

Heterocyclic Chemistry

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Course Overview

Videos

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MztulKZC33E&list=PLwrBgrbEpTE9vHygzF3fccieK8-qDmE-o>

1 – Introduction and Revision

Video 01 - Introduction to Heterocyclic Chemistry [06:46]

Video 02 - Revision of Key Concepts [14:09]

2 – Nomenclature and Aromaticity

Video 03 - Heterocycle Nomenclature [18:47]

Video 04 - Aromaticity [07:48]

3 – Reactivity

Video 05 - Reactivity of 6-Membered Aromatic Heterocycles - Part 1 [29:07]

4 – Reactivity

Video 06 - Reactivity of 6-Membered Aromatic Heterocycles - Part 2 [16:57]

Video 07 - Reactivity of 6-Membered Aromatic Heterocycles - Part 3 [12:40]

5 – Reactivity

Video 08 - Reactivity of 5-Membered Aromatic Heterocycles [19:01]

Video 09 - General Reactivity of Heterocycles [27:06]

6 – Synthesis

Video 10 - Strategy for Heterocycle Synthesis: Cyclisation and Dehydration [29:39]

Video 11 - Synthesis of Furans and Pyrroles [14:41]

7 – Synthesis

Video 12 - Synthesis of Pyridines [14:49]

Video 13 - Synthesis of Isoquinolines and Quinolines [22:39]

8 – Synthesis

Video 14 - Synthesis of Indoles [10:25]

Video 15 - Heterocycle Synthesis by 1,3-Dipolar Cycloaddition [11:42]

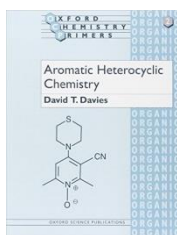
Handout

This PDF accompanies the video lecture series.

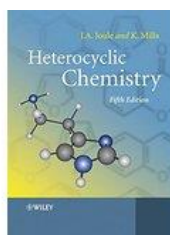
The numbers in the top right of the video correspond to the pages in this handout.

Information Sources

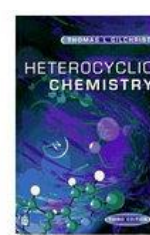
Books



Aromatic Heterocyclic Chemistry
Oxford Chemistry Primer, Davis
[Primers No 8]
[Online - Bibliu](#)



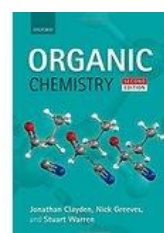
Heterocyclic Chemistry
Joule & Mills
[K270 2010-J2]



Heterocyclic Chemistry
Gilchrist
[K270 1997-G]



Strategic Applications of Named Reactions in Organic Synthesis
Kurti & Czako
[K210 2005-K]



Organic Chemistry Second Edition
Clayden, Greeves, Warren
[K210 2012-C]

<https://read.kortext.com/reader/epub/125690>

Online Resources

**Chem Tube 3D**

<http://chemtube3d.com>

Interactive animations of computed reaction mechanisms

**Organic Chemistry Portal**

<http://www.organic-chemistry.org/>

Online database curated by a chemistry professor in the USA

**Wikipedia**

<https://en.wikipedia.org>

Lots of people have carefully copied information (much of it from the books described previously) onto Wikipedia for free access! Be careful because there can be mistakes and people who write entries can be biased

**Google / Bing / etc...**

If you perform web searches for names of heterocycles you will find many lectures, PDF handouts, book sections, etc...

Introduction

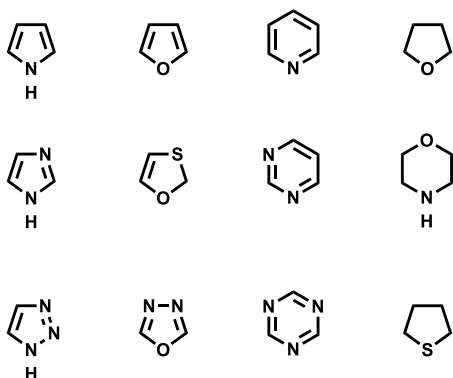
What is a Heterocycle?

“cyclic compounds having as ring members atoms of at least two different elements”

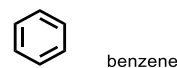


hetero → at least two different elements
 cycle → cyclic compound

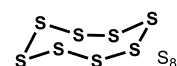
Some heterocycles: ✓



Not heterocycles: ✗



- Benzene is cyclic but all the atoms are carbon

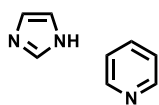


- S₈ is cyclic but all the atoms are sulfur

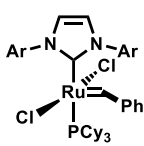
Importance of Heterocycles:

- **Chemistry**

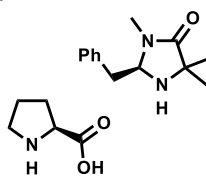
Heterocycles are key components of reagents, catalysts and chemical tools



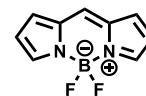
nucleophilic catalyst and base



ligand
(Grubbs II metathesis)



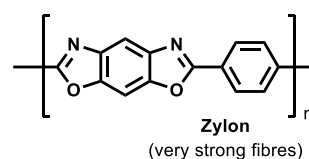
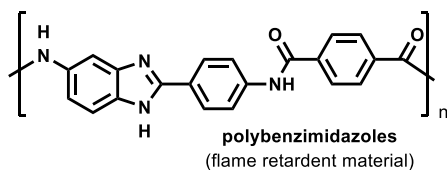
organocatalysts



molecular imaging
(bodipy)

- **Polymers**

Heterocycles are the key component in many important polymers

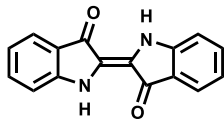


4

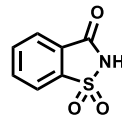
Heterocyclic Chemistry

• Everyday Items

Heterocycles are the key component in everyday objects



indigo
(dye)



saccharine
(sweetner)

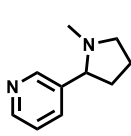


tetrahydrothiophene
(gas smell)

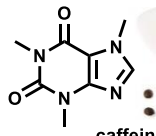


• Natural Compounds

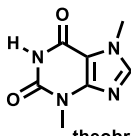
Heterocycles are the key component in natural compounds



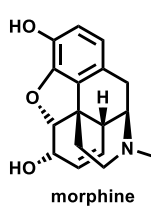
nicotine



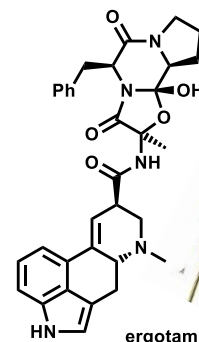
caffeine



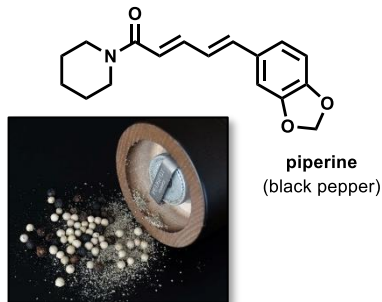
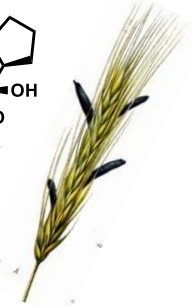
theobromine



morphine



ergotamine

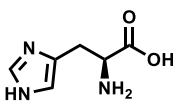


piperine
(black pepper)

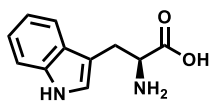


• Nature's Building Blocks

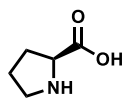
Heterocycles are found in 3 of the 20 proteinogenic amino acids and in DNA/RNA:



histidine



tryptophan



proline

Histidine:

Essential part of many enzyme active sites as nucleophilic catalyst and for H-transfer and ligand in metalloenzymes

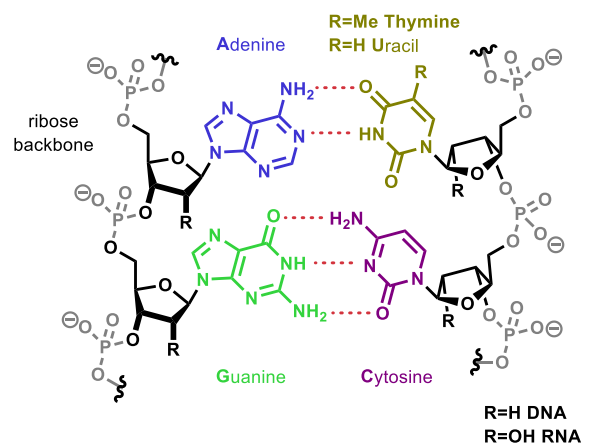
Tryptophan:

Precursor to neurochemicals
Precursor to vitamin B3

Proline:

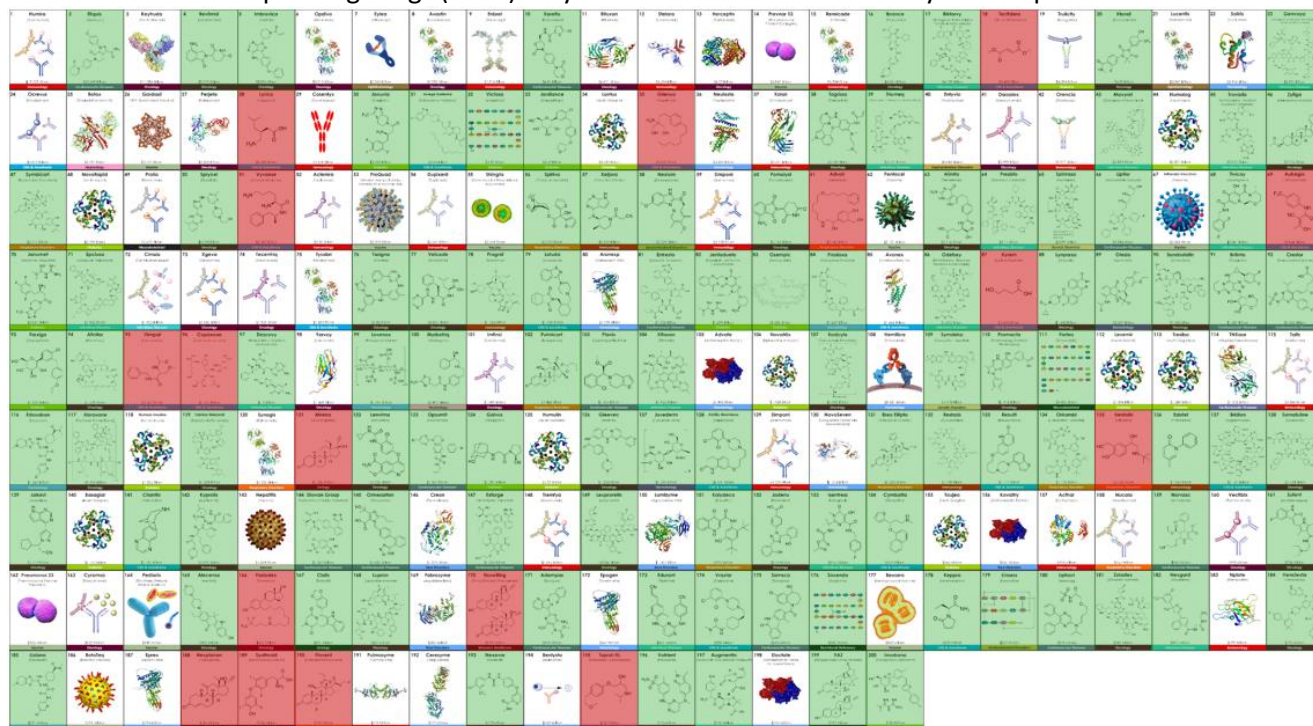
Only secondary amine amino acid and brings added rigidity or disruption to protein structure

DNA and RNA:



- Drug Molecules:**

Out of 200 top selling drugs (2019) only those in red have no heterocyclic component



Green	White	Red
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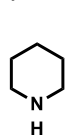
Drugs that contain a heterocycle

Biologics – proteins and antibodies that contain heterocycles as e.g. amino acids

Drugs that contain no heterocycle

Heterocycles in Drug Molecules

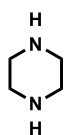
Top 5 prevalent heterocycles from 640 FDA-approved drugs:



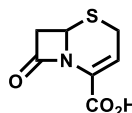
piperidine
11%



pyridine
10%



piperazine
9%



CEPHEM
6%



pyrrolidine
6%

J. Med. Chem. **2014**, *57*, 10257

Nomenclature

Heterocycles

"cyclic compounds having as ring members atoms of at least two different elements"

IUPAC Rules

Three rule systems for naming heterocycles:

- **Hantzsch-Widman Nomenclature**
Logical system of nomenclature
- **Retained Names**
Older heterocycles keep their traditional names
- **Carbon-Framework Substitution Nomenclature**
For complex heterocycles

Hantzsch-Widman Nomenclature

- There is a carefully formulated system for the nomenclature of heterocycles based on **heteroatom** (start of the name), **ring size** (middle of the name) and **degree of saturation** (end of the name).

Heteroatom Element

O oxa
Se seleno
P phospho
As arsa
Si sila

more obvious

















N aza (often imid, pyr, pyrid)
S thia

less obvious

Multiple Heteroatom Elements

- Atom name prefixes can include multipliers e.g. for N: 1 = aza-, 2 = diaza-, 3 = triaza-, 4 = tetraza-, ...
- Atom name prefixes can be combined in order of BIGGEST PERIOD followed by SMALLEST ROW in the periodic table e.g. N,O = oxaza-; S,O = oxathia-; P,O = oxaphospha-; ...

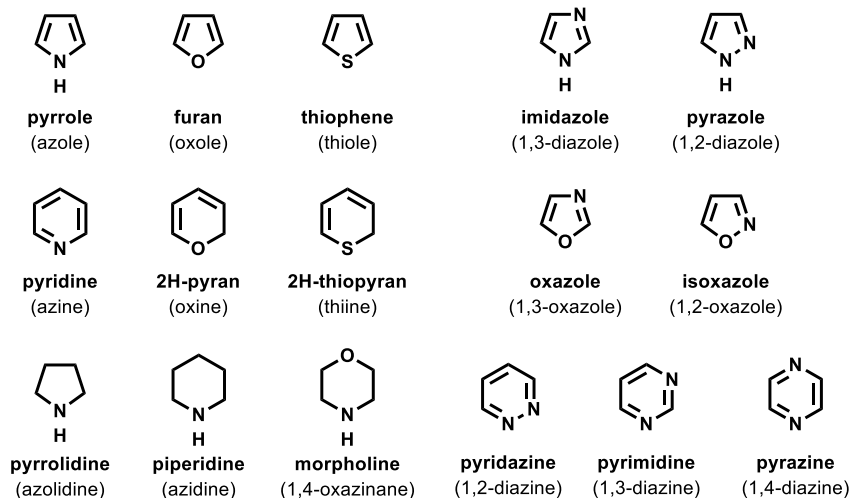
Ring Size

Size	Prefix	Origin	Saturated	Unsaturated
3	ir	<u>TRI</u> , e.g. triangle	 -ir <u>ane</u> -iridine for N	 -ir <u>ene</u> -irine for N
4	et	<u>TETRA</u> , e.g. tetrahedron	 -et <u>ane</u> -etidine for N	 -et <u>e</u>
5	ol		 -ol <u>ane</u> -olidine for N	 -ol <u>e</u>
6	(in)		 - <u>ane</u> -inane for N	 - <u>ine</u>
7	ep	<u>HEPTA</u> , e.g. heptathlon	 -ep <u>ane</u>	 -ep <u>ine</u>
8	oc	<u>OCTA</u> , e.g. octopus	 -oc <u>ane</u>	 -oc <u>ine</u>
9	on	<u>NONA</u> , e.g. nonagenarian	 -on <u>ane</u>	 -on <u>ine</u>
10	ec	<u>DECA</u> , e.g. decade	 -ec <u>ane</u>	 -ec <u>ine</u>

Nitrogen-containing heterocycles have different rules, i.e. an **idi** in the name for some saturated compounds

Retained Names

Several important heterocycles predate the Hantzsch-Widman Nomenclature and these keep their **historic names**, including:



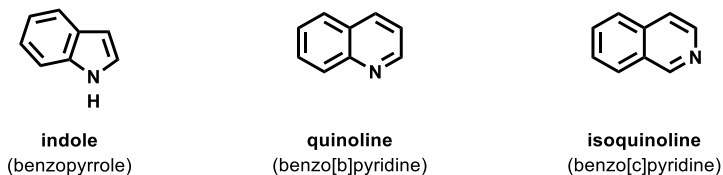
Fused Heterocycles

If a heterocycle is fused to another system, join the two names together with the biggest and most heteroatom-containing ring as the second part.



