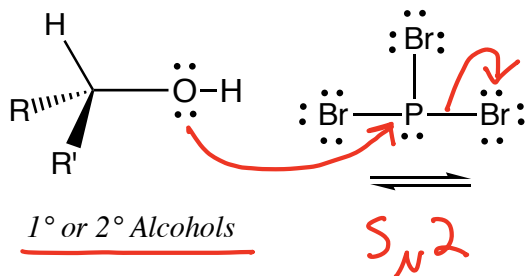
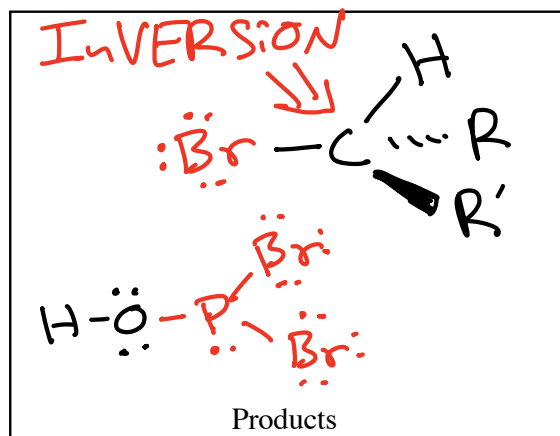
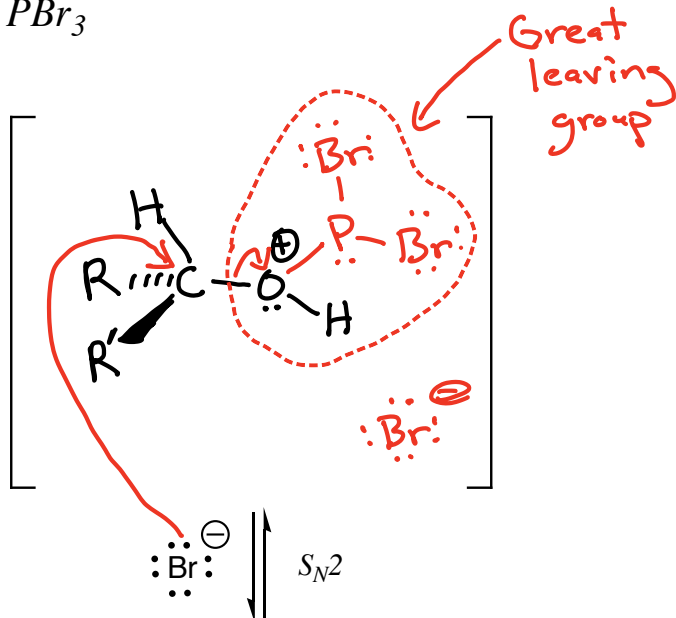


## Alcohols + PBr<sub>3</sub>



Does NOT work with  $3^\circ$  alcohols

★ There is an analogous reaction with SOCl<sub>2</sub> that converts alcohols into chloroalkanes

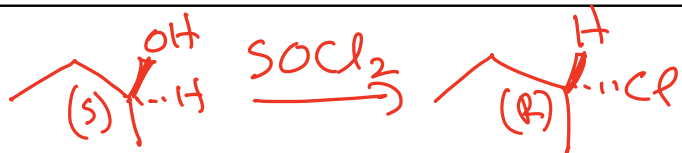
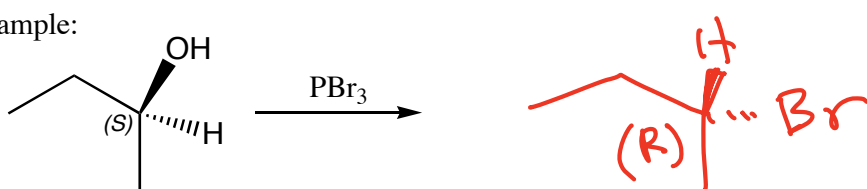


Summary:  $1^\circ$  or  $2^\circ$  alcohols react with PBr<sub>3</sub> via an  $S_N2$  reaction on the P atom to create a good leaving group that undergoes an  $S_N2$  reaction with Br<sup>⊖</sup> at the C atom

Regiochemistry: N/A

Stereochemistry: INVERSION

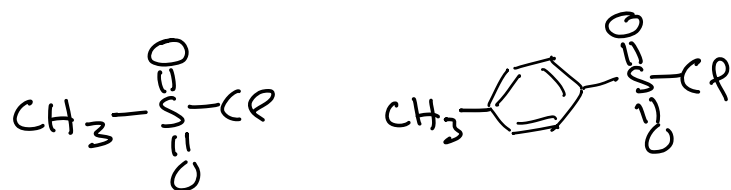
Example:



The SOCl<sub>2</sub> version of the reaction

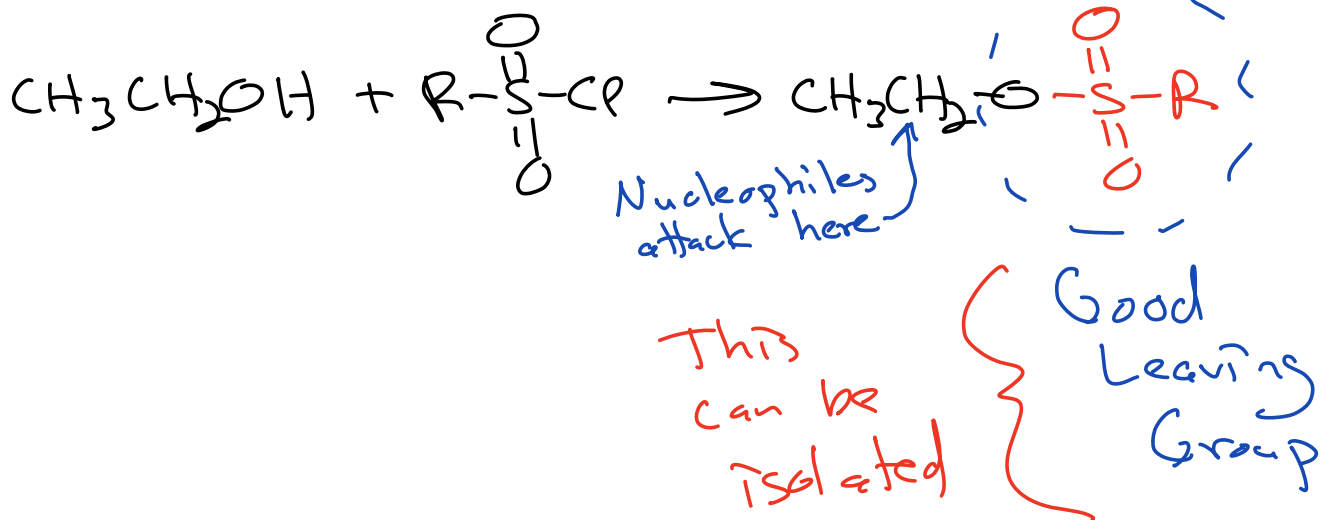
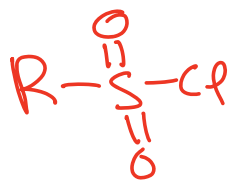


## Alkyl Sulfonates

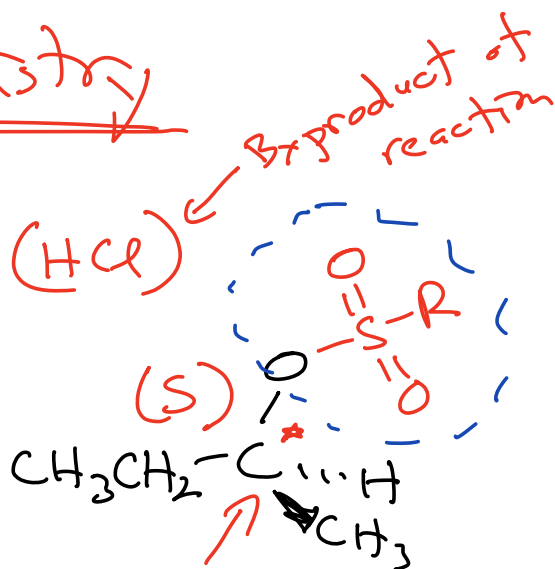
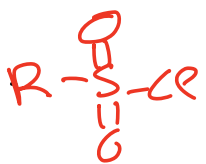
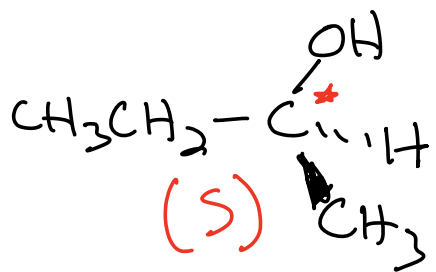


Methanesulfonyl  
Chloride

p-Toluenesulfonyl  
Chloride

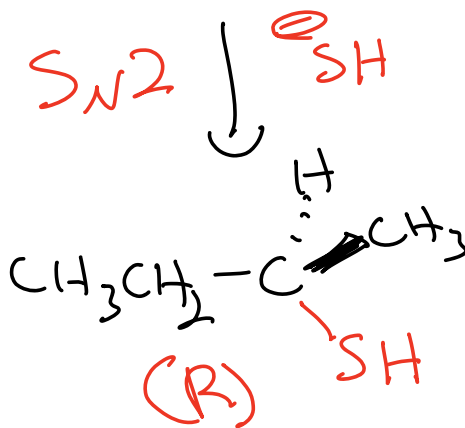


# Stereochemistry

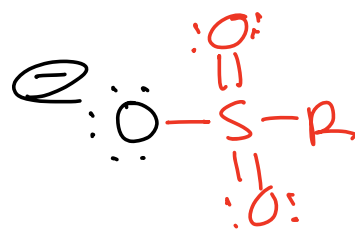


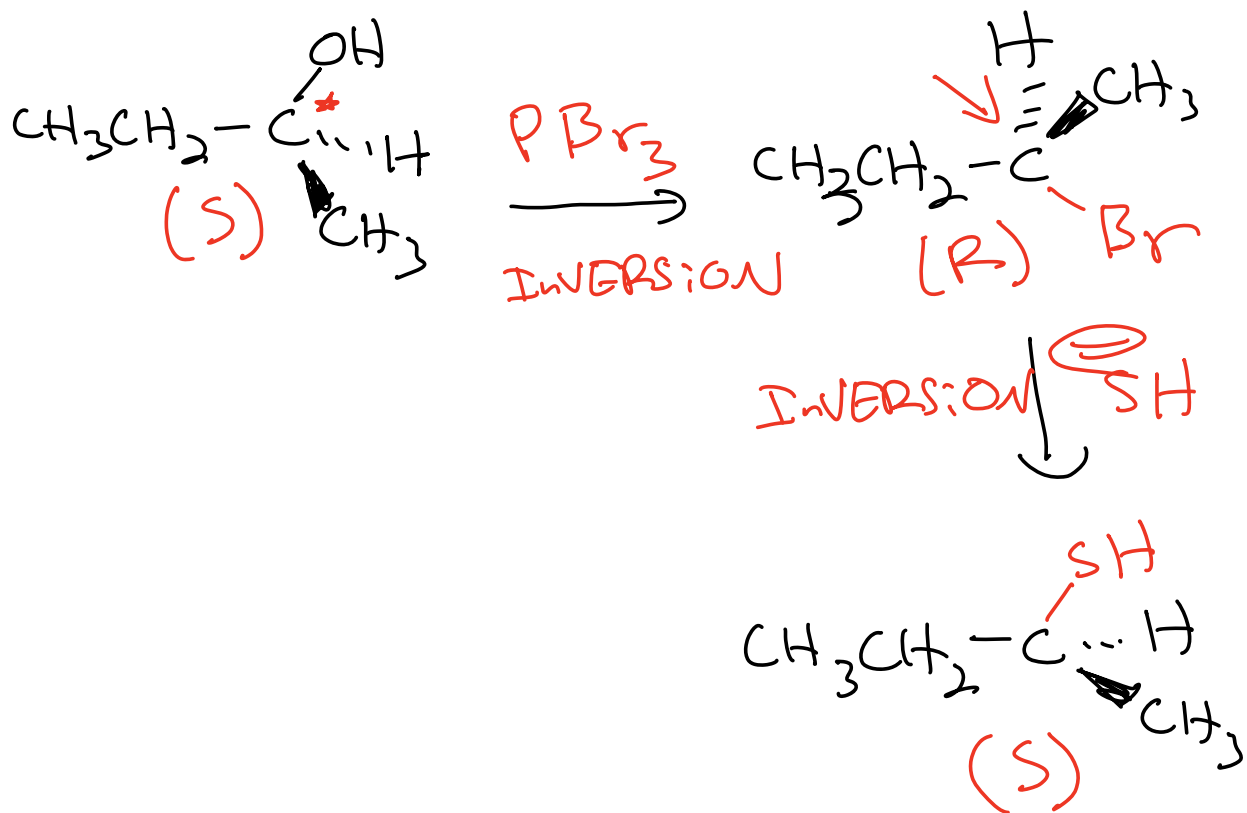
Net ⇒

INVERSION



stabilized by  
 resonance  
 delocalization  
 ⇒ relatively stable  
 anion, explaining  
 why it is such  
 a good leaving  
 group



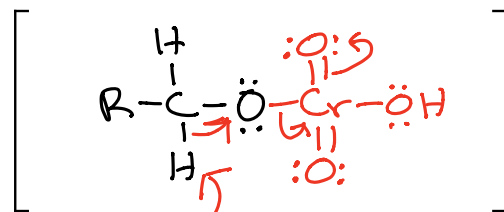
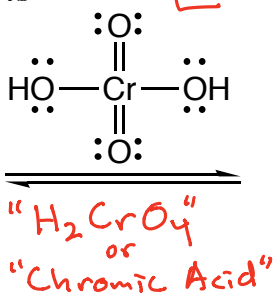
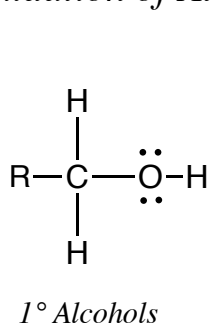


$\Rightarrow$  You can net invert or retain the stereochemistry of a chiral alcohol taking part in  $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$  reactions

