- Thermodynamic (enolate): The enolate that is more stable.
- Example: Potassium t-butoxide (KO<sup>t</sup>Bu) has p $K_a \approx 16\text{-}18$ , so it deprotonates  $\alpha$ -methylcyclohexanone reversibly until we get the more stable one.

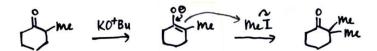


Figure 5.14: Thermodynamic enolate formation.

- Treating this with MeI then generates the  $\alpha$ -dimethylated form of cyclohexanone.
- You can add in Me<sub>3</sub>SiCl to trap enolates the silyl enol ether.



Figure 5.15: Trapping enolates as silyl enol ethers.

- This silyl protecting group could then be removed with MeLi, regenerating the enolate and yielding tetramethylsilane (SiMe<sub>4</sub>) as a byproduct.
- In the deprotection step, the methyl anion attacks the silicon atom in the TMS group, engaging in an  $S_N2$  displacement.

## 5.30 Enolate Alkylation

- We will not begin with a line-by-line review of last lecture; rather, we will clarify some things.
  - Lecture 29 recap.

11/18:

- Recall kinetic vs. thermodynamic enolates (Figures 5.13 & 5.14).
- When we use a strong, hindered base (like LDA), we abstract the unhindered proton to form the kinetic enolate.
  - This process is irreversible, and yields 100% of the kinetic enolate.
  - The process is irreversible because  $pK_a \approx 35$  for the conjugate acid of LDA (lithium diisopropylamine), so this conjugate acid cannot react backwards.
- Use of a somewhat strong, somewhat bulky base (like KO<sup>t</sup>Bu in <sup>t</sup>BuOH).
  - This process is highly reversible, so we'll abstract the unhindered proton first. But then the enolate can react backwards with  ${}^{t}$ BuOH to reform the ketone!
  - This process is highly reversible because  $pK_a \approx 19$  for  $^tBuOH$ , so this conjugate acid can react backwards.
  - However, when we eventually deprotonate the hindered proton, we form a more stable enolate that is *less likely* to react backwards.
  - Thus, the net result is that we form the *thermodynamic* enolate under these conditions.
- Both of these enolates can then be trapped with MeI into the corresponding  $\alpha$ -alkylation product.

- Lecture outline.
  - C.  $\alpha$ -alkylation.
    - Enolate-forming bases.
    - Enolates from esters (hard to form) and aldehydes (don't form).
    - Enolate-alkylation electrophiles.
    - Synthesis of  $\alpha$ -substituted acetic acid derivatives.
    - Synthesis of  $\alpha$ -substituted 1,3-diols.
- We return to Topic C:  $\alpha$ -alkylation.
- Let's consider the properties of several strong bases.

Base	Conjugate Acid (of Base)	pka of Conjugate Acid
Naoet/EtoH	<del>Бю</del> н	~16
Ko+Bu/+BuOH	+BuoH	~19
LDA/THF	î Pr <sub>2</sub> NH	~35

Table 5.1:  $pK_a$ 's of typical enolate-forming bases.

- The left column shows a base and the solvent in which you use it, not necessarily the base and it's conjugate acid!
- It follows from the table that NaOEt and  $KO^tBu$  are reversible bases, and LDA is an irreversible base.
- The difference between the first two is that KO<sup>t</sup>Bu is bulkier and less nucleophilic.
  - So if we're worried about nucleophilic attack as a side reaction, use this!
- Otherwise, NaOEt is cheaper and more pleasant to work with.
- So what happens when we do enolate formation with different bases?
  - Suppose that the conjugate acid  $B_1H$  has  $pK_a > 22$ .
    - $\blacksquare$  Then the reaction is irreversible.
    - Example: LDA!
  - Suppose that the conjugate acid  $B_2H$  has  $16 < pK_a < 22$ .
    - This reaction is reversible.
    - $\blacksquare$  Examples: NaOEt and KO $^t$ Bu!
  - Suppose that the conjugate acid  $B_3H$  has  $pK_a < 16$ .
    - Nothing happens! The base isn't strong enough.
  - Note: We'll read in Clayden et al. (2012) that we can use bases with p $K_a < 16$  if we pair it with a Lewis acid.
    - Example: Trimethylsilyl chloride (TMSCl) and NEt<sub>3</sub>.
  - Generalizing this.
    - Consider the p $K_a$  of our  $\alpha$ -proton.
    - If the base is 3 p $K_a$  units weaker or stronger, we get reversible enolate formation.
    - If the base is more than 3 p $K_a$  units stronger, we get irreversible enolate formation.
    - If the base is more than  $3 \text{ p}K_a$  units weaker, no reaction occurs because the base is too weak.

