<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Title</strong></th>
<th>Asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions of acrylamides</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Author(s)</strong></td>
<td>Kissane, Marie; Maguire, Anita R.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Publication date</strong></td>
<td>2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of publication</strong></td>
<td>Review</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Link to publisher's version** | [http://pubs.rsc.org/en/content/articlelanding/2010/cs/b909358n](http://pubs.rsc.org/en/content/articlelanding/2010/cs/b909358n)  
[http://dx.doi.org/10.1039/B909358N](http://dx.doi.org/10.1039/B909358N) |
| **Rights**      | ©2010, The Authors. Exclusive licence to publish RSC Publishing. |
| **Item downloaded from** | [http://hdl.handle.net/10468/593](http://hdl.handle.net/10468/593) |

Downloaded on 2020-03-16T17:41:36Z
Asymmetric 1,3-Dipolar Cycloadditions of Acrylamides

Marie Kissane\textsuperscript{a} and Anita R. Maguire\textsuperscript{b,*}

\textsuperscript{a} Department of Chemistry, Analytical and Biological Chemistry Research Facility, University College Cork, Cork, Ireland.

\textsuperscript{b} Department of Chemistry & School of Pharmacy, Analytical and Biological Chemistry Research Facility, University College Cork, Cork, Ireland.

*Corresponding author. Tel.: +353 21 4901693; fax: +353 21 4274097. E-mail: a.maguire@ucc.ie

Contents

1.1 1,3-Dipolar cycloadditions ........................................................................................................... 2
  1.1.1 The 1,3-Dipole ..................................................................................................................... 2
  1.1.2 The Dipolarophile ............................................................................................................... 4
  1.1.3 Mechanism of 1,3-Dipolar Cycloaddition ......................................................................... 5
  1.1.4 Regioselectivity of 1,3-Dipolar Cycloaddition ................................................................. 6
  1.1.5 Stereoselectivity ............................................................................................................... 7
  1.1.6 Reactivity ......................................................................................................................... 8

1.2 Asymmetric 1,3-Dipolar Cycloadditions .................................................................................. 10
  1.2.1 Cycloadditions with Nitrile Oxides ................................................................................ 13
    1.2.1.1 Synthesis of Nitrile Oxides ....................................................................................... 14
    1.2.1.2 Regioselectivity ......................................................................................................... 14
    1.2.1.3 Asymmetric 1,3-Dipolar Cycloaddition of Nitrile Oxides ........................................ 15
    1.2.1.4 Asymmetric 1,3-Dipolar Cycloadditions of Nitrile Oxides and Acrylamides .......... 16
  1.2.2 Cycloadditions with Nitrones ......................................................................................... 26
    1.2.2.1 Synthesis of Nitrones ............................................................................................... 26
    1.2.2.2 Regioselectivity ......................................................................................................... 27
    1.2.2.3 Stereochemistry ........................................................................................................ 28
    1.2.2.4 Asymmetric 1,3-Dipolar Cycloadditions of Nitrones ............................................... 29
    1.2.2.5 Asymmetric 1,3-Dipolar Cycloadditions of Nitrones and Acrylamides .................. 30
      1.2.2.5.1 Non-Metal Catalysed Cycloadditions ................................................................. 30
      1.2.2.5.2 Metal Catalysed Cycloadditions ....................................................................... 37
        1.2.2.5.2.1 Titanium Catalysts ......................................................................................... 39
        1.2.2.5.2.2 Magnesium Catalysts .................................................................................... 41
        1.2.2.5.2.3 Manganese Catalysts .................................................................................... 43
        1.2.2.5.2.4 Zinc Catalysts ................................................................................................. 43
        1.2.2.5.2.5 Copper Catalysts ......................................................................................... 44
        1.2.2.5.2.6 Palladium Catalysts ...................................................................................... 45
        1.2.2.5.2.7 Nickel Catalysts ............................................................................................ 46
        1.2.2.5.2.8 Lanthanide Catalysts ..................................................................................... 48
  1.2.3 Cycloadditions with Diazoalkanes ..................................................................................... 48
    1.2.3.1 Regioselectivity and Reactivity .................................................................................. 49
    1.2.3.2 Asymmetric 1,3-Dipolar Cycloadditions of Diazoalkanes and Acrylamides ............ 50
  1.2.4 Cycloadditions with Azomethine Ylides .......................................................................... 55
    1.2.4.1 Synthesis of Azomethine Ylides ............................................................................... 56
    1.2.4.2 Reactivity and Regioselectivity ................................................................................ 57
    1.2.4.3 Asymmetric 1,3-Dipolar Cycloadditions of Azomethine Ylides .............................. 58
1.1 1,3-Dipolar cycloadditions

1,3-Dipolar cycloadditions offer a very useful method for the preparation of five-membered ring heterocycles.\textsuperscript{1,2} This [4\pi s + 2\pi s] cycloaddition, thermally allowed by the Woodward-Hoffmann rules,\textsuperscript{3} involves the reaction of a dipolarophile (e.g. alkenes, alkynes, carbonyls and nitriles) with a 1,3-dipolar compound (Scheme 1). The concept of 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions was initially suggested by Smith in 1938,\textsuperscript{4} but it was only after the generalisation of the reaction by Huisgen in the 1960’s that the reaction became widely applicable.\textsuperscript{5} The research conducted in the area of 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions has been immense over the past 40 years,\textsuperscript{6-45} and the reaction is now utilised in almost every area of chemistry, from materials chemistry\textsuperscript{46} to drug discovery,\textsuperscript{47} indicating its diversity.

\textbf{Scheme 1}

\begin{center}
\includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{Scheme1.png}
\end{center}

1.1.1 The 1,3-Dipole

The 1,3-dipole is a three-atom \pi-electron system, with four \pi-electrons delocalised over the three atoms. It can be represented by two octet-structures, in which the positive charge is located on the central atom and the negative charge is distributed over the two terminal atoms, and two sextet-structures, wherein two of the four \pi-electrons are localised at the central atom (Scheme 2). The sextet formulas contribute little to the electron distribution of the resonance hybrid but illustrate the ambivalence of the 1,3-dipole, which is key to understanding the mechanism, reactivity and regiochemistry of 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions.

\textbf{Scheme 2}

\begin{center}
\includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{Scheme2.png}
\end{center}
1,3-Dipoles can be classified into two types; the allyl anion type (so-called because it is isoelectronic with the allyl anion) and the propargyl/allenyl anion type. The allyl anion type is characterised by four electrons in three parallel \( p_Z \) orbitals perpendicular to the plane of the dipole. 1,3-Dipoles of the allyl type are bent, while the presence of a double bond orthogonal to the delocalized \( \pi \)-system in the propargyl/allenyl anion type confers linearity to the dipole (Scheme 3).

![Allyl Type and Propargyl-Allenyl Type](image)

**Scheme 3**

For the allyl type dipoles, the central atom \( b \) may be a group V element (e.g. N or P) or a group VI element (e.g. O or S). For the propargyl/allenyl types, the role of \( b \) is restricted to group V elements, as only an atom of this group can bear a positive charge in the quartervalent state. By restricting \( a \) and \( c \) to second-row elements (C, N, O), six dipoles of the propargyl/allenyl type can be formed and twelve of the allyl type (Table 1). The incorporation of higher-row elements such as sulfur and phosphorus into the 1,3-dipole is also possible, but such dipoles are much less widely used.
1.1.2 The Dipolarophile

The 2π component of the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition is commonly known as the dipolarophile. The dipolarophile can be almost any double or triple bond, containing functionality such as C≡C,\(^4\) C=C,\(^49\) C≡N,\(^50\) C=N,\(^51\) C=O,\(^5\) and C=S.\(^52\) The π-bond may be isolated, conjugated\(^53\) or part of a cumulene\(^54\) system. The structural variety of dipolarophiles makes 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions very valuable and versatile reactions in heterocyclic synthesis.

The presence of electron-withdrawing or electron-donating groups on the dipolarophile leads to enhanced reactivity with 1,3-dipoles (see Section 1.1.6), but a combination of both types of substituents in one molecule results in a dipolarophile of low reactivity. A second electron withdrawing substituent symmetrically added to the dipolarophile produces a
multiplicative effect on the rate, and the introduction of conjugation into the dipolarophile has a similar effect.\textsuperscript{55}

### 1.1.3 Mechanism of 1,3-Dipolar Cycloaddition

The mechanism of the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition was subject to much debate during the 1960’s. A synchronous, concerted mechanism was proposed by Huisgen,\textsuperscript{5,56,57} whereas the stepwise, diradical pathway was favoured by Firestone (Scheme 4).\textsuperscript{58-60}

![Scheme 4](image)

The strongest evidence in support of Huisgen’s concerted mechanism is the strictly cis-nature of the additions, in that the geometrical relationships among the substituents on both the reactants are preserved in the product. Firestone, however, argued that in the intermediate diradical the energy barrier for rotation around the single bond is greater than the activation energy for ring closure, which would also explain the cis-stereospecificity. To aid in solving this debate, Houk and co-workers collaborated with Firestone in 1985\textsuperscript{61} and studied the specificity of the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of \textit{p}-nitrobenzonitrile oxide to cis- and trans-dideuterioethylene (Scheme 5). Reaction of the benzonitrile oxide 1 with cis-dideuterioethylene 2 yielded the cis adduct 3 exclusively. As rotation about single bonds to deuterated primary radical centres in diradicals is very fast relative to cyclisation, formation of both cis- and trans-adducts would be expected if a diradical intermediate were involved. Consistent results were obtained for trans-dideuterioethylene.