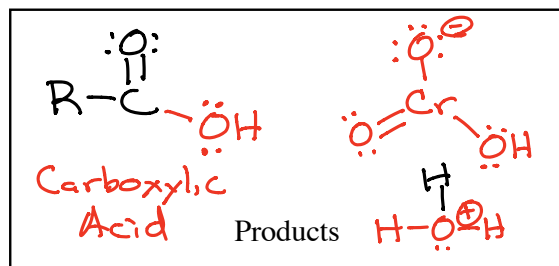
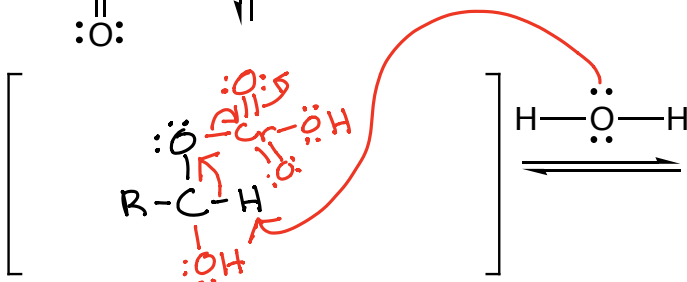
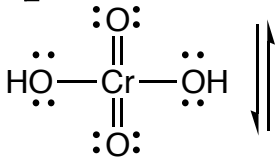
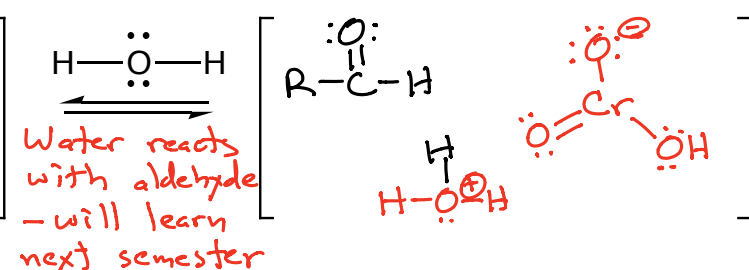
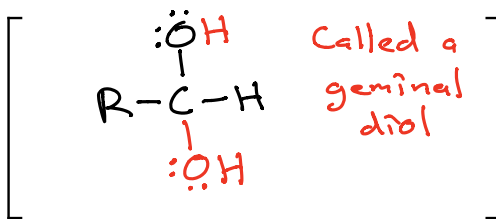
# Chromic Acid Oxidation of Alcohols

Called "Jones Reagent"  $(\text{CrO}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O})$  or  $\text{K}_2\text{CrO}_7 + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$

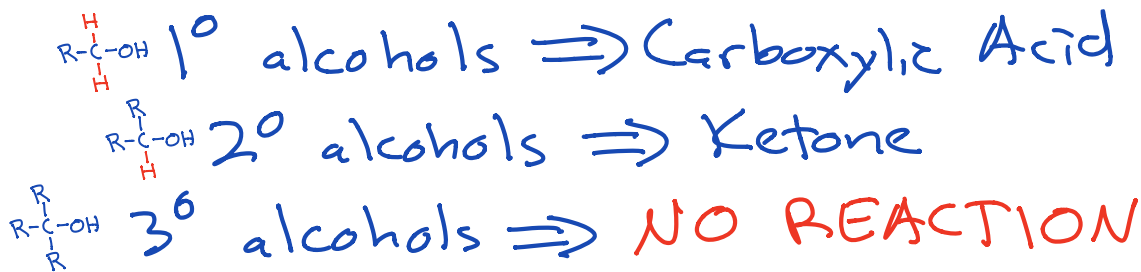
Not responsible for first step



Not responsible for this step



Summary:



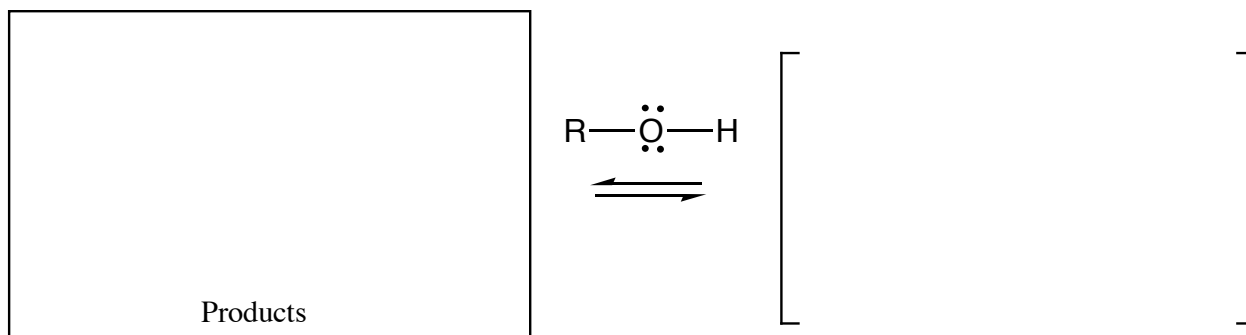
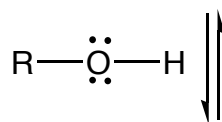
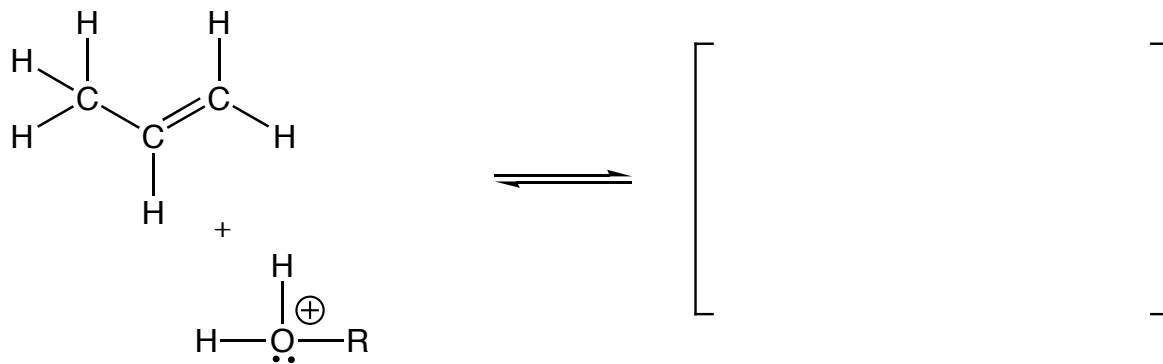
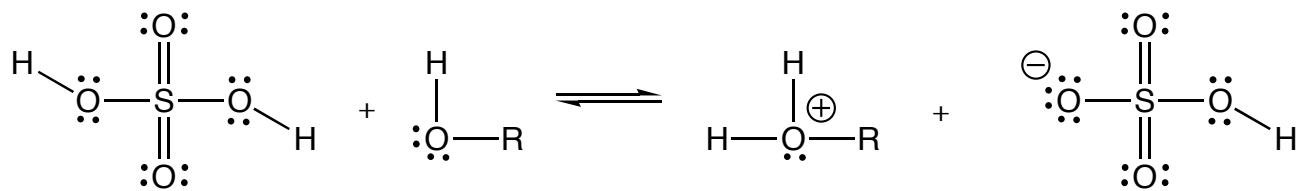
Regiochemistry: N/A

Stereochemistry: N/A

Example:



*Acid-catalyzed Reaction of an Alcohol with an Alkene*

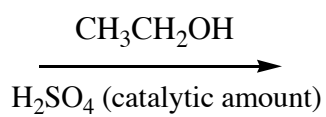
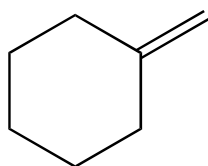


Summary:

Regiochemistry:

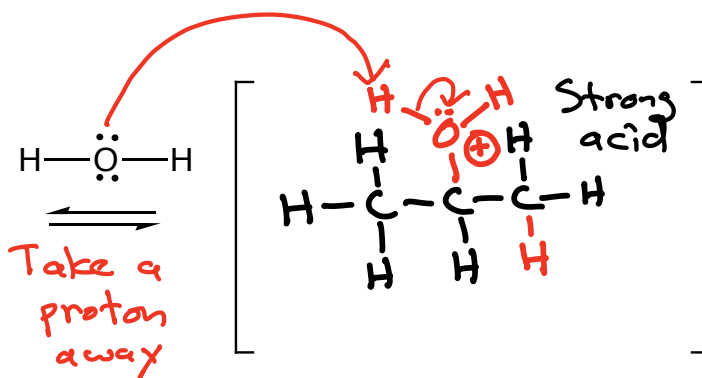
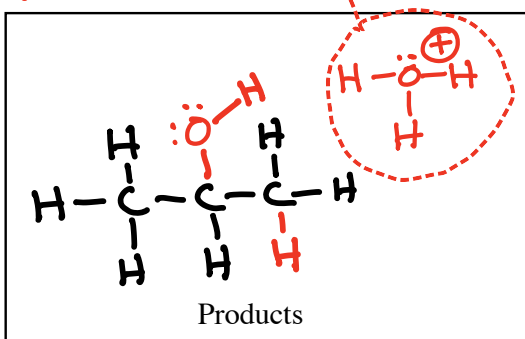
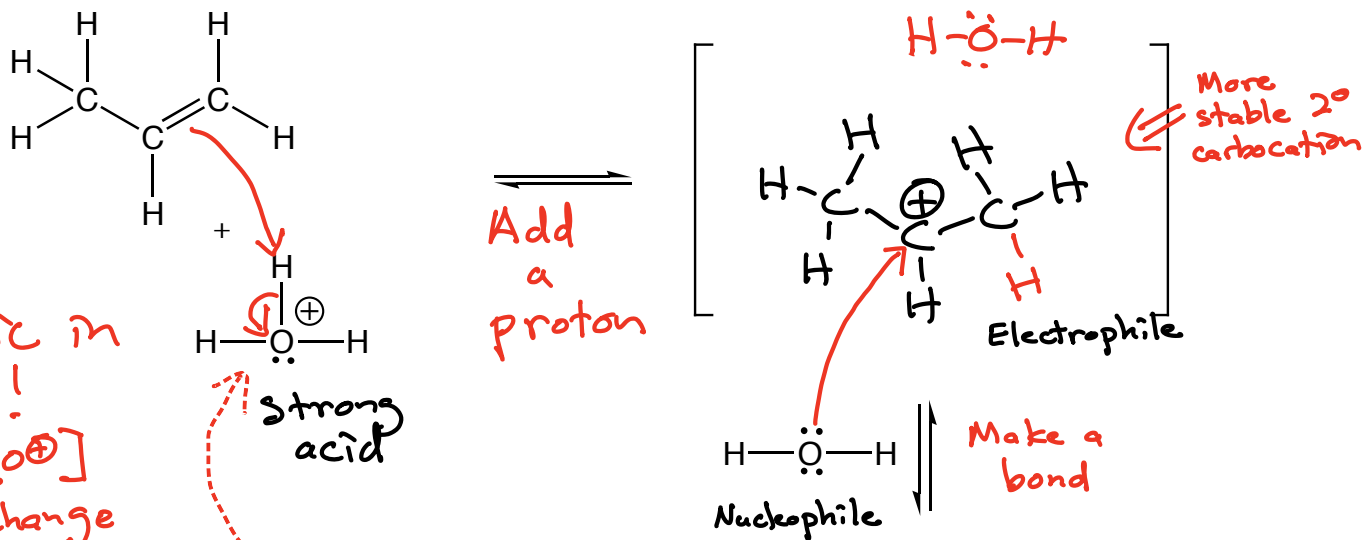
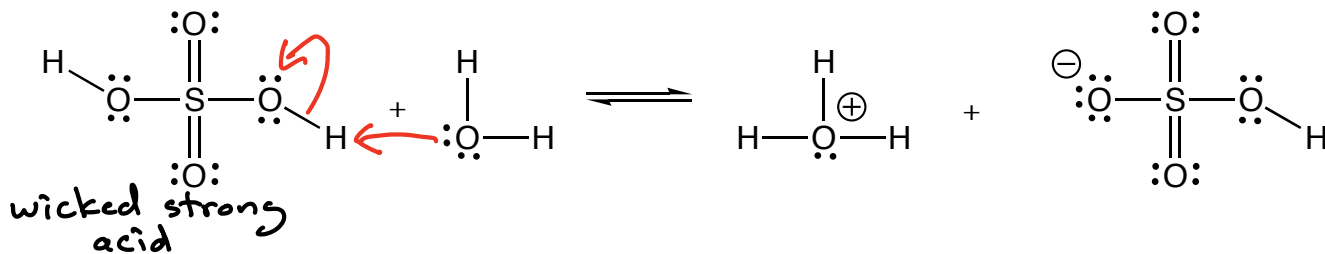
Stereochemistry:

Example:



# Flashback to October 4

## Acid-catalyzed Hydration of an Alkene

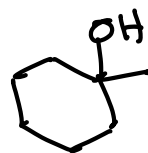
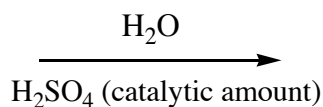
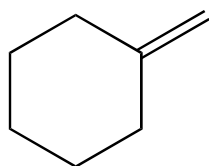


Summary: Proton adds to make a carbocation intermediate, water attacks to make a new bond, take a proton away to make the product alcohol. Catalytic in  $H_3O^+$

Regiochemistry: Markovnikov's Rule

Stereochemistry: Mixed (time capsule)

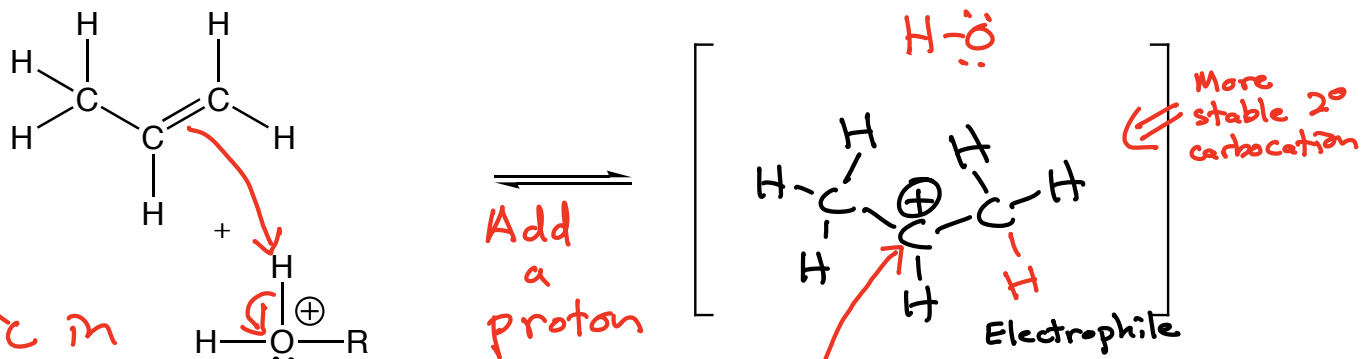
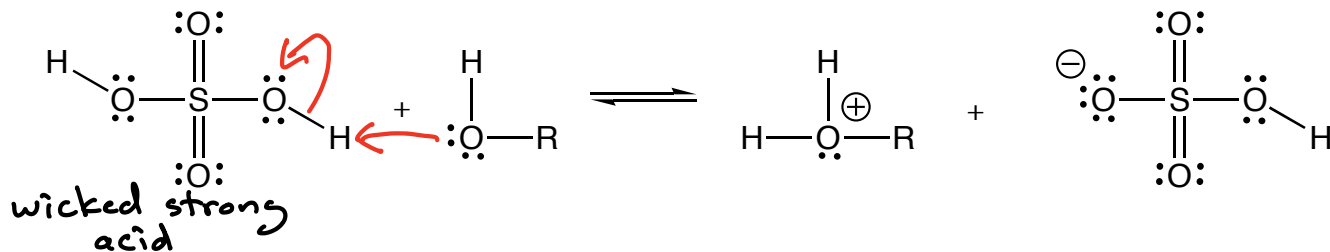
Example:



