hindered monodentate ligand*; 2. a *large hindered monodentate ligand*; 3. a *hindered chelating (bidentate) ligand*. For simplicity, unspecified representation will be used henceforth: L_mPd or L_nPd [2a].

145 The reaction was likely first described around 1968 [46a, 46b]. In **2010**, Richard F. Heck (jointly with Ei-ichi Negishi and Akira Suzuki) received the Nobel Prize in Chemistry for the development of **Pd**-catalyzed cross coupling reactions [46c].

47 Hell–Volhard–Zelinsky Reaction

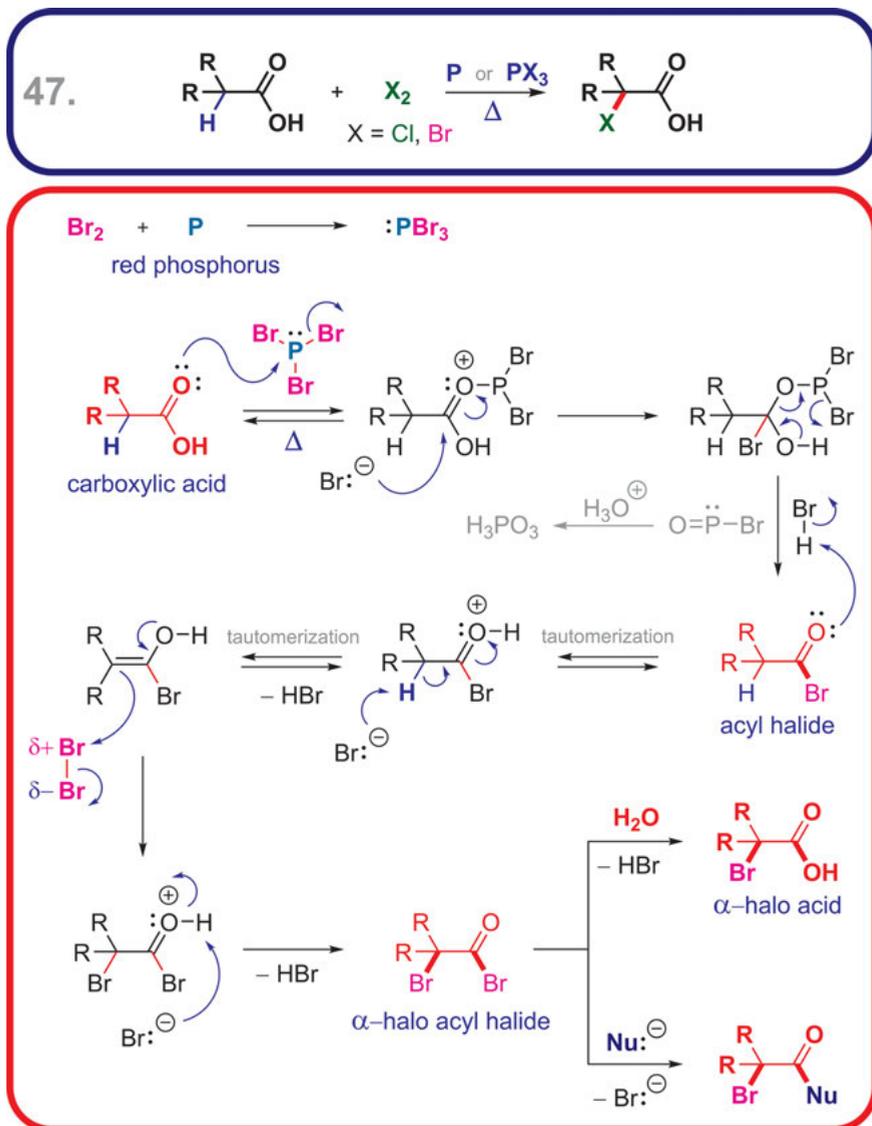


Fig. 47.1: The Hell–Volhard–Zelinsky reaction mechanism.¹⁴⁶

146 The Hell–Volhard–Zelinsky reaction is also known as the Hell–Volhard–Zelinsky (HVZ) halogenation. It is a type of aliphatic electrophilic substitution (briefly mentioned in Chapter 3). Mechanistically, it is also related to the haloform reaction (see Chapter 45).

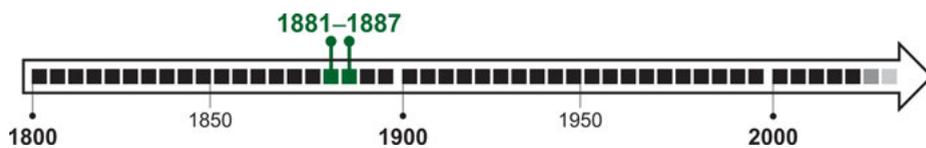


Fig. 47.2: The discovery of the *Hell–Volhard–Zelinsky reaction*.¹⁴⁷

¹⁴⁷ The reaction was likely first described around 1881 by Hell [47a], and around 1887 by both Volhard and Zelinsky [47b] and [47c].

48 Hiyama Cross Coupling

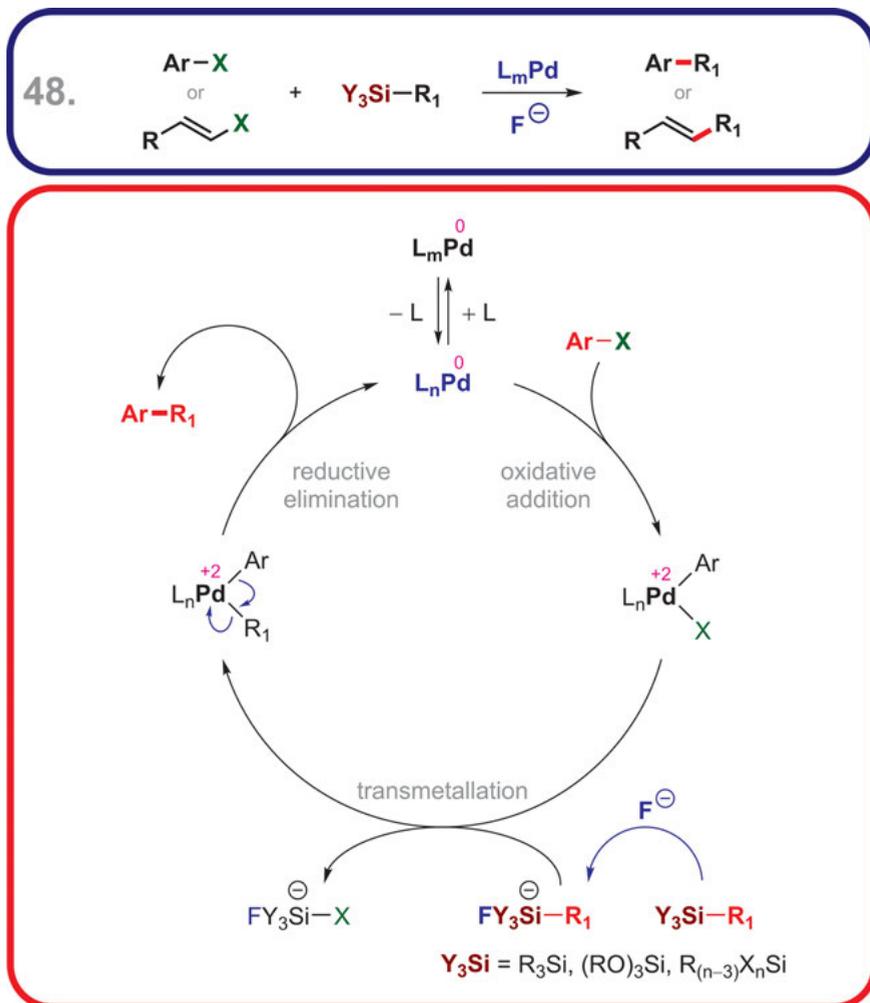


Fig. 48.1: The *Hiyama* cross coupling mechanism.¹⁴⁸

148 The *Hiyama* cross coupling is a type of *Pd*-catalyzed cross coupling reaction (C–C bond formation using *aryl halides* and *organosilanes*). For teaching purposes, a simplified and general mechanism is shown.

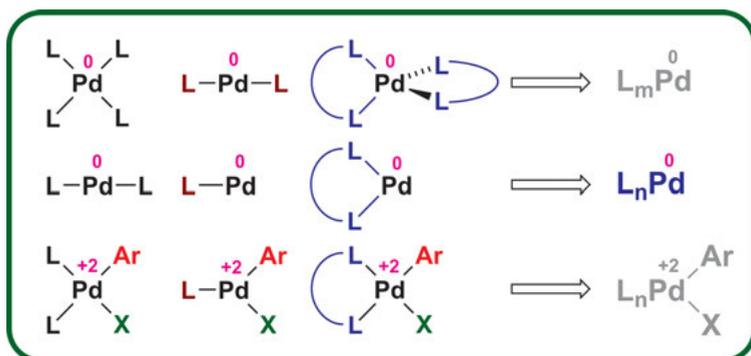


Fig. 48.2: The oxidative addition step representation.¹⁴⁹

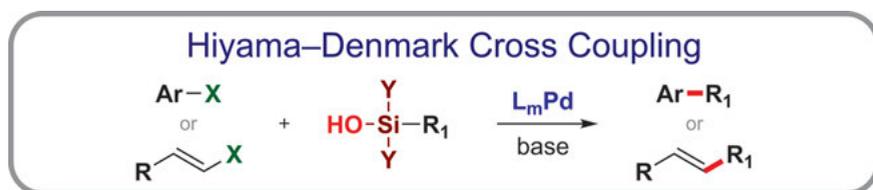


Fig. 48.3: Variations of the *Hiyama* cross coupling.¹⁵⁰

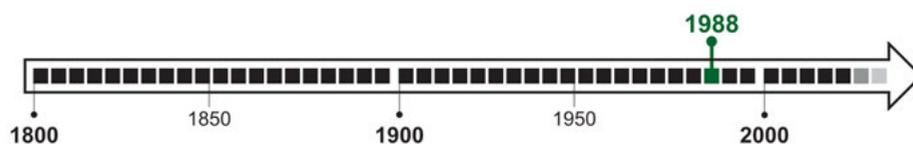


Fig. 48.4: The discovery of the *Hiyama* cross coupling.¹⁵¹

149 As it was explained in Chapter 46, the representation of the *oxidative addition* step can vary. For simplicity and consistency, a general depiction of a *catalyst–ligand* complex is used: L_mPd or L_nPd [2a].

150 A modification of the *Hiyama* cross coupling is called the *Hiyama–Denmark* cross coupling reaction [48a]. It is also a type of *Pd-catalyzed cross coupling* reaction (C–C bond formation using *aryl halides* and *organosilanols*).

151 The reaction was likely first described around 1988 [48b].

49 Hofmann Elimination

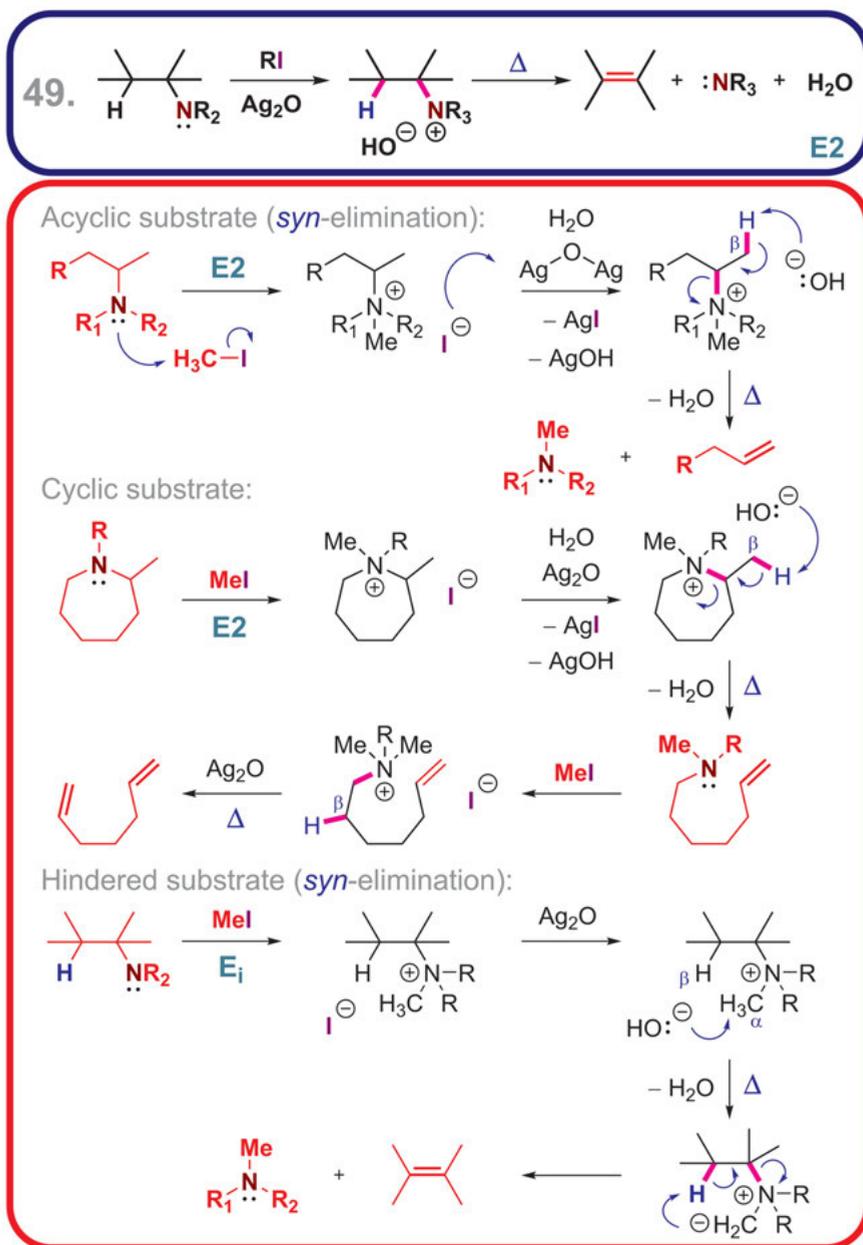


Fig. 49.1: The *Hofmann elimination* mechanism.¹⁵²

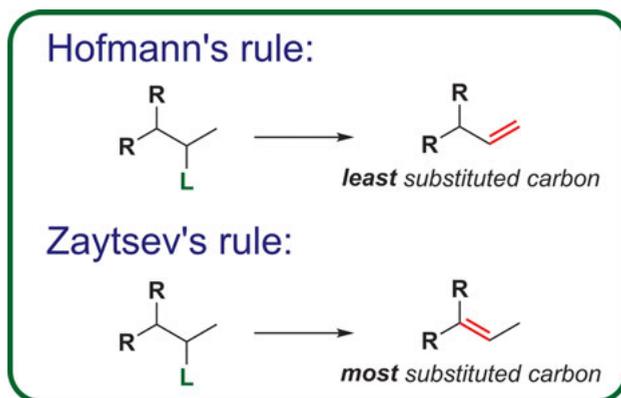


Fig. 49.2: *Hofmann's rule* and *Zaytsev's rule*.¹⁵³

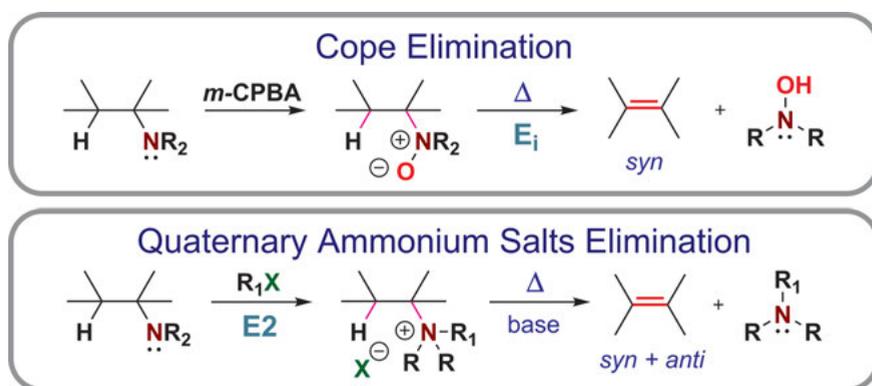


Fig. 49.3: Reactions related to the *Hofmann elimination*.¹⁵⁴

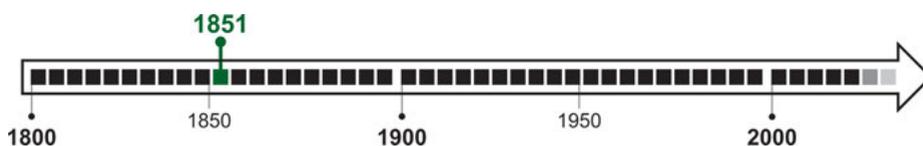


Fig. 49.4: The discovery of the *Hofmann elimination*.¹⁵⁵

152 The *Hofmann elimination* is also known as the *Hofmann degradation*. This should not be confused with the *Hofmann rearrangement* (Chapter 31). It is an example of β -elimination reaction, Chapter 6.

153 The products of the *Hofmann elimination* obey *Hofmann's rule*: the double bond is at the *least substituted carbon*. If the double bond is at the *most substituted carbon*, then it conforms with *Zaytsev's rule* (also spelled Saytzeff, and in Russian Александр Михайлович Зайцев or А. М. Зайцев) [49a].

154 Several reactions are related to the *Hofmann elimination*: the *Cope elimination* (E_i mechanism, Chapter 27), the fragmentation of quaternary ammonium salts ($E2$ mechanism), and others [1, 49b].

155 The reaction was likely first described around 1851 [49c, 49d].

50 Horner–Wadsworth–Emmons Olefination

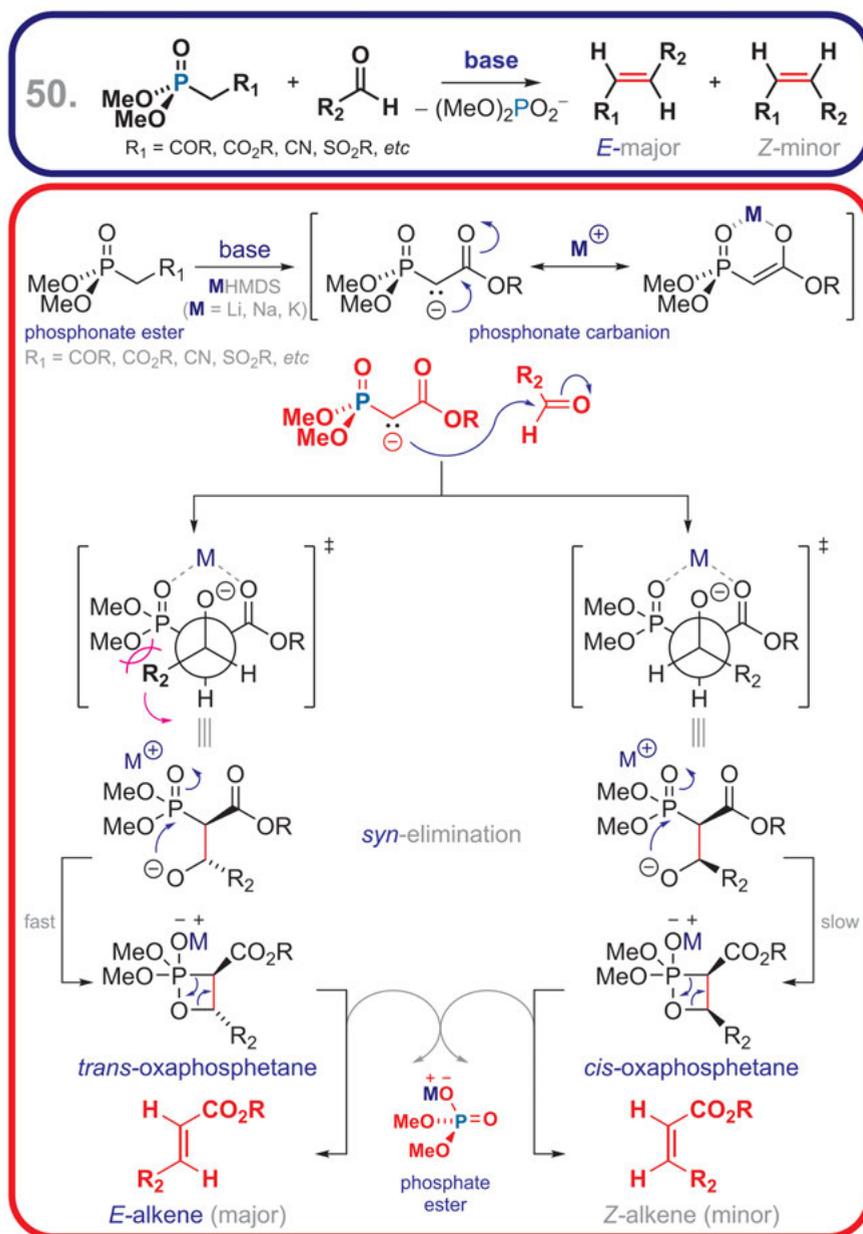


Fig. 50.1: The *Horner–Wadsworth–Emmons* olefination mechanism.¹⁵⁶

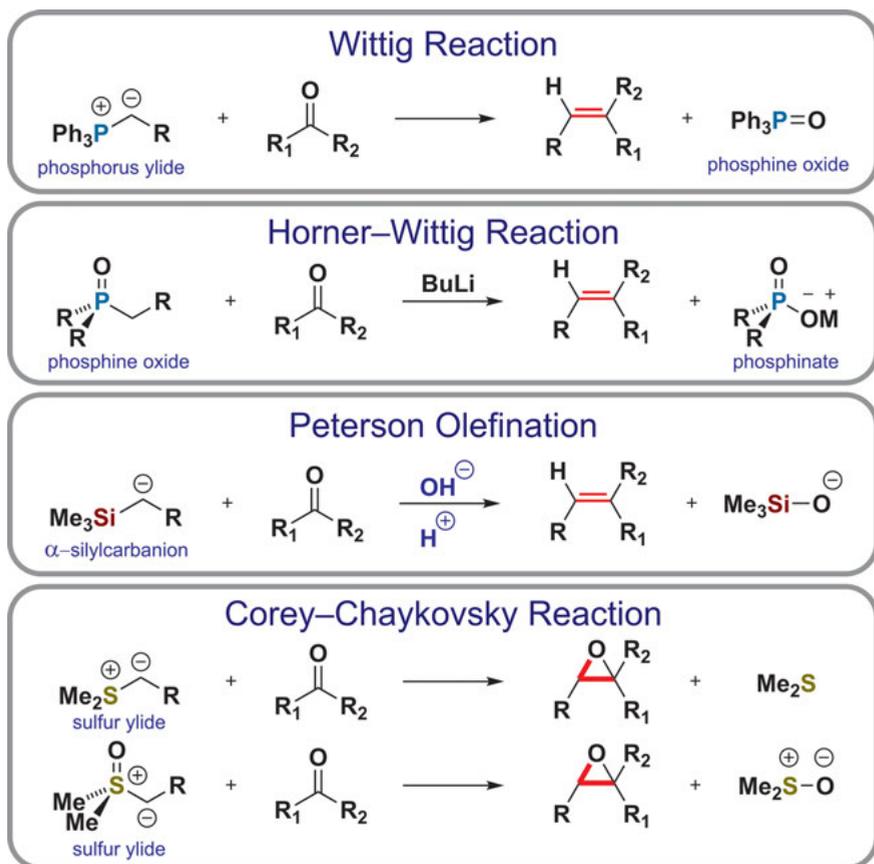


Fig. 50.2: Reactions related to the *Horner–Wadsworth–Emmons olefination*.¹⁵⁷

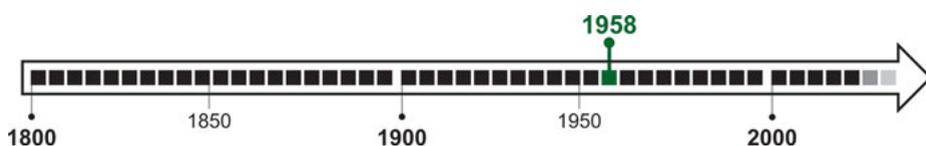


Fig. 50.3: The discovery of the *Horner–Wadsworth–Emmons olefination*.¹⁵⁸

156 The *Horner–Wadsworth–Emmons (HWE) olefination* is also called the *HWE reaction*. The reaction relies on the use of *phosphonates* prepared via the *Arbuzov reaction* (Chapter 9).

157 Several reactions are related to the *HWE olefination*: the *Wittig reaction* (Chapter 98, it relies on the *phosphorus ylides* formed from the *phosphonium salts*), the *Horner–Wittig reaction* (relies on the *ylides* formed from the *phosphine oxides*) [1] and [50a], the *Peterson olefination* (relies on the *organosilanes*) [50b], the *Corey–Chaykovsky reaction* (relies on the *sulfur ylides*, Chapter 32).

158 The reaction was likely first described around 1958 [50c, 50d, 50e].

51 Jones Oxidation

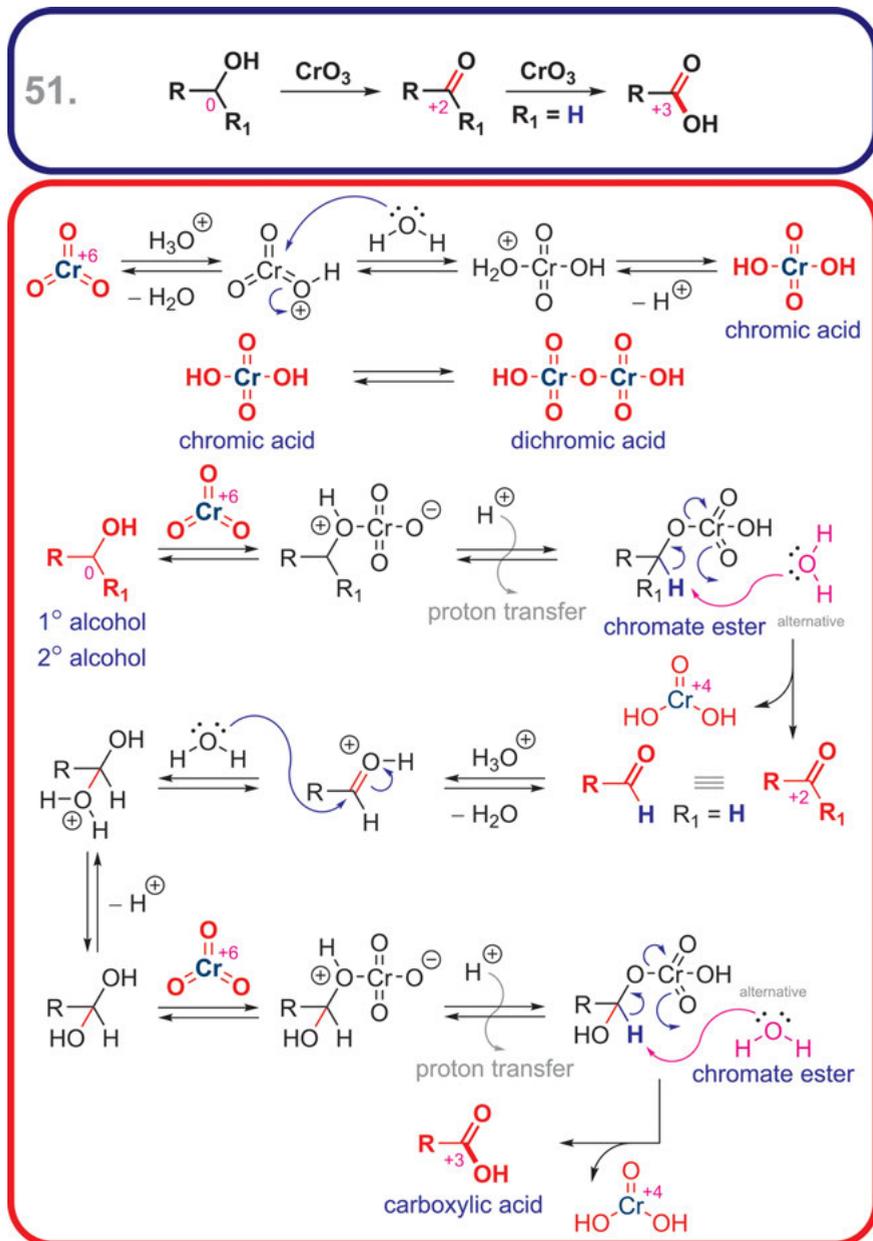


Fig. 51.1: The Jones oxidation mechanism.¹⁵⁹

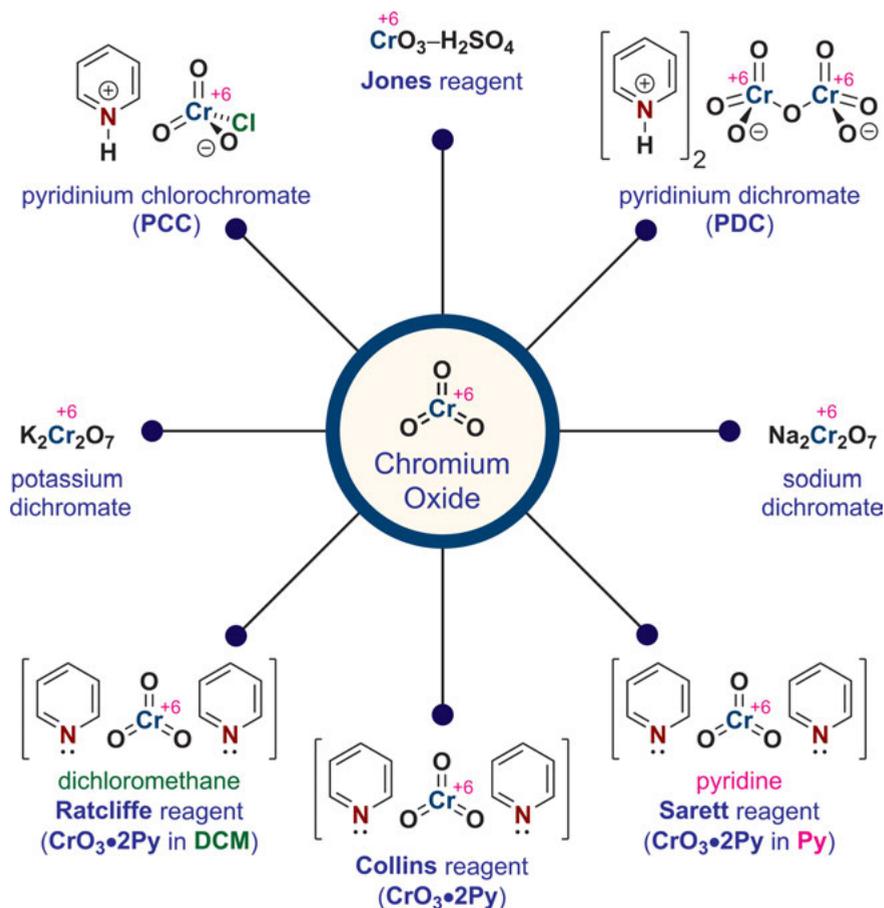


Fig. 51.2: Various oxidizing reagents formed from chromium oxide (VI).¹⁶⁰

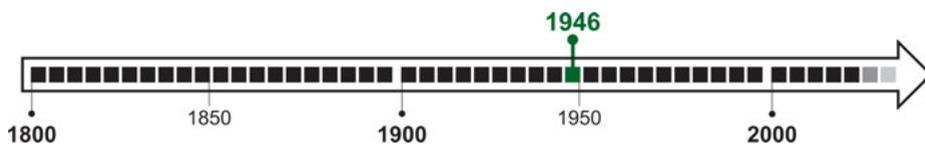


Fig. 51.3: The discovery of the *Jones oxidation*.¹⁶¹

159 The *Jones oxidation* is based on the use of the same named reagent: the *Jones reagent* [51a].

160 There are numerous examples of chromium oxidizing reagents, which can be prepared from chromium oxide (VI): *pyridinium chlorochromate* (PCC) [51b, 51c] is one of the most important among them.

161 The reaction was likely first described around 1946 [51d].

52 Kucherov Reaction

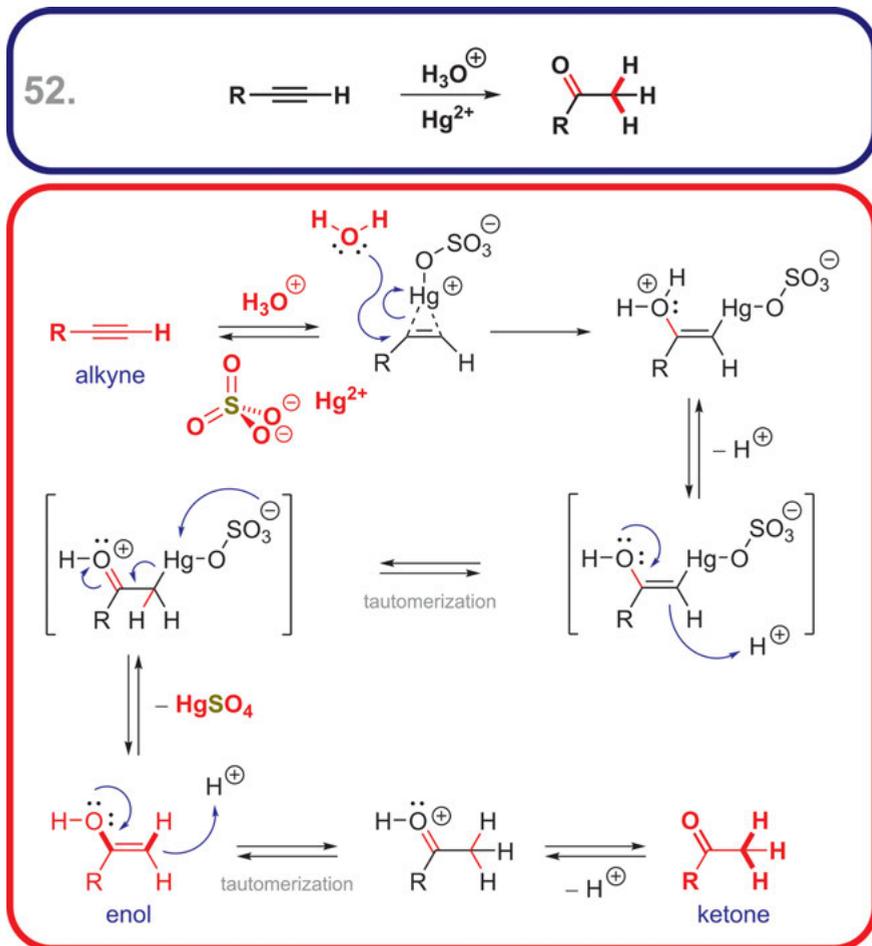


Fig. 52.1: The *Kucherov* reaction mechanism.¹⁶²

162 The *Kucherov* reaction (in Russian Кучеров) is rare and very seldom called by its name. Mechanistically, it is an example of the **electrophilic addition** (to an alkyne) more broadly covered in Chapter 1. The reaction follows *Markovnikov's rule* (in Russian Владимир Васильевич Марковников or В. В. Марковников): hydrogen (H^+ , or any other electrophilic part of a molecule) is at the least substituted carbon (or H adds to the carbon with more H atoms) [52a].

53 Kumada Cross Coupling

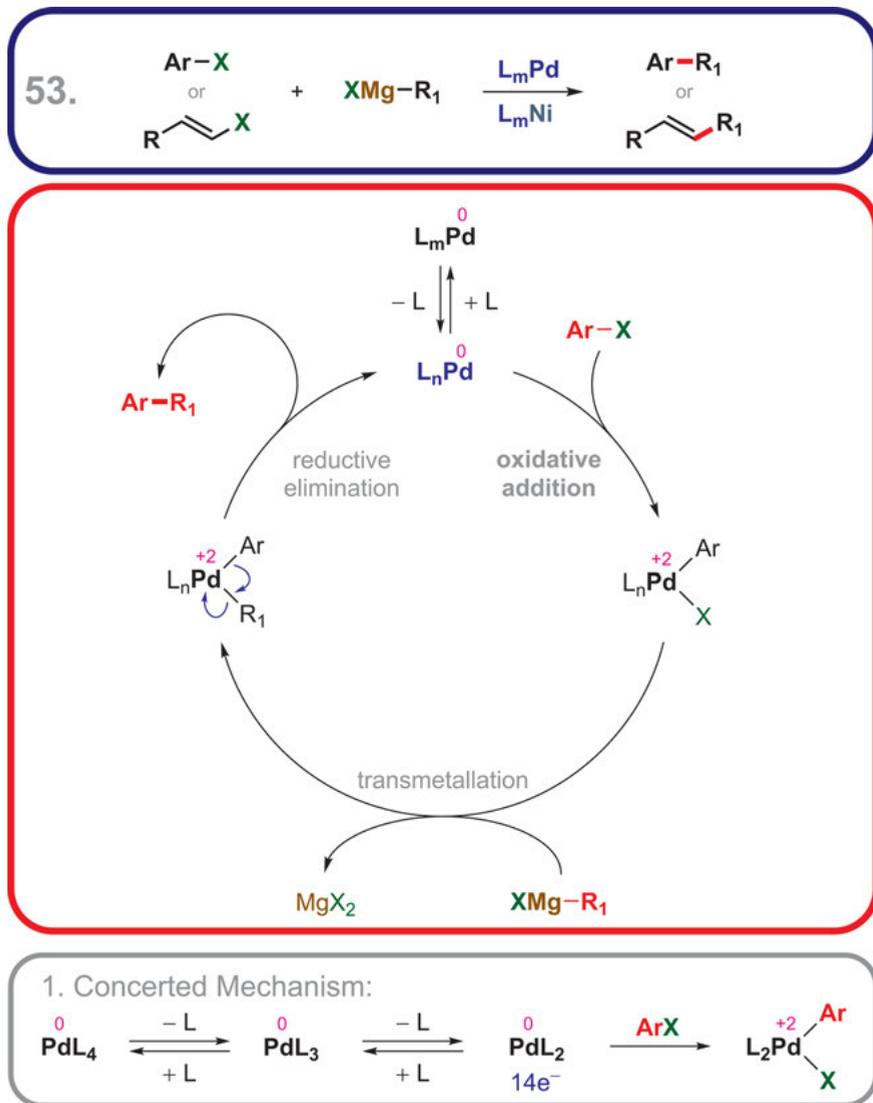


Fig. 53.1: The Pd-catalyzed *Kumada cross coupling* mechanism.¹⁶⁵

165 The *Kumada cross coupling* (or the *Kumada–Corriu cross coupling*) is a type of *Pd-catalyzed cross coupling* reaction (C–C bond formation using *aryl halides* and the *Grignard reagent* = *organo-magnesium compound*). For teaching purposes, a simplified and general mechanism is shown. Note, (1) *concerted oxidative addition* step to a low-coordinate ($14e^-$) *Pd*-complex is more complicated [2a].

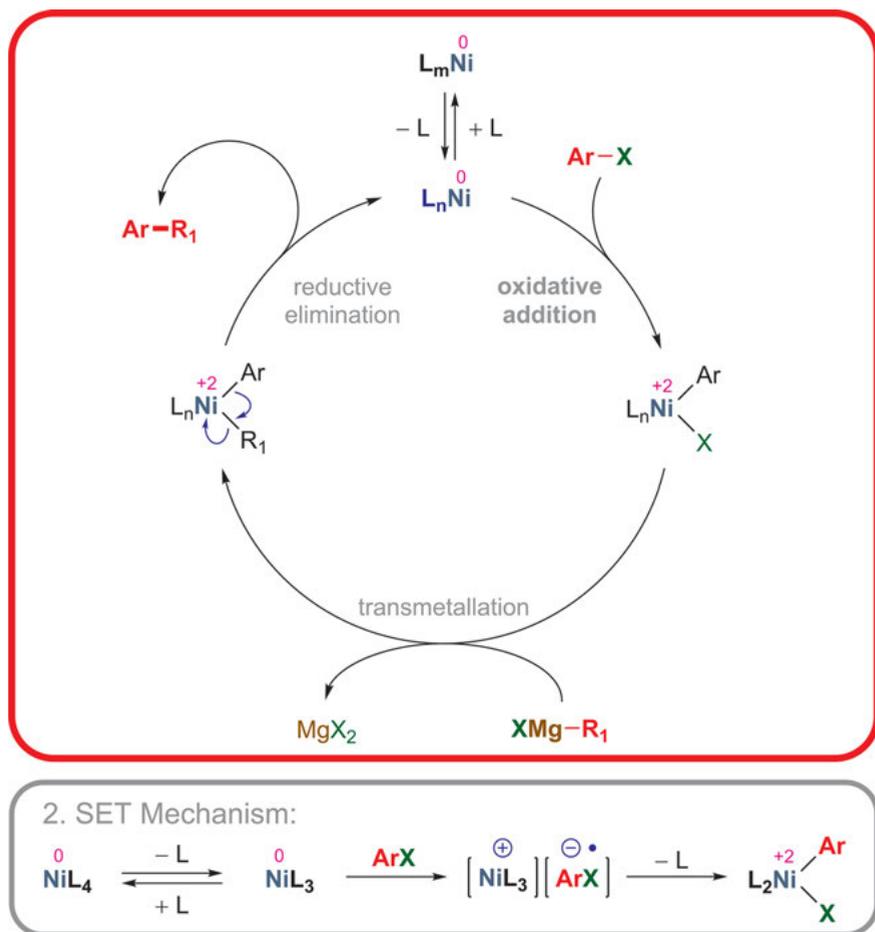


Fig. 53.2: The Ni-catalyzed Kumada cross coupling mechanism.¹⁶⁶

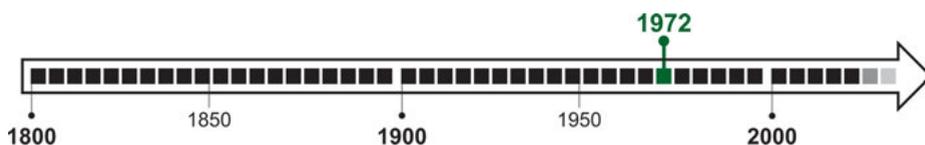


Fig. 53.3: The discovery of the Kumada cross coupling.¹⁶⁷

¹⁶⁶ The Kumada cross coupling can be Ni-catalyzed. Note, a possible example of a (2) SET oxidative addition step to a Ni-complex (not necessarily at play in the example shown) [2a].

¹⁶⁷ The reaction was likely first described around 1972 [53].