![Scheme 5](image)

At present, the most widely accepted view is of an asynchronous concerted process in which the formation of one of the new \(\sigma\)-bonds is more advanced than the other. The cycloadditions can be represented as going through a transition state in which the \(4\pi\)-electron component of the dipole interacts with the \(2\pi\)-electron component of the dipolarophile (Figure 1).
1.1.4 Regioselectivity of 1,3-Dipolar Cycloaddition

The regioselectivity of 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions can be rationalised by frontier orbital theory, since the transition state is controlled by the frontier orbital coefficients. Sustmann has classified 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions into three types, designated Types I-III, depending on the nature of the substituents on the dipole and dipolarophile. In Type I, the LUMO of the dipolarophile can interact with the HOMO of the dipole (common for electron-deficient dipolarophiles). In Type III, the HOMO of the dipolarophile can interact with the LUMO of the dipole (common for electron-rich dipolarophiles), and in Type II the frontier orbital energies of the dipole and dipolarophile are very similar and a combination of both modes of interaction can occur (Figure 2).

Once the dominant frontier molecular orbital interaction has been identified, the most favourable direction of combination is then that in which the two terminal atoms with the largest orbital coefficients interact. This is depicted in Figure 3 in which transition state A is more stable than transition state B.

The frontier orbital coefficients for a large number of dipolarophiles and dipoles have been calculated, and these can be used to explain the observed regioselectivities for a range of
1,3-dipolar cycloadditions. The effects of the substituents on the shapes of the frontier orbitals of dipolarophiles has been derived by Houk, and are depicted in Figure 4.

![HOMO and LUMO orbitals](image)

\[ D = \text{electron donating, } C = \text{conjugated, } W = \text{electron withdrawing} \]

**Figure 4**

For example, in the addition of diazomethane to methyl methacrylate (a Type I interaction), the regioisomer 4 is predicted to form, which agrees with experimental data (Scheme 6).

![Scheme 6](image)

**1.1.5 Stereoselectivity**

In addition to being regioselective, 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions are also highly stereoselective, with the stereochemistry of the original dipolarophile retained in the adduct. This is a consequence of the concerted mechanism of the reaction. Provided that the cycloaddition reaction is significantly faster than the isomerisation of the dipole by rotation, then the addition is also stereoselective with respect to the dipole. This is particularly important for azomethine ylides and carbonyl ylides, which are prone to isomerisation.

When two chiral centres are formed during the cycloaddition, one arising from the dipole and one arising from the dipolarophile, diastereomeric products (cis- and trans-) may be produced via endo and exo transition states (Figure 5). Secondary orbital interactions have been used to explain the stereoselectivity of a large number of 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions. The extent to which each diastereomer forms depends on attractive \( \pi \)-orbital overlap of unsaturated substituents (favouring an endo transition state) and repulsive van der Waals steric interactions (favouring an exo transition state), with a mixture of diastereomers obtained in most instances. However, the endolexo selectivity is more likely due to a combination of effects, including solvent effects, steric interactions, hydrogen bonds and electrostatic forces.
This was clearly demonstrated by Joucla et al. in his study of the reaction of \(C-p\)-methoxyphenyl\(-N\)-phenylnitrone 5 with methyl crotonate 6. A diastereomeric ratio of 70:30 (\(7\)endo: \(8\)exo) was observed, with the endo-isomer favoured due to the stabilising interaction of the nitrogen \(p\) orbital with the \(p\) orbital of the carbonyl carbon (Scheme 7).

Scheme 7

Furthermore, if the dipole or dipolarophile bears a chiral auxiliary or if a chiral catalyst is used, then non-racemic cycloadducts can be produced (see Section 1.2).

### 1.1.6 Reactivity

The reactivity of 1,3-dipoles towards various dipolarophiles varies immensely. As mentioned previously, the cycloaddition is dominated by the HOMO and the LUMO of the two reactants, and the smaller the energy difference between the HOMO and LUMO, the stronger the interaction. Electron-withdrawing substituents on either the dipole or dipolarophile lower the level of both the HOMO and LUMO, electron-donating groups raise the energy of both while conjugating groups raise the energy of the HOMO but lower the LUMO energy. The presence of substituents can thus lead to an acceleration or deceleration in the reaction rate depending on whether the FMO energy gap increases or decreases.

Reactions will be favoured if one component is strongly electrophilic and the other is strongly nucleophilic. The reactivity of 1,3-dipoles towards electron rich and electron poor
dipolarophiles differs greatly; for example, ozone is an electrophilic 1,3-dipole, diazoalkanes are nucleophilic whereas phenyl azide is not particularly nucleophilic or electrophilic, and the reactivity is influenced by the electronic nature of the dipolarophile.

The presence of Lewis acids in the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition can have a pronounced effect on the reactivity; Lewis acids can alter the orbital coefficients of the reacting atoms and the frontier orbitals of the two reactants and overall, the coordination of a Lewis acid leads to a decrease in the energy difference between the HOMO and LUMO and thus to an increase in the reactivity (Figure 6).

![Figure 6](image)

In 2003, Merino and co-workers examined the influence of Lewis acids on the cycloaddition between N-benzyl-C-(2-pyridyl)nitrone 9 and allylic alcohol 10. In the absence of catalyst, the reaction required heating at reflux for 7 days and the ratio of cis- and trans-isoxazolidine products 11a and 11b was 70:30. In the presence of one equivalent of AgOTf, [Ag(OClO₃)(PPh₂Me)] or Zn(OTf)₂, the reaction rate approximately doubled and greatly improved cis-diastereoselectivity was observed (Scheme 8).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lewis acid</th>
<th>time (days)</th>
<th>11a: 11b</th>
<th>yield (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70:30</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AgOTf</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>&gt;95:5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Ag(OClO₃)(PPh₂Me)]</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>&gt;95:5</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zn(OTf)₂</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>&gt;95:5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The *endo* and *exo* transition states shown in Scheme 9 were proposed, and the preference for *cis*-diastereoselectivity was believed to be due to the substitution of one of the ligands of the Lewis acid by the alcohol group in the *exo* transition state. Such substitution is not feasible in the *endo* transition state.

Like the mechanistically related Diels Alder cycloaddition, the choice of solvent has very little influence on the rate of the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition. According to quantum mechanical calculations, concerted cycloadditions have early transition states, and this is the primary reason why such a small solvent effect is usually observed.⁷

### 1.2 Asymmetric 1,3-Dipolar Cycloadditions

As up to four stereocentres can be introduced in a stereoselective manner in a single step, much attention has been devoted in recent years to the use of asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions for the preparation of enantiomerically pure five-membered ring heterocycles.⁶,¹⁰,¹⁴-¹⁶,¹⁹ Control of the diastereo- and enantioselectivity in the addition step is the major challenge in asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions. It is possible to control the diastereoselectivity by choosing the appropriate substrates or using a metal complex acting as a catalyst, and the enantioselectivity can be controlled by either choosing a chiral 1,3-dipole, a chiral dipolarophile or a chiral catalyst.

An early example of the use of chiral dipoles was described by Belzecki and Panfil in 1977.⁷²,⁷³ The cycloaddition of chiral nitrones to monosubstituted and disubstituted alkenes led to four non-racemic isoxazolidines as two pairs of diastereomers arising from *endo* and *exo* addition to either the *re* or *si* face of the alkene, with preference for the formation of the *cis*-diastereomers resulting from *exo* attack (Scheme 10).
One of the first examples of the employment of chiral catalysts in a 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition was reported by Grigg et al. in 1991. In the cycloaddition of azomethine ylides to methyl acrylate, the use of Mn(II) or Co(II) salts in combination with a chiral ligand led to the attainment of enantiomeric excesses of up to 96% (Scheme 11). The pre-transition state chelate depicted in Scheme 11 provides effective shielding of one face of the dipole.
Most of the reported studies on the control of the stereoselectivity by use of chiral dipolarophiles concern the use of $\alpha,\beta$-unsaturated carbonyl compounds, and in particular acrylates.\cite{75,82} However, in cycloadditions with chiral acrylates, in addition to controlling the direction of attack of the 1,3-dipole, the rotameric preference of the acrylate must be controlled to achieve high levels of diastereoselectivity – the acrylate can exist in the $s$-cis or $s$-trans conformation as depicted in Figure 7. This is often controlled by the addition of Lewis acids,\cite{82} but is not always feasible [for example in 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions with nitrile oxides (see Section 1.2.1.3)].

![Figure 7](image)

The use of chiral tertiary acrylamides provides a solution to the rotamer problem encountered with esters, as the planar $s$-trans conformation is disfavored.\cite{83} However, rotation about the C-N bond is possible leading to two low-energy $s$-cis conformers (Figure 8).

![Figure 8](image)

The development of chiral tertiary acrylamides containing nitrogen heterocycles such as 12 and 13 overcomes this problem.\cite{83,84}

![12](image)

![13](image)

This review focuses on the asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions of acrylamides, with particular emphasis on the rationale for the observed stereocontrol. The use of chiral acrylamides as dipolarophiles can lead to high levels of stereocontrol, due to conformational constraint in the acrylamides. Employment of chiral tertiary acrylamides containing nitrogen heterocycles is particularly effective at controlling the stereoselectivity of the process, as rotation around the C-N bond is disfavoured. The application of the cycloadducts derived from the 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions in natural product synthesis will also be highlighted. Several excellent reviews on asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions have been published, however they have described cycloadditions with a range of dipolarophiles.\cite{6,10,14-16}
1.2.1 Cycloadditions with Nitrile Oxides

Nitrile oxides are highly reactive 1,3-dipoles of the propargyl/allenyl type which undergo cycloadditions with a variety of dipolarophiles to form isoxazole or isoxazoline cycloadducts (Scheme 12). As nitrile oxides have both nucleophilic and electrophilic character, their reactivity towards dipolarophiles is increased by either electron-withdrawing or electron-donating substituents on the dipolarophile.