(Not chiral)

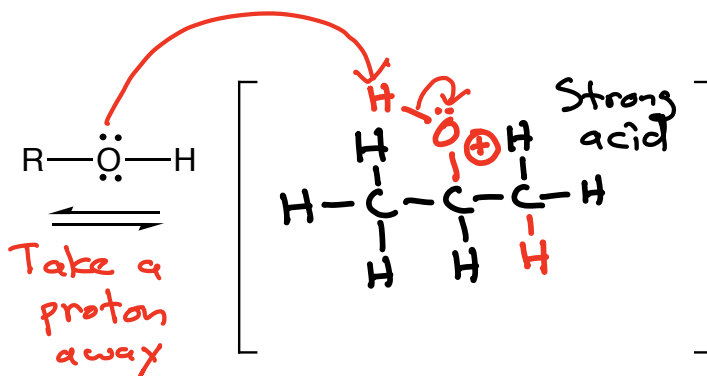
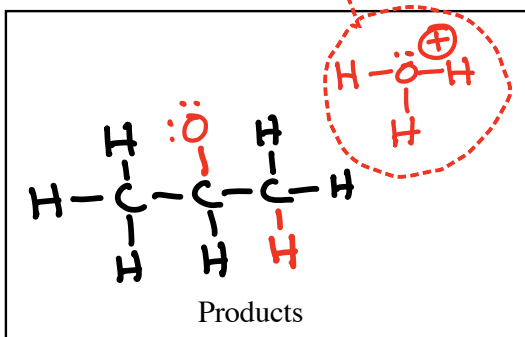
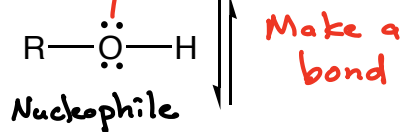
-OH on more substituted C atom ⇒ Markovnikov's Rule

## Acid-catalyzed Reaction of an Alcohol with an Alkene



Catalytic in Acid!  
 ⇒ The  $[\text{H}_3\text{O}^+]$  does not change during the reaction

strong acid

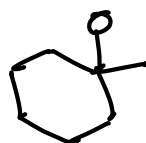
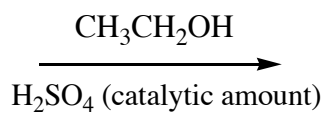
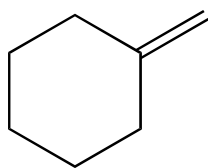


Summary: Proton adds to make a carbocation intermediate, attacks to make a new bond, take a proton away to make the product. Catalytic in  $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$

Regiochemistry: **Markovnikov's Rule**

Stereochemistry: **Mixed**

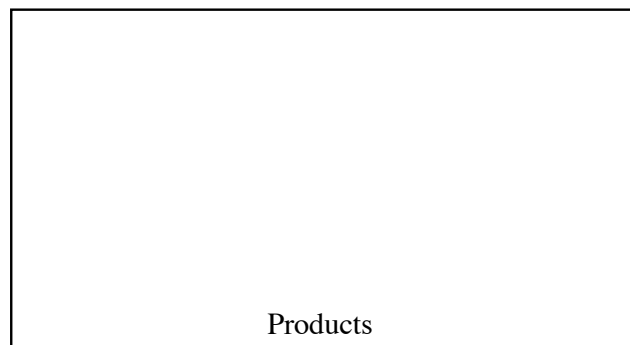
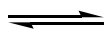
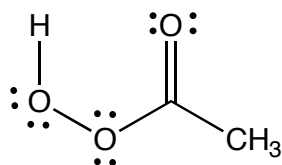
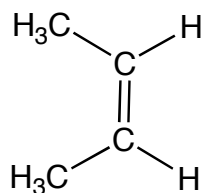
Example:



(Not chiral)



## Epoxide Formation

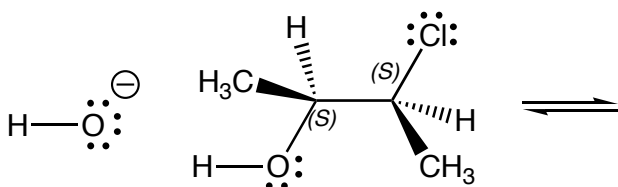
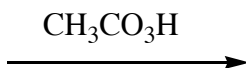
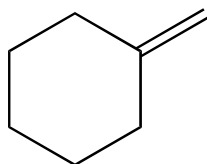


Summary: Alkenes react with peracids in a single concerted step

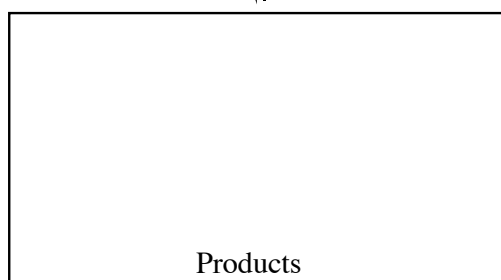
Regiochemistry: N/A

Stereochemistry: Mixed when new chiral centers are created

Example:



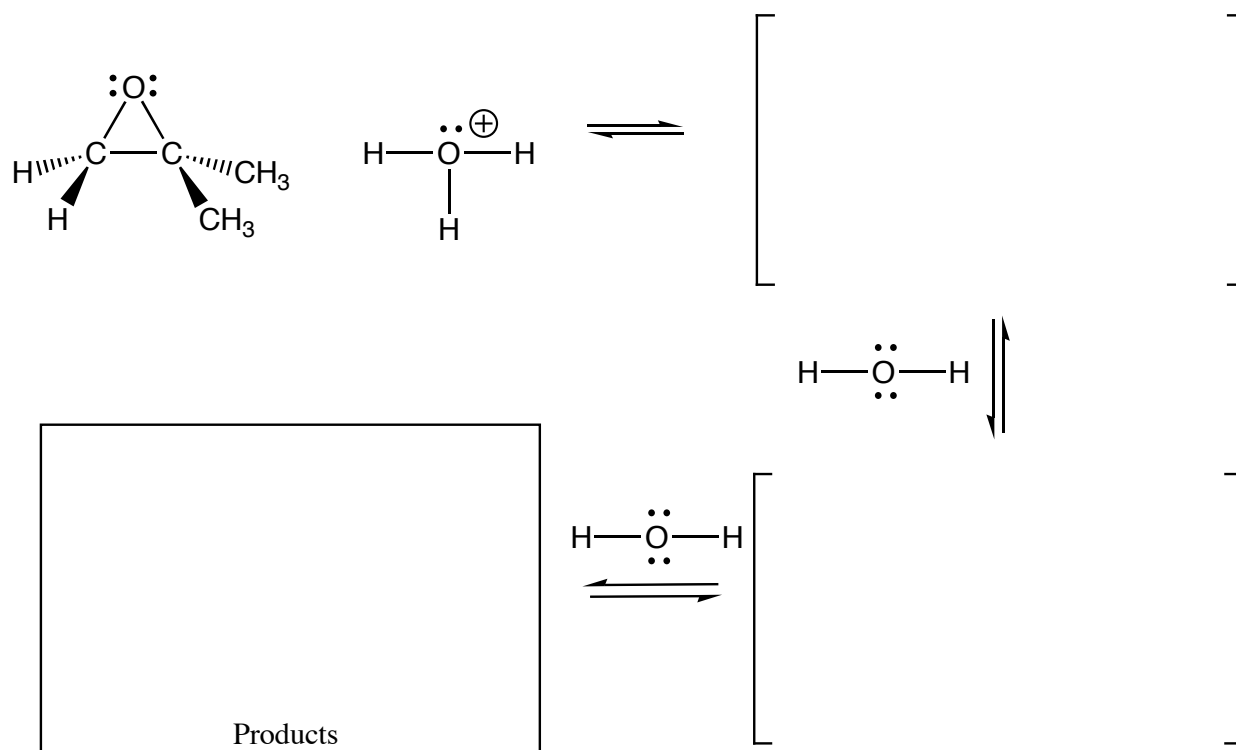
Summary: Halohydrins react in base to give the alkoxide that reacts antiperiplanar to give the epoxide.



Regiochemistry: N/A

Stereochemistry: Antiperiplanar transition state

## Acid-Catalyzed Epoxide Opening

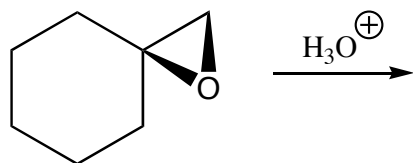


Summary: In acid, epoxides are protonated to give a highly reactive cation intermediate that reacts with nucleophiles at the more highly substituted carbon atom

Regiochemistry: "Markovnikov" Attack at more highly substituted carbon

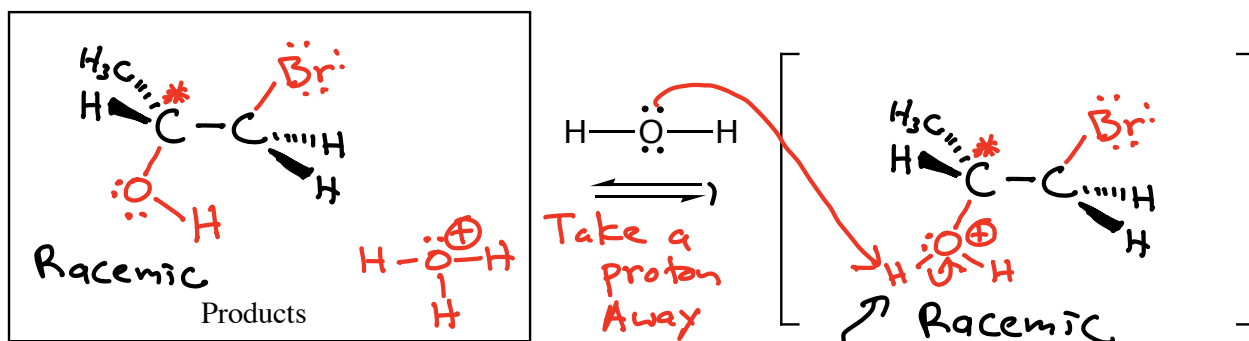
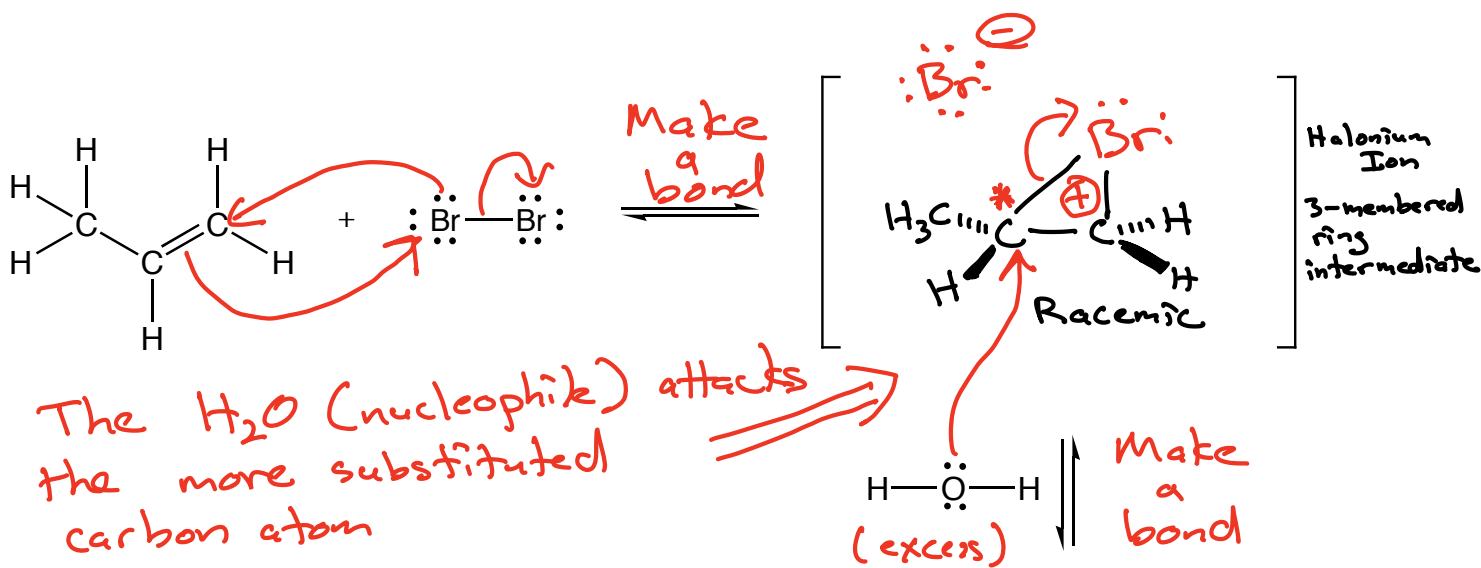
Stereochemistry: Anti

Example:



# Flashback to October 11

## Alkene Hydrohalogenation



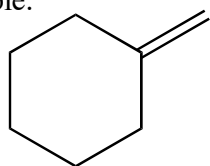
pH drops during the reaction!

Summary: Alkene reacts with  $\text{X}_2$  to give a 3-membered ring intermediate (halonium ion)  $\rightarrow$   $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  attacks the more substituted C atom and we take a proton away to give the halohydrin product.