54 Ley–Griffith Oxidation

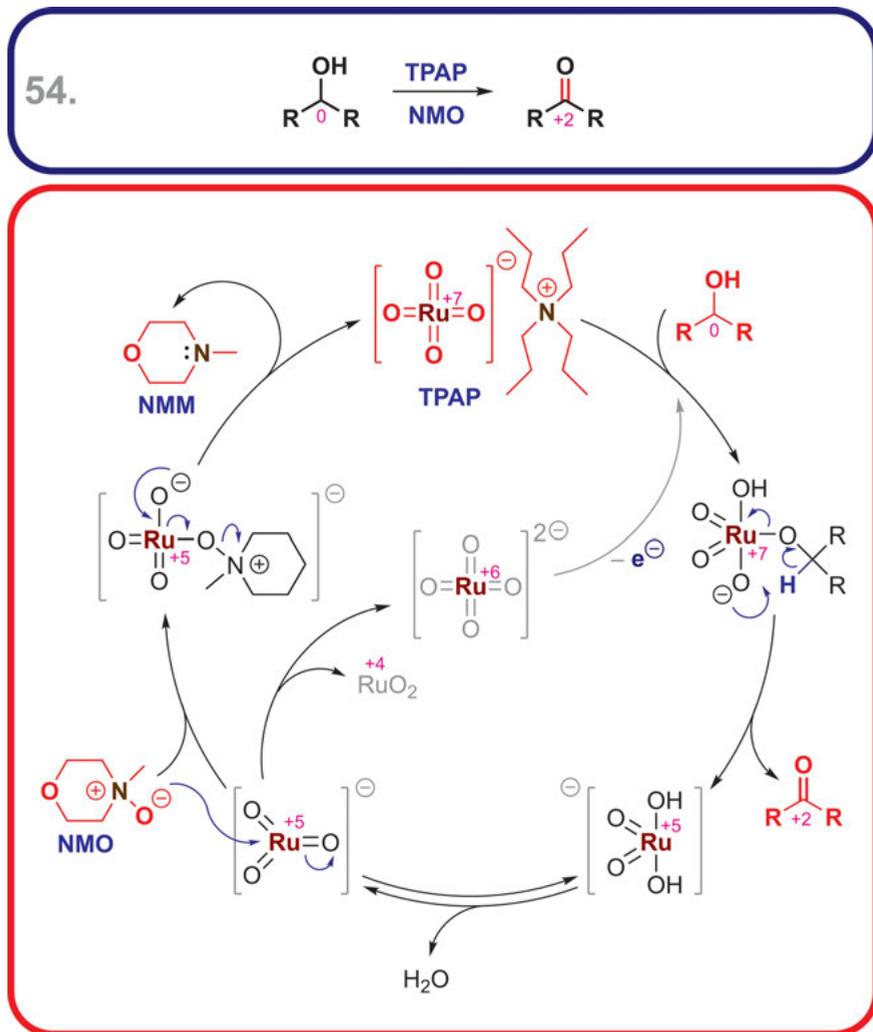


Fig. 54.1: The *Ley–Griffith* oxidation mechanism.¹⁶⁸

168 The *Ley–Griffith* oxidation is based on the use of a named reagent: the *Ley–Griffith* reagent (TPAP) [54a].

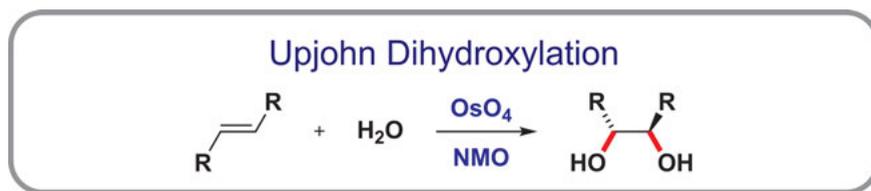


Fig. 54.2: Reactions related to the *Ley–Griffith oxidation*.¹⁶⁹

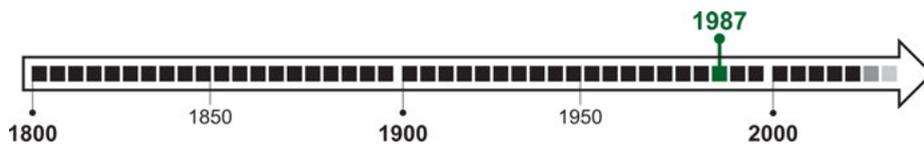


Fig. 54.3: The discovery of the *Ley–Griffith oxidation*.¹⁷⁰

169 The *Upjohn dihydroxylation* (covered in Chapter 93) is related to the *Ley–Griffith oxidation*.

170 The reaction was likely first described around 1987 [54b].

55 Liebeskind–Srogl Cross Coupling

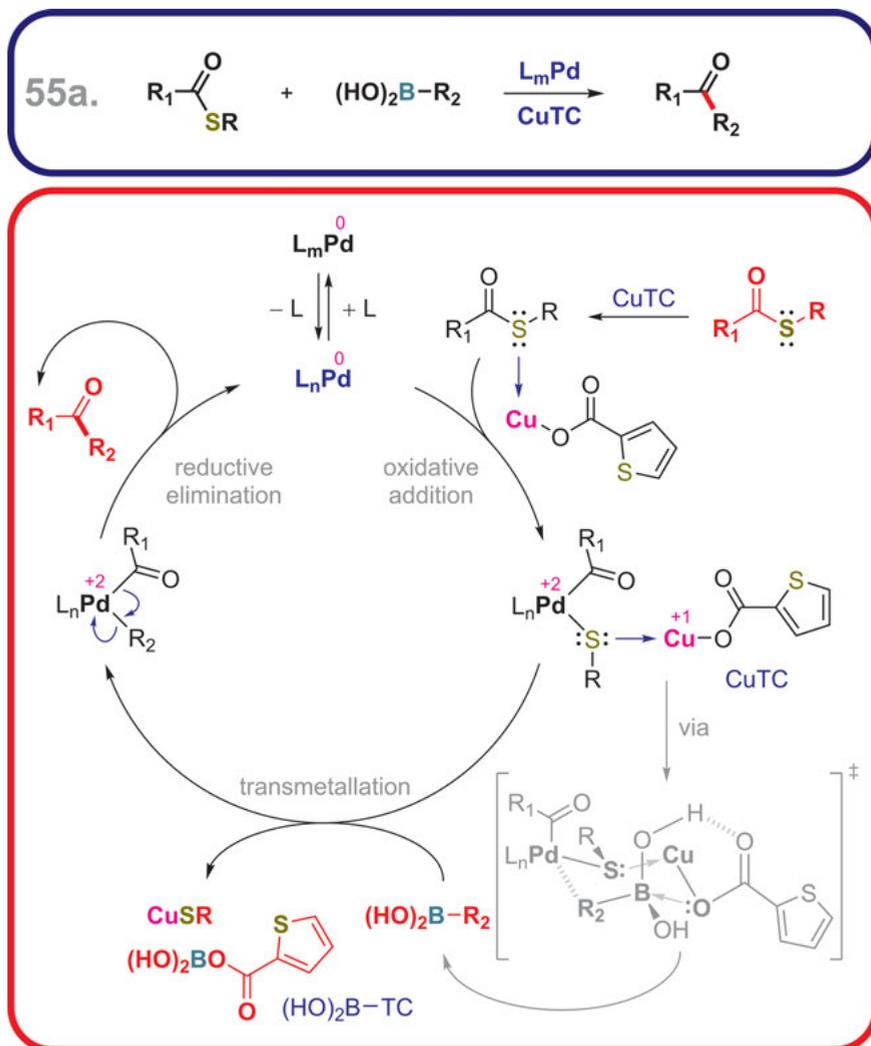


Fig. 55.1: The **Liebeskind–Srogl** cross coupling (thioesters) mechanism.¹⁷¹

171 The **Liebeskind–Srogl** cross coupling of thioesters is a type of **Pd**-catalyzed cross coupling reaction (C–C bond formation using *thioesters* and *boronic acids*). For teaching purposes, only a simplified general mechanism is shown.

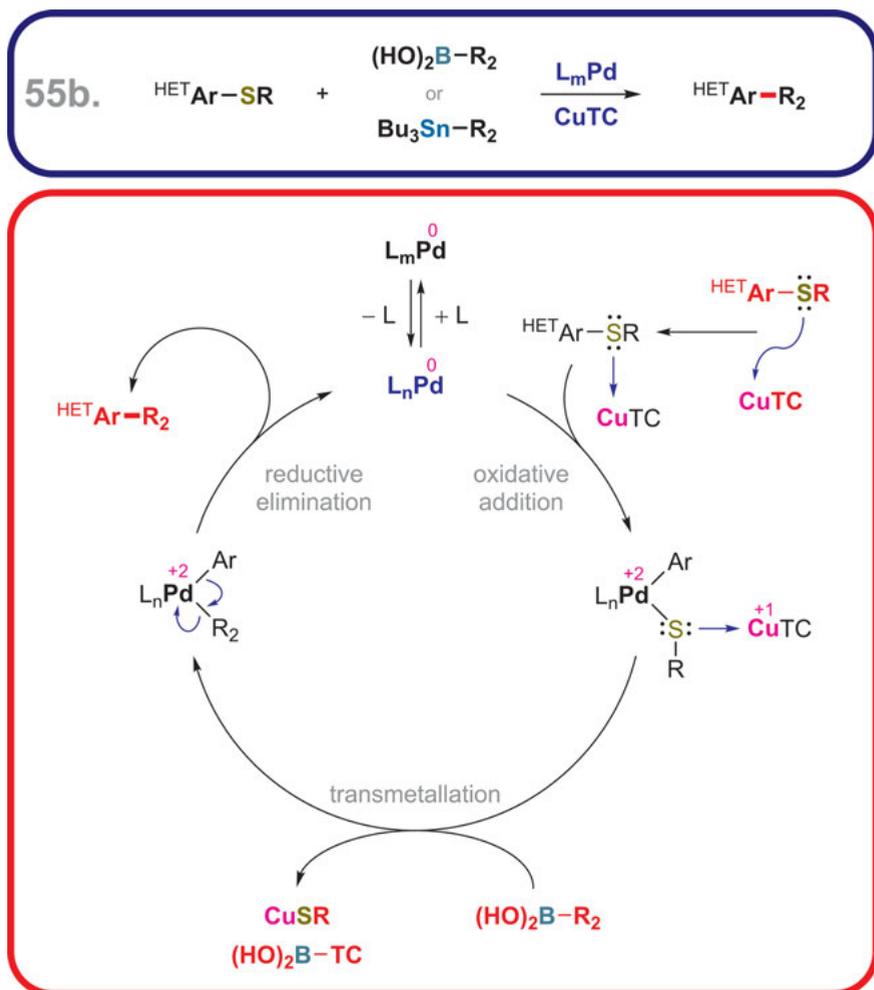


Fig. 55.2: The *Liebeskind–Srogl* cross coupling (thioethers) mechanism.¹⁷²

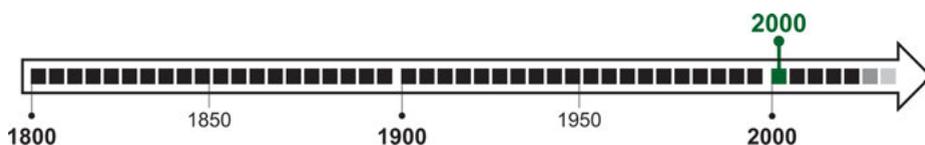


Fig. 55.3: The discovery of the *Liebeskind–Srogl* cross coupling.¹⁷³

¹⁷² The *Liebeskind–Srogl* cross coupling of thioethers is a variation (C–C bond formation using thioethers (ArSR) and boronic acids or organotin reagents = organostannanes). For teaching purposes, only a simplified general mechanism is shown.

¹⁷³ The reaction was likely first described around 2000 [55].

56 Mannich Reaction

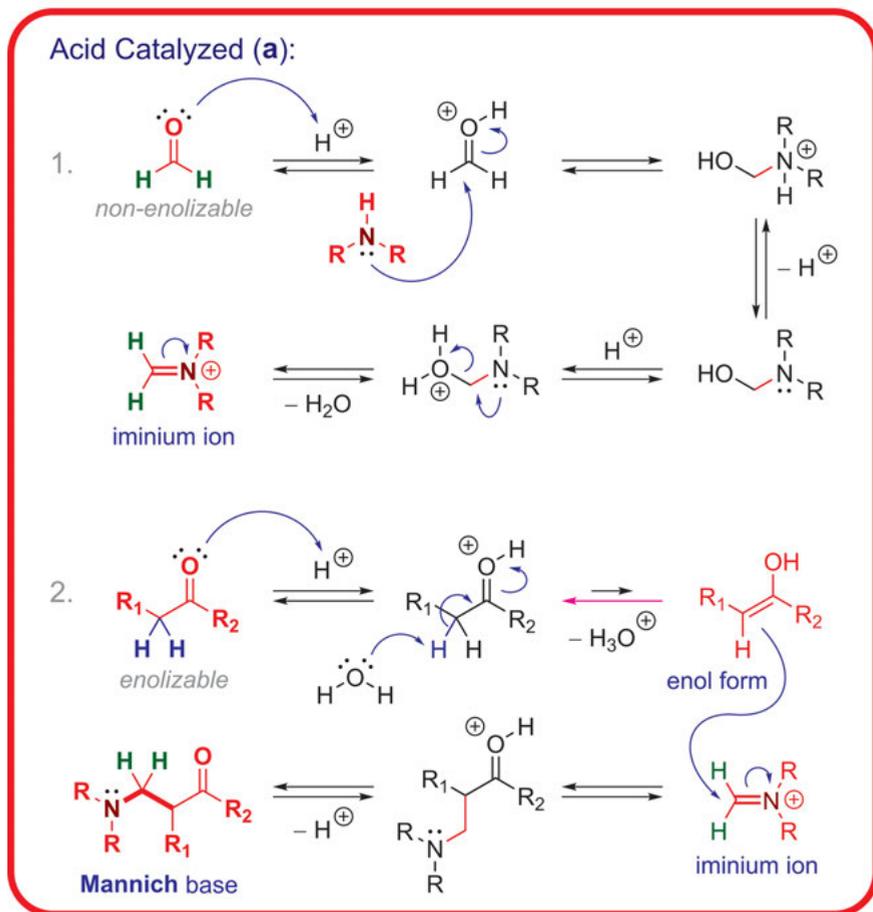
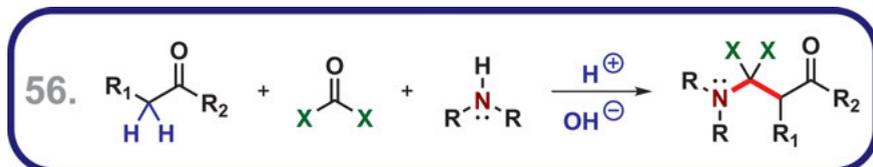


Fig. 56.1: The **Mannich reaction** mechanism (acid catalyzed).¹⁷⁴

¹⁷⁴ The **Mannich reaction** is also known as *the Mannich condensation*. This three-component reaction (3-CR) can be catalyzed in (a) acidic media (via an *iminium ion* intermediate). The final product (β -amino carbonyl) is also called a **Mannich base**.

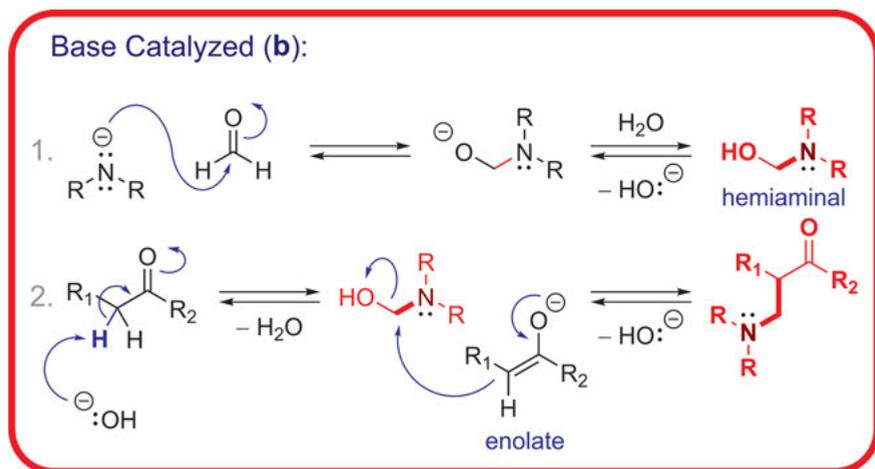


Fig. 56.2: The **Mannich reaction** mechanism (base catalyzed).¹⁷⁵

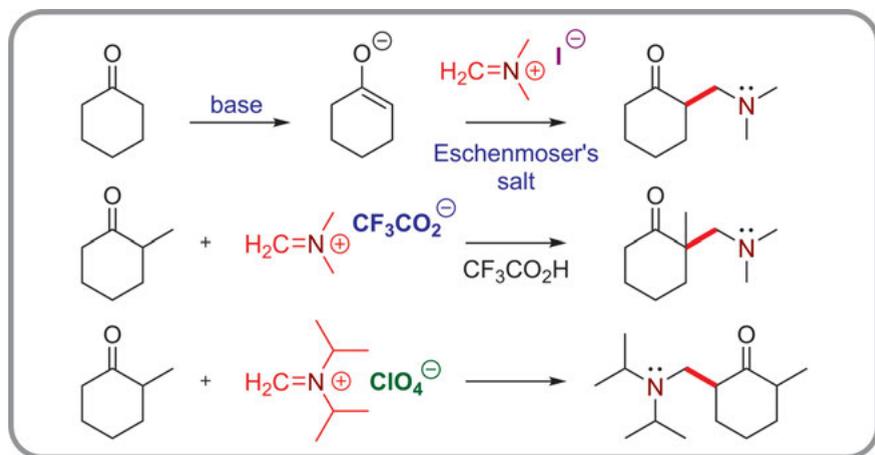


Fig. 56.3: Variations of the **Mannich reaction**.¹⁷⁶

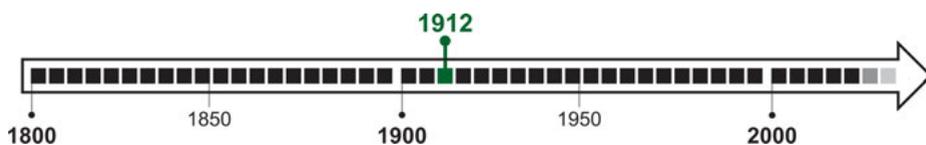


Fig. 56.4: The discovery of the **Mannich reaction**.¹⁷⁷

¹⁷⁵ The **Mannich reaction** can be also catalyzed in (b) basic media (via a *hemiaminal* intermediate).

¹⁷⁶ There are several iterations of the **Mannich reaction** based on availability of the preformed iminium ions: **Eschenmoser's salts** or **Böhme's salts** (not shown here) [56a].

¹⁷⁷ The reaction was likely first described around 1912 [56b].

57 McMurry Coupling

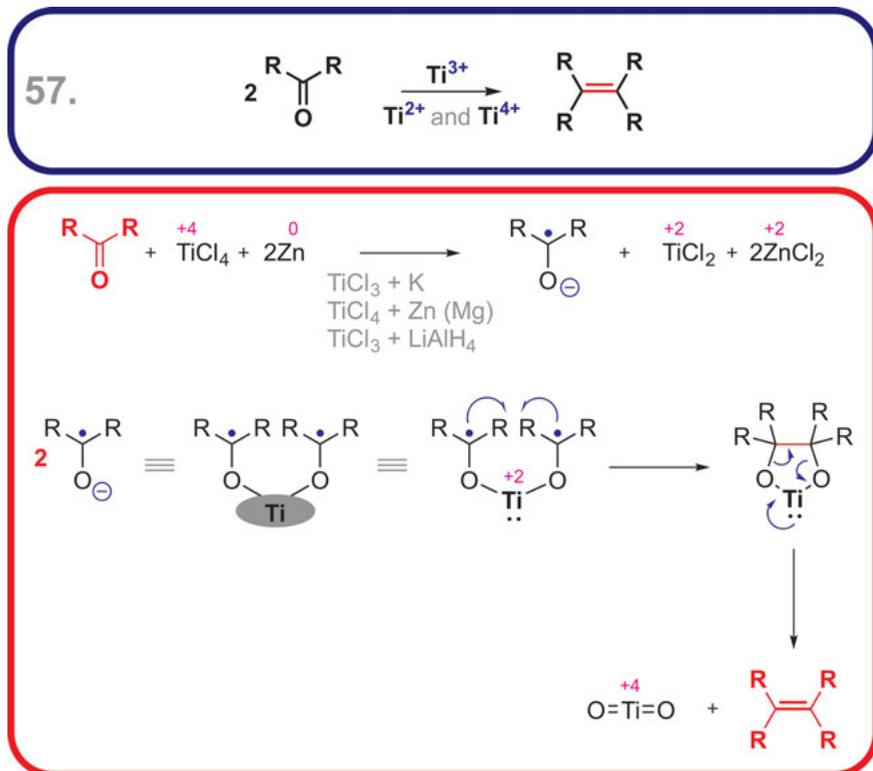


Fig. 57.1: The *McMurry coupling* mechanism.¹⁷⁸

¹⁷⁸ The *McMurry coupling* or the *McMurry reaction* mechanism is not fully understood. It is believed the *low-valent titanium* species play a major role: Ti (0) + Ti (II) + Ti (III).

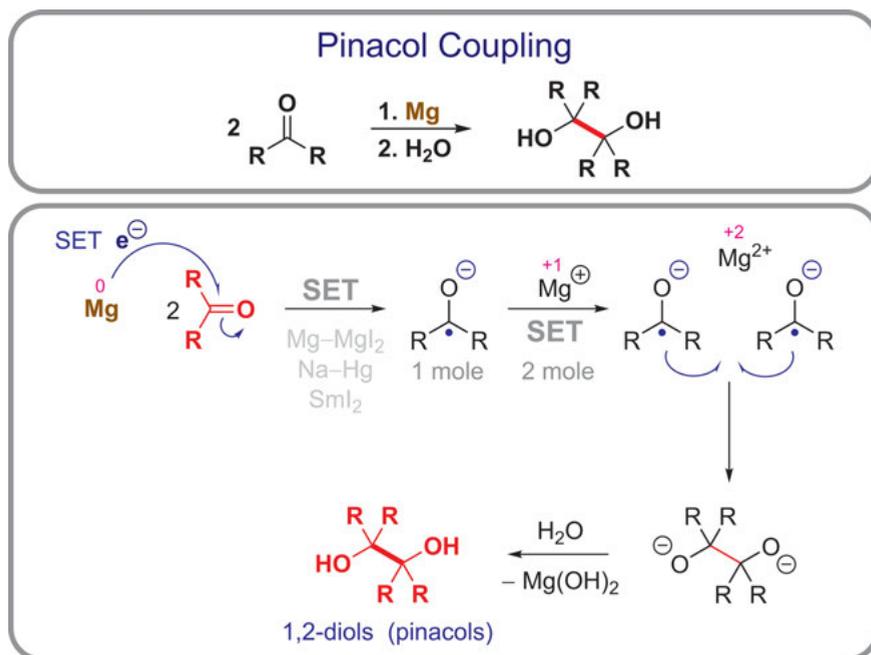


Fig. 57.2: The *pinacol coupling* mechanism.¹⁷⁹

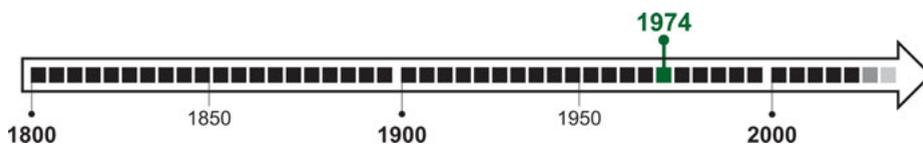


Fig. 57.3: The discovery of the *McMurry coupling*.¹⁸⁰

179 The *pinacol coupling* undergoes a **single electron transfer** (SET) mechanism [57a, 57b]. This reaction is related to the **McMurry coupling** and the *acyloin condensation* (covered in Chapter 7). Please do not confuse the *pinacol coupling* with the *pinacol-pinacolone rearrangement* covered in Chapter 76.

180 The reaction was likely first described around 1974 [57c].

58 Meerwein–Ponndorf–Verley Reduction

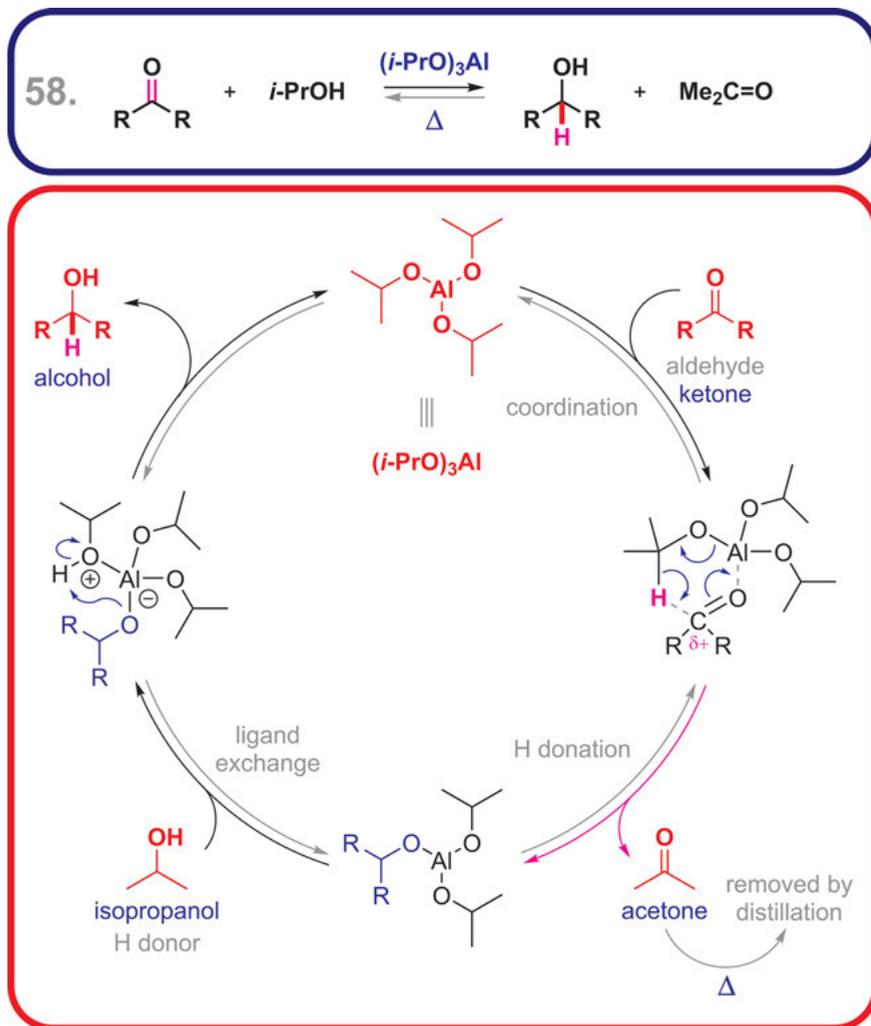


Fig. 58.1: The Meerwein–Ponndorf–Verley reaction mechanism.¹⁸¹

181 The Meerwein–Ponndorf–Verley (MPV) reduction is reversible. The reversed oxidation is called the **Oppenauer** oxidation. The equilibrium can be shifted towards reduction by removing formed *acetone* from the reaction mixture (via distillation).

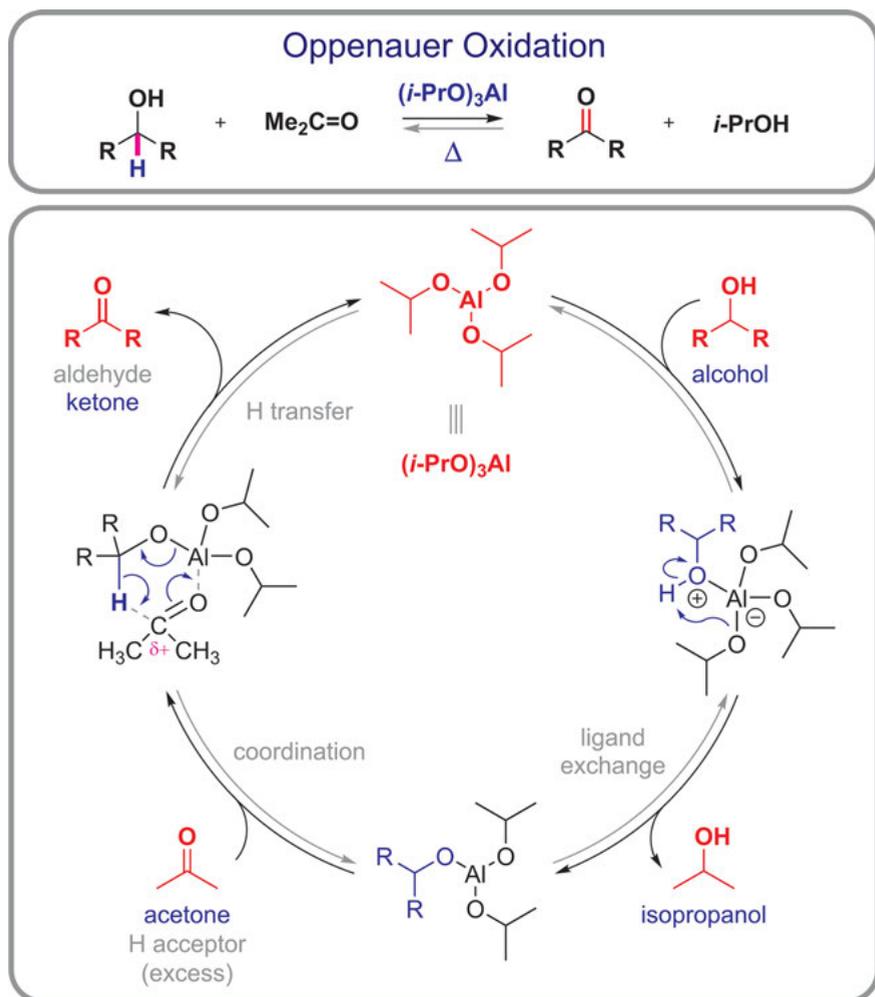


Fig. 58.2: The *Oppenauer* oxidation mechanism.¹⁸²

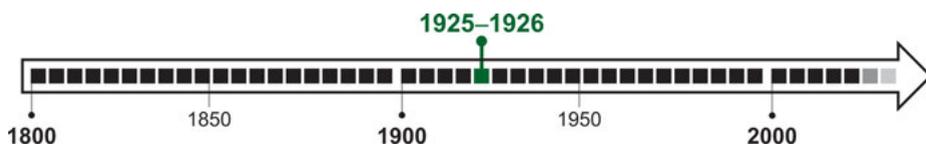


Fig. 58.3: The discovery of the *Meerwein–Ponndorf–Verley* reaction.¹⁸³

¹⁸² The *Oppenauer* oxidation is a reversed process of the *MPV* reduction (see Chapter 69).

¹⁸³ The reaction was likely first described around 1925 by Meerwein and Verley [58a, 58b], and then in 1926 by Ponndorf [58c].

59 Michael Addition

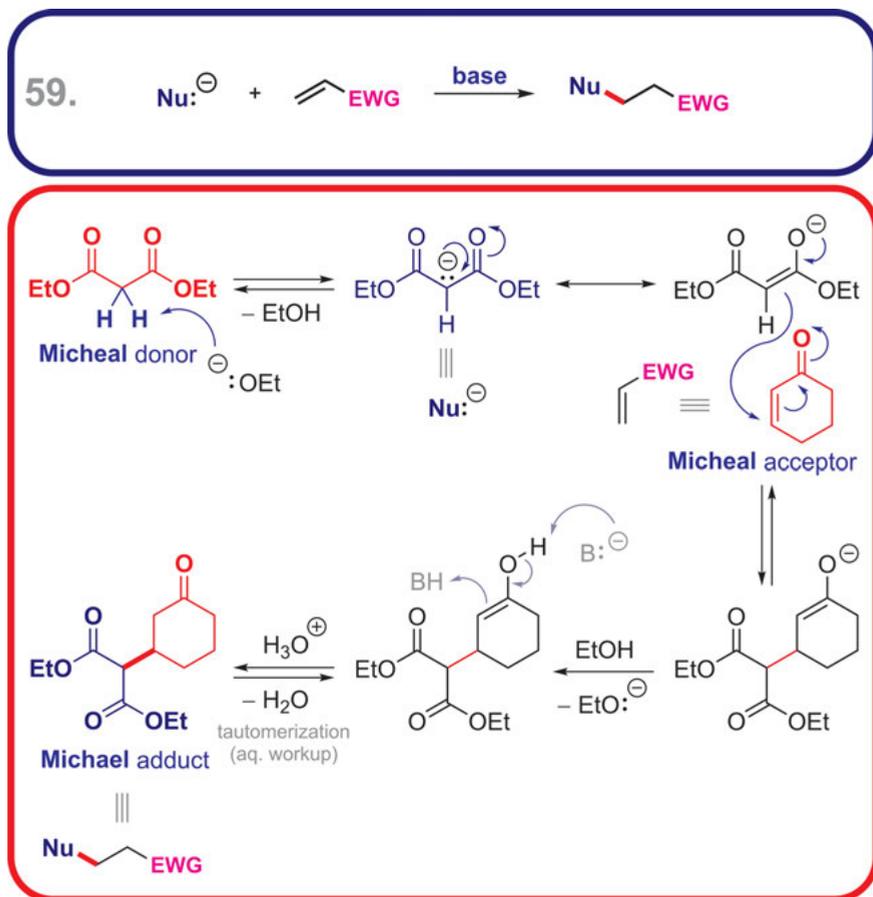


Fig. 59.1: The *Michael addition* mechanism.¹⁸⁴

184 The *Michael addition* or the *Michael conjugate addition* is also simply called the *Michael reaction*. The products are known as *Michael adducts*. It is one of the most important reactions in organic chemistry.

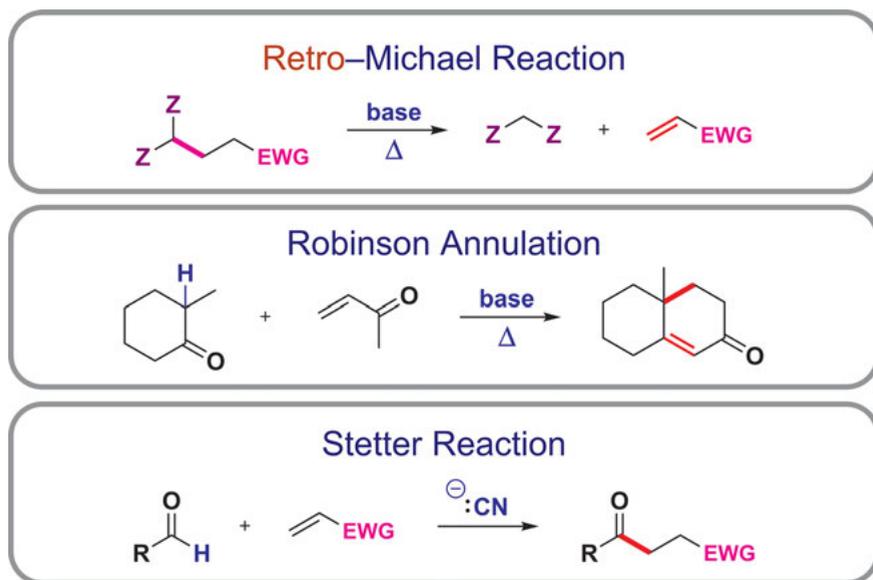


Fig. 59.2: Reactions related to the *Michael addition*.¹⁸⁵

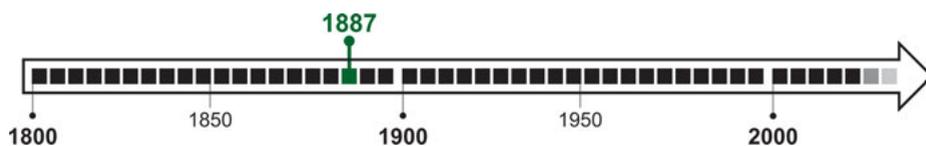


Fig. 59.3: The discovery of the *Michael addition*.¹⁸⁶

¹⁸⁵ There are variations of this reaction; for example, the *retro-Michael addition* and the *Robinson annulation* (covered in Chapter 83). Please note, the mechanism of the *Stetter reaction* (not shown) [59a] is related to both the *Michael addition* and to the *benzoin condensation* (covered in Chapter 15).

¹⁸⁶ The reaction was likely first described around 1887 [59b].

60 Minisci Reaction

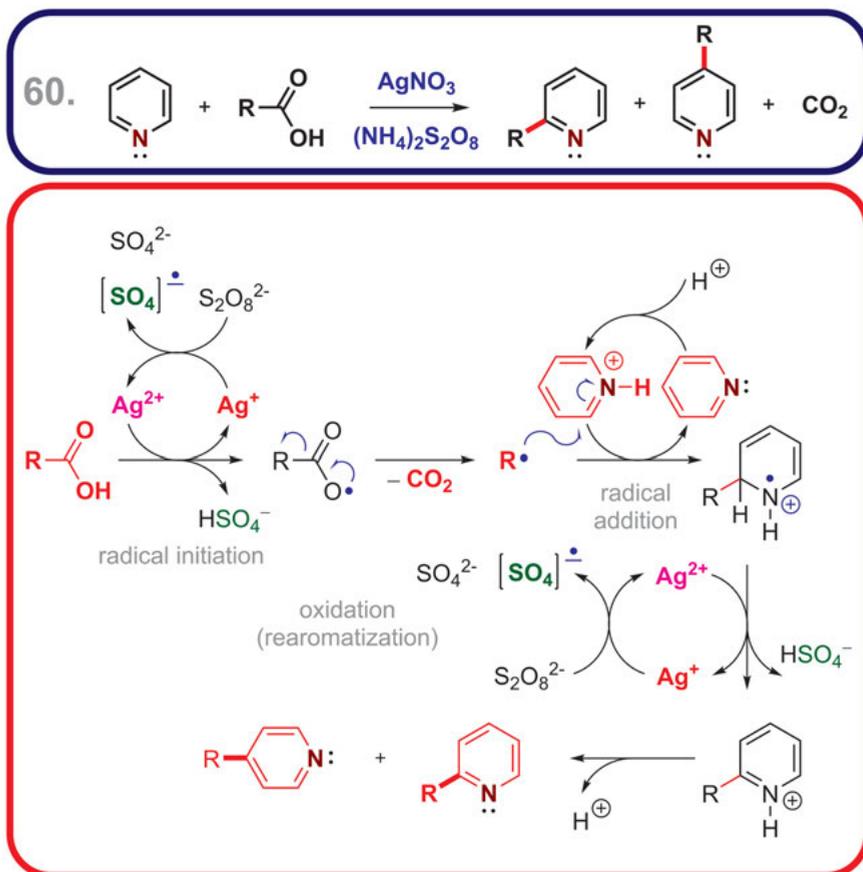


Fig. 60.1: The *Minisci* reaction mechanism.¹⁸⁷

187 The *Minisci* reaction is a type of **free radical substitution** (not covered in this book). The closely related mechanistic examples are the **S_{RN}1** mechanism (covered in Chapter 5), the **Barton decarboxylation** (covered in Chapter 12), and the **Wohl–Ziegler reaction** (covered in Chapter 99).

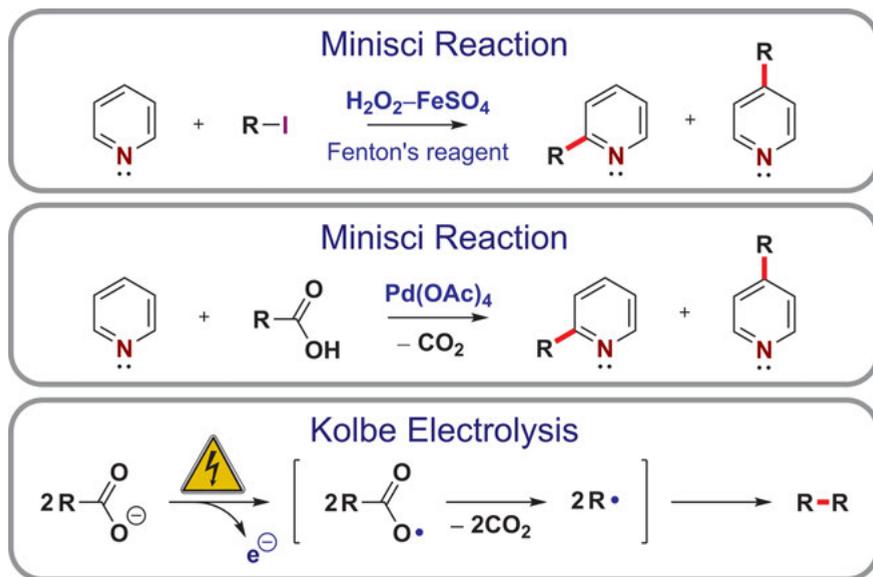


Fig. 60.2: Variations of the *Minisci reaction*.¹⁸⁸

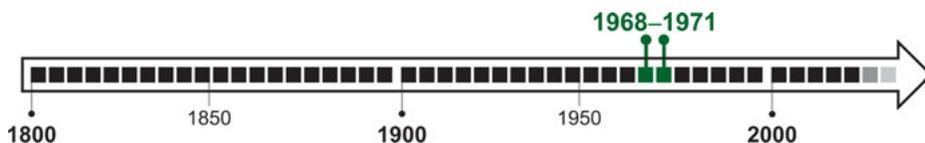


Fig. 60.3: The discovery of the *Minisci reaction*.¹⁸⁹

188 There are several variations of the *Minisci reaction* depending on the free radical sources: *Fenton's reagent* [60a] and alkyl iodides; lead (IV) acetate [60b] and carboxylic acids. The *Kolbe electrolysis* or the *Kolbe reaction* is also related [60c].

189 The reaction was likely first described between 1968–1971 [60d, 60e].

61 Mitsunobu Reaction

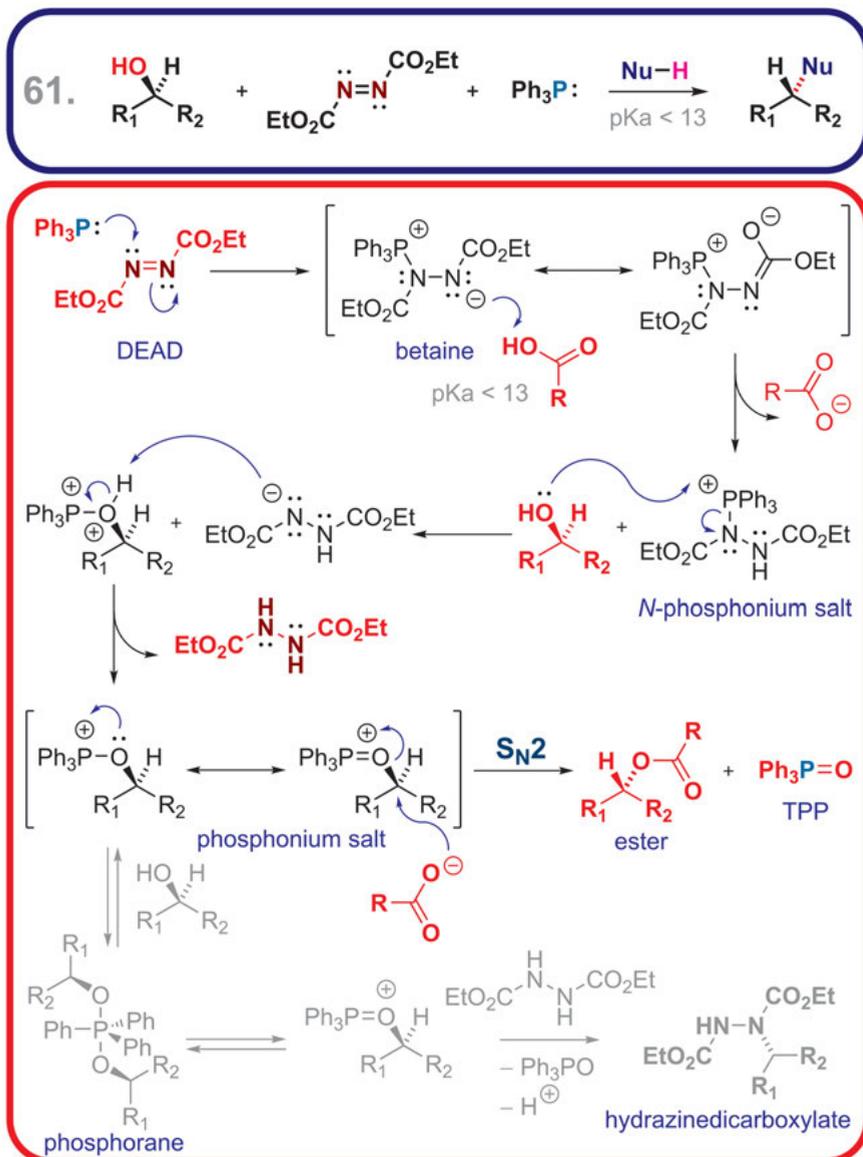


Fig. 61.1: The *Mitsunobu* reaction mechanism.¹⁹⁰

190 The *Mitsunobu* reaction mechanism is complicated but related to the (aliphatic) **nucleophilic substitution ($\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$)** covered in Chapter 2. Note, the pK_a of the NuH acid should be generally < 13 [61a].

