STEREO AND REGIOSELECTIVE OPENINGS OF CHIRAL 2,3-EPOXY ALCOHOLS. VERSATILE ROUTES TO OPTICALLY PURE NATURAL PRODUCTS AND DRUGS. UNUSUAL KINETIC RESOLUTIONS

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Abstract A diverse selection of new synthetic applications of the titanium-catalyzed asymmetric epoxidation (AE) process is described. These include asymmetric syntheses of (+)-Darvon Alcohol, (-)-bestatin, (+)-2-methyl bestatin, (-)-propranolol, (-)- α -amino- β -hydroxybutyric acid, and (-)- and (+)-frontalin. The kinetic resolution mode of the AE process was used to prepare chiral insect pheromones in very high (>99% e.e.) optical purity; these include (+)-and (-)- α -caprolactone, (-)-exobrevicomin, (-)-endobrevicomin, (+)-and (-)-ipsdienol, and (+)-trans-verbenol. A number of unusual kinetic resolutions based on the AE process are presented; these include resolutions of allenic alcohols, α -acetylenic carbinols, β -hydroxy sulfides, and a dienol.

Almost two years ago we first reported on the titanium-catalyzed asymmetric epoxidation process shown in Scheme I. 1a In the interim this new chiral catalyst system has rapidly become accepted as one of the best means for synthesizing a great variety of optically pure

SCHEME I

D-(-)-diethyl tartrate (unnatural)

":Ö:"

(CH₃)₃COOH, Ti (OiPr)₄

(CH₂Cl₂, -20°C

R₃

70-87 % yields,
$$\neq$$
 90 % e.e.

L-(+)-diethyl tartrate (natural)

organic substances. Among the primary reasons for rapid adoption of the method are:

- 1) simplicity all the ingredients are inexpensive and commercially available.
- 2) $\frac{\text{reliability}}{\text{are deleterious.}^2}$ it succeeds with most allylic alcohols, however, bulky substituents at R_1
- 3) high optical purity generally >90% e.e. and usually >95%e.e. (99.5% e.e. was the highest measured accurately to date).
- 4) <u>absolute stereochemistry is predictable</u> so far no exceptions to the rules laid down in Scheme I (provided one is dealing with a prochiral allylic alcohol, vide infra).
- 5) relatively insensitive to preexisting chirality in allylic alcohols with preexisting chiral centers, the diastereofacial preference of the chiral titanium-tartrate catalyst is often strong enough to over-ride diastereofacial preferences inherent in the chiral olefinic substrate (exceptions and general guidelines discussed later, vide infra).
- 6) <u>versatility of 2,3-epoxy alcohols as intermediates</u> new selective transformations are rapidly being discovered.

This lecture will concentrate on unpublished results from our laboratory regarding:

1) selective reactions of 2,3-epoxy alcohols and related derivatives; 2) syntheses of diverse types of drugs and natural products; 3) and some unusual kinetic resolutions.

1) Selective Transformations of 2,3-Epoxy Alcohols and Derivatives

Although barely studied until the past few years, the 2,3-epoxy alcohol moiety (e.g. 1) abounds with possibilities for nucleophilic openings exhibiting high regio- and stereochemical control. In epoxy alcohol 1 positions 2 and 3 are obvious sites for nucleophilic attack and methods now exist for directing attack to either C-2 or C-3. We will return to selective C-2 and C-3 openings, but first let us explore a less obvious mode in which nucleophiles can react with 2,3-epoxy alcohols.

(a) Opening at C-1

In collaboration with Professor Satoru Masamune's group we have found that certain 2,3-epoxy alcohols (1) can be selectively substituted at C-1 by virtue of the Payne Rearrangement in which an equilibrium is established between 1 and its 1,2-epoxy alcohol isomer χ . In many cases C-1 in epoxide isomer χ is by far the most reactive site toward

SCHEME II. Payne Rearrangement/Opening Processes

nucleophiles, with the result that the Payne Equilibrium $(1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{2})$ is siphoned off to afford diol 3 as the major, if not the exclusive, product (Scheme II). When the nucleophile is PhS⁻ the opening process leads to 3 (N = SPh), and these diol thiophenyl ethers are key intermediates in the iterative sequence developed by the Masamune and Sharpless groups for synthesizing higher saccharides of any relative or absolute configuration.