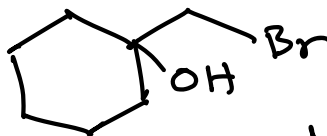
Regiochemistry: Markovnikov (OH on more substituted C atom)

Stereochemistry: Anti

Example:

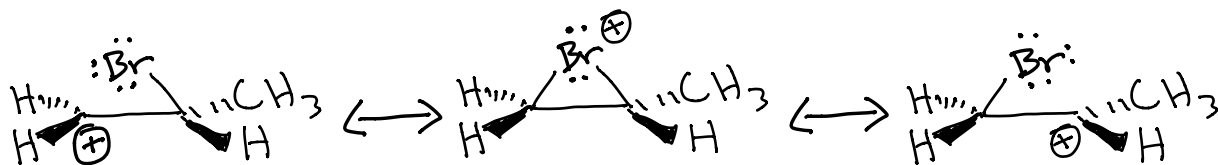


$\text{Br}_2 / \text{H}_2\text{O}$



Not Chiral

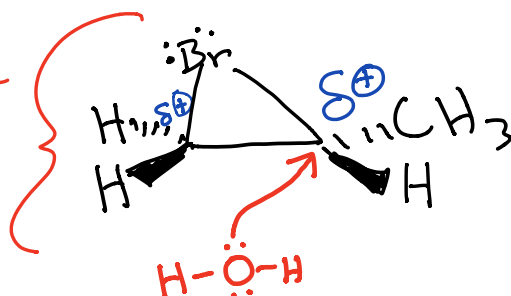
# Flashback → Halohydrin Mechanism



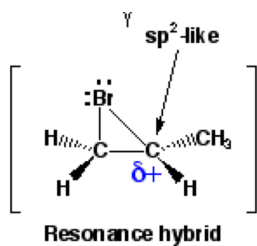
Minor Contributor

Major Contributor

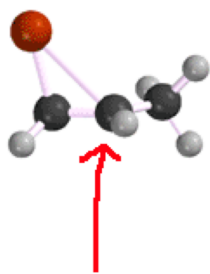
Resonance Hybrid



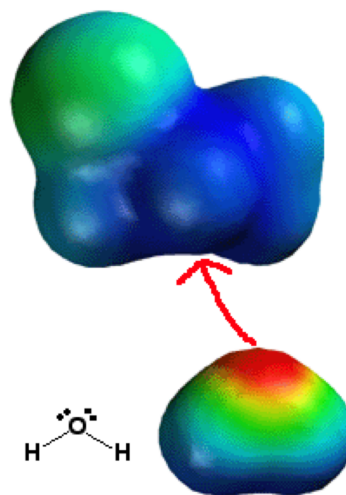
Water attacks the more substituted carbon atom because there is more partial  $\oplus$  charge



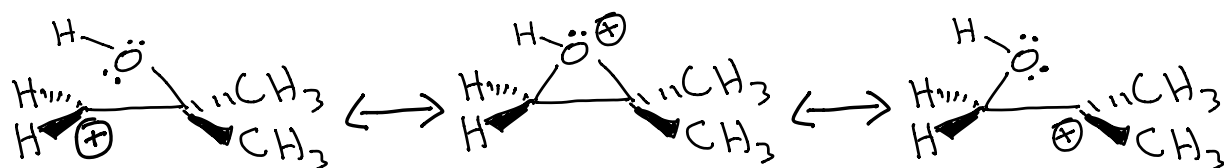
From "Pictures of the Day (POD)"  
10-9-20



Nucleophiles Attack the More Positively-Charged Carbon Atom From This Face Leading to Markovnikov Regiochemistry and Trans Stereochemistry of Addition

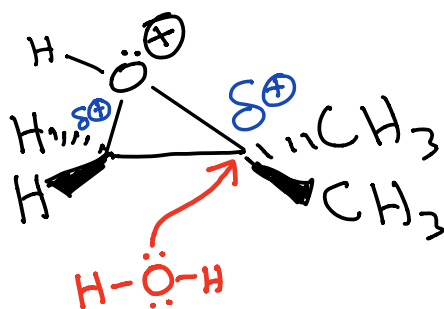


# Epoxide in acid



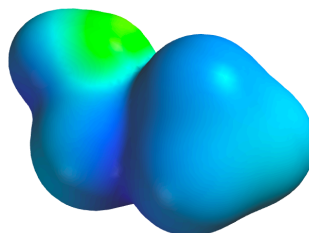
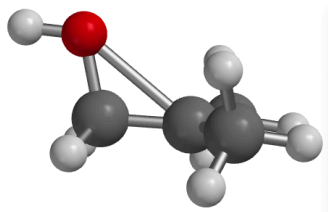
Minor  
Contributor

Major  
Contributor

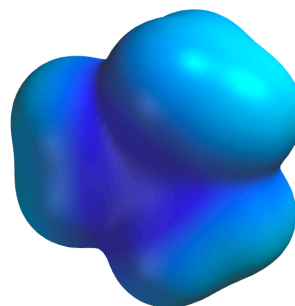
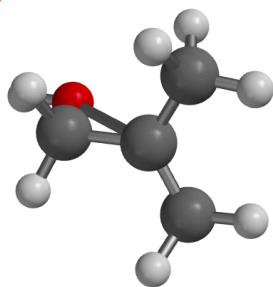


Water attacks  
the more  
substituted  
carbon atom  
because there  
is more partial  
 $\oplus$  charge

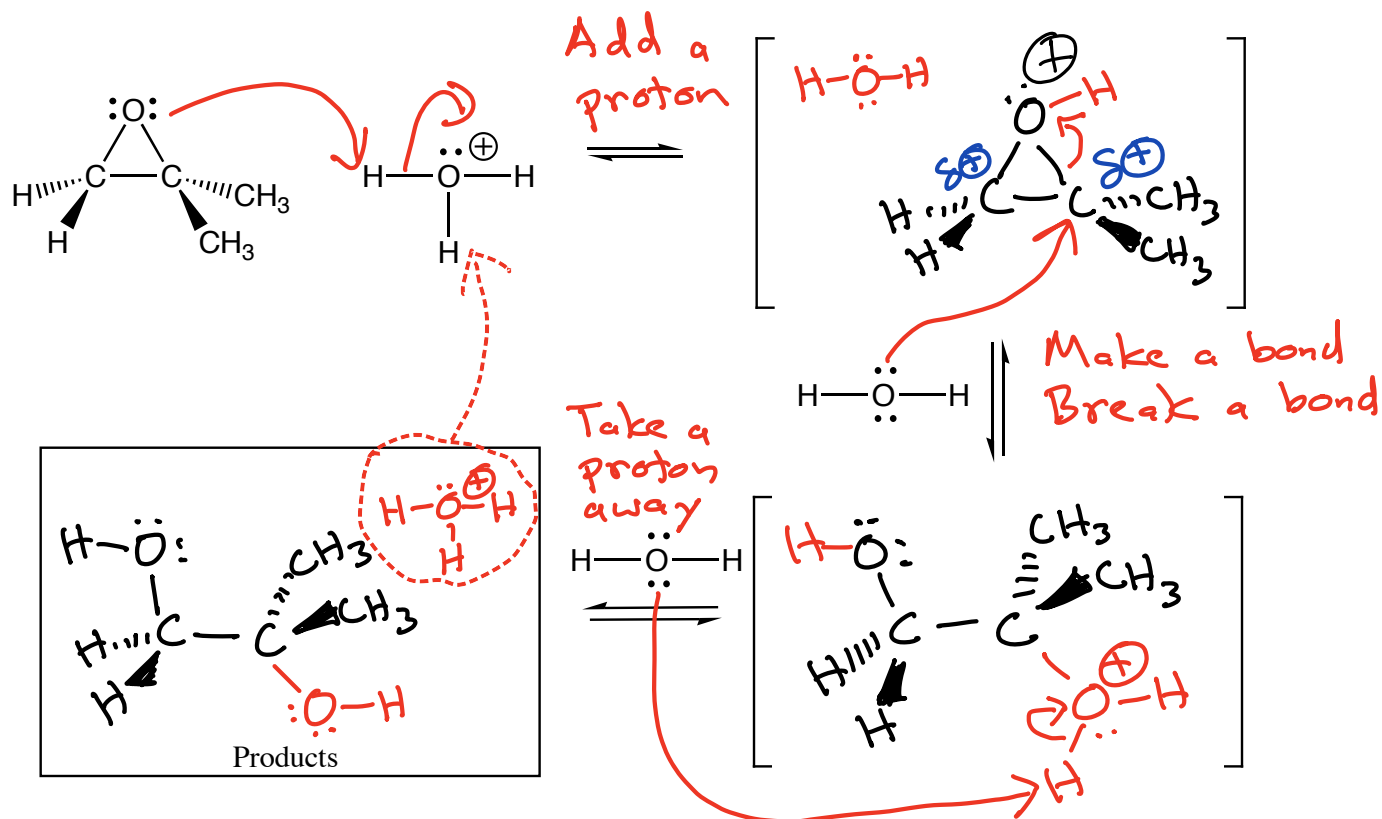
Side  
View



View  
from Bottom



## Acid-Catalyzed Epoxide Opening

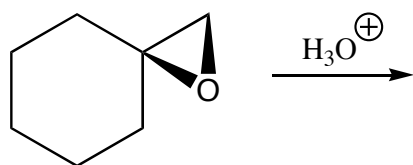


Summary: In acid, epoxides are protonated to give a highly reactive cation intermediate that reacts with nucleophiles at the more highly substituted carbon atom

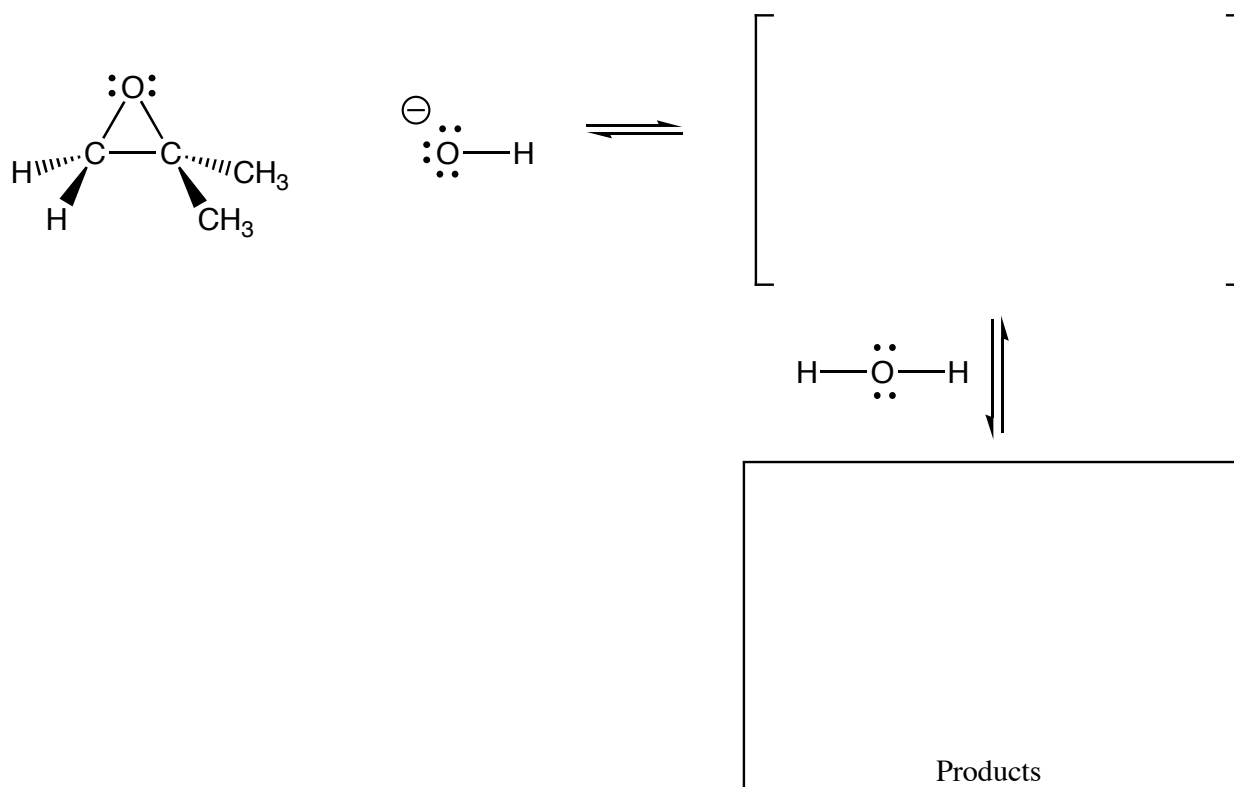
Regiochemistry: "Markovnikov" Attack at more highly substituted carbon

Stereochemistry: Anti

Example:



# Nucleophilic ~~Base Promoted~~ Epoxide Opening

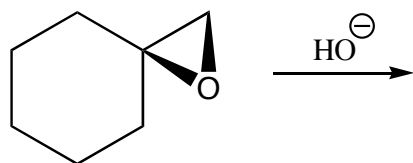


Summary: Epoxides add strong nucleophiles at the less hindered carbon atom

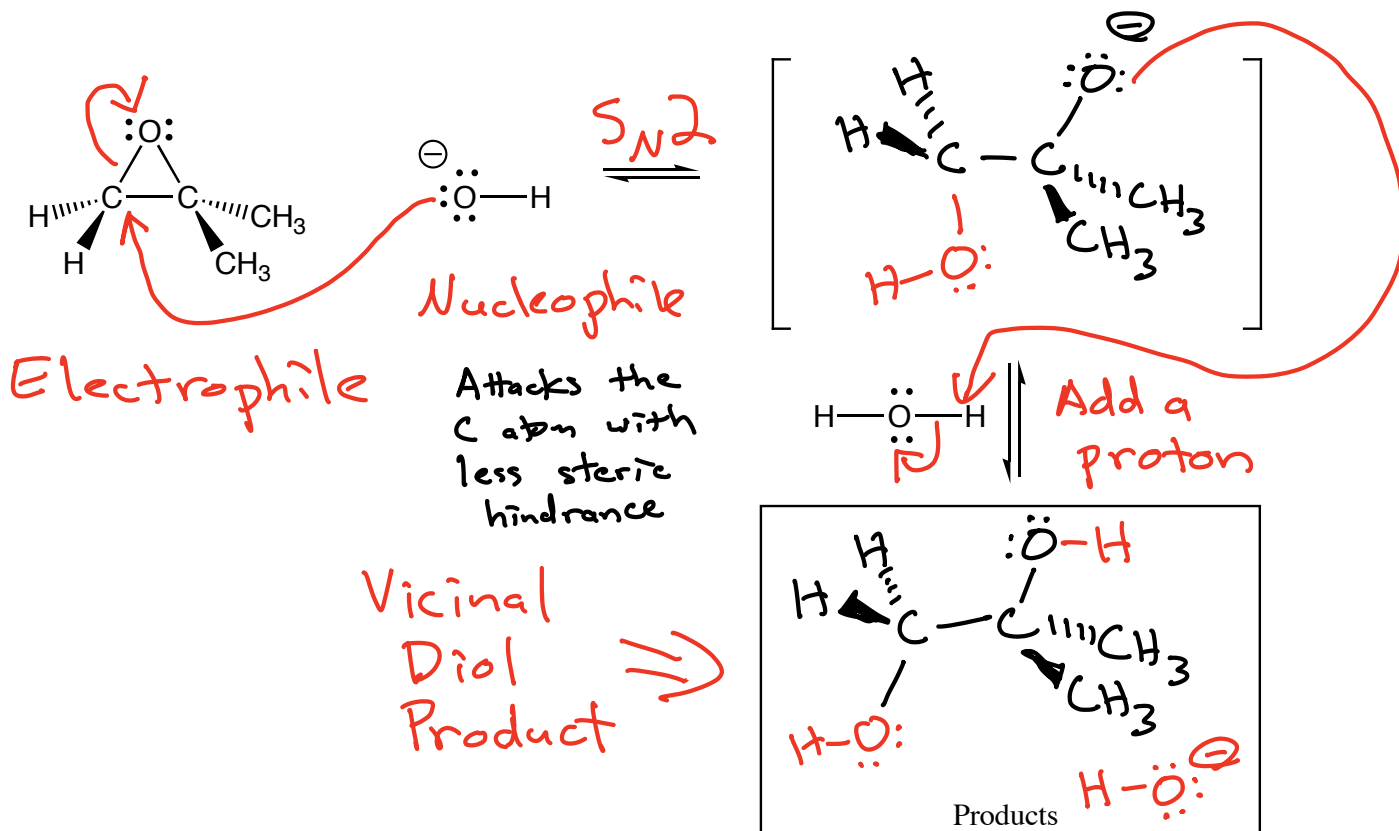
Regiochemistry: Less hindered (non-Markovnikov)

