## BSc SEMESTER-IV HONS ORGANIC CHEMISTRY; PAPER-CC-10 ADVANCED RETROSYNTHESIS

## General overview.

1. **Introduction**: summary on disconnections and normal carbonyl reactivity.

Definition of disconnection, FGI (functional group interconversion), synthon and reagent, synthetic strategies and tactics. Examples of *one-group* and *two-group* disconnections. Revision of normal carbonyl reactivity.

## 2. **2-Group disconnections: unnatural reactivity patterns and other strategies**

- 2.1. Synthetic strategies for 1,2-difunctionalysed compounds
  - 2.1.1. Use of available starting materials
  - 2.1.2. Difuctionalisation of alkenes
  - 2.1.3.  $\alpha$ -Functionalisation of carbonyl compounds
  - 2.1.4. Radical coupling
  - 2.1.5. Umpolung strategies:
    - 2.1.5.1. Cyanide anion + electrophilic carbonyl
    - 2.1.5.2. Cyanohydrins, benzoin condensation
    - 2.1.5.3. Dithians(thioacetal) nucleophile + electrophilic carbonyl
    - 2.1.5.4. Nitroalkane nucleophile + electrophilic carbonyl
    - 2.1.5.5. Imidoyl nucleophile + electrophilic carbonyl
    - 2.1.5.6. Alkyne nucleophile + electrophilic carbonyl

#### 2.2. Functional group interconversion: amine synthesis

#### 2.3. Synthetic strategies for 1,4-difunctionalised compounds

- 2.3.1. Acyl equivalent + Michael acceptor
- 2.3.2. Homoenolate + electrophilic carbonyl
- 2.3.3. Additional umpolung strategies:
  - 2.3.3.1. Enolate +  $\alpha$ -functionalised carbonyl compound
  - 2.3.3.2. Enolate +  $\alpha$ , $\beta$ -unsaturated nitrocompound (Michael-type acceptors
  - 2.3.3.3. Epoxide based transformations
- 2.3.4. Functional group addition (retrosynthetic technique of introducing a required functional group to facilitate a certain chemical transformation)

#### 2.4. Synthetic approaches to cyclic systems

- 2.4.1. Cycloadditions
- 2.4.2. Conventional methods of acyclic chemistry
- 2.4.3. Other methods

#### 2.5. **Reconnection strategies**

- 2.5.1. Ozonolysis of cycloalkenes
- 2.5.2. Baeyer-Villiger rearrangement
- 2.5.3. Beckmann and related rearrangements

## 3. Summary of retrosynthetic strategies; some guidelines for retrosynthetic analysis; useful synthons.

### 1. Introduction: summary on disconnections.

*Retrosynthesis analysis* is a problem solving technique for transforming the structure of *synthetic target molecule (TM)* to a sequence of progressively simpler structures along the pathway which ultimately leads to simple or commercially available starting materials for a chemical synthesis. (E.J Corey)

The transformation of a molecule to a synthetic precursor is accomplished by

- *Disconnection*: the reverse operation to a synthetic reaction, the imagined cleavage of a bond,
- *Functional Group Interconversion (FGI)*: the process of converting one functional group into another by substitution, addition, elimination, reduction, or oxidation.



Each structure thus derived from TM then itself becomes a TM for further analysis. Repetition of the process eventually produces a tree of intermediates having chemical structures in the nodes and possible chemical transformations as pathways from bottom to TM. One should avoid excessive branching and proliferation of useless pathways. Strategies for control and guidance are of the utmost importance.

*Synthetic Strategies*: Choosing the way along the retrosynthetic tree, synthetic planning. *Synthetic Tactics*: How a specific bond or set of bonds at a given site can be efficiently created.

## Two main Synthetic Strategies:

### 1) Strategic disconnection approach



## 2) Strategic structure approach



Ovaska TV et al, Org. Lett. 2001, 3, 115

#### Pseudopterosin A



Corey E.J JACS, 1998, 120, 12777

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#### Synthetic Tactics.

Disconnection of molecules according to the present FGs in the molecule:

a) *C*-*C* bond with no functional group present:



b) One-group disconnections based on normal carbonyl reactivity.