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{R}^-\text{C}\equiv\text{N}\equiv\text{O}^+ \quad \text{+} \quad \text{C}\equiv\text{C}^- \\
&\text{R}^-\text{C}\equiv\text{N}\equiv\text{O}^+ \quad \text{+} \quad \text{C}\equiv\text{C}^- \\
\end{align*}
\]

\textit{Scheme 12}

Nitrile oxides are extremely reactive, and readily undergo dimerisation to form the corresponding furoxan (Scheme 13). The rate of this dimerisation is exceptionally fast for lower aliphatic nitrile oxides, with acetonitrile oxide dimerising in less than one minute, whereas the half-life of most aromatic nitrile oxides at room temperature is several hours.

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{R}^-\text{C}\equiv\text{N}\equiv\text{O}^+ \quad \text{+} \quad \text{R}^-\text{C}\equiv\text{N}\equiv\text{O}^+ \\
\end{align*}
\]

\textit{Scheme 13}

This dimerisation issue can be dealt with in two ways. The employment of sterically hindered nitrile oxides, such as 2,4,6-trimethylbenzonitrile oxide, blocks the dimerisation and nitrile oxides of this nature have unlimited stability. The \textit{in situ} generation of the nitrile oxide in the presence of the dipolarophile also overcomes this problem, provided the cycloaddition competes kinetically with the dimerisation. The nitrile oxide is generated very slowly so that a low stationary concentration is maintained.

The 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of nitrile oxides is a very versatile reaction for the construction of stereoselective compounds. The isoxazoline ring can be readily cleaved, allowing stereocontrolled access to a variety of acyclic compounds, including \(\gamma\)-hydroxyketones and \(\gamma\)-amino alcohols (Scheme 14).

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{R}_1^-\text{C}\equiv\text{N}\equiv\text{O}^+ \quad \text{+} \quad \text{R}_2^-\text{C}\equiv\text{C}^- \\
&\text{R}_1^-\text{C}\equiv\text{N}\equiv\text{O}^+ \quad \text{+} \quad \text{R}_2^-\text{C}\equiv\text{C}^- \\
\end{align*}
\]

\textit{Scheme 14}
1.2.1.1 Synthesis of Nitrile Oxides

The most widely applicable methods for the preparation of nitrile oxides are the dehydrohalogenation of hydroximic acid halides and the dehydration of primary nitroparaffins.8,87

Hydroximic acid chlorides and bromides are most conveniently prepared from the corresponding aldoximes by reaction with halogens.8 Use of milder reagents such as N-bromosuccinimide,88 N-chlorosuccinimide89 and nitrosyl chloride90 have also been reported for this transformation, and these are particularly useful for aldoximes containing halogen sensitive groups. The use of the conventional halogenation reactions can be avoided by reaction of conjugated nitroalkenes with titanium tetrachloride.91 Dehydrohalogenation is most commonly achieved by addition of one equivalent of a tertiary amine base (usually triethylamine) to a solution or suspension of the hydroximic acid halide in an inert organic solvent such as diethyl ether (Scheme 15). A range of aliphatic, aromatic and heterocyclic nitrile oxides have been prepared by this method.8

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{R} = \text{C}=\text{NOH} \\
\text{X} \quad \text{or NOCl} \\
\text{or NXS} \\
\text{hydroximic acid halide}
\end{align*}
\]

Scheme 15

The dehydration of primary nitro compounds with phenylisocyanate in the presence of a catalytic amount of a tertiary base such as triethylamine, was first reported by Mukaiyama and Hoshino in 1960 (Scheme 16).87 This method is particularly useful for the preparation of aliphatic nitrile oxides.86

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{RCH}_2\text{NO}_2 \quad \text{NET}_{3} \\
\text{HCR}=\text{NO}_2 \\
\text{PhNCO} \\
\text{HCR}=\text{N}=\text{O} \text{CONPH} \\
\text{PhNH}_2 \quad \text{-CO}_2
\end{align*}
\]

Scheme 16

1.2.1.2 Regioselectivity

The 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of a nitrile oxide and a monosubstituted alkene can yield two regioisomeric isoxazolines, either the 4-substituted or 5-substituted cycloadduct (Scheme 17), with the regioselectivity dependant upon electronic and steric effects.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{R} = \text{C}=\text{NO} \\
\text{R}^1 \\
\text{5-substituted} \\
\text{4-substituted}
\end{align*}
\]

Scheme 17
The cycloadditions of nitrile oxides with electron-rich and conjugated alkenes are dipole-LUMO controlled, with the carbon atom of the nitrile oxide attacking the terminal carbon of the alkene, resulting in exclusive formation of the 5-substituted isoxazolines (Figure 9).\textsuperscript{37}

![Figure 9](image)

For electron-deficient dipolarophiles, both the dipole-HOMO and -LUMO interactions are significant and a mixture of regioisomers results (Figure 10). The 4-substituted isoxazoline is favoured when strongly electron-withdrawing substituents (such as the sulfono group) are present on the dipolarophile.

![Figure 10](image)

For 1,1-disubstituted or trisubstituted alkenes, there is a preference for the more substituted carbon to be located at the 5-position of the isoxazoline due to dipole-LUMO control of the cycloaddition, although the presence of strong electron-withdrawing groups give the 4-substituted product. Mixtures of regioisomers usually result from cycloaddition with 1,2-disubstituted alkenes.\textsuperscript{9,86}

1.2.1.3 Asymmetric 1,3-Dipolar Cycloaddition of Nitrile Oxides

The employment of chiral nitrile oxides in the asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition has not been widely reported; poor diastereoselectivity is achieved in most instances.\textsuperscript{92,93} The linearity of the dipole and the distance between inducing and created stereocentres have been suggested as possible reasons for the low diastereoselectivity observed.\textsuperscript{93} Asymmetric catalysis in the 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions of nitrile oxides by Lewis acids is also not commonly employed. The difficulties in controlling the stereoselectivity with metal complexes arise because the presence of base (such as triethylamine) used for the \textit{in situ} generation of nitrile oxides may interfere with the metal catalyst. Also, nitrile oxides are strong Lewis bases (due to the high donor ability of the oxygen atom of the dipole) and their ready complexation with
Lewis acids leads to deactivation of the dipole.\textsuperscript{94} As a result, in the asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions of nitrile oxides, cycloaddition of achiral nitrile oxides to optically active dipolarophiles has attracted most interest. The chiral dipolarophiles include alkenes in which the centre of chirality is vicinal to the double bond - such as allylic alcohols\textsuperscript{95} and chiral vinyl sulfoxides\textsuperscript{96} - and alkenes in which the centre of chirality is two or more bonds away from the double bond. The latter include acrylates\textsuperscript{97} and acrylamides.\textsuperscript{83,84}

The employment of acrylamides, and in particular tertiary acrylamides with chiral auxiliaries incorporated, is a particularly attractive route (see Section 1.2), and the synthesis of isoxazolines with high optical purities has been achieved using this approach. The cycloadditions are dipole-LUMO controlled due to the conjugated functionality of the acrylamide (see Section 1.2.1.2) and thus highly regioselective cycloadducts are obtained. However, highly diastereoselective cycloadditions of nitrile oxides are extremely challenging; as the oxygen atom of the nitrile oxide attacks the substituted carbon of the alkene, the interaction between the incoming nitrile oxide and auxiliary is limited. The two atoms nearest the auxiliary (O and N) bear no substituents while the remote C bears a lone substituent that points away from the auxiliary (Figure 11).

![Figure 11](image)

\textbf{1.2.1.4 Asymmetric 1,3-Dipolar Cycloadditions of Nitrile Oxides and Acrylamides}

The use of chiral acrylamide derivatives in cycloadditions with nitrile oxides was first explored by Curran in 1988.\textsuperscript{83} Curran had earlier studied the cycloaddition of a range of chiral acrylates with nitrile oxides, with modest degrees of asymmetric induction (up to 56\% de) achieved.\textsuperscript{75} Using Oppolzer’s chiral sultam derivative \textbf{12}, diastereoselectivities of up to 95:5 were obtained (Scheme 18). The preferred conformation of the acrylamide is \textit{s-cis} in which the carbonyl group points away from the sultam oxygen. The major diastereomer then results from the preferential attack of the incoming dipole from the top-side of the dipolarophile. Curran hypothesised that this was due to the pseudoaxial S-O bond (which projects directly down from the plane of the acrylamide) sterically and electronically hindering attack of the dipole from the bottom-side of the dipolarophile.
The usefulness of this asymmetric nitrile oxide cycloaddition was illustrated by Curran in his total syntheses of (+)-hepialone 14,98 (-)-(1R,3R,5S)-1,3-dimethyl-2,9-dioxabicyclo[3.3.1]nonane 15 and (-)-(1S)-7,7-dimethyl-6,8-dioxabicyclo[3.2.1]octane 16.99 These syntheses demonstrate that enantiomerically pure isoxazolines can be transformed to a variety of functional groups including β,γ-dihydroxy ketones, alcohols, 1,2 and 1,3-diols, 1,3,4-triols, 1,3-amino alcohols and 1,3,4-amino diols. The synthesis of (-)-pestalotin 17 from nitrile oxide cycloaddition with 12 was communicated in a later paper by Curran.100

In 1989, Curran reported new bis-lactam chiral auxiliaries 18 and 19 based on Kemp’s triacid,101-103 with outstanding selectivities (99:1) achieved in the cycloadditions with nitrile oxides (Scheme 19).104,105 The excellent face-shielding capabilities of 18 and 19 sterically shield attack of the dipole from the bottom-face of the alkene.
The diastereomeric acrylamides 18 and 19 were subjected to nitrile oxide cycloaddition with ethanenitrile oxide, 2,2-dimethylpropionitrile oxide and benzonitrile oxide and in each cycloaddition, the degree of asymmetric induction was sufficiently high that the quantity of the minor diastereomer was difficult to determine by spectroscopic methods.\(^{104,105}\)

Oppolzer et al. have studied the addition of nitrile oxides to chiral N-acryloyl toluene-2,\(\alpha\)-sultams.\(^ {106}\) The initial dipolarophile studied was the acryloyl derivative 20. The degree of asymmetric induction was only moderate, with the isoxazoline cycloadducts isolated in a 79:21 diastereomeric ratio (Scheme 20). The major isomer resulted from preferential attack of the dipole to the top-face of the dipolarophile due to the electrostatic repulsion force between the dipole and the pseudoaxial S-O bond (similar to 12).