We have examined the efficacy of several other interesting nucleophiles in this novel Payne Rearrangement/Opening sequence. A few highlights of these experiments are shown in Scheme III. From the examples given for BH_4^- as nucleophile some general trends for these rearrangement/opening processes are apparent. Cis-epoxy alcohols give cleaner C-1 attack

than $\frac{\text{trans}}{4}$ -epoxy alcohols (in the $\frac{\text{cis}}{4}$ cases more of the 1,2-epoxide is present at equilibrium. A C-4 alkoxy substituent (i.e. carbohydrate cases) has a deactivating effect on C-3 and favors the desired C-1 product (thus the method provides a route to $\frac{\text{omega-deoxy-sugars}}{\text{omega-deoxy-sugars}}$). Simple 2,3-epoxy alcohols (i.e. R in $\frac{1}{4}$ is saturated) are poor substrates as one gets substantial attack at C-3 and C-2 as well as C-1. Geraniol-2,3-epoxide (in which C-3 is 3°) is not reduced at C-3, and the major product is the desired 2,3-diol but some 1,3-diol also results. Triol (resulting from OH acting as :N in Scheme II) is also formed but with the better substrates it is a very minor product. The various factors outlined here for BH₄ as nucleophile, should be useful guides when contemplating applications of these rearrangement/opening processes involving other nucleophiles.

Cyanide was only briefly examined and the yields need to be improved substantially (triol was a major by-product). However, the reaction shown in Scheme III does suggest that an attractive one carbon homologation process could be developed (in this case a protected \underline{L} -2-deoxy-ribono-1,4-lactone was isolated in 35% yield).

The last example in Scheme III demonstrates that nitrogen nucleophiles are also effective. The process offers a new route to $\underline{\text{omega}}$ -aminosugars. The sequence should also work with mono-alkylated sulfonamide anions (e.g. TsN^-CH_2Ph).

SCHEME III

(a) BH_4^- as Nucleophile (NaOH, H_2^- 0, \underline{t} -BuOH, reflux)

(b) CN as Nucleophile (NaOH, H₂O, dioxane, 80°C)

(c) TsNH as Nucleophile (NaOH, H₂O, dioxane, 60°C)

Other strategies for substitutions at C-1 can leave the 2,3-epoxide moiety intact. As revealed in Scheme IV, conversion of the 2,3-epoxy alcohol to the mesylate or tosylate leads (in some cases $\underline{\text{via}}$ the corresponding iodide or bromide) to substitution of various nucleophiles (e.g. H⁻, $\frac{1}{1}$ R⁻, $\frac{5}{1}$, $\frac{6}{1}$ SPh⁷).

When C-1 substitution was recently attempted with malonate on the epoxy tosylate 4, a further interesting transformation ensued:

This is likely to prove a fairly general route to chiral cyclopropanes related to \S . This type of cyclopropane forming process is well precedented but access to the appropriate epoxy carbanion intermediates had previously been indirect. Furthermore, we were unable to locate an example (such as ours) involving an epoxy malonate intermediate. The facile γ -lactone formation has the virtue of distinguishing between the malonate ester groups, and thereby also providing a new chiral center.

(b) Opening at C-2 or C-3.

Simple epoxy alcohols or their ether derivatives (e.g. 6) are known to open selectively

at C-3 with carbon⁹, nitrogen¹⁰, and oxygen¹¹ nucleophiles; This selectivity is presumably controlled by electronic effects (the steric environments at C-2 and C-3 in & are comparable). When the electronic and steric effects at C-2 and C-3 are roughly equivalent, as they are in Z, we have observed almost equal attack at C-2 and C-3 with both N_3^- and PhS $^-$ as nucleophiles (Payne Rearrangement suppressed by the use of buffered conditions).