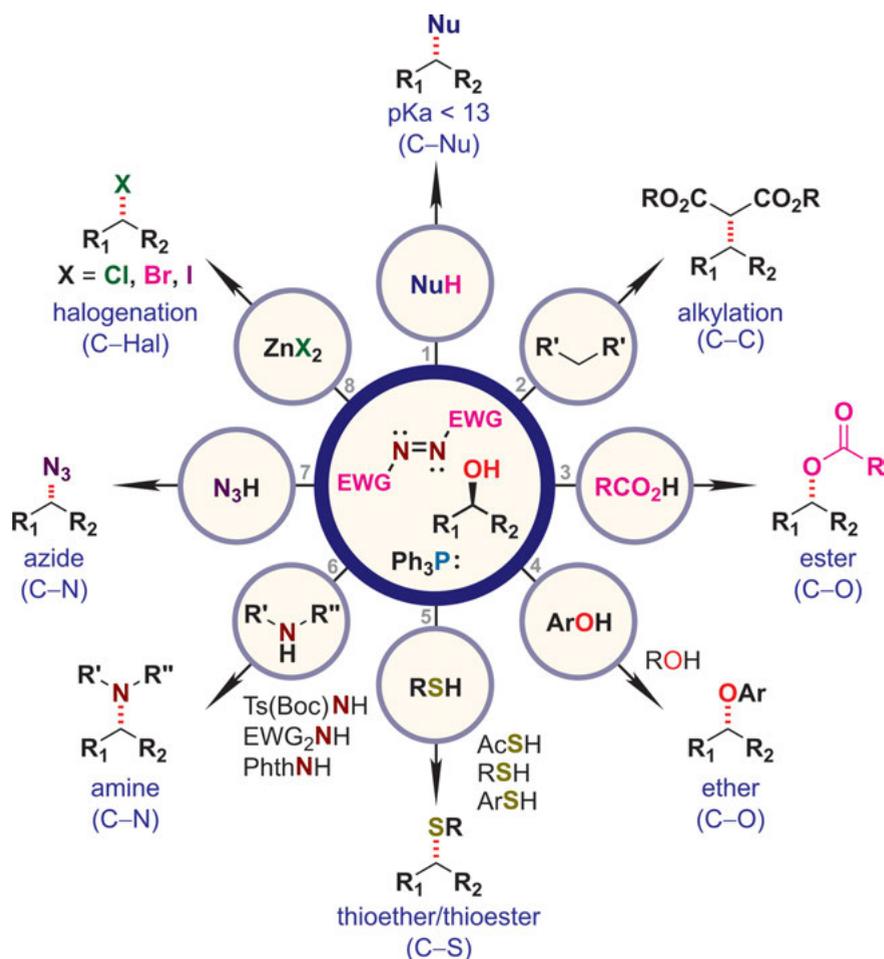


Fig. 61.2: Synthetic versatility of the *Mitsunobu* reaction.¹⁹¹

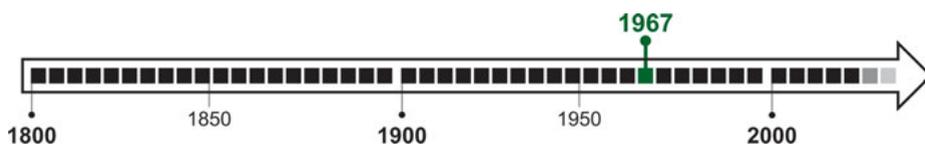


Fig. 61.3: The discovery of the *Mitsunobu* reaction.¹⁹²

191 The *Mitsunobu* reaction has wide synthetic application and can convert alcohols into various products using different nucleophiles (Nu): 1. R-Nu, $pK_a < 13$; 2. alkylated products C-C; 3. esters C-O; 4. ethers C-O; 5. thioethers or thioesters C-S; 6. amines C-N; 7. azides C-N; 8. alkyl halides C-X; and others [61b, 61c].

192 The reaction was likely first described around 1967 [61d, 61e].

62 Miyaura Borylation

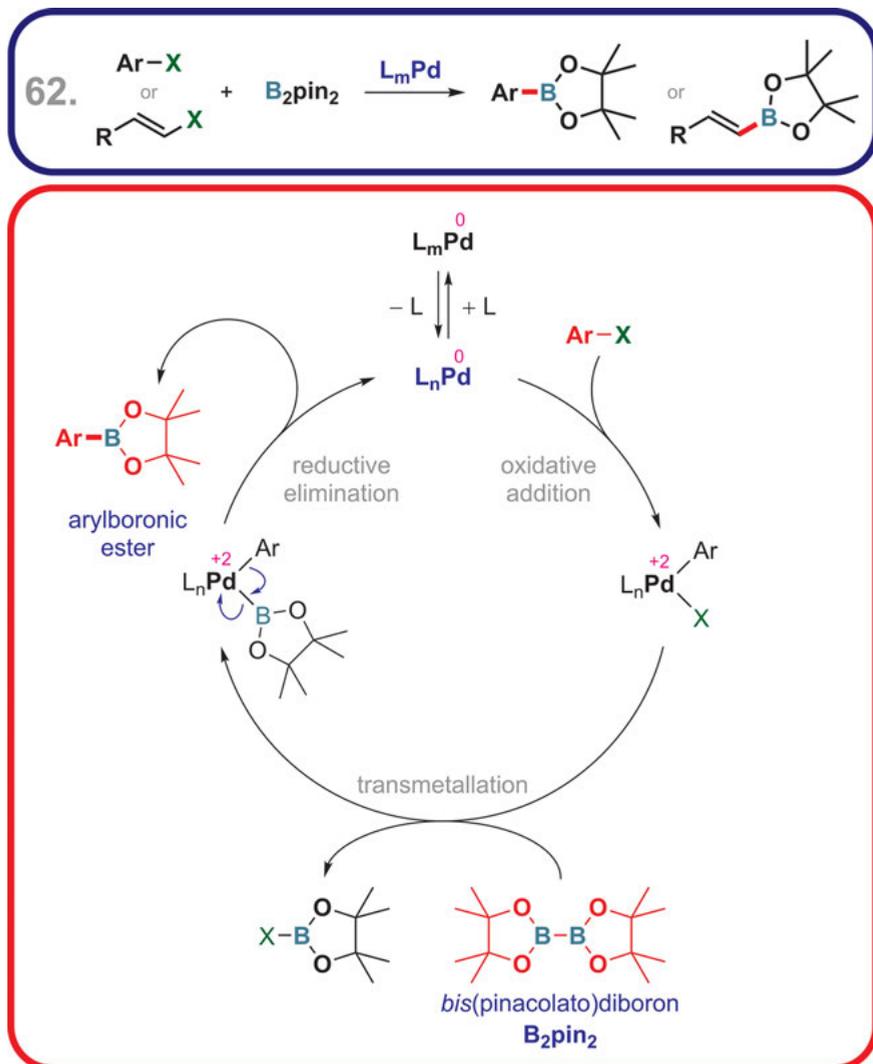


Fig. 62.1: The *Miyaura borylation* mechanism.¹⁹³

193 The *Miyaura borylation* is a type of **Pd-catalyzed cross coupling** reaction (C–B bond formation using *aryl halides* and *bis(pinacolato)diboron* or **B₂pin₂** [62a]). For teaching purposes, a simplified and general mechanism is shown. The synthesized *boronic esters* (and their related *boronic acids*) are one of the most important reagents in synthetic organic and medicinal chemistry.

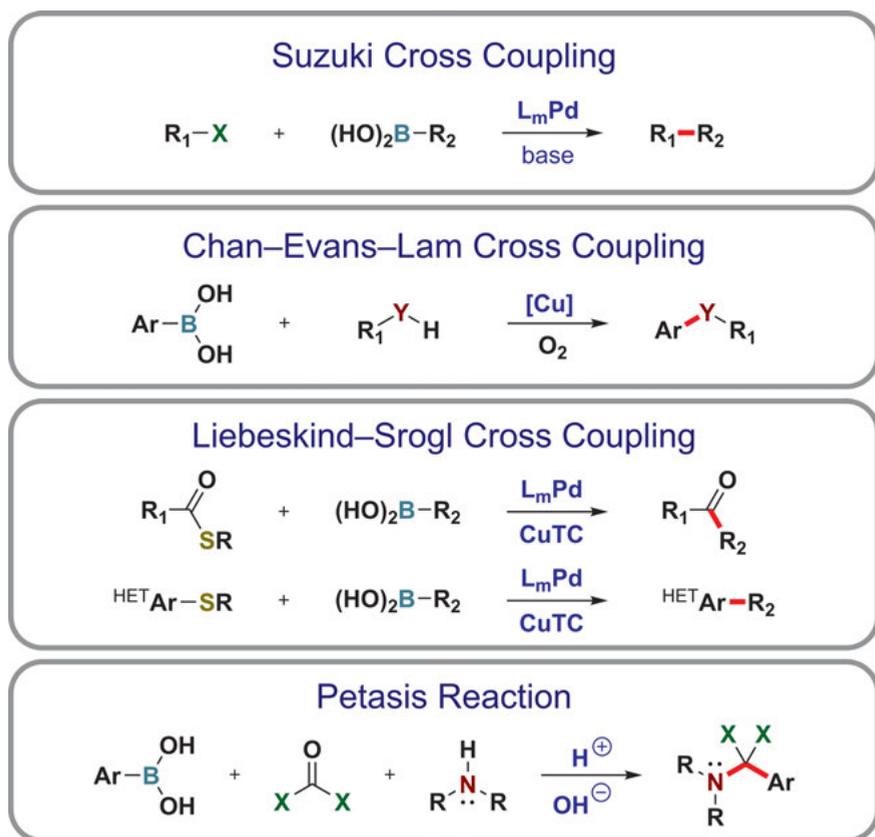


Fig. 62.2: Synthetic application of boronic esters and acids.¹⁹⁴

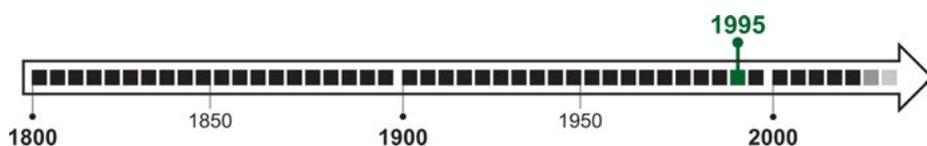


Fig. 62.3: The discovery of the *Miyaura borylation*.¹⁹⁵

¹⁹⁴ Many key cross-coupling reactions utilize boronic esters (and their related boronic acids): the **Suzuki** cross coupling (covered in Chapter 89), the **Chan–Evans–Lam** cross coupling (covered in Chapter 23), **Liebeskind–Srogl** cross coupling (covered in Chapter 55). The **Petasis** reaction is a mechanistically different three-component (3-CR) reaction, but it uses boronic acids as well [62b].

¹⁹⁵ The reaction was likely first described around 1995 [62c].

63 Mukaiyama RedOx Hydration

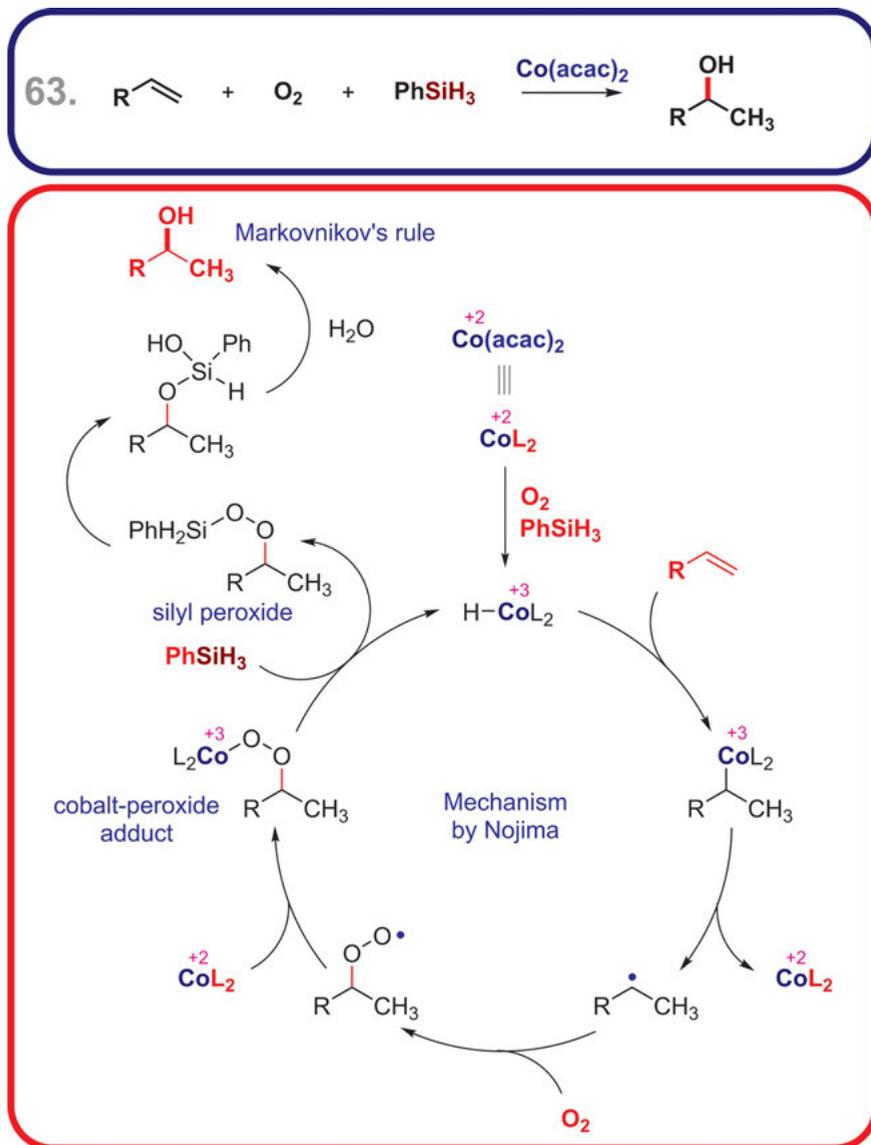


Fig. 63.1: The **Mukaiyama RedOx hydration** mechanism by **Nojima**.¹⁹⁶

¹⁹⁶ The revised **Mukaiyama RedOx hydration** mechanism is recently proposed by **Nojima** [63a].

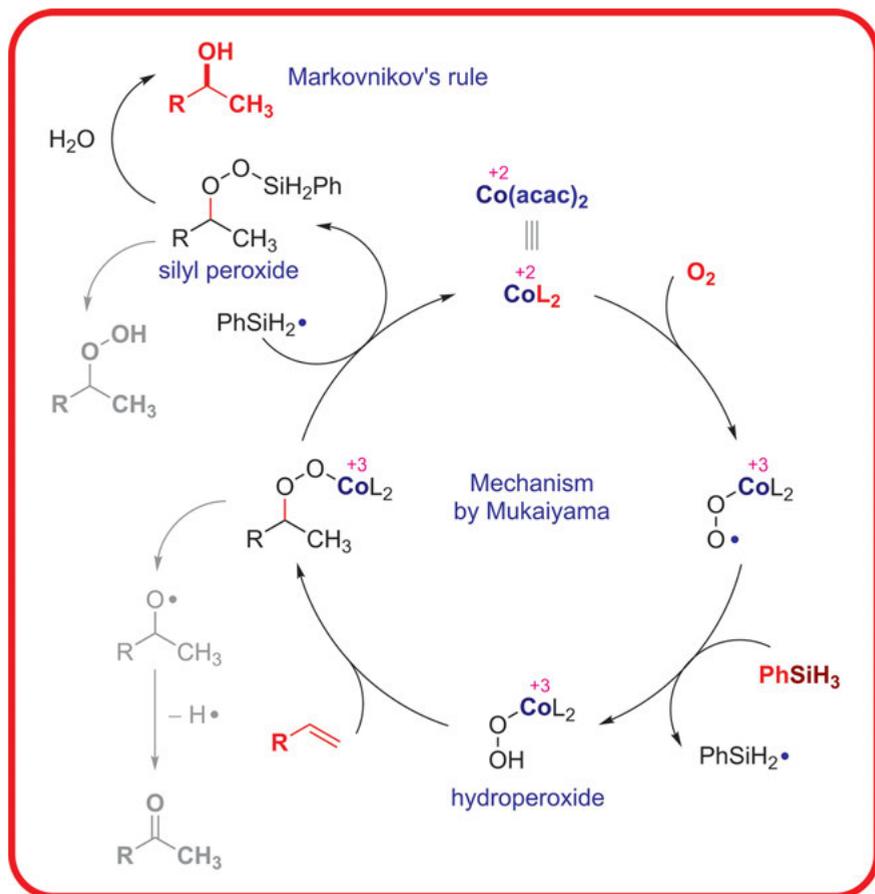


Fig. 63.2: The *Mukaiyama* oxidation-reduction hydration mechanism by *Mukaiyama*.¹⁹⁷

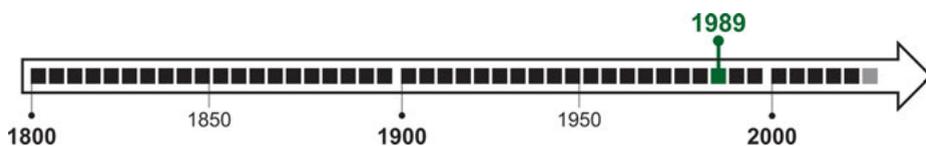


Fig. 63.3: The discovery of the *Mukaiyama* oxidation-reduction hydration.¹⁹⁸

¹⁹⁷ The original *Mukaiyama* oxidation-reduction hydration mechanism by *Mukaiyama* [63b, 63c, 63d]. The *Mukaiyama* oxidation-reduction hydration should not be confused with the *Mukaiyama* aldol addition reaction (not shown here). The reaction follows *Markovnikov's rule*. The *Mukaiyama* oxidation-reduction hydration is a safe alternative to the *oxymercuration-reduction reaction* (Chapter 20 and 52).

¹⁹⁸ The reaction was likely first described around 1989 [63b, 63c, 63d].

64 Nazarov Cyclization

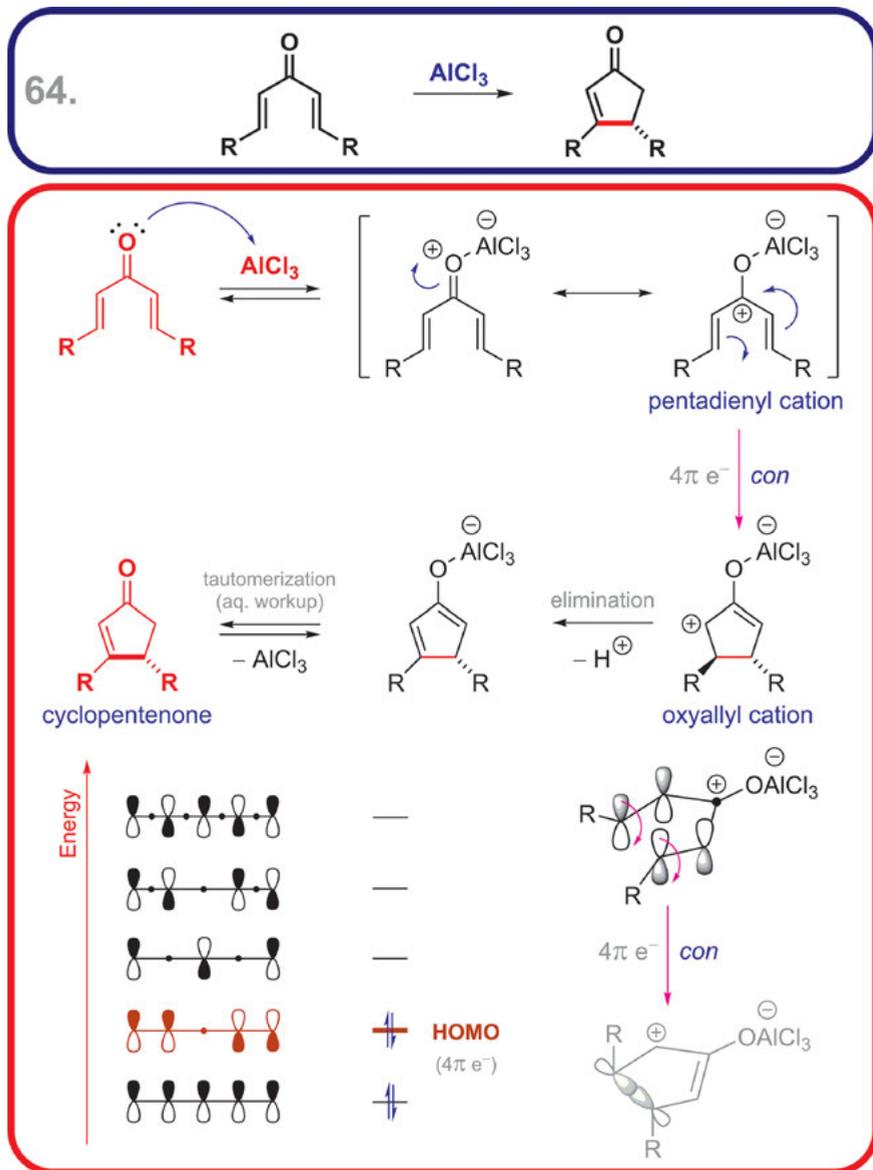


Fig. 64.1: The *Nazarov* cyclization mechanism.¹⁹⁹

199 The *Nazarov* cyclization reaction is a pericyclic reaction with a concerted mechanism. This is an example of a $[4\pi]$ *conrotatory* electrocyclic.

	Δ	$h\nu$
$4n$	<i>con</i>	<i>dis</i>
$4n+2$	<i>dis</i>	<i>con</i>

Fig. 64.2: The **Woodward–Hoffmann** rules (the pericyclic selection rules).²⁰⁰

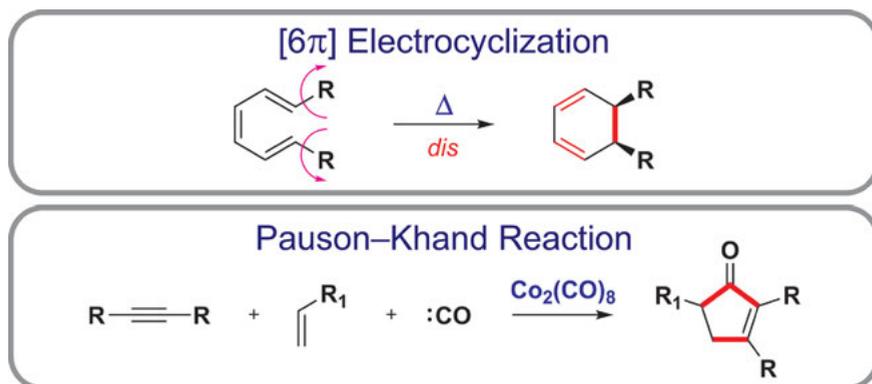


Fig. 64.3: Reactions related to the **Nazarov** cyclization.²⁰¹

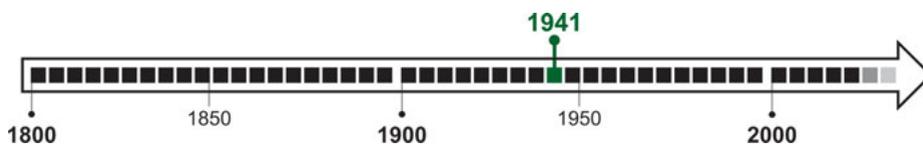


Fig. 64.4: The discovery of the **Nazarov** cyclization.²⁰²

200 The **Woodward–Hoffmann** rules (the pericyclic selection rules) [64a, 64b] for the *electrocyclization reactions*. Please note, the **Nazarov** cyclization is a *conrotatory* process ($4n = 4\pi$), which is allowed at the ground state = under thermal conditions or control (Δ). An example of [6 π] *electrocyclization* below should be a *disrotatory* process ($4n+2 = 6\pi$), which is allowed at the ground state (Δ). The outcome at the excited state = under photochemical conditions or control ($h\nu$) should be reverse [64c].

201 There are numerous examples of other [4 n] *electrocyclic* and [4 $n+2$] *electrocyclic reactions*. The **Pauson–Khand** reaction (see Chapter 73) undergoes a different mechanism, but it also yields *cyclopentenones*.

202 The reaction was likely first described around 1941 [64d, 64e], see also [64f, 64g].

65 Nef Reaction

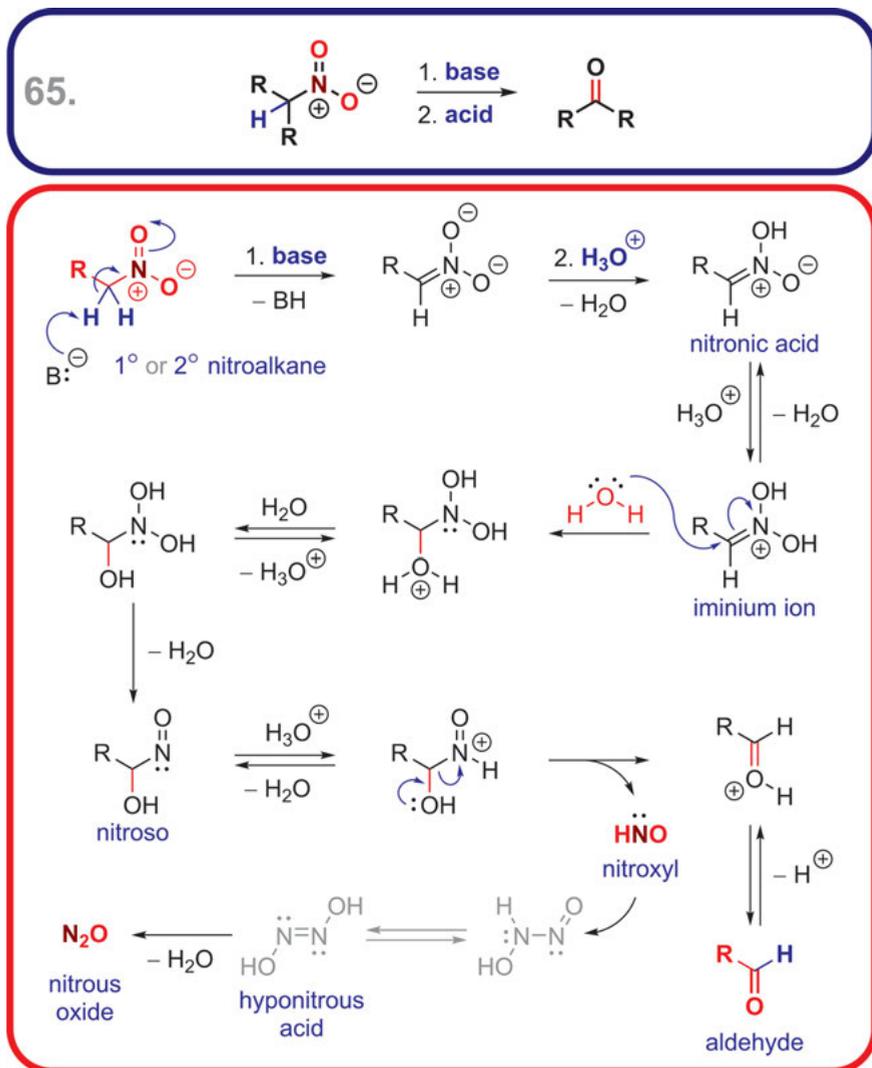


Fig. 65.1: The *Nef* reaction mechanism (base-acid-catalyzed).²⁰³

203 The classic *Nef* reaction is catalyzed by an acid and yields aldehydes and ketones. A base is needed to convert a primary (1°) or secondary (2°) nitroalkane into its conjugate base (nitronic acid). The tertiary (3°) nitroalkanes do not react.

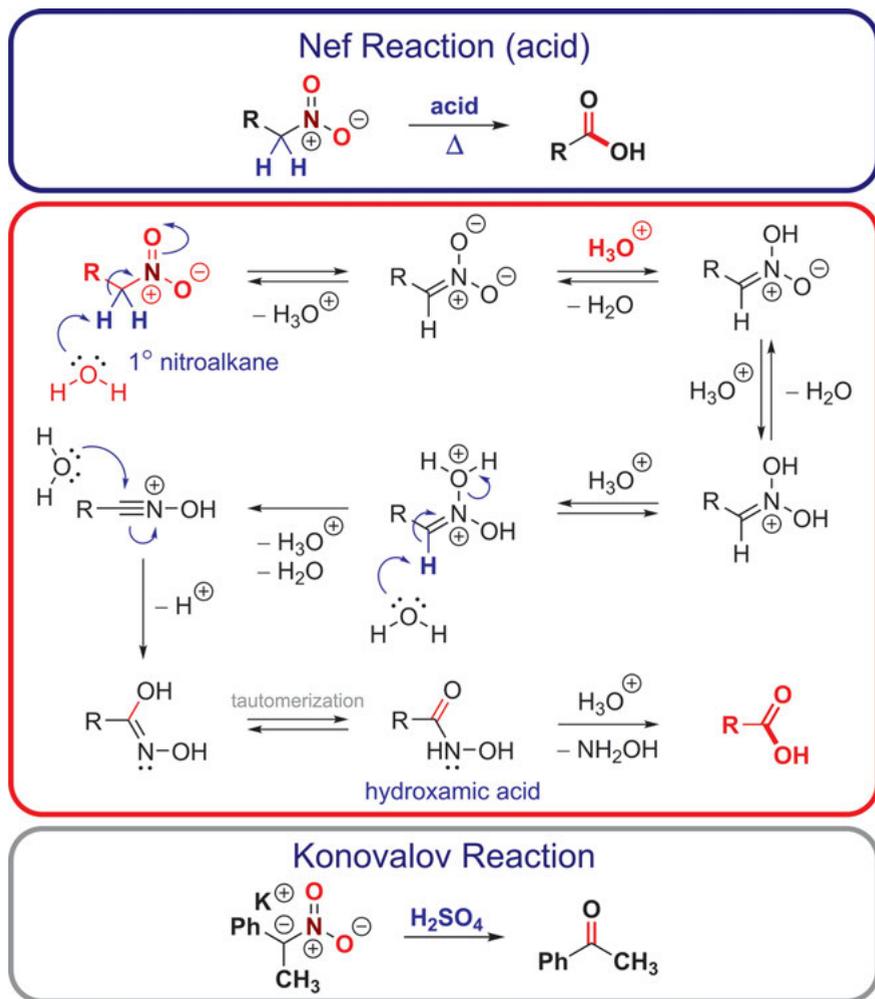


Fig. 65.2: The *Nef* reaction mechanism (acid-catalyzed).²⁰⁴

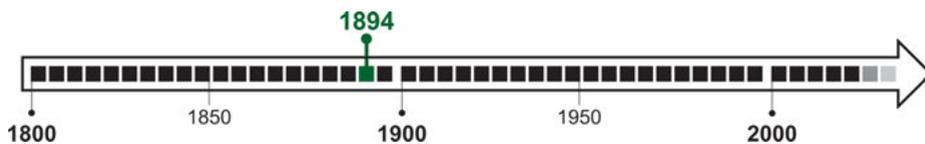


Fig. 65.3: The discovery of the *Nef* reaction.²⁰⁵

204 The mechanism of the *Nef* reaction can change and go through a *hydroxamic acid* intermediate if a strong acid (exclusively) is used with a primary (1°) *nitroalkane*. In this case, a *carboxylic acid* is formed [1] and [65a]. Please note, the reaction was likely first reported by Konovalov [65b].

205 The reaction was likely first described around 1894 [65c, 65d].

66 Negishi Cross Coupling

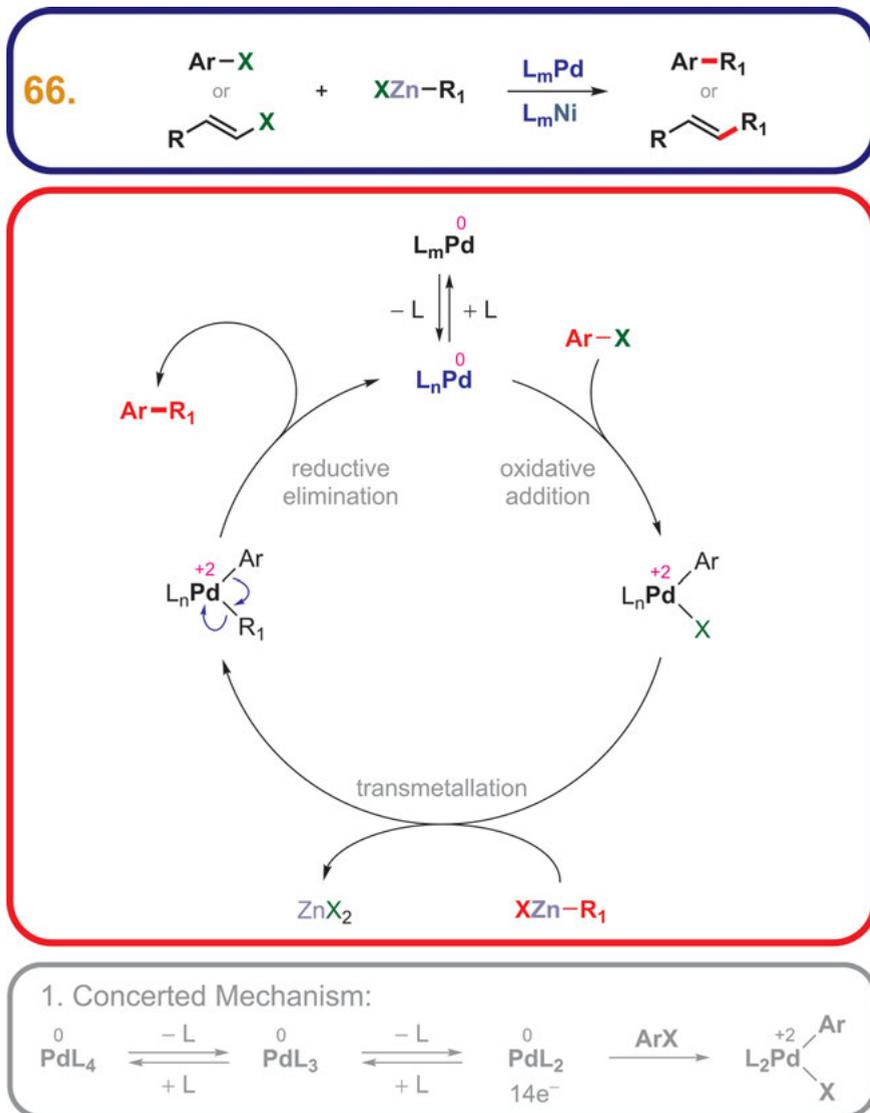


Fig. 66.1: The Pd-catalyzed *Negishi* cross coupling mechanism.²⁰⁶

206 The *Negishi* cross coupling is a type of Pd-catalyzed cross coupling reaction (C–C bond formation using aryl halides and organozinc compounds). For teaching purposes, a simplified and general mechanism is shown. Note, (1) concerted oxidative addition step to a low-coordinate (14e[−]) Pd-complex is more complicated [2a].

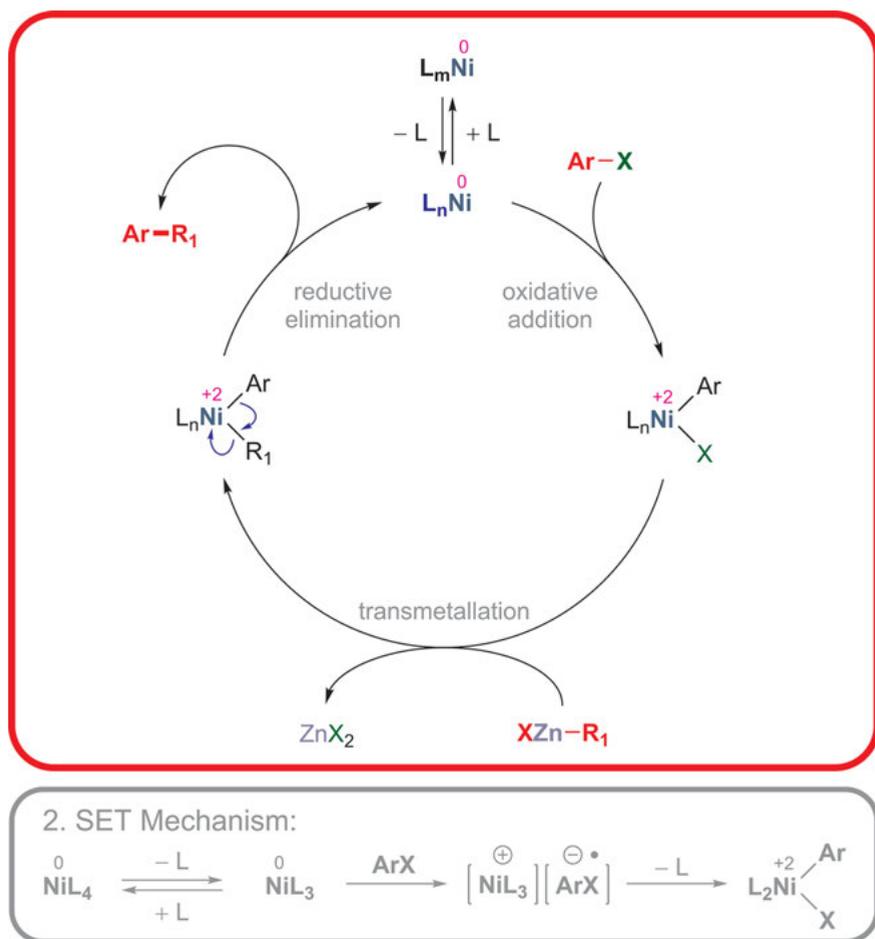


Fig. 66.2: The Ni-catalyzed *Negishi* cross coupling mechanism.²⁰⁷

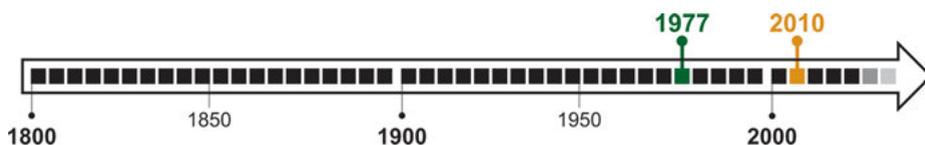


Fig. 66.3: The discovery of the *Negishi* cross coupling.²⁰⁸

²⁰⁷ The *Negishi* cross coupling can be *Ni*-catalyzed. Note, a possible example of a (2) *SET* oxidative addition step to a *Ni*-complex (not necessarily at play in the example shown) [2a].

²⁰⁸ The reaction was likely first described around 1977 [66]. In 2010, Ei-ichi Negishi (jointly with Richard F. Heck and Akira Suzuki) received the Nobel Prize in Chemistry for the development of *Pd*-catalyzed cross coupling reactions [46c].

67 Norrish Type I & II Reaction

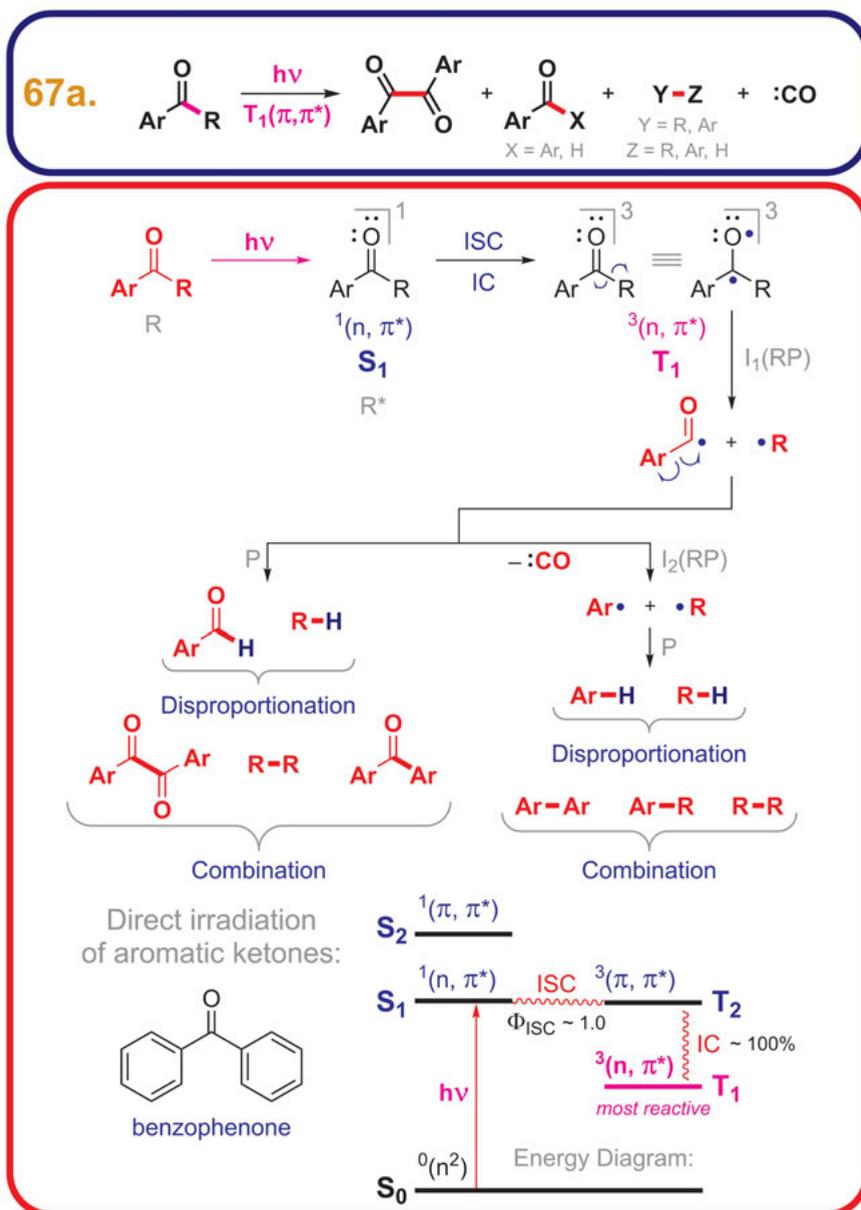


Fig. 67.1: The **Norrish Type I** reaction mechanism.²⁰⁹

209 The **Norrish Type I** reaction is a photochemical decomposition (α -cleavage) of aldehydes and

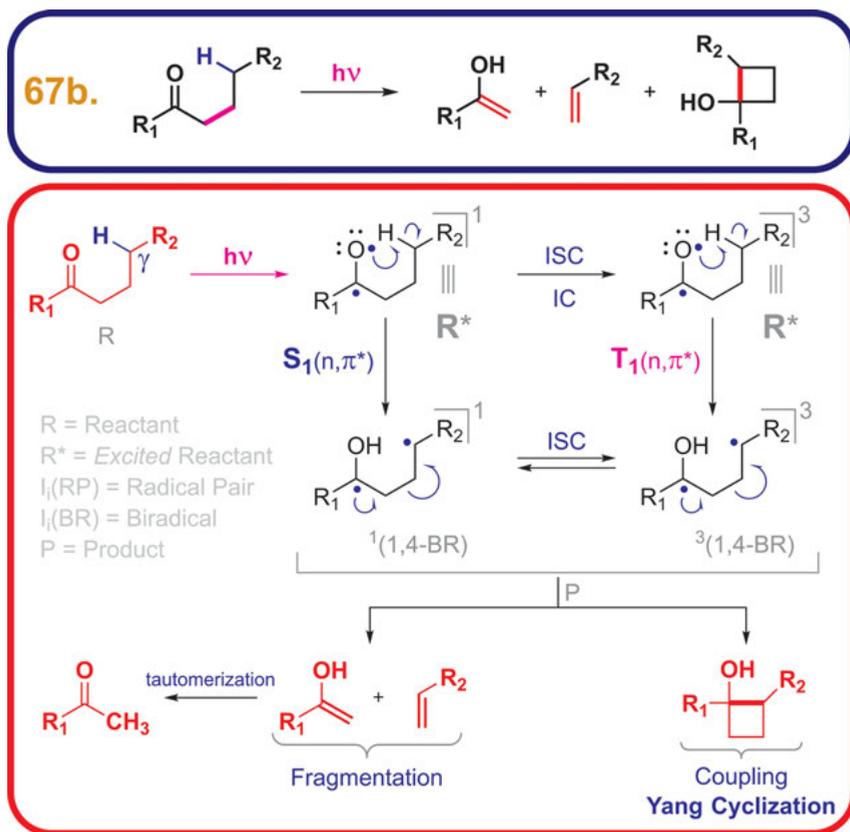


Fig. 67.2: The **Norrish Type II** reaction mechanism.²¹⁰

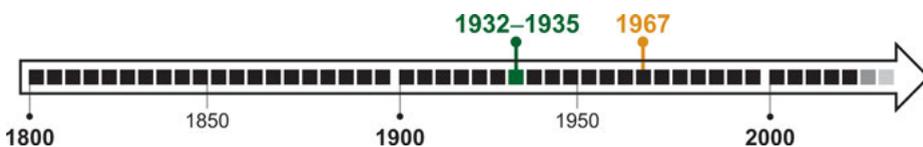


Fig. 67.3: The discovery of the **Norrish fragmentation**.²¹¹

ketones. The products may be formed because of initial *fragmentation* and subsequent *disproportionation* or (*re*)*combination* of formed radical species. Upon *direct irradiation* of aromatic ketones (i.e., benzophenone) the reaction usually occurs from the triplet excited state $T_1 = {}^3(n, \pi^*)$ [2b].

210 The **Norrish Type II** reaction is a photochemical intramolecular γ -H **abstraction**. The products may be formed due to *fragmentation*, (*re*)*combination* or the **Yang cyclization** of 1,4-biradicals. The reaction may occur from the singlet $S_1 = {}^1(n, \pi^*)$ or triplet excited state $T_1 = {}^3(n, \pi^*)$ [2b].

211 The **Type I** and **Type II** reactions were likely first described between 1932–1935 [67a, 67b, 67c, 67d] or possibly earlier, see also [67e, 67f]. In **1967**, Ronald George Wreyford Norrish (jointly with Manfred Eigen and George Porter) received the Nobel Prize in Chemistry [67g].