Fused Heterocycles with Retained Names

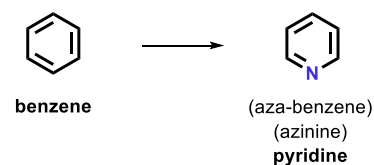
Several important heterocycles predate the Hantzsch-Widman Nomenclature and these keep their **historic names**



Carbon-Framework Substitution

Used to describe complex (multiple fused together) and large (>10 in ring) heterocycles

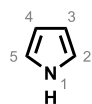
1. Name the all carbon version of the heterocycle - there are robust methods for describing complex all-carbon structures
2. Use substitution to describe the positions of the heteroatoms



Numbering

Starting at 1 = the HETEROATOM with the:

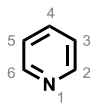
- BIGGEST PERIOD followed by SMALLEST ROW in the periodic table
- If there are multiple heteroatoms, the most saturated one takes the lowest number
- Number in a direction that gives other heteroatoms lowest numbers
- Number in a direction that gives substituents lowest numbers
- Isoquinoline takes the same numbering system as quinoline



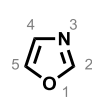
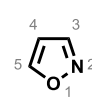
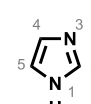
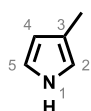
pyrrole



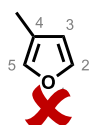
furan

thiophene
(thiole)

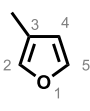
pyridine

oxazole
(1,3-oxazole)isoxazole
(1,2-oxazole)imidazole
(1,2-diazole)

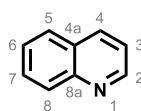
pyrrole



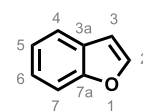
furan



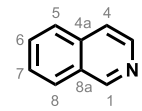
furan



quinoline



benzofuran



isoquinoline

number to give any substituent
the lowest number

numbering **SKIPS**
ring junction carbon atoms

numbering for isoquinoline
is the **SAME** as quinoline and
does not start with N=1

Degree of Unsaturation

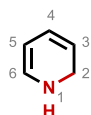
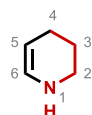
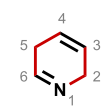
For partially unsaturated systems, start with the saturated system and describe which double bonds are missing:



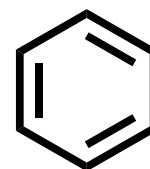
furan

2,3-dihydro
furantetrahydro
furan (THF)

pyridine

1,2-dihydro
pyridine1,2,3,4-tetra
hydropyridine(hexahydro
pyridine)
piperidine2,5-dihydro
pyridine

Aromaticity

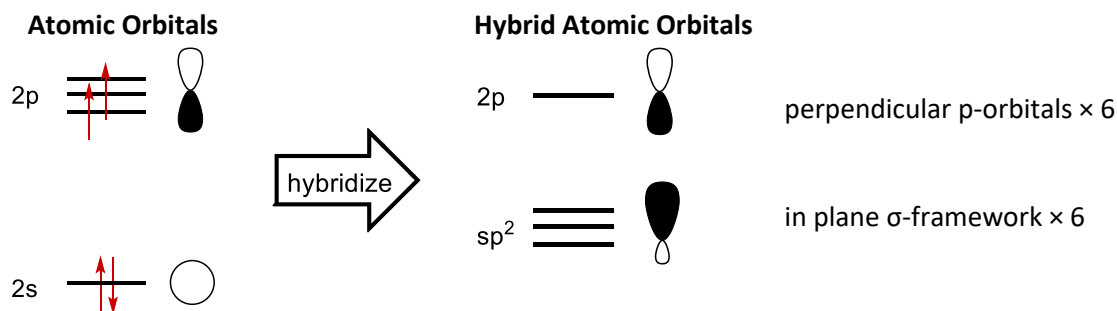


Benzene

Carbon's electronic configuration is $1s^2 2s^2 2p^2$

Mixing the atomic orbitals creates hybrid atomic orbitals ($2s + 2 \times 2p \rightarrow sp^2 + 2p$)

The sp^2 orbitals overlap to create the σ -bond network in the plane of benzene



2nd Year
Y3

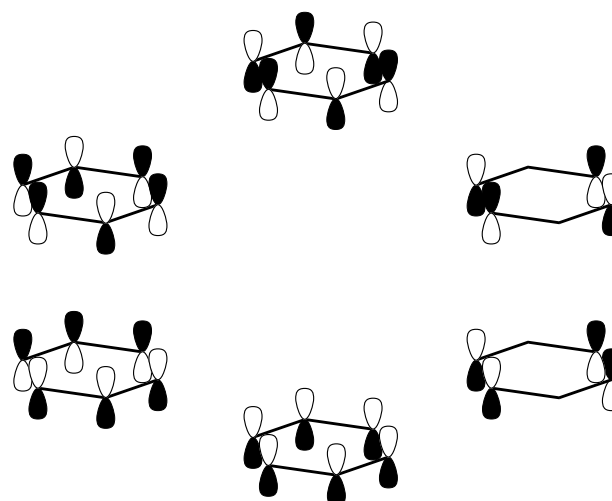
The remaining p orbitals overlap to create an **AROMATIC** system.

N.B. Hückel's rule Rules for Aromaticity

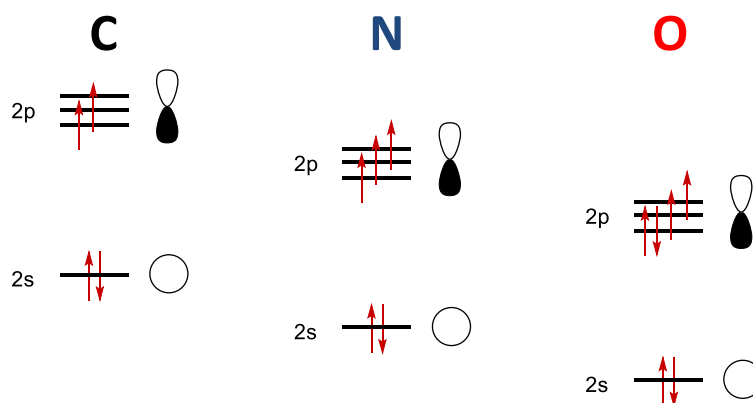
- Flat
- Cyclic
- Contiguous (non-broken) p-orbitals
- $4n+2$ electrons

In benzene, all the atoms are the same so the orbitals are completely **symmetrical**

There are 6 molecular π -orbitals in benzene:



Nitrogen and oxygen are both more electronegative than carbon so have lower energy atomic orbitals



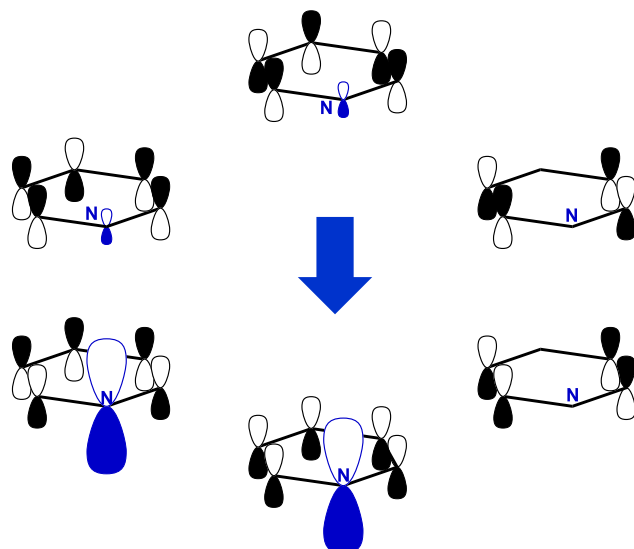
Electronegativity

2.55

3.04

3.44

Pyridine

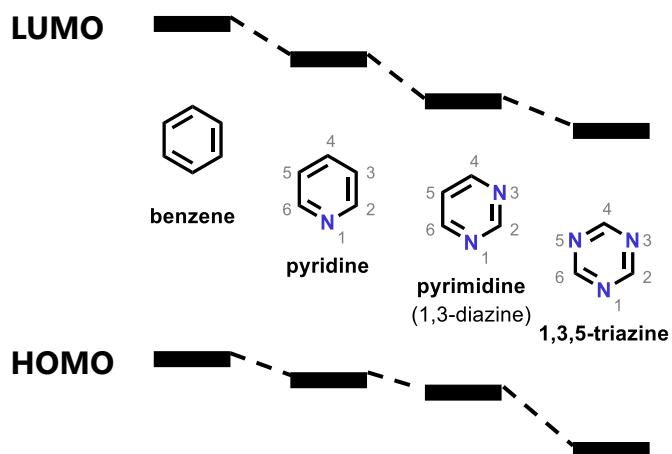


Black/Blue, White represents orbital phase

In 6-membered aromatic heterocycles, i.e. pyridine, the aromatic system includes a p orbital from electronegative N.

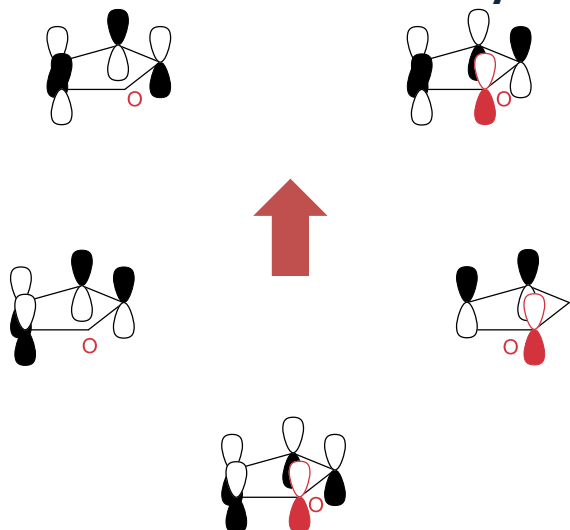
Pyridines are
BETTER ELECTROPHILES
and
WORSE NUCLEOPHILES

Azines



Having more nitrogen atoms in the heterocycle results in lower energy orbitals and therefore the behaviour of a better electrophile and worse nucleophile

5-Membered Aromatic Heterocycles



4n+2 electrons:

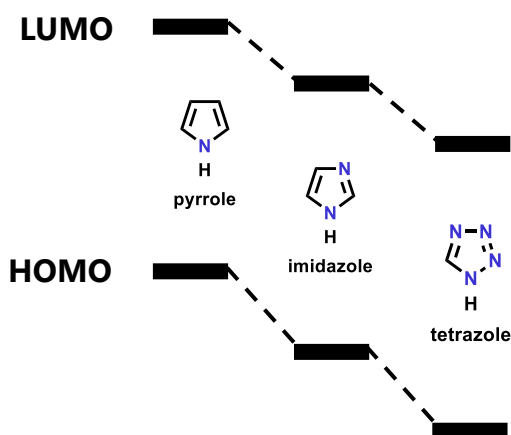
4 × C p-orbitals	4 electrons
1 × LONE PAIR	2 electrons

In 5-membered aromatic heterocycles, the aromatic system includes a higher energy lone pair from the heteroatom.

5-Membered heterocycles are
WORSE ELECTROPHILES
and
BETTER NUCLEOPHILES.

Black/Red, White represents orbital phase

5-Membered Aromatic Multiheteroatom Heterocycles

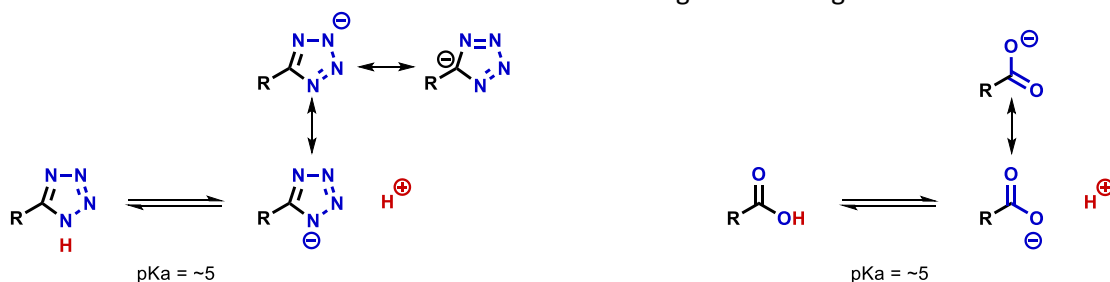


The aromatic system is built using a high energy lone pair → electron rich

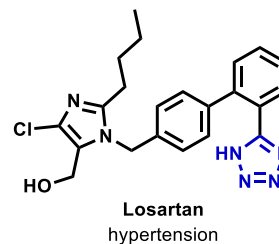
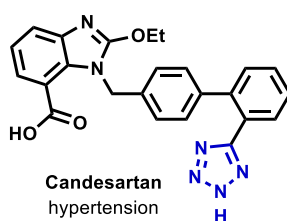
The inclusion of an electronegative atom in the ring so more → electron poor

Tetrazoles

The four electronegative nitrogen atoms in tetrazole make the system very electron deficient. Tetrazole is acidic – the tetrazole anion well stabilised throughout the ring.



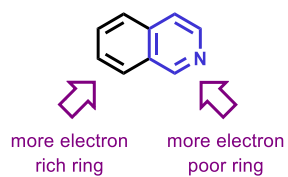
Tetrazole is an **isostere** for carboxylic acids in drug compounds, for example:



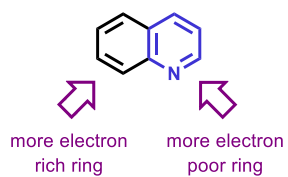
Fused Heterocycles

These concepts can be applied to fused heterocycles:

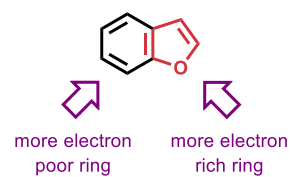
ELECTRON POOR SYSTEM



ELECTRON POOR SYSTEM



ELECTRON RICH SYSTEM



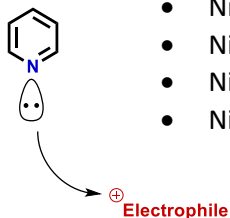
- Isoquinoline and quinoline (like pyridine) are electron poor because the aromatic system includes an electronegative nitrogen
- Benzofuran, indole and benzothiophene (like furan, pyrrole & thiophene) are electron rich because the aromatic system includes a lone pair
- The effect is most focussed on the heterocyclic ring

Reactivity of 6-Membered Heterocycles

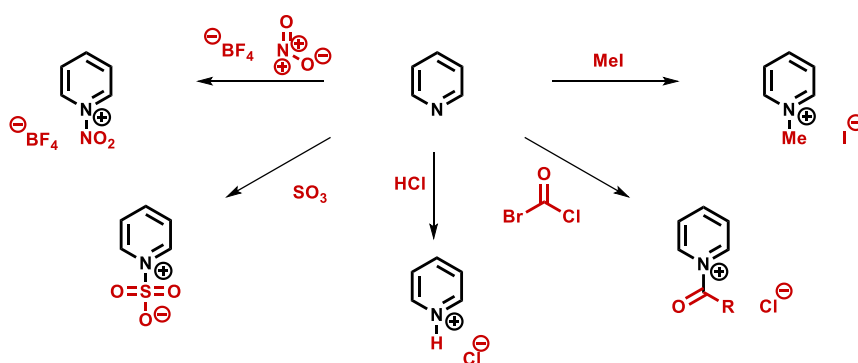
Pyridine Lone Pair

Pyridine

- $4n + 2 = 6$ electrons from 3 double bonds
- Nitrogen lone pair is **NOT part of aromatic system**
- Nitrogen lone pair is the **HOMO**
- Nitrogen lone pair is **nucleophilic**
- Nitrogen lone pair is **basic**

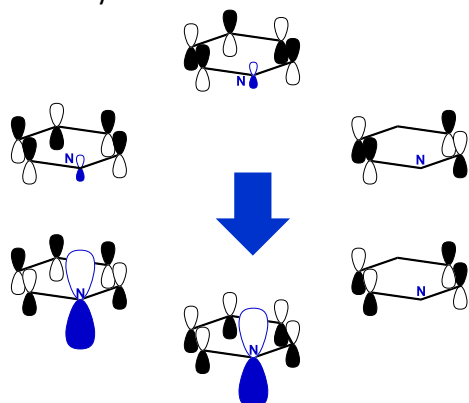


- The nitrogen lone pair reacts readily with acids and electrophiles:

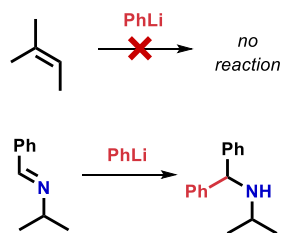


Pyridines as Electrophiles

The electronegative nitrogen lowers the energy of the aromatic system:



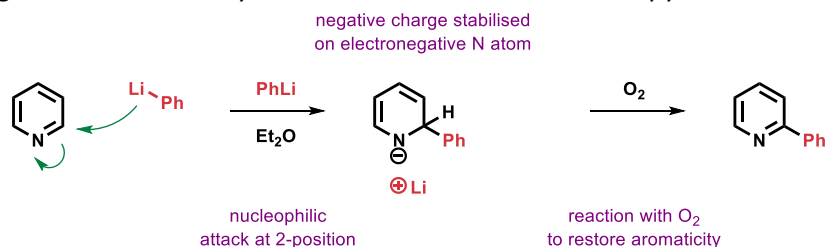
Consider the difference between benzene and pyridine and the difference between an alkene and an imine:



Therefore, pyridine can be expected to be an improved electrophile.

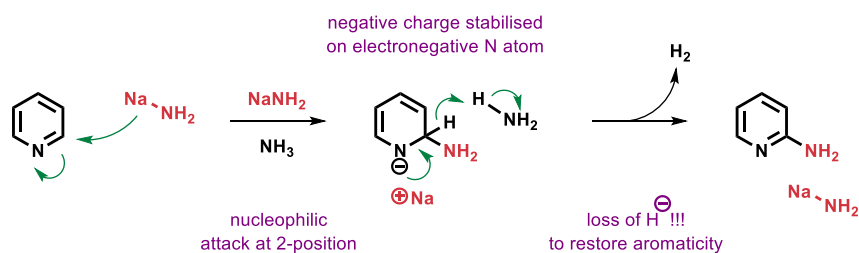
Carbon Nucleophiles

- Carbon nucleophiles attack the 2-position of the pyridine (cf. imine)
- The resulting negative charge is stabilised on the electronegative nitrogen atom
- The resulting anion is oxidised by reaction with O_2 in the air to the pyridine



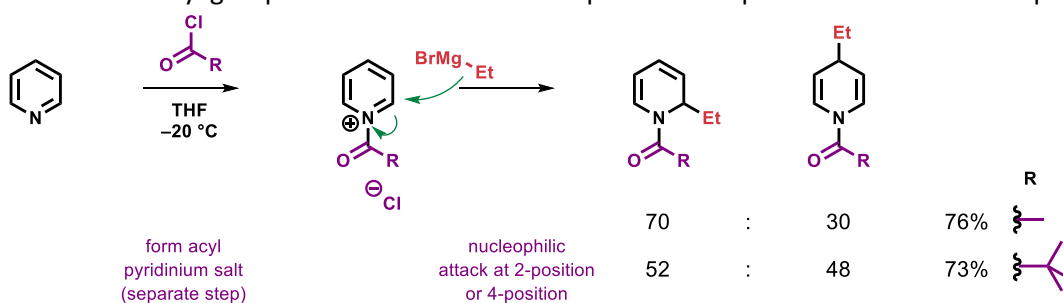
Chichibabin Reaction

- Reaction with sodium/lithium amide in ammonia is known as the Chichibabin Reaction
- The amide anion attacks the 2-position of the pyridine (cf. imine)
- The resulting negative charge is stabilised on the electronegative nitrogen atom
- This reaction ends with **HYDRIDE TRANSFER** (loss of H^-) i.e. oxidation
- This is one of very few examples where you see an arrow with H^- leaving



Reaction of Pyridinium Salts

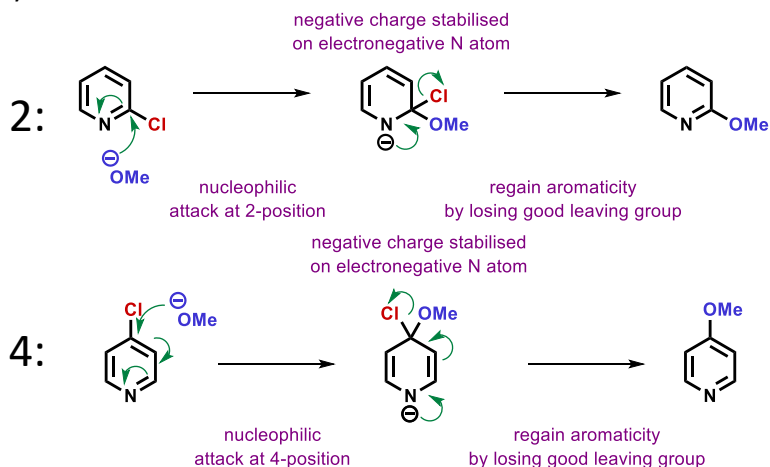
- Pyridines react with acyl chlorides to form acyl pyridinium salts
- The positive charge makes the pyridine more electrophilic
- The size of the acyl group can block attack at the 2-position and promote attack at the 4-position



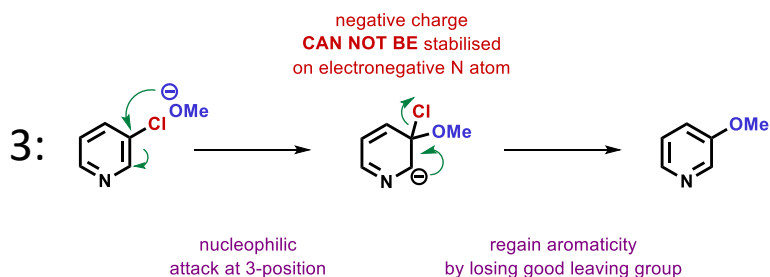
Pyridines as Electrophiles: Nucleophilic Aromatic Substitution

A nucleophile attacks the electron poor pyridine, at the position of the electronegative leaving group. Then the leaving group leaves to restore aromaticity.