Normal carbonyl reactivity: ACCEPT electrons at the C=O carbon ACCEPT electrons at the  $\beta$ -carbon of the enone 



DONATE electrons to the  $\alpha$ -carbon via the enolate



Synthetic planning should show an analysis of the problem followed by synthetic solution.

Alcohols

Analysis



Carbonyl compounds brunched at  $\alpha$ -carbon.

Analysis







Synthesis



Carbonyl compounds branched at  $\beta$ -carbon.

Analysis

Synthesis: Michael addition



Combination of the last two synthetic approaches allows the introduction of two new groups:



c) Two-group disconnections based on normal carbonyl reactivity.

#### 1,3-Difunctionalised compounds



1,5-Difunctionalised compounds

Analysis





#### Examples of retrosynthetic disconnections.

The synthetic planning can be based on a key disconnection, on a key intermediate or, in more complex systems, on the combination of both. Functional group interconversions (FGI) are frequently used to prepare molecule for the intended disconnection step.



## 2. 2-Group disconnections: unnatural reactivity patterns and other strategies

Unnatural or reversed polarity carbonyl reactivity reverses the normal patterns attributable to carbonyl compounds.



### 2.1. Synthetic strategies for 1,2-difunctionalysed compounds.



1,2-Difunctionalised compounds *cannot* be prepared by the type of disconnections used for 1,3- and 1,5-difunctionalised compounds.



#### **2.1.1.** Use of available starting materials

In view of the fact that construction of 1,2-difunctional skeletons is not always a straightforward process, sometimes it is more convenient to disconnect to precursors with 1,2-functionalisation already present in the molecule rather than cut 1,2-relationship.



A selection of commercially available 1,2-difunctionalised compounds:



#### 2.1.2. Difuctionalisation of alkenes and opening of epoxides (revision)

Alkenes: OsO<sub>4</sub>  $R_{1}$  $\begin{array}{c} R_1 \\ R_2 \end{array} \xrightarrow{H_2O_2} \\ HCOOH \\ R_2 \end{array} \xrightarrow{R_1 \\ HCOOH} \\ R_2 \xrightarrow{(''')OH} \\ \end{array}$ KMnO₄/NaOH  $\begin{array}{c} R_1 \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br_2 \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \hline \\ R_2 \\ \hline \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} R_1 \\ \hline \\ R_2 \\ \hline \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ \hline \\ Br \\ \hline \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ \hline \\ Br \\ \hline \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ \hline \\ Br \\ \hline \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ \hline \\ Br \\ \hline \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ \hline \\ Br \\ \hline \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ \hline \\ Br \\ \hline \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ \hline \\ Br \\ \hline \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ \hline \\ Br \\ \hline \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ \hline \\ Br \\ \hline \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ \hline \\ Br \\ \hline \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ \hline \\ Br \\ \hline \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ \hline \\ Br \\ \hline \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ \hline \\ Br \\ \hline \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ \hline \\ Br \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ \hline \\ Br \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ \hline \\ Br \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ \hline \\ Br \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ \hline \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ Br \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ \hline \\ Br \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ Br \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ Br \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ Br \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ Br \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ Br \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} Br \\ Br \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array}$ USO<sub>4</sub> TsNCINa (Chloramin-T)  $\begin{array}{c} Br_2/H_2O \\ \hline (HOBr) \\ R_2 \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} R_1 \\ R_2 \\ \hline \\ Br \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} OH \\ Br \\ Br \\ \end{array}$ Epoxides:  $\downarrow 0 \xrightarrow{\text{SiCl}_4} R_1 \xrightarrow{\text{OH}} R_2$  $\sim OH$  RLi  $R_1 \rightarrow OH$  OH 2.1.3. **a**-Functionalisation of carbonyl compounds  $\xrightarrow{O}{} \overset{O}{\xrightarrow{}} R_2 \longrightarrow R_1 \overset{O}{\xrightarrow{}} R_2 \xrightarrow{} R_1 \overset{O}{\xrightarrow{}} R_2$ of enolisation A selection of synthetic equivalents for  $X^{(\pm)}$ :  $\implies Br_{2}, Cl_{2}, NBS = O^{\oplus} \implies SeO_{2}; NO^{\oplus} (HONO)$  $\implies RSCI, RS-SR -OH^{\oplus} \implies \swarrow O$ ;  $OsO_{4}$  $Br^{\oplus}$   $Cr^{\oplus}$ RS⊕  $\implies$  RSeCl, RSe-SeR RSe⊕