68 Olefin (Alkene) Metathesis

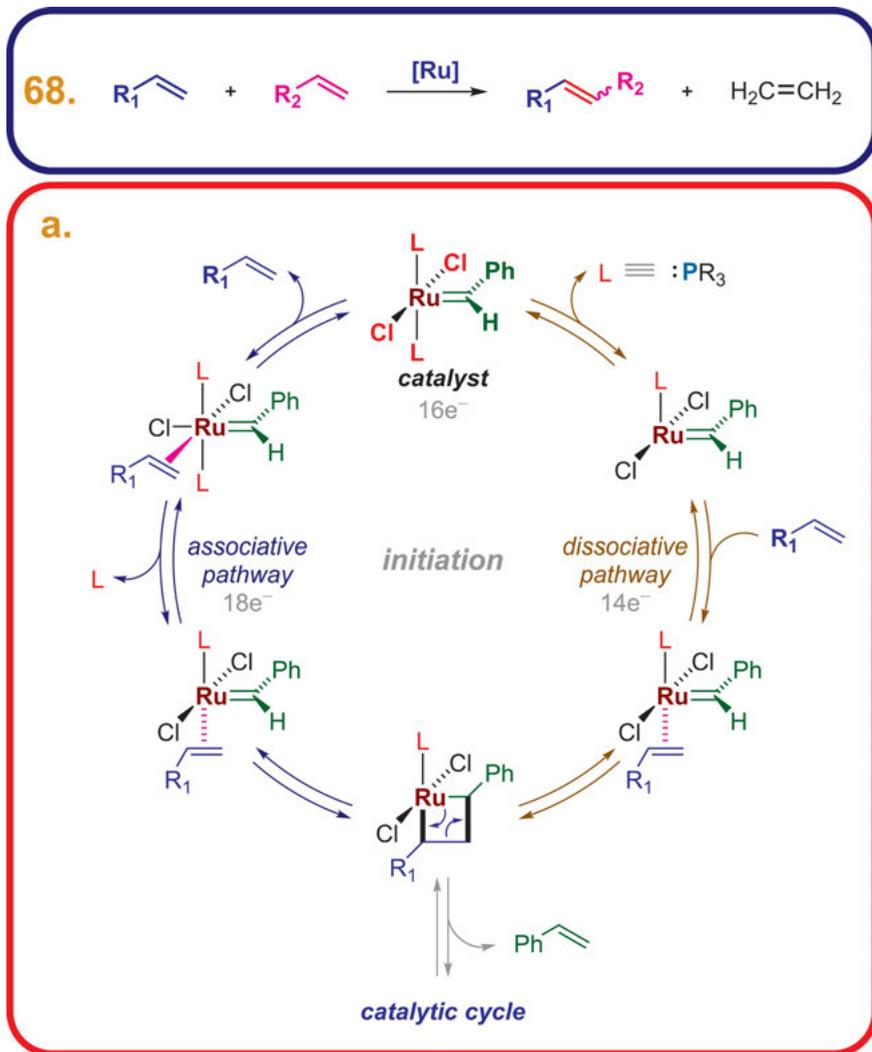


Fig. 68.1: The olefin (alkene) metathesis mechanism (initiation).²¹²

212 The Ru-catalyzed olefin (alkene) metathesis mechanism starts with the stable catalyst (16e⁻) initiation cycle (a): theoretically it can go either via a dissociative pathway (14e⁻), or an associative pathway (18e⁻), an interchange pathway is not shown here [68a].

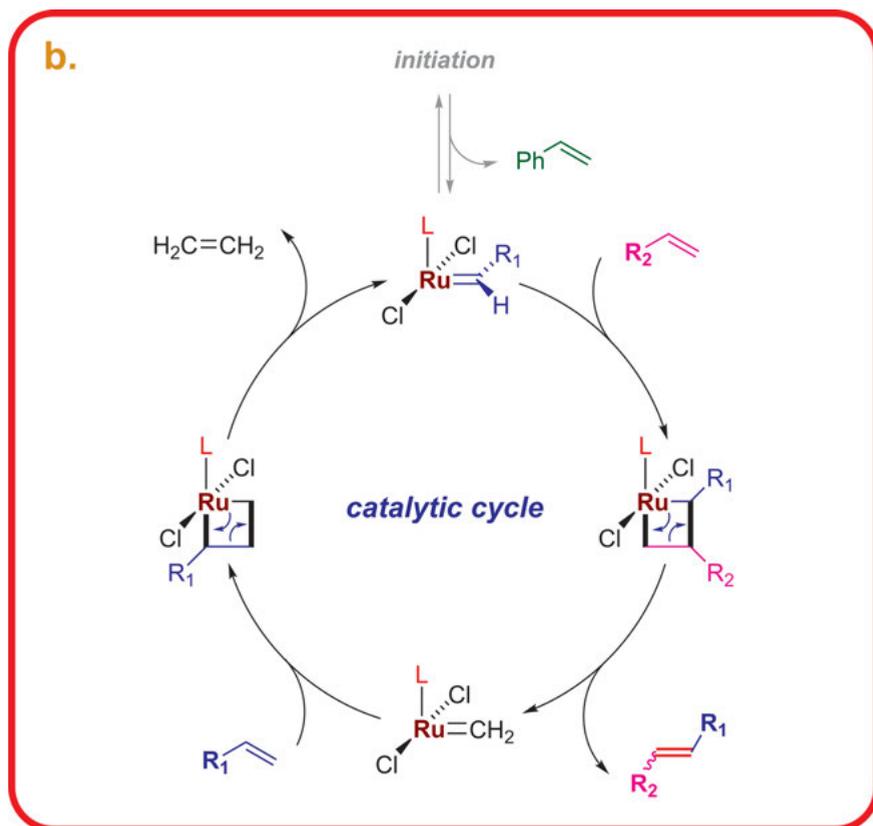


Fig. 68.2: The olefin (alkene) metathesis mechanism (catalytic cycle).²¹³

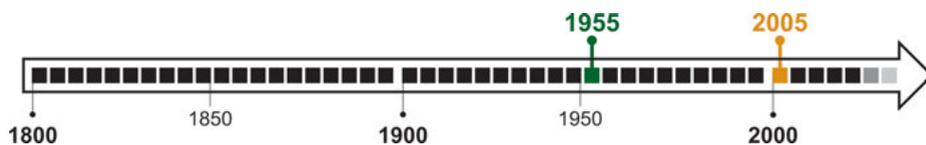


Fig. 68.3: The discovery of the olefin metathesis.²¹⁴

213 After the loss of styrene, the main catalytic cycle (**b**) continues with the “active” catalyst. Please note, the mechanism is rather complex and varies significantly depending on the substrate and catalyst. For teaching purposes, a simplified and general example is shown.

214 The reaction was likely first described around 1955 [68b, 68c]. In 2005, Yves Chauvin, Robert H. Grubbs and Richard R. Schrock received the Nobel Prize in Chemistry for the development of the metathesis transformations [68d].

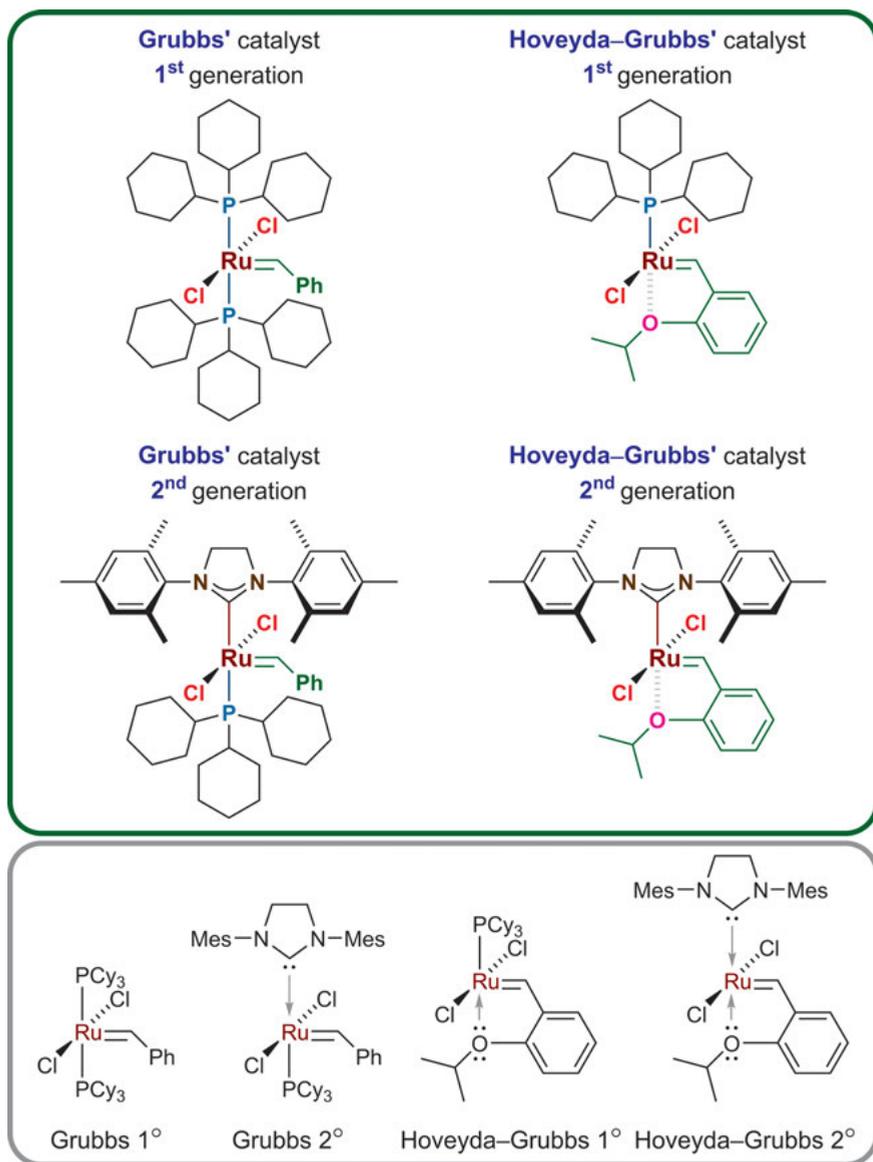


Fig. 68.4: The main olefin (alkene) metathesis catalysts.²¹⁵

²¹⁵ The most common catalysts used in the Ru-catalyzed olefin (alkene) metathesis are **Grubbs' catalysts** (1st and 2nd generation) [68e, 68f] and **Hoveyda-Grubbs' catalysts** (1st and 2nd generation) [68g].

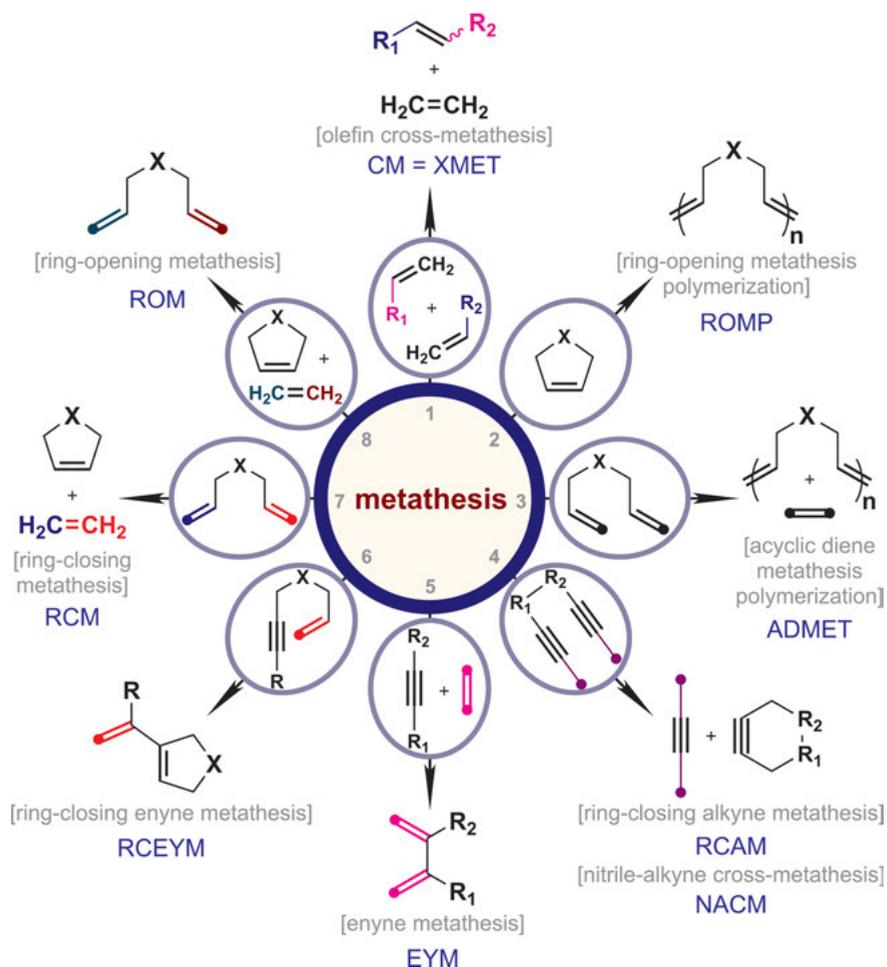


Fig. 68.5: Classification of metathesis reactions.²¹⁶

216 The metathesis reactions can be classified as: 1. CM = XMET (olefin cross-metathesis); 2. ROMP (ring-opening metathesis polymerization); 3. ADMET (acyclic diene metathesis polymerization); 4. RCAM (ring-closing alkyne metathesis) and NACM (nitrile-alkyne cross-metathesis); 5. EYM (enyne metathesis); 6. RCEYM (ring-closing enyne metathesis); 7. RCM (ring-closing metathesis); 8. ROM (ring-opening metathesis).

69 Oppenauer Oxidation

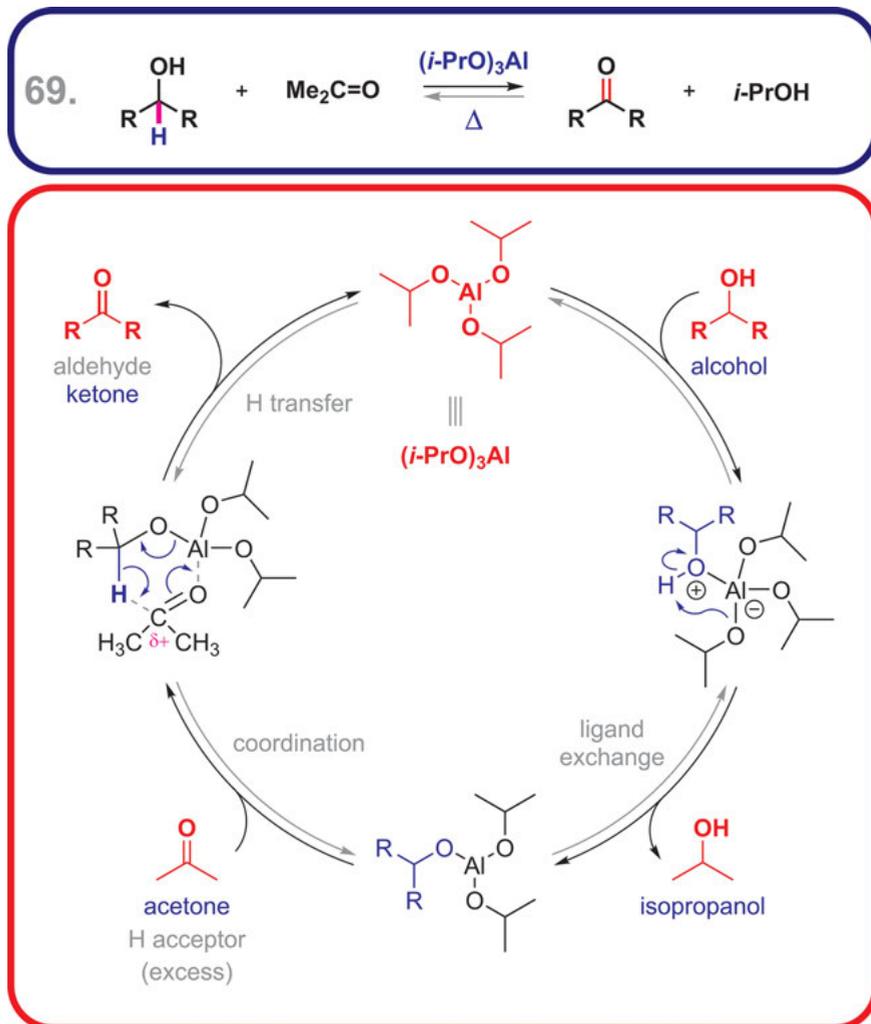


Fig. 69.1: The **Oppenauer oxidation** mechanism.²¹⁷

²¹⁷ The **Oppenauer oxidation** is reversible. The reversed reduction is called the **Meerwein-Ponndorf-Verley (MPV) reduction**. The equilibrium can be shifted towards oxidation by adding the excess of *acetone*.

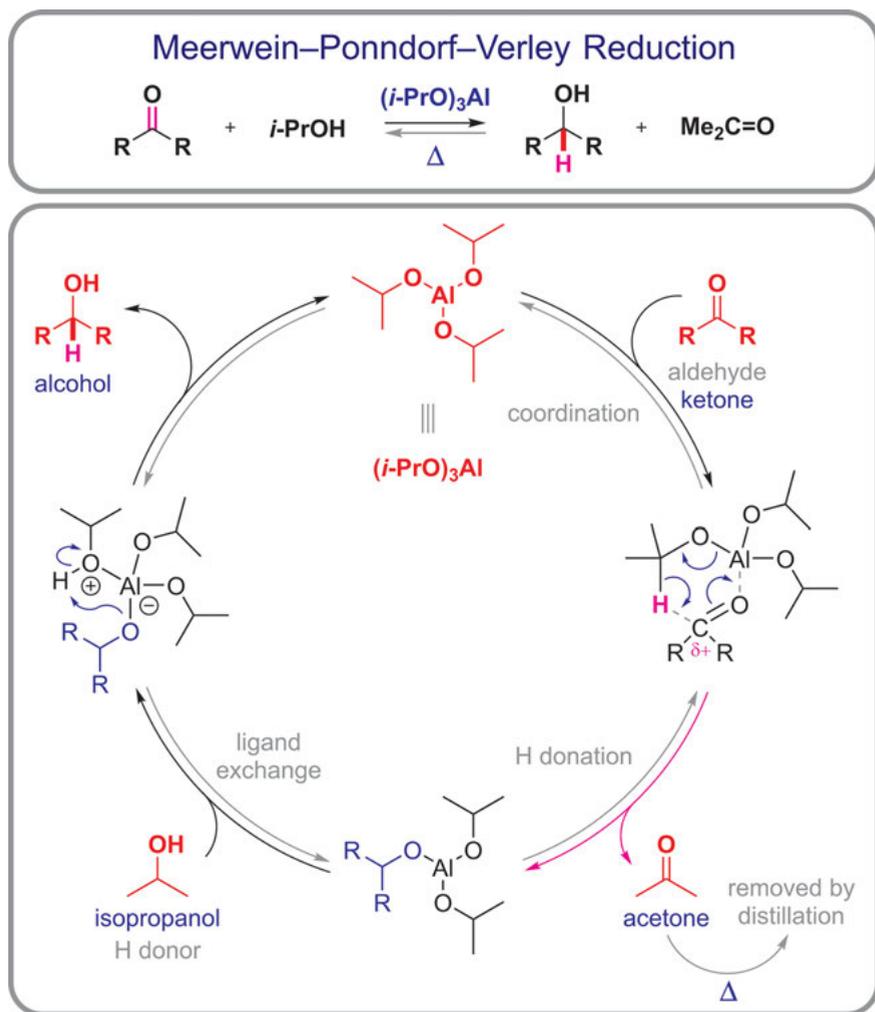


Fig. 69.2: The *Meerwein–Ponndorf–Verley* reaction mechanism.²¹⁸

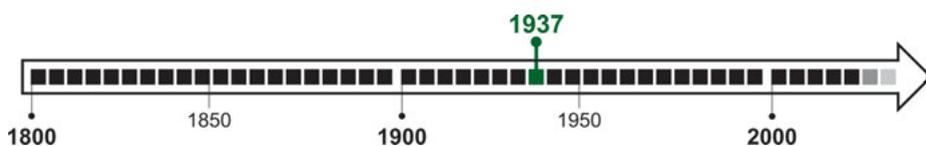


Fig. 69.3: The discovery of the *Oppenauer* oxidation.²¹⁹

²¹⁸ The *Meerwein–Ponndorf–Verley* reduction is a reversed process of the *Oppenauer* oxidation. It is also covered in Chapter 58.

²¹⁹ The reaction was likely first described around 1937 [69].

70 Ozonolysis

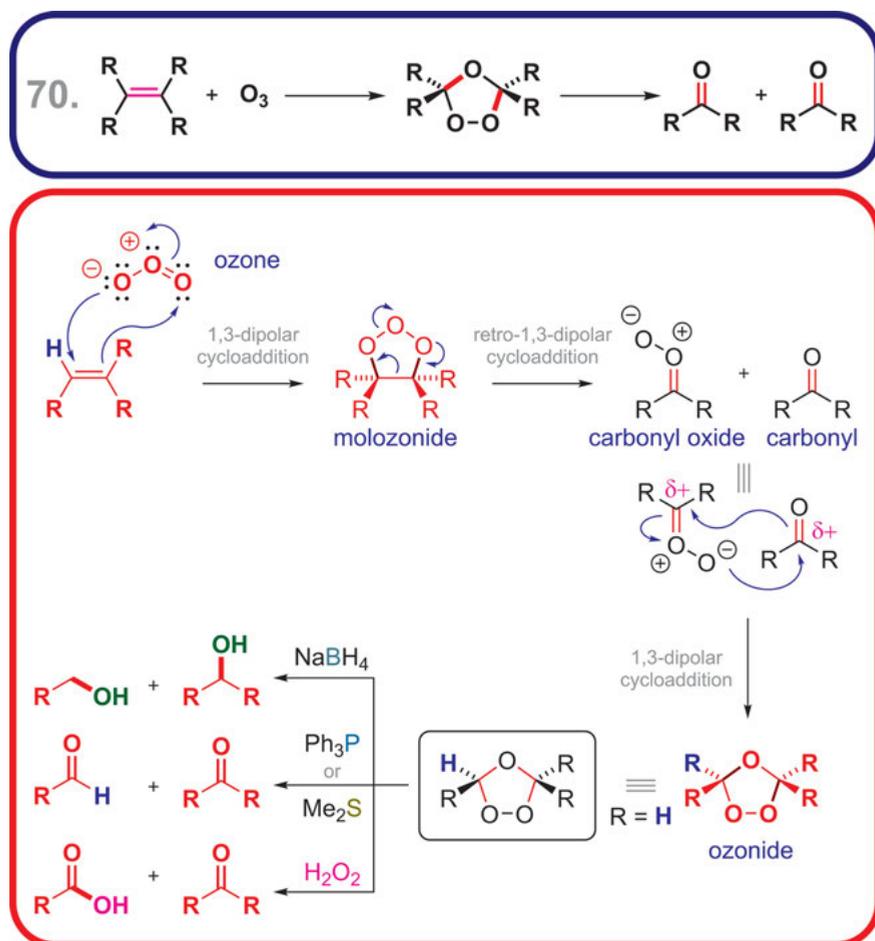


Fig. 70.1: The ozonolysis mechanism (the *Criegee* mechanism).²²⁰

220 The ozonolysis mechanism was first proposed by Criegee [70a, 70b, 70c], thus it is often called the *Criegee mechanism* (it is different from the *Criegee oxidation* covered in Chapter 29). Formally, the first step of ozonolysis is a 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition reaction or a (3+2)-cycloaddition reaction.

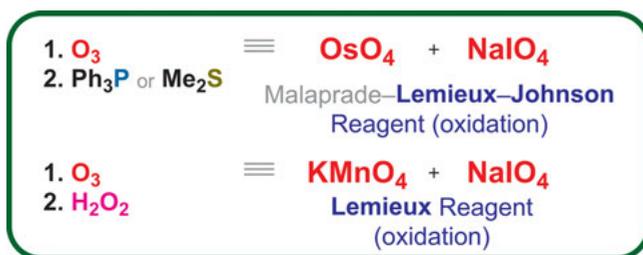


Fig. 70.2: Alternative to the ozonolysis reaction conditions.²²¹

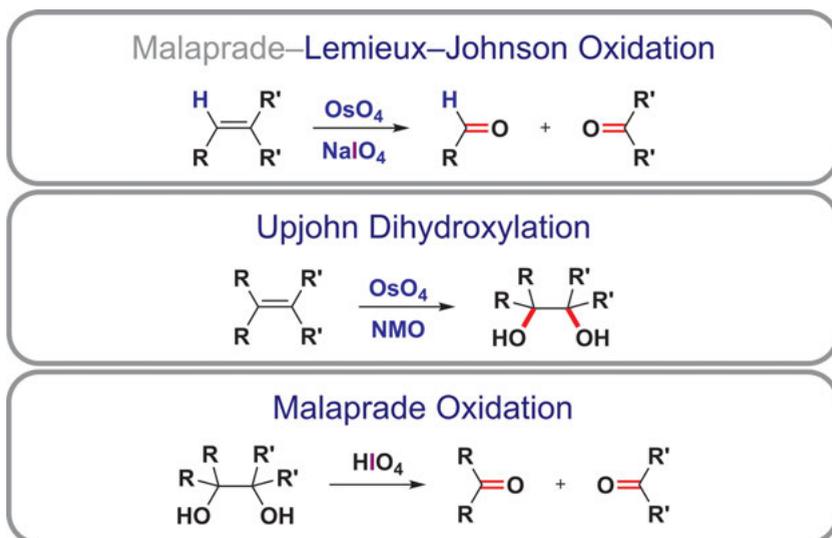


Fig. 70.3: Reactions related to the ozonolysis.²²²

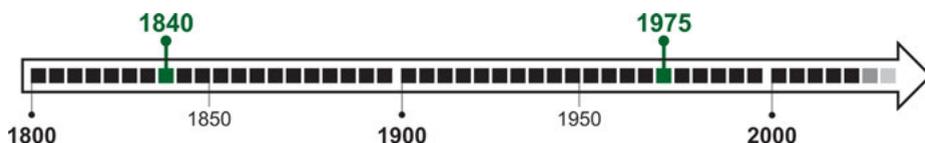


Fig. 70.4: The discovery of the ozonolysis.²²³

221 The *Malaprade–Lemieux–Johnson reagent* [70d] is an alternative to the use of ozone [70e], followed by Ph_3P or Me_2S to form *aldehydes* and *ketones*. The *Lemieux reagent* [70f] is an alternative to the use of ozone, followed by H_2O_2 , to form *carboxylic acids* and *ketones*.

222 The *Malaprade–Lemieux–Johnson reaction (oxidation)* is an alternative to the ozonolysis reaction under Ph_3P or Me_2S conditions. The *Upjohn dihydroxylation* (covered in Chapter 93) followed by the *Malaprade oxidation* (covered in Chapter 29) can be also used as an alternative to ozonolysis.

223 The reaction was likely first described around 1840 [70g], the mechanism was proposed around 1975 [70b, 70c].

71 Paal–Knorr Syntheses

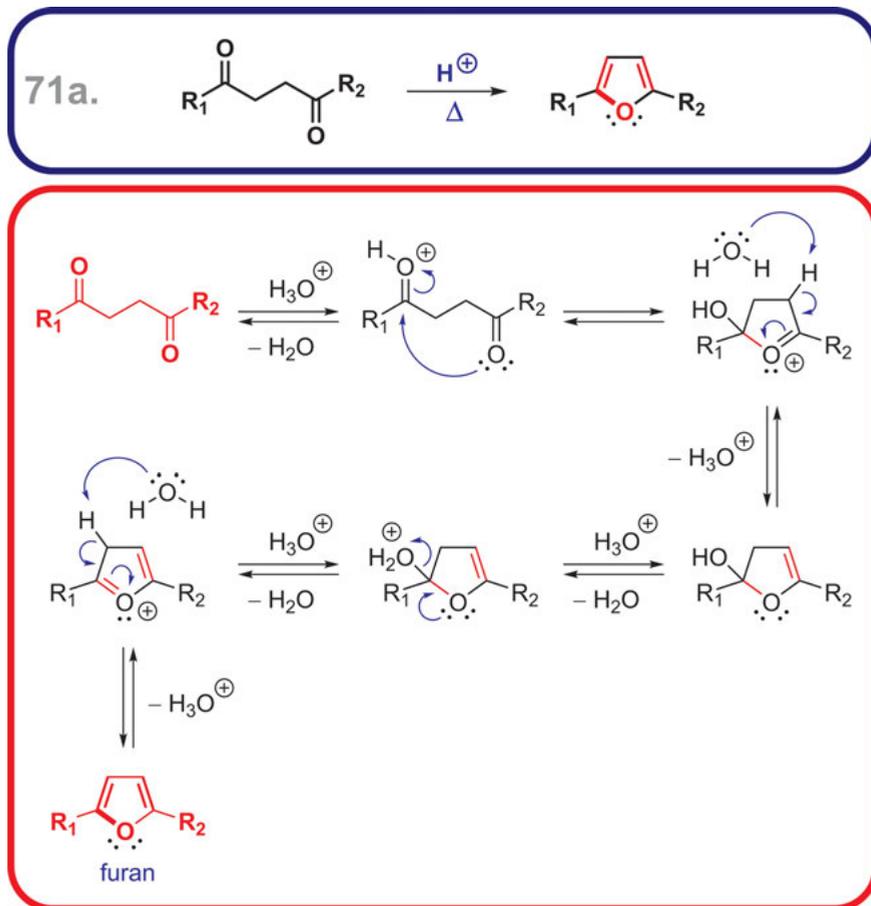


Fig. 71.1: The **Paal–Knorr furan synthesis** mechanism.²²⁴

224 The **Paal–Knorr synthesis** is a reaction that was initially proposed for the synthesis of *furans* and *pyrroles*: the **Paal–Knorr furan synthesis**.

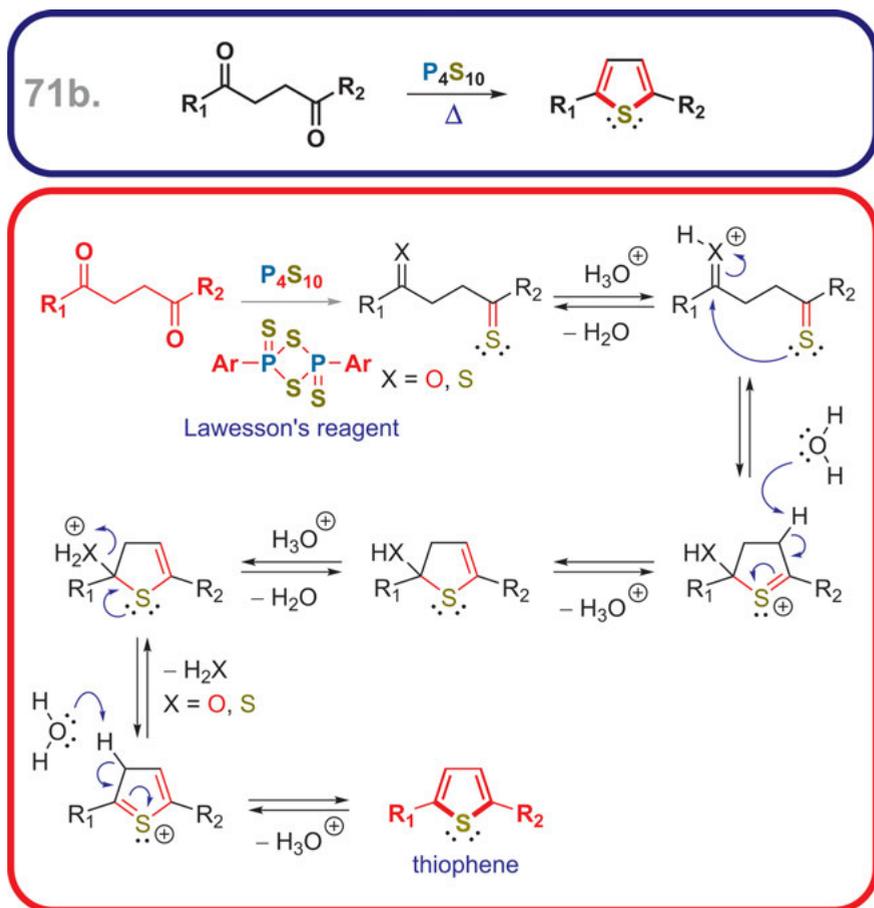


Fig. 71.2: The *Paal–Knorr* thiophene synthesis mechanism.²²⁵

²²⁵ The *Paal–Knorr* thiophene synthesis was adopted for the preparation of *thiophenes*, for example by using *Lawesson's reagent* [71a].

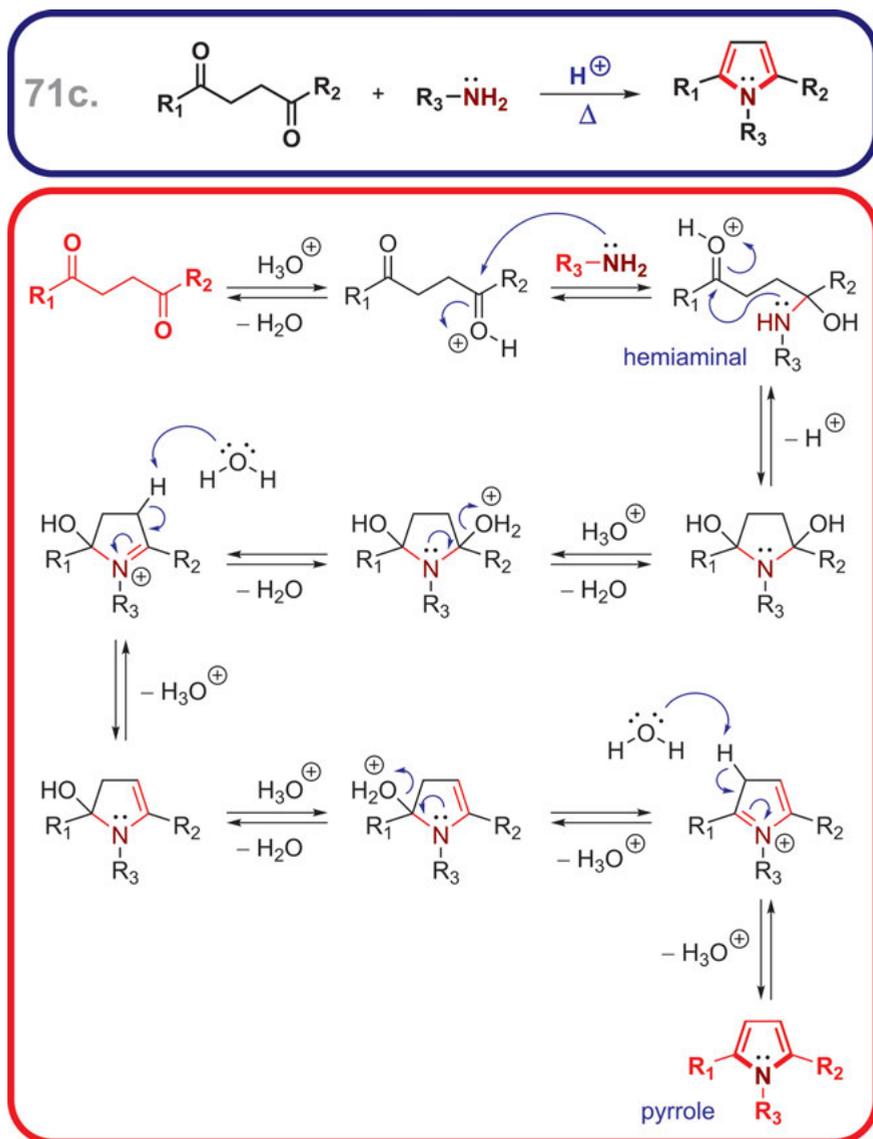


Fig. 71.3: The *Paal–Knorr pyrrole synthesis* mechanism.²²⁶

²²⁶ The *Paal–Knorr pyrrole synthesis* is a reaction that was initially proposed for the synthesis of *pyrroles*. It should not be confused with the *Knorr pyrrole synthesis* (not shown).

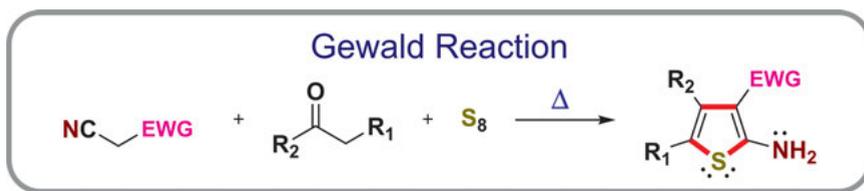


Fig. 71.4: Reactions related to the *Paal–Knorr* thiophene synthesis.²²⁷

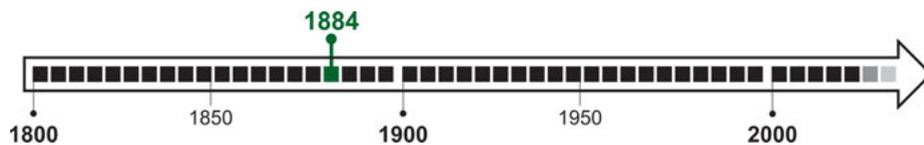


Fig. 71.5: The discovery of the *Paal–Knorr* syntheses.²²⁸

²²⁷ Thiophenes (2-aminothiophenes) can be prepared via the *Gewald* condensation (see Chapter 41).

²²⁸ The reaction was likely first described around 1884 [71b, 71c].

72 Paternò–Büchi Reaction

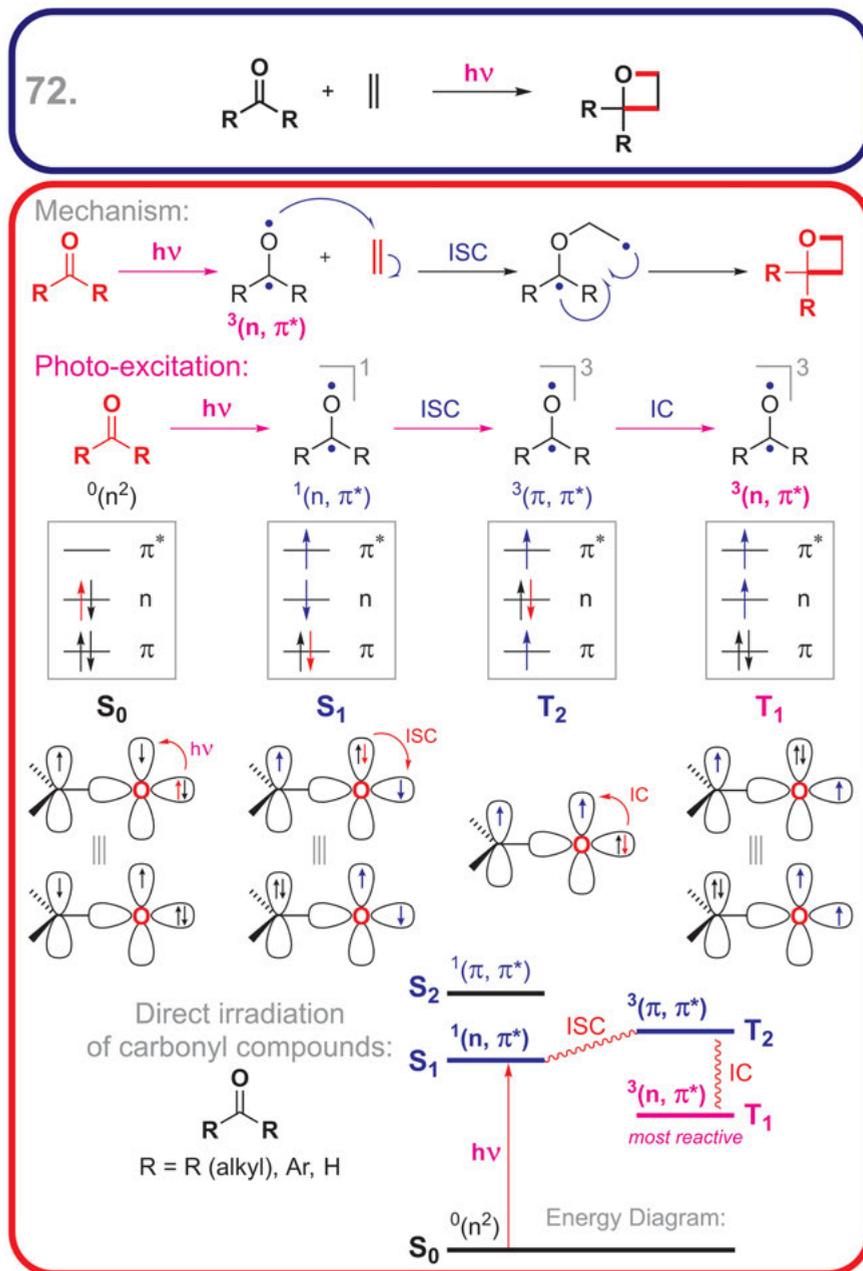


Fig. 72.1: The Paternò–Büchi reaction mechanism.²²⁹

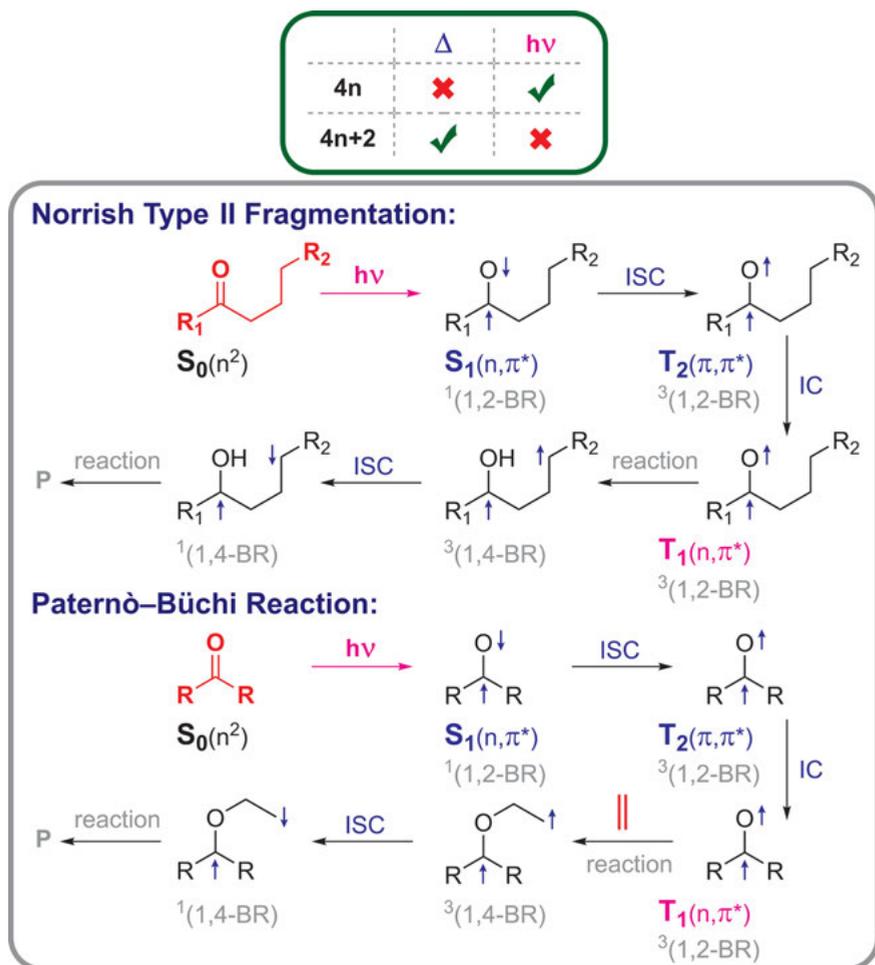


Fig. 7.2.2: The *Norrish Type II* reaction vs the *Paternò-Büchi* reaction mechanism.²³⁰

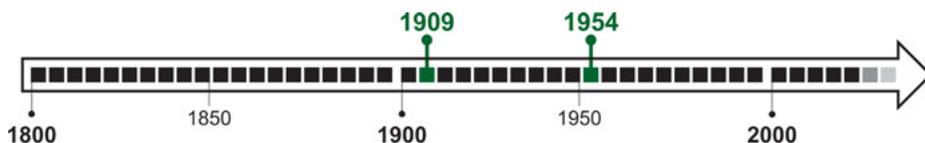


Fig. 7.2.3: The discovery of the *Paternò-Büchi* reaction.²³¹

229 The *Paternò-Büchi* reaction is a photochemical $[2_{\pi}+2_{\pi}]$ or $[2+2]$ -cycloaddition reaction. The *Woodward-Hoffmann* rules [64a, 64b, 64c]: this reaction ($4n = 4\pi$) is **not** allowed at the ground state = under thermal conditions (Δ) but **allowed** at the excited state = under photochemical conditions ($h\nu$) [2b].

230 Compare the mechanistic similarities between the *Norrish Type II* reaction (covered in Chapter 67) and the *Paternò-Büchi* cycloaddition reaction [2b].