Nucleophilic substitution occurs fastest at the 2- and 4-positions because the negative charge in the intermediate complex is stabilised on the electronegative nitrogen atom.



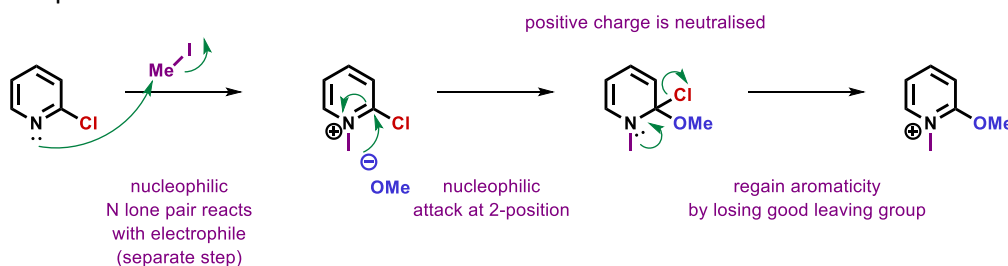
Nucleophilic substitution occurs slower at the 3- position because the negative charge in the intermediate complex can't be stabilised on the electronegative nitrogen atom.



HOWEVER, the aromatic system is still electron poor so substitution does occur.

Pyridinium

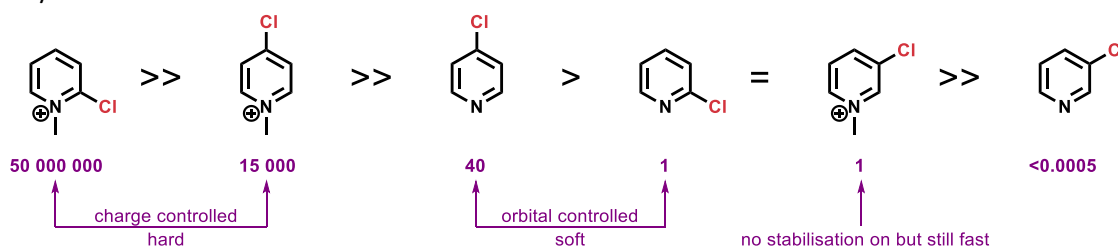
- Pyridines react with electrophiles to form pyridinium salts.
- Mechanism: nucleophilic attack with stabilisation of the negative charge by neutralisation of the positive charge followed by loss of a good leaving group to regain aromaticity.
- The permanent positive charge on the pyridinium means that the heterocycle is even more electron poor so this process is even faster.



- Similar reaction and mechanisms for pyridiniums 4- and 3-substituted with leaving groups.

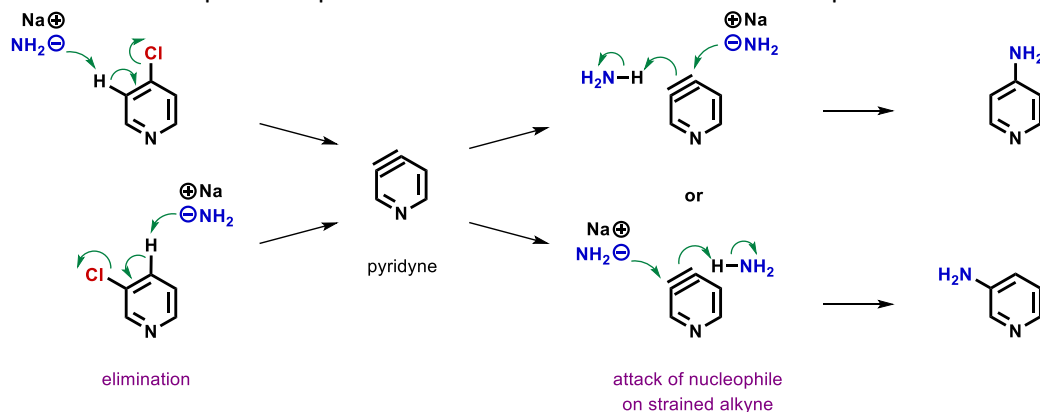
Reactivity Series

Relative rates of substitution reflect: overall charge; ability to stabilise negative charge on electronegative N atom; hard/soft interactions.



Pyridynes as Electrophiles

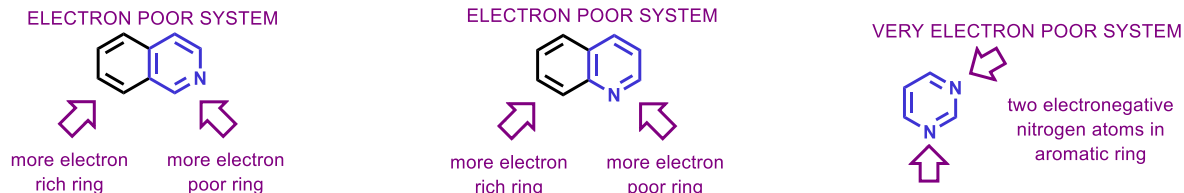
- Different substrates give same ratio of products – suggests proceeds through common intermediate.
- With some leaving groups and strong bases, there can be competition between elimination and substitution.
- Elimination of HCl to form a pyridyne – a highly strained alkyne within a 6-membered ring.
- Attack of the nucleophile can proceed at either end to form a mixture of products.



Fused Azines and Diazines as Electrophiles

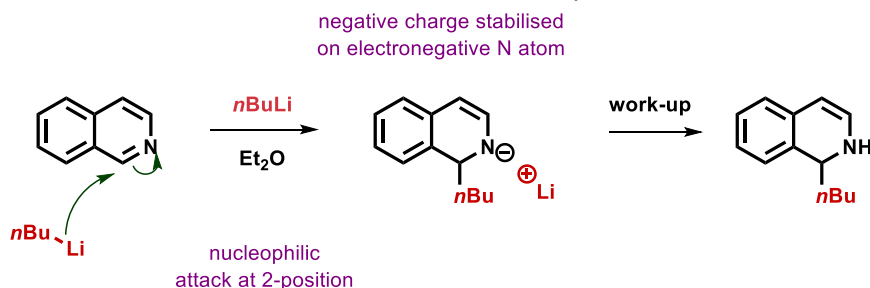
In **quinolines** and **isoquinolines** a pyridine ring is fused to a benzene ring. The electronegative nitrogen atom makes the whole system electron-poor. The ring containing the nitrogen atom is more electron poor relative to the all-carbon ring that is electron rich.

In diazines such as **pyrimidine** there is an additional electronegative nitrogen atom in the ring so this system is more electron poor.



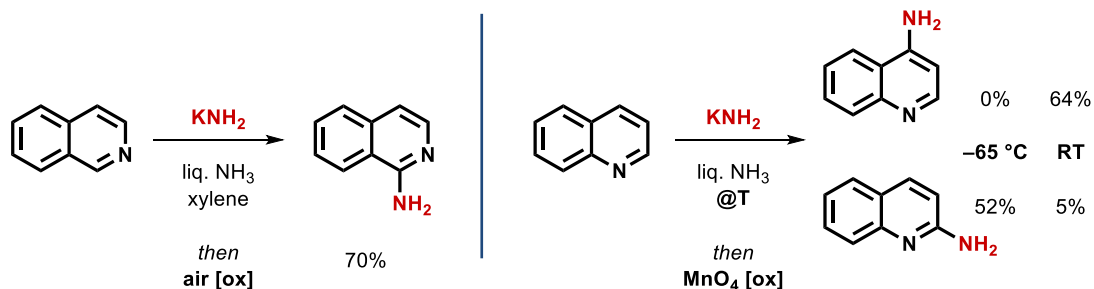
Nucleophilic Attack of C-Nucleophiles

In isoquinolines, nucleophilic attack by carbanion at the 1-position to give an anion stabilised on the electronegative nitrogen atom. The reaction is on this ring because this contains the nitrogen atom. Unlike pyridine there is no *in situ* oxidation because not all the aromaticity is lost.



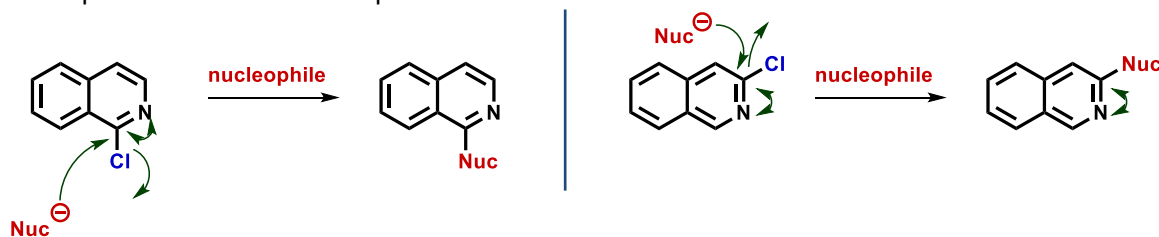
Chichibabin Amination

Nucleophilic attack by NH_2 at the appropriate position to stabilise negative charge on the electronegative nitrogen atom. Reaction is on the more electron poor ring that contains the nitrogen atom. Unlike pyridine, there is no in situ oxidation because not all the aromaticity is lost so an external oxidant is added.

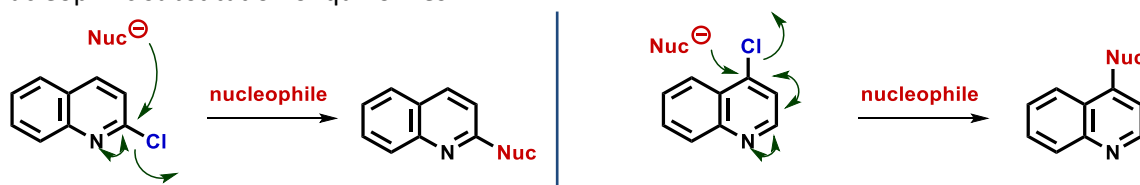
**Nucleophilic Substitution**

Nucleophiles react with isoquinolines and quinolines with good leaving groups (Cl, Br, F, I OMs, etc...). The nucleophile attacks the aromatic system at the leaving group with stabilisation of the negative charge on the electronegative atom followed by loss of the leaving group to regain aromaticity. The effect is most pronounced on the ring containing the nitrogen atom.

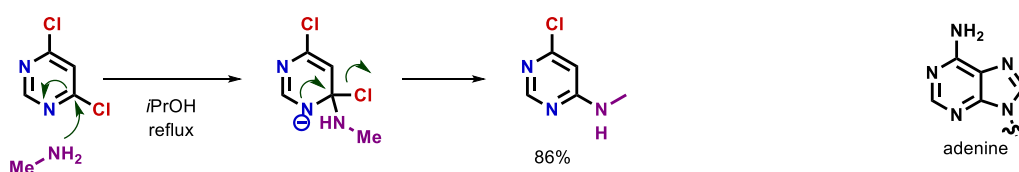
- Nucleophilic substitution of isoquinolines



- Nucleophilic substitution of quinolines

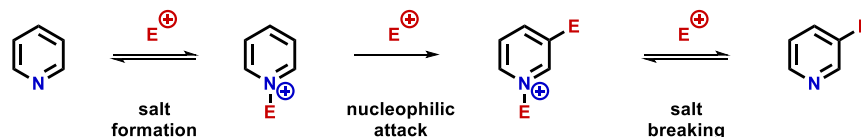
**Electrophilic Aromatic Substitution of Azines**

Nucleophiles react with azines with good leaving groups (Cl, Br, F, I OMs, etc...). Diazines react faster than the corresponding pyridines. The nucleophile attacks the aromatic system at the leaving group with stabilisation of the negative charge on the electronegative atom followed by loss of the leaving group to regain aromaticity. In this case, the reaction stops after one iteration because NHMe is electron donating and this is a useful reaction for the preparation of DNA base pair analogues.



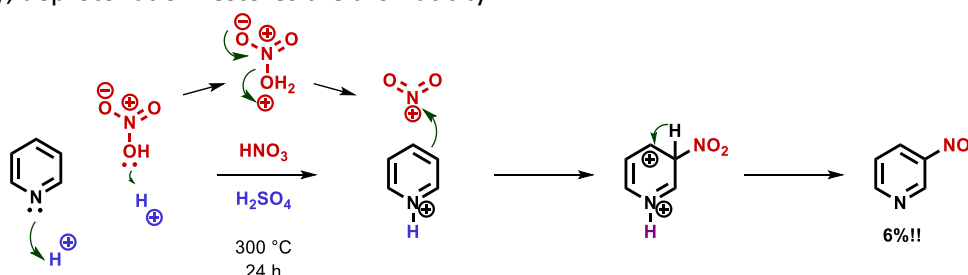
Pyridines as Nucleophiles: Electrophilic Aromatic Substitution

- 6-Membered heterocycles are electron poor so are not good nucleophiles.
- The nucleophilic nitrogen lone pair reacts first, creating a pyridinium salt whose positive charge makes the system even less nucleophilic. Then the electrophilic aromatic substitution occurs and finally, salt breaking delivers the product.

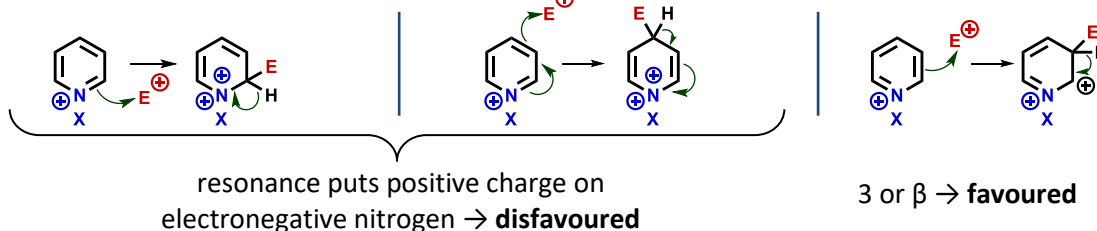


Nitration

- H_2SO_4 is a stronger acid than HNO_3 so HNO_3 is protonated and dehydrated to form the reactive species: NO_2^+
- The pyridine lone pair reacts with the acid to form a pyridinium salt
- Nucleophilic attack of pyridinium salt to the nitronium cation from 3-position
- Finally, deprotonation restores the aromaticity

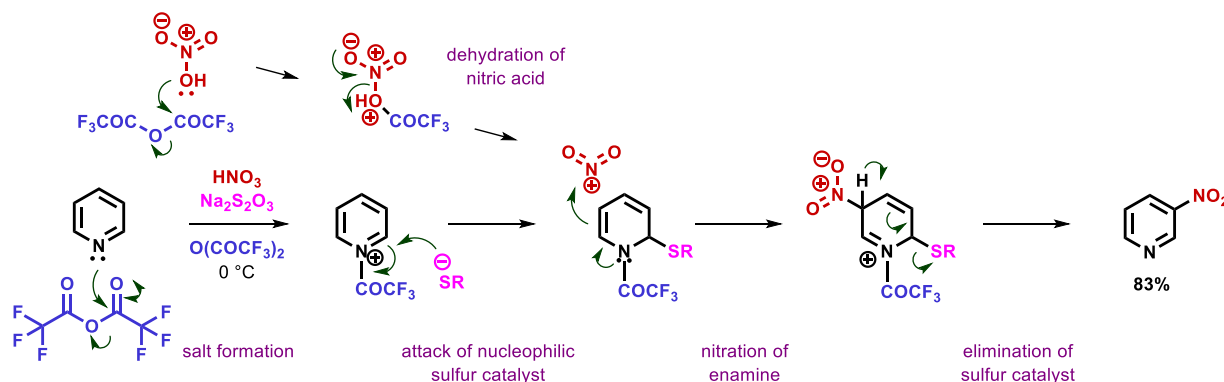


- Reaction from other positions lead to extra destabilisation of the system



Nitration of Pyridine Using a S-Nucleophilic Catalyst

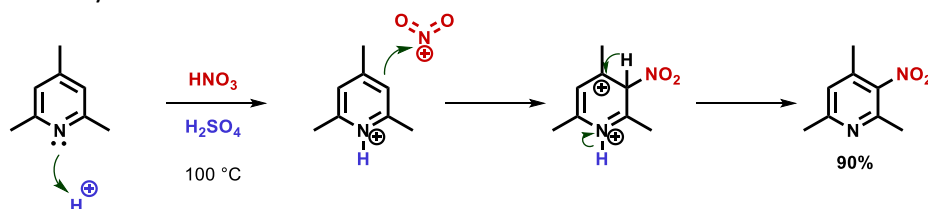
- Nitric acid is dehydrated by the **anhydride** (cf. H_2SO_4) to form the **nitronium cation** (NO_2^+)
- The pyridine lone pair reacts with the **anhydride** to form a pyridinium salt
- Nucleophilic attack of the **sulfur catalyst** to the ring, neutralising the positive charge on the pyridinium and breaking the aromatic system, resulting in an enamine
- Attack of the electron-rich enamine motif to the nitronium cation
- Elimination of the **sulfur catalyst** and restoration of aromaticity



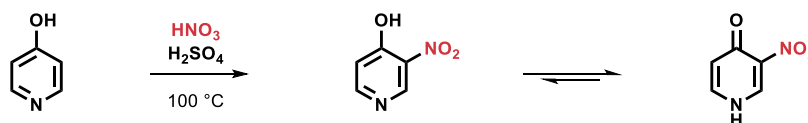
Nitration of Substituted Pyridines

Nitration of pyridines with electron donating substituents (OR, SR, NR₂, alkyl) is easier because the aromatic system is more electron rich.