Dimethyl dioxirane

Amines can be introduced by FGI, e.g. from  $\alpha$ -halocarbonyl compounds via azides followed by reduction:



Examples:



However, in basic conditions an excess of reagent can lead to haloform reaction:



Carboxylic acids are readily halogenated in the presence of PBr<sub>3</sub>:



Application in synthesis:



Strategies 2.1.4 and 2.1.5 are based on disconnection between the two FGs.

2.1.4. Radical coupling



Radical coupling is only good when two identical molecules are being coupled ( $R_1 = R_2, X = Y$ ) or when the reaction proceeds intramolecularly.

Pinacol reaction:



Acyloin condensation:



The reaction is used to make cyclic acyloins. Yields for 6,7 membered rings - 50-60%, for 10-20 membered rings - 60-95%

#### 2.1.5. Umpolung strategies



The type of disconnection shown here requires acyl-anion Me-C=O which does not exist, and moreover, cannot be made by deprotonation of the corresponding aldehyde MeCHO. The **reversal of normal carbonyl reactivity (umpolung)** is required here. A number of synthetic equivalents of acyl-anion have been developed to carry out this reaction scheme.

#### 2.1.5.1. Cyanide anion + electrophilic carbonyl



*Note:* CN<sup>-</sup> is an ambident nucleophile.

Strategies 3.1.5.2 and 3.1.5.3 are based on replacing the carbonyl oxygen with an anionstabilising groups:



#### 2.1.5.2. Cyanohydrins, benzoin condensation



The reaction works well only on aromatic aldehydes, however, cyanohydrins of aliphatic aldehydes can be protected as silyl ethers and after deprotonation reacted in a similar way with different carbonyl compounds.



#### 2.1.5.3. Dithians (thioacetal) nucleophile + electrophilic carbonyl



#### 2.1.5.4. Nitroalkane nucleophile + electrophilic carbonyl



Nitro groups are rarely desirable themselves, however they can undergo useful FGIs:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} R_1 & & \text{LiAlH}_4 \text{ or} & & R_1 \\ \searrow & & \text{Zn/HCl or} & & & \searrow & \text{NO}_2 \\ R_2 & & & \text{H2/Pd/C} & & R_2 & & \text{NaOH; H2SO4 or} & & R_2 \\ \end{array}$$

Synthetic application:



## 2.1.5.5. Imidoyl nucleophile + electrophilic carbonyl

$$R-N=C_{Li}^{R^1} = O=C_{\bigcirc}^{R^1}$$

Preparation:

a) From isonitriles

$$R-N=C: \longrightarrow R-N=C^{\oplus} \xrightarrow{t-Bu-N=C:} is commercially available$$

$$R-N=C: \xrightarrow{R^{1}Li} R-N=C^{R^{1}} \xrightarrow{E^{\oplus}} R-N=C^{R^{1}} \xrightarrow{H_{3}O^{+}} O=C^{R^{1}}_{E}$$

b) From amides via chloroimines



#### 2.1.5.6. Alkyne nucleophile + electrophilic carbonyl



#### 2.2 Functional group interconversion, amine synthesis



Oxidation level 1 (alkane – 2e):

C-X (X = Hal, OH, OR, OAc, OTs, NR<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, SR, *etc*); C=C

Oxidation level 2 (alkane – 4e):

C=X (X = O, NR); CXY (X, Y = Hal, OR, SR); C=C-X (X = Hal, OR, OSiR<sub>3</sub>); C=C; X-C-C-Y; epoxides.

<u>Oxidation level 3</u> (alkane – 6e): COOH, COX (X = OR, Hal, OCOR, NR<sub>2</sub>); C=N, C=C-C=O, C=C-C=C

Based on the oxidation level of carbon, the two main types of FGIs can be identified:

*Type 1*. Isohypsic transformations with no change to the oxidation level of carbon

Type 2. Non-isohypsic transformations, where carbon atom is either reduced or oxidised.