231 The reaction was likely described by Paternò around 1909 [72a] and by Büchi in 1954 [72b].

73 Pauson–Khand Reaction

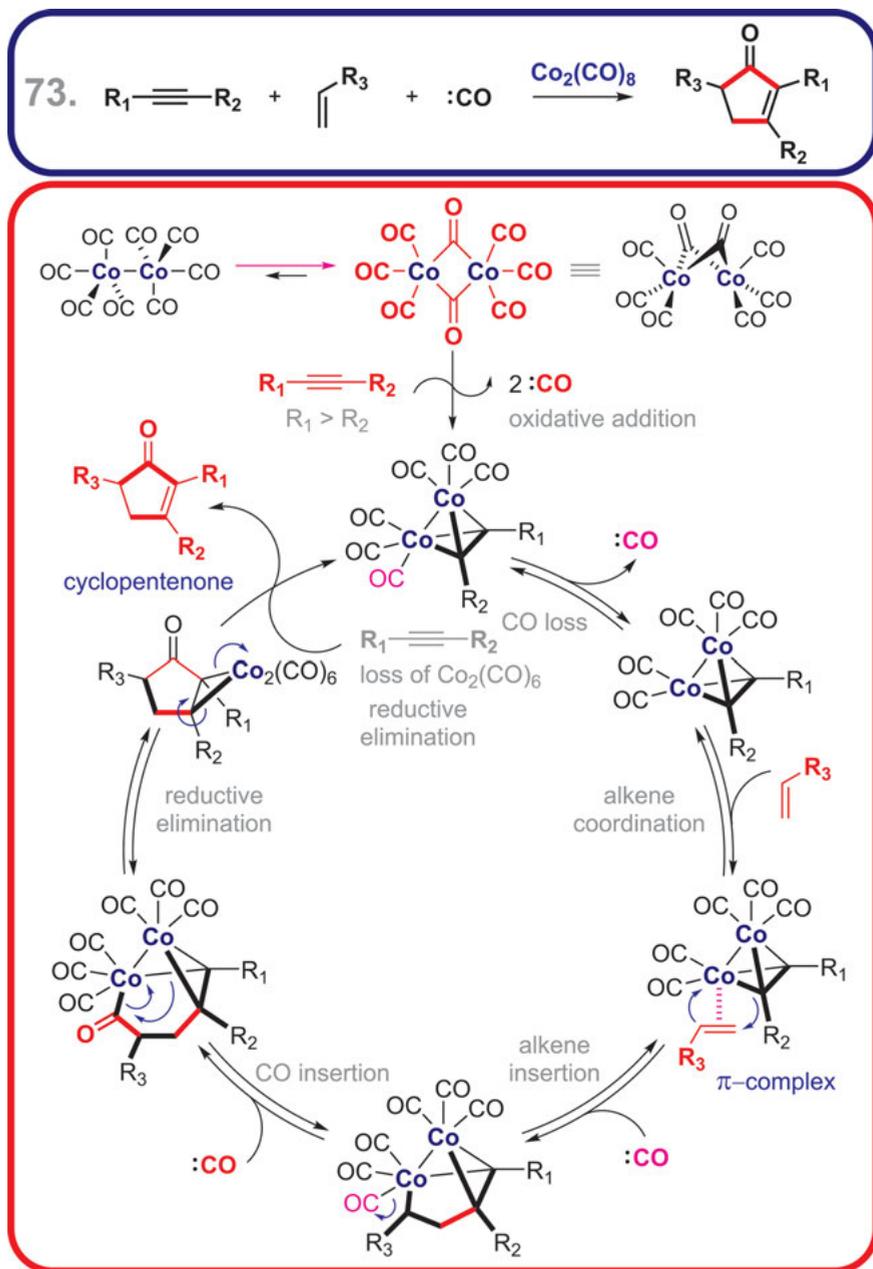


Fig. 73.1: The **Pauson–Khand** reaction mechanism.²³²

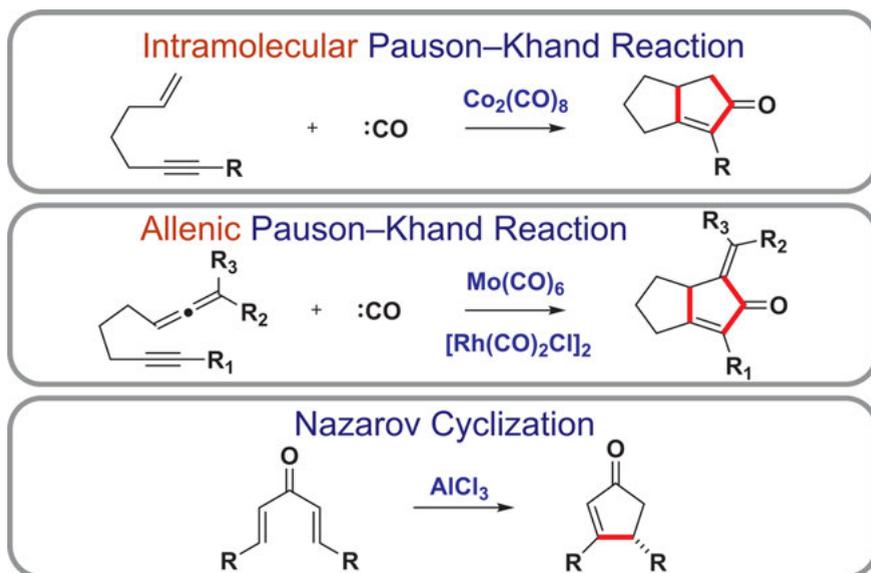


Fig. 73.2: Variations of the *Pauson–Khand* reaction.²³³

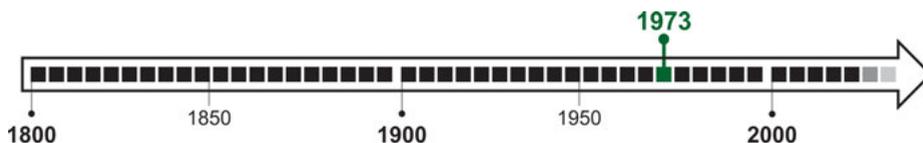


Fig. 73.3: The discovery of the *Pauson–Khand* reaction.²³⁴

²³² The *Pauson–Khand* reaction is a *Co*-catalyzed (2+2+1)-cycloaddition reaction.

²³³ There are several variations of this reaction: the *intramolecular Pauson–Khand* reaction, the *allenic Pauson–Khand* reaction, and others (not shown) [73a]. Other metals can catalyze it: **Mo**, **Rh**, etc. The *Nazarov* cyclization undergoes a different [4π] *conrotatory electrocyclization* mechanism (Chapter 64), but it also yields *cyclopentenones*.

²³⁴ The reaction was likely first described around 1973 [73b, 73c, 73d].

74 Peptide (Amide) Coupling

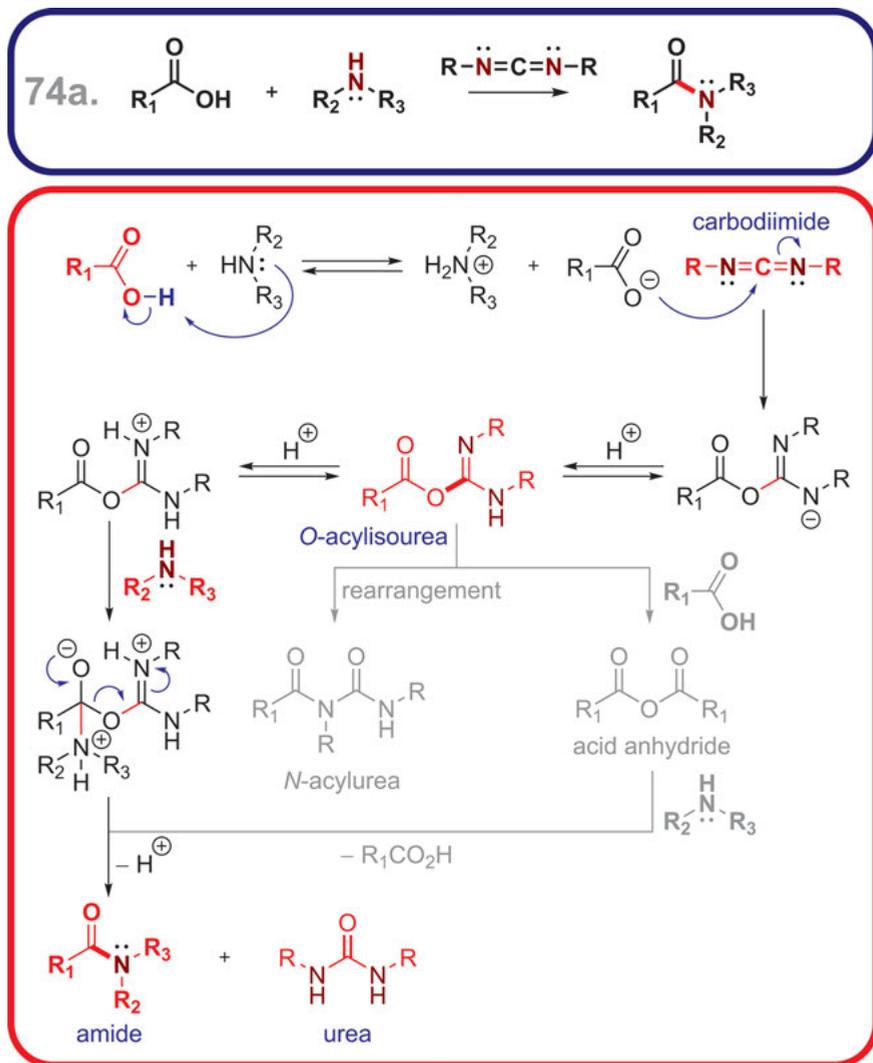


Fig. 74.1: The peptide (amide) coupling (DCC) mechanism.²³⁵

²³⁵ The peptide (amide) coupling mechanism based on the use of carbodiimide coupling reagents (DCC) [74a, 74b].

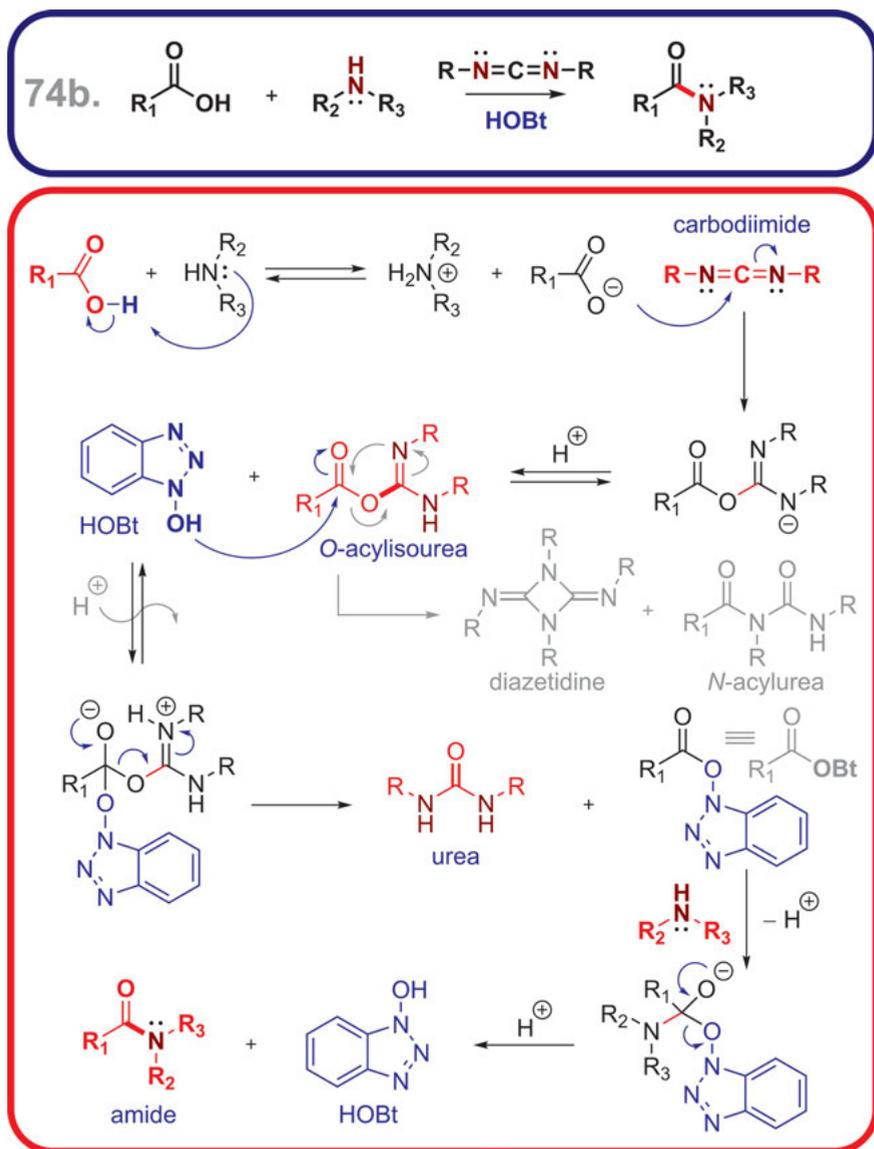


Fig. 74.2: The peptide (amide) coupling (DCC + HOBT) mechanism.²³⁶

²³⁶ The peptide (amide) coupling mechanism based on the use of carbodiimide coupling reagents and additives (DCC and HOBT) [74a, 74b].

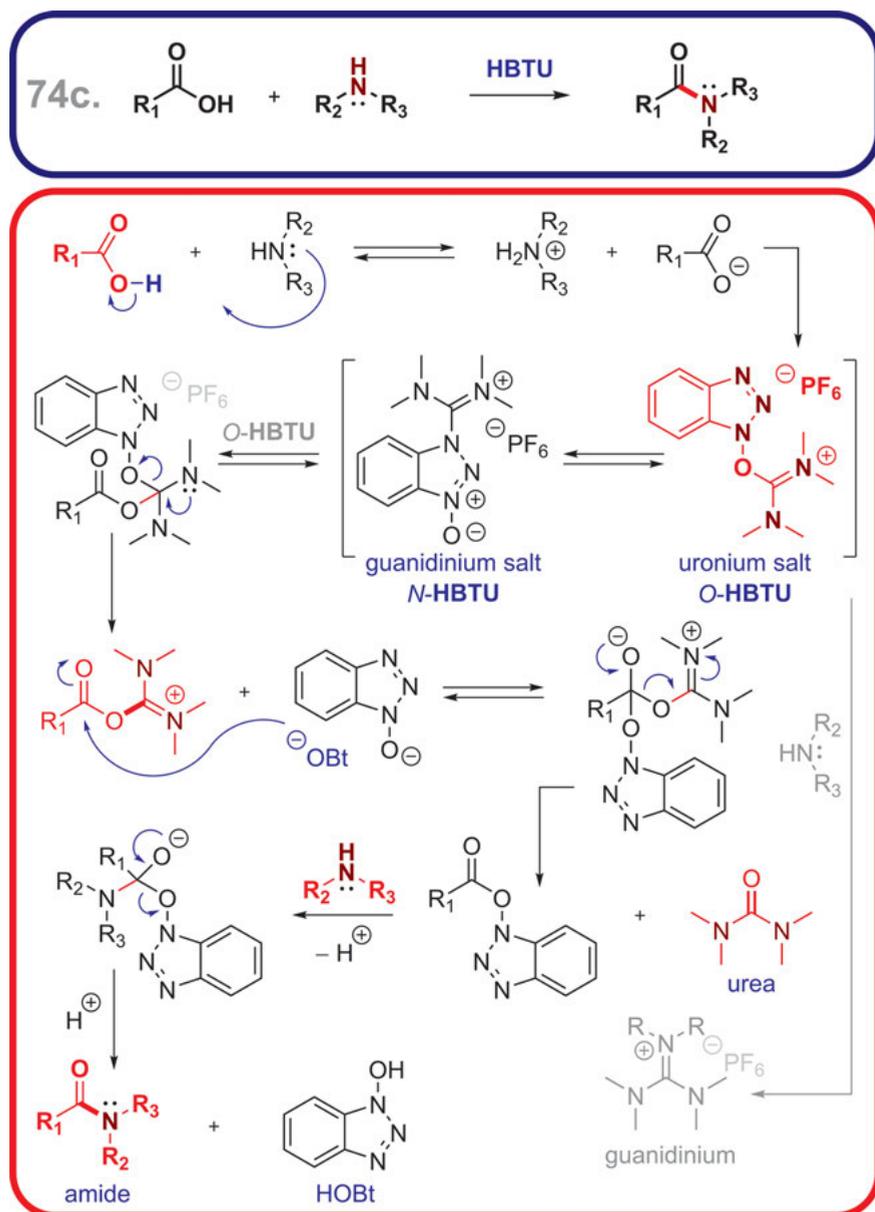


Fig. 74.3: The peptide (amide) coupling (HBTU) mechanism.²³⁷

²³⁷ The peptide (amide) coupling mechanism based on the use of benzotriazole = guanidinium/uronium salts coupling reagents (HBTU) [74c].

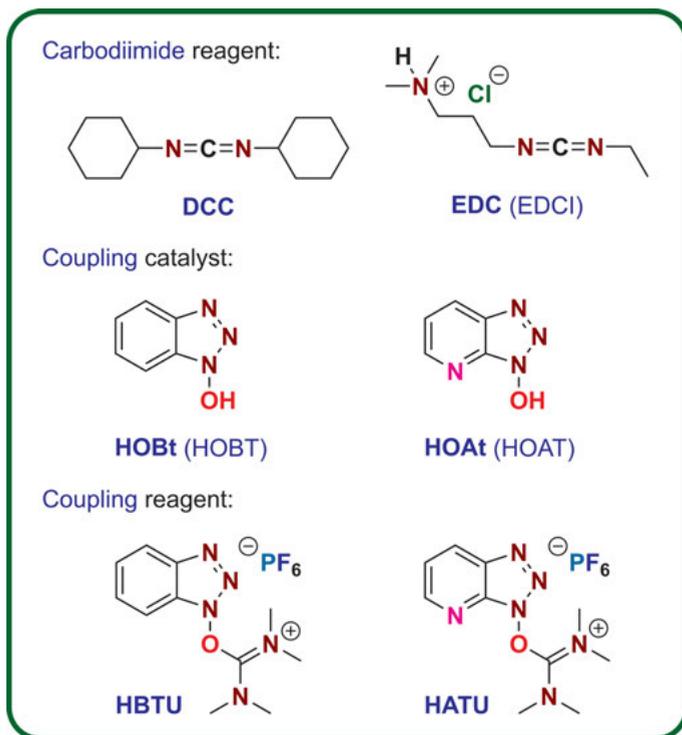


Fig. 74.4: The main peptide (amide) coupling reagents and catalysts.²³⁸

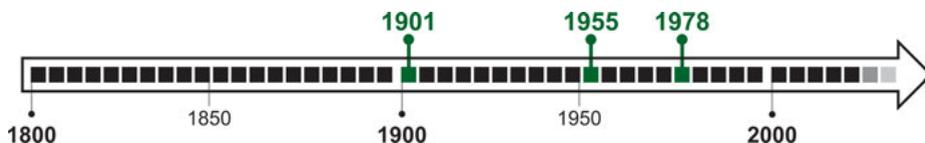


Fig. 74.5: The discovery of the peptide (amide) coupling.²³⁹

238 The most common reagents used in the *peptide (amide) coupling* or the *peptide synthesis* are the **carbodiimide reagents** (DCC [74d], EDC [74e], and many other); **guanidinium/uronium salts** (HBTU [74f], HATU [74g]; and many more like *phosphonium salts* PyBOP [74h]). The most common additives (catalysts) used in the *peptide synthesis* are HOBt [74i] and HOAt, among others.

239 A. The *peptide (amide) coupling* reaction was likely first described around 1901 [74j]. B. DCC coupling reagent was likely first described around 1955 [74k]. C. HBTU coupling reagent was likely first described around 1978 [74l].

75 Pictet–Spengler Reaction

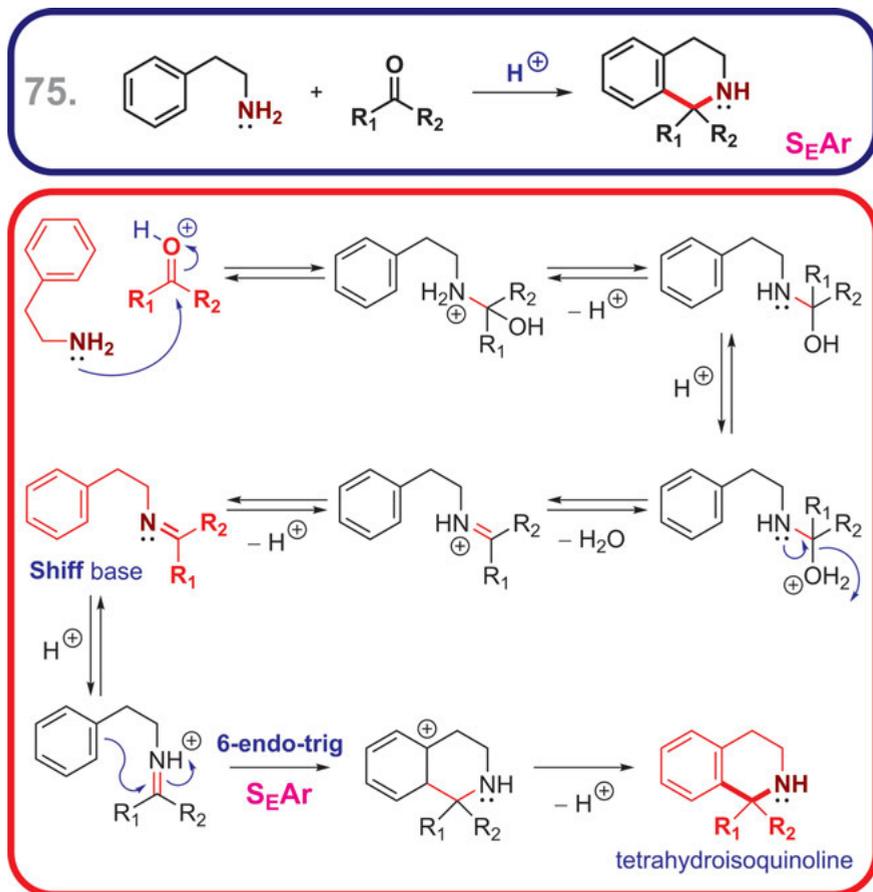


Fig. 75.1: The *Pictet–Spengler* reaction mechanism.²⁴⁰

240 The *Pictet–Spengler* reaction or the *Pictet–Spengler* condensation mechanism is a combination of the *Mannich* condensation = the *imine condensation* (the *Shiff* base) (see Chapter 56) and the **aromatic electrophilic substitution** (the *arenium ion* mechanism or S_EAr , which was covered in Chapter 3).

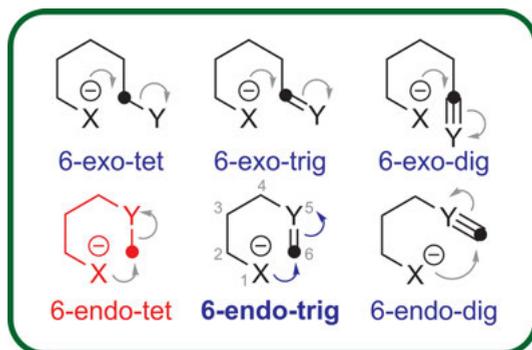


Fig. 75.2: *Baldwin's rules*.²⁴¹

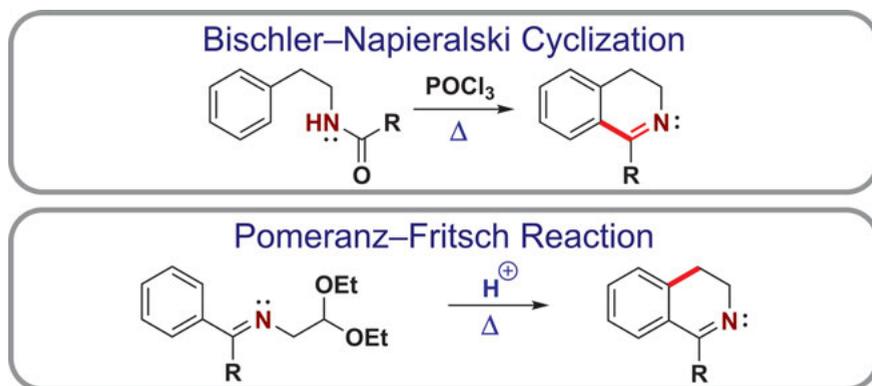


Fig. 75.3: Reactions related to the *Pictet–Spengler reaction*.²⁴²

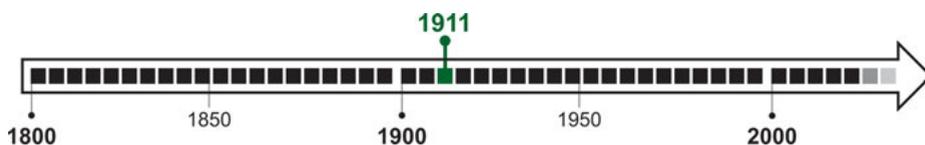


Fig. 75.4: The discovery of the *Pictet–Spengler reaction*.²⁴³

²⁴¹ The cyclization (S_EAr) step is allowed according to *Baldwin's rules*: **6-endo-trig** [75a].

²⁴² Several named reactions are related to the *Pictet–Spengler reaction*: the *Bischler–Napieralski cyclization* (Chapter 19), and closely related the *Pomeranz–Fritsch reaction* [19a, 19b]. Both reactions yield *isoquinolines*.

²⁴³ The reaction was likely first described around 1911 [75b].

76 Pinacol–Pinacolone Rearrangement

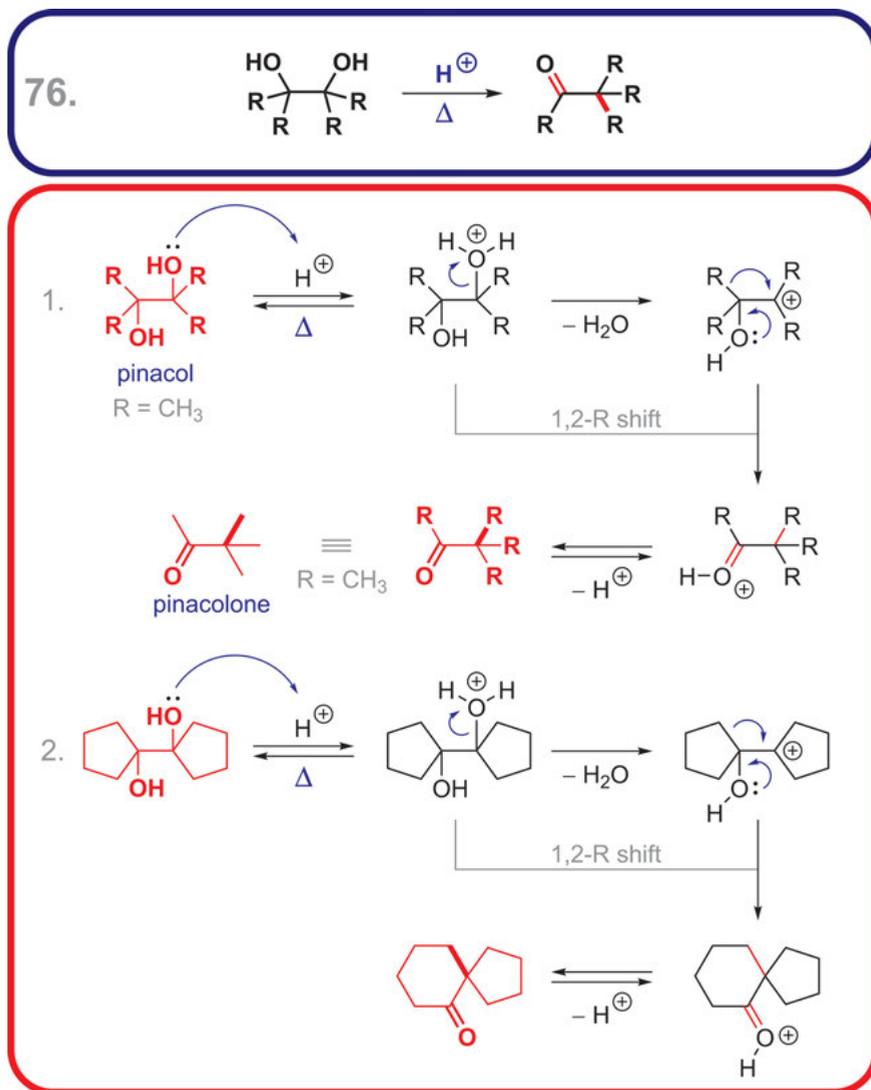


Fig. 76.1: The pinacol-pinacolone rearrangement mechanism.²⁴⁴

244 The pinacol-pinacolone rearrangement or simply the pinacol rearrangement mechanism is distantly related to the **Wagner–Meerwein** rearrangement covered in Chapter 96. The pinacol-pinacolone rearrangement should not be confused with the pinacol coupling covered in Chapter 57. Please also note: 2,3-dimethylbutane-2,3-diol is called **pinacol** and 3,3-dimethyl-2-butanone is called **pinacolone**.

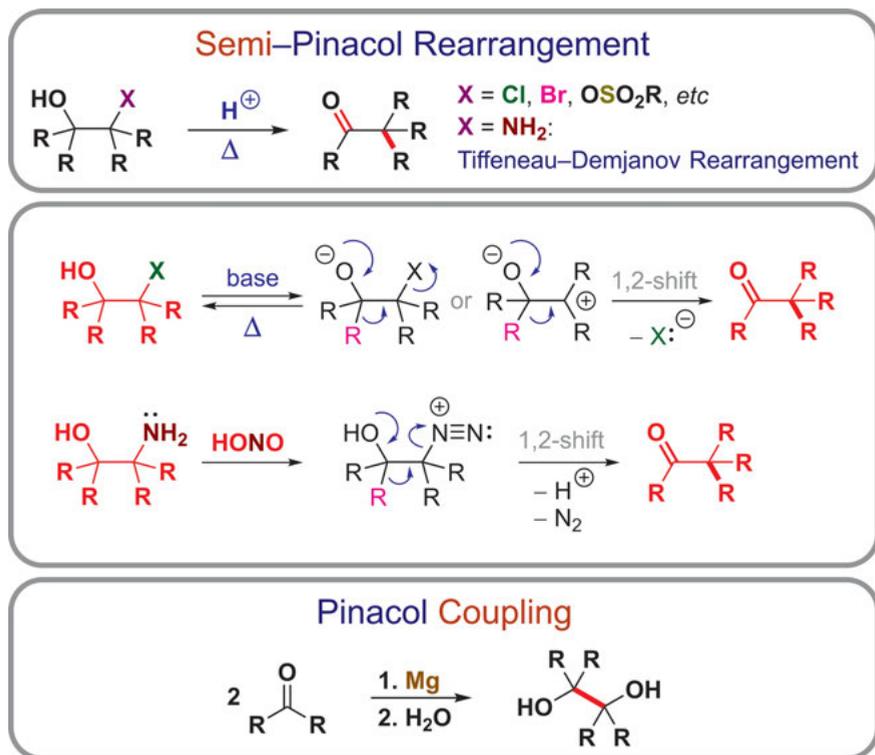


Fig. 76.2: The *semi-pinacol rearrangement* mechanism.²⁴⁵

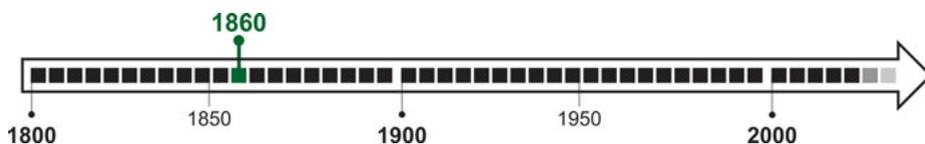


Fig. 76.3: The discovery of the *pinacol-pinacolone rearrangement*.²⁴⁶

²⁴⁵ The *semi-pinacol rearrangement* mechanism [1] is analogous to the *pinacol rearrangement*. It occurs in α -substituted alcohols. If $\text{X} = \text{NH}_2$, the reaction is called the **Tiffeneau–Demjanov rearrangement** [76a, 76b].

²⁴⁶ The reaction was likely first described around 1860 [76c].

77 Polonovski Reaction

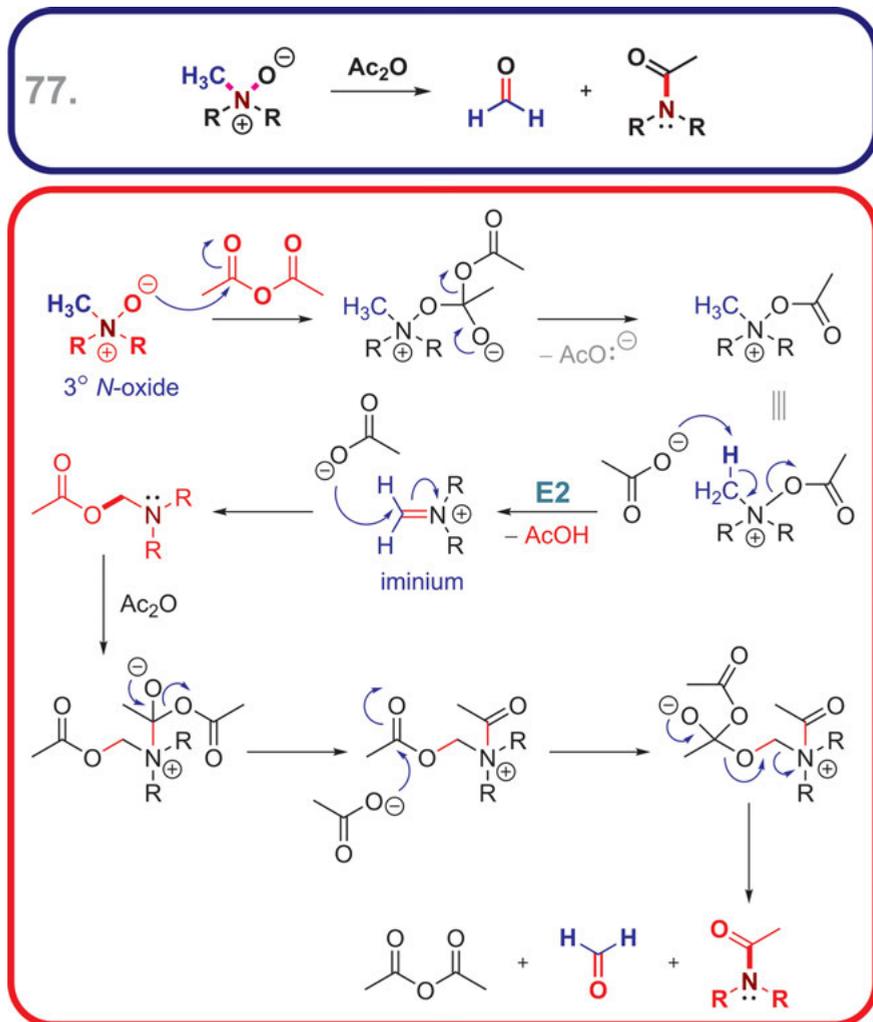


Fig. 77.1: The *Polonovski* reaction mechanism.²⁴⁷

²⁴⁷ The *Polonovski* reaction can be called the *Polonovski* rearrangement. The key intermediate is an iminium ion (see the *Mannich* reaction in Chapter 56).

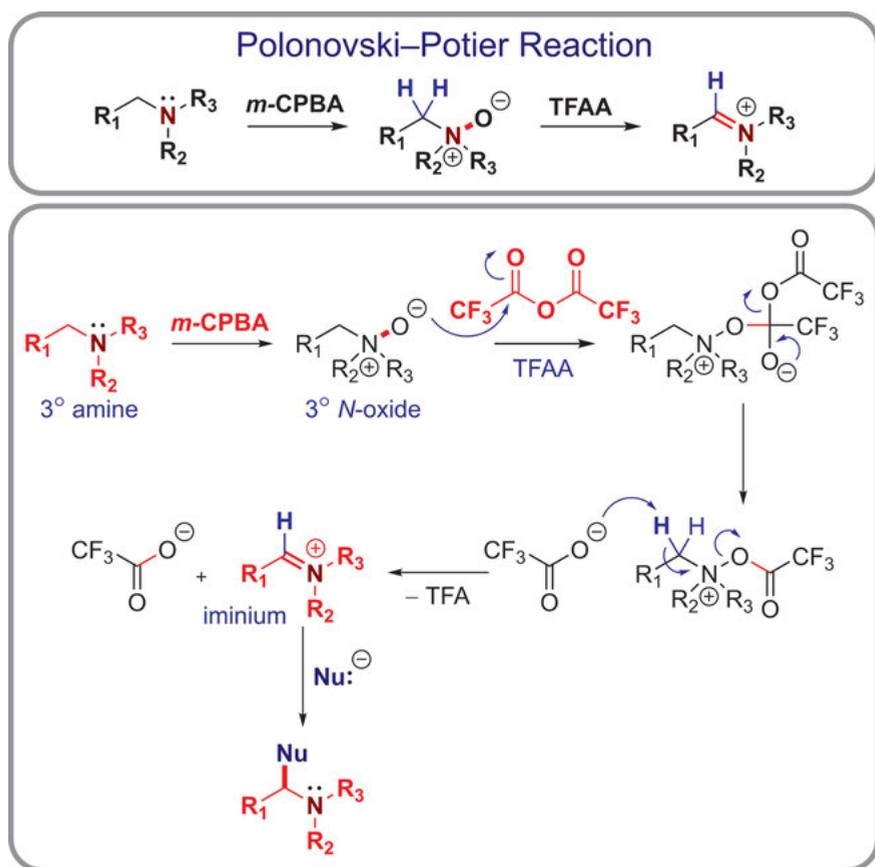


Fig. 77.2: The *Polonovski–Potier* reaction mechanism.²⁴⁸

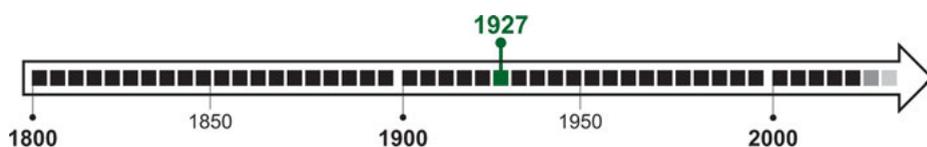


Fig. 77.3: The discovery of the *Polonovski* reaction.²⁴⁹

²⁴⁸ The *Polonovski–Potier* reaction is closely related [77a, 77b]. Trifluoroacetic anhydride (TFAA) is used instead of acetic anhydride and the iminium ion can be trapped with various nucleophiles.

²⁴⁹ The reaction was likely first described around 1927 [77c].

78 Prilezhaev Epoxidation

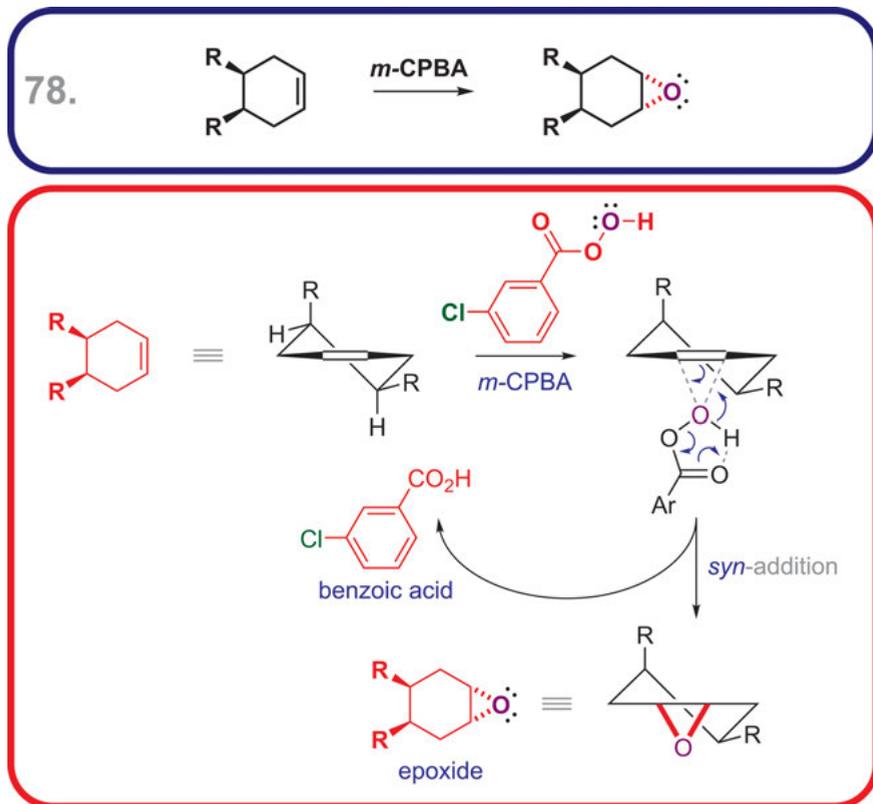


Fig. 78.1: The *Prilezhaev* epoxidation mechanism.²⁵⁰

²⁵⁰ The *Prilezhaev* reaction (in Russian Прилежаев) is a type of epoxidation, and it is often called the *Prilezhaev* epoxidation.

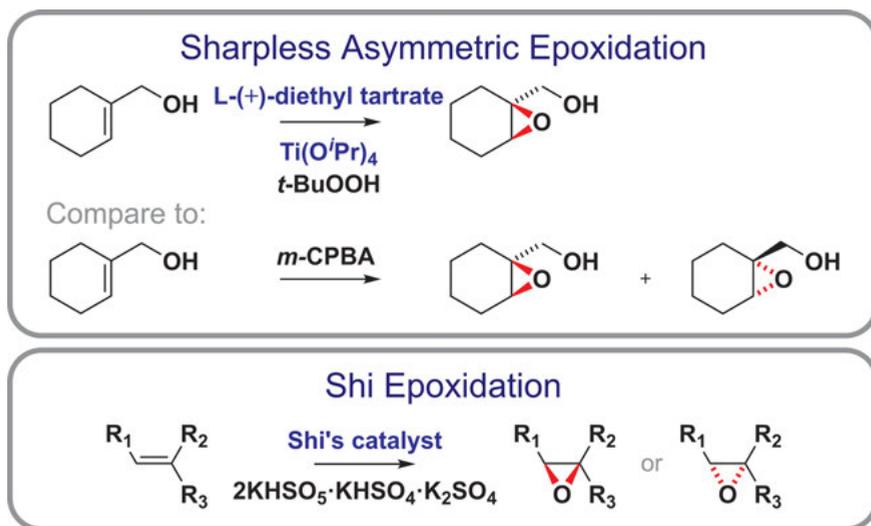


Fig. 78.2: Reactions related to the *Prilezhaev* epoxidation.²⁵¹

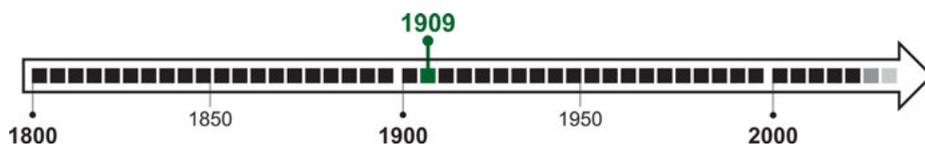


Fig. 78.3: The discovery of the *Prilezhaev* epoxidation.²⁵²

²⁵¹ There are many ways to synthesize *epoxides*, such as: the *Sharpless asymmetric epoxidation* [78a] (compare to the *Prilezhaev epoxidation* where a mixture of enantiomers is formed); the *Shi asymmetric epoxidation* [78b], and many more other examples (not shown) [1].

²⁵² The reaction was likely first described around 1909 [78c].