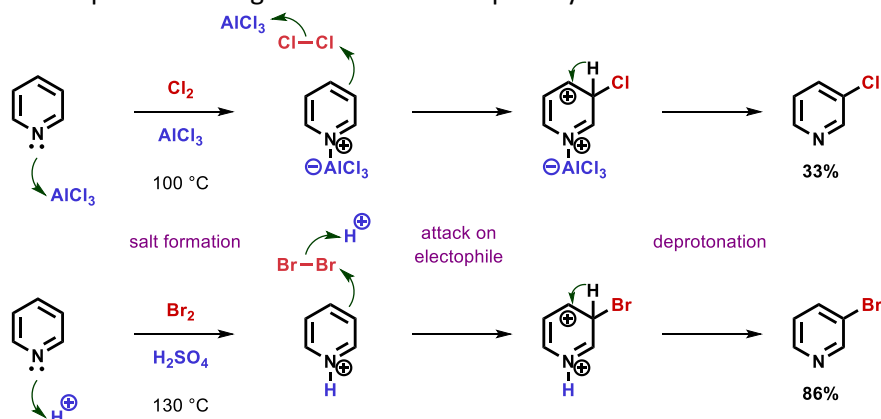
- Me is electron-donating so the reaction rate is increased and *ortho,para*-directing so the selectivity is reinforced



- OH is electron-donating so the reaction rate is increased and *ortho,para*-directing so the selectivity is reinforced. The product tautomerises to the ketone form.

**Halogenation of Pyridine**

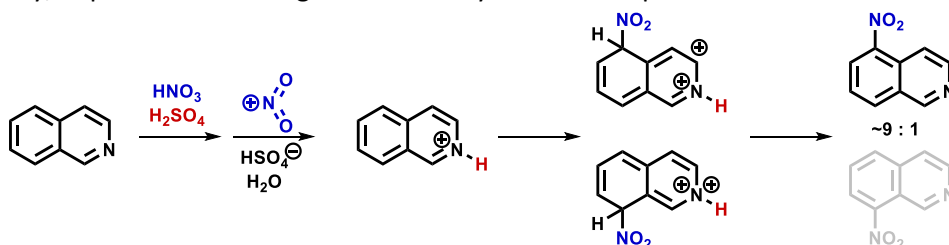
Halogenation proceeds by a similar mechanism and with similar selectivity to nitration. Forcing conditions are required to halogenate the electron poor system.



Quinolines and Isoquinolines as Nucleophiles: Electrophilic Aromatic Substitution

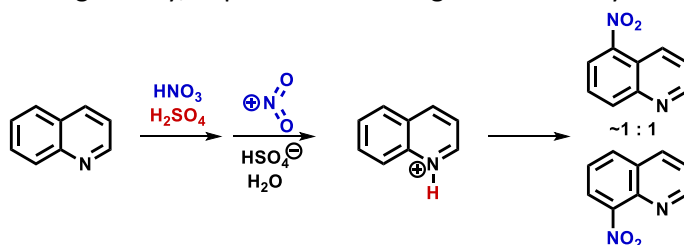
Nitration of Isoquinolines

Dehydration of nitric acid with sulfuric acid forms a nitronium cation. Protonation of nitrogen lone pair with acid forms the corresponding salt. Then nucleophilic attack by the π -system in the isoquinolinium salt from the 5-position gives least destabilisation of the positive charge and occurs on the more electron rich all-carbon ring. Finally, deprotonation to regain aromaticity delivers the product.



Nitration of Quinolines

Dehydration of nitric acid with sulfuric acid forms a nitronium cation. Protonation of nitrogen lone pair with acid forms the corresponding salt. Then nucleophilic attack by the π -system in the isoquinolinium salt from the more electron rich all-carbon ring. Finally, deprotonation to regain aromaticity delivers the product.

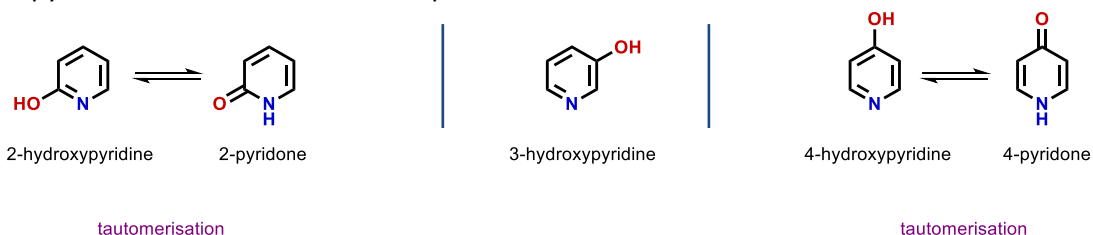


Reactions are **faster than pyridine** because the reaction is not on the nitrogen-containing ring but **slower than naphthalene** because there is still an electronegative nitrogen atom.

Oxygen-Substituted Pyridines

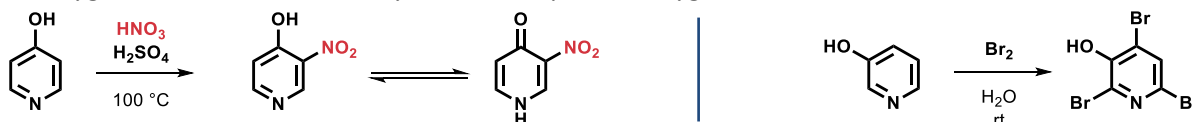
Hydroxypyridines

- Introduction of an oxygen atom next to ring changes the properties and reactivity of pyridine
- The ring is more electron rich
- There can be tautomerisation between carbonyl and hydroxy forms for 2- and 4- hydroxypyridines
- Tautomerisation does not result in an aromatic molecule for 3-hydroxypyridine
- The amine is now less basic: similar comparison between amines and amides
- The hydroxy tautomer is favoured in non-polar solvents and the pyridone tautomer is favoured in polar solvents



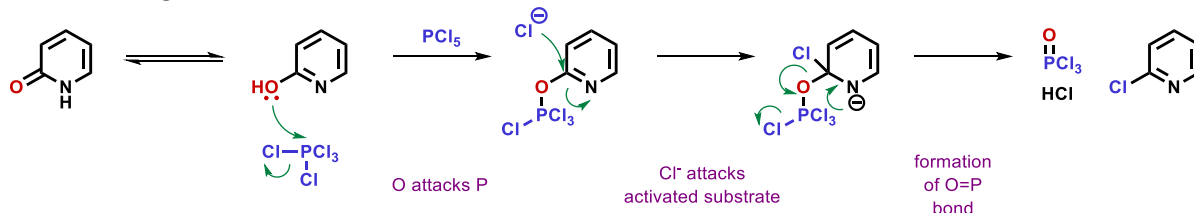
Electrophilic Aromatic Substitution

- Oxygen lone pair donation increases nucleophilicity
- Oxygen controls the selectivity \rightarrow *ortho* or *para* to oxygen



Halogenation of the Hydroxy Group

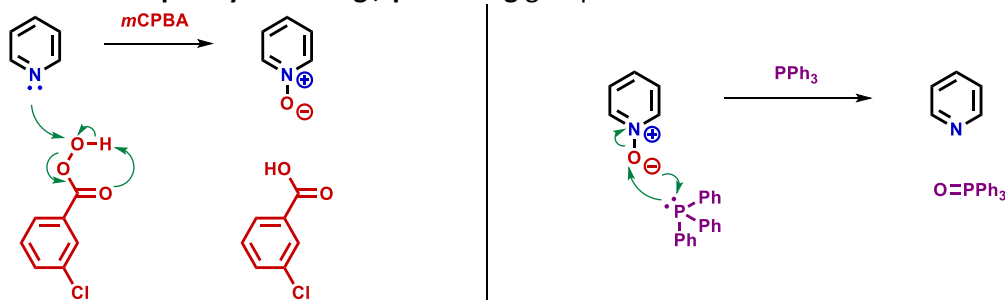
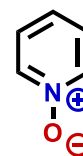
- The hydroxyl group can be converted into a halogen
- The driving force is the formation of the P=O double bond



This is a common reaction in chemistry - not just for pyridines!

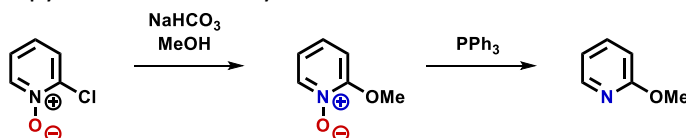
Pyridine *N*-Oxides

- The pyridine N atom is nucleophilic → it can also be oxidised using e.g. MCPBA
- The resulting N-oxide can also be reduced, e.g. using PPh₃
- So can serve as a **temporary activating / protecting** group



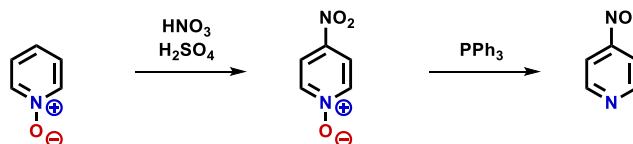
Activated Reactivity

- More electrophilic:** N is positively charged!
 - Compare to pyridinium reactivity



- The N-oxide can be reduced afterwards to reveal 4-substitutedpyridine

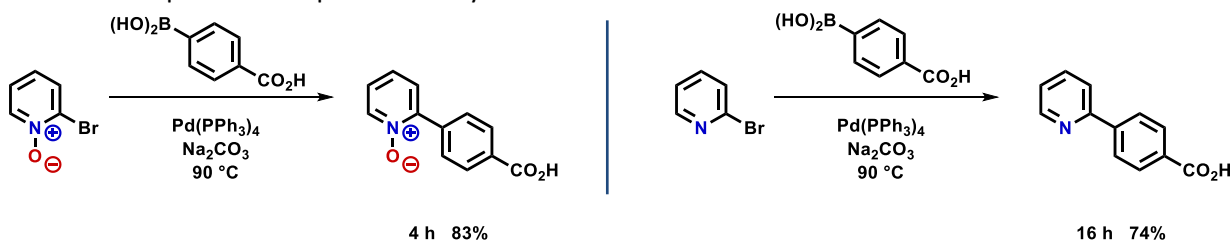
- More nucleophilic:** oxygen lone pair donates!
 - e.g. Nitration is easier



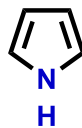
- The N-oxide can be reduced afterwards to reveal 4-nitropyridine

Protection of the *N* Lone Pair

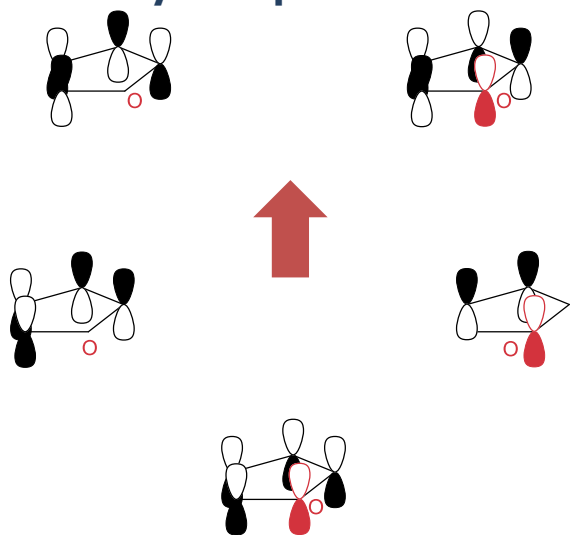
- Many modern reactions use transition metal catalysts
- The basic nitrogen lone pair can deactivate catalysts by ligating the metal
- The lone pair can be "protected" by conversion to the *N*-oxide



Reactivity of 5-Membered Aromatic Heterocycles



Aromaticity Recap



Black/Red, White represents orbital phase

$4n+2$ electrons:

4 × C p-orbitals 4 electrons

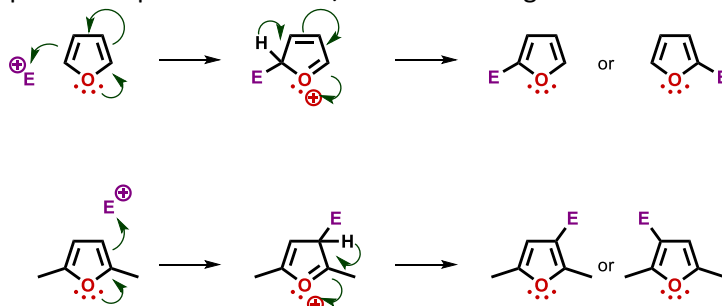
1 × LONE PAIR 2 electrons

In 5-membered aromatic heterocycles, the aromatic system includes a higher energy lone pair from the heteroatom.

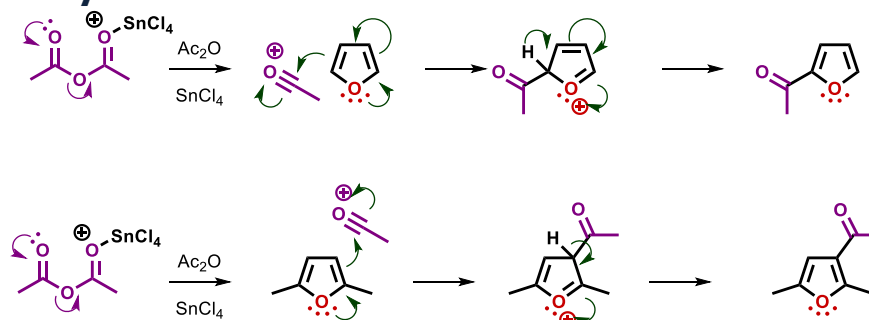
5-Membered heterocycles are
WORSE ELECTROPHILES
and
BETTER NUCLEOPHILES

Furan General Reactivity Pattern

- Aromaticity includes heteroatom lone pair → **electron rich**
- Can delocalise O lone pair to attack at all the positions of the ring but attack at the 2/5 position is preferred over 3/4 because charge is stabilised over more atoms



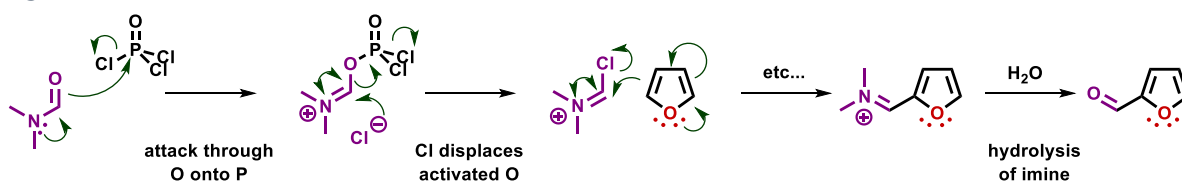
Friedel-Crafts Acylation



- Acylation still occurs if 2,5-position is blocked
- Activation of acyl group with Lewis acid (SnCl_4)
- Product is less reactive than starting material → control for mono-acylation

Vilsmeier Formylation

Furans

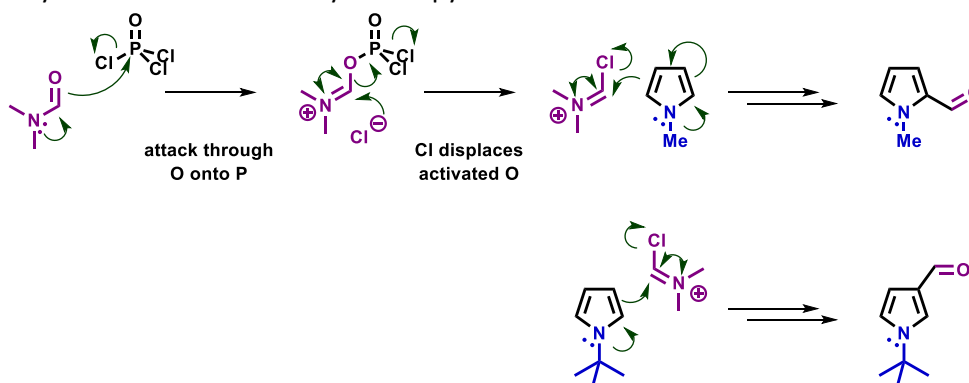


- Mechanism is the same as acylation but... key step is formation of the **activated Vilsmeier reagent**



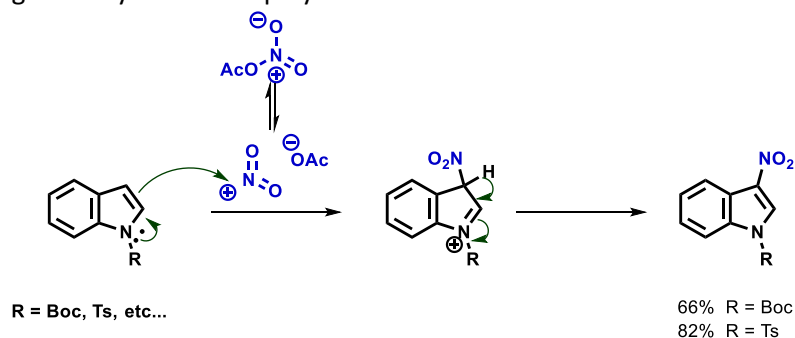
Pyrroles

- Selectivity for reaction is driven by **size** of pyrrole *N*-substituent

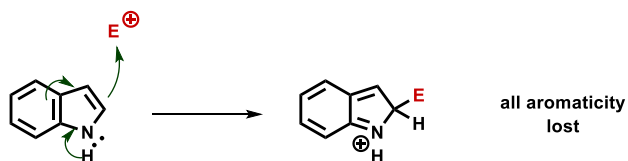


Indole Reactivity: Nitration

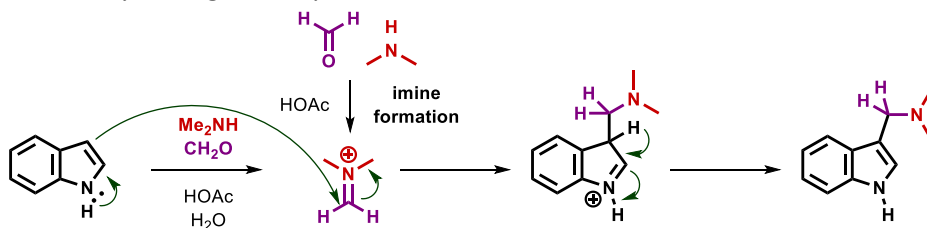
Unsubstituted indoles give low yield due to polymerisation



