



Direct enolization chemistry of 7-azaindoline amides: A case study of bis(tetrahydrophosphole)-type ligands

Zhao Li, Hidetoshi Noda, Naoya Kumagai*, Masakatsu Shibasaki*

Institute of Microbial Chemistry (BIKAKEN), Tokyo, 3-14-23 Kamiosaki, Shinagawa-ku, Tokyo, 141-0021, Japan

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ABSTRACT

7-Azaindoline amides are particularly useful in direct enolization chemistry due to their facilitated enolization in soft Lewis acid/Brønsted base cooperative catalysis. The Cu(I) complex of (*R,R*)-Ph-BPE, a bis(tetrahydrophosphole)-type chiral bisphosphine ligand, exhibits consistently high catalytic performance and stereoselectivity irrespective of the nature of the α -substituent of the amides. Unexpectedly, however, alkyl-substituted bis(tetrahydrophosphole)-type ligands have substantially inferior catalytic performance. Evaluation of the optimized structures of Cu(I)/amide and Cu(I)/enolate complexes provided clues to dissecting the diverted reaction outcomes.

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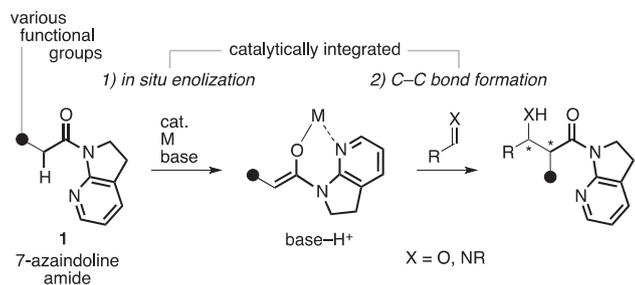
1. Introduction

Enolates are perhaps the most commonly used C-nucleophiles in synthetic organic chemistry to forge carbon–carbon connectivity and construct more complex molecular architectures. Formation of the C(sp^3)–C(sp^3) bond leads to the emergence of two consecutive stereogenic centers, and hence the precise stereochemical control of which has long been an intensive topic of research.¹ The concept of sustainability has rapidly gained popularity in modern synthetic chemistry,² and truly catalytic processes are spotlighted as synthetically useful reactions with a practical level of stereochemical control, including the enolate-driven reaction manifold, e.g., aldol^{1,3} and Mannich⁴ reactions. In this context, the end of the last century witnessed the advent of integrated catalytic processes, comprising 1) catalytic in situ generation of nucleophilically active enolate species; and 2) stereoselective delivery of the thus-formed enolates to electrophiles, affording the desired enantioenriched products directly from bench-stable substrate sets.⁵ This direct catalytic protocol in enolate chemistry eliminated the mandatory use of activating reagents to provide a more sustainable option for

these important reactions. Typical obstacles in these reaction settings originate from the initial catalytic enolization process; the difficulty significantly increases as carbonyl-type substrates become more reluctant to form the corresponding enolates. Consequently, readily enolizable carbonyl compounds, e.g., ketones and aldehydes, are used as potential enolate precursors, and carbonyl compounds bearing less acidic α -protons, e.g., esters and amides, are largely neglected in this useful direct enolization chemistry.⁶ A recent collection of studies led by Kobayashi et al. demonstrated an effective ‘product base’ strategy for taming low-acidic latent enolates.^{7,8} We have devoted particular attention to amides as potential enolate precursors due to their Lewis basic nature, which enables specific interactions with designed Lewis acidic catalysts. Our systematic studies identified 7-azaindoline amides **1** as privileged amide-type enolate precursors that permit a series of C–C bond-forming reactions in a catalytic and stereoselective fashion (Scheme 1).⁹ The utility of **1** is leveraged by the flexible attachment of α -substituents, including heteroatom functionalities, allowing for the catalytic synthesis of an array of functionalized chiral building blocks. Herein we revisited the collection of catalytic asymmetric transformations using **1** as enolate precursors to guide the stereochemical outcomes. Additional screening studies elucidated the exclusive utility of a 2,5-diphenyl-substituted bis(tetrahydrophosphole) type ligand, which was supported by computational analysis.

* Corresponding authors.