79 Prins Reaction

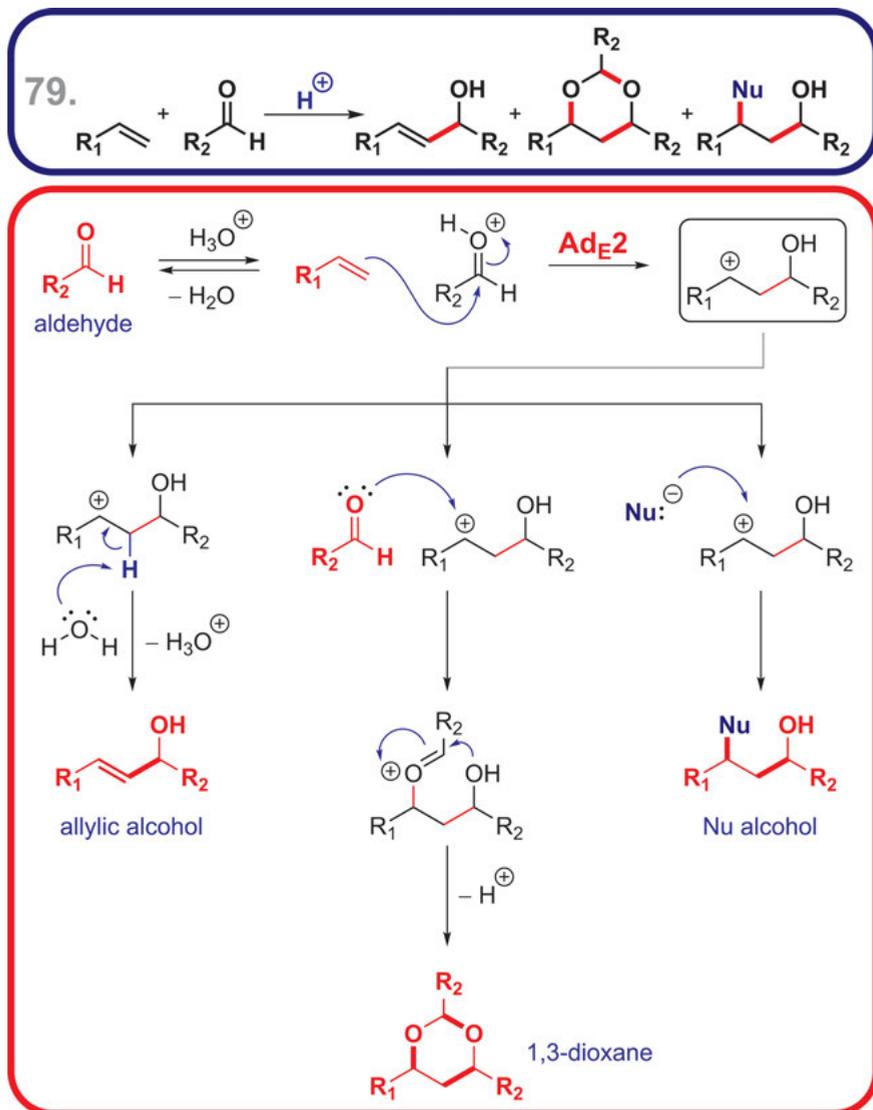


Fig. 79.1: The *Prins* reaction mechanism.²⁵³

253 The *Prins* reaction is a type of condensation with various possible products. Mechanistically (addition of a protonated *aldehyde* to an *alkene*), it is an example of the **electrophilic addition** covered in Chapter 1.

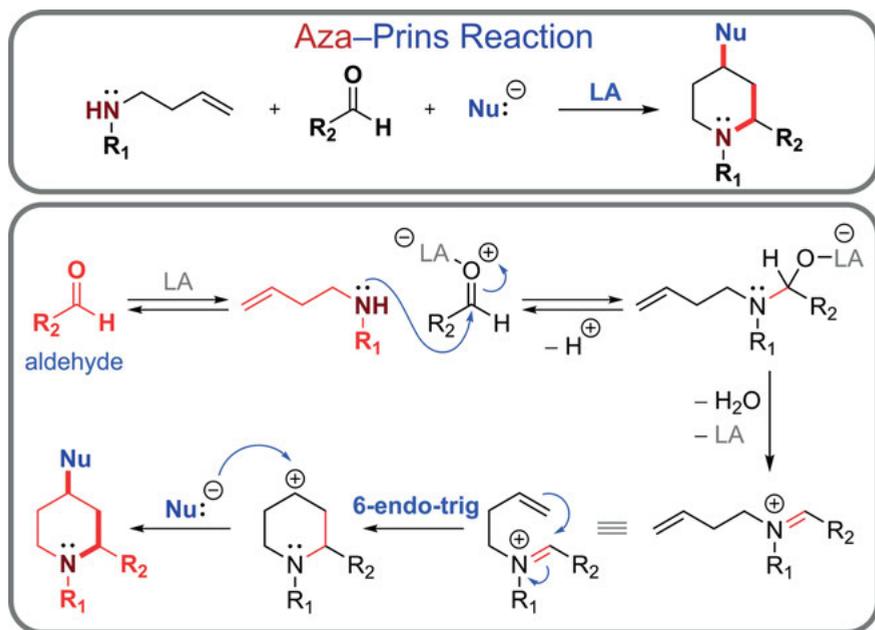


Fig. 79.2: The *aza-Prins* reaction mechanism.²⁵⁴

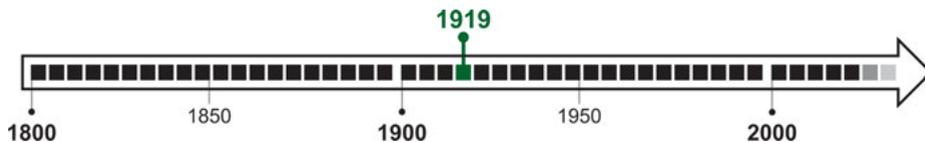


Fig. 79.3: The discovery of the *Prins* reaction.²⁵⁵

²⁵⁴ The *aza-Prins* reaction mechanism is related to the *Prins* reaction [79a, 79b]. It yields the *piperidine* core (see *Baldwin's rules* mentioned in Chapter 75: **6-endo-trig**). Other variations exist, for example the *Prins-pinacol* reaction (not shown here) [79c].

²⁵⁵ The reaction was likely first described around 1919 [79d, 79e].

80 Pummerer Rearrangement

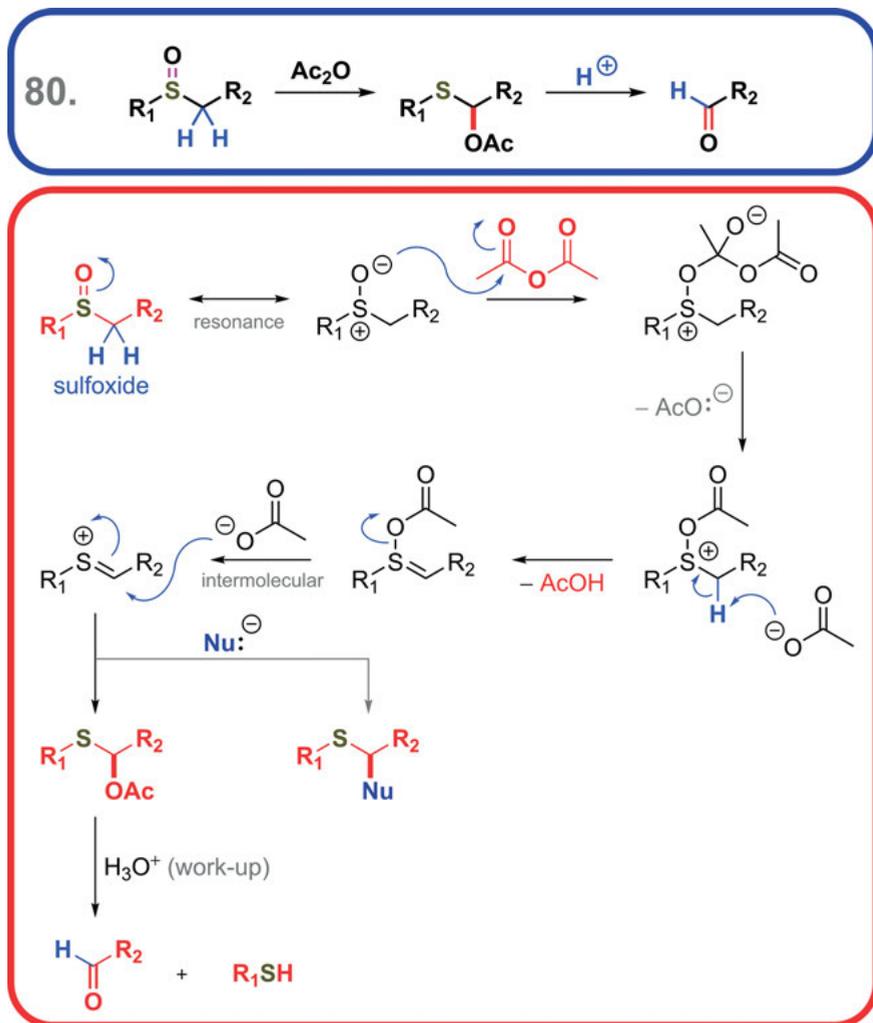


Fig. 80.1: The **Pummerer** rearrangement mechanism.²⁵⁶

²⁵⁶ The **Pummerer** rearrangement can be called the **Pummerer** fragmentation.



Fig. 80.2: Reactions related to the *Pummerer rearrangement*.²⁵⁷

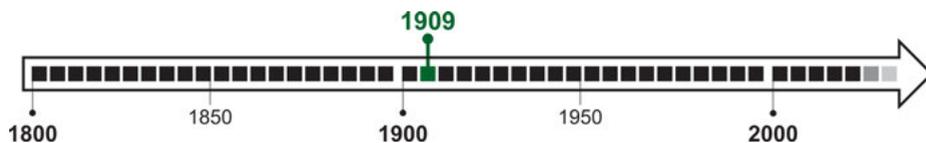


Fig. 80.3: The discovery of the *Pummerer rearrangement*.²⁵⁸

²⁵⁷ The *Polonovski reaction* mechanism (see Chapter 77) is related to the *Pummerer rearrangement*. An *amine oxide* (in the *Polonovski reaction*) plays similar role as a *sulfoxide* (in the *Pummerer rearrangement*).

²⁵⁸ The reaction was likely first described around 1909 [80].

81 Ramberg–Bäcklund Rearrangement

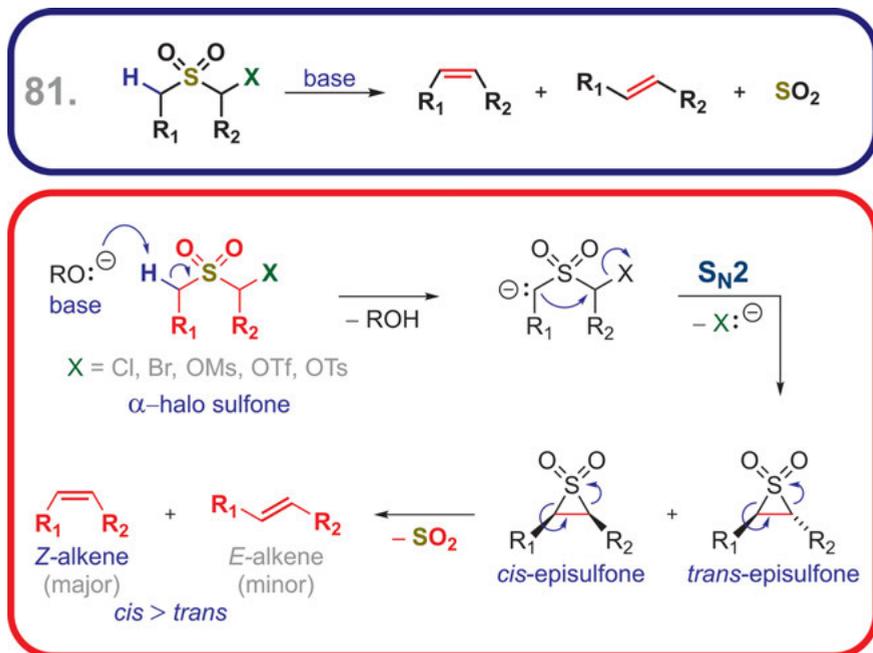


Fig. 81.1: The *Ramberg–Bäcklund* rearrangement mechanism.²⁵⁹

259 The *Ramberg–Bäcklund* rearrangement or the *Ramberg–Bäcklund* reaction mechanism is a combination of the bimolecular **nucleophilic substitution** (S_N2), covered in Chapter 2, and subsequent concerted **elimination** (*cheletropic elimination reaction*) [1a] and [81a].

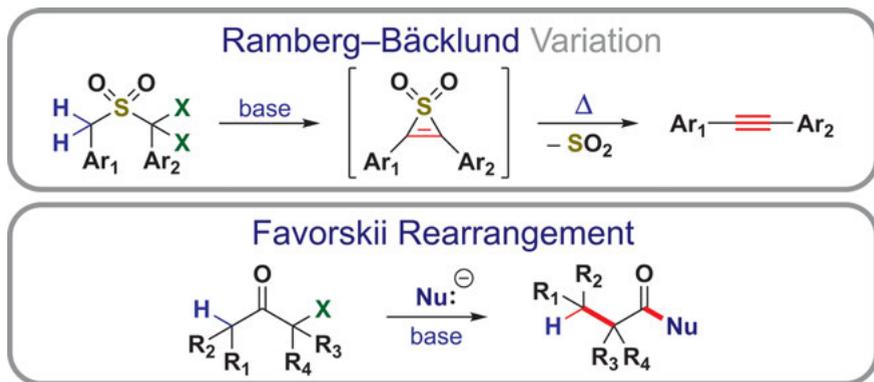


Fig. 81.2: Reactions related to the *Ramberg–Bäcklund* rearrangement.²⁶⁰

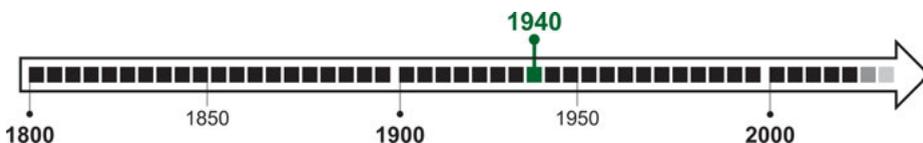


Fig. 81.3: The discovery of the *Ramberg–Bäcklund* rearrangement.²⁶¹

²⁶⁰ There are several variations of the *Ramberg–Bäcklund* rearrangement; for example, the formation of *alkynes* instead of *alkenes* [81b] and [1a]. The S_N2 step in the *Favorskii* rearrangement (covered in Chapter 37) is related to the *Ramberg–Bäcklund* rearrangement.

²⁶¹ The reaction was likely first described around 1940 [81c].

82 Reformatsky Reaction

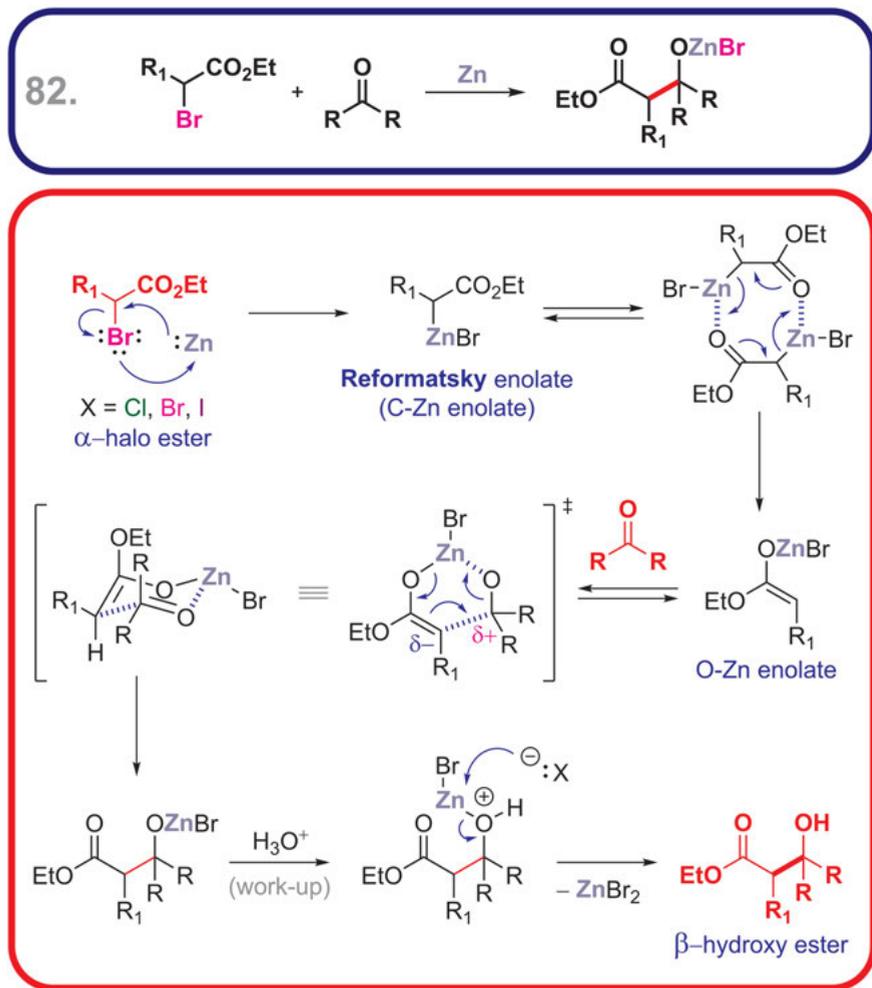


Fig. 82.1: The *Reformatsky* reaction mechanism.²⁶²

262 The *Reformatsky* reaction (condensation) (also spelled Reformatskii, and in Russian Срейн Николаевич Реформатский or С. Н. Реформатский) mechanistically is much like the *aldol condensation* reaction (see Chapter 83).

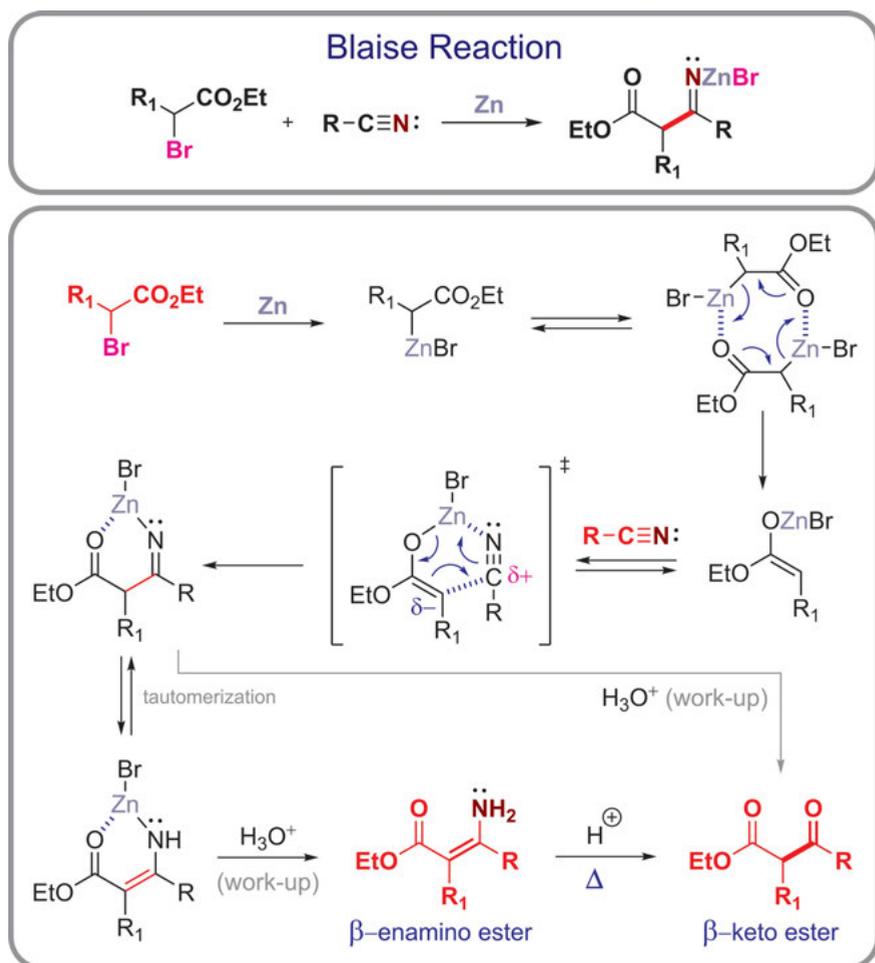


Fig. 82.2: The **Blaise** reaction mechanism.²⁶³

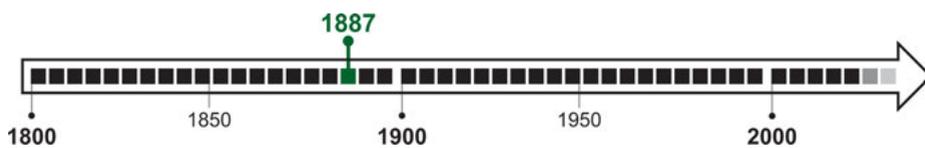


Fig. 82.3: The discovery of the **Reformatsky** reaction.²⁶⁴

²⁶³ The **Blaise** reaction is a variation of the **Reformatsky** reaction [82a, 82b]. In this case, the preformed **Reformatsky** enolate (*C*-Zn or *O*-Zn enolate) reacts with a nitrile instead of an aldehyde or ketone.

²⁶⁴ The reaction was likely first described around 1887 [82].

83 Robinson Annulation

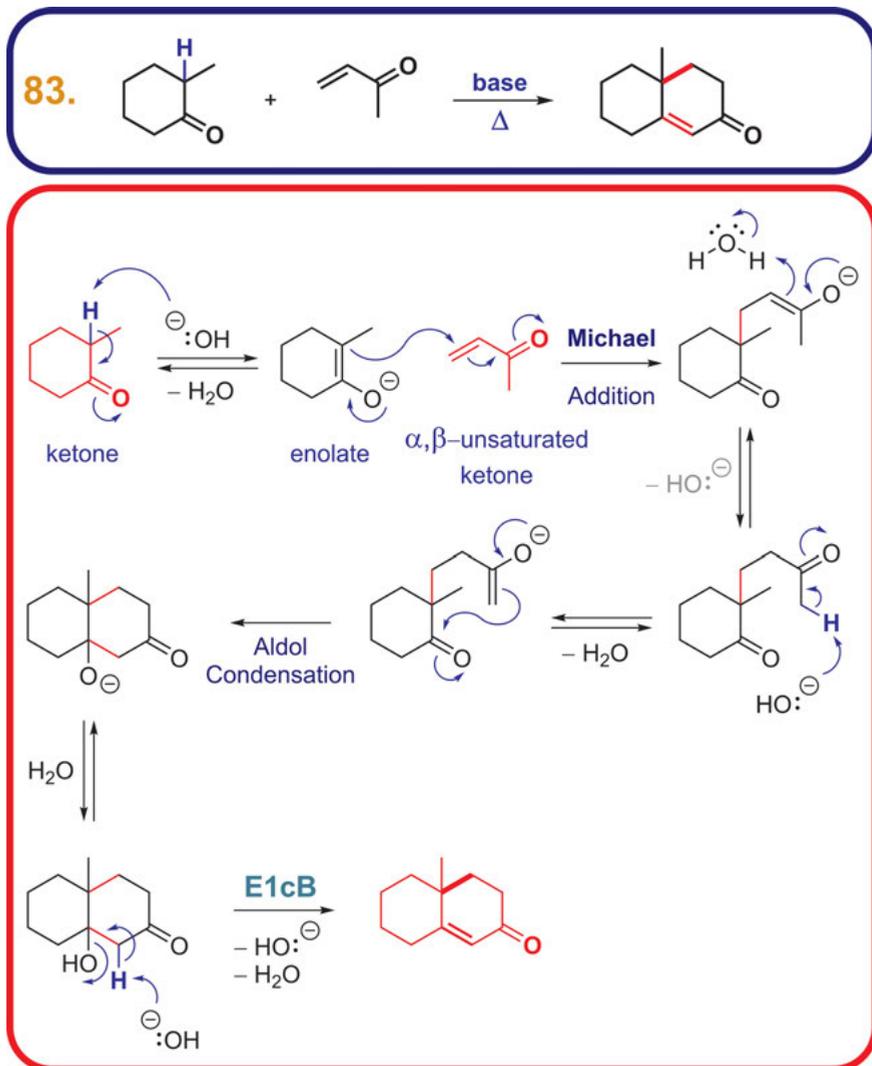


Fig. 83.1: The **Robinson annulation** mechanism.²⁶⁵

265 The **Robinson annulation** mechanism is a cascade of the **Michael conjugate addition** (see Chapter 59), followed by the **aldol condensation**, and finally **E1cB elimination** (see Chapter 6).

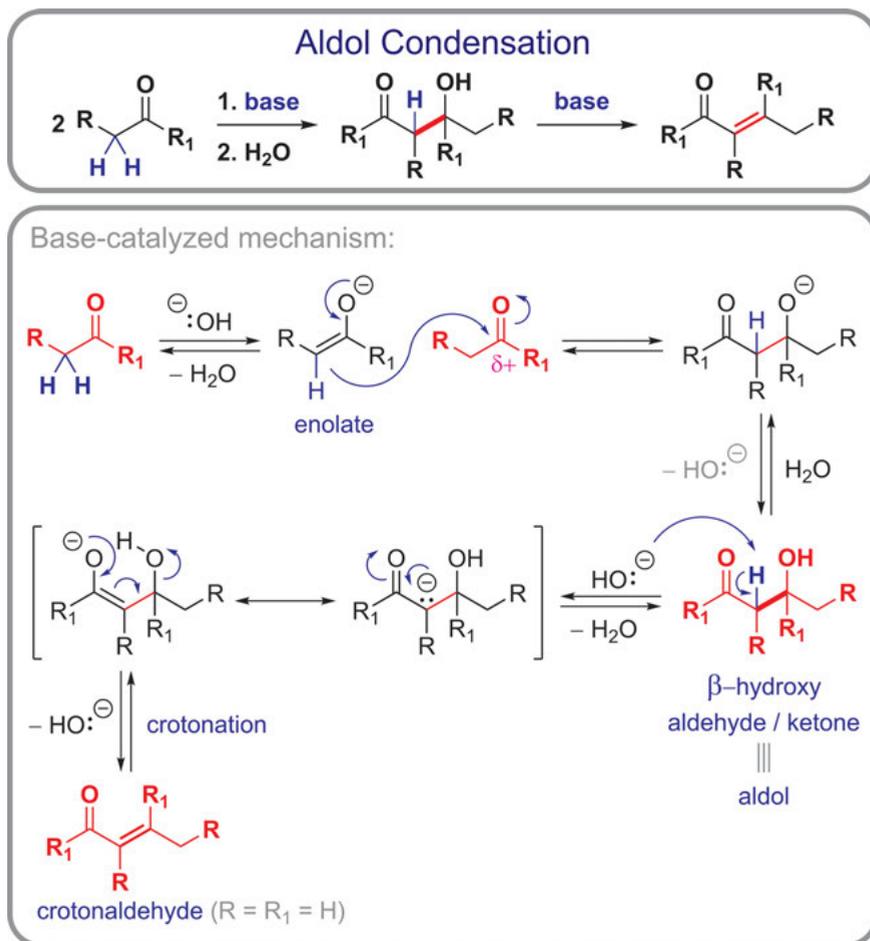


Fig. 83.2: The *aldol condensation* mechanism.²⁶⁶

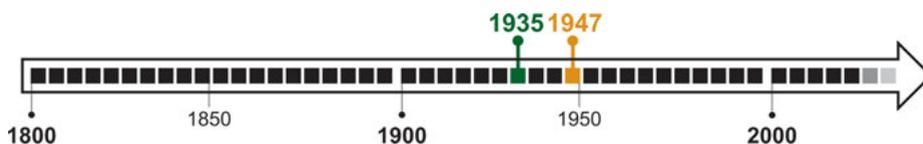


Fig. 83.3: The discovery of the **Robinson annulation**.²⁶⁷

266 The base-catalyzed *aldol condensation* can yield β -hydroxy aldehydes (**aldols**) or ketones. The formed *aldols* can undergo an elimination and yield *crotonaldehydes* (the *croton condensation* = *crotonation*) [1].

267 The reaction was likely first described around 1935 [83a]. In 1947, Sir Robert Robinson received the Nobel Prize in Chemistry for his work related to alkaloids [83b].

84 Shapiro Reaction

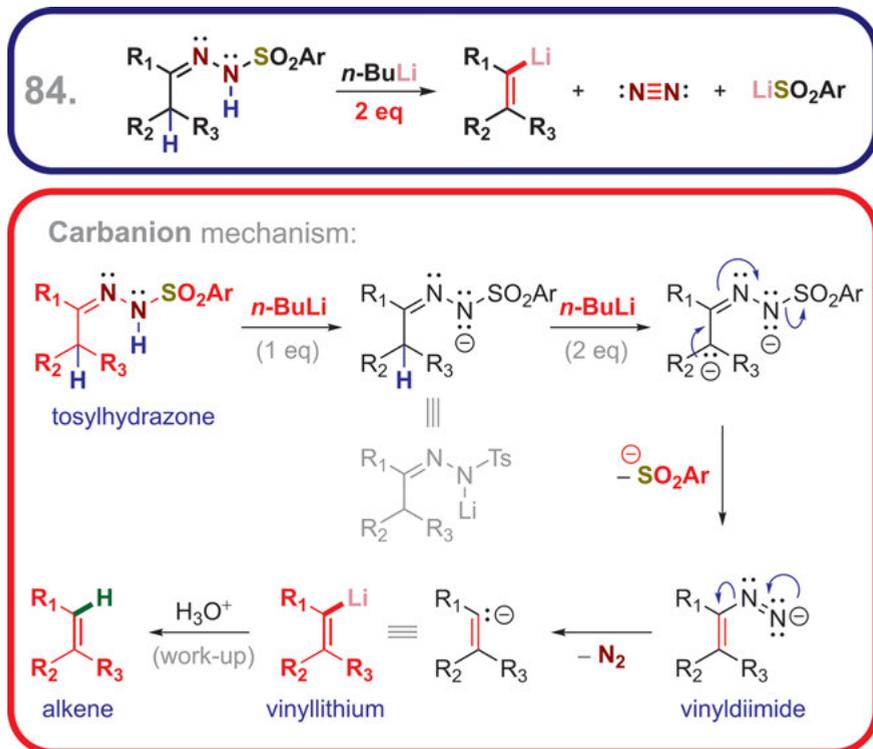


Fig. 84.1: The *Shapiro* reaction mechanism.²⁶⁸

268 The *Shapiro* reaction is a type of **elimination** reaction that undergoes the *carbanion* mechanism.

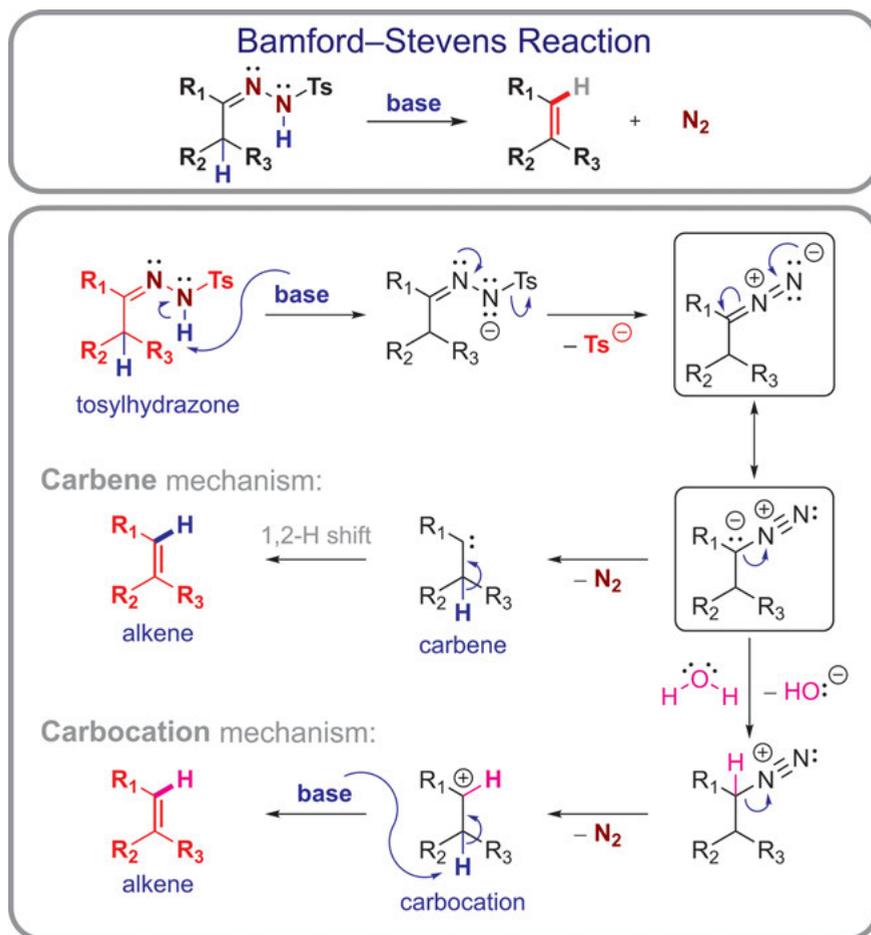


Fig. 84.2: The **Bamford–Stevens** reaction mechanism.²⁶⁹



Fig. 84.3: The discovery of the **Shapiro** reaction.²⁷⁰

²⁶⁹ The **Bamford–Stevens** reaction is a more general variation of the **Shapiro** reaction. Two mechanisms are possible: the *carbene* mechanism and the *carbocation* mechanism (the *carbenium ion* mechanism) [84a].

²⁷⁰ The reaction was likely first described around 1967 [84b], see also [84c, 84d].

85 Sonogashira Cross Coupling

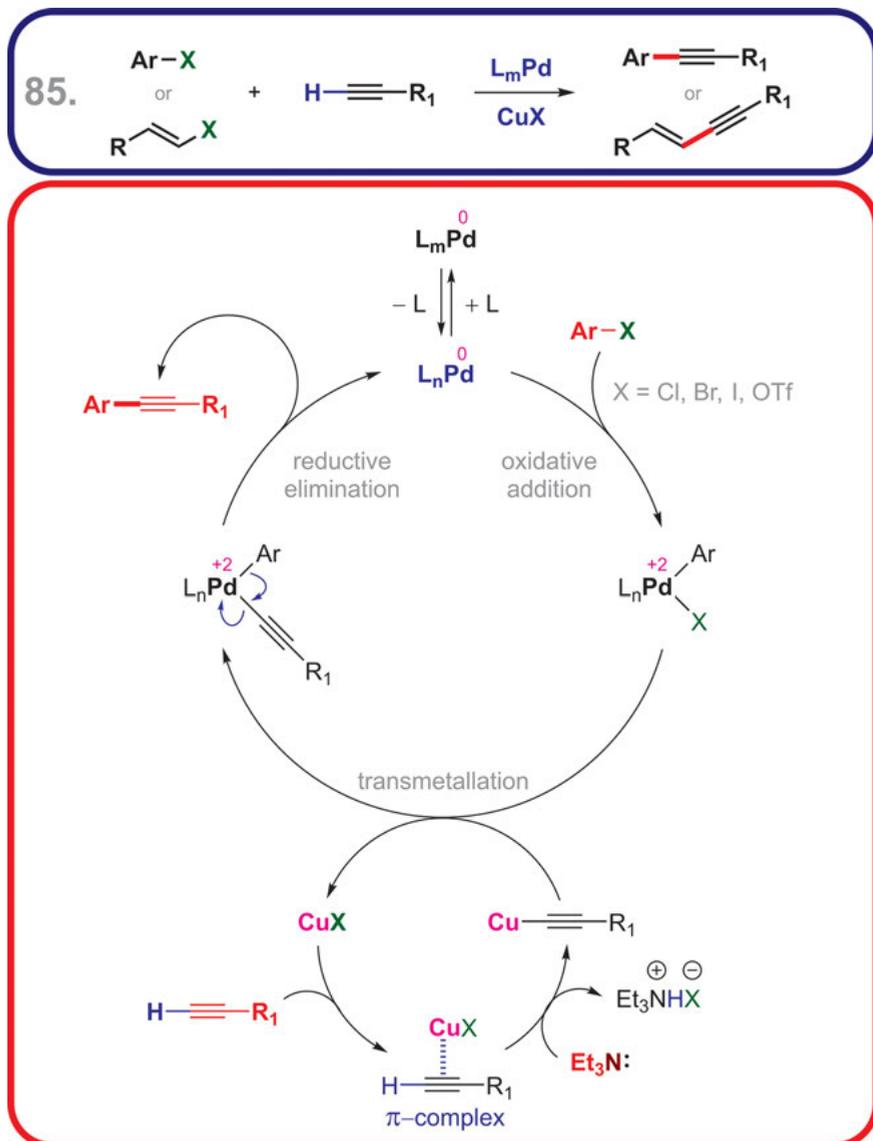


Fig. 85.1: The *Sonogashira* cross coupling mechanism.²⁷¹

271 The *Sonogashira* cross coupling is a type of mixed *Pd*-catalyzed and *Cu*-co-catalyzed cross coupling reaction (C–C bond formation using *aryl halides* and *terminal alkynes*). For teaching purposes, a simplified and general mechanism (with two catalytic cycles using *Pd* and *Cu*) is shown.

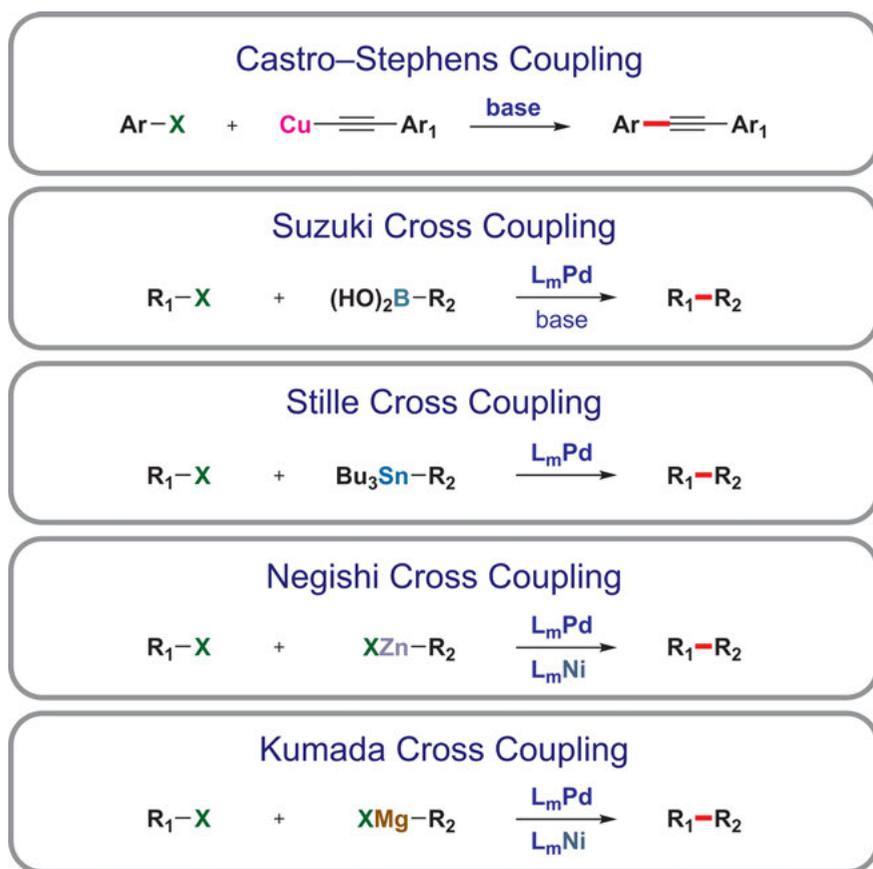


Fig. 85.2: Reactions related to the *Sonogashira cross coupling*.²⁷²

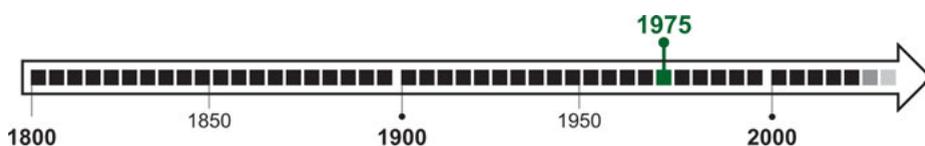


Fig. 85.3: The discovery of the *Sonogashira cross coupling*.²⁷³

²⁷² The *Castro–Stephens* cross coupling is *Cu*-catalyzed and closely related (C–C bond formation using *aryl halides* and pre-formed or *in situ* generated *copper(I) acetylides*) [85a]. Other cross coupling reactions are also related to the *Sonogashira cross coupling*: the *Suzuki* (Chapter 89), the *Stille* (Chapter 88), the *Negishi* (Chapter 66), and the *Kumada cross coupling* (Chapter 53).

²⁷³ The reaction was likely first described around 1975 [85b].

86 Staudinger Reaction

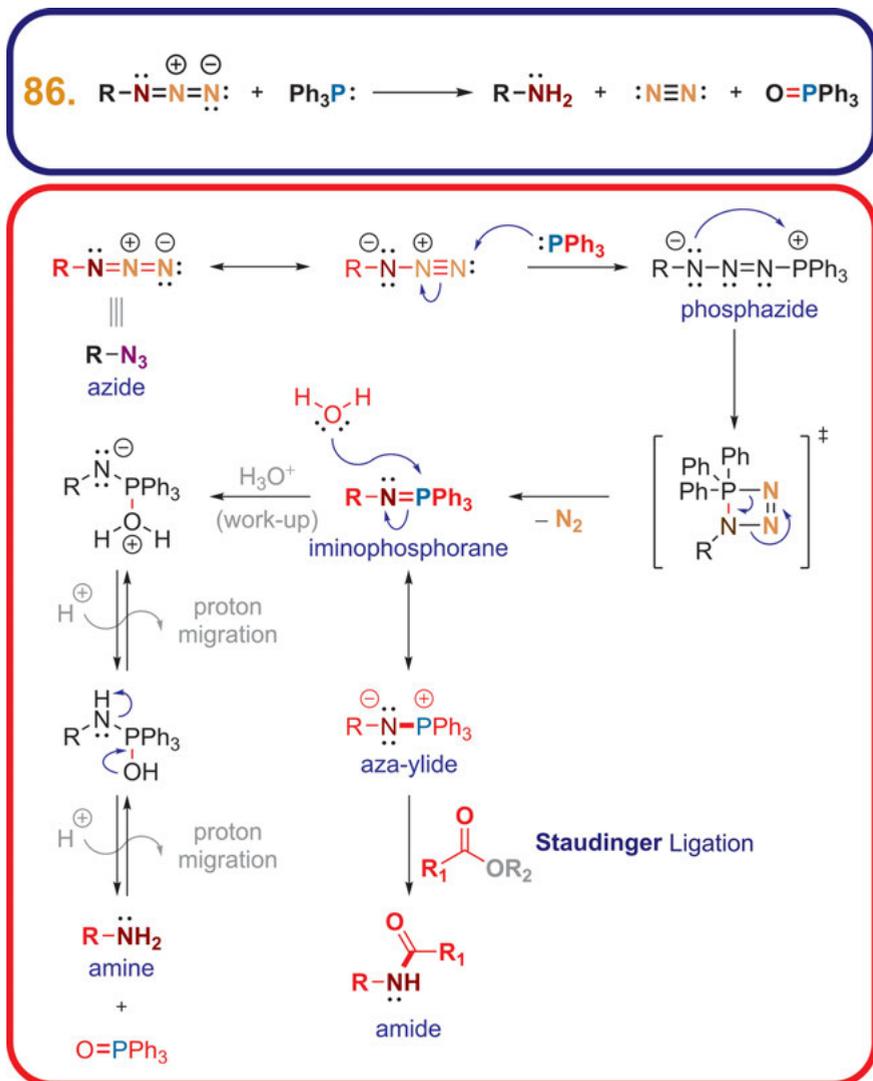


Fig. 86.1: The **Staudinger** reaction mechanism.²⁷⁴

274 The **Staudinger** reaction (reduction) is a reduction of azides to primary amines using triphenylphosphine. It should not be confused with the **Staudinger** synthesis or the **Staudinger** ketene cycloaddition reaction (for example, formation of β -lactams) [86a, 86b].

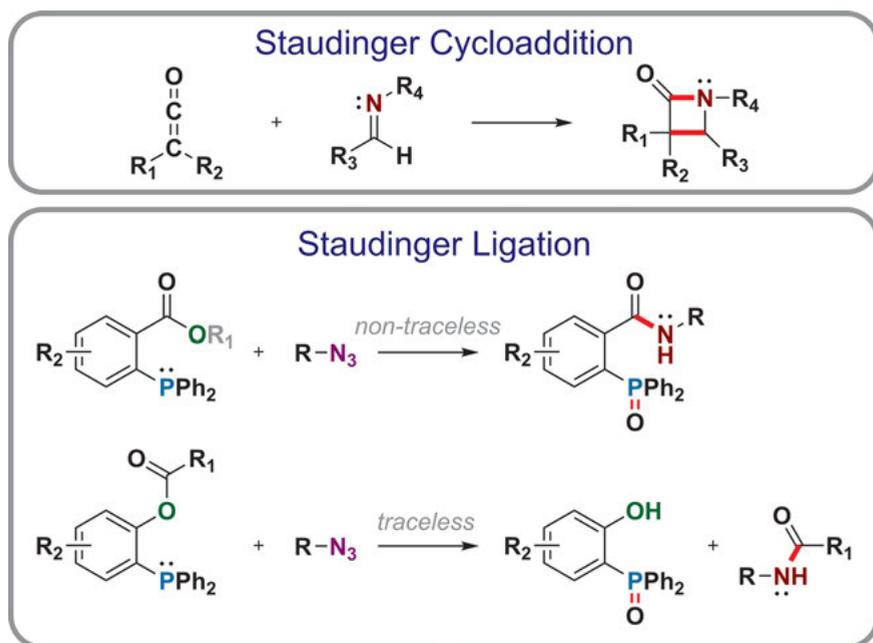


Fig. 86.2: The **Staudinger** cycloaddition and ligation.²⁷⁵

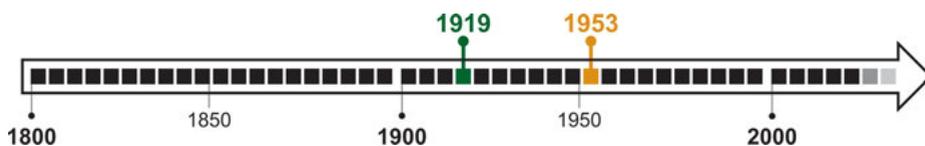


Fig. 86.3: The discovery of the **Staudinger** reaction.²⁷⁶

²⁷⁵ The **Staudinger** ligation [86c, 86d] is a modification of the **Staudinger** reaction: in this case, the generated *aza-ylide* is trapped with an *ester* to form an *amide* bond. There are two general types: *non-traceless* and *traceless* **Staudinger** ligation [86e].

