## Week 8

## Amine Reactions and Carbohydrate Structure

## 8.1 Amines 2

5/17: • Midterm 2.

- Scores back after class.
- Request a regrade (of your whole exam) ASAP if needed.
- Raw score:  $56 \pm 24$  (median 59).
- Range: 0-99.
- Adjusted:  $70 \pm 10$ .
- Today's lecture content in Solomons et al. (2016).
  - Today: Sections 20.4, 20.12, and 20.6-20.7.
  - Next time: Sections 22.1-22.2, 22.9A.
  - Practice problems: 20.19-20.24, 20.26, 20.34-20.36.
- Review of last lecture.
  - Basicity of amines.
  - Higher  $pK_a(RNH_3^+)$  means more basic RNH<sub>2</sub>.
  - Key: How willing is N to share its lone pair.
- Today, we will cover the following.
  - I. Properties of amines.
    - B. Acid-base properties (cotd.).
  - II. Preparation of amines.
    - A. Alkylation.
    - B. Reduction.
    - C. Hofmann rearrangement.
    - D. Curtius rearrangement (review).
  - III. Reactions of amines.
    - A. Hofmann elimination.
    - B. Cope elimination.

- Acid-base properties (cotd.).
- Additional example amine  $pK_a$ 's.
  - Py has  $pK_a(PyH^+) = 5.3$ .
    - Its basicity is intermediate between  $NH_3$  and  $PhNH_2$  due to its  $sp^2$  hybridization.
  - Pyrrole has  $pK_a(RH^+) = 0.4$ .
    - Since nitrogen's lone pair here is fully incorporated into the aromatic system, it is not basic.
    - In fact, pyrrole has  $pK_a(R) = 16.5$ .
    - This means that its amine hydrogen is actually mildly acidic (about equivalent to ethanol's hydroxyl hydrogen).
  - Indole (left to us).
    - Indole is like pyrrole: To have 4n + 2 aromatic electrons, it needs nitrogen's lone pair.
  - See the Aromaticity 2 lecture from Labalme (2022b) for more on aromatic p $K_a$ 's.
  - Amides.
    - An amide will coordinate a proton at its oxygen, not its nitrogen.
    - This protonated species will have  $pK_a = 0$ .
    - The reason for coordination at oxygen is that the resonance structure with a negative charge on oxygen makes a significant contribution to the overall molecule (oxygen is more electronegative than nitrogen). In fact, this resonance structure implies that the C-N bond in an amide is not rotatable, and thus the six atoms  $C-C(=O)-NH_2$  are coplanar.
    - Additionally, the nitrogen protons are slightly acidic with  $pK_a(RNH_2) = 18$ .
    - Hence, if we react an amide with a Grignard, we will deprotonate the NH<sub>2</sub> portion.
- A note on how protonation can be used to isolate amines (and other basic species) when synthesizing them in the lab.
  - Begin by protonating the amines and performing an extraction.
  - The protonated amines will be attracted to the polar aqueous layer and all other organic compounds can be separated out with the organic layer.
  - Then we can deprotonate to recover our desired amines.
- Preparation of amines.
- Alkylation (direct).
- General form.

$$NH_3 \xrightarrow{1. MeI} MeNH_2$$

- Mechanism.
  - The first step proceeds via an  $S_N2$  mechanism to yield a quaternary ammonium salt.
  - The second step (a basic workup) removes one of the three nitrogen protons, yielding  $H_2O + NaI$  as side products.
- Problems with direct alkylation:
  - Even before the basic workup, we have base in solution (NH<sub>3</sub>). This base can accomplish the second-step deprotonation, introducing MeNH<sub>2</sub> into our initial reaction mixture.
  - But adding alkyl groups (EDGs) creates more reactive amines, so MeNH<sub>2</sub> will preferentially attack CH<sub>3</sub>I compared with NH<sub>3</sub>.
  - Thus, with direct alkylation, we cannot stop at one particular stage; we will always get a mixture of NH<sub>3</sub>, MeNH<sub>2</sub>, Me<sub>2</sub>NH, Me<sub>3</sub>N, and Me<sub>4</sub>NI.

- One potential solution.
  - In some cases, we can use excess amine and a bulky alkyl halide.
  - For example, mixing approx. 20 equivalents of MeNH<sub>2</sub> with BnCl yields fairly pure BnNMeH.
- Alkylation (Gabriel synthesis).
- General form.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
O & O \\
NH & \frac{1. \text{ reagents}}{2. \text{ MeI}} & N - O
\end{array}$$