E-mail addresses: nkumagai@bikaken.or.jp (N. Kumagai), mshibasankumagai@bikaken.or.jp (M. Shibasaki).



Scheme 1. Structure of 7-azaindoline amides **1** and their utility in direct enolization chemistry.

2. Results and discussion

The proficiency of 7-azaindoline amides **1** is characterized by 1) facilitated enolization as well as 2) a broad compatibility of substituents at the α -position. These amides prefer the *E*-conformation in both solid and solution phase as evidenced by X-ray crystallographic analysis and NMR spectroscopy.^{9c} In the presence of protons or Lewis acidic metals, **1** adopts a *Z*-conformation with chelating interactions *via* the pyridyl nitrogen of the flipped 7-azaindoline moiety and the amide oxygen (Scheme 1). This facile chelate formation is likely responsible for subsequent enolization by a catalytic amount of Brønsted base. Typically, Cu(I)/chiral bisphosphine (P-ligand) complex is considered to be an optimal chiral Lewis acid, where Cu(I) is coordinatively saturated. α -Substituents are out of the coordination sphere of Cu(I), and hence various functional groups are tolerated, e.g., α -alkyl (C),^{9f,9g} α -fluoroalkyl (RF),^{9b,9c,9h,9i,10} α -azido (N),^{9d,9e} α -benzyloxy (O),^{9k} α -halo (F, Cl, Br, I),^{9j} and α -methylsulfanyl (S),^{9a} covering virtually all functional groups used in synthetic organic chemistry. The competent catalyst cocktails are categorized into three variants based on the Brønsted base; A) [Cu(CH₃CN)₄]PF₆/P-ligand/Barton's

base, B) mesitylcopper/P-ligand, and C) mesitylcopper/P-ligand/phenol derivatives (Fig. 2). Type-A is the most general and intuitive combination with independent functions of the Cu(I)/P-ligand complex and Barton's base as an amide activator and a Brønsted base for deprotonation, respectively. In the case of Type-B, oligomeric mesitylcopper¹¹ functions as a Brønsted base at the initial catalytic cycle to form a ligated Cu(I)-enolate. Following C–C bond formation with C=O (aldehyde) or C=N (imine) type electrophiles delivers Cu(I)-aldolate or Cu(I)-amide, which functions as a soft Lewis acid/Brønsted base cooperative catalyst¹² for the following catalytic cycle. A mixture of mesitylcopper/P-ligand/phenol derivative leads to a ligated Cu(I)-aryloxide complex in a Type-C catalytic system, analogous to the Type-B catalyst. A series of Cu(I)-catalyzed, aldol, and Mannich-type reactions is illustrated in Fig. 1 based on functional groups at the α -position of the 7-azaindoline amide and classes of P-ligands. This chart reveals that the absolute configuration at the α -position of the carbonyl group is determined by the P-ligand architecture, except for the case of **1-R^F**; (*R*)-biaryls, (*R,R*)-Ph-BPE, and (*R,R_p*)-Walphos prefer α -down, α -up, and α -down configurations, respectively.¹³ In contrast, configuration at the β -position is capricious depending on subtle differences in the electrophilic partner. Taken together, the C–C bond formation presumably occurs *via* an acyclic transition state from coordinatively saturated Cu(I)-enolate. (*R,R*)-Ph-BPE attracted our particular attention because of its broad utility in the aldol and Mannich-type reactions of **1-N₃**, **1-Me**, and **1-Cl** without any screening process using structurally related derivatives. This fact led us to perform the reactions using other BPE derivatives as well as Duphos-type ligands possessing an embedded benzene ring, which share 2,5-disubstituted tetrahydrophosphole units linked by a C2-tether. Table 1 summarizes the aldol or Mannich-type reactions of 7-azaindoline amides and benzaldehyde **3** or aldimine **6** using three BPE-type and two Duphos-type P-ligands. Unexpectedly, alkyl-substituted BPE-type ligands (*R,R*)-*i*Pr-BPE and (*S,S*)-Me-BPE¹⁴ were not effective at all in the three reactions shown in Table 1, in marked contrast to the favorable reaction outcomes