In general, on the same oxidation level any functional group interconversion can be performed in more or less easy way:



However, transformations between levels can be achieved only on certain derivatives:



Other important kind of transformations – interconversion of nitrogen containing functions. With amines, alkylation usually produce mixtures:

Alternative strategies are based on reduction of other nitrogen-containing FGs:

Primary amines:

Primary amines at primary carbon

 $RX \xrightarrow{CN^{\ominus}} RCN \xrightarrow{LiAIH_4} RCH_2NH_2$ 

Primary amines at primary or secondary carbon



Primary amines at secondary or tertiary carbon

The Ritter reaction with alkylnitriles produces secondary amines

Secondary amines:

Reductive amination

$$\begin{array}{c|c} R_1 & RNH_2 \\ R_2 & \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} R_1 \\ R_2 \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} R_1 \\ R_2 \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} NaBH_3CN \\ or NaBH_4 \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} R_1 \\ R_2 \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} NHR \\ R_2 \end{array}$$

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If hydroxylamine (NH<sub>2</sub>OH) is used in the place of RNH<sub>2</sub>, reduction of the corresponding oxime gives primary amine.

Secondary and tertiary amines:



The method is also suitable for the preparation of primary amines ( $R_1 = R_2 = H$ ).

#### 2.3. Synthetic strategies for 1,4-difunctionalised compounds

Approaches the synthesis of 1,4-difunctionalised compounds share a lot of common features with methods of preparation of 1,2-analogues discussed in the part 2.1. Again, there are a few commercially available derivatives but in this case the strategies are mainly based on disconnection between the FGs.





This approach is closely related to the synthesis of 1,5-dicarbonyl derivatives via addition of enolates to  $\alpha$ , $\beta$ -unsaturated carbonyl compounds. However this time, acyl-anion synthons are employed as nucleophiles. A selection of such reagents has been discussed in the section 2.1.5. Umpolung Strategies.



Examples:



#### 2.3.2. Homoenolate + electrophilic carbonyl



Ester homoenolates (Zn and Ti):



Ketone or aldehyde homoenolates:

Preparation of ketone or aldehyde homoenolates requires a different approach as the carbonyl group must be either protected or masked (latent) in the anionic reagent.

Protection:



#### 2.3.3. Additional umpolung strategies:



#### 2.3.3.1. Enolate + **a**-functionalised carbonyl compound



**Note**: α-bromoketone can be protected as ketal first to prevent enolisation during the reaction

Illustrative example:







Nitroalkanes are acyl-anion equivalents, they resemble enolates but have one carbon atom less

Nitroalkenes resemble  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ -unsaturated carbonyl compounds (Michael acceptors) but have one carbon atom less.

Nitroalkenes can be viewed as reagents for carbonyl and nitrogen based functionalities

Examples:



a) Opening of epoxides with enolates of  $\beta$ -dicarbonyl compounds:



In general, epoxides are opened by nucleophiles at the *less hindered side* ( $S_N 2$  type)

b) Opening of epoxides with enamines catalysed by acids:



c) Epoxides can be opened with a variety of nucleophiles and are often used for the synthesis of a wide range of alcohols:

Nucleophiles include CN<sup>-</sup>, dithiane anions, Grignar reagents, e.g.:



Use of alkynyl anions:



The product can be further converted into 1,4-difunctionalised compound



Note: other usefull transformations of alkynes include chemo- and stereoselective reduction:



## 2.3.4. Functional group addition (retrosynthetic technique of introducing a required functional group to facilitate a certain chemical transformation)

Alkynyl-anions have already proved to be useful reagents for acyl-anion synthons, In addition, synthetic versatility of alkyne functionality can be further exploited in organic synthesis.



There is no reagent corresponding to this synthon, therefore the synthesis has to proceed stepwise





#### Unfunctionalised alkanes as target structures:

Functional Group Addition (**FGA**) strategy employed in the example above to facilitate the construction of the required structural arrangement can be further extended to retrosynthetic analysis of target molecules with few or no functional groups. **FGA** is a **retrosynthetic technique**, the corresponding **synthetic** procedure is functional group **removal**.