Reaction through the 2-position would break all aromaticity within the molecule

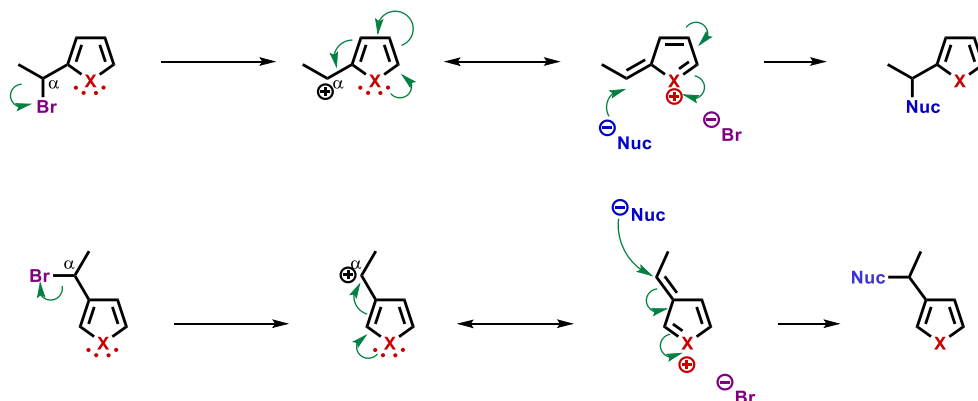
**Indole Reactivity: Mannich Reaction**

Indoles react preferentially through the 3-position

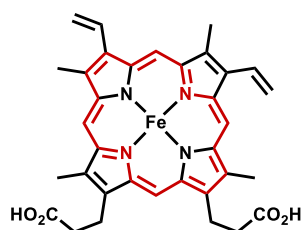
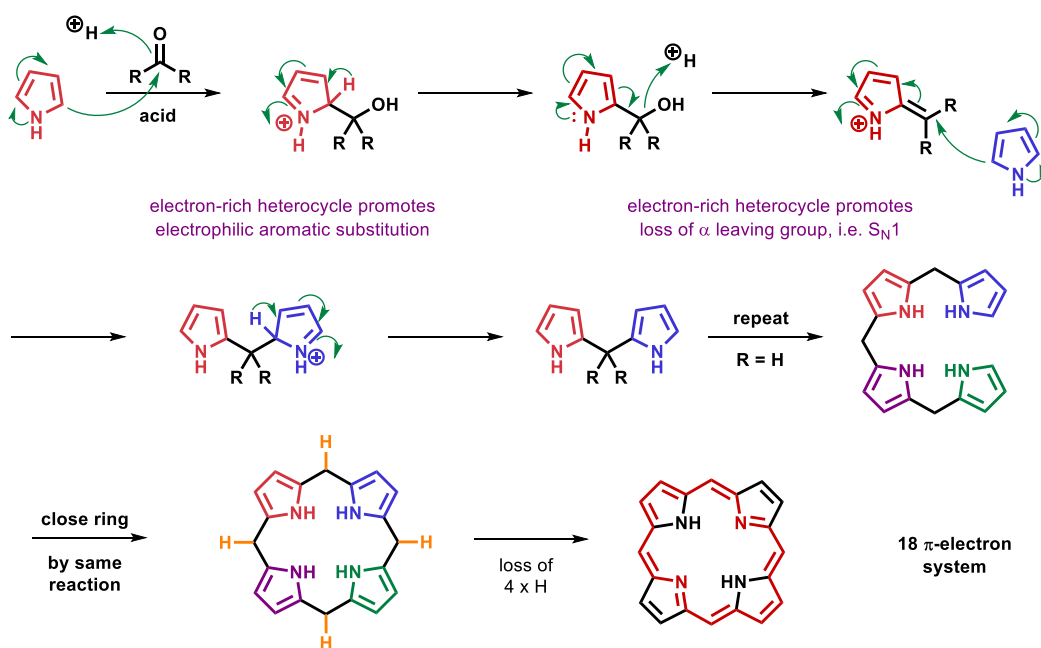


α -Reactivity of -oles

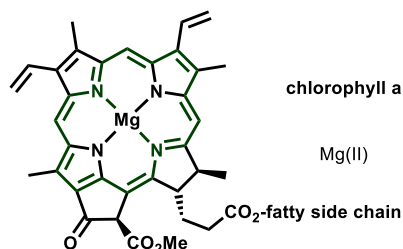
Pyrroles, furans and thiophenes are electron rich heterocycles and they can stabilise adjacent (α) positive charges. If there is a good leaving group in that position the heterocycle undergoes ready substitution reaction.

**Porphyrin Formation**

Electrophilic aromatic substitution and α -reactivity are combined in porphyrin synthesis



haem b
haemoglobin
Fe(II)

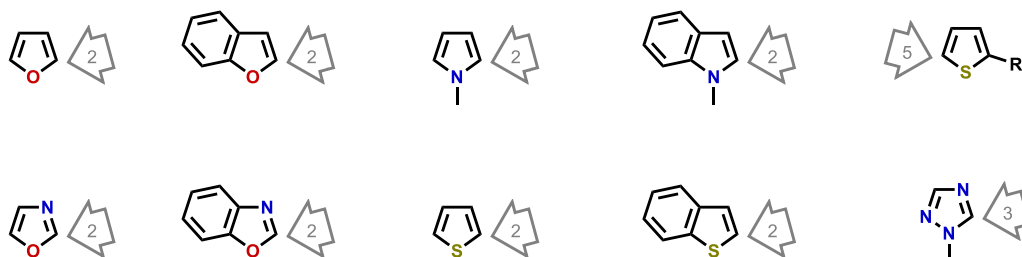


chlorophyll a
Mg(II)
CO₂-fatty side chain

General Reactivity of Heterocycles

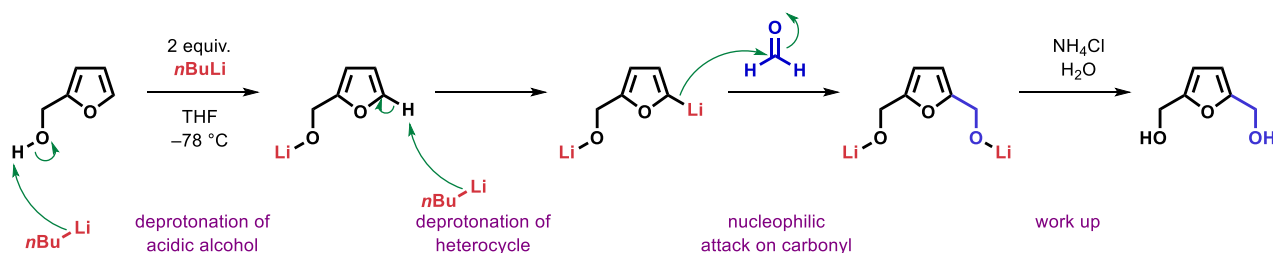
Lithiation

- 5-Membered heterocycles can be lithiated at predictable locations
- The lithiation occurs next to the electronegative atom



Furans:

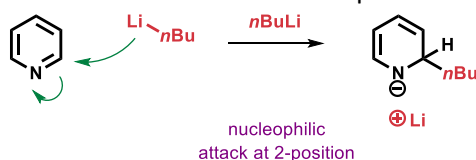
- The most acid proton is at the 2-position
 - Deprotonation occurs nearest the electronegative oxygen atom
- N.B. the sp^2 C-H bond is removed leaving the aromatic system in place



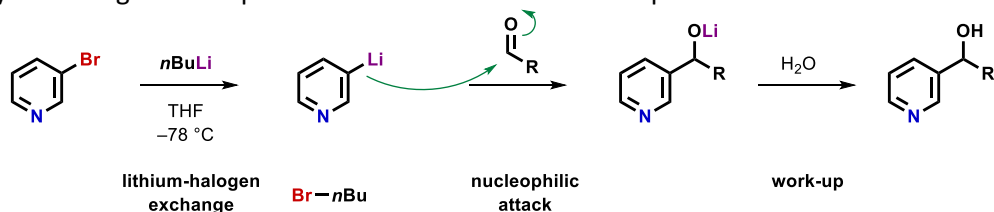
- The free OH in this example is more acidic than the furan so an excess of $nBuLi$ was required

Pyridines:

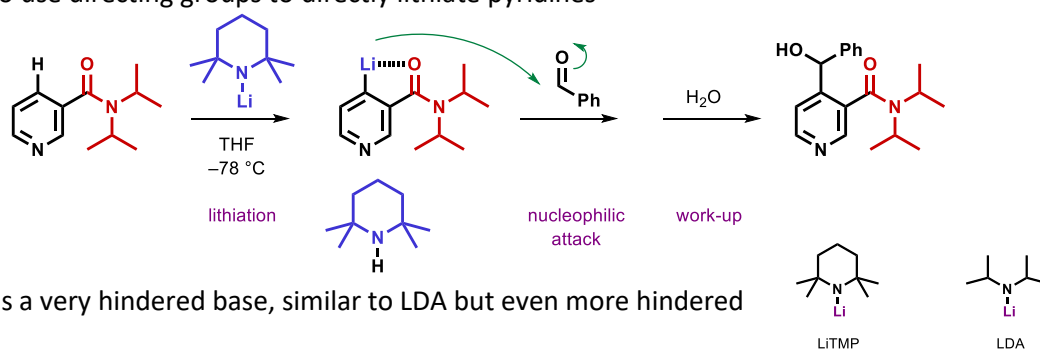
- Lithiation of pyridines does not occur and nucleophilic attack is preferred



- Lithiation of halogenated pyridines is possible
- N.B. you don't get nucleophilic substitution with C-Li nucleophiles

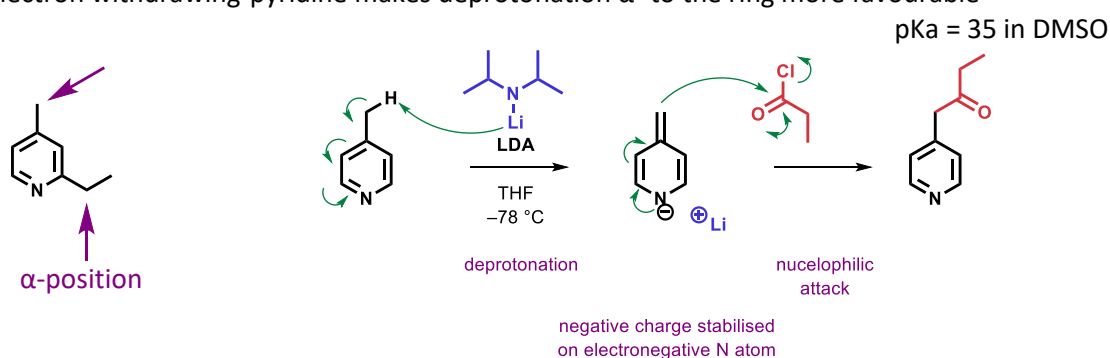


- Can also use directing groups to directly lithiate pyridines

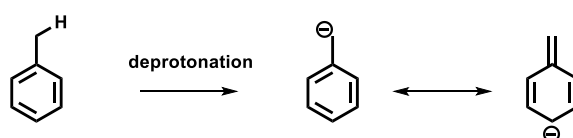


Deprotonation

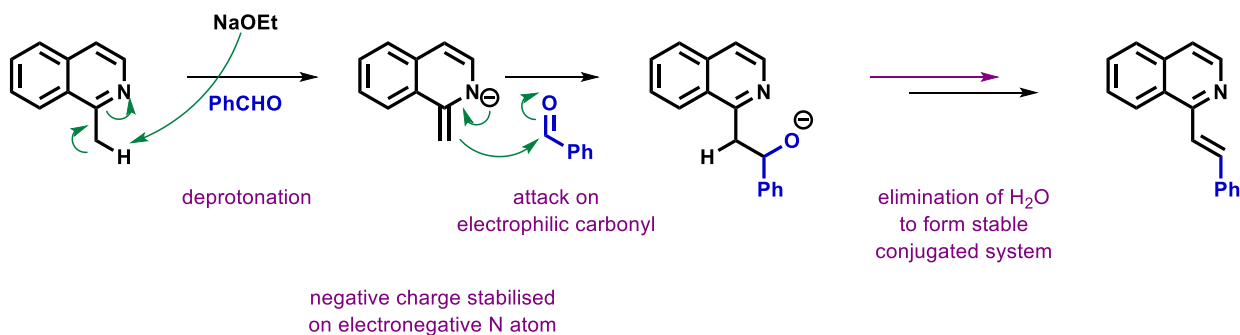
- The electron withdrawing-pyridine makes deprotonation α - to the ring more favourable



- In contrast deprotonation of toluene is much more difficult

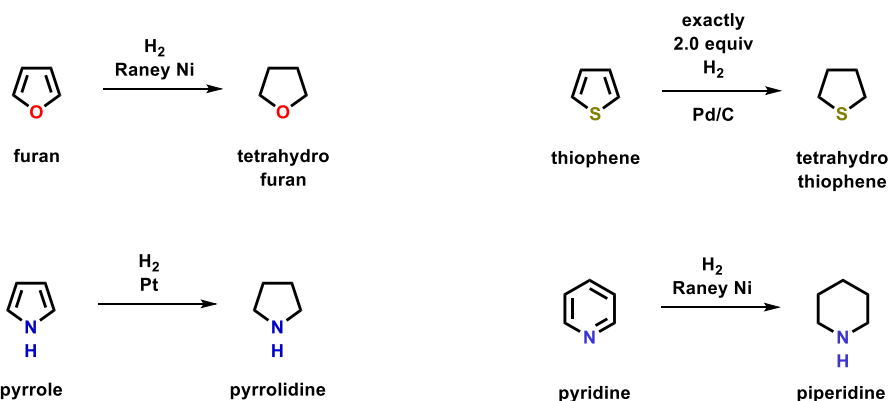


- In fused pyridines, deprotonation of the α -position occurs with the resulting negative charge of conjugate base distributed throughout aromatic system, including stabilisation on the electronegative heteroatom. Then this is a nucleophile that can attack an electrophile. Here, finally elimination of water to form a stable *trans*-conjugated system.



Reduction: Hydrogenation

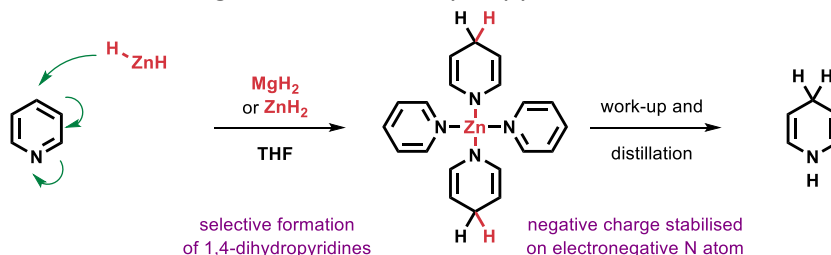
- Heterocycles can be reduced using H₂ and metal catalysts



- Raney Ni and Pt are very potent metal catalysts for reduction
- The reduction of thiophene requires exactly 2.0 equivalents of hydrogen to prevent reduction of the weak C–S bond

Reduction: Hydrides

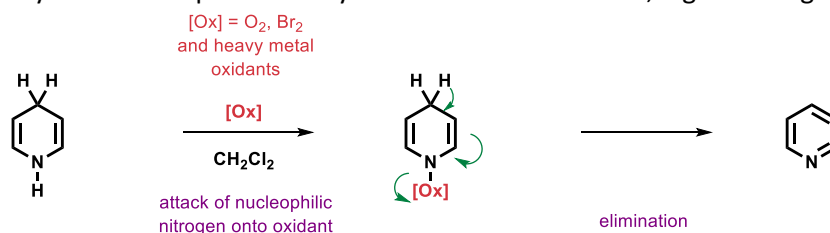
It is possible to partially reduce the heteroaromatic system using carefully controlled metal hydride conditions. Other reducing agents, such as LiAlH₄ give mixtures of dihydropyridines.



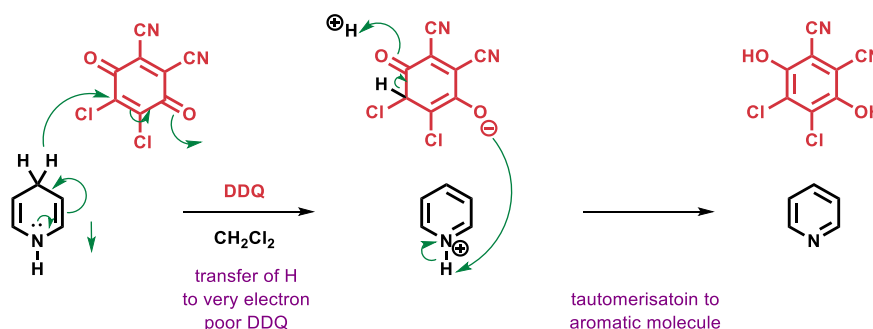
Oxidation

Partially saturated heterocycles are easily oxidised with a range of oxidising agents.

For agents such as oxygen, bromine and heavy metal oxidants there is attack of the nucleophilic nitrogen into the oxidant followed by elimination promoted by reduction of the oxidant, e.g. breaking the Br-Br bond.



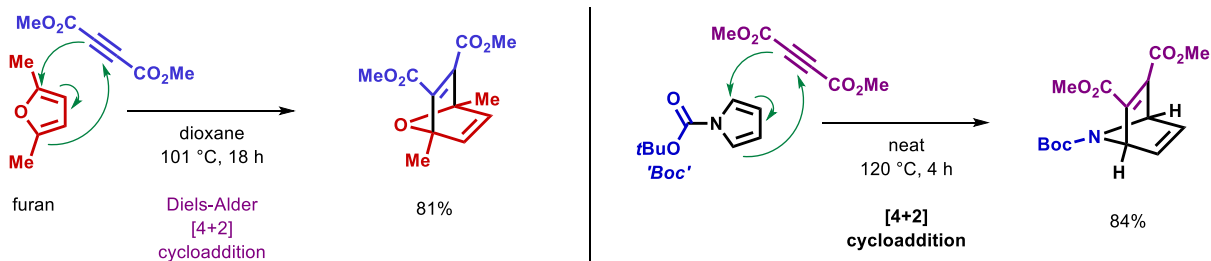
For DDQ, there is hydride transfer from the dihydropyridine to the very electron poor DDQ followed by tautomerisation.