Replacement of the methyl group with a tertiary butyl group led to a dipolarophile which underwent highly selective nitrile oxide cycloadditions (Scheme 21). The resulting isoxazoline cycloadducts were easily cleaved with L-Selectride\(^ \text{®}\).
Kanemasa and co-workers have studied the reaction of Evans’s chiral 2-oxazolidinone\textsuperscript{107} 24 (eq. 1, Scheme 22) and the acrylamide derived from Katsuki’s C\textsubscript{2}-symmetric pyrrolidine\textsuperscript{108} 25 (eq. 2, Scheme 22) with benzonitrile oxide. Moderate diastereoselectivity was achieved as the substituents on the auxiliaries are too far removed from the incoming dipole to cause significant face shielding.\textsuperscript{109}

As the asymmetric induction of 24 and 25 in the cycloadditions with nitrile oxides was not exceptional, Kanemasa \textit{et al.} designed a series of oxazolidine and imidazolidine derived dipolarophiles based on conformationally controlled \textit{N}-acyryloyl derivatives of chiral heterocycles such as C\textsubscript{2}-symmetric imidazolidine (X = NR, one of R\textsubscript{4} = R\textsubscript{5}) and 4-chiral oxazolidines (X = O).\textsuperscript{94,109,110} Considering the two conformations depicted in Figure 12, the \textit{syn}-\textit{E} conformer is much more stabilised than the \textit{anti}-\textit{E} conformer, in which there is steric congestion between the \textalpha-carbon of the vinyl substituent and the two alkyl substituents at the 2-position. The least hindered approach of the dipole will then occur from the side opposite to R\textsubscript{5} and such dipolarophiles were predicted to function as efficient chiral auxiliaries.
The optically pure imidazolidine bisacrylamide 26 was reacted with benzonitrile oxide at –78 °C to yield an 83:17 diastereomeric mixture of cycloadducts (Scheme 23). The major isomer was formed by benzonitrile attack of the alkene from the side opposite to the nearest phenyl substituent. Since the major diastereomer is symmetrical and the minor one is unsymmetrical, the total diastereoselectivity in this reaction was 91:9. Cleavage of the auxiliary was then accomplished by L-Selectride® reduction. ¹⁰⁹

A range of 2,2-dialkyloxazolidines were also reacted with benzonitrile oxide, with effectively complete diastereoselectivities achieved when the oxazolidines outlined in Scheme 24 were employed. At the time of publication in 1992, these 2,2-dialkyloxazolidines were used as racemates and their optical resolution has not been subsequently reported. ¹¹⁰

Kim et al. have studied the nitrile oxide cycloaddition of chiral acrylamides derived from L-proline. ⁸⁴ Employment of the auxiliary 27 led to disappointing diastereoselectivity (64:36)
(Scheme 25), presumably due to insufficient face shielding of the alkene by the auxiliary and poor conformational control.

Employment of acrylamides such as 13 with improved face-shielding substituents gave diastereoselectivities of up to 95:5 (Scheme 26). The major cycloadduct results from bottom-side (or re-face) attack of the incoming nitrile oxide, and was converted to isoxazoline 28 by reductive cleavage with L-Selectride®.

In 2005, Lassaletta and co-workers reported the use of 2,5-trans-diphenylpyrrolidine as a suitable auxiliary in cycloadditions of acrylamides with nitrile oxides. The cycloaddition of a number of diphenylpyrrolidine derivatives with a variety of nitrile oxides yielded cycloadducts with effectively complete regio- and diastereoselectivity (Scheme 27). Hydrolysis of the cycloadduct was then achieved by reaction with hydrochloric acid and acetic acid to yield the corresponding 4,5-dihydroisoxazole-5-carboxylic acids.

The regioselectivity of the cycloaddition is believed to be due to the repulsive steric interactions between the R³ group and the bulky 2,5-diphenylpyrrolidine substituent in the opposite regioisomer. The diastereoselectivity results from the shielding of the Si face of the alkene by the neighbouring phenyl group (Figure 13).
Lassaletta extended the scope of this methodology by investigating the cycloaddition of a range of nitrile oxides with the methylacrylamide 29. Limited success was achieved; it was found that the cycloaddition is substrate-dependant, with complete regio- and stereoselectivity for aliphatic nitrile oxides, whereas complete loss of diastereoselectivity is observed for aromatic nitrile oxides. The high asymmetric induction in the cycloadditions of aliphatic nitrile oxides is believed to be due to the diastereofacial discrimination similar to that depicted in Figure 13.\textsuperscript{111}

Though the activation of dipolarophiles by Lewis acids is very difficult in the presence of nitrile oxides, some catalytic approaches have been reported. The first successful Lewis acid mediated nitrile oxide cycloaddition employing acrylamide as dipolarophile was communicated by Yamamoto \textit{et al.} in 2000.\textsuperscript{112} The reaction of (S)-3-acryloyl-4-benzyl-5,5-dimethyl-2-oxazolidinone 30 with benzonitrile oxide was studied at 0 °C in a range of solvents in the absence and presence of Lewis acids. In dichloromethane, a 43:57 (31:32) mixture of diastereomeric cycloadducts was obtained without Lewis acid present (presumably due to insufficient conformational control), whereas a 96:4 (31:32) diastereomeric ratio was achieved when magnesium bromide was added (Scheme 28). The concentration was found to have a large effect on the outcome of the reaction, with much improved diastereoselectivities attained when the cycloaddition was performed at higher concentration.
A dipolarophile-MgBr₂ complex is proposed, and the deactivation of the Lewis acid by coordination of the nitrile oxide is not believed to be important here. The acrylamide is thus held in the s-cis conformation as illustrated in Figure 14, and the benzyl group then shields the upper face from dipole attack. It is unclear why magnesium bromide is specifically favoured and why the concentration has such a large effect on the selectivity.

Sibi and co-workers have reported the Lewis acid catalysed enantioselective nitrile oxide cycloaddition with α, β-disubstituted acrylamides. The best results were obtained by reacting the acrylamide 33 with 2,4,6-trimethylbenzonitrile oxide in the presence of Mg(ClO₄)₂ and the chiral bisoxazoline ligand 34 (Scheme 29).
Sibi proposed the transition state depicted in Figure 15 to explain the absolute stereochemistry observed, with the ligand shielding the bottom face of the alkene from dipole attack.\textsuperscript{113}

\begin{center}
\includegraphics[width=0.8\textwidth]{Fig15.png}
\end{center}

\textit{Figure 15}

In 2007, Yamamoto \textit{et al.} communicated the asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of benzonitrile oxide mediated by a chiral Lewis acid.\textsuperscript{115} The cycloaddition of a number of acrylamide dipolarophiles bearing an oxazolidinone or imidazolidinone auxiliary with benzonitrile oxide in the presence of a pybox ligand and Mg\textsuperscript{2+} or Yb\textsuperscript{3+} salts were studied. Enantiomeric excesses of up to 87\% were achieved when the acrylamide bearing the N-isopropylimidazolidinone moiety 35 was employed in the presence of the chiral Lewis acid derived from magnesium bromide and ip-pybox (Scheme 30).

\begin{center}
\includegraphics[width=0.8\textwidth]{Scheme30.png}
\end{center}

\textit{Scheme 30}

The geometry of the Mg(II)/ip-pybox complex was optimised by density functional theory calculations. The \textit{si} face of the dipolarophile is less crowded than the \textit{re} face due to the position of the isopropyl groups in the ip-pybox, and nitrile oxide attack from the \textit{si} face is thus favoured (Figure 16).

\begin{center}
\includegraphics[width=0.8\textwidth]{Fig16.png}
\end{center}

\textit{Figure 16-reproduced from reference} \textsuperscript{115}
The antibody-catalysed asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of nitrile oxides to simpler tertiary and secondary amides was reported by Wentworth and co-workers in 2000. The 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition between \(N,N\)-dimethylacrylamide 36 and 4-acetamidobenzonitrile \(N\)-oxide 37 was catalysed by the murine monoclonal antibody 29G12 (which was elicited to hapten 38) to generate the 5-acylisoxazoline 39 with excellent enantiomeric excess (98% ee) (Scheme 31).

Hapten 38 was designed upon the entropic trap theory; the translational entropy of the reaction is reduced by bringing the two substrates into the correct orientation for reaction within the antibody binding site. The planar aromatic core of 38 mimics the aromatic character of the transition state (Scheme 31).

The scope of the 29G12 antibody catalysed cycloaddition was communicated in 2005 by Wentworth et al. Replacement of the \(p\)-acetamido group of the nitrile oxide with either a nitro group or hydrogen led to a loss of the catalytic activity, highlighting the specificity of the dipole substrate. However, a range of acrylamide derivatives can be tolerated, with enantiomeric excesses ranging from 71–98% ee (Table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>dipolarophile</th>
<th>% ee</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(N,N)-dimethylacrylamide</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N)-tert-butylacrylamide</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N)-isopropylacrylamide</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N)-sec-butylacrylamide</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N)-phenylacrylamide</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While excellent diastereomeric ratios were achieved with the chiral auxiliaries 18 and 19 based on Kemp’s triacid (dr 99:1, Scheme 19) and the chiral auxiliaries derived from 2,5-trans-diphenylpyrrolidine (>99% de, Scheme 27), Oppolzer’s chiral sultam derivative 12 is the most expedient dipolarophile; good to excellent diastereomeric ratios were achieved (up to 94:6) with
a wide range of nitrile oxides. In addition, the synthetic utility of 12 was demonstrated by its employment in the synthesis of a number of natural products.