²⁷⁶ The reaction was likely first described around 1919 [86f]. In 1953, Hermann Staudinger received the Nobel Prize in Chemistry for his work in macromolecular chemistry [86g].

87 Steglich Esterification

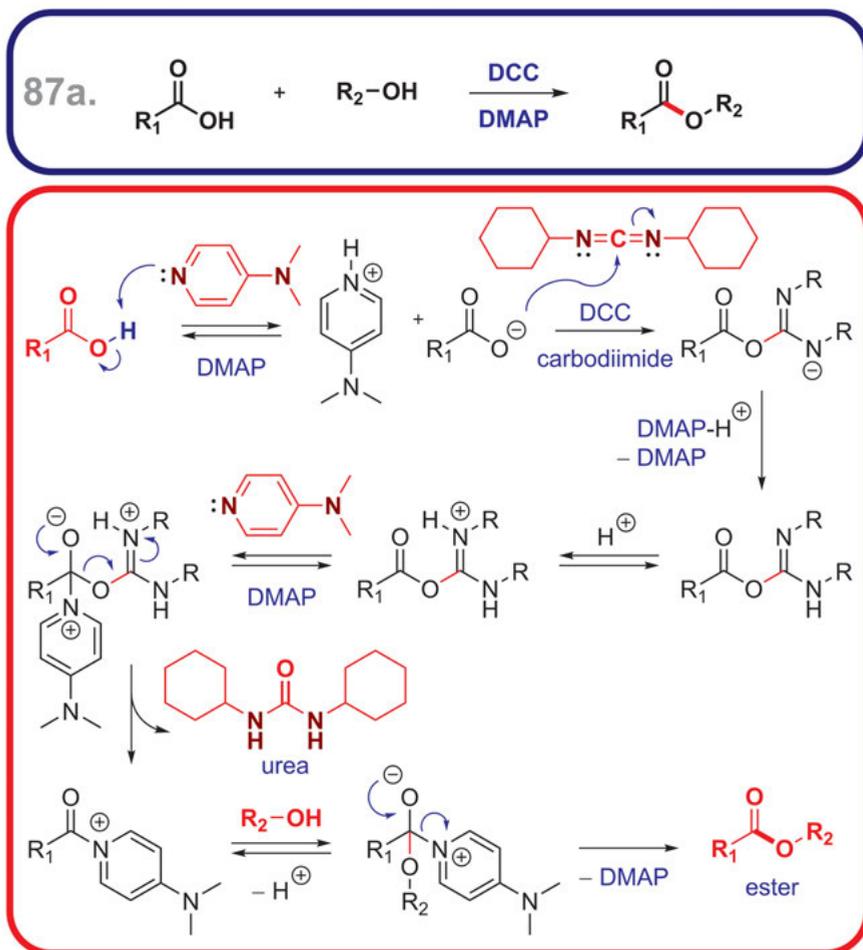


Fig. 87.1: The **Steglich** esterification mechanism (DCC + DMAP).²⁷⁷

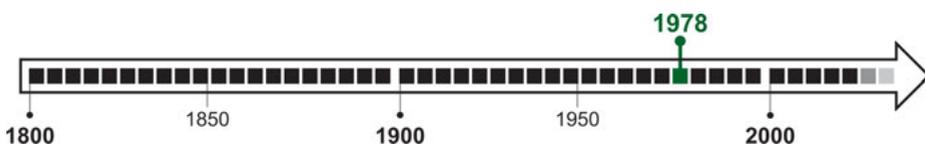


Fig. 87.2: The discovery of the **Steglich** esterification.²⁷⁸

²⁷⁷ The **Steglich** esterification is an ester coupling reaction (compare to the peptide (amide) coupling mechanism in Chapter 74 or the **Fischer** esterification – not covered here). The mechanism involves

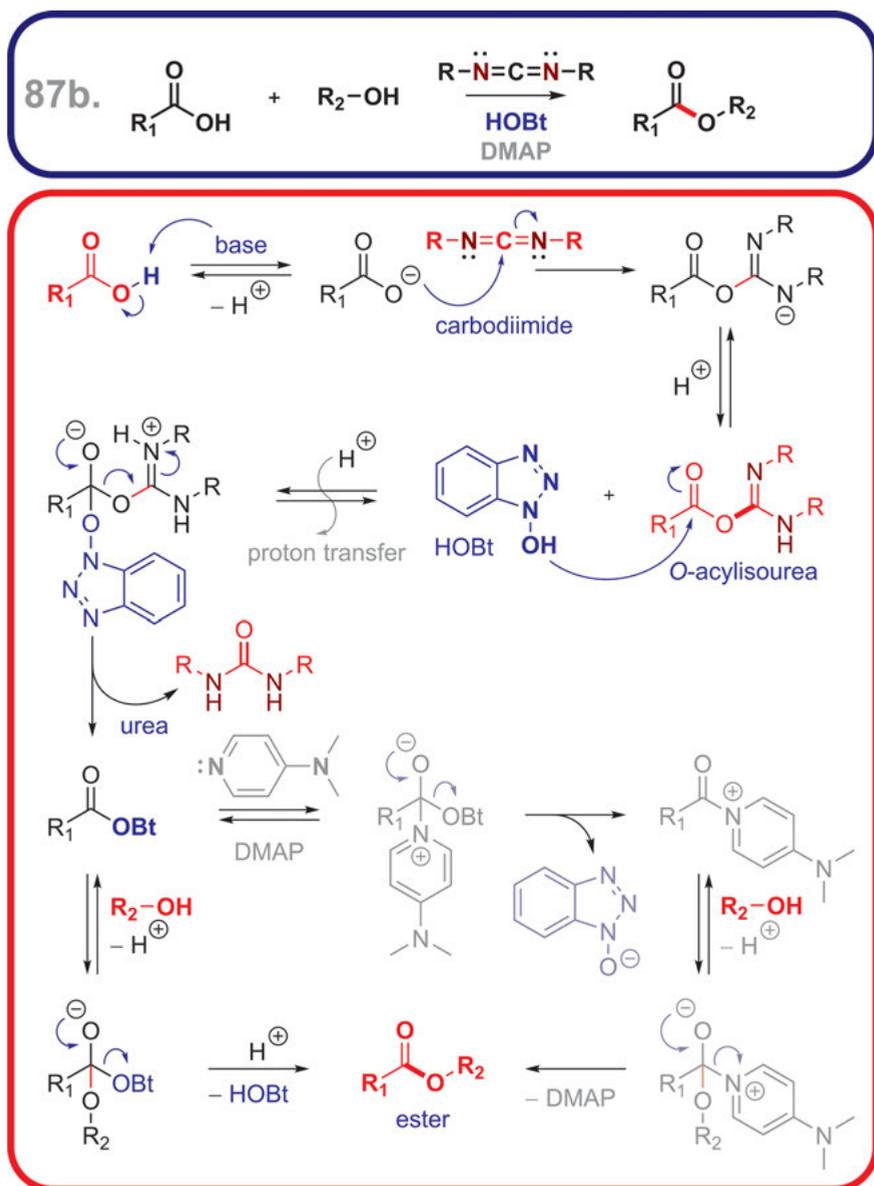


Fig. 87.3: The **Steglich** esterification mechanism (DCC + HOBT + DMAP).²⁷⁹

the use of *carbodiimide* coupling reagents (DCC) and DMAP catalyst [87a].

278 The reaction was likely first described around 1978 [87b].

279 The **Steglich** esterification can be carried out with DCC in the presence of other *peptide (amide) coupling additives* (for example, HOBT) with or without DMAP catalyst.

88 Stille Cross Coupling

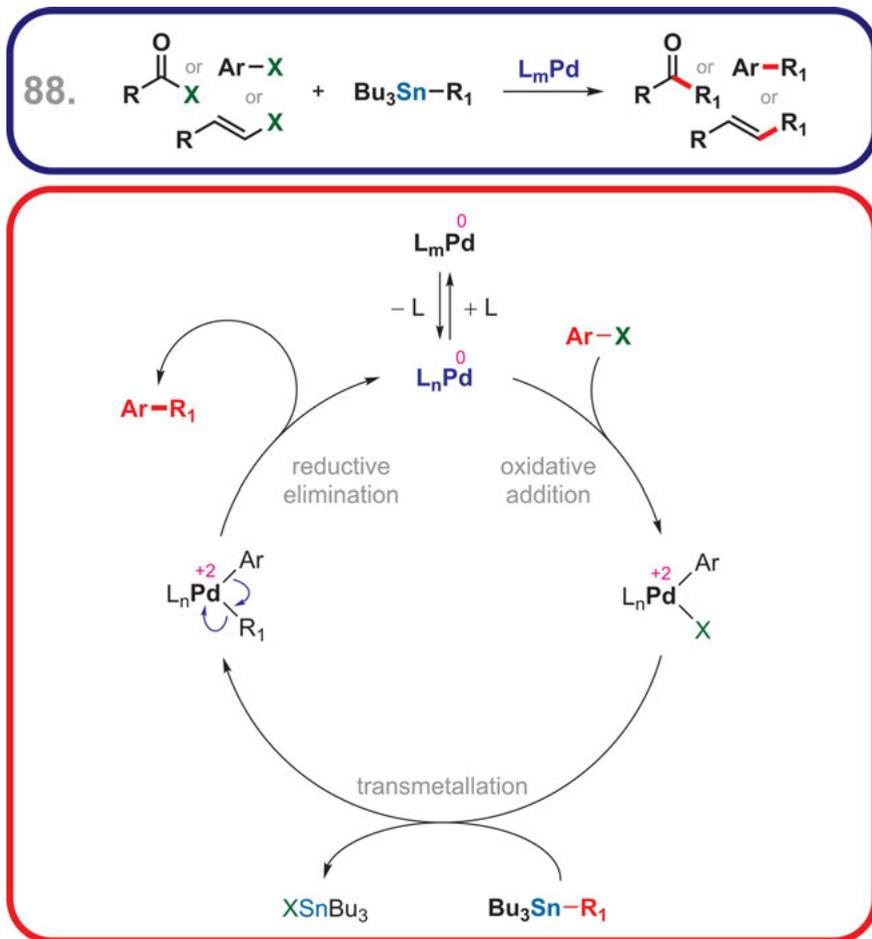


Fig. 88.1: The *Stille* cross coupling mechanism.²⁸⁰

280 The *Stille* cross coupling or the *Migita-Kosugi-Stille* cross coupling is a versatile type of *Pd*-catalyzed cross coupling reaction (C-C bond formation using *aryl halides* or other *electrophiles* and *organotin compounds* = *organostannanes*). For teaching purposes, a simplified and general mechanism is shown.

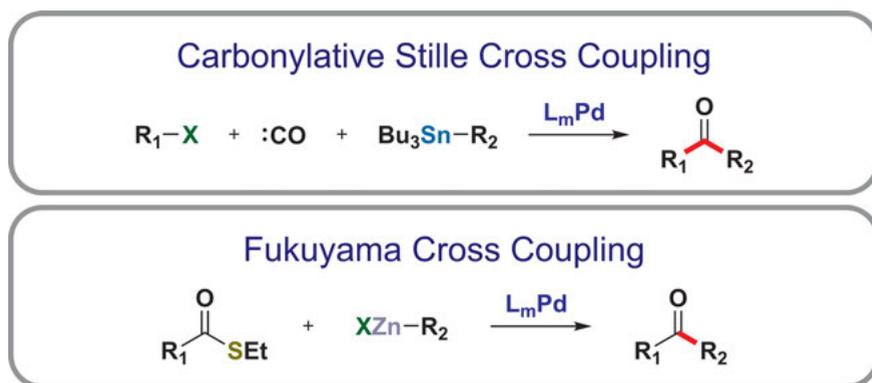


Fig. 88.2: Reactions related to the *Stille cross coupling*.²⁸¹

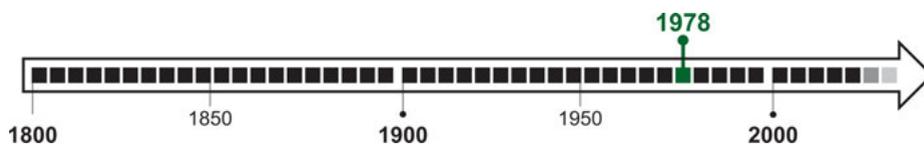
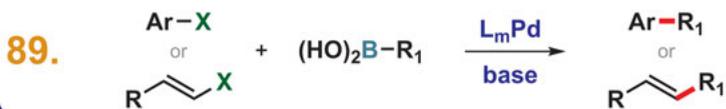


Fig. 88.3: The discovery of the *Stille cross coupling*.²⁸²

281 The *carbonylative Stille cross coupling* is related to the *Stille cross coupling*. It is a method to form *ketones* (two C–C bond formations using *aryl halides* or other *electrophiles*, *organostannanes*, and *carbon monoxide*) [88a]. Ketones can also be formed via the *Fukuyama cross coupling* (C–C bond formation using *thioesters* and *organozinc compounds*) [88b] or the *Liebeskind–Srogl cross coupling* covered in Chapter 55 (C–C bond formation using *thioesters* and *boronic acids*).

282 The reaction was likely first described around 1978 [88c, 88d].

89 Suzuki Cross Coupling



1. Oxo-Pd pathway (a)

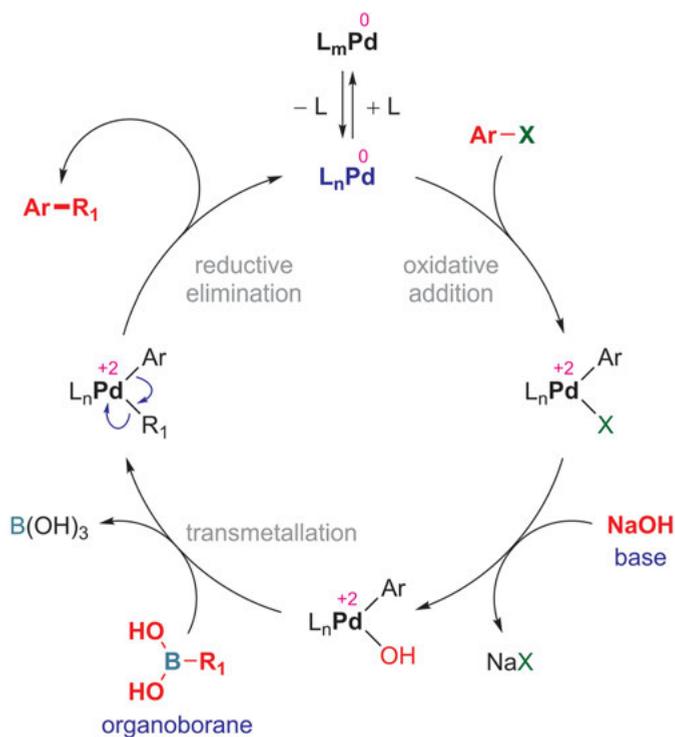


Fig. 89.1: The *Suzuki* cross coupling mechanism (oxo-Pd pathway (a)).²⁸³

283 The *Suzuki* cross coupling or the *Suzuki-Miyaura* cross coupling is a type of Pd-catalyzed cross coupling reaction (C–C bond formation using aryl halides and organoboronic acids). It is one of the most important reactions in synthetic organic and medicinal chemistry. The *oxo-Pd* pathway (a) is the preferred mechanism [89a].

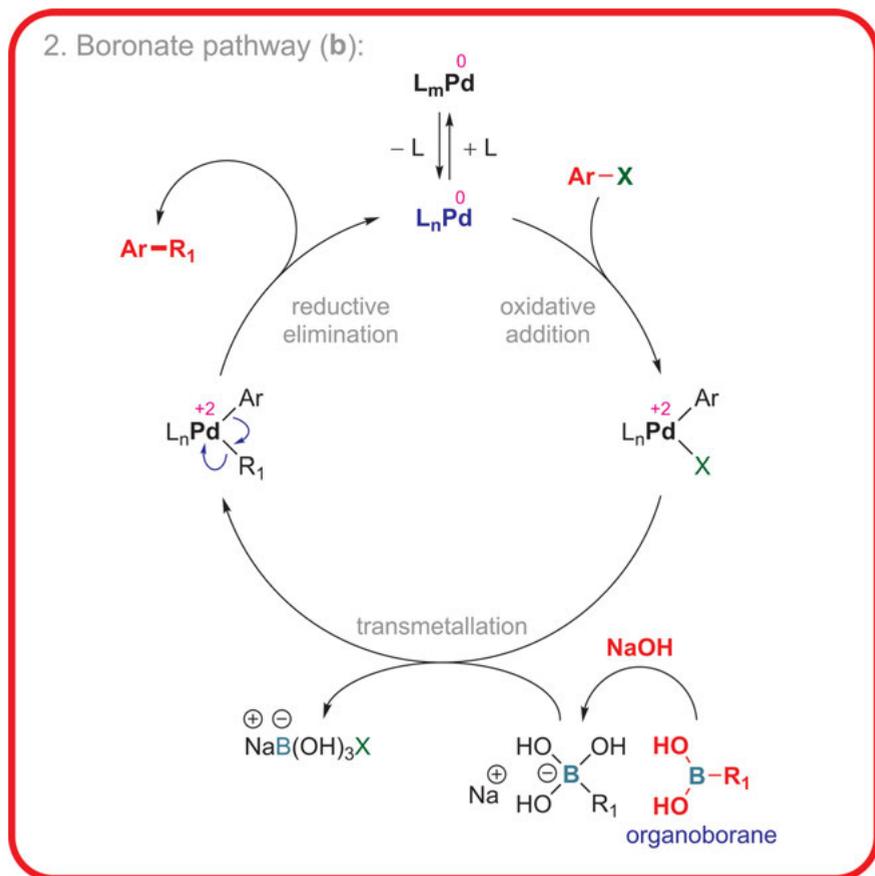


Fig. 89.2: The *Suzuki* cross coupling mechanism (boronate pathway (b)).²⁸⁴

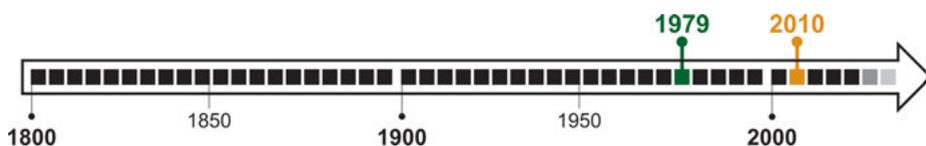


Fig. 89.3: The discovery of the *Suzuki* cross coupling.²⁸⁵

²⁸⁴ The reaction mechanism can also be explained by the *boronate pathway* (b). For teaching purposes, a simplified and general mechanism is shown [89b].

²⁸⁵ The reaction was likely first described around 1979 [89c, 89d]. In 2010, Akira Suzuki (jointly with Richard F. Heck and Ei-ichi Negishi) received the Nobel Prize in Chemistry for the development of Pd-catalyzed cross coupling reactions [46c].

90 Swern Oxidation

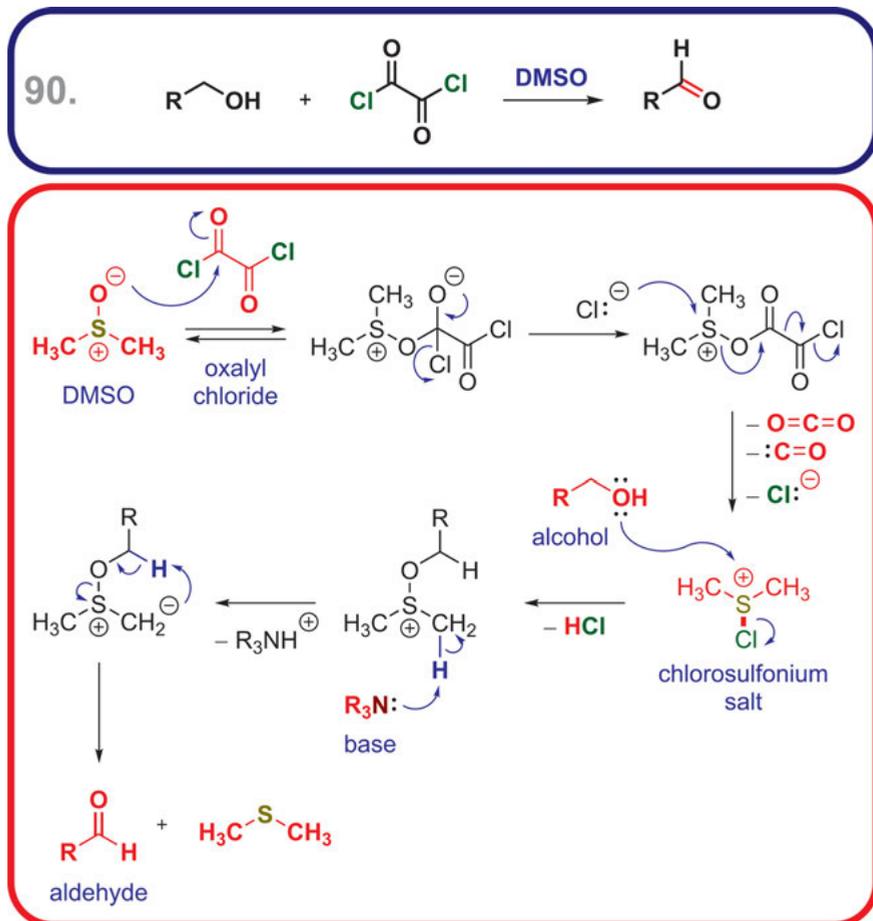


Fig. 90.1: The **Swern** oxidation mechanism.²⁸⁶

286 The **Swern** oxidation is one of the most important reactions in synthetic organic and medicinal chemistry.

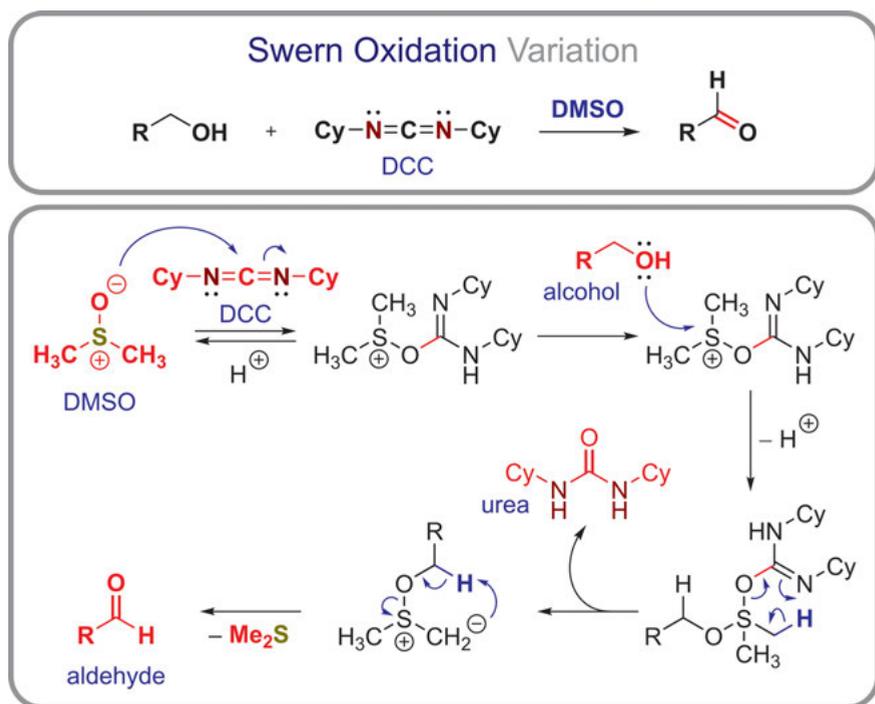


Fig. 90.2: The *Swern* oxidation variation mechanism (DCC + DMSO).²⁸⁷

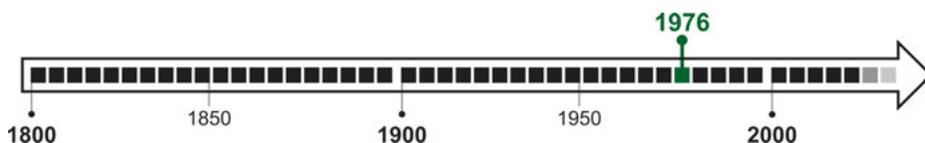


Fig. 90.3: The discovery of the *Swern* oxidation.²⁸⁸

²⁸⁷ There are numerous variations of the *Swern* oxidation: the *Swern* variation using TFAA and DMSO [90a] or *carbodiimide* reagent (DCC) and DMSO [90b]. Several important named oxidation reactions yield *ketones* from *alcohols*: the *Dess-Martin* oxidation (Chapter 33), the *Jones* oxidation (Chapter 51).

²⁸⁸ The reaction was likely first described around 1976 [90a], see also [90c, 90d].

91 Ugi Reaction

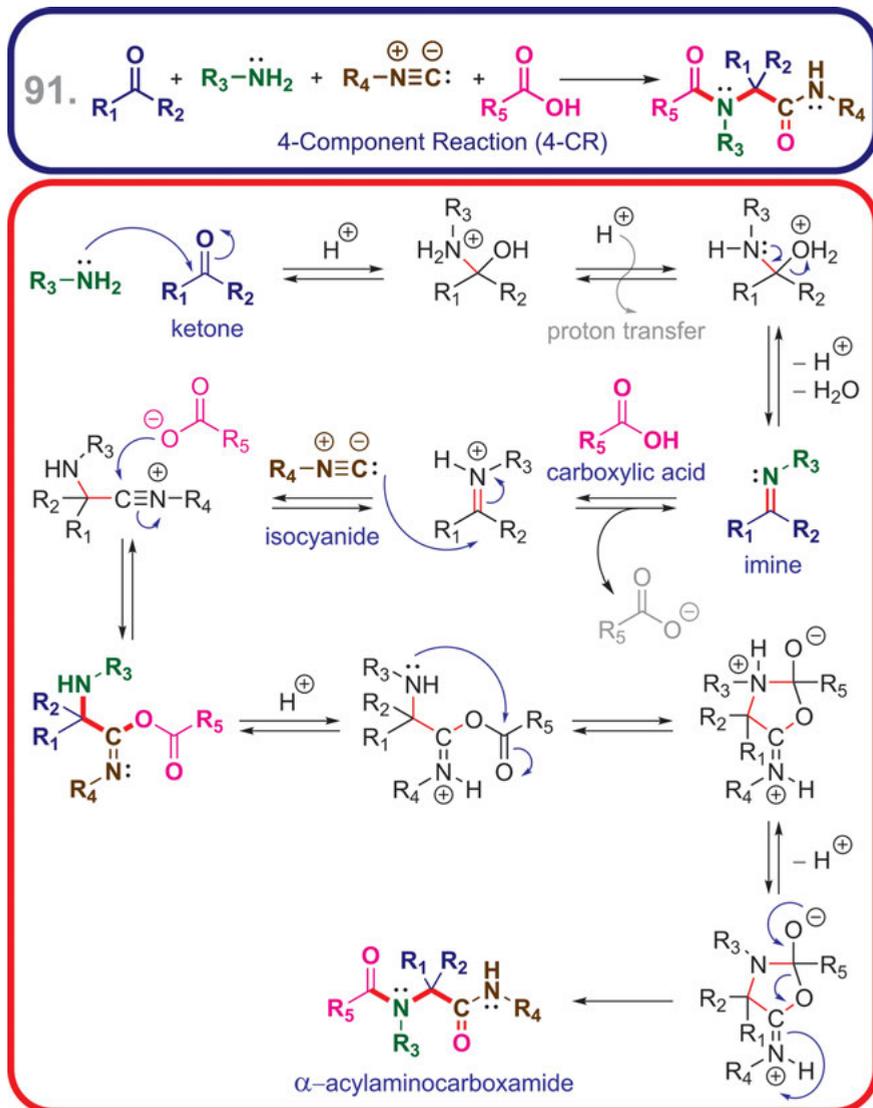


Fig. 91.1: The *Ugi* reaction mechanism.²⁸⁹

²⁸⁹ The *Ugi* reaction or the *Ugi* condensation is a type of multi-component reaction (MCR): a four-component reaction (4-CR).

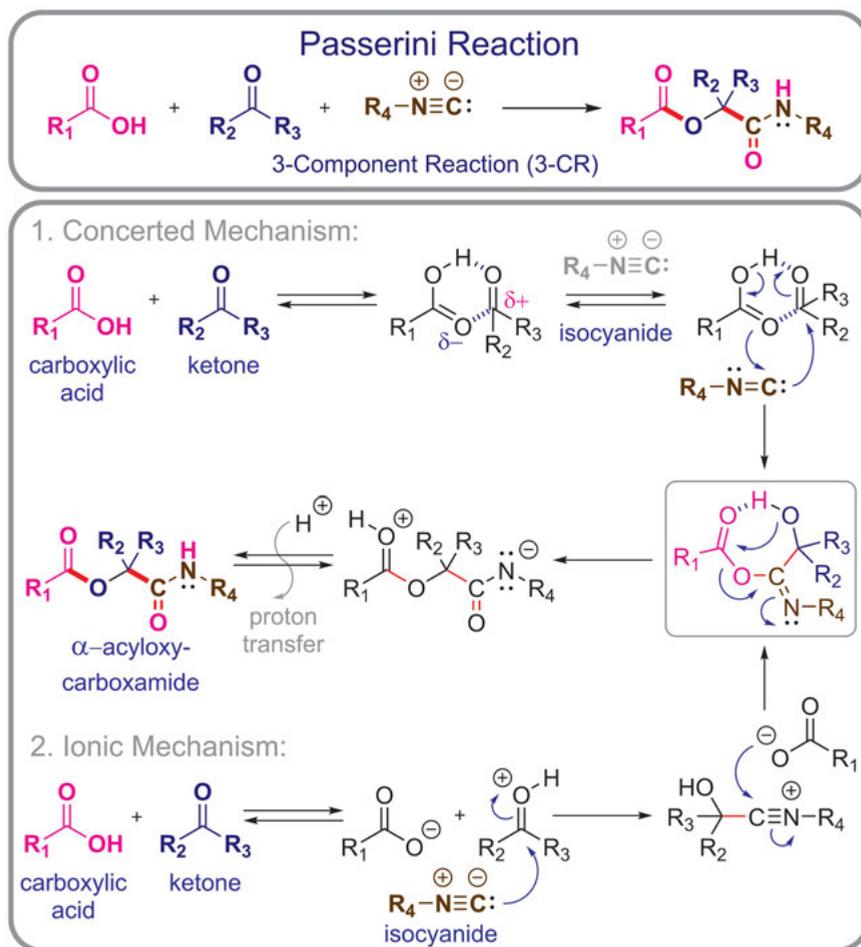


Fig. 91.2: The *Passerini* reaction mechanism.²⁹⁰

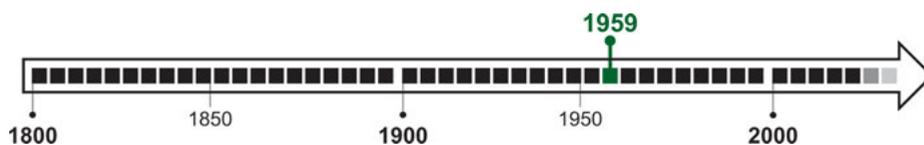


Fig. 91.3: The discovery of the *Ugi* reaction.²⁹¹

290 The *Passerini* reaction is mechanistically related to the *Ugi* reaction [91a, 91b]. The product formation can be rationalized either via 1. the *concerted* mechanism or 2. the *ionic* mechanism. Other 3-CR's were also mentioned in this book: the *Gewald* reaction (Chapter 41), the *Mannich* reaction (Chapter 56), the *Petasis* reaction (Chapter 62), the *Pauson–Khand* reaction (Chapter 73).

291 The reaction was likely first described around 1959 [91c].

92 Ullmann Aryl–Aryl Coupling

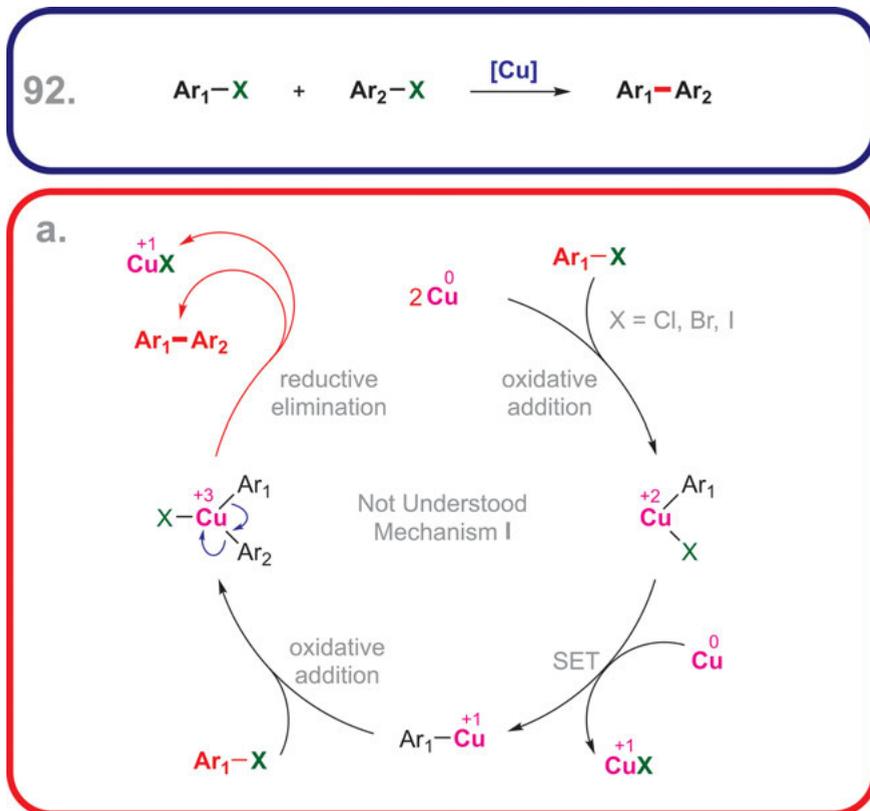


Fig. 92.1: The *Ullmann aryl–aryl coupling mechanism I*.²⁹²

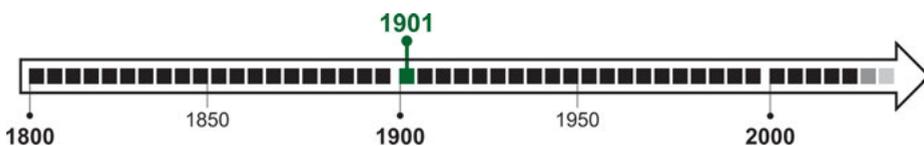


Fig. 92.2: The discovery of the *Ullmann aryl–aryl coupling*.²⁹³

²⁹² The *Ullmann aryl–aryl coupling* or the *Ullmann reaction* is a *Cu*-mediated coupling (C–C bond formation using *aryl halides*). The mechanism is not fully understood. A possible formation of *organo-copper* intermediates (Cu(I) or Cu(II)) is postulated: mechanism I (a).

²⁹³ The reaction was likely first described around 1901 [92a, 92b].

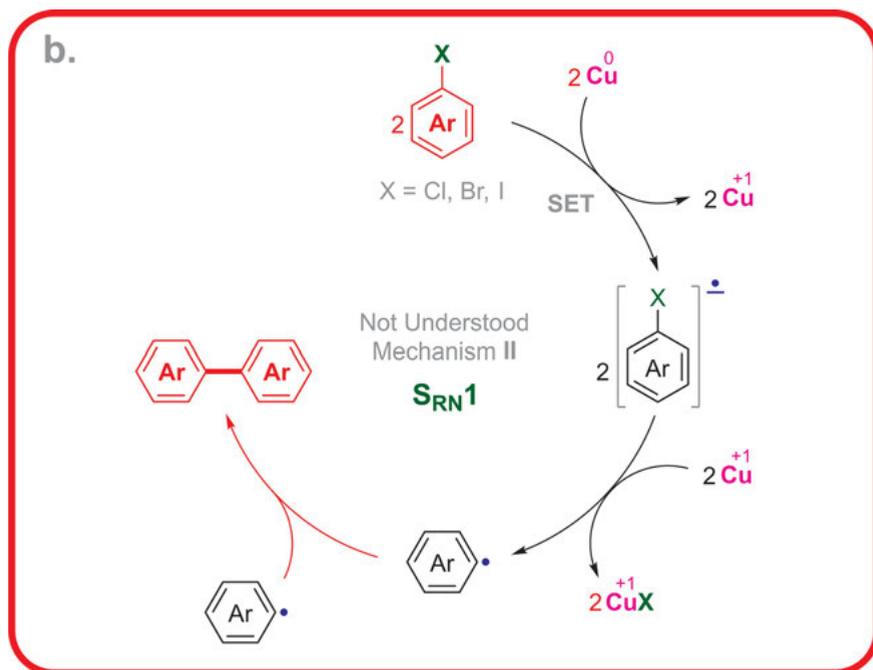


Fig. 92.3: The *Ullmann aryl–aryl coupling mechanism II*.²⁹⁴

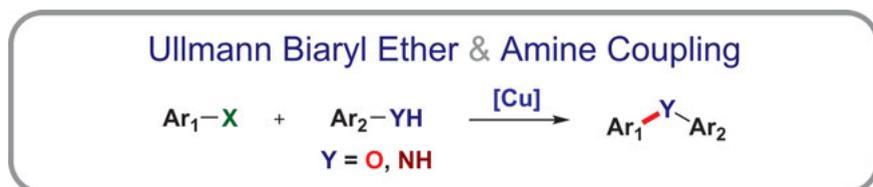


Fig. 92.4: The *Ullmann biaryl ether & amine coupling*.²⁹⁵

294 The **aromatic radical nucleophilic substitution ($S_{RN}1$)** mechanism (Chapter 5) is another explanation for the formation of the *symmetrical* or *asymmetrical biaryl* products: mechanism II (b).

295 The *Ullmann biaryl ether* and *biaryl amine coupling* reaction is more synthetically useful [92c, 92d]. It is also a *Cu-mediated coupling* (C–O and C–N bond formation using *aryl halides* with *phenols* or *anilines*) [92e]. An alternative way to synthesize *aryl ethers* and *amines* is via the *Chan–Evans–Lam cross coupling* (Chapter 23).

93 Upjohn Dihydroxylation

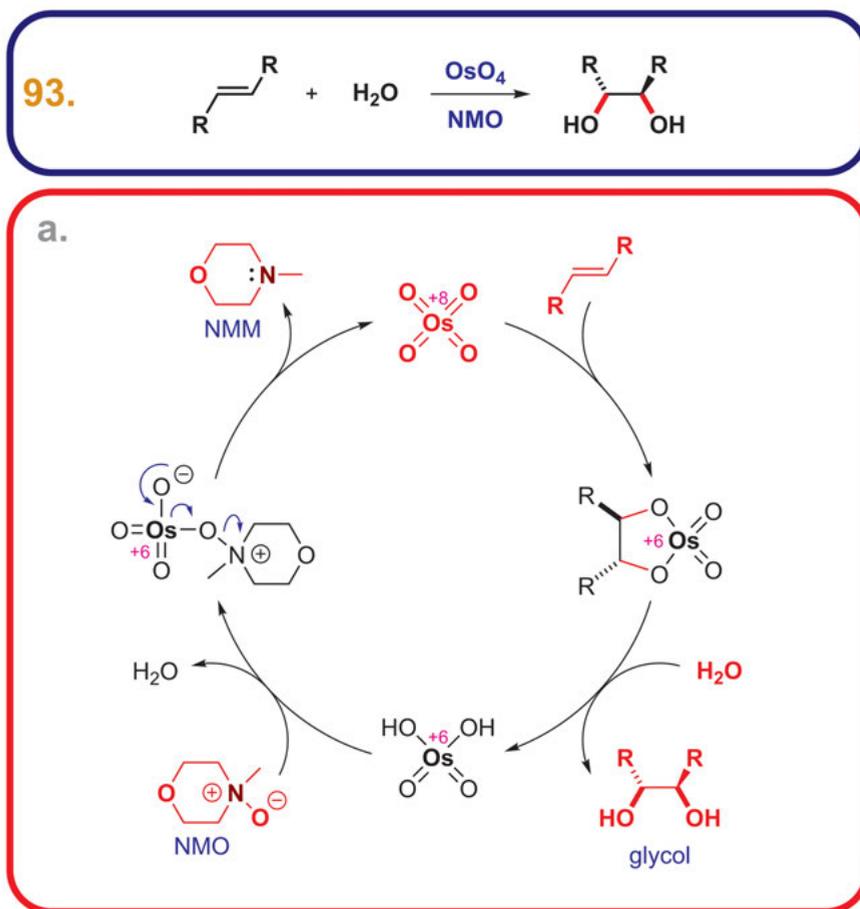


Fig. 93.1: The **Upjohn dihydroxylation** mechanism (a).²⁹⁶

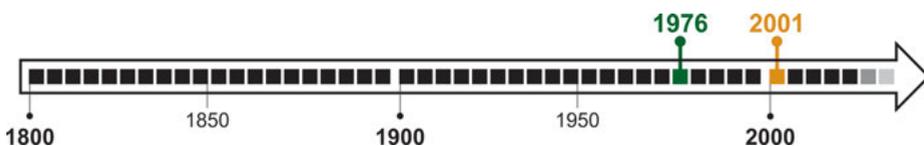


Fig. 93.2: The discovery of the **Upjohn dihydroxylation**.²⁹⁷

296 The **Upjohn dihydroxylation** (a) yields racemic products (*cis*-1,2-glycols = *cis*-1,2-diols) [93a].

297 The reaction was likely first described around 1976 [93f]. In **2001**, K. Barry Sharpless (together with William S. Knowles and Ryoji Noyori) received the Nobel Prize in Chemistry for the development

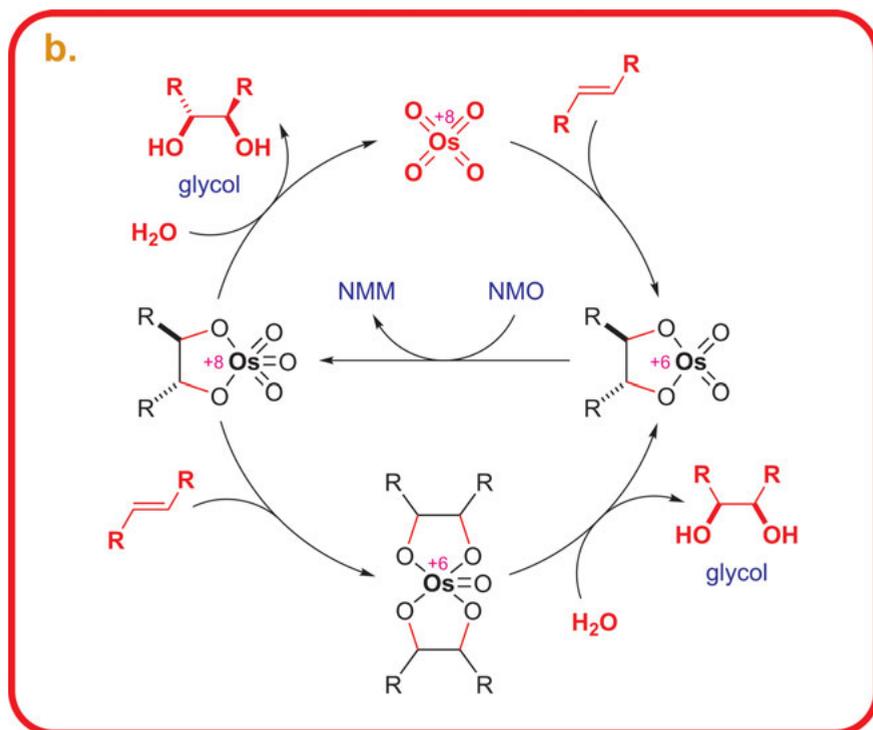


Fig. 93.3: The *Upjohn dihydroxylation* mechanism (b).²⁹⁸

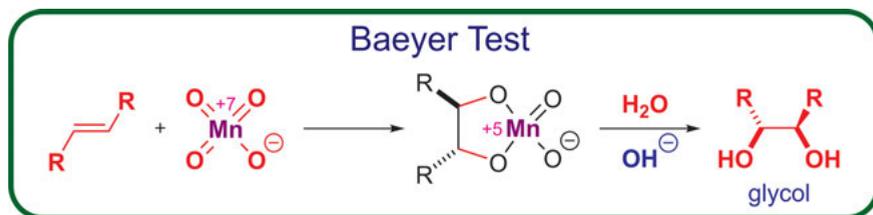


Fig. 93.4: The *Baeyer test*.²⁹⁹

of chirally catalyzed oxidation and hydrogenation reactions [93g].