FG	Conditions for FG removal
C=C C=C	H <sub>2</sub> /Pd
ОН	a) TsCl, MsCl – LiAlH <sub>4</sub> , BH <sub>3</sub> b) Barton reaction (radical Bu <sub>3</sub> SnH)
C=O	a) NaBH <sub>4</sub> and then as with OH group b) Kizhner reduction(NH <sub>2</sub> NH <sub>2</sub> ) c) Clemence reduction( Zn/Hg; HCl)
SH	Ranney Ni
Br	Radical Bu₃SnH
NH <sub>2</sub>	$HNO_2$ diazotisation

#### 2.4. Synthetic approaches to cyclic systems.

#### 2.4.1. Cycloadditions

Some types of Diels-Alder disconnections:



#### 2.4.2. Conventional methods of acyclic chemistry

For the construction of ring systems a set of conventional disconnections can be considered, including intramolecular  $S_N 2$ , Robinson annulation, aldol, Dieckmann, etc.

Intramolecular reactions are usually favoured kinetically over intermolecular rections. This factor is greatest for 3- and 5-membered ring formation, and to lesser extent for 6- and 7- membered cycles. On the other hand, thermodinamic factors strongly favour formation of 6- membered rings. Taking both kinetic and thermodinamic factors into account, 5-,6- and 7- membered rings are easy to make, 3-membered rings are also easy to make but often break down under the conditions of their formation, while 4-membered rings are very difficult to make and require different synthetic approaches.

Some examples of cyclisation reactions:



#### 2.5. Reconnection strategies

In retrosynthetic analysis, open chain 1,6-difunctionalised compounds can be linked to appropriate cyclic precursors. In this case, the term "disconnection" is applied to reconnection strategies, which can also be used to make compounds with two functional groups related to each other as 1,5-, 1,7- and others.

#### 2.5.1. Ozonolysis of cycloalkenes

Functional groups with 1,6-relationship are too far apart for any conventional disconnection strategies. However, it is known that ozonolysis of cyclohexene creates two functional groups which are exactly 1,6-related.



Similar transformation can be also achieved in an indirect way:



This strategy requires synthetic access to 6-membered unsaturated rings. The best way to make such precursors is Diels-Alder cycloaddition reaction (see above in the course):

The reaction is stereospecific



2.5.2. Baeyer-Villiger rearrangement

Another type of reconnection strategies is hydrolysis of lactones:



The required lactones can be prepared from cyclic ketones by a ring expansion reaction, the **Baeyer-Villiger rearrangement**:



The reaction is regioselective. Migration order:  $3^{\circ} > 2^{\circ} \sim Ar > 1^{\circ}$ . The group better capable to stabilise carbocation in the transition state migrates preferentially.

#### 2.5.3. Beckmann and related rearrangements

Analogously, a reconnection strategy for 6-amino acids is hydrolysis of lactams:



Lactams can be prepared from cyclic ketones by the **Beckmann rearrangement**:



Reaction mechanism:



Usually, the group positioned anti to oxime is migrating.

A related process which involves addition of hydrazoic acid to carbonyl compounds catalysed by sulphuric acid is called **Schmidt reaction**:



Synthetic application:



# 3. Summary of retrosynthetic strategies; some guidelines for retrosynthetic analysis; useful synthons.

## **3.1. Elementary retrosynthetic analysis**

Target (parent) structure	$\implies \qquad \qquad$
Transformation type	Target molecule     Synthons     Reagents and reaction conditions
One-group disconnection	$ \begin{array}{c} & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ $
Two-group disconnection (heterolytic)	$ \begin{array}{c} & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ $
Two-group disconnection (homolytic)	$ \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & $
Electrocyclic disconnection	$\begin{array}{c c} & & & & & & \\ \hline & & & & \\ \hline & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\$
Reconnection	$\begin{array}{ccc} \hline CHO \\ CHO \end{array} \implies & \bigcirc & O_3/Me_2S \\ CH_2Cl_2; -78^{\circ}C \end{array}$
Rearrangement	$ \begin{array}{c} & & \\ & & $
Functional group interconversion (FGI)	$OH \\ CrO_3/H_2SO_4; acetone$
	HgCl <sub>2</sub> ; acetonitrile
Functional group addition (FGA)	$\begin{array}{cccc} Ph & \longrightarrow & Ph & \longrightarrow & Ph & & H_2; Pd/C \\ OH & & OH & & OH \end{array}$
Special case of FGI - Functional group removal (FGR)	$ \begin{array}{c} O \\ \hline \hline \hline \hline$