1.2.2 Cycloadditions with Nitrones

Nitrones are an important class of 1,3-dipole which undergo cycloadditions with alkenes and alkynes to yield isoxazolidines and isoxazolines respectively (Scheme 32). The presence of electron-withdrawing or electron-donating substituents on the dipolarophile or dipole leads to significant rate enhancement in the nitrone cycloaddition.

\[ R_1=\text{N}-R_2 + \text{C}==\text{C} \rightarrow \text{isoaxoline} \]

\[ R_1=\text{N}-R_2 + \text{C}==\text{C} \rightarrow \text{isoaxoline} \]

Scheme 32

In general, nitrones are rather stable compounds and thus do not require in situ generation, and are easy to handle in air at ambient temperature. Rearrangements can occur, however, under prolonged exposure to light.

The isoxazolidines formed from the reaction of alkenes with nitrones have proven to be very useful building blocks. \(^{7,9,118}\) Cleavage of the isoxazoline system allows access to a variety of attractive compounds such as β-amino alcohols, with the configuration at the chiral centres retained upon reduction (Scheme 33).

\[ R-N=O \rightarrow \text{R-NH-OH} \]

Scheme 33

1.2.2.1 Synthesis of Nitrones

The two most commonly used methods for nitrone generation are oxidation of a disubstituted hydroxylamine with yellow mercuric oxide (eq. 1, Scheme 34), and reaction of an aldehyde or ketone with a monosubstituted hydroxylamine (eq. 2, Scheme 34). \(^{118}\)
A major disadvantage of the first method is the lack of regiochemical control for unsymmetrical hydroxylamines; for example, the oxidation of 1-hydroxy-2-pentylpiperidine leads to the formation of a regioisomeric mixture of nitrones (Scheme 35).\textsuperscript{119} The generation of nitrones from an aldehyde or ketone avoids this difficulty, and a single nitrone is obtained regiospecifically.

\textit{1.2.2.2 Regioselectivity}

The cycloaddition of nitrones and monosubstituted alkenes can lead to two regioisomeric cycloadducts (Scheme 36).

Nitrones cycloadditions are Type II processes by Sustmann’s classification (see Section 1.1.4). For monosubstituted alkenes, cycloadditions with electron-rich alkenes are dipole-LUMO controlled. For the nitrone LUMO, the larger atomic orbital coefficient is at carbon and the larger coefficient of the alkene is at the unsubstituted carbon, leading to a transition state in which the carbon of the nitrone becomes bonded to the unsubstituted carbon of the alkene to yield the 5-substituted isoxazolidine (Figure 17).\textsuperscript{9,118}
For nitrone cycloadditions with moderately electron-withdrawing groups such as methyl acrylate, the dominant interaction is HOMO (dipole)-LUMO (dipolarophile) and 4-substituted isoxazolidines should result. In practice, regioisomeric mixtures are obtained. Although the reactivity is dipole-HOMO controlled, the regiochemistry is dipole-LUMO controlled. This has been attributed to the much smaller difference in the terminal coefficients in the nitrone HOMO level compared to the nitrone LUMO (Figure 18).\textsuperscript{9,118,120}

With very electron-deficient dipolarophiles such as nitroethene, dipole-HOMO control does predominate, and the 4-substituted isoxazolidine is obtained exclusively.\textsuperscript{120}

The majority of 1,1-disubstituted alkenes undergo cycloaddition with nitrones to yield the 5,5-disubstituted isoxazolidine due to dipole-LUMO control, although the presence of strong electron-withdrawing groups give the 4,4-disubstituted product.\textsuperscript{9,118} Mixtures of regioisomers usually result from cycloaddition with 1,2-disubstituted alkenes.\textsuperscript{9,118}

\textbf{1.2.2.3 Stereochemistry}

Nitrone cycloadditions are stereospecific as regards the alkene, with the stereochemistry of the original alkene preserved in the resulting isoxazolidine. However, with acyclic nitrones it is not always possible to predict the stereochemical outcome as both endo and exo transition states are possible, the former arising from favourable secondary orbital interactions (see Section 1.1.5). There is also the possibility of the nitrone undergoing \textit{E/Z} isomerisation under the conditions of the reaction before cycloaddition takes place. For example, the cycloaddition of \textit{N}-methyl-\textit{C}-phenylnitrone with acrylonitrile gives the trans 5-substituted isomer as the major
product, whereas in the reaction with nitroethene the cis 4-substituted isomer predominates (Scheme 37).  

![Scheme 37](image)

Employment of cyclic nitrones leads to much higher stereoselectivities as the E/Z isomerisation is not possible. Also, the exo transition state is usually sterically favoured with cyclic nitrones, although when steric factors in the endo and exo transition states are similar, the existence of secondary orbital interactions can favour endo transition states. In the cycloaddition of 1-pyrroline N-oxide 40 with 4-phenyl-1-butene 41, the isoxazolidine 42, which arises from the exo transition state, is obtained exclusively (Scheme 38).

![Scheme 38](image)

### 1.2.2.4 Asymmetric 1,3-Dipolar Cycloadditions of Nitrones

The preparation of non-racemic isoxazolidines has attracted much attention in the past 30 years. Chiral acyclic nitrones in which the chiral substituent is located at the nitrogen atom or the carbon atom are commonly employed. Chiral cyclic nitrones have also been used for asymmetric induction in 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions. The use of optically active alkenes in asymmetric nitrone cycloadditions has also been extensively studied. Alkenes in which the chiral centre is vicinal to the double bond such as chiral allylic ethers, chiral allylic amines and chiral vinyl sulfoxides are most frequently used, and chiral α,β-unsaturated carbonyl compounds such as acrylates and acrylamides have also been successfully employed.

As most nitrones are stable compounds that do not require in situ preparation, a considerable amount of research has been conducted on the use of metal catalysts in the
cycloadditions of nitrones. Transition state energy calculations conducted by Gothelf et al. revealed that the coordination of a Lewis acid to a nitrone results in an increase in the transition state energy of the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition to the alkene compared with the cycloaddition in the absence of a Lewis acid. Hence, the application of metal catalysts in nitrone cycloadditions has focussed primarily on the activation of the dipolarophile, although the Lewis acid activation of nitrones containing α,β-unsaturated substitutents has been reported. One of the major problems encountered in the Lewis acid activation of dipolarophiles such as α,β-unsaturated carbonyl systems, is competitive coordination of the nitrone and the α,β-unsaturated carbonyl compound to the Lewis acid. For example, when Tejero was studying the cycloaddition of thiazolyl nitrone 43 with Oppolzer’s chiral sultam derivative 12 (Section 1.2.2.5.1), the presence of various Lewis acids was found to inhibit the reaction completely, and this was believed to be due to the preferential coordination of the metal to the nitrone leading to an inactive complex. This problem can be overcome by using an alkene which is capable of bidentate coordination to the Lewis acid [for example acrylamides 24 (Scheme 22) and 44 (Scheme 48)]. Complexes of Ti(IV), Mg(II), Yb(II), Zn(II), Cu(II), Mn(II), Ni(II) and Pd(II) have now all been reported in the Lewis acid catalysis of nitrone cycloadditions, and substantial increases in rate and levels of regio- and diastereoselectivity have been achieved. Furthermore, if a ligand-metal complex is present, non-racemic isoxazolidine cycloadducts can be produced.

The asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions of nitrones and acrylamides in the absence of Lewis acid metal catalysts will be discussed first. Metal catalysed reactions of nitrones and acrylamides will then be reviewed, with this section organised according to the nature of the metal catalyst.

1.2.2.5 Asymmetric 1,3-Dipolar Cycloadditions of Nitrones and Acrylamides

1.2.2.5.1 Non-Metal Catalysed Cycloadditions

There have been several reports of the use of chiral acrylamides to control the regio- and stereoselectivity in nitrone cycloadditions. In 1996, Koskinen et al. reported the asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of the Oppolzer chiral sultam derivative 12 with nitrone 45 as the key step in their asymmetric synthesis of N-protected (4S)-4-hydroxy L-glutamic acid diester 46. The cycloaddition of 12 with nitrone 45 led to the formation of the isoxazolidine cycloadducts in a distereomeric ratio of 96:4. These were separable by column chromatography and the sultam of the major cycloadduct 47 was subsequently transformed to the enantiopure diester 46 via a number of synthetic transformations (Scheme 39).
The major trans diastereomer 47 results from the cycloaddition of the E-isomer of 45 via an exo transition state and the cycloaddition of the Z isomer of 45 via an endo transition state (Figure 19). Coulombic repulsion between the dipolar oxygen and the sultam oxygen accounts for the diastereofacial selectivity.\textsuperscript{83,135}

In 1997, Tejero et al. began a series of investigations into the cycloaddition of N-benzyl-C-aryl nitrones to Oppolzer’s chiral sultam derivative 12.\textsuperscript{136} The syntheses of enantiopure $\alpha$-amino-2-alkylthiazoles and 5-formylpyrrolidin-2-ones were studied initially, and it was found that the thiazolyl nitrones 43 underwent cycloaddition with 12 in a completely regio- and stereoselective manner to yield exclusively the trans-isoxazolidines in a diastereomeric ratio of 78:22. These were separable by chromatography and the major isomer 48 was subsequently converted to 49, which proved to be a very useful intermediate in synthesising functionalised chiral pyrrolidines (Scheme 40).\textsuperscript{136}
The proposed most favoured approach is \textit{Z-end} attack of the nitrone on the top face of the dipolarophile (Figure 20).