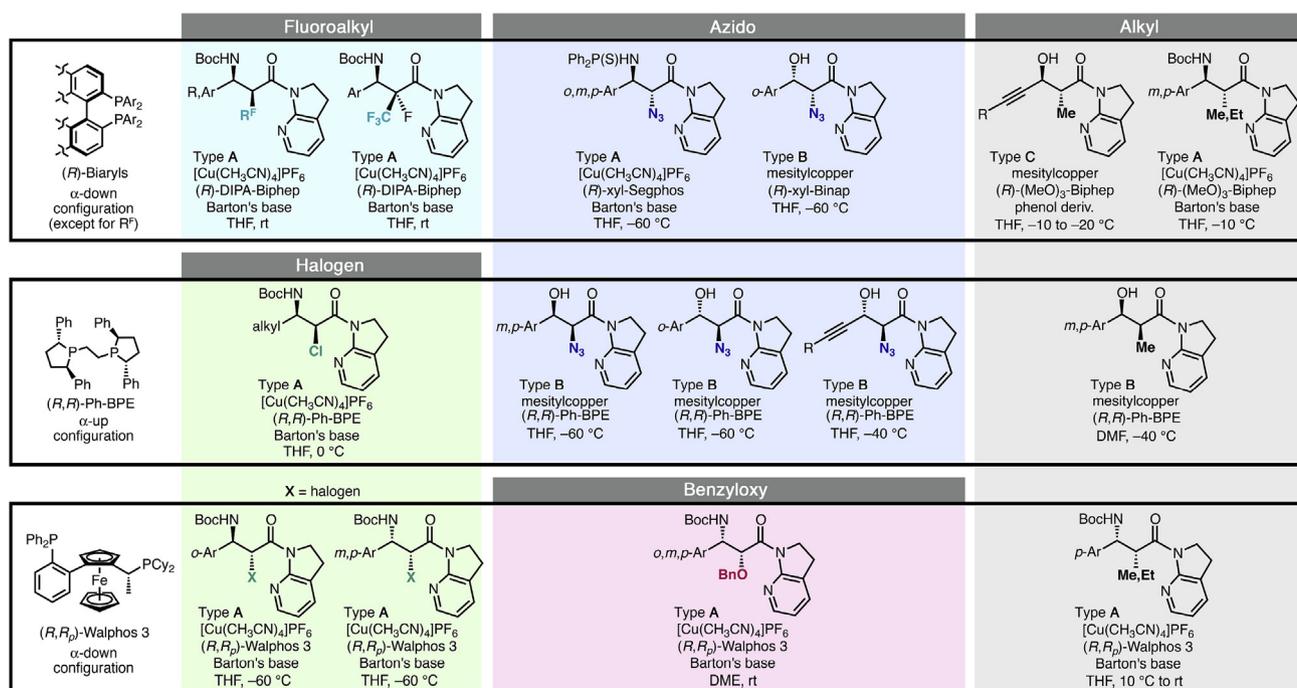
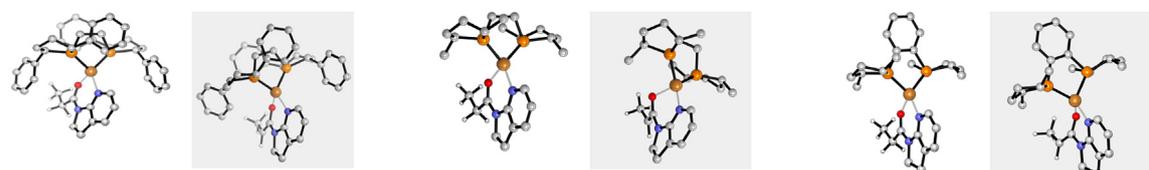


Fig. 1. Schematic representation of Cu(I)/P-ligand catalyzed direct aldol and Mannich reactions. DIPA denotes 3,5-diisopropyl-4-(dimethylamino)phenyl group. Xyl denotes 3,5-dimethylphenyl group.