Cycloaddition

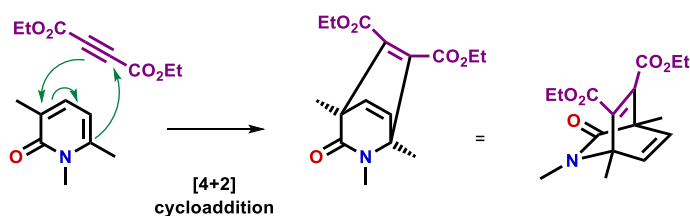
Furans and Pyrroles

- 5-membered heterocycles contain a diene system which is permanently locked in the *S-cis* conformation requisite for Diels-Alder cycloaddition
- Electron-rich systems are ideal for reactions with electron-poor dienophiles

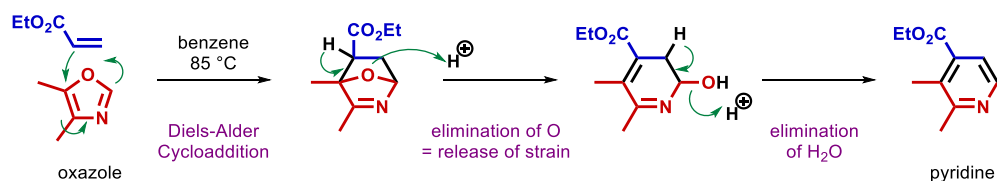


- Thiophene Diels-Alder reactions are difficult, requiring very high pressure

Pyridones



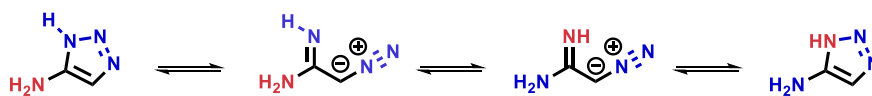
Oxazole → Pyridines



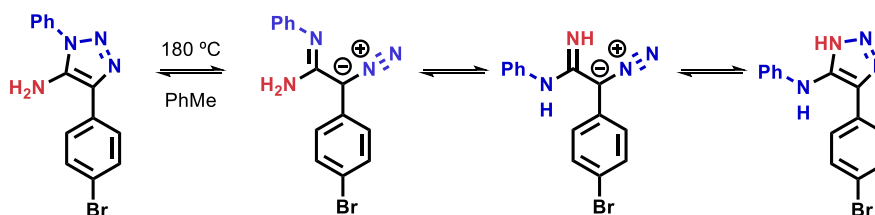
- Synthesis of one heterocycle (pyridine) from another (oxazole)
- Diels-Alder reaction is [4+2] cycloaddition
- Dienophiles have electron withdrawing groups (CO₂Et)
- Elimination driven by release of ring strain, then loss of water

Rearrangement

- Heterocycles with certain patterns of substitution can undergo rearrangement

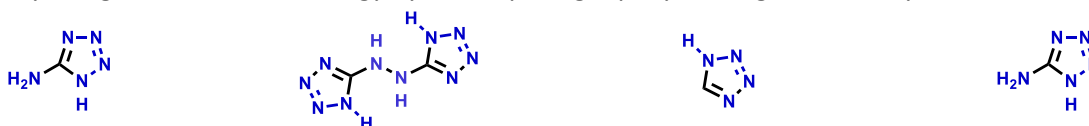


- The ring opens to the diazo compound
- The single bond rotates
- The ring closes back to the triazole



Tetrazoles: Explosive

- High nitrogen content compounds are explosives...
they can generate a lot of energy by decomposing rapidly making a lot of very stable N₂



- E.g. 4-aminotetrazole has a very high nitrogen component: CH₃N₅ → C 14%; H 4%; N 82%
- This compound has been evaluated to inflate airbags

Synthesis

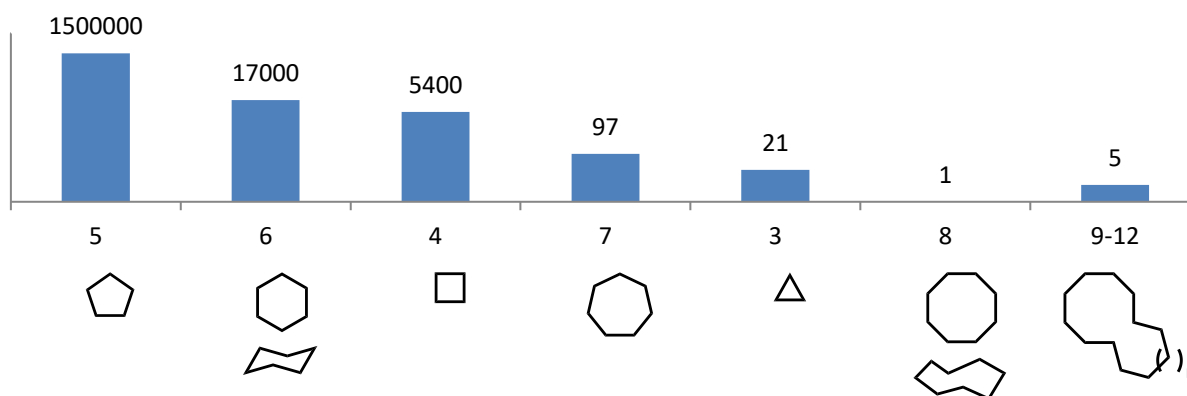
Rate of Formation of Different Rings

When considering rate of ring formation, there are 2 factors:

- What is the strain in the system? Unfavourable for small (<5) and medium (7-9) rings
- How easy is it for the ends to meet? Unfavourable for larger rings

5- and 6-membered rings are formed very easily!

N.B. LOGARITHMIC SCALE:



Basic Heterocycle Synthesis

- The most basic syntheses of heterocycles are based on **DEHYDRATION** and **CYCLISATION** of linear compounds to make **FIVE** or **SIX** membered rings

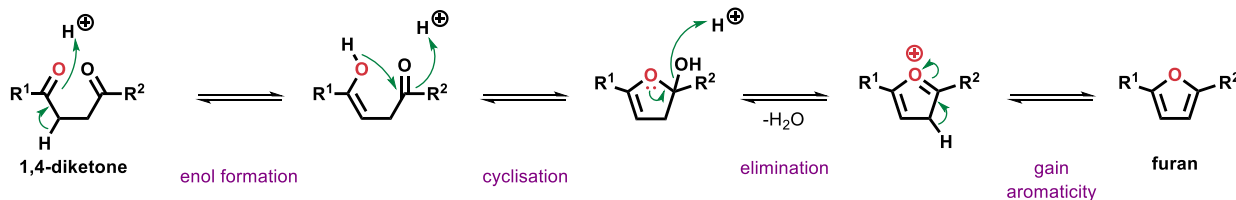
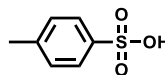
Synthesis Strategy

- Identify key heteroatom(s)
- Identify atoms in backbone
- Disconnect to the corresponding carbonyl species

Synthesis: use carbonyl species with appropriate heteroatom source

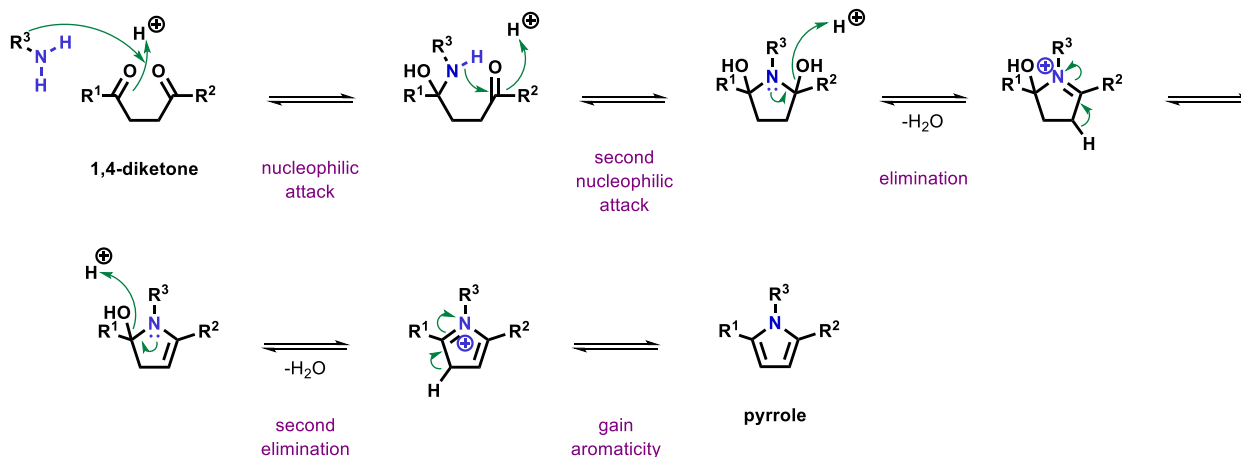
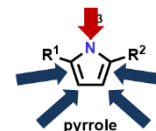
Paal-Knorr Furan Synthesis

- Conditions: **acid**, e.g. para-toluenesulfonic acid (PTSA)
- Substrates: **1,4-dicarbonyl**
- Product: **furan**
- Mechanism: **dehydration and cyclisation**
- **N.B.** This is reversible to removing water gives the furan and furans can be hydrolysed to the 1,4-dicarbonyl species.



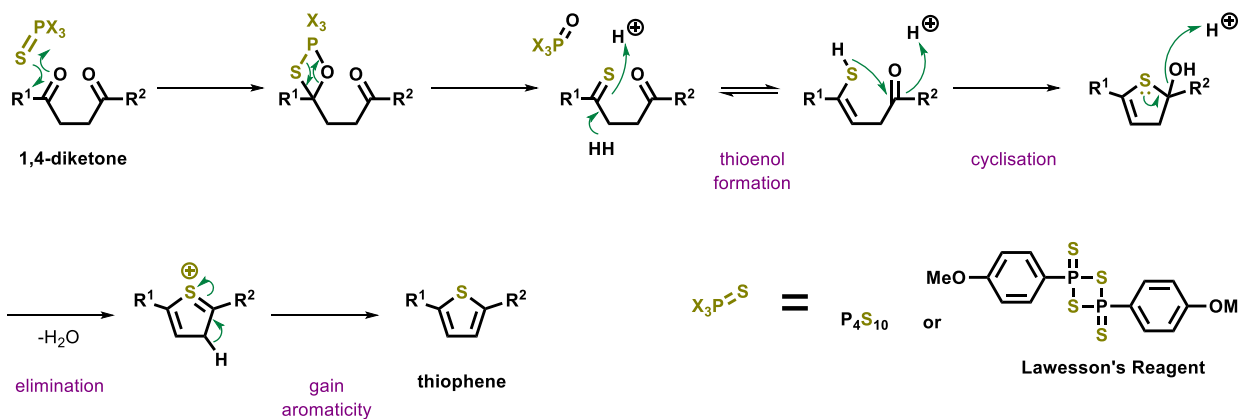
Paal-Knorr Pyrrole Synthesis

- Conditions: **acid**, e.g. para-toluenesulfonic acid (PTSA)
- Substrates: **amine** and **1,4-dicarbonyl**
- Product: **pyrrole**
- Mechanism: **dehydration and cyclisation**
- **N.B.** This is reversible



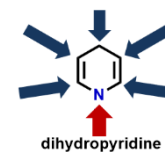
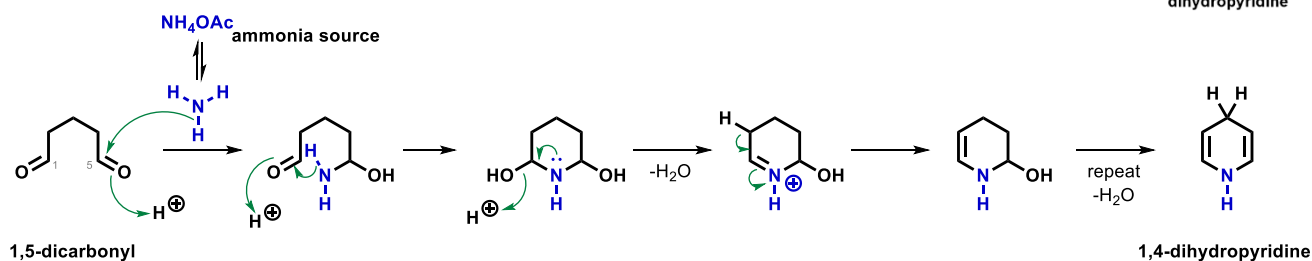
Paal-Knorr Thiophene Synthesis

- Conditions: **P=S reagent** – converts C=O into C=S and is dehydrating
- Substrates: **1,4-dicarbonyl**
- Product: **thiophene**
- Mechanism: **dehydration and cyclisation**
- Driving force is the formation of a strong **P=O** bond. S-exchange reagent also is **dehydrating** so promotes heterocycle formation

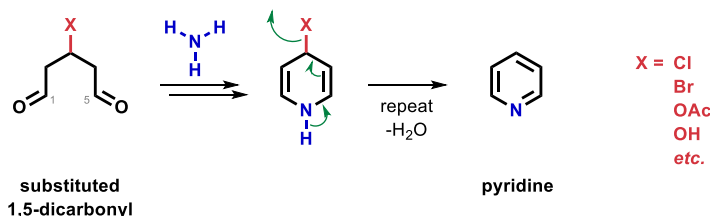


Dihydropyridine Synthesis

- 1,4-Dihydropyridines can be formed from the corresponding 1,5-dicarbonyl compound and an amine or ammonia or ammonia source (like ammonium acetate)



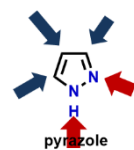
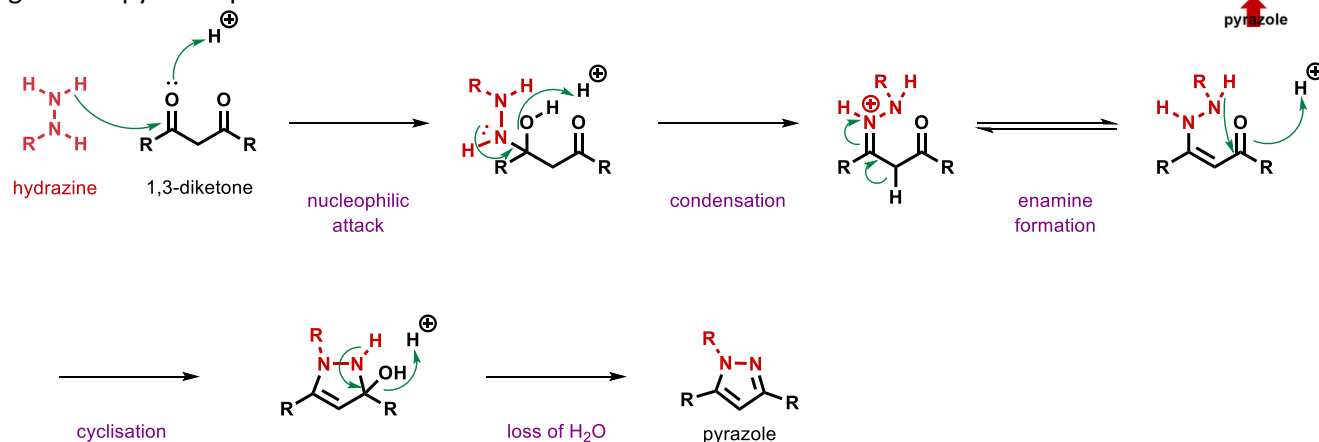
- Pyridines can be formed, driven by formation of aromaticity, if there is a leaving group on the ring



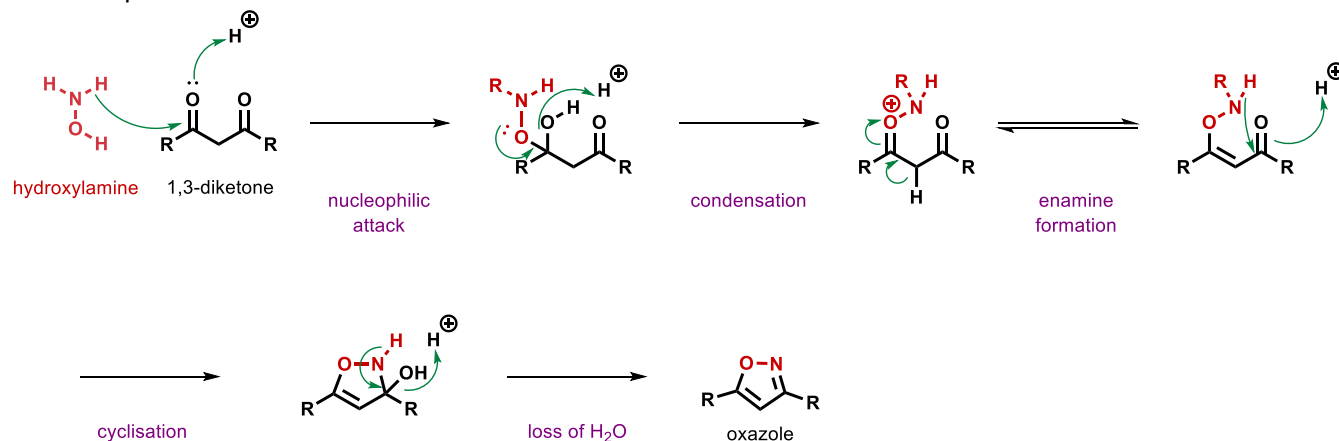
Pyrazoles and Oxazoles

Hydrazines are very good nucleophiles due to the adjacent lone pairs.

Initial attack of the nitrogen onto the carbonyl leads to dehydration and enamine formation. This is reversible so that the requisite Z-geometry is formed. Then cyclisation and loss of H₂O gives the pyrazole product.

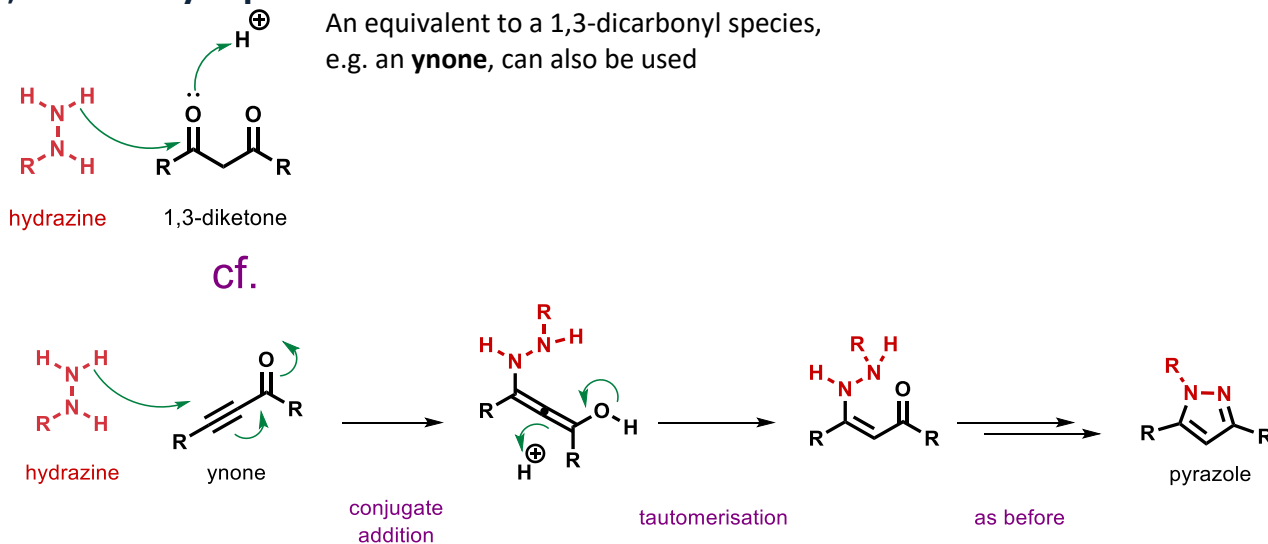


Swapping to hydroxylamine, this is still a very good nucleophile due to the adjacent lone pairs. Initial attack of the oxygen onto the carbonyl leads to dehydration and enol formation. This is reversible so that the requisite Z-geometry is formed. Then cyclisation and loss of H₂O gives the isoxazole product.