### **3.2. Guidelines for synthetic planning**

Retrosynthetic analysis:

- 1. Use disconnections corresponding to known *reliable reactions* with the highest yields.
- 2. Disconnect C-C bond according to the FGs present in the molecule, take into account and exploit the *relationship* between the FGs. Correlate *synthons* with appropriate *synthetic equivalents*.
- 3. Employ Functional Group Interconversions (**FGI**), including Functional Group Removal (FGR), as necessary to get useful FGs, use Functional Group Addition (**FGA**) to install a required FG.
- 4. Aim for *simplification*:
  - disconnect C-X bonds,
  - disconnect rings from chains,
  - use symmetry,
  - disconnect at a branch point,
  - separate into equal sized pieces,
  - use rearrangements.
- 5. Try to find a *key disconnection* that would bring a considerable simplification to the structure or reveal simple starting materials.
- 6. Whenever possible, plan a *convergent* synthesis.

Synthesis:

- 1. Write the *synthetic sequence*, including reagents.
- 2. Check for mutually *incompatible* FGs.
- 3. Check *compatibility* between *FGs* and *reagents*.
- 4. Take into account problems of *regioselectivity* and *chemoselectivity*.
- 5. Use *protecting groups* to resolve these problems.
- 6. Make sure you make the right **TM**: check for length of carbon chain, size of rings, position of substituents, nature and position of FGs, removal of protecting groups.

**General note**: retrosynthetic analysis is a problem solving technique that require a broad knowledge of various synthetic methodologies, so integrate all the material acquired from different courses.

## **3.3. Summary of synthons and synthetic equivalents used in the course.**

Synthon	Synthetic equivalent	
Br⁻	NaBr	
$N_3^-$	NaN₃	
RO	RONa made from ROH	
RS⁻	RSNa made from RSH	
$R \stackrel{\bigoplus}{R'}$ R' alkyl, allylic or benzylic	alkyl, allylic or benzylic $R$ Hal Hal = Br, I	
$\mathbf{R} \stackrel{\bigcirc}{\frown} \mathbf{R}'$ alkyl, allylic or benzylic	alkyl, allylic or benzylic R' MgHal or cuprate for	
R R'' vinyl or aryl R''	MgHal vinyl or aryl R R' Or cuprate for R' Michael addition R''	
<b>R</b> ─────⊖	R———M M = Li, MgHal	
	$R^{\downarrow} R^{\prime}$	
R <sup>v</sup>	Methyl acetoacetate or dimethyl malonate are often used as starting materials	
R	R	

Table 2.	Some	"unnatural"	synthons
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Synthon	Synthetic equivalent
Br <sup>+</sup> O <sup>2+</sup> or HO <sup>+</sup> RS <sup>+</sup>	Br <sub>2</sub> SeO <sub>2</sub> or dimethyl dioxirane RSCI or RSSR
R acyl anion	$ \begin{array}{c} \overbrace{}^{S} \overbrace{}^{R} ; \xrightarrow{R} \underset{NO_{2}}{}; \xrightarrow{R'-N} \xrightarrow{R} ; \xrightarrow{R} \underset{Li}{\longrightarrow} Li \end{array} $
HO	CN⁻ (KCN)
R R	$R \xrightarrow{O} Br$ ; $R \xrightarrow{NO_2}$
OH R (+)	R
NH₂ R ↓ ⊕	$R^{NO_2}$ after reduction (LiAlH <sub>4</sub> or H <sub>2</sub> /Pd-C)
RO homoenolate	RO ZnBr
R homoenolate	OOMGBr Or MgBr
R and the second	Avoid this type of disconnection as the corresponding reactions require transition metal catalysis.

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