In 2000, Tejero and co-workers extended this synthetic strategy by using furfuryl nitrones such as 50 to construct the pyrrolidine ring. In contrast to the cycloaddition with thiazolyl nitrones where cycloaddition to both faces of the alkene occurred, the addition of the furfuryl nitrone 50 led to complete stereofacial control to yield the \textit{cis}- and \textit{trans}-isomers in a diastereomeric ratio of 85:15. Subsequent transformation of the isoxazolidine cycloadducts to the corresponding pyrrolidin-2-ones 51 and 52 was achieved by reduction with zinc and acetic acid. The pyrrolidin-2-ones were easily separated by column chromatography and the preparation of protected derivatives of 4-hydroxy pyroglutamic acids demonstrated the synthetic utility of the isoxazolidines (Scheme 41).
The four possible modes of addition of the nitrone 50 are depicted in Figure 21. Transition states A and B arising from si face attack are disfavoured due to coulombic repulsion between the dipolar oxygen and the sultam oxygen. Of the two transition states resulting from re face attack, endo approach leading to transition state D and ultimately the trans-diastereomer is predominant, presumably due to secondary orbital interactions between the nitrogen of the nitrone and the carbonyl group of the dipolarophile.
The operation of double asymmetric induction was described by Tejero et al. in 2002 in their five-step asymmetric synthesis of protected 4-hydroxy-D-pyroglutamic acid using D-ribose and Oppolzer’s chiral sultam derivative 12. The optically active nitrone 53 was reacted with 12 in a sealed tube for 18 hours to yield a 20:1 diastereomeric ratio of isoxazolidine cycloadducts 54 and 55. These were then converted to the 4-hydroxy-D-pyroglutamic acid derivatives 56 and 57 in a one pot procedure (Scheme 42). In a subsequent report by the same group, the scope of this cycloaddition was extended by studying the reaction of 12 with a range of D-glyceraldehyde nitrones.
Scheme 42

The major trans-diastereomer 54 results from attack of the E-isomer of 53 via an exo transition state and attack of the Z-isomer of 53 via an endo transition state on the re face of the dipolarophile 12 (Figure 22). It is suggested that the Z-endo transition state is the preferred path due to secondary orbital interactions in the endo transition state.

Figure 22

Inspired by the results achieved by Tejero et al., Tamura and co-workers examined the cycloaddition of C-(3-pyridyl)nitrones and Oppolzer’s chiral sultam derivative (2S)-12 as a route to (+)-(3'R,5'R)-3'-hydroxycotinine 58, which is one of the main metabolites of nicotine (Scheme 43).
Scheme 43

Treatment of the L-gulose derived nitrone 60 with (2S)-12 yielded the trans-isoxazolidine 59 as the major product by double asymmetric induction (Scheme 43). When the nitrone 60 was reacted with the opposite enantiomer of Oppolzer’s chiral sultam derivative (2R)-12 a complex mixture of cycloadducts resulted, indicating that this combination of reagents is a mismatched pair. The Oppolzer’s chiral sultam derivative (2R)-12 reacts mainly from the Re face, whereas both 60 and (2S)-12 react from the Si face, and hence high endo stereoselectivity results when 60 and (2S)-12 are combined (Figure 23).\(^{143}\)

Figure 23

In 2007, Argyropoulos reported the cycloaddition of a pair of chiral pyrroline-N-oxides derived from D-ribose with Evans’s chiral 2-oxazolidinone 24.\(^{144}\) The cycloadditions proceeded with complete regioselectivity to yield a 2:1 mixture of diastereomers (the cycloaddition of one of the enantiomeric nitrones is depicted in Scheme 44).

Scheme 44

The preferred stereochemical outcome arises from the exo approach of the dipolarophile 24 to the anti face of the nitrone (Figure 24).
Similar to the 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions with nitrile oxides, the acrylamide 12 derived from Oppolzer’s chiral sultam was again the most advantageous dipolarophile in non-metal catalysed cycloadditions with nitrone, in terms of synthetic utility and diastereoselectivity achieved (up to 96:4 dr).

1.2.2.5.2 Metal Catalysed Cycloadditions

The majority of studies on the metal-catalysed cycloadditions of nitrones and acrylamides have focussed on the reaction of Evan’s 2-oxazolidinone with acyclic nitrones. Each reaction outlined in Table 3 will be discussed in the relevant metal catalyst section.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>entry</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>R¹</th>
<th>Catalyst*</th>
<th>endo:exo</th>
<th>%ee of major</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1¹³⁷</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>TiCl₂-TADDOLate 61</td>
<td>9:91</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2¹⁴⁵</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Ti(OTo)s₂-TADDOLate 62</td>
<td>95:5</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3¹⁴⁵</td>
<td>Pr</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Ti(OTo)s₂-TADDOLate 62</td>
<td>95:5</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4¹⁴⁶</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Dendrimer-bound Ti-TADDOLate</td>
<td>14:86</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5¹⁴⁶</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Polymer-bound Ti-TADDOLate</td>
<td>10:90</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6¹⁴⁷</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Mg(II)-phenanthroline 63</td>
<td>95:5</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7¹⁴⁷</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Bn</td>
<td>Mg(II)-phenanthroline 63</td>
<td>95:5</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8¹⁴⁷</td>
<td>Pr</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Mg(II)-phenanthroline 63</td>
<td>95:5</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9¹⁴⁷</td>
<td>Pr</td>
<td>Bn</td>
<td>Mg(II)-phenanthroline 63</td>
<td>95:5</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entry</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>R'</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Ligand</td>
<td>Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Pr</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Mg(II)</td>
<td>bisoxazoline 64</td>
<td>95:5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Mg(II)</td>
<td>bisoxazoline 64</td>
<td>92:8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Bn</td>
<td>Mg(II)</td>
<td>bisoxazoline 64</td>
<td>89:11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13,14</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>xabox-Bn-Mg(II) 65</td>
<td>99:1</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14,15</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>xabox-Bn-Mg(II) 65</td>
<td>96:4</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15,16</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>xabox-Bn-Mn(II) 66</td>
<td>96:4</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16,17</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>xabox-Bn-Mn(II) 66</td>
<td>77:23</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Zn(II)-bisoxazoline 67</td>
<td>27:73</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Cu(II)-bisoxazoline 68</td>
<td>70:30</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Cu(II)-bisoxazoline 68</td>
<td>22:78</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Cu(II)-bisimine 69</td>
<td>91:9</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Cu(II)-bisimine 69</td>
<td>56:44</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Pd(II)-TolBINAP 70</td>
<td>60:40</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Bn</td>
<td>Pd(II)-TolBINAP 70</td>
<td>93:7</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Pd(II)-TolBINAP 70</td>
<td>28:72</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Ni(II)-DBFOX/Ph 71</td>
<td>99:1</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Bn</td>
<td>Ni(II)-DBFOX/Ph 71</td>
<td>99:1</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Ni(II)-DBFOX/Ph 71</td>
<td>98:2</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Ni(II)-Pybox-tipsom 72</td>
<td>99:1</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Ni(II)-Pybox-tipsom 72</td>
<td>99:1</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Yb(OTf)$_3$</td>
<td>97:3</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Pr</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Yb(OTf)$_3$</td>
<td>92:8</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Sc(OTf)$_3$</td>
<td>93:7</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Pr</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Sc(OTf)$_3$</td>
<td>82:18</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Yb(III)-Pybox 73</td>
<td>95:5</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Bn</td>
<td>Yb(III)-[(S)-BINOL]-[(R)-MNEA] 74</td>
<td>99:1</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

§ R = Me, 75; R = H, 76; R = Pr, 77
! R' = Ph, 78; R' = Me, 79; R' = Bn, 80
* X=Cl, 61
  X=OTos, 62
  M=Mg, 65
  M=Mn, 66
1.2.2.5.2.1 Titanium Catalysts

The first asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition between an alkene and a nitrone in which the asymmetry was catalytically induced by a chiral ligand on the metal complex was reported by Gothelf and Jorgensen in 1994. The presence of chiral dichlorotitanium alkoxides in the cycloaddition of acyclic nitrones with Evans’s 2-oxazolidinones was investigated, with a diastereomeric ratio of 91:9 (exo:endo) and up to 60% ee achieved on employment of the chiral titanium complex 61 (entry 1, Table 3).

The catalytic effect is due to the bidentate coordination of the alkene to the Lewis acid lowering the energy of the HOMO and the LUMO of the alkene, leading to an activation for the addition of the nitrone (Figure 25), and exo attack of the nitrone to the Re face of the alkene leads to the major cycloadduct. The structure of the alkene-Lewis acid complex was subsequently confirmed by X-ray crystallography. This reaction did not proceed at room temperature in the absence of a catalyst and only 39% conversion was observed after 20 hours at 50 °C.
Substitution of the chloride groups with the bulkier tosylate ligands in 62 led to the isolation of the endo cycloadduct as the major isomer in enantioselectivities of >90% ee (entries 2 and 3, Table 3). The exo approach of the nitrone is unfavourable here due to the repulsion between the axial ligand on the titanium atom and the substituent on the α-carbon of the nitrone (Figure 26).

Replacement of the oxazolidinone auxiliary of the acrylamide with succinimide resulted in greater reactivity, with 94% conversion in the absence of Lewis acid following stirring at room temperature for 71 hours and a 95:5 (endo:exo) mixture of diastereomers obtained (the corresponding oxazolidinone required elevated temperature to undergo cycloaddition with 78). In the presence of 5 mol% of 61, a 6:94 (endo:exo) mixture of diastereomers was isolated in up to 73% ee for the exo-isomer (Scheme 45), with the transition state similar to that depicted in Figure 25.
Gothelf and co-workers have performed a series of \textit{ab initio} calculations to account for the \textit{endo}-selectivity observed in the absence of the Lewis acid catalyst and they found that steric repulsion between the $C$-phenyl substituent and one of the carbonyls of the succinimide group disfavours \textit{exo} approach of the nitrone$^{161}$.