- The Gabriel synthesis prepares primary amines.
- The starting material is called **phthalimide**.
- Reagents is either NaH (nice because it liberates  $H_{2(g)}$  as an additional driving force) or  $K_2CO_3$  (nice because it's not as strong as NaH).
- Phthalimide: A 2° amine, the lone hydrogen of which has has  $pK_a = 8.3$  since it is subject to two EWG carbonyls and additional resonance with the aromatic ring. Structure see above left.
- Mechanism.
  - The first step is a deprotonation.
  - The second step proceeds via an  $S_N$ 2 mechanism.
    - Thus, we preferentially use it in conjunction with primary alkyl halides.
    - Secondary, allylic, and benzylic alkyl halides will work.
    - An attempt to run this reaction with a tertiary alkyl halide will lead to elimination.
  - Notice that the product is a 3° amide and thus cannot react any further.
- There are three ways to recover the primary amine from the product above.
  - 1. Use  $H_2SO_4$ ,  $H_2O$ , and heat.
    - This amide hydrolysis proceeds analogously to the last several steps of Figure 2.12.
    - A subsequent deprotonation of MeNH<sub>3</sub><sup>+</sup> will be required.
  - 2. Use NaOH, H<sub>2</sub>O, and heat.
    - This amide hydrolysis proceeds analogous to the saponification mechanism.
  - 3. Use  $H_2NNH_2$  and reflux.
    - See Solomons et al. (2016) for the mechanism.
- Reduction.
  - This method of preparation can proceed from a number of starting materials.
- From azides.

- Begin with the desired alkyl group as an alkyl halide.
- React it with an azide nucleophile via an  $\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{N}}2$  mechanism.
  - $\blacksquare$  Azide is one of the few nucleophiles that is a very poor base, so it is very good for  $S_N2$ .
- Reagents is either LiAlH<sub>4</sub> followed by an acidic workup or hydrogenation ( $H_2 + Pd/C$ ).

• From nitriles.

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{1. NaCN} \\ \text{2. LiAlH}_4 \\ \text{3. H}_3\text{O}^+ \end{array}$$

- Take the desired alkyl group,  $S_N2$  it with a cyanide nucleophile, and then reduce with LiAlH<sub>4</sub> as in Chapter 17.
- Notice that this reaction adds an extra carbon before the amide, unlike with azides.
- From amides.

$$\begin{array}{c} O \\ \downarrow \\ R \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} O \\ NR'R'' \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} 1. \text{ LiAlH}_4 \\ \hline 2. \text{ H}_3O^+ \end{array} \end{array} R \begin{array}{c} \\ NR'R'' \end{array}$$

- This is a review reaction; see the discussion associated with Figure 3.4.
- From iminium ions (reductive amination).

- This is a very useful reaction in the pharmaceutical industry.
- Depending on the reagents, we can accomplish this reaction in a stepwise fashion or all at once.
- Stepwise reagents.
  - Use mild H<sup>+</sup> followed by a mild hydride source, such as NaBH<sub>4</sub>.
  - In the first step, we create an enamine in equilibrium with the corresponding iminium ion.
  - In the second step, hydride attacks the iminium ion's carbon, leading to the final product.
- This set of reagents explains the name of the reaction: It is *amination* because we are replacing an oxygen with a nitrogen and *reductive* because we are reducing the iminium ion's double bond.
- If we use these reagents, we must (in theory) perform the reaction stepwise because NaBH $_4$  can reduce any unreacted ketone.
  - In reality, there is a trick we can use to do this reaction all at once with these reagents.
- One-step reagents.
  - Use sodium cyanoborohydride (NaBH<sub>3</sub>CN) in alcoholic solvent (EtOH or MeOH).
- NaBH<sub>3</sub>CN is a weaker hydride source (cyano groups are EWGs), so it can't react with the ketone because it's not electrophilic enough (the charged iminium ion is much more electrophilic).
- Reductive amination describes the above reaction of a relatively complicated ketone with a relatively simple amine. If we use, instead, a relatively simple ketone and a relatively complicated amine, the reaction is called...
- Reductive alkylation.

- Remember that HCHO is formaldehyde, which is our carbon source here.

- Reductive amination/alkylation can be more controlled than alkylation.
  - This is because with alkylation, our final 3° amine could still form a quaternary ammonium salt in the presence of excess MeI.
  - However, a 3° amine can never form another iminium ion.
- From nitro groups.

- Reagents is  $H_2 + Pd/C$ , Fe + HCl, or Zn(Hg) + HCl.
- Hofmann rearrangement.
- General form.

$$\begin{array}{c} O \\ \downarrow \\ R \end{array} \xrightarrow[NH_2]{NaOH, Br_2} R - NH_2$$

- Whereas with azides and amides kept the number of carbons constant and nitriles added a carbon, here we lose a carbon.
- This reaction is similar to the Curtius rearrangement.
- The conditions are identical to those used in the haloform reaction, and we will see that there are homologies in the mechanisms, too.
- Mechanism.

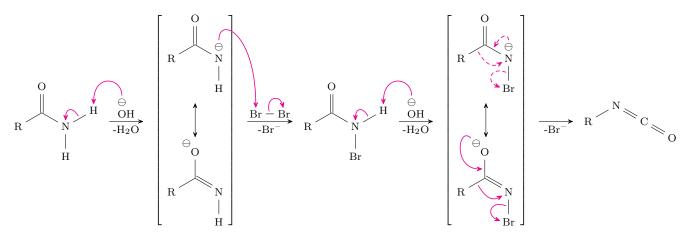


Figure 8.1: Hofmann rearrangement mechanism (isocyanate formation).