298 The *Sharpless asymmetric dihydroxylation* is exemplified in a simplified mechanism (b). It is an asymmetric variation of the *Upjohn dihydroxylation* and it yields enantiomerically pure products [93b, 93c, 93d].

299 The *Baeyer test (Baeyer's test)* (potassium permanganate-based TLC stain) is a reaction related to the *Upjohn dihydroxylation*. It is used to detect the presence of *double bonds (unsaturation)* [93e].

94 Vilsmeier–Haack Reaction

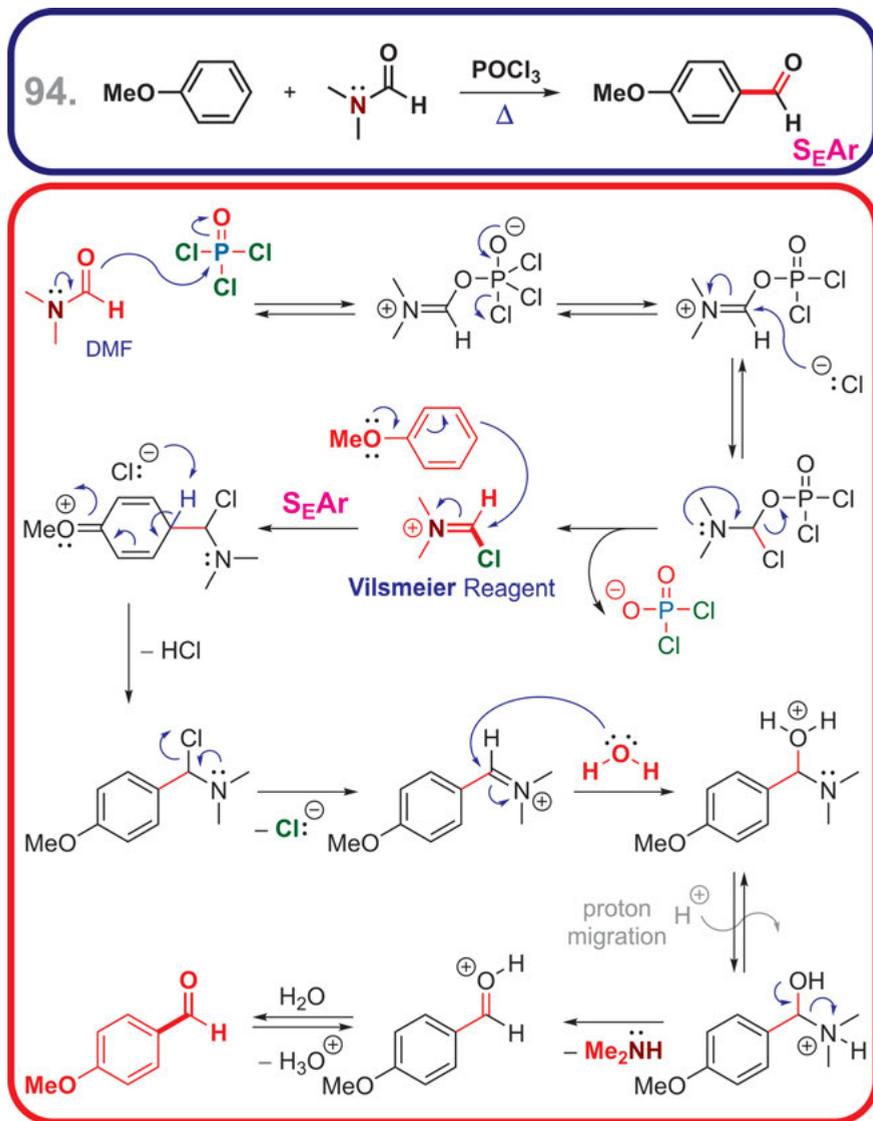


Fig. 94.1: The *Vilsmeier–Haack* reaction mechanism.³⁰⁰

300 The *Vilsmeier–Haack* reaction or the *Vilsmeier–Haack* formylation is a classic example of **aromatic electrophilic substitution** (the *arenium ion* mechanism = S_EAr , covered in Chapter 3).

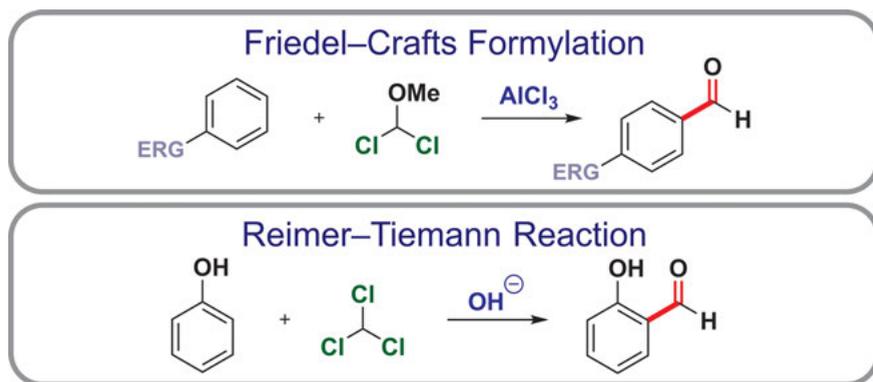


Fig. 94.2: Reactions related to the *Vilsmeier–Haack reaction*.³⁰¹

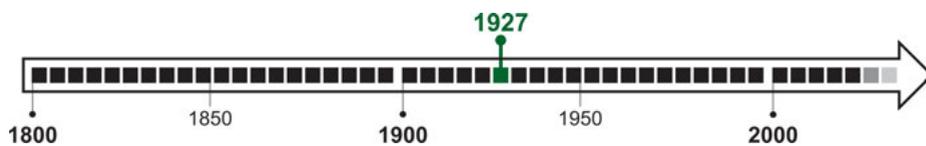


Fig. 94.3: The discovery of the *Vilsmeier–Haack reaction*.³⁰²

³⁰¹ A few named reactions are related to the *Vilsmeier–Haack reaction*: the *Friedel–Crafts formylation* using *dichloro(methoxy)methane* (the *Friedel–Crafts* reaction is covered in Chapter 39), the *Reimer–Tiemann* reaction using *chloroform* (limited to the *ortho*-formylation of *phenols*) [94a], and others (not shown here) [1].

³⁰² The reaction was likely first described around 1927 [94b].

95 Wacker Oxidation

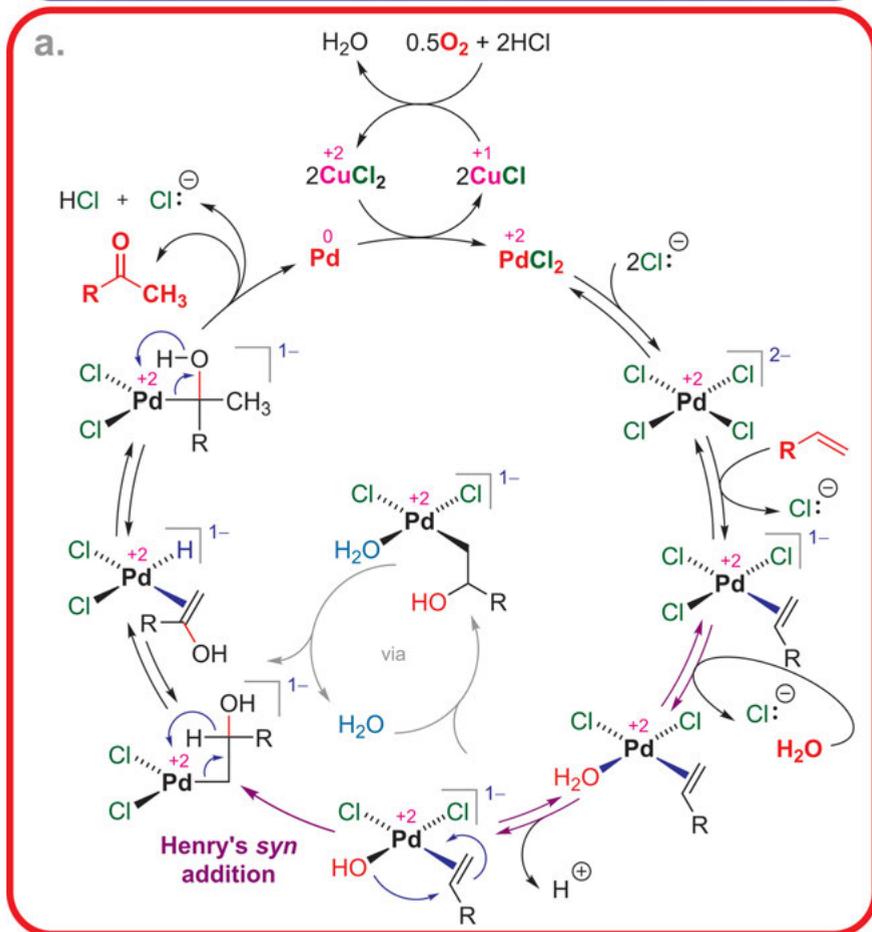
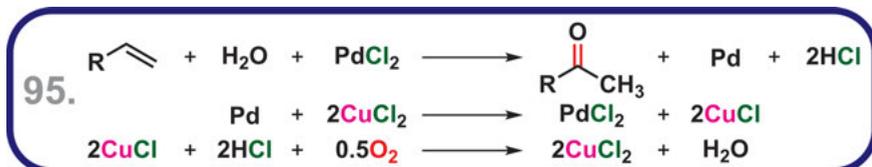


Fig. 95.1: The **Wacker** oxidation mechanism (a).³⁰³

303 The **Wacker** oxidation or the **Wacker** process is a **Pd**-catalyzed and **Cu**-co-catalyzed alkene (olefin) oxidation. The mechanism can vary: mechanism (a) is proposed by Henry: **Henry's syn addition** (inner-sphere) [95a, 95b].

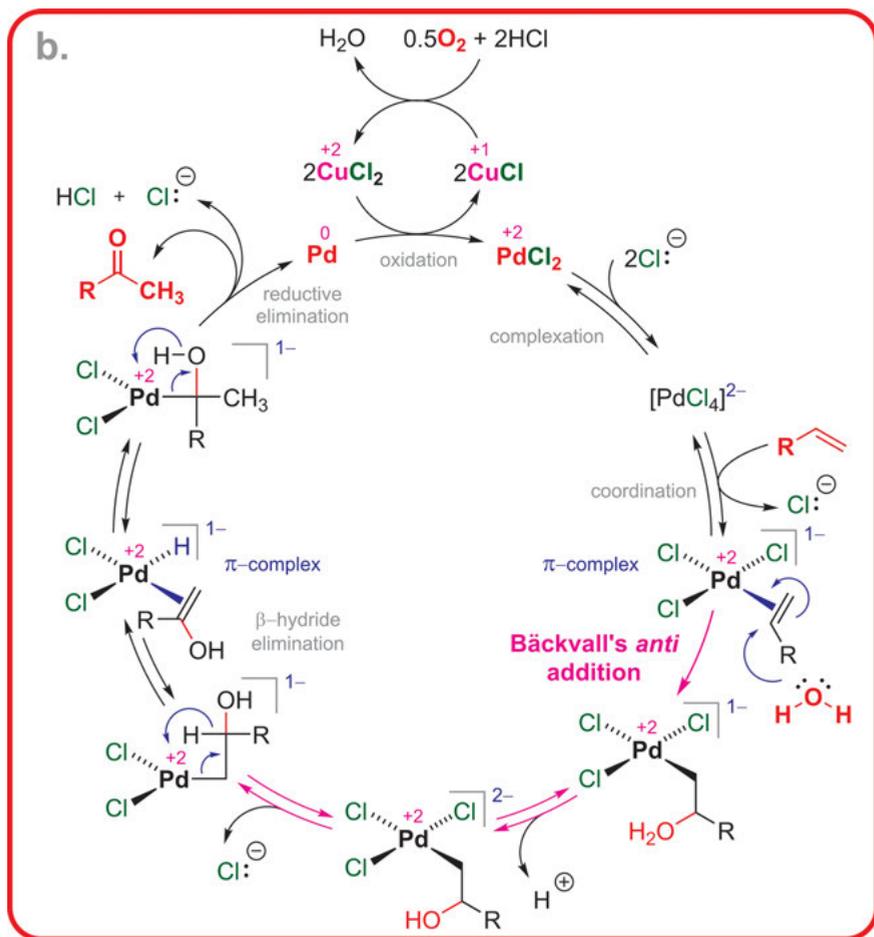


Fig. 95.2: The **Wacker** oxidation mechanism (b).³⁰⁴

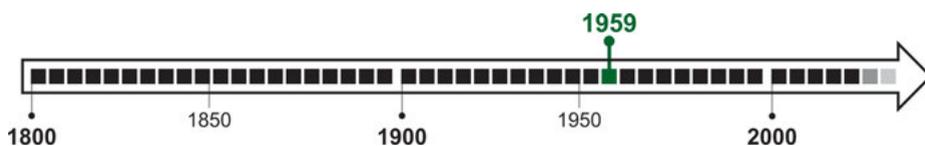


Fig. 95.3: The discovery of the **Wacker** oxidation.³⁰⁵

304 Mechanism (b) is proposed by Bäckvall: **Bäckvall's anti addition** (outer-sphere) [95a, 95b].

305 The reaction was likely first described around 1959 [95c].

96 Wagner–Meerwein Rearrangement

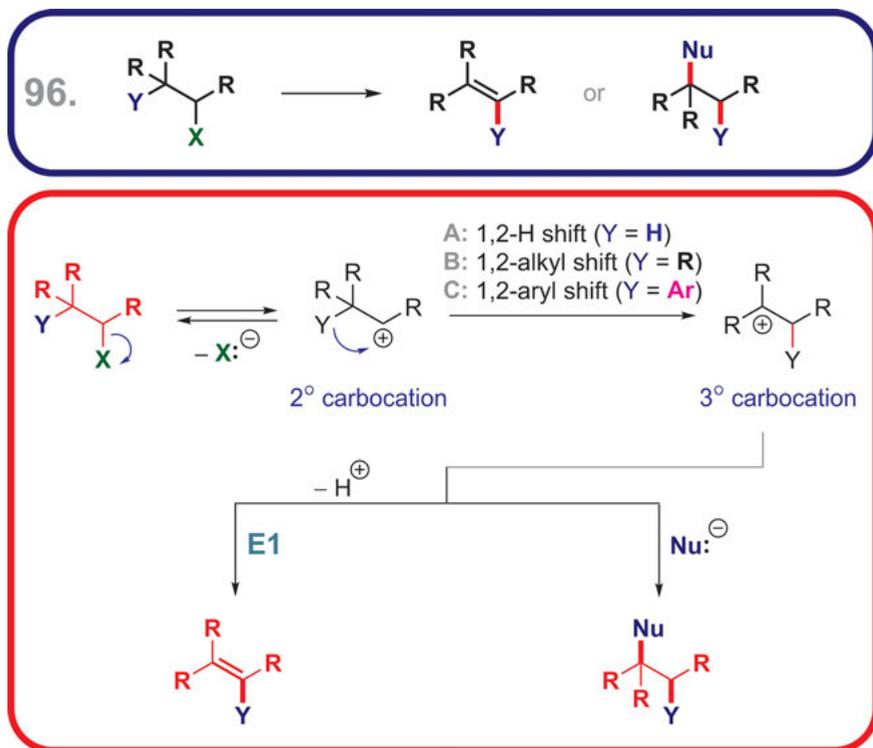


Fig. 96.1: The general *Wagner–Meerwein* rearrangement mechanism.³⁰⁶

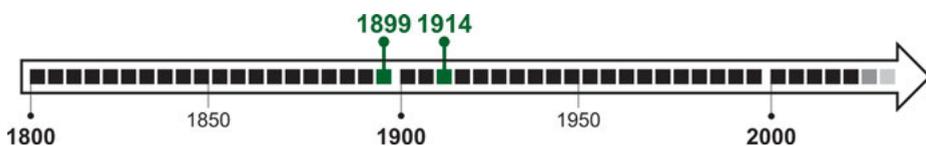


Fig. 96.2: The discovery of the *Wagner–Meerwein* rearrangement.³⁰⁷

306 The *Wagner–Meerwein* rearrangement is a rearrangement of new formed carbocations into more stable carbocations ($1^\circ \rightarrow 2^\circ \rightarrow 3^\circ$). This reaction is related to the *pinacol-pinacolone* rearrangement and the *Tiffeneau–Demjanov* rearrangement (Chapter 76).

307 The reaction was likely first described around 1899 by Wagner [96a, 96b] and 1914 by Meerwein [96c].

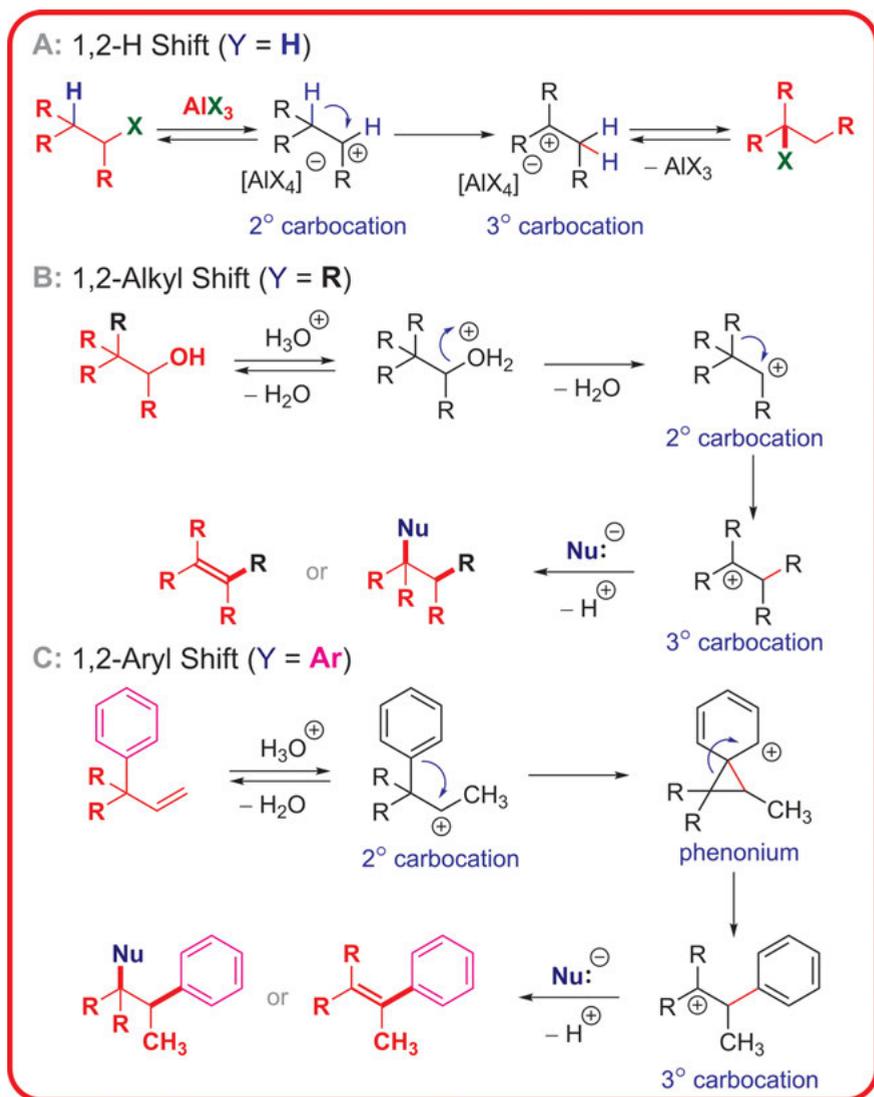


Fig. 96.3: The *Wagner–Meerwein* rearrangement mechanism (A, B, and C).³⁰⁸

308 The generated *carbocations* rearrange into more stable species via either (a) 1,2-H shift (Y = H); (b) 1,2-alkyl shift (Y = R); or (c) 1,2-aryl shift (Y = Ar). **β -Elimination** reactions (**E1**) often accompany the *Wagner–Meerwein* rearrangement [1].

97 Weinreb Ketone Synthesis

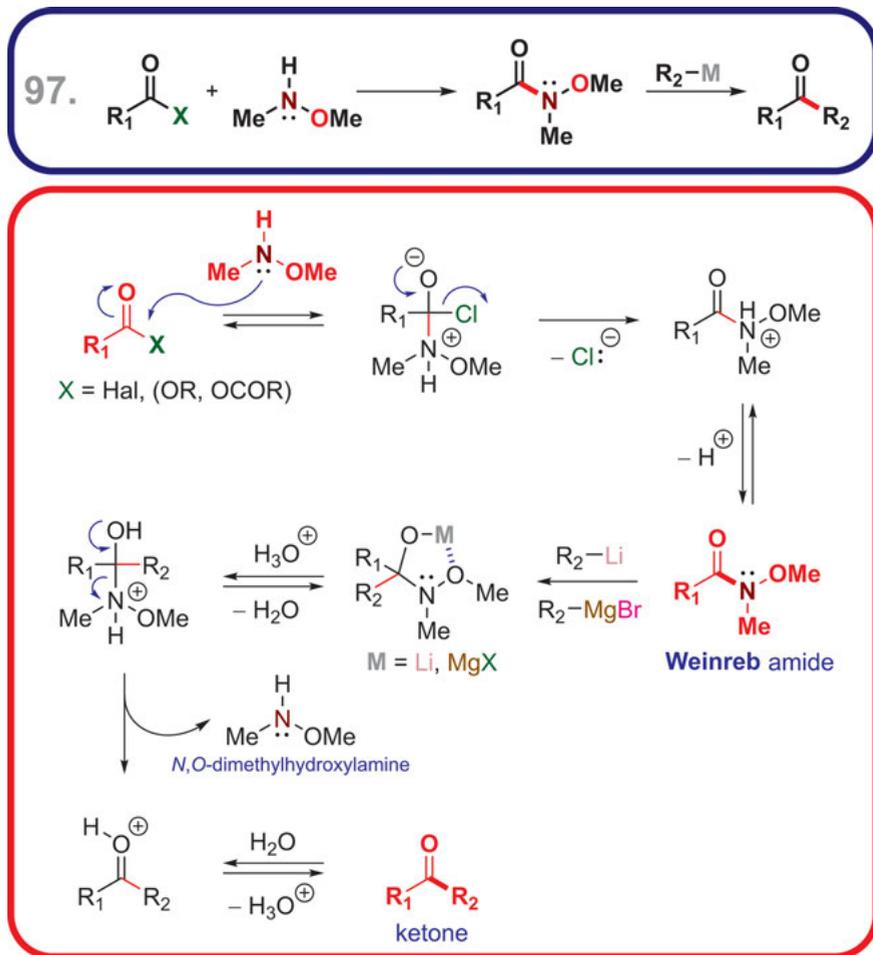


Fig. 97.1: The **Weinreb** ketone synthesis mechanism.³⁰⁹

309 The **Weinreb** ketone synthesis is a synthetic procedure (preparation of *ketones*) based on the use of a named reagent: the **Weinreb** amide (**Weinreb-Nahm** amide) [97a].

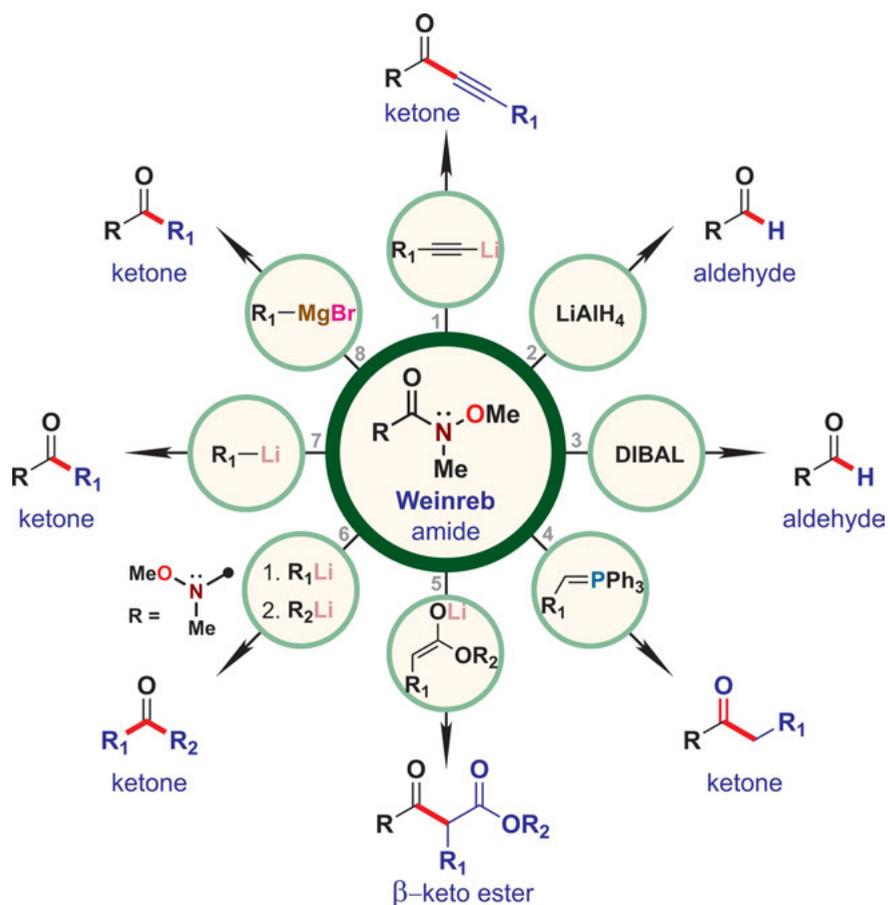


Fig. 97.2: Synthetic versatility of the *Weinreb amide*.³¹⁰

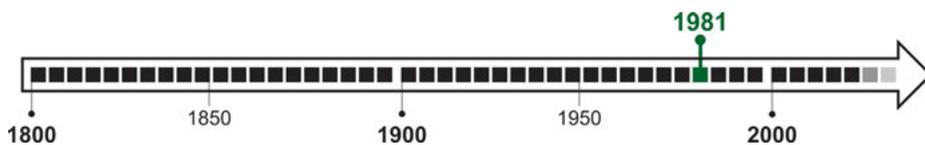


Fig. 97.3: The discovery of the *Weinreb ketone synthesis*.³¹¹

310 The *Weinreb amide* has wide synthetic application and it can react with a variety of nucleophilic reagents: (a) organolithium and organomagnesium = *Grignard reagents*; (b) reducing reagents like DIBAL; (c) phosphorus ylides or phosphoranes [97b]; and others [1].

311 The reaction was likely first described around 1981 [97c].

98 Wittig Reaction

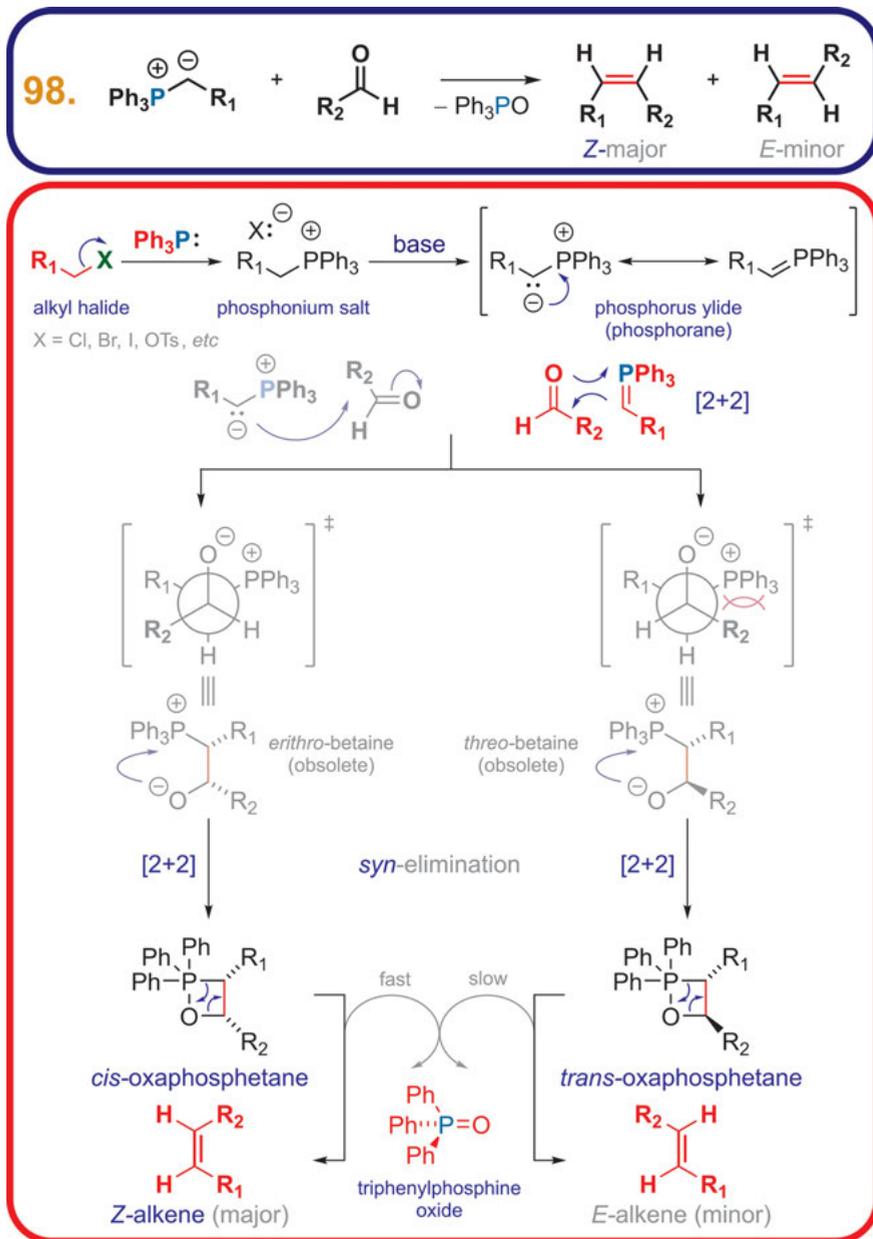


Fig. 98.1: The **Wittig** reaction mechanism.³¹²

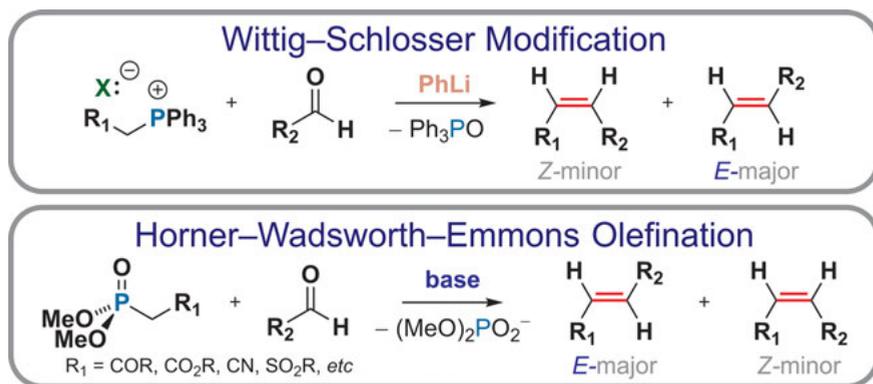


Fig. 98.2: Reactions related to the **Wittig reaction**.³¹³

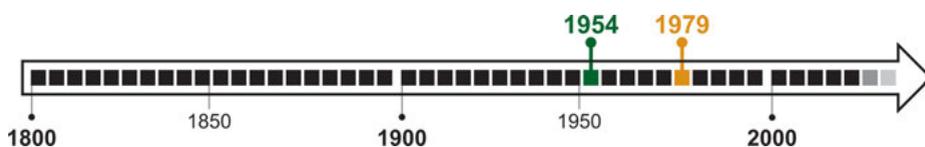


Fig. 98.3: The discovery of the **Wittig reaction**.³¹⁴

312 The **Wittig reaction** or the **Wittig olefination** relies on the use of *phosphorus ylides* or *phosphoranes* formed from the *phosphonium salts* [98a].

313 Several reactions are closely related to the **Wittig reaction**: the **Wittig–Schlosser modification** (favoring *E*-alkenes with an excess of **PhLi** as a base) [98b]. The **Horner–Wadsworth–Emmons olefination** (Chapter 50) relies on the use of *phosphonates* [PO(OR)₂R], which can be made via the **Arbuzov reaction** (Chapter 9).

314 The reaction was likely first described around 1954 [98c, 98d]. In 1979, Georg Wittig (jointly with Herbert C. Brown) received the Nobel Prize in Chemistry for the development of phosphorus (and boron) chemistry [20c].

99 Wohl–Ziegler Reaction

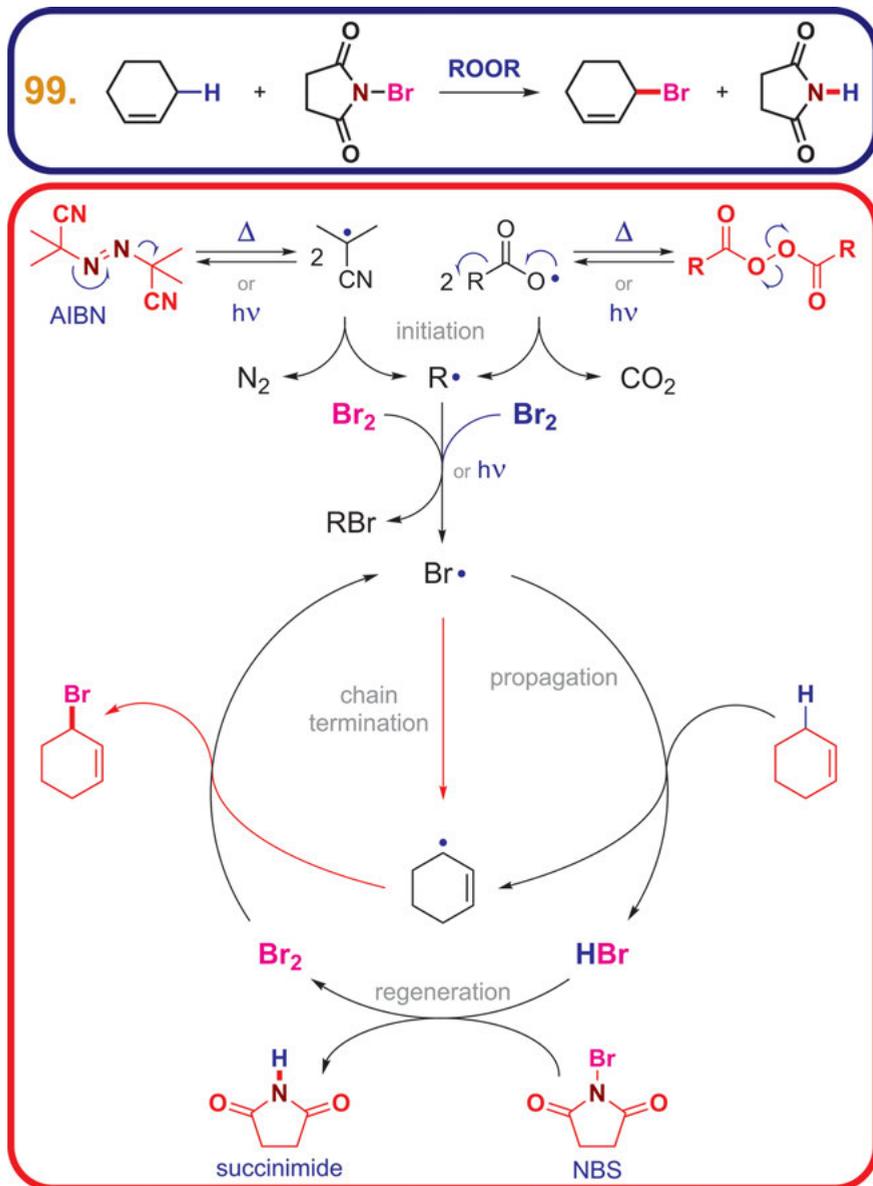


Fig. 99.1: The Wohl–Ziegler reaction mechanism.³¹⁵

315 The Wohl–Ziegler reaction, or the Wohl–Ziegler bromination, is a type of the free radical substitution (see the Minisci reaction in Chapter 60).

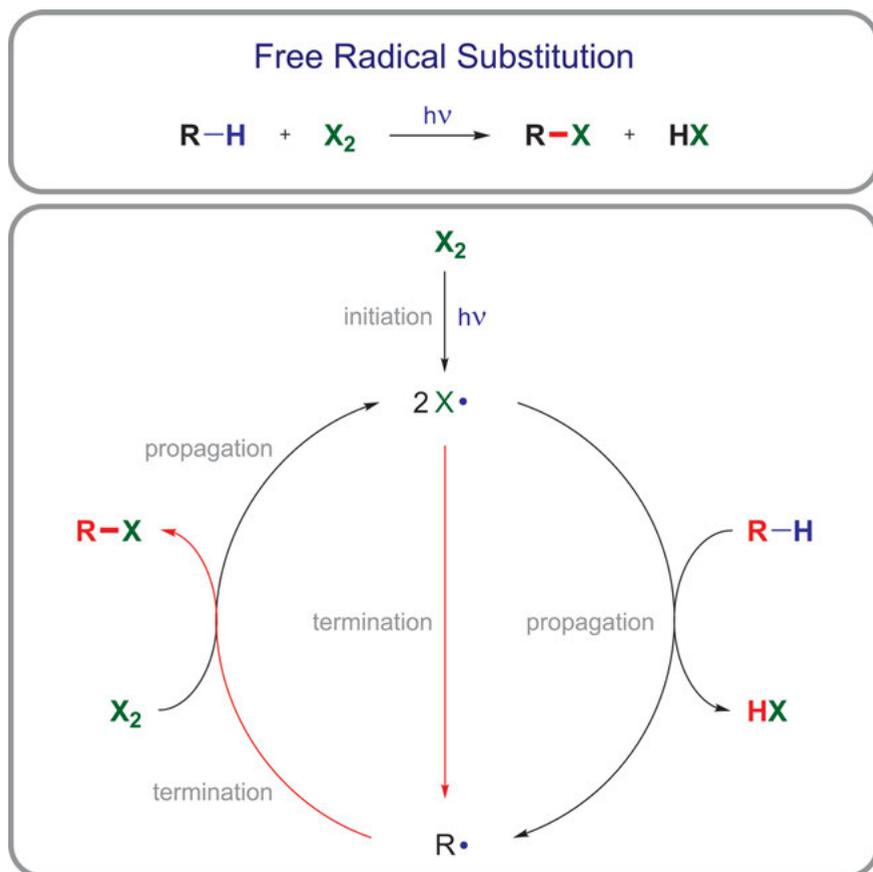


Fig. 99.2: The *free radical substitution* mechanism.³¹⁶

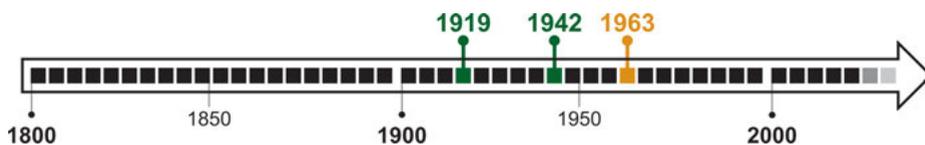


Fig. 99.3: The discovery of the **Wohl-Ziegler reaction**.³¹⁷

³¹⁶ The *free radical substitution* mechanisms usually feature three major steps: (a) *initiation*; (b) *chain propagation*; and (c) *chain termination*. A *free radical chlorination of alkanes* is a typical example [1].

³¹⁷ The reaction was likely first described around 1919 by Wohl [99a] and around 1942 by Ziegler [99b]. In 1963, Karl Ziegler (jointly with Giulio Natta) received the Nobel Prize in Chemistry [99c].

100 Wolff–Kishner Reduction

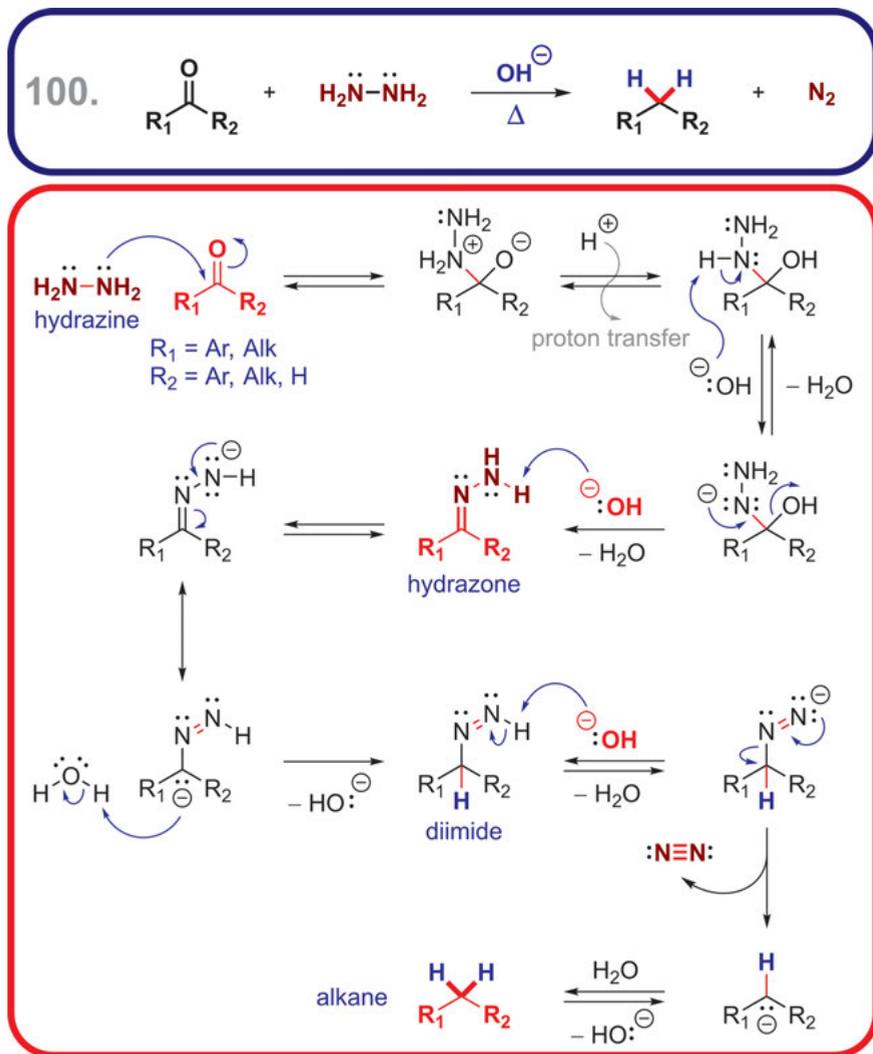


Fig. 100.1: The **Wolff–Kishner** reduction mechanism.³¹⁸

³¹⁸ There are many modifications of the **Wolff–Kishner** reduction: for example, the **Huang–Minton** modification, and many others (not shown) [100a].



Fig. 100.2: Reactions related to the *Wolff–Kishner reduction*.³¹⁹

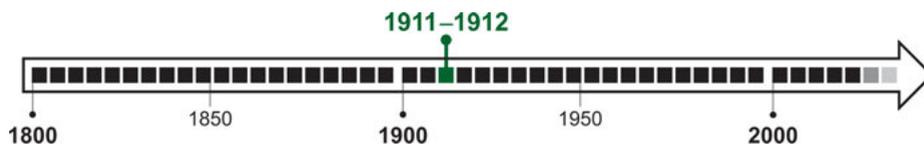


Fig. 100.3: The discovery of the *Wolff–Kishner reduction*.³²⁰

³¹⁹ The *Clemmensen reduction* is closely related to the *Wolff–Kishner reduction* in terms of the product type formation but not the mechanism [100b].

³²⁰ The reaction was likely first described around 1911 by Kishner [100c] and around 1912 by Wolff [100d].

Acknowledgments

I envision this reference book to be one part of the intellectual and physical library that the developing chemist builds as they gain experience and expertise. This immersion, in conjunction with further learning, can provide an invaluable scientific intuition. Mechanisms have become an integral part of my continued study, research, and learning in organic chemistry and I hope this book imparts some of that to the field.

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