Seebach \textit{et al.} have developed a number of polymer- and dendrimer-bound chiral dichlorotitanium alkoxide catalysts and have studied the application of these catalysts in the cycloaddition of Evan’s 2-oxazolidinone 75 and $C,N$-diphenylnitrone 78 (entries 4 and 5, Table 3).\cite{146} Almost identical diastereoselectivities to Gothelf and Jorgensen’s homogeneous catalysts were attained.

1.2.2.5.2.2 \textbf{Magnesium Catalysts}

In 1996, Gothelf and Jorgensen investigated the cycloaddition of acyclic nitrone with Evans’s 2-oxazolidinones in the presence of achiral and chiral magnesium complexes. Application of 10 mol\% of the achiral MgI$_2$-phenanthroline complex 63 led to the attainment of high \textit{endo} selectivity (\textit{endo:exo} 95:5) (entries 6-9, Table 3).\cite{147}

When the chiral magnesium-bisoxazoline complex 64 was employed in cycloadditions with $C,N$-diphenylnitrone 78, high \textit{endo} selectivity was observed (ratio of \textit{endo:exo} >95:5) and enantiomeric excesses of up to 82\% were achieved for the \textit{endo}-isomer (entries 10 and 11, Table 3).\cite{147}

The diastereofacial discrimination in favour of the \textit{endo}-diastereomer is due to the preferred \textit{endo} attack of the nitrone 78 on the $\alpha$-$Re$ face of the alkene 75 from below the plane of the alkene (Figure 27).
Interestingly, the reaction of the N-benzyl nitrone 80 with the 2-oxazolidinone 75 in the presence of 64 led to the attainment of good endo:exo diastereoselectivity (89:11) but the reaction was not enantioselective (entry 12, Table 3).

Later studies showed that in the absence of molecular sieves a reversal of the stereochemistry was observed; one enantiomer of the endo-isomer is obtained in the presence of molecular sieves and the mirror image enantiomer is isolated in the absence of molecular sieves. It is postulated that the metal centre of the Lewis acid complex is attached to two oxygen atoms at the surface of the molecular sieve, resulting in a change in the transition state for the cycloaddition. However, due to the complexity of the structure of the molecular sieve, it is difficult to predict the exact nature of this binding.

The effect of the counterion was investigated by Desimoni and co-workers. When perchlorate or triflate were used as the counterions in the presence of molecular sieves, the opposite enantiomer to that obtained from the iodide counterion catalyst was isolated. Desimoni has also studied the nitroene cycloaddition of a novel, soluble polymer-supported optically active oxazolidinone 81. When reacted with the C,N-diphenyl nitron 78 in the presence of Mg(ClO₄)₂ catalyst, a diastereomeric ratio of 58:42 (exo:endo) was achieved in up to 90% ee. Reductive cleavage with sodium borohydride yielded the diastereomeric isoxazolidines 82 and 83 (Scheme 46).
Nishiyama and co-workers have developed a series of tridentate oxazoline-derived chiral ligands having a xanthene backbone, and have studied the cycloaddition of nitrones such as 78 to the oxazolidinone 75 in the presence of these ligands.\textsuperscript{148,149} The xabox-Bn-Mg(II) complex 65 yielded diastereoselectivities of up to >99:1 with % ee’s of the endo-isomer ranging from 85–96\% (entries 13 and 14, Table 3). A transition state similar to that outlined in Figure 27 can be envisioned, with the diastereofacial selectivity due to the endo attack of the nitrone 78 on the Re face of the alkene 75.

\subsection*{1.2.2.5.2.3 Manganese Catalysts}

In addition to Mg(II) complexes, Nishiyama and co-workers have also studied the behaviour of Mn(II)-xabox-Bn complexes in the cycloadditions of nitrones to the oxazolidinone 75 (entries 15 and 16, Table 3).\textsuperscript{148,149} Diastereoselectivities of 96:4 to 98:2 were achieved with enantiomeric excesses of 91–95\% ee.

\subsection*{1.2.2.5.2.4 Zinc Catalysts}

In 1993, Murahashi reported the cycloaddition of cyclic nitrones to acrylamide derivatives in the presence of zinc iodide as a route to the optically active \(\beta\)-amino alcohols (+)-seldridine 84 and (+)-hygroline 85.\textsuperscript{165} When 2,3,4,5-tetrahydropyridine N-oxide 86 (n=2) was reacted with Oppolzer’s sultam derivative 87 in the presence of zinc iodide, a diastereomeric ratio of 88a:89a of 78:4 was achieved, along with 18\% of other diastereomers. In the absence of the metal catalyst, the ratio was 54:27:19. Oppolzer’s sultam derivative 87 also underwent cycloaddition with 1-pyrroline N-oxide 40 (n=1) in the presence of zinc iodide to yield the isoxazolidines 88b:89b in the ratio 77:14, along with 9\% of other diastereomers. When the Lewis acid was not present, a ratio of 35:52:13 resulted.

\begin{table}[h]
\centering
\begin{tabular}{ccc}
\hline
\textbf{n} & \textbf{additive} & \textbf{88:89:others} \\
\hline
1 & none & 35:52:13 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{table}

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{reaction_diagram}
\caption{Cycloaddition reactions with different catalysts.}
\end{figure}
Desimoni has also studied the reaction outlined in Table 3 using Zn(II) as the cationic core of the bis-oxazoline catalyst, with some interesting results. On changing the metal cation from Mg to Zn in 67, a change in selectivity from endo to exo is observed (entry 17, Table 3). A strong chiral amplification is also seen for the Zn catalysed reaction; with 10% ee of the chiral bis-oxazoline ligand, cycloadducts with up to 62% ee were obtained.

### 1.2.5.2.5 Copper Catalysts

In 2004, Saito and co-workers reported the catalytic enantioselective nitrone cycloaddition to the oxazolidinone 75 using an amino-indanol-derived bisoxazoline Cu(II) complex 68 as a bidentate chiral catalyst. Employing Cu(OTf)₂ led to a diastereomeric ratio of 70:30 (endo:exo), with enantiomeric excesses of >99% achieved for each diastereomer (entry 18, Table 3). Employment of the oxazolidinone 76 led to high exo selectivity (endo:exo 22:78), along with high enantiopurity of 96% ee for the exo-diastereomer.

On changing the chiral ligand to the bis(imine) ligand 69, an increase in the diastereomer ratio to 91:9 was observed for the cycloaddition of the oxazolidinone 75 to the C,N-diphenylnitron 78, whilst maintaining the high enantioselectivity (entry 20, Table 3). Using the oxazolidinone 76 resulted in a dramatic decrease in the diastereoselectivity (endo:exo 56:44), but the high enantioselectivity was preserved (90% ee for the endo-isomer and 96% ee for the exo-isomer) (entry 21, Table 3).

In the same year, Sibi et al. communicated the cycloaddition of the pyrazolidinone 44 with the acyclic nitrone 79 in the presence of the chiral Lewis acid 34 derived from copper triflate and the amino-indanol ligand. An exo:endo diastereoselectivity of 96:4 was observed, in 98% ee for the exo isomer (Scheme 48). It is postulated that the exo selectivity is due to the square planar complex formed by the Lewis acid ensuring that exo attack is not sterically restricted in the complex.
Sibi extended this work to include $\alpha,\beta$-disubstituted acrylamide derivatives. On employment of the chiral Lewis acid 34 in cycloadditions with acyclic nitrones, diastereomeric ratios of up to 99:1 were achieved with enantiomeric excesses of up to 97% (Scheme 49).\textsuperscript{114}

\begin{table}[h]
\centering
\begin{tabular}{ccc}
\hline
\textbf{R} & \textbf{exo:endo} & \textbf{\% ee exo} \\
\hline
Me & 99:1 & 94 \\
H & 81:19 & 89 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{Scheme 49}
\end{table}

1.2.2.5.2.6 Palladium Catalysts

Furukawa has investigated the palladium(II) catalysed asymmetric cycloaddition of nitrones to oxazolidinone derivatives, with the palladium co-ordinated to a chiral phosphine ligand.\textsuperscript{153,154} Late transition metal complexes such as palladium are advantageous as they do not require strictly anhydrous conditions. Employment of the (S)-TolBINAP ligand in the palladium complex 70 led to an endo:exo ratio of up to 93:7, with excellent enantioselectivity for both isomers (entries 22-24, Table 3). The diastereoselectivity was found to be dependant on the $N$-substituent of the nitrone, with poor diastereoselectivity for the $N$-methyl nitrone 79 (entry 22, Table 3), excellent endo diastereoselectivity for the $N$-benzyl nitrone 80 (entry 23, Table 3) and preferential formation of the exo-diastereomer for the $N$-phenyl nitrone 78 (entry 24, Table 3).

The selectivity differences are due to the steric effect in the transition state between the Lewis acid-alkene complex and the nitrones. Attack of the nitrone occurs from the $Si$ face of the alkene, as the $Re$-face is sterically hindered by the aryl substituent of the Lewis acid. For the $N$-benzyl nitrone, endo approach to the $Si$ face of the alkene is favoured (a, Figure 28) as exo approach leads to steric repulsion between the aryl substituent on the Lewis acid and the nitrone.
(b, Figure 28). For the N-phenyl nitrone, the N-phenyl group prevents endo attack (c, Figure 28) and exo attack is favoured (d, Figure 28).

Figure 28

1.2.2.5.2.7 Nickel Catalysts

Kanemasa and co-workers have reported the asymmetric cycloaddition of a range of acyclic nitrones to the oxazolidinone 75 catalysed by the aqua complex 71 derived from (R,R)-4,6-dibenzo-furandiyl-2,2'-bis(4-phenyloxazoline) ligand (R,R-DBFOX/Ph) and Ni(ClO₄)₂.6H₂O.¹⁵⁵ Diastereomeric ratios of up to 99:1 (endo:exo) and enantioselectivities of >99% ee were obtained, with the presence of molecular sieves necessary to achieve high selectivities (entries 25-27, Table 3).