 We^{12} and others 11,13 have found that certain reagents which are delivered intramolecularly by virtue of attachment to the hydroxyl, in for example 6a and 7, can exhibit high selectivity for C-2. However, we recently discovered another set of circumstances which favors attack at C-2. This new type of selectivity was first observed with the carbohydratelike epoxy alcohols &a. Note that carbons 2 and 3 are electronically similar in 7 and &a, but that 8a has an added steric liability on the C-3 side. All four diastereomers (at C-2 and C-3) of 8a have been opened with N_3 in NH_4C1 buffered methoxyethanol and in each case good (worst case is 7:1 in favor of C-2) to excellent selectivity for C-2 opening is observed. 14 Similar C-2 selectivity is seen with PhS and PhSe and 8a. Thus the modest steric bias in <u>8a</u> appears to significantly favor the avenue for external nucleophilic attack (even with the slender azide nucleophile) which leads to C-2 substitution. That the C-1 hydroxyl is not important in directing these azide openings is suggested by the fact that the C-2 selectivity is intact in the benzyl ether derivatives 8b. 14 If this intermolecular selectivity for C-2 proves general in these carbohydrate cases (e.g. 8), it greatly expands the range of nucleophiles for attack at C-2. The intramolecular C-2 substitution processes requiring the hydroxyl as a binding site place an inherent and fairly serious constraint on the nature of the nucleophile.

Lest one get the impression that all the major factors influencing these epoxy alcohol openings are now well understood, we offer the examples in Scheme V for your perusal. With one exception the entries in Scheme V are consonant with expectations based on our under-

SCHEME V. Methyl Cuprate Openings*

*5 equivalents Me₃CuLi₂, Et₂O, -40°C; C-3:C-2 ratios are indicated.

standing of these epoxy alcohol openings and on literature precedents¹⁵ for related methyl cuprate openings. The glaring exception is entry 3 which exhibits almost no selectivity for C-2 over C-3 [note however that C-2 selectivity is reestablished in the benzyl ether derivative (entry 5)]. An explanation for this anomalous result eludes us at present, but it does reveal that current understanding may be inadequate for making reliable predictions when complex nucleophiles are involved.

As already mentioned selective nucleophilic attack at C-3 can be managed in simple epoxy alcohols such as &, but this selectivity vanishes in carbohydrate-like cases such as % and %. Another strategy for controlling C-2 versus C-3 attack becomes available upon oxidation of the 2,3-epoxy alcohols to their glycidic acid analogues. The best means for effecting this oxidation involves an improved catalytic RuO_4 system developed recently in our laboratory (in our experience this improved procedure offers advantages over older ones in most all applications involving RuO_4). As shown in Scheme VI epoxy alcohol % is oxidized to the glycidic acid %0. As noted by Still and Ohmizu with an epoxy alcohol related to %0, only the

new Ru0 $_4$ procedure gave a good result although many oxidants were tried. ¹⁷ DCC coupling afforded the 2,3-epoxy amide \mathbb{N} , which opened exclusively at C-3 with azide to give \mathbb{N} . ¹⁸ There is substantial precedent in the work of Martynov for nucleophilic openings of 2,3-epoxy amides at C-3. ¹⁹ The factors directing C-3 attack of nucleophiles in such epoxy amides are very strong and even completely override geminal substitution at C-3. ¹⁹ We are presently testing whether this effect is strong enough to direct attack to C-3 even in saccharide 2,3-epoxy amides where C-4 bears an alkoxy substituent.

In sharp contrast to the behavior of glycidic amides, the inherent directing effects in

Ph
$$\frac{0}{3}$$
 COOMe $\frac{Mg(N_3)_2}{MeOH}$ erythro erythro $C-2$ azide $+$ $C-3$ azide reflux $\frac{3}{78\%}$ yield

openings of glycidic esters are very weak, if the azide openings of 13 and 14 are any indication. These striking differences between the epoxy esters and epoxy amides are being studied further. In the meantime, if one wishes to direct a nucleophile to C-3 the epoxy amide derivative is clearly the candidate most likely to succeed.

There are a few intriguing reports in the literature that simple glycidic acids undergo selective opening at C-2 with basic amines as the nucleophiles. This attracted our interest since it suggested a means of directing attack to either C-3 (epoxy amide already demonstrated to be highly effective) or to C-2 (if the free epoxy acid were employed). Unfortunately, the C-2 directing effect proved to be guite weak in our hands:

Ph
$$\frac{3}{2}$$
 COOH $\frac{BnNH_2}{H_2O}$, reflux $\frac{C-2}{amine}$ $\frac{C-2}{amine}$ $\frac{C-3}{amine}$ $\frac{15}{2}$ $\frac{15}$