Stereochemistry: Anti addition

Example:



# Nucleophilic ~~Base Promoted~~ Epoxide Opening

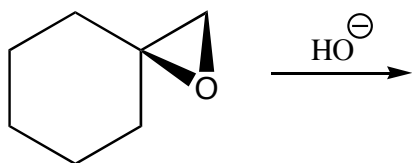


Summary: Epoxides add strong nucleophiles at the less hindered carbon atom

Regiochemistry: Less hindered (non-Markovnikov)

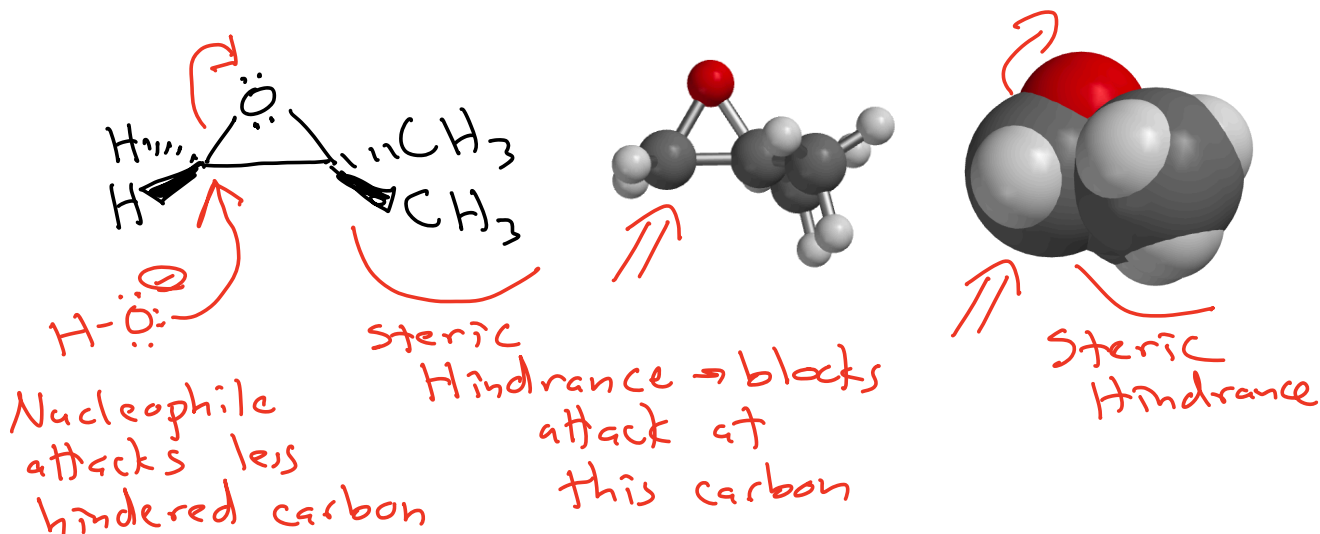
Stereochemistry: Anti addition

Example:

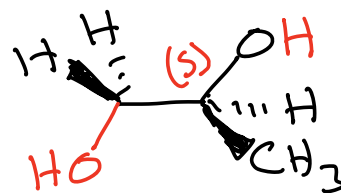
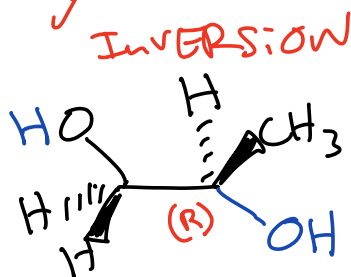
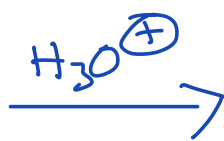
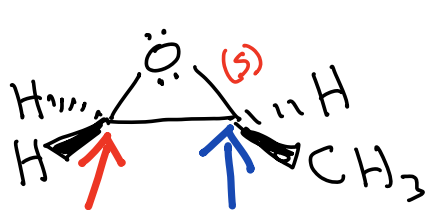




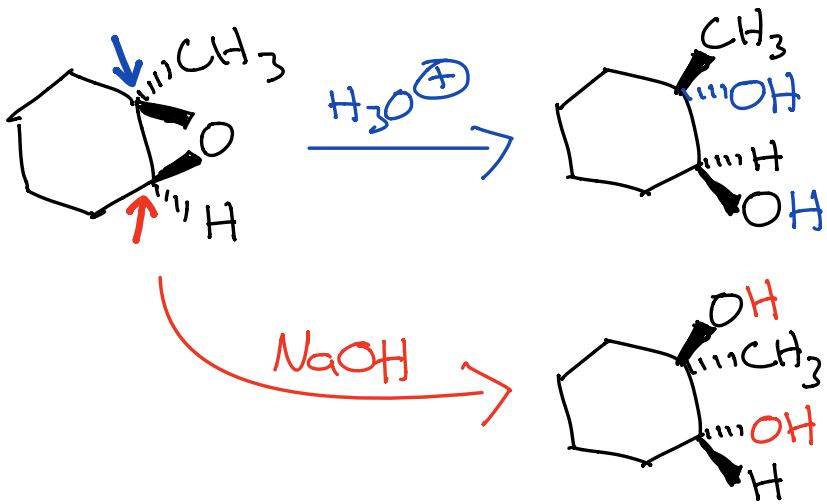
# Epoxide reacting with nucleophile

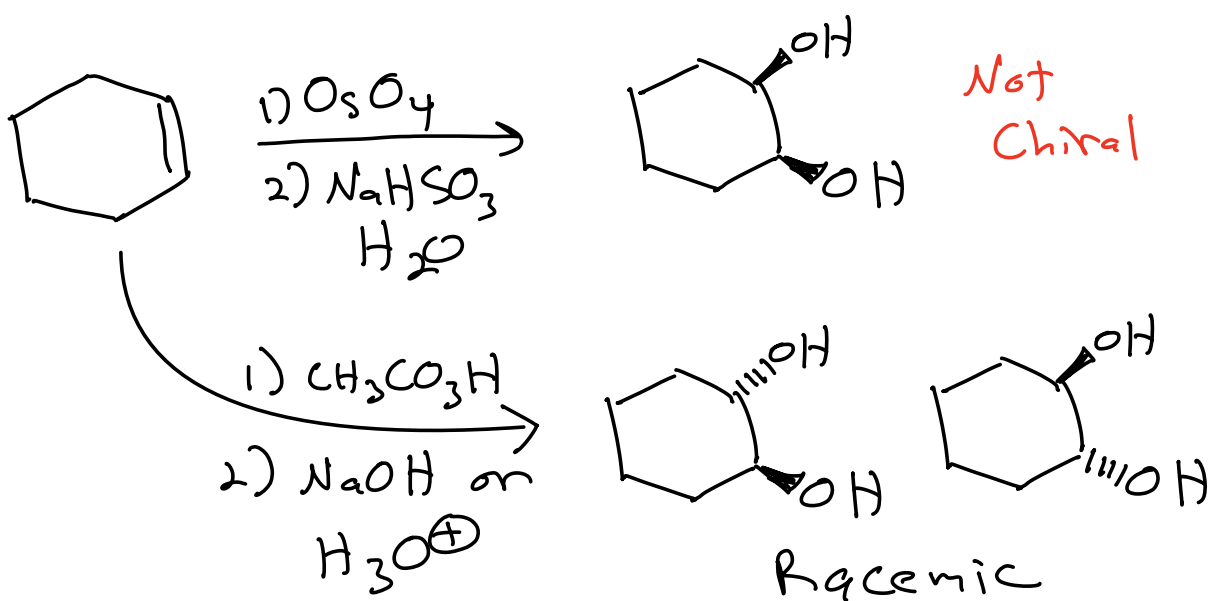


Watch out for the stereochemistry!

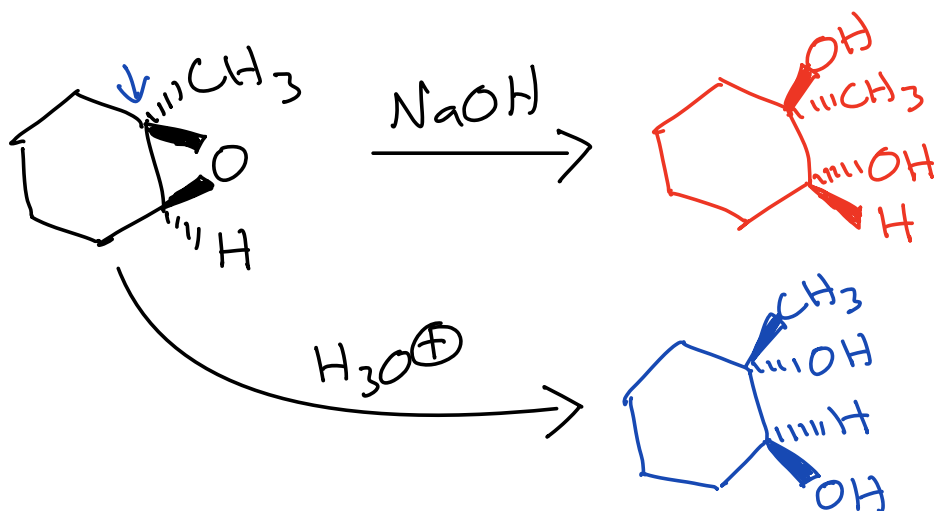


Attack will always be from underneath → back of C-O bond

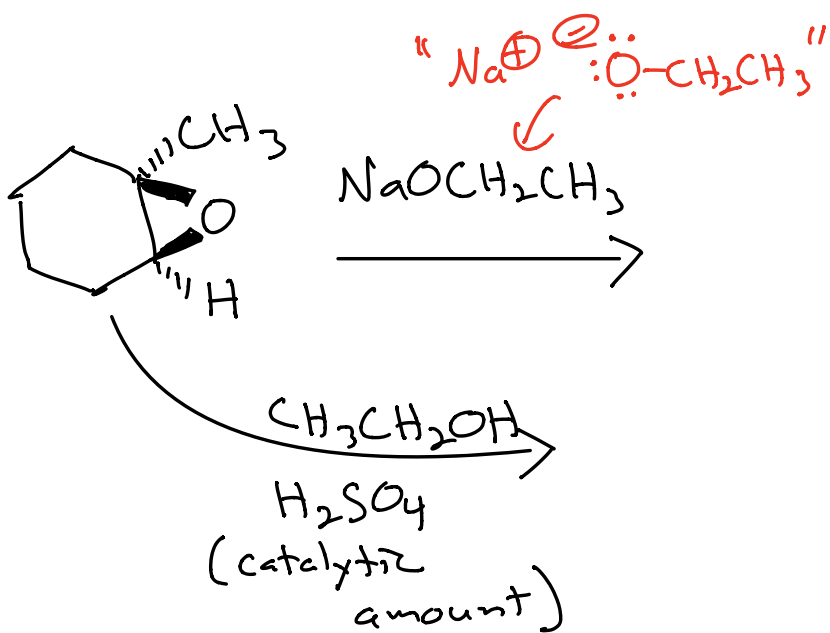




Watch out for the stereochemistry!