- Many of these reactions are reversible, but the equilibria are not that important here.
- The first two brominations proceed analogously to those in Figure 4.8.
  - Recall that the second bromination happens more readily because having bromine (an EWG) on the nitrogen makes the remaining hydrogen more acidic.
- There are two possible rearrangement mechanisms after this for forming the isocyanate.
  - The two proceed from different resonance structures.
  - The one drawn in dashed lines is advocated for by Solomons et al. (2016). In it, the *nitrogen* lone pair kicks in, the alkyl group migrates to the nitrogen, and bromine leaves.

- The one drawn in solid lines is advocated for by Tang. In it, the *oxygen* lone pair kicks in, the alkyl group migrates to the nitrogen, and bromine leaves.
- Tang will accept either on a test despite her preference for the latter.
- Once we have an isocyanate, we remove it exactly as in Figure 3.13b.
  - The NHCOOH intermediate (intermediate 2 in Figure 3.13b) is a carbamic acid.
  - A possible intermediate between intermediate 1 and the carbamic acid is a resonance form of the former wherein we have kicked the oxygen lone pair in and used the double bond to create a lone pair on nitrogen, negatively charging it.
  - Note that Solomons et al. (2016) uses a simplified mechanism for these first two steps (isocyanate to carbamic acid). Therein the hydroxide attacks the isocyanate carbon and kicks the N=C electrons back onto nitrogen, forming the negatively charged nitrogen intermediate described above in one go. From here, the negative nitrogen can attack water to form the carbamic acid.
  - The mechanism of Solomons et al. (2016) is inaccurate, though, because when displaced the electrons will preferentially move toward the more electronegative oxygen.
  - Regardless, both mechanisms will be accepted as correct in this course.
- Other comments.
  - Whereas we can isolate the isocyanate intermediate in the Curtius rearrangement, the conditions of the Hofmann rearrangement are such that it will continue reacting immediately upon being formed.
  - Even though CO<sub>2</sub> is released by this mechanism, we will not observe bubbling in the reaction mixture because the gas is absorbed by the basic media.
  - Overall, we form isocyanate and then perform two consecutive types of nucleophilic acyl substitution.
- An advantage of the Hofmann rearrangement is that it maintains the chirality in the R group.
  - In particular, we preserve the chirality at the carbon that ends up being  $\alpha$  to the amine.
  - This differs from any of the reductive pathways that use  $S_N2$ , for instance.
- Comments on the Curtius rearrangement.
  - In the first step, heat is used to transform the (relatively stable) acyl azide into the isocyanate and liberate N<sub>2</sub> gas.
  - This detail was not mentioned in Lecture 6 and is not shown in Figure 3.13a.
  - You can hydrolyze the isocyanate with alcohol instead of water, leading to different products. We will explore this in PSet 5.
- Reactions of amines.
- Hofmann elimination.
- General form.

$$NH_2$$
 1. MeI (excess), base  $2$ . Ag<sub>2</sub>O, H<sub>2</sub>O,  $\Delta$ 

- This reaction solves the problem of how to turn NH<sub>2</sub> into a good leaving group so that we can eliminate it.
- Example bases are NEt<sub>3</sub> or a NaOH pellet (it doesn't even have to be dissolved).
- Yields the non-Zaitsev product<sup>[1]</sup> (less substituted alkene).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This is why Mrs. Meer introduced the Zaitsev v. Hofmann product!

- Mechanism.
  - The first step makes the amide  $\mathrm{NH_2}^-$  into a good leaving group by transforming it into a quaternary ammonium salt.
  - The second step causes the elimination. How it works centers around the dual role Ag<sub>2</sub>O serves.
    - First, it relinquishes a silver cation to precipitate the iodide anion of the ammonium salt<sup>[2]</sup>.
    - Second, the remaining AgO<sup>-</sup> species acts as a strong bulky base.
- If we use a non-Hofmann elimination base (e.g., NaOEt) after forming the quaternary ammonium salt, then we get a mix of products with the Zaitsev product as the major product.
- Cope elimination.
- General form.

$$R \longrightarrow NMe_2 \xrightarrow{1. \text{ reagents}} R \longrightarrow R$$

- Reagents is mCPBA or  $H_2O_2$ .
- We need heat around 150 °C in the second step.
- Mechanism.

Figure 8.2: Cope elimination mechanism.

- A concerted second step; hence, this is syn elimination.
- The Cope elimination is regioselective.

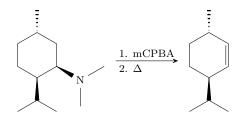


Figure 8.3: Cope elimination regioselectivity.

- The hydrogen and oxygen need to be able to align (i.e., in the transition state). Thus, if they cannot, we will not get elimination there.
- Guiding principle: The proton that you pull off has to point in the same direction as the nitrogen.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Silver and iodide ions preferentially bond because of the HSAB principle from Labalme (2022a).