1,3-Dicarbonyl Equivalents

An equivalent to a 1,3-dicarbonyl species, e.g. an **ynone**, can also be used



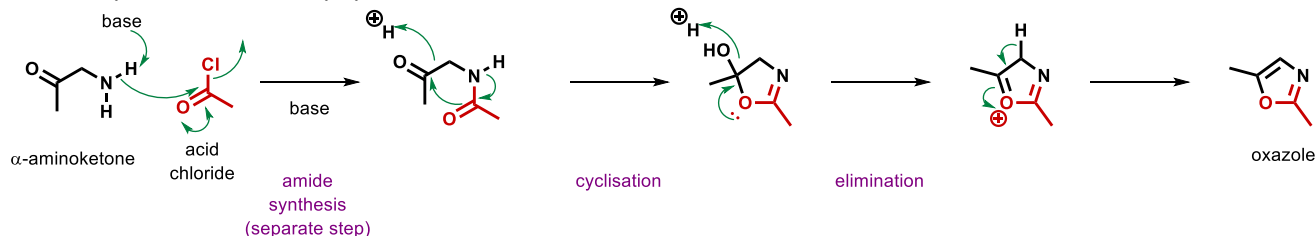
Robinson-Gabriel Oxazole Synthesis & Imidazole Synthesis

Amides are dehydrated under acidic conditions to the oxazole

Attack of the more nucleophilic amide carbonyl onto the more electrophilic ketone carbonyl

Originally promoted by concentrated H_2SO_4 , can also be promoted by dehydrating agents, e.g. PCl_5 , P_2O_{10} , POCl_3 , etc...

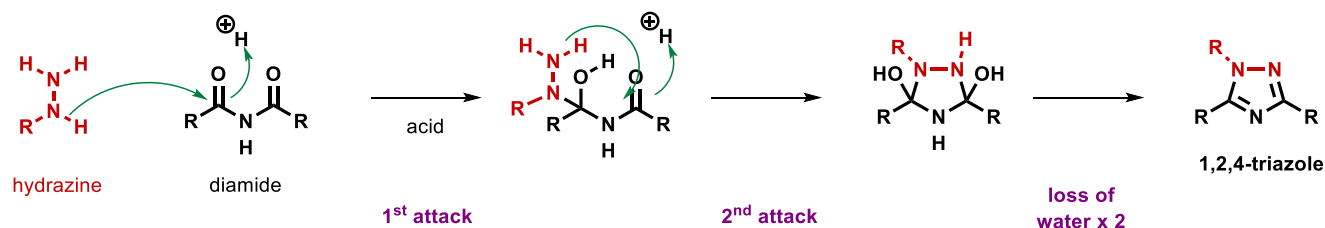
A similar process occurs in peptides to make oxazoles in nature



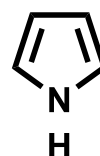
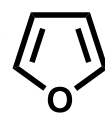
By introducing an amine RNH_2 the analogous imidazole can be synthesised.

Einhorn-Brunner Synthesis of 1,2,4-Triazoles

Using the same strategy we can condense a hydrazine with a diamide starting with double attack of the two nitrogen atoms followed by loss of two water molecules

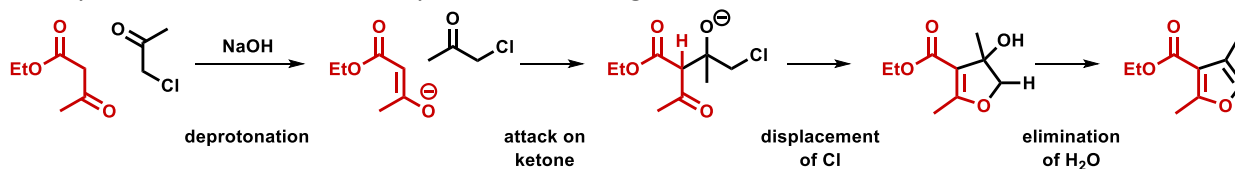


Synthesis of Furans and Pyrroles



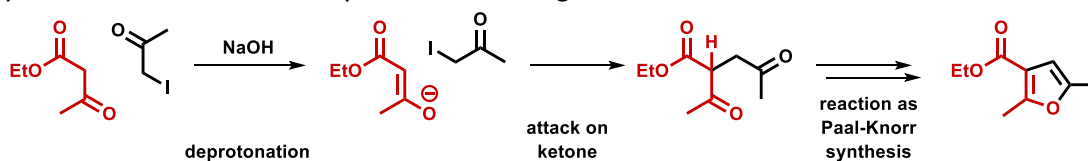
Feist-Benary Furan Synthesis

- Synthesis of furan from readily available building blocks

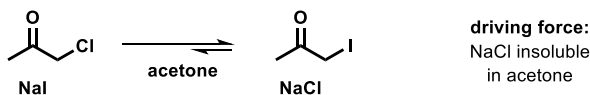


Modified Feist-Benary Furan Synthesis

- Synthesis of furan from readily available building blocks

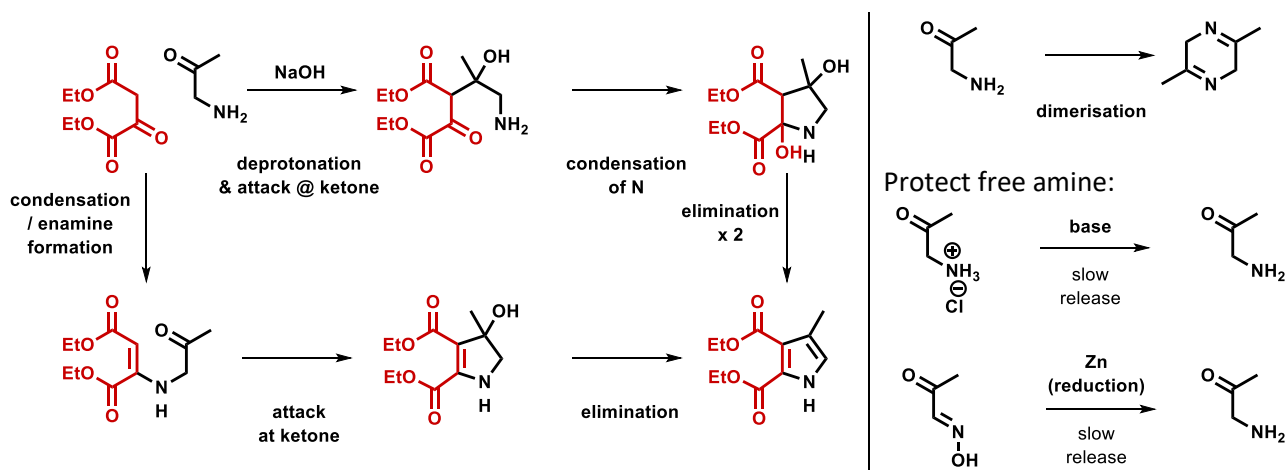


- Swapping to the **iodide** reverses the reactivity!!



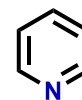
Knorr Pyrrole Synthesis

- Synthesis of pyrrole from readily available building blocks
- Order of events in mechanism does not matter → same outcome

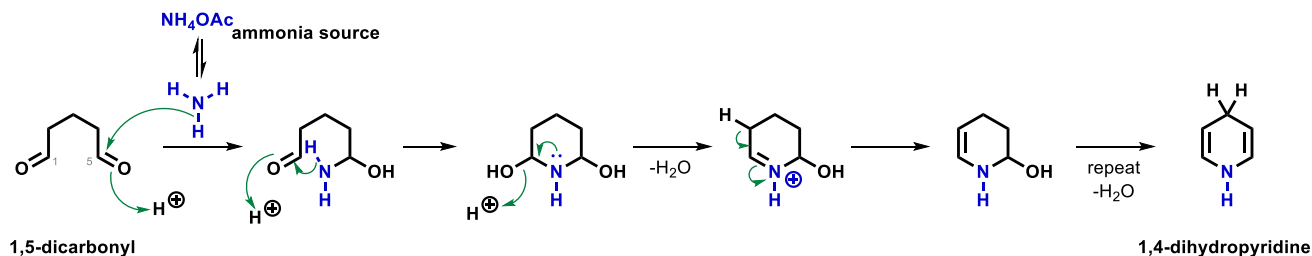


- The aminoketone can **dimerise** so is often used as its salt and converted into the free base *in situ* or using **protecting groups**

Pyridine Synthesis

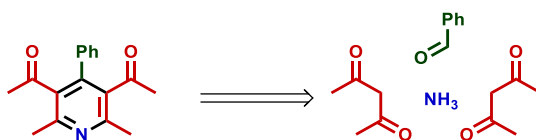


Basic Synthesis Approach

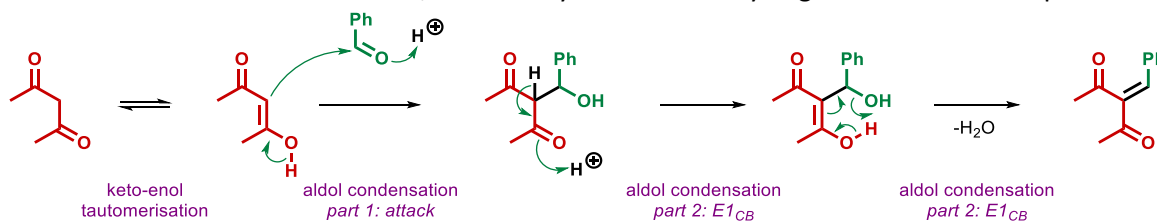


Hantzsch Pyridine Synthesis

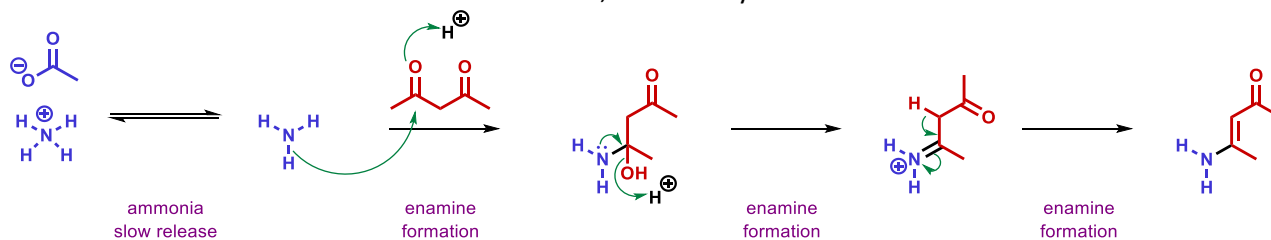
- Strategic Approach



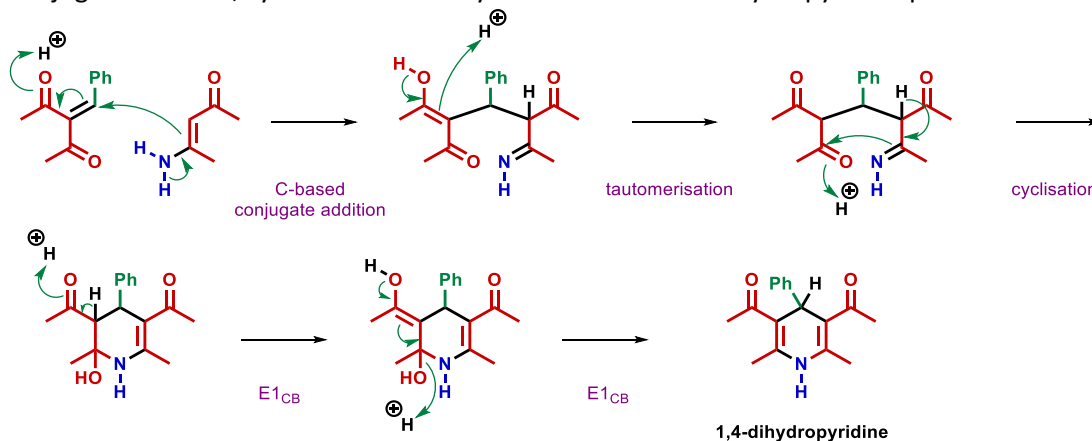
- Aldol condensation between one 1,3-dicarbonyl and the aldehyde gives a Michael Acceptor



- Enamine formation between the amine and one 1,3-dicarbonyl

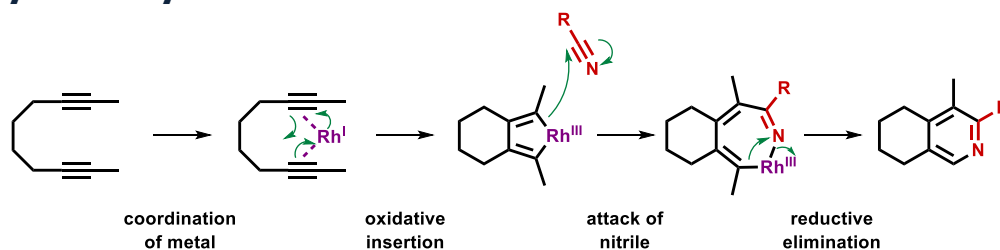


- Conjugate addition, cyclisation and dehydration delivers the dihydropyridine product



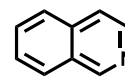
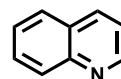
- N.B. Only symmetrical products can be formed under standard conditions
BUT the two fragments can be formed separately

2+2+2 Pyridine Synthesis



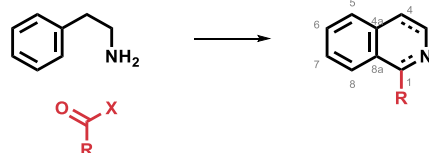
- Works best with tethered diyne substrates
- Mechanism:
 - Both the alkenes coordinate the rhodium(I) species
 - Oxidative insertion makes new C-C bond and 2 C-Rh bonds
 - The C-Rh bond attacks the nitrile to incorporate it in the ring
cf. C-Mg bond in Grignard reagents
 - The rhodium(III) species undergoes reductive elimination to make a new C-N bond and regenerate the rhodium(I) catalyst

Isoquinoline and Quinoline Synthesis



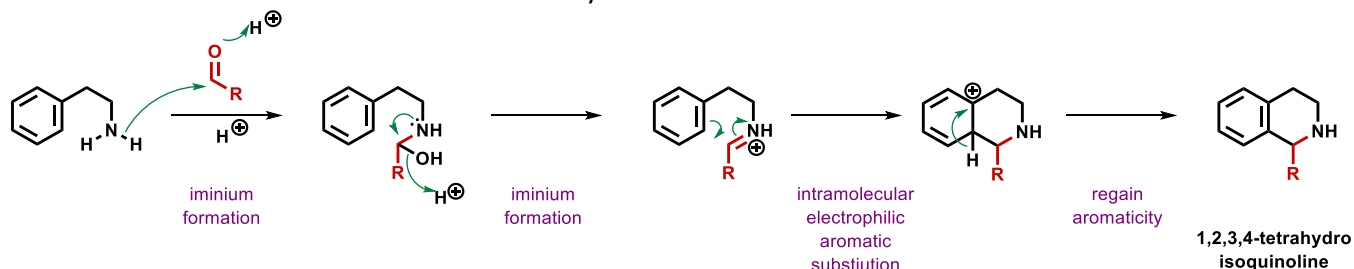
Isoquinoline Synthesis

A common general strategy for isoquinoline synthesis is the reaction between a 2-aminoethylaromatic compound and carbonyl



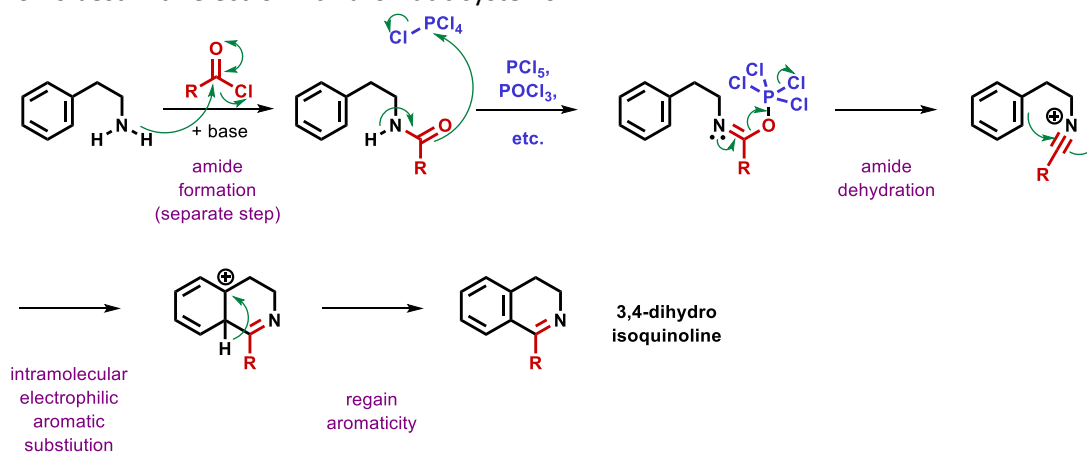
Tetrahydroisoquinoline Synthesis: Pictet-Spengler

- Rapid iminium formation between the aldehyde and the imine
- Nucleophilic attack of the π -system onto the iminium species [EAS]
- Deprotonation to regain aromaticity
- Works best with electron rich aromatic systems



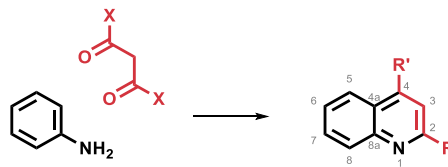
Isoquinoline Synthesis: Bischler-Napieralski

- Form an amide in a separate step
- Dehydration of the amide using a phosphorus reagent, driven by strong P=O bond formation
- Nucleophilic attack of the π -system onto the positive-charged species [EAS]
- Deprotonation to regain aromaticity
- Works best with electron rich aromatic systems



Quinoline Synthesis

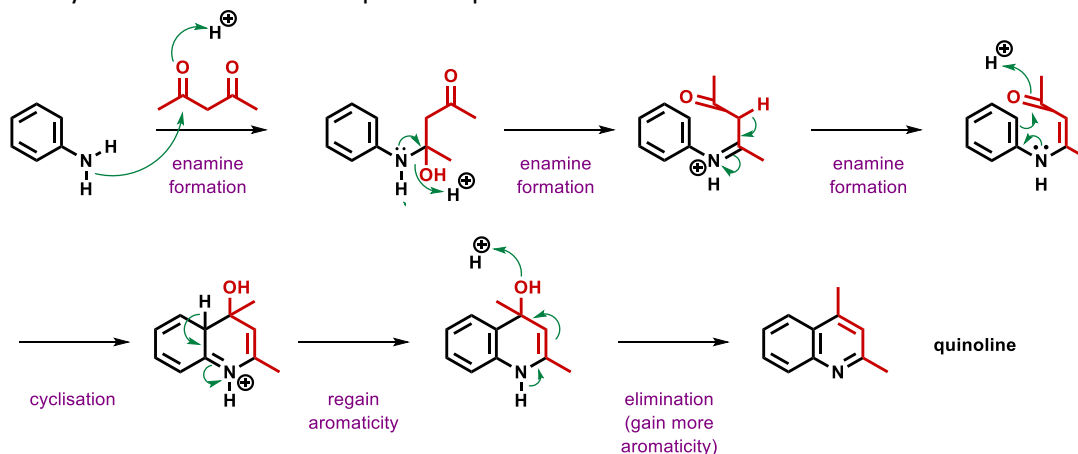
A common general strategy for quinoline synthesis is the reaction between an aminoaromatic compound and 1,3-dicarbonyl species



Quinoline Synthesis: Combes

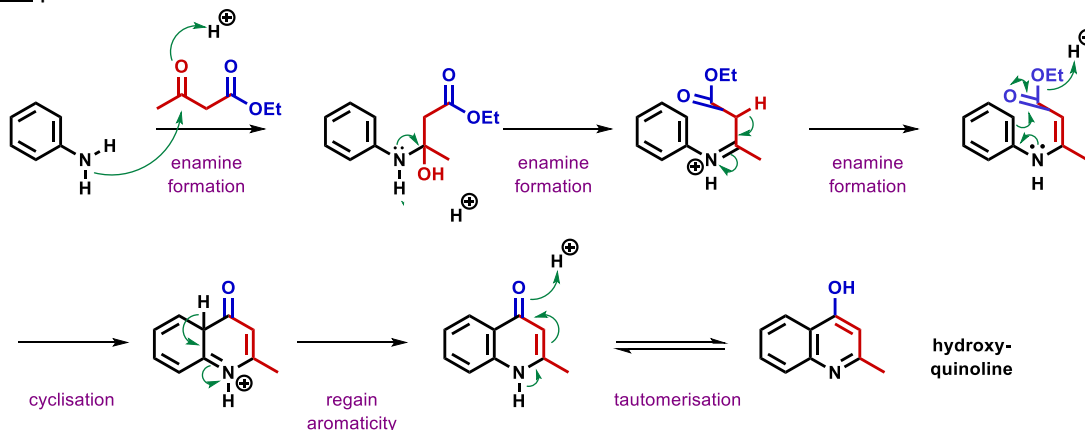
Reaction between an amino-aromatic, e.g. aniline, and a 1,3-diketone to form a quinoline.