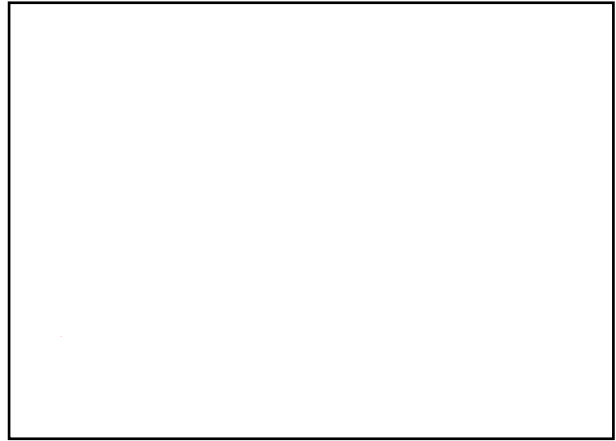
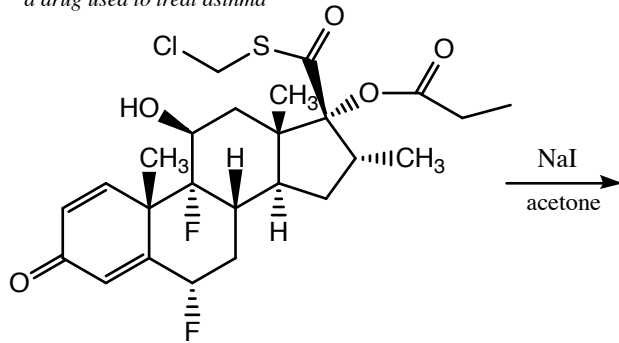


Works with alkoxides and alcohols as well)

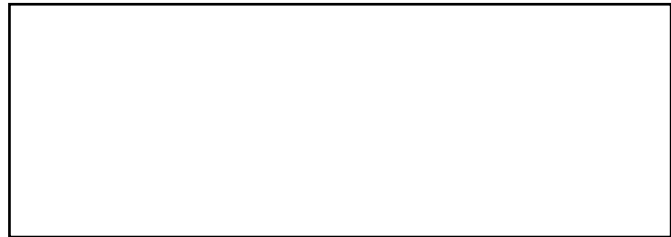
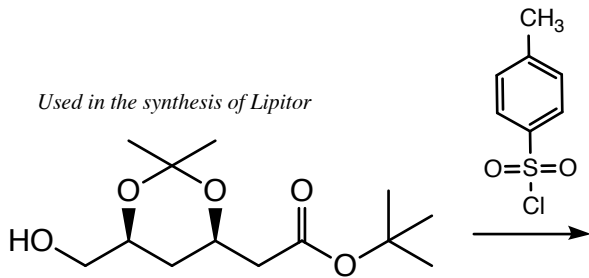


## Reactions in the Context of Complex Molecules

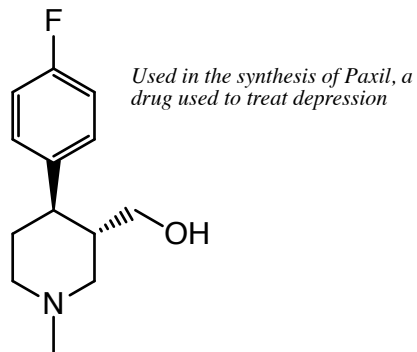
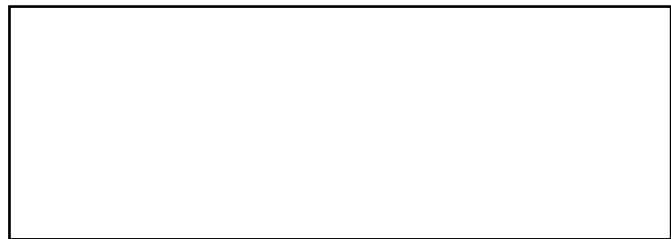
Used in the synthesis of Fluticasone (Flonase),  
a drug used to treat asthma



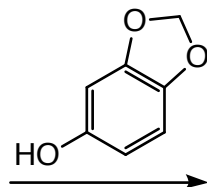
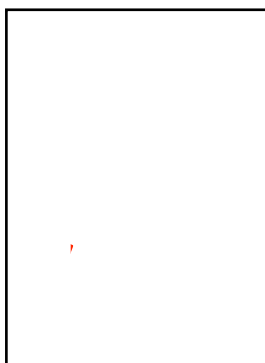
Used in the synthesis of Lipitor



↓  
NaCN

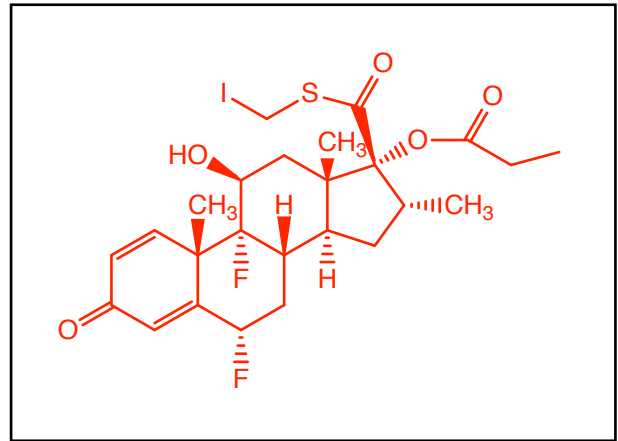
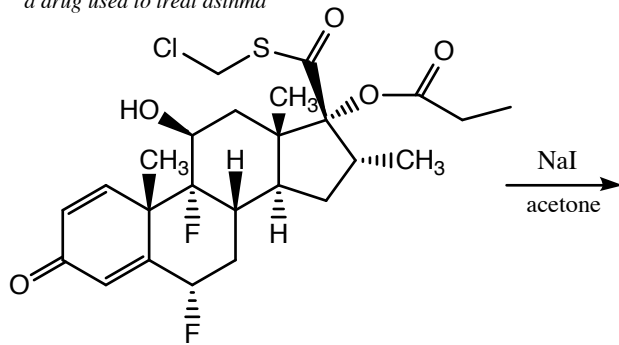


↓  
SOCl<sub>2</sub>

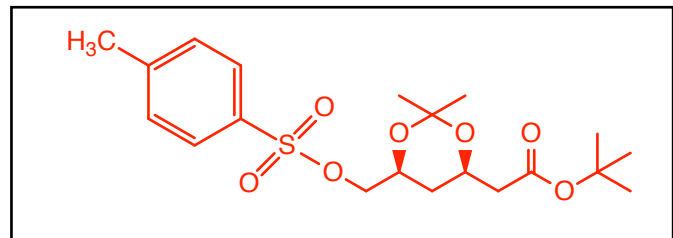
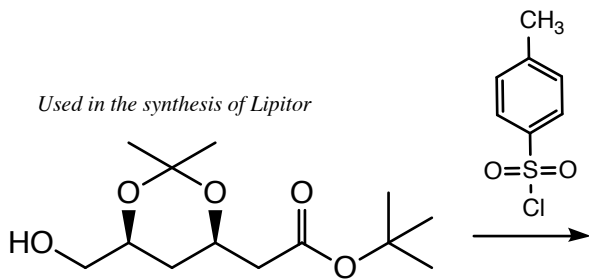


## Reactions in the Context of Complex Molecules

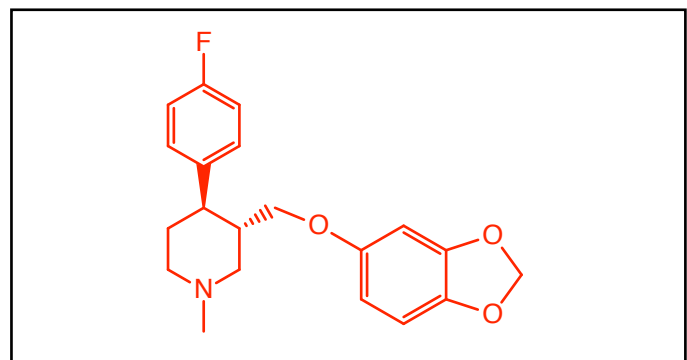
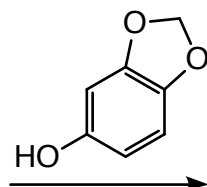
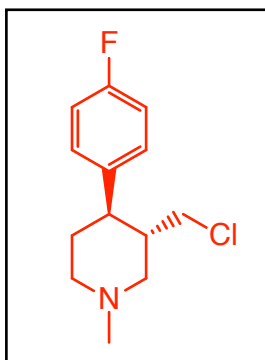
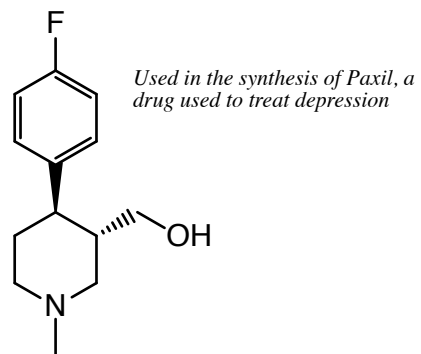
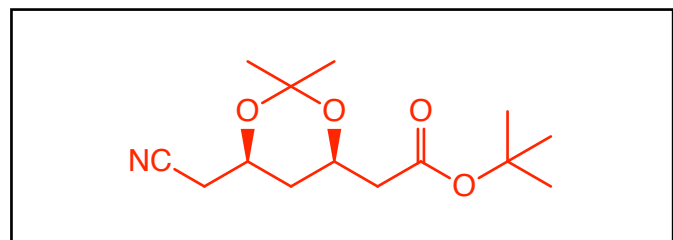
Used in the synthesis of Fluticasone (Flonase),  
a drug used to treat asthma



Used in the synthesis of Lipitor

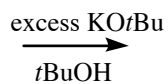
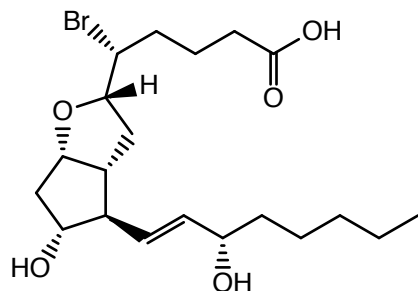


NaCN

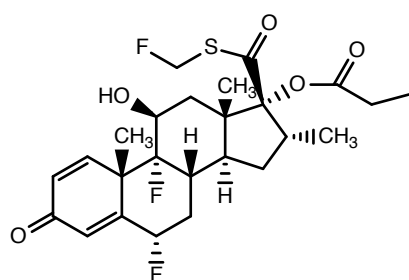
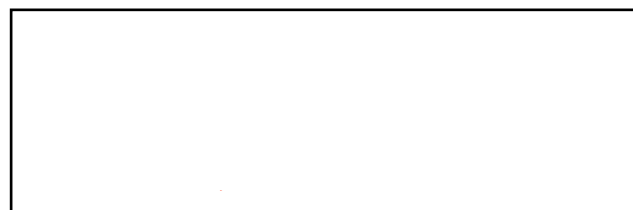
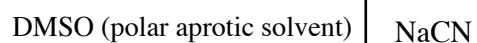
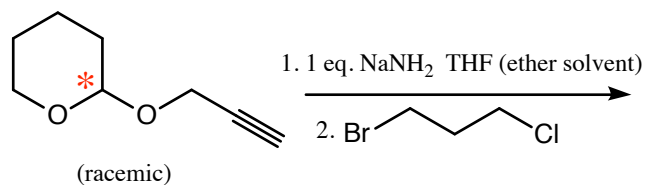


## Reactions in the Context of Complex Molecules

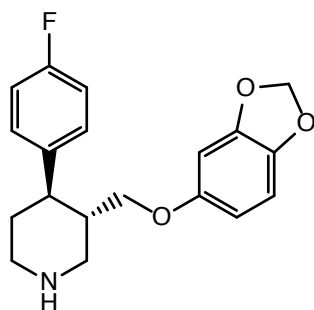
Used in the synthesis of several prostaglandins



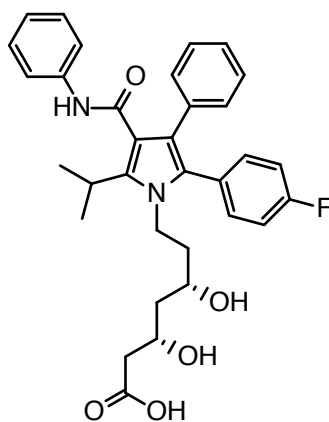
Used in the synthesis of prostaglandin C<sub>2</sub>



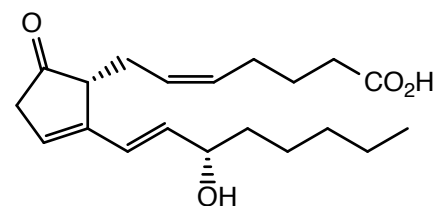
Fluticasone (Flonase)



Paroxetine (Paxil)



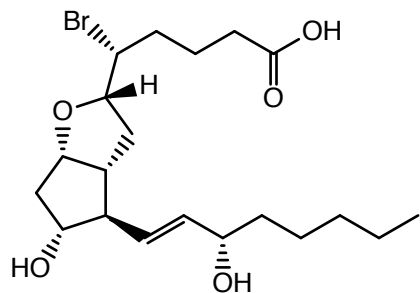
Atorvastatin (Lipitor)



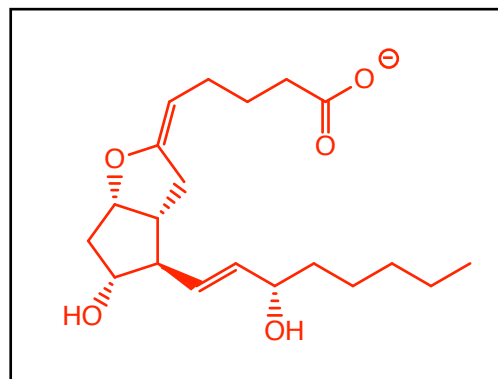
Prostaglandin C<sub>2</sub>

## Reactions in the Context of Complex Molecules

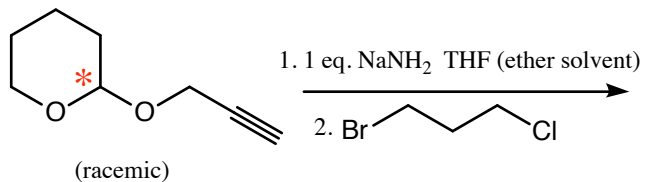
Used in the synthesis of several prostaglandins



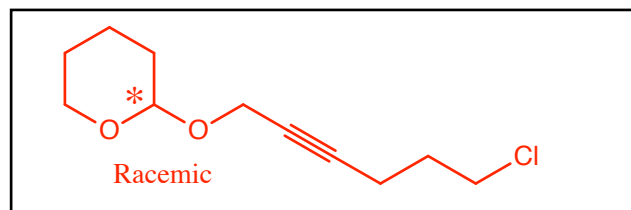
excess KO<sup>t</sup>Bu  
 $\xrightarrow{\quad}$   
*t*BuOH



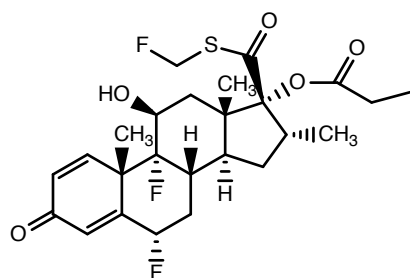
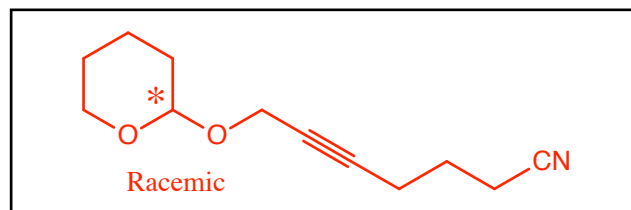
Used in the synthesis of prostaglandin C<sub>2</sub>



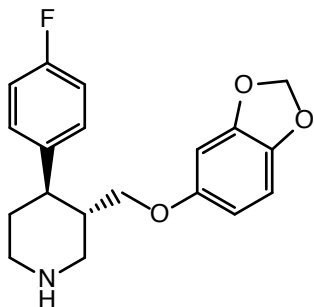
1. 1 eq. NaNH<sub>2</sub> THF (ether solvent)  
 $\xrightarrow{\quad}$   
 2. Br-CH<sub>2</sub>-CH<sub>2</sub>-CH<sub>2</sub>-Cl



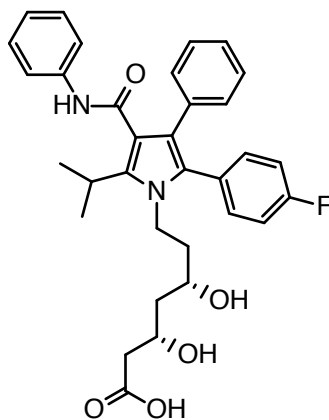
DMSO (polar aprotic solvent) ↓ NaCN



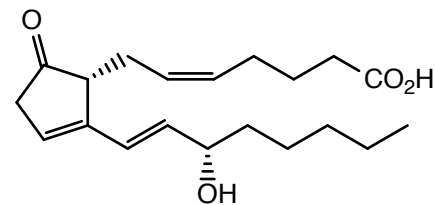
*Fluticasone (Flonase)*



*Paroxetine (Paxil)*



*Atorvastatin (Lipitor)*



*Prostaglandin C<sub>2</sub>*



To understand NMR you need to know the following:

A. Physics: Moving charge generates a magnetic field, and a moving magnetic field causes charges to move in a conductor.

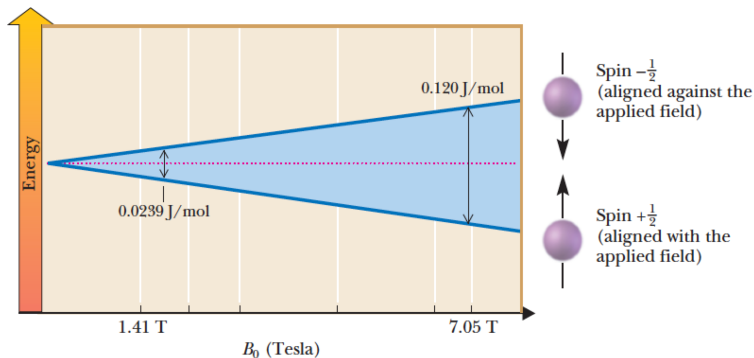
B. Atomic nuclei, like electrons, have a quantum mechanical property of "spin". Spin can be thought of as a small magnetic field around the nucleus created as if the positive charge of the nucleus were circulating.