Ph
$$\frac{3}{100}$$
 $\frac{BnNH_2}{H_2O, reflux}$ threo threo $C-2$ amine $C-3$ amine $C-3$ $C-3$

Notice that the C-2/C-3 ratio is much better for the $\frac{\text{trans}}{\text{epoxy}}$ acid 15 than for the $\frac{\text{cis}}{\text{epoxy}}$ acid 16 (a trend reported earlier by Harada and coworkers 20b , 20c). When 15 is exposed to NH₄OH (instead of benzylamine) for 11 days at room temperature the C-2/C-3 product ratio improves to 11:1. The benzylamine openings of the 2-methyl-substituted analogs of both 15 and 16 were also examined, but not surprisingly C-3 attack predominated in each case (recall that with the epoxy amides an additional C-3 substituent did not thwart highly selective attack at C-3). It is obvious, but worth mentioning, that additional electronic and/or steric factors (in the glycidic acid substrate) which work against C-3 can be expected to favor better C-2 selectivities than those seen with 15 and 16. For example, the glycidic acid analogs of 7 and 8 should open very selectively at C-2 with amine and other nucleophiles.

In spite of the fair to poor selectivities for attack at C-2 by amine nucleophiles on simple glycidic acids such as 15 and 16, we have a recent result which suggests other nucleophiles may be more promising:

From the foregoing discussion it is apparent that 2,3-epoxy alcohols and their derivatives are emerging as chiral intermediates with unique potential for further stereo- and regioselective transformations. This statement is also supported by the numerous practical applications in which the process has played a key role in a synthetic sequence.

2) Syntheses of Diverse Types of Chiral Natural Products and Drugs.

The AE process was used in the following published syntheses: disparlure, 1b,5 leukotriene derivatives, 1b,21,22,23,24 saltmarsh caterpillar pheromone, 5 Comstock mealy bug pheromone, 2 aklavinone, 2 methymycin, 1 erythromycin, 1 virginiamycin M, 2 squalene-2,3-epoxide, 2 sphingosine derivatives, 10b,10c rifamycin S, 30 narasin, 31 salinomycin, 31 sirodesmin A, 32 verrucarin A, 17 alditols, 3a,13a deoxyalditols, 12a,13a,33 aminodeoxyalditols, 33,13a,14 the four D-pentoses, 3b the eight L-hexoses, 34 2,6-dide-oxy-D-arabino-hexose, 33 2,6-dideoxy-D-ribo-hexose, 33 α -D-and β -D-C-glycopyranosides, 35 and chiral 1,2-disubstituted $\underline{\text{trans}}$ -cyclodecenes. 36

In addition to these published cases we wish to disclose some unpublished applications in a highly abbreviated manner. In general only the key epoxy alcohol (along with yield and % e.e. for AE step) and the final product (with overall yield from epoxy alcohol) will be indicated. Occassionally an interesting intermediate step will be shown. The following syntheses will eventually be described in more detail elsewhere.

(a) TsC1, pyr.; Me₂NH, DMSO; HC1, $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{t}_2$ O. (b) RuO₄ ¹⁶; L-leucine methyl ester hydrochloride, DCC, HOBT, N-methyl morpholine, THF; NaN₃, MgSO₄ MeOH; 1% KOH, H₂O, MeOH; 1% HC1, H₂O; H₂, 5% Pd/C, MeOH, H₂O; see also Scheme VI. (c) MsC1, Et₃N, CH₂Cl₂, -20°C; ArO¯Na⁺, DMF; Bu₄N⁺F¯, DMSO, THF: \mathbf{i} -PrNH₂, H₂O. (d) RuO₄ ¹⁶; NH₄OH, THF. (e) LiAlH₄, Et₂O; CHCl₃, cat. TsOH(H₂O).

In the six examples given above a prochiral allylic alcohol was employed. We and others are also finding that the kinetic resolution (KR) of racemic allylic alcohols can be a practical route to chiral substances. 33 Some examples are outlined below where the chiral allylic alcohol (obtained from the racemic allylic alcohol by the KR mode 45 of the AE process in usually >99% e.e.) and the pheromone derived from it are shown.