Enamine formation is followed by cyclisation similar to an intramolecular electrophilic aromatic substitution and finally elimination forms the quinoline product.



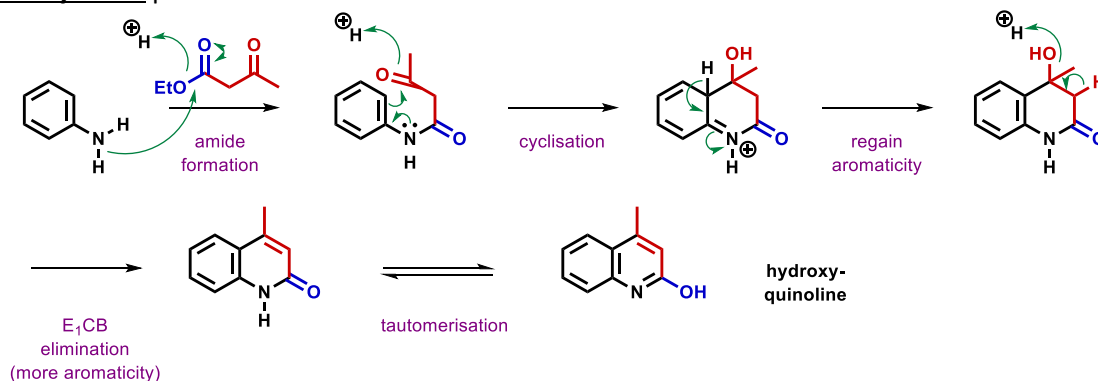
Quinoline Synthesis: Conrad-Limpach – ROOM TEMPERATURE

Reaction between an amino-aromatic, e.g. aniline, and a 1,3-ketoester to form a **2**-hydroxyquinoline. Very similar to the Combes Synthesis but using a ketoester substrate. N.B. Enamine formation at the ketone is the **kinetic** preference because ketones are more reactive than esters.

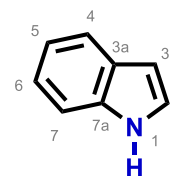


Quinoline Synthesis: Conrad-Limpach – HIGH TEMPERATURE

Reaction between an amino-aromatic, e.g. aniline, and a 1,3-ketoester to form a **4**-hydroxyquinoline. Very similar to the Combes Synthesis but using a ketoester substrate. N.B. Amide formation is the **thermodynamic** preference because amides are favoured to enamines.



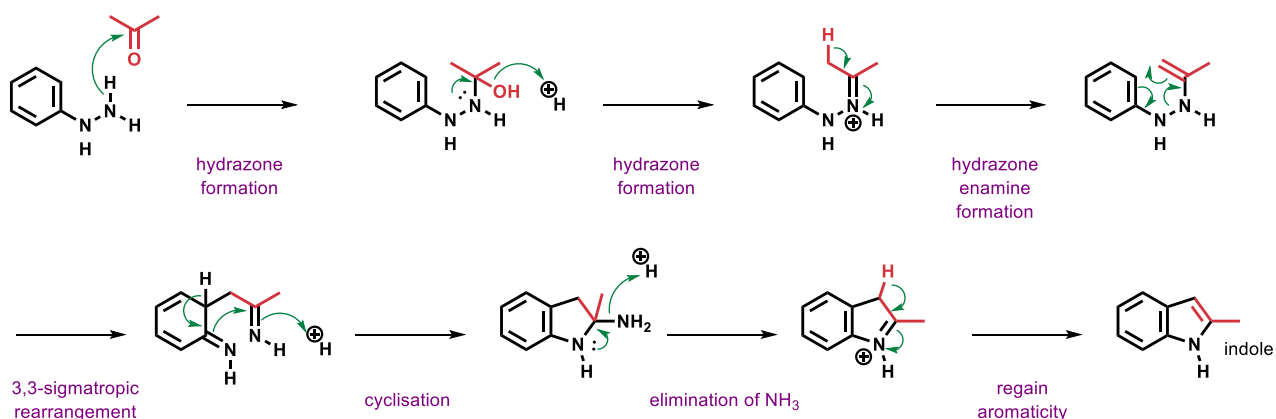
Indole Synthesis



Fischer Indole Synthesis

An aryl hydrazine and ketone form an indole by rearrangement under acidic conditions.

First the hydrazine rapidly condenses with the carbonyl, then enamine formation sets up the double bond arrangement for the 3,3-sigmatropic rearrangement. Finally, cyclisation to form the 5-membered ring and loss of ammonia gives the full aromatic indole product.

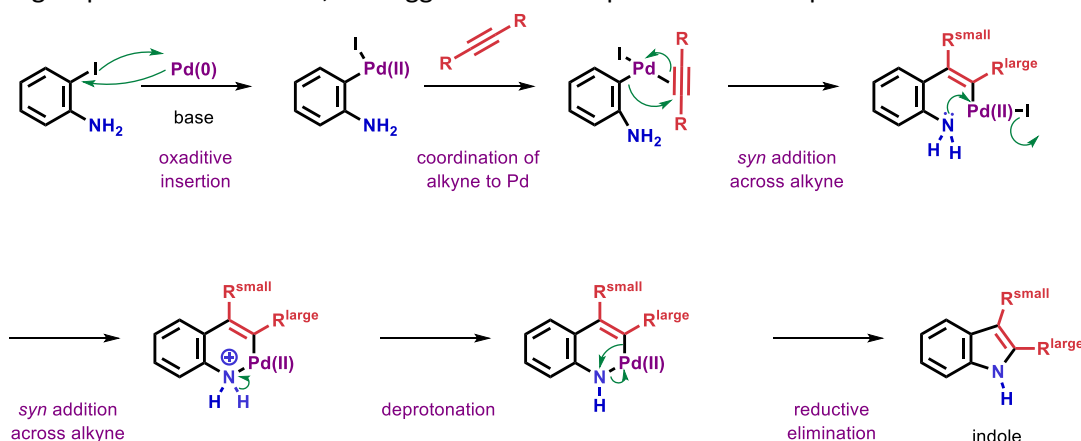


Larock Indole Synthesis

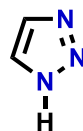
An alkyne and a 2-iodoaniline can be converted into an indole under palladium (0) catalysis.

The reaction begins with oxidative insertion followed by *syn*-carbopalladation of the alkyne. Then intramolecular displacement of the iodine by the nitrogen completes a six-membered ring. Finally, deprotonation promoted reductive elimination to generate the product and release the $\text{Pd}(0)$ catalyst.

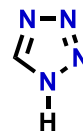
If the two R groups are not the same, the biggest one ends up in the indole 2-position



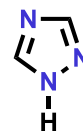
1,3-Dipolar Cycloaddition



1,2,3-triazole



tetrazole



1,2,3-triazole

- 1,3-Dipolar cycloaddition occurs between a 1,3-dipole: a three atom arrangement containing both positive and negative charges
- The mechanism is a pericyclic, [4+2] cycloaddition process: 4 electrons in the dipole (two from the negative charge and two in the double bond) 2 electrons in the dipolarophile

Example 1,3-dipoles:



azide



ozone



nitrile ylide



diazoalkane

Example dipolarophiles:



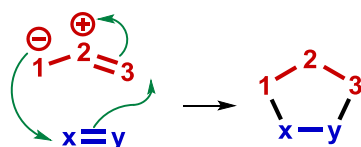
alkyne



alkene

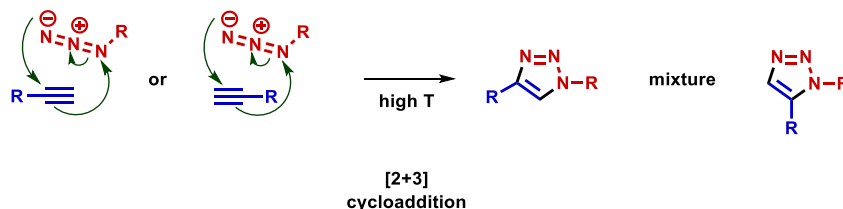


nitrile



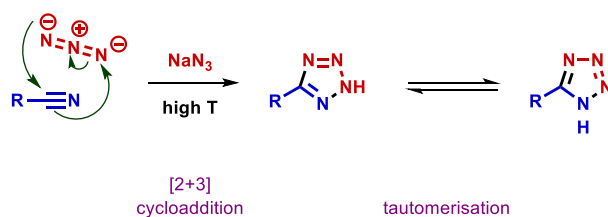
- Also called Huisgen addition.

Cycloaddition to form 1,2,3-Triazoles



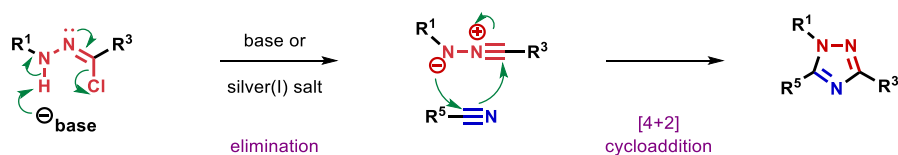
- Alkynes and azides are readily available
- Copper** catalysts form 1,4-substituted products
- Ruthenium** catalysts favour 1,5-substituted products

Tetrazoles




















































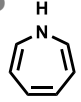


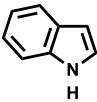
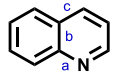
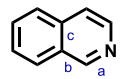
- Nitriles are readily available and sodium azide is cheap
- Can be catalysed with Lewis acids or iodine
- Each of the nitrogen atoms in tetrazole can be N-H through tautomerisation

1,2,4-Triazoles



- Elimination of HCl by base or silver (I) reagent to form 1,3-dipole
- Dipolar cycloaddition delivers 1,2,4-triazoles

Appendix A: Selected Heterocycles

3 IR	 oxirene	 1H-azirine	 thiirene	 oxete	 azete	 thiете	4 ET	
		 2H-azirine		 oxetane	 azetidine	 thietane		
	 oxirane aka epoxide	 aziridine	 thiirane	 azetidin-2-one aka β -lactam	 1,3-diazetidine			
5 OL	 pyrrole (not azole)	 furan (not oxole)	 thiophene (not thiole)	 pyrrolidine (not azolidine)	 tetrahydrofuran	 tetrahydrothiophene		
	 imidazole (1,3-diazole)	 oxazole (1,3-oxazole)	 thiazole (1,3-thiazole)	 pyrazolidine (1,2-diazolidine)	 1,3-oxathiolane	 1,3-thiazolidine		
	 pyrazole (1,2-diazole)	 isoxazole (1,2-oxazole)	 isothiazole (1,2-thiazole)	 1,2,3-triazole	 1,2,4-triazole	 tetrazole		
6 IN	 pyridine (not azine)	 2H-pyran (not oxine)	 2H-thiopyran (thiine)	 piperidine (azinane)	 tetrahydropyran (oxane)	 thiane		
	 pyridazine (1,2-diazine)	 pyrimidine (1,3-diazine)	 pyrazine (1,4-diazine)	 morpholine (1,4-oxazinane)	 1,4-dioxane	 1,3-dithiane		
	 1,2,4-triazine	 1,3,5-triazine	 1,2,4,5-tetrazine					
7 EP	 oxepane	 azepine	8 OC	 2H-oxocine	 azocine	 indole (benzopyrrole)	 quinoline (benzo[b]pyridine)	 isoquinoline (benzo[c]pyridine)

Retained name in **red**, IUPAC version of retained name in (brackets).

More at:

<http://www.compoundchem.com/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/Heterocycles-graphic.png>

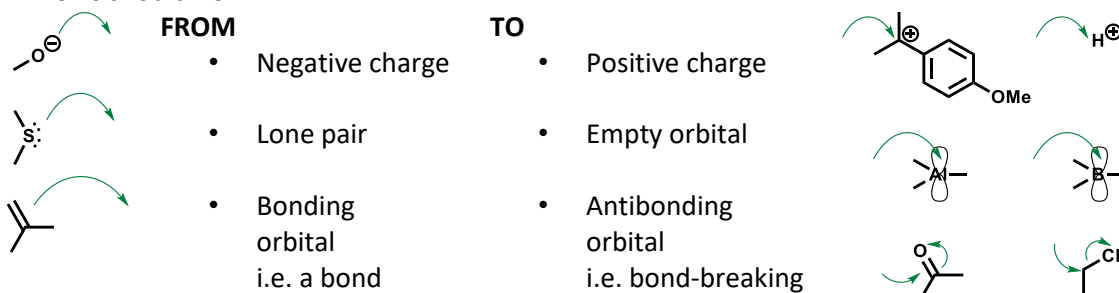
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Heterocyclic_compound

Appendix B: Revision

Curly Arrows

- **Curly Arrows**

- Curly arrows are an essential tool when explaining reaction mechanisms
- A curly arrow represents the movement of **TWO ELECTRONS**
- Arrows should flow:

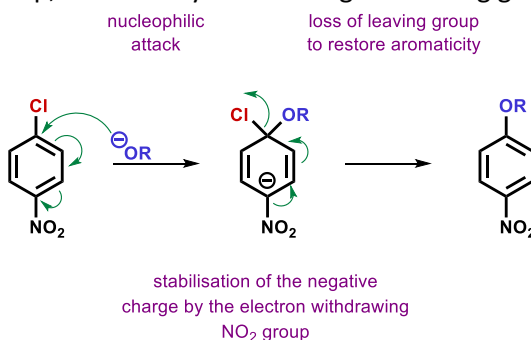


- Leaving groups should be good at stabilising negative charge:
 - they are acidic (+H)
 - *i.e.* they have a low pKa
- E.g. Cl⁻ is a good leaving group:
 - HCl is acidic ✓
 - HCl pKa = -8.0 ✓

- **Make sure your charges always balance!**
- Under **acidic** conditions, all intermediates should be **positively** charged or neutral
- Under **basic** conditions, all intermediates should be **negatively** charged or neutral

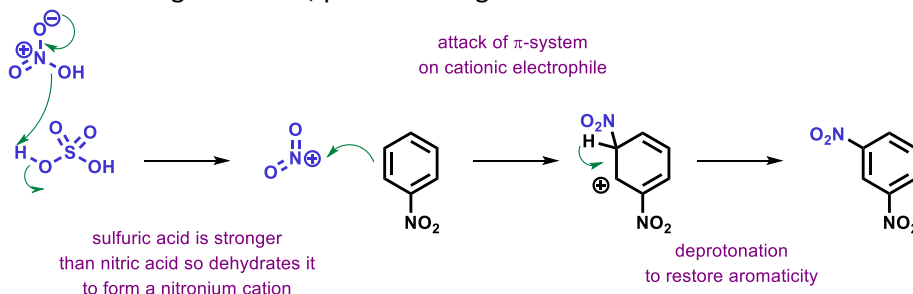
Nucleophilic Aromatic Substitution

- Electron poor aromatic rings, e.g. with NO₂ groups and a good leaving group, e.g. Cl, Br, I, F can undergo substitution reactions
- The electronegative halide also accelerates the reaction which is why F gives the fastest substitution reaction
- Nucleophilic attack onto the aromatic ring with stabilisation of the resulting negative charge by the electron-withdrawing NO₂ group; followed by loss of the good leaving group



Electrophilic Aromatic Substitution

- The electrons in the π -cloud of the aromatic ring attack an electrophile
- To break the aromaticity the electrophile must be very good, i.e. possess a permanent positive charge
- Electron donating groups (NR₂, alkyl, OR) are activating and ortho, para directing
- Electron withdrawing groups (NO₂, SO₂R, carbonyl) are deactivating and meta directing
- Halides are deactivating and ortho, para directing



A nitronium cation generated because sulfuric acid is stronger than nitric acid and dehydrates it then nucleophilic attack of the aromatic ring on the positive species followed by loss of H⁺ restores aromaticity

Enamine and Imine Formation

Amines and ketones or aldehydes rapidly and reversibly react to form iminiums that go on to form imines or enamines. The nucleophilic nitrogen attacks electrophilic carbonyl then the nitrogen lone pair assists in loss of OH. At this stage, the iminium loses a proton either from the N-H to form an imine; or from the C-H to form an enamine.