C. NMR, nuclear magnetic resonance, is used to assign structures of organic molecules.

D. We care about the nuclei  $^1\text{H}$  and  $^{13}\text{C}$  since these are commonly found in organic molecules and they have spin quantum numbers of  $1/2$ .

E. Nuclei with spin quantum number  $1/2$  are quantized in one of two orientations, "+ $1/2$ " (lower energy) or "- $1/2$ " (higher energy) in the presence of an external magnetic field, that is, with and against the external field, respectively.

**F. The difference in energy between the + $1/2$  and - $1/2$  nuclear spin states is proportional to the strength of the magnetic field felt by the nucleus.**

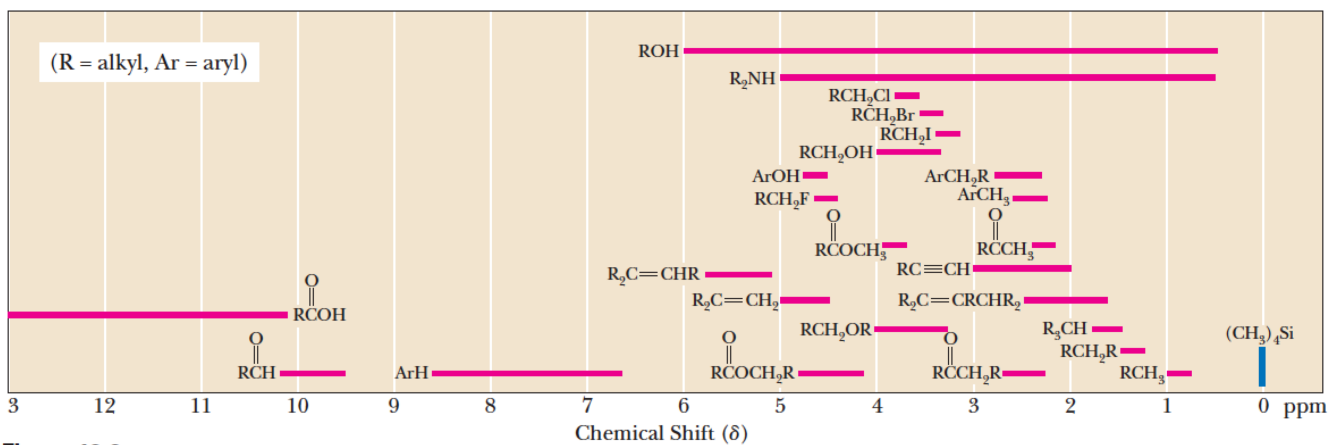
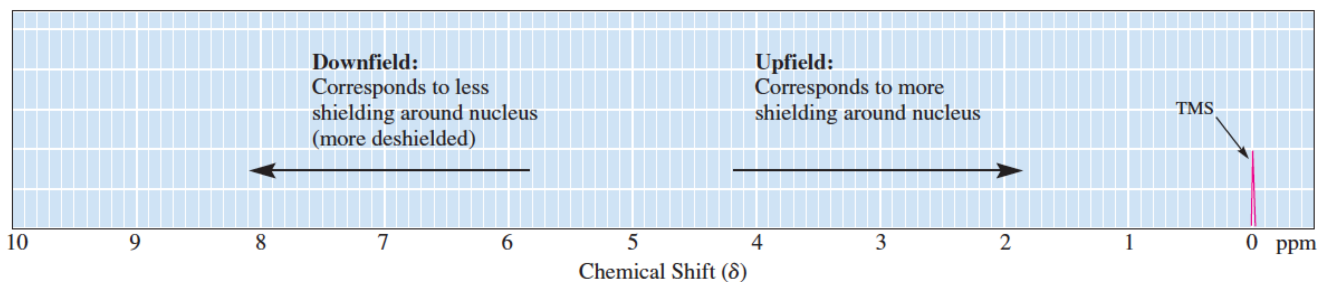


G. Electron density is induced to circulate in a strong external magnetic field, which in turn produces a magnetic field that opposes the external magnetic field. This **shields** nuclei from the external magnetic field. The greater the electron density around a nucleus, the more shielded it is, and the lower the energy (frequency) of electromagnetic radiation required to flip its nuclear spin.

H. The hybridization state of carbon atoms attached to an H atom influences shielding in predictable ways by removing differing amounts of electron density around adjacent nuclei.

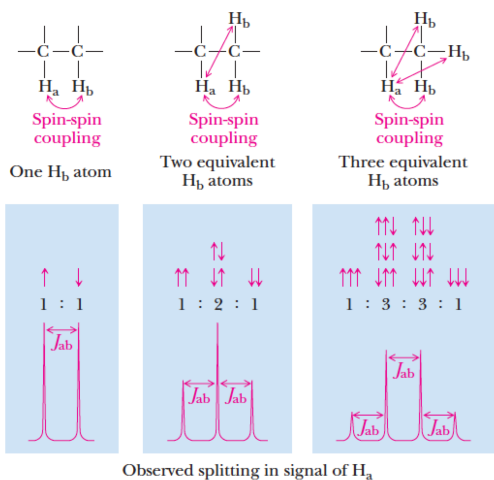
I. Electron density in pi bonds also has a large effect on H atom shielding because pi electrons are more free to circulate in an a magnetic field compared to electron density in sigma bonds. Geometry of the pi bond is important.

J. Adjacent nuclei have magnetic fields associated with their spins. The spins of equivalent adjacent nuclei can be either + $1/2$  or - $1/2$ , and at room temperature they are found in about a 50:50 mixture at any given nucleus (very slight excess of lower energy + $1/2$ ). These can add to give n+1 different spin combinations in the proportions predicted by Pascal's triangle. Each different spin combination produces a different magnetic field, which leads to n+1 splittings in the peaks of the NMR spectra of the adjacent (no more than three bonds away) nuclei.



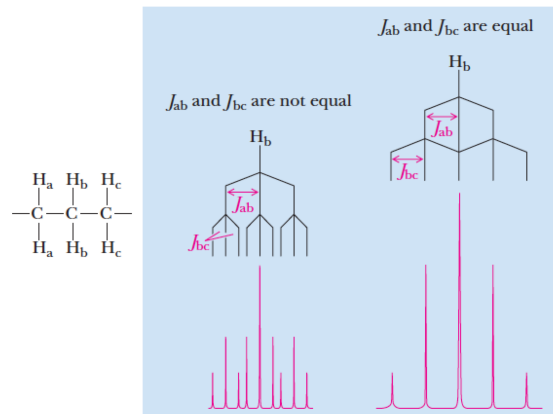
**Figure 13.8**

Average values of chemical shifts of representative types of hydrogens. These values are approximate. Other atoms or groups in the molecules may cause signals to appear outside of these ranges.



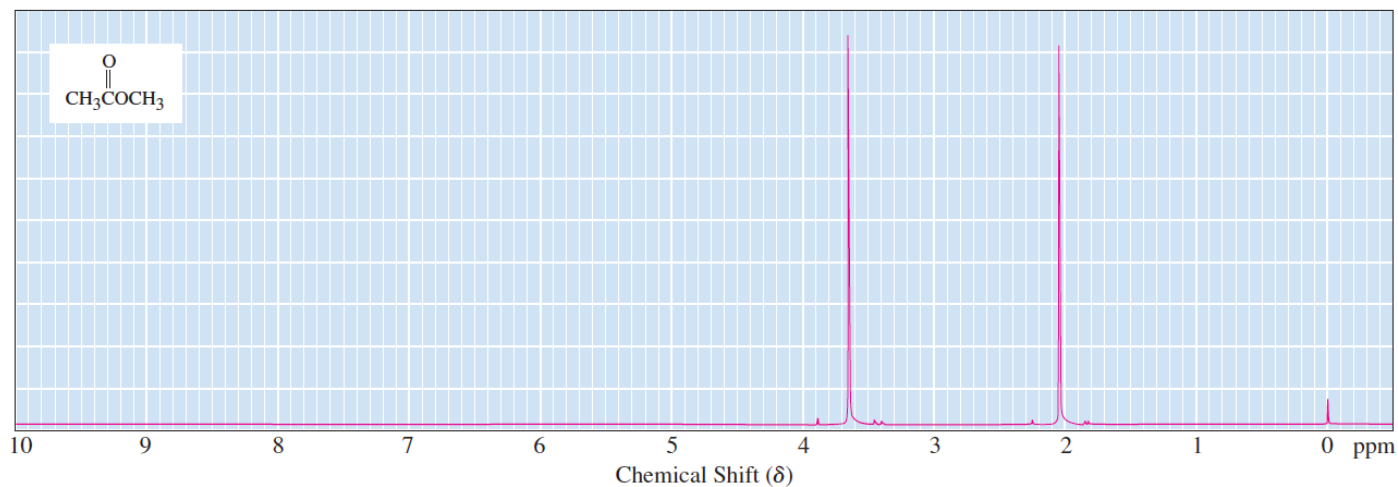
**Figure 13.15**

The origins of signal splitting patterns. Each arrow represents an  $H_b$  nuclear spin orientation.



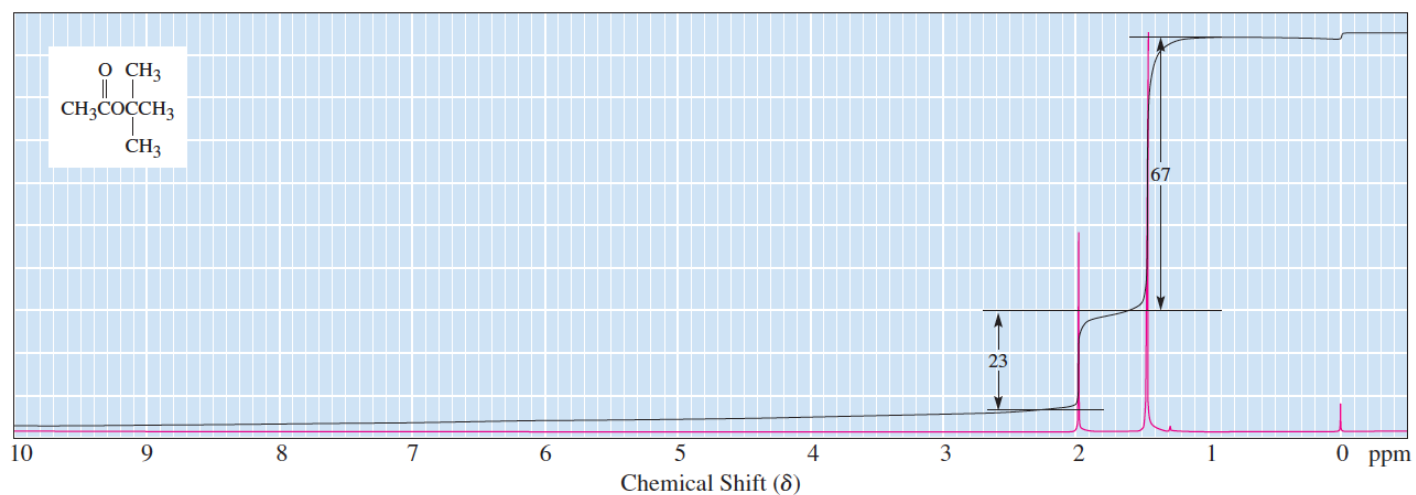
**Figure 13.25**

Simplification of signal splitting that occurs when coupling constants are the same.



**Figure 13.5**

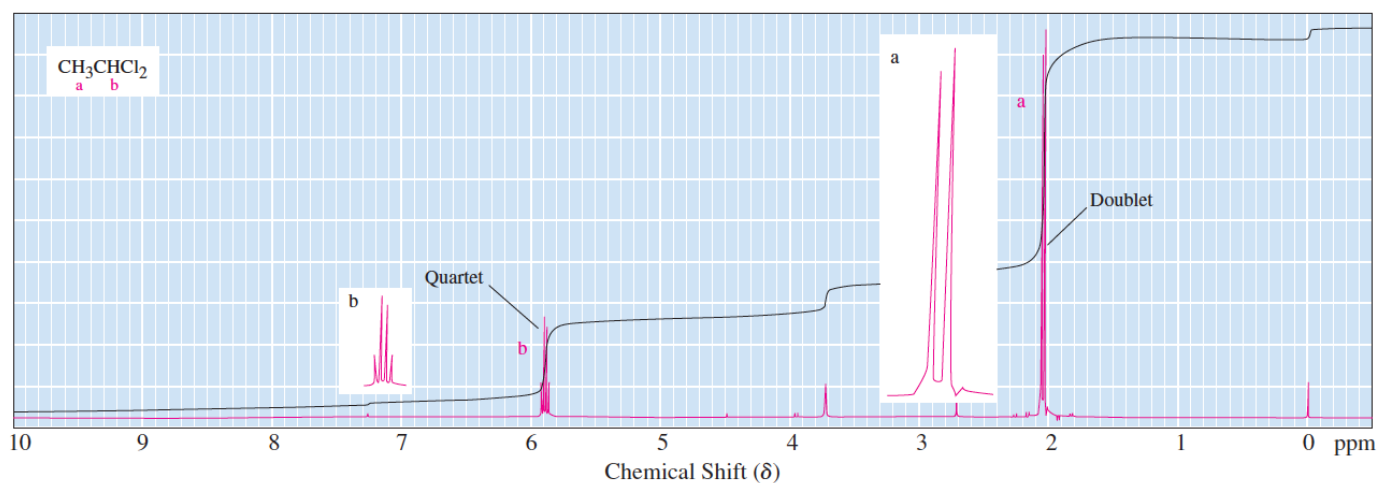
$^1\text{H-NMR}$  spectrum of methyl acetate



**Figure 13.7**

$^1\text{H-NMR}$  spectrum of *tert*-butyl acetate showing the integration. The total vertical rise of 90 chart divisions corresponds to 12 hydrogens, 9 in one set and 3 in the other.