- Example: Consider methyl isopropyl ketone.
  - Use LDA to deprotonate at the methyl group and form the kinetic enolate.
  - Use KO<sup>t</sup>Bu in <sup>t</sup>BuOH to form the thermodynamic enolate.
- How about forming enolates from esters?
  - We need LDA because p $K_{\rm a} \approx 25$  for the ester's  $\alpha$ -proton.
  - Indeed, esters have significantly less acidic  $\alpha$ -protons than ketones.
  - We also need low temperatures to prevent self-condensation.
- How about forming enolates from aldehydes?
  - For the purposes of this class, we'll say that aldehyde enolates don't exist.
  - In reality, aldehyde enolates do exist, but they are so reactive that even at low temperatures, there is lots of competitive self-condensation.
- We now return to alkylations of enolates in more depth.
  - There are parallels to  $S_N2$  reactivity here.
  - Enolates are more hindered than, for example, cyanide nucleophiles (CN $^-$ ), azide nucleophiles (N $_3$  $^-$ ), etc.
    - They are also more basic.
  - For the purposes of 5.13...
    - We'll say that primary alkyl, methyl, benzyl, and allyl halides react with enolates to do  $\alpha$ -alkylation.
      - ➤ The TFs will discuss in recitation why benzyl and allyl halides are "activated!!"
    - We'll also say that secondary alkyl halides do not react with enolates.
      - ➤ This is because it's more hindered, so we get more competitive elimination.
  - Tertiary, vinyl, phenyl, and neopentyl halides never react with enolates.
    - Note that neopentyl is bad (even though it's primary) because it's *super* bulky.
- We now discuss the synthesis of  $\alpha$ -substituted malonate esters.

Figure 5.16: Malonate ester synthesis.

- Recall malonate esters from last class (see Figure 5.12a).
- Since these compounds have p $K_a \approx 13$  at their  $\alpha$ -protons, NaOMe can do 100% deprotonation.
  - Note that we match the base to the ester: Dimethyl malonate should be paired with NaOMe in MeOH and diethyl malonate should be paired with NaOEt in EtOH.
  - This is because we'll have competitive transesterification (see Figure 4.32), so matching the base ensures that we don't get a mixture of products.
- Our deprotonated malonate ester can then attack some C-X bond, alkylating the  $\alpha$ -position.
- But we're still in basic solution, so our species will be deprotonated until water workup.
  - $\blacksquare$  Do assume that we will *not* get competitive dialkylation.
  - However, alternatively, we could add more base and another C-X species to yield a dialky-lated species.
- These reactions are collectively known as the **malonate ester synthesis**.
- TTQ: Given propane-1,3-diol, MeI, and EtI, make the product shown in Figure ??a.

(a) The desired molecule and starting materials.

Figure 5.17: TTQ: Synthesis of an  $\alpha$ -substituted 1,3-diol.

- You might get greedy and start thinking about how to deprotonate the middle carbon directly, but we can't do that; we have to go back to something more reasonable first.
- Indeed, we can do a malonate ester synthesis with sequential alkylations followed by LAH reduction to the diol!
- Tip: Whenever you see a 1,3-diol, you should ask yourself if a malonate ester can be used!
- Note that we make the malonate ester from the 1,3-diol via Jones oxidation (see Figure 4.6a) followed by Fischer esterification (see Figure 4.34).
- We now discuss a related process called the **acetoacetate synthesis**.

Figure 5.18: Ethyl acetoacetate.

- Here, we have a *ketone* next to an ester group.
  - The reason that one is an ethyl ester and the other is a methyl ester is historical; we are totally fine to use ethyl or methyl esters wherever, as long as we're consistent.
- p $K_a \approx 11$  for ethyl acetoacetate.

• Let's now begin the synthesis.

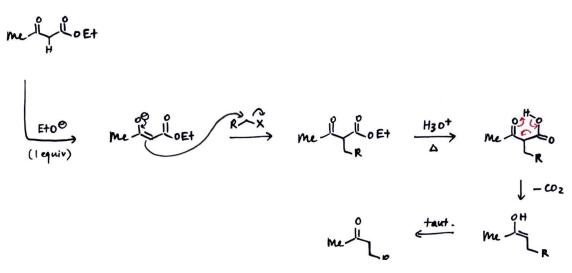


Figure 5.19: Acetoacetate synthesis.

- Adding 1 equivalent of EtO deprotonates to the enolate.
  - Note that the resonance will be primarily with the ketone, *not* the ester!
- Then we can do our alkylation.
  - We could even do a second alkylation, but we're just not going to show that here.
- Next step: We heat our intermediate in acid, which first gives ester hydrolysis to the  $\beta$ -ketoacid.
  - $\blacksquare$   $\beta$ -ketoacids are known to undergo decarboxylation to yield enols!
- However, in acidic solution, our enol will quickly tautomerize to a ketone.
- Takeaway: This reaction is equivalent to enolate alkylation with LDA (see Figure 5.13).
  - However, LDA is pyrophoric and hence nasty to work with.
  - The acetoacetate synthesis, however, is **bucket chemistry** (easy, safe, and scalable).
- TTQ: Make 2-methylhexa-1,5-diene from ethyl acetoacetate, allyl bromide, any other reagent we want with two or fewer carbons, and any other non-carbon reagent.



(a) The desired molecule and starting materials.

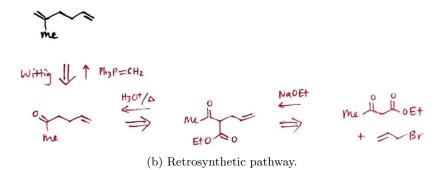


Figure 5.20: TTQ: Using the acetoacetate synthesis.

- Match up the carbons as we've done previously.
- A Wittig would yield the product.
- Next step: We can go back to the acetoacetate.
- Next step: Do alkylation from the starting materials.