1)
$$Ph$$

$$[\alpha]_{D}^{25} = -3.68 (c L.5, E10H)$$

$$[\alpha]_{D}^{25} = -3.68 (c L.5, E10H)$$

$$QH$$

$$[\alpha]_{D}^{25} = -0.89 (c L.25, E10H)$$

$$[\alpha]_{D}^{25} = -0.89 (c L.25, E10H)$$

$$[\alpha]_{D}^{23} = +12.0 (c 3.28, MeOH)$$

$$QH$$

$$(ref. 39)$$

$$[\alpha]_{D}^{23} = +12.0 (c 3.28, MeOH)$$

$$QH$$

$$(-)-exobrevicomin$$

$$(-)-endobrevicomin$$

(a) $\rm H_2$, $\rm PtO_2$, $\rm EtOAc$; $\rm Ac_2O$, $\rm pyr.$; $\rm RuO_4^{\ 16}$; $\rm K_2CO_3$, MeOH; conc. HCl. (b) MCPBA, $\rm CH_2Cl_2$; $\rm Ac_2O$, $\rm pyr.$ [proceed with $\rm (\underline{S})$ -threo-epoxy acetate after separation from erythro isomer by silica gel chromatography]; $\rm Me_2CuLi$, $\rm Et_2O$, $\rm O^{\circ}C$; $\rm 10\%$ $\rm H_2SO_4/pentane$ (1:1). (c) Same as in (b) except proceed with $\rm (\underline{S})$ -erythro-epoxy acetate.

Racemic ipsdienol is commercially available. 42 The (\underline{R}) -(-)-enantiomer is an attractant for Ips pini and the (S)-(+)-enantiomer for Ips paraconfusus. Both the R and S enantiomers

were prepared in high (> 99% e.e.) optical purity by running the kinetic resolution to 90% conversion using the appropriate tartrate ester [(+)-DIPT \rightarrow R, (-)-DIPT \rightarrow S]. Trans-verbenol is also commercially available. 42 It is partially enriched in the desired (S)-enantiomer, 43 but much higher purity material was obtained by running the KR process using (+)-DIPT. 44

3) Unusual Kinetic Resolutions

Since our original publication 45 on the kinetic resolution (KR) process, we have examined a wide variety of potential substrates. As revealed by the new results shown in the Table the KR process is not restricted to secondary allylic alcohols in which the chirality resides at the carbinol carbon. Entries 1 through 5 probe the sensitivity to chiral centers at various positions in primary allylic alcohols. Entries 6 and 7 are novel in that they involve kinetic resolution of molecules possessed of axial chirality. Entry 8 reveals that even acetylenic alcohols undergo kinetic resolution, albeit very inefficiently. Entry 9 is an example of a β -hydroxysulfide undergoing kinetic resolution, 46 but at such a low level that it can only be regarded as a curiosity.

TABLE. Unusual Kinetic Resolutions*

% e.e. of Recovered Substrate Recovered Substrate Racemic Substrate 6 + 6.3 (cl.57) >95 +98.0 (c 3.2) 80 + 113,0 (c 3,7) 4) 85 + enantiomer ·OH + 116,5 (c 5,02) 47.8** 5)

6) OH 70
$$H = \frac{1}{16.5} (c 2.94)$$

7) $\underline{nC_7H_{15}} = \frac{OH}{H}$

40 $\underline{nC_7H_{15}} = \frac{OH}{H}$

+ 32.5(c 5.7)

8) $\underline{nC_7H_{15}} = \frac{OH}{R}$

OH 21 $\underline{nC_7H_{15}} = \frac{OH}{R}$

- 3.64(c 6.84)

9) OH absolute configuration unknown

 $\underline{nC_7H_{15}} = \frac{OH}{R} = \frac{OH}{R}$

+ enantiomer

- (*) (+)-DIPT was employed in all cases, and most reactions were run to about 60% conversion (\pm 10%) at -20°C. Reaction times generally ranged from 15h to 2 days, but the acetylenic carbinol (entry 8) required 7 days. The rotations ($[\alpha]_D^{25}$ in absolute ethanol unless otherwise indicated) are given for each recovered (and chromatographically purified) substrate. The absolute configurations were secured by correlations with molecules of known configuration.
- (**) This is a calculated result based on Woodard's 47a carefully determined relative rates for the two enantiomers of perillyl alcohol [with (+)-DIPT at -20° k(\underline{R})/k(\underline{S}) = 2.98] and assuming 60% conversion. See footnote 9 in reference 45 for the equation used in such calculations.