J. Adjacent nuclei have magnetic fields associated with their spins. The spins of equivalent adjacent nuclei can be either  $+1/2$  or  $-1/2$ , and at room temperature they are found in about a 50:50 mixture at any given nucleus (very slight excess of lower energy  $+1/2$ ). These can add to give  $n+1$  different spin combinations in the proportions predicted by Pascal's triangle. Each different spin combination produces a different magnetic field, which leads to  $n+1$  splittings in the peaks of the NMR spectra of the adjacent (no more than three bonds away) nuclei.

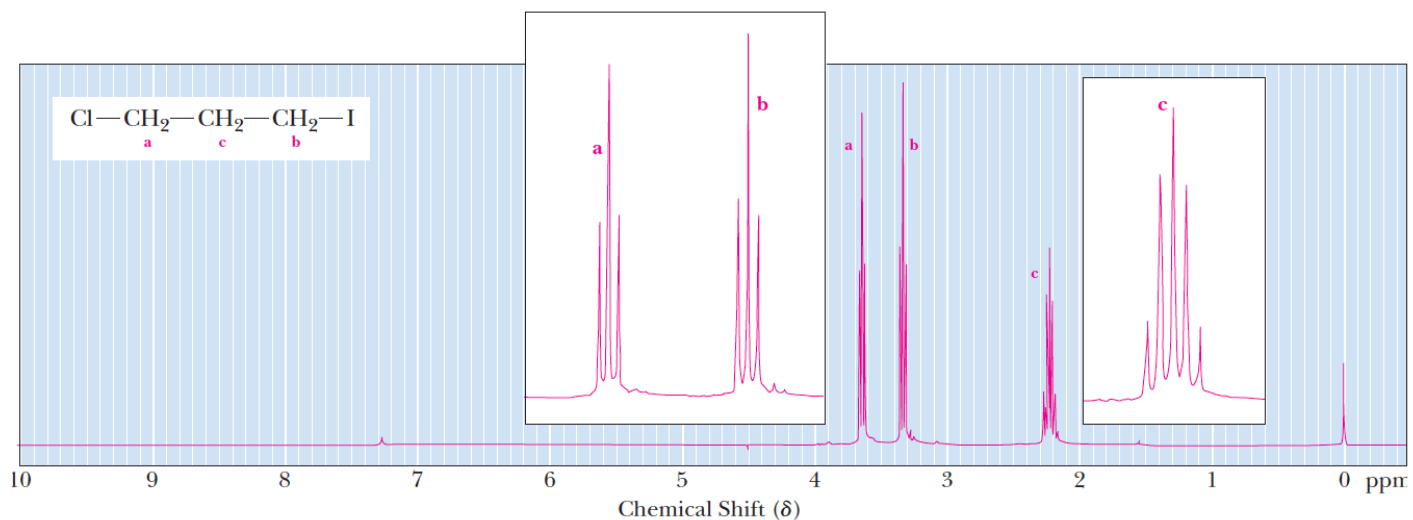


**Figure 13.12**

$^1\text{H}$ -NMR spectrum of 1,1-dichloroethane.

K. THEORY: When there are two sets of adjacent H atoms, the number of peaks multiply. For example, a  $\text{CH}_2$  group with a  $\text{CH}_2$  group and a  $\text{CH}_3$  group on either side should show  $3 \times 4 = 12$  splittings! You can say this group is a "triplet of quartets" (or a "quartet of triplets").

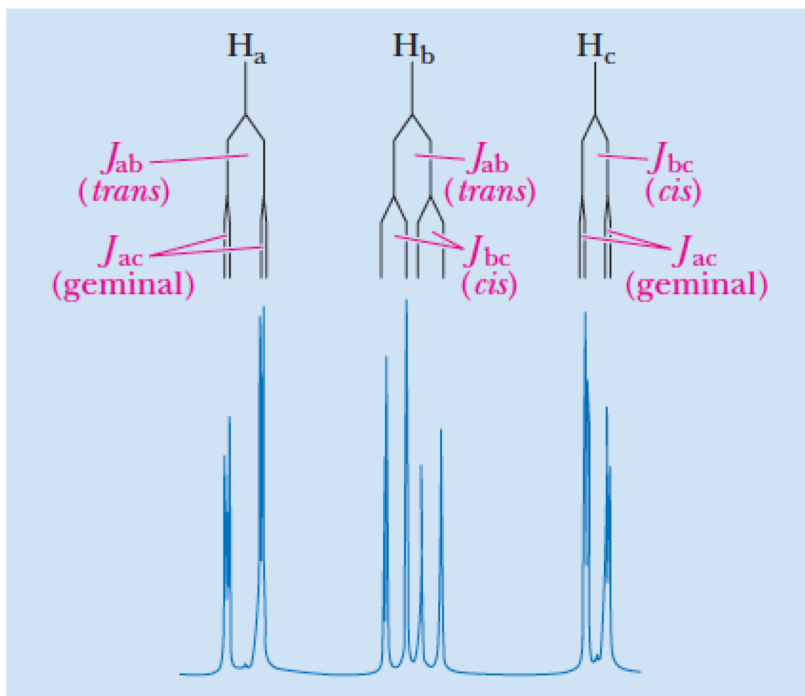
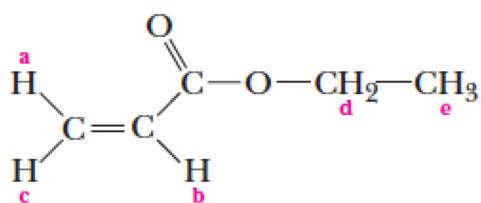
L. WHAT YOU WILL SEE IN REALITY : For alkyl groups complex splittings simplify because coupling constants ("J") are all about the same. In practice, if there are  $n$  adjacent H atoms, equivalent or not, you will see  $n+1$  peaks. This is an approximation, but almost always true on spectra taken with all but the most sophisticated NMR spectrometers.



**Figure 13.26**

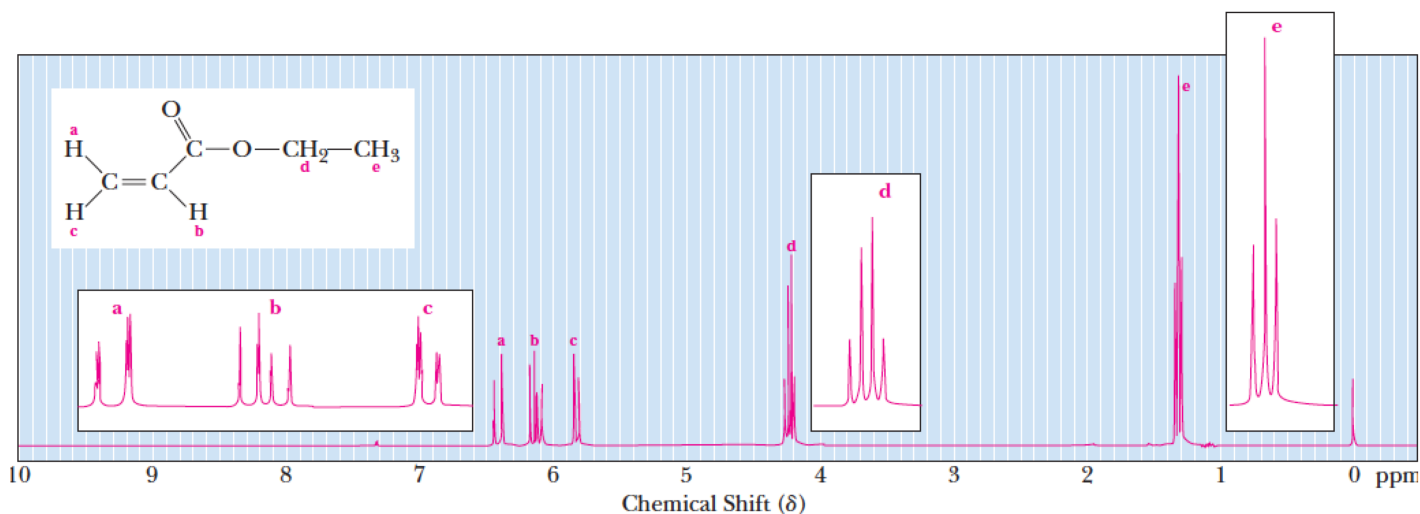
300 MHz  $^1\text{H}$ -NMR spectrum of 1-chloro-3-iodopropane

M. For alkenes or ring structures such as cyclopropanes the splitting does not simplify (no bond rotation) and you see full multiplicative splitting ("doublet of doublets", etc.) [Click here to go to Pictures of the Day for today in which the NMR spectra for an alkene and a cyclic structure are explained.](#) Geminal coupling can be important for rings and alkenes.



**Figure 13.22**

Tree diagrams for the complex coupling seen for the alkene H atoms in the  $^1\text{H-NMR}$  spectrum of ethyl propenoate.



**Figure 13.21**

300 MHz  $^1\text{H-NMR}$  spectrum of ethyl propenoate.

More NMR Essentials:

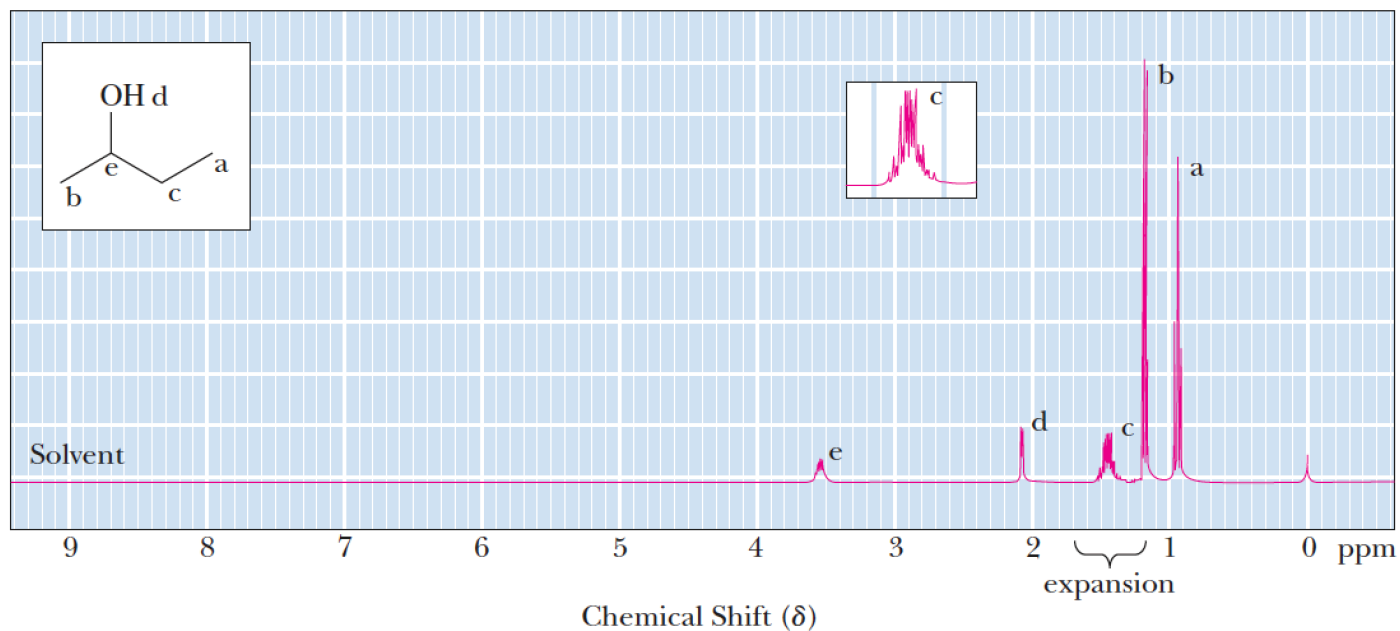
N. Non-equivalent H atoms on the same C atom can split each other (called geminal coupling), for example on alkenes or small rings. This coupling usually has very small coupling constants, so is difficult to see on some spectra.

O. Deuterium atoms do not show up in  $^1\text{H}$ -NMR spectra, so deuterated solvents are used to dissolve NMR samples.

P. The H atoms of relatively acidic functional groups (alcohols, carboxylic acids, amines) exchange rapidly, so they often do not split adjacent protons, and they can be replaced (signal disappears) with deuterium by adding a drop of  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$  to the NMR sample.

Q. H-bonding changes the location of a signal for H-bonding groups in a concentration dependent manner explaining why  $-\text{OH}$  and  $-\text{NH}_2$  group signals can vary so much in location.

R. The splitting of a  $-\text{CH}_2-$  group adjacent to a chiral center will be "messed up", that is split into many peaks. This is useful for identifying chiral centers in molecules.



S. When solving NMR spectra problems:

- 1) Determine number and relative integrations of signals predicted for a given structure
- 2) Make sure the splitting pattern matches with the spectrum for each signal and
- 3) If the number and relative integrations as well as splitting patterns match with the spectra, compare expected chemical shifts with those of the signals in the spectra.

The popular medical diagnostic technique of **magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)** is based on **the same principles as NMR**, namely the **flipping (i.e. resonance) of nuclear spins of H atoms by radio frequency irradiation** when a patient is placed in **a strong magnetic field**. **Magnetic field gradients are used to gain imaging information**, and rotation of the gradient around the center of the object gives imaging in an entire plane (i.e. slice inside patient). In an MRI image, you are looking at **individual slices that when stacked make up the three-dimensional image of relative amounts of H atoms**, especially the H atoms from **water and fat, in the different tissues** [Memorize the preceding passage, as it will be worth 14 points on the final. No I am not kidding, 14 points right there.]