Table 2
Key structural parameters of Cu(I)/P-ligand/amide and Cu(I)/P-ligand/enolate complexes.^a



	<i>(R,R)</i> -Ph-BPE		Diff. ^b	<i>(S,S)</i> -Me-BPE		Diff. ^b	<i>(S,S)</i> -Me-Duphos		Diff. ^b
	amide complex	enolate complex		amide complex	enolate complex		amide complex	enolate complex	
bond length (Å)									
Cu–O	2.140	2.020		2.139	2.034		2.137	2.020	
Cu–N _{Py}	2.092	2.075		2.096	2.068		2.093	2.074	
O–C _{Am}	1.235	1.296		1.235	1.298		1.235	1.299	
C _{Am} –C _α	1.521	1.368		1.522	1.366		1.523	1.365	
bond angle (deg)									
O–Cu–N _{Py}	85.688	89.550		86.099	91.221		85.972	90.626	
dihedral angle (deg)									
O–C _{Am} –N _{Am} –C _{Py}	–6.323	–8.9162	2.593	–1.648	–25.570	23.921	0.879	–23.784	22.905



^a For optimized structures, protons of ligands and the 7-azaindoline unit are omitted for clarity. Color codes; hydrogen: white, carbon: grey, nitrogen: blue, oxygen: red, phosphorus: orange, copper: brown.

^b Absolute value of difference between the amide complex and the enolate complex.

(R,R)-Ph-BPE in direct aldol reactions of 7-azaindoline amides.

3. Conclusion

7-Azaindoline amides are particularly useful pronucleophiles in direct enolization chemistry, allowing for direct aldol and Mannich-type reactions with chiral Cu(I) catalysts in a highly stereoselective manner. Evaluation of a series of reactions revealed that a bis(tetrahydrophosphole)-type P-ligand, *(R,R)*-Ph-BPE, is a privileged ligand architecture effective for both aldol and Mannich reactions, and 7-azaindoline amides bearing different α -substituents were tolerated. Intriguingly, *(R,R)*-Ph-BPE was an outlier among structurally similar alkyl-substituted counterparts in both catalytic activity and stereochemical control. Optimized structures of Cu(I)/ligand/amide and Cu(I)/ligand/enolate complexes based on DFT calculations implied that the significantly smaller change in the dihedral angle between the enolate plane and the 7-azaindoline unit upon enolization would contribute to the facilitated enolization. In-depth systematic experimental and computational studies of 2,5-diaryl-substituted bis(tetrahydrophosphole)-type ligands are underway.

4. Experimental section

General Experimental Methods. Unless otherwise noted, all reactions were carried out in oven-dried glassware fitted with a three-way glass stopcock under argon atmosphere and stirred with Teflon-coated magnetic stir bars. All workup and purification procedures were carried out with reagent-grade solvents under ambient atmosphere. 7-Azaindoline amides **1-N₃**, **1-Me**, and **1-Cl** were prepared according to the reported procedures.^{9e,f,j}

4.1. (2*S*,3*R*)-2-Azido-1-(2,3-dihydro-1*H*-pyrrolo[2,3-*b*]pyridin-1-yl)-3-hydroxy-3-phenylpropan-1-one (**4**)

A flame-dried 20-mL test tube equipped with a magnetic stir bar and a 3-way glass stopcock was charged with amide **1-N₃** (40.6 0.2 mmol), benzaldehyde **3** (25 μ L, 0.24 mmol), and 2,2,5,7,8-pentamethyl-6-chromanol **2** (4.4 mg, 0.02 mmol). Dry THF (0.3 mL) was added to the mixture and the test tube was immersed in an electronically-controlled cooling bath at -60°C . The catalyst solution was prepared as follows and added to the solution. A flame-dried 20-mL test tube equipped with a magnetic stirring bar and a 3-way glass stopcock was charged with *(R,R)*-Ph-BPE (10.1 mg, 0.02 mmol) and mesitylcopper (3.7 mg, 0.02 mmol) in a dry box. THF (0.3 mL) was added to the mixture *via* a syringe equipped with a stainless-steel needle at room temperature. A pale yellow solution of *(R,R)*-Ph-BPE/mesitylcopper was obtained, which was used within 5 min. After 24 h of stirring at -60°C , the reaction was quenched with sat. aq. NH₄Cl and the biphasic mixture was extracted with EtOAc. The combined organic layers were washed with brine and dried over Na₂SO₄. After evaporation of the solvent under reduced pressure, the residue was submitted to ¹H NMR analysis to determine the yield and diastereomeric ratio. The enantiomeric excess was determined by HPLC analysis (CHIRALPAK IB (ϕ 0.46 cm \times 25 cm), *n*-hexane/2-propanol = 9/1, flow rate 1.0 mL/min, detection at 254 nm, t_{R} = 28.4 (major), 41.2 (minor).