The Table indicates the absolute configuration of the slow reacting (i.e. recovered) enantiomer. In most all cases the outcome is nicely rationalized by the detailed mechanism which we currently favor for the AE process. 47 Certain cases (i.e. entries 4, 6, and 7) are trivial to rationalize based only on the enantioface selection rule (see Scheme I). By contrast, explication of the especially interesting and important results embodied in entries 1, 2, and 3, requires recourse to our detailed picture of the transition state for the process. 48 It is gratifying that this mechanistic model easily predicts not only which enantiomers will react faster but also the approximate magnitude of the rate difference for entries 1, 2, and 3. You may well ask how one could predict the small (6% e.e.) effect seen for the $\frac{1}{1}$ allylic alcohol isomer in entry 1. The point is that the favored mechanism

predicted very little or no kinetic resolution in this case; this expectation was confirmed by the negligible (6% e.e.) kinetic resolution observed. We and others have grown to depend on this insensitivity of the AE process to chirality in the \underline{E} - β -vinyl substitutent, for it allows one to expect the enantioface selection rule to strongly override diastereofacial inclinations existing in the chiral substrate. On the other hand, we and others have learned to expect serious departures from the enantioface selection rules when the chiral center is in the \underline{Z} - β -vinyl position (e.g. entry 3). The dramatic kinetic resolution seen in entry 2 leads to the prediction that similar loss of control over facial-selection may arise when the α -vinyl carbon center is chiral. The simple rule to remember is that if your allylic alcohol has a chiral atom attached to the olefinic unit in the E- β -position you can expect the AE process to access either diastereoface selectively. However, if the chiral atom is in either the \underline{Z} - β -position or the α -position, the AE process will likely give selective access to only one of the diastereofaces.

Perhaps the most dramatic result to date illustrating the remarkable selectivity inherent in these chiral titanium-tartrate epoxidation catalysts is that shown in Scheme VII for epoxidation of the racemic hexadienol $\frac{1}{12}$.

Each enantiomer of $1\mbox{$\mathbb{Z}$}$ offers four distinct olefinic faces for epoxidation, hence there are eight possible monoepoxides. However, two facts enabled us to predict that a single epoxy alcohol, namely 18, should form at less than 50% conversion using (-)-DIPT. The KR selection rule alone can not in this case predict the outcome. The problem is that each enantiomer of $1\mbox{$\mathbb{Z}$}$ possesses a "fast reacting" enantioface for either tartrate chirality. This curious situation is an obvious consequence of the carbinol center bearing two vinylic substituents. Thus both 18 and another erythro-epoxy alcohol 20 could arise based on the KR selection rule alone (eight possibilities is reduced to two). However, due to the fairly extensive kinetic studies on these epoxidations performed by Woodard, we knew that the ($\mbox{$\underline{E}$}$)-propenyl substituent in $1\mbox{$\mathbb{Z}$}$ would be about 70 to 100 times more reactive than the vinyl substituent. Crossing this large relative rate difference (70 to 100) with the large KR

selection factor (the k fast/k slow ratio for chiral \underline{E} -propenylcarbinols is about 100^{45}) allows the correct prediction, namely that epoxy alcohol 18 will be formed very selectively. Another way of tracing the selection factors which reduce the eight possibilities to one involves three binary decisions:

- 1) with (E)-propenyl and vinyl carbinols only erythro-epoxy alcohols are formed $(8 \rightarrow 4)$;
- 2) with (-)-DIPT only erythro-isomers 18 and 20 are possible (4 \rightarrow 2); and finally
- 3) the (E)-propenyl moiety is much more reactive than the vinyl moiety (2 \rightarrow 1).

As expected and shown in Scheme VII, when 18 is subjected to another AE step using the tartrate of opposite chirality [i.e. (+)-DIPT] the bisepoxy alcohol 19 is produced.

Two very important aspects of these asymmetric epoxidations which have been ignored in this lecture are: 1) the mechanism of the process; and 2) the practical experimental details which facilitate execution of the process in the laboratory. These two subjects will be covered extensively in a review scheduled to appear during August of 1983 in Volume 16 (Issue No. 3) of Aldrichimica Acta. 48,50

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