4.2. (2*S*,3*S*)-1-(2,3-Dihydro-1*H*-pyrrolo[2,3-*b*]pyridin-1-yl)-3-hydroxy-2-methyl-3-phenylpropan-1-one (**5**)

A flame-dried 20-mL test tube equipped with a magnetic stir bar and a 3-way glass stopcock was charged with amide **1-Me** (17.6 mg, 0.1 mmol). Dry DMF (0.15 mL) was added to the mixture and the test tube was immersed into an electronically-controlled cooling

bath at -40°C . The catalyst solution was prepared as follows and added to the solution. A flame-dried 20-mL test tube equipped with a magnetic stir bar and a 3-way glass stopcock was charged with (*R,R*)-Ph-BPE (5.1 mg, 0.01 mmol) and mesitylcopper (1.8 mg, 0.01 mmol) in a glove box. DMF (0.05 mL) was added to the mixture via a syringe equipped with a stainless-steel needle at room temperature. A pale-yellow solution of (*R,R*)-Ph-BPE/mesitylcopper was obtained, which was used within 5 min. After the addition of benzaldehyde **3** (15 μL , 0.15 mmol) at -40°C , the mixture was stirred for 24 h at the same temperature. Saturated aq. NH_4Cl was added to quench the reaction and the aqueous layer was extracted three times with EtOAc. The combined organic layers were washed with brine and dried over Na_2SO_4 . The filtrate was concentrated under reduced pressure and the residue was submitted to ^1H NMR analysis to determine the yield and diastereomeric ratio. The diastereomeric ratio and enantiomeric excess was determined by HPLC analysis using a CHIRALPAK IF, (Φ 0.46 cm \times 25 cm), *n*-hexane/2-propanol = 3/1, flow rate 1.0 mL/min, detection at 254 nm, t_{R} = 10.8 min (minor), 30.4 min (major).

4.3. *tert*-Butyl((2*S*,3*R*)-2-chloro-1-(2,3-dihydro-1*H*-pyrrolo[2,3-*b*]pyridin-1-yl)-4-methyl-1-oxopentan-3-yl)carbamate (**7**)

A flame-dried 20-mL test tube equipped with a magnetic stir bar and a 3-way glass stopcock was charged with (*R,R*)-Ph-BPE (6.1 mg, 0.012 mmol) and $[\text{Cu}(\text{CH}_3\text{CN})_4]\text{PF}_6$ (3.7 mg, 0.010 mmol, 10 mol%) in a dry box. Anhydrous THF (0.2 mL) was added to the mixture via a syringe equipped with a stainless-steel needle at room temperature. The resulting solution was stirred for 1 h and transferred to another test tube prepared as follows: a flame-dried 20-mL test tube equipped with a magnetic stir bar and a 3-way glass stopcock was charged with amide **1-Cl** (19.6 mg, 0.1 mmol) and imine **6** (51.4 mg, 0.3 mmol). The test tube was cooled to 0°C . Barton's base (0.1 M in THF, 0.1 mL, 0.010 mmol) was added to the mixture via a syringe equipped with a stainless-steel needle. After 24 h of stirring at 0°C , the reaction was quenched with a solution of acetic acid in THF (0.1 M in THF, 1.0 mL). After evaporation of the solvent under reduced pressure, the residue was submitted to ^1H NMR analysis to determine the yield and diastereomeric ratio. The enantiomeric excess was determined by HPLC analysis (CHIRALCEL OD-H (Φ 0.46 cm \times 25 cm), *n*-hexane/2-propanol = 19/1, flow rate 0.5 mL/min, detection at 254 nm, t_{R} = 14.2 min (major), 17.5 min (minor)).

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tet.2018.03.073>.

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13. Enantiomeric structures are shown for the examples using (*S,S*)-Ph-BPE in the literatures.
14. CIP rule labels the methyl-substituted BPE as (*S,S*), but it bears identical configuration at 2- and 5-positions as (*R,R*)-Ph- and (*R,R*)-iPr-BPE.
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