The bottom face of the alkene is shielded by one of the phenyl substituents of the DBFOX/Ph ligand, and the other phenyl group inhibits exo approach of the nitrone (Figure 29).
Excellent stereocontrol and rate acceleration was observed by Iwasa on studying the cycloaddition of oxazolidinones with a range of nitrones in the presence of Ni(II) complexed to a sterically tuned bis(oxazolinyl)pyridine ligand, bearing a hydroxymethyl group on the oxazoline ring.\textsuperscript{156,157} The introduction of trialkylsilyl groups onto the oxazoline ligand in complex 72 led to the attainment of excellent levels of regio-, diastereo- and enantioselectivities. The isoxazoline cycloadducts were obtained in ratios of up to >99:1 (endo:exo) and 97 to >99\% ee (entries 28 and 29, Table 3).

The bulky trialkylsilyl groups block the approach of the nitrone from one face of the alkene (Figure 30) with \textit{endo} approach of the nitrone to the alkene favoured as shown in Figure 30.

This was later extended to include pyrrolidinone derivatives and the excellent levels of diastereo- and enantioselectivities were maintained (Scheme 50). It was also discovered that changing the solvent to alcohols such as \textit{t}-butanol and \textit{s}-butanol significantly increased the rate of the cycloaddition compared to dichloromethane.\textsuperscript{167}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>endo:exo</th>
<th>% ee endo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>97:3</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Me</td>
<td>99:1</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textit{Scheme 50}
1.2.2.8 Lanthanide Catalysts

As part of their development programme of new metal catalysts for the asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of nitrones with alkenes, Jorgensen et al. communicated the use of Yb(OTf)$_3$ and Sc(OTf)$_3$ as catalysts in the cycloaddition of a range of nitrones and oxazolidinones in 1997. In the presence of Yb(OTf)$_3$, diastereoselectivities of 92:8 to 97:3 (endo:exo) were obtained (entries 30 and 31, Table 3). These were slightly lower when Sc(OTf)$_3$ was used (82:18 to 93:7) (entries 32 and 33, Table 3), but a significant rate increase was observed; in one instance the reaction time decreased from 48 hours to 5 hours. The introduction of the chiral ligand 2,6-bis[4-(S)-isopropyl-2-oxazolidin-2-yl]pyridine (PyBOX) 73 led to high endo selectivity (93:7) with up to 67% ee for the endo-diastereomer (entry 34, Table 3).

Much higher enantiomeric excesses (up to 96% ee) were achieved by Kobayashi on employment of a chiral Yb(III) catalyst 74 prepared from Yb(OTf)$_3$, (S)-1,1'-binaphthol [(S)-BINOL] and N-methyl-bis[(R)-1-(1-naphthyl)ethyl]amine [(R)-MNEA] (entry 35, Table 3). The synthetic utility of the resulting cycloadduct was demonstrated by the synthesis of the β-lactam derivative 90 (Scheme 51).

Kobayashi later discovered that the opposite enantiomer of the endo-diastereomer could be isolated in the absence of molecular sieves.

Thus, in terms of conversion, isolated yield, diastereomeric ratio and enantiomeric excess, the most expedient catalysts for the asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of Evan’s 2-oxazolidinone with acyclic nitrones are xabox-Bn-Mg(II) 65 and xabox-Bn-Mn(II) 66 (entries 13-15, Table 3), Ni(II)-DBFOX/Ph 71 and Ni(II)-Pybox-tipsom 72 (entries 25-29, Table 3), and Yb(III)-[(S)-BINOL]-[(R)-MNEA] 74 (entry 35, Table 3).

1.2.3 Cycloadditions with Diazoalkanes

Diazoalkanes undergo 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions with alkenes and alkynes to yield pyrazolines and pyrazoles respectively (Scheme 52).
The pyrazoline cycloadducts are frequently too unstable to isolate and readily tautomerise to yield $\Delta^2$-pyrazolines. Pyrazolines may also be transformed to pyrazoles by a 1,2-elimination reaction, and they can eliminate nitrogen on thermolysis or photolysis to yield cyclopropanes (Scheme 53). This method has been utilised in the synthesis of a number of cyclopropane natural products.$^{170}$

**Scheme 53**

1.2.3.1 *Regioselectivity and Reactivity*

The addition of diazoalkanes to alkenes can lead to the formation of two regioisomeric cycloadducts (Scheme 54).

**Scheme 54**

The cycloadditions of simple diazoalkanes with electron-deficient and conjugated alkenes are dipole-HOMO controlled, with the carbon atom of the diazoalkane attacking the terminal carbon of the alkene resulting in exclusive formation of the 3-substituted pyrazolines (Figure 31).$^{37,62}$
For electron-rich alkenes, both the dipole HOMO – dipolarophile LUMO and dipole LUMO – dipolarophile HOMO interactions are comparable. However, since the coefficients of the dipole-LUMO are almost equal, the regioselectivity is controlled by the dipole-HOMO leading to 4-substituted pyrazolines (Figure 32).\(^{37}\)

The presence of electron-rich substituents on the diazoalkane raise both the HOMO and LUMO energies and the rate of cycloadditions with electron-deficient alkenes is increased as the energy separation between the frontier orbitals decreases. This is confirmed by the greater reactivity of alkyl diazomethanes in cycloadditions.\(^{171}\) The introduction of electron-withdrawing groups on the diazoalkane, such as the keto group in diazoketones, lowers the HOMO and LUMO energies, leading to an increase in the rate of reaction with electron-rich alkenes (Figure 33).\(^{62}\)

**1.2.3.2 Asymmetric 1,3-Dipolar Cycloadditions of Diazoalkanes and Acrylamides**

Synthetic applications of the pyrazoline cycloadducts obtained from the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of diazoalkanes to alkenes have not been extensively studied, and have usually
been restricted to the preparation of the resulting cyclopropanes or pyrazoles. The difficulties associated with employing diazoalkanes in asymmetric dipolar cycloadditions arise because the diazoalkanes are generally not readily available, they cannot be stored for long periods and they may also be thermally unstable. Studies on the synthetic utility of diazoalkanes with acrylamides have therefore been mainly concentrated on the commercially available trimethylsilyldiazomethane.

Carreira has investigated the cycloaddition of trimethylsilyldiazomethane to a range of Oppolzer’s chiral sultam derivatives.\textsuperscript{172} 3-Trimethylsilyl-substituted pyrazolines were isolated in quantitative yield following treatment with a 2 M solution of trimethylsilyldiazomethane in hexane. Tautomerisation with loss of the trimethylsilyl group on exposure to trifluoroacetic acid in dichloromethane yielded optically active $\Delta^2$-pyrazolines as single regioisomers with 90-94\% diastereoselectivity. These were subsequently transformed to synthetically useful pyrazolidines by C=N reduction with sodium cyanoborohydride in acetic acid, chemoselective protection as the N-Cbz or N-Boc carbamates and auxiliary removal by treatment with dimethoxy magnesium in methanol (Scheme 55).

![Scheme 55](image)

Azaproline analogues of the $\Delta^2$-pyrazolines and the pyrazolidines were synthesised by chemoselective coupling reactions (Scheme 56).\textsuperscript{172}

![Scheme 56](image)
In the same year, Carreira et al. demonstrated the versatility of this cycloaddition in the efficient synthesis of the marine metabolite stellettamide A \textbf{92}, which possesses anti-fungal activity and displays cytotoxicity against K562 epithelium cell lines.\textsuperscript{173,174}

Cycloaddition of the Oppolzer sultam derivative \textbf{93} with a solution of trimethylsilyldiazomethane led to the isolation of the pyrazoline cycloadducts in quantitative yield as a 93:7 mixture of diastereomers. Desilylation was achieved on exposure to ethyl chloroformate and silver triflate to yield the diastereomeric $\Delta^2$-pyrazolines \textbf{94} and \textbf{95} in a 92:8 ratio (Scheme 57).

\begin{figure}
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{scheme57.png}
\caption{Scheme 57}
\end{figure}

The major diastereomer results from the preferential attack of the incoming dipole from the top-side of the dipolarophile (Figure 34).

\begin{figure}
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure34.png}
\caption{Figure 34}
\end{figure}
The diastereomeric $\Delta^2$-pyrazolines 94 and 95 were separable by column chromatography and the major diastereomer 94 was transformed to stellettamide A 92 via a number of synthetic steps.\textsuperscript{173,174}

The synthetic utility of this cycloaddition was further demonstrated in a communication by Carreira in 2000, in which the Lewis acid facilitated diastereoselective nucleophilic addition to $N$-acyl protected pyrazolines was reported (Scheme 58).\textsuperscript{175} This allows access to a variety of useful highly functionalized building blocks for asymmetric synthesis.

![Scheme 58](image)

Optically active acyclic products can be easily formed by auxiliary removal and reductive $N$-$N$ bond cleavage (Scheme 59).\textsuperscript{175}

![Scheme 59](image)

The enantioselective 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of diazoalkanes in the presence of Lewis acid catalysts has also been reported. In Jorgensen’s review on asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions in 1998,\textsuperscript{10} he described his unpublished findings on the affecting of the Ti-TADDOLate catalyst 96 in the cycloaddition of ethyl diazoacetate 97 to the oxazolidinone 76, with enantiomeric excesses of 30-40% achieved (Scheme 60).

![Scheme 60](image)
The first effective Lewis acid catalysed enantioselective cycloaddition of diazoalkanes was reported by Kanemasa in 2000.\textsuperscript{176} The cycloadditions of trimethylsilyldiazomethane and a range of oxazolidinones were studied in the presence of metal complexes of \((R,R)\)-DBFOX/Ph \textbf{98}, with enantiomeric excesses of up to 99\% achieved for the resulting desilylated \(\Delta^2\)-pyrazolines.

On treatment of the oxazolidinone \textbf{75} with the \((R,R)\)-DBFOX/Ph \textbf{98}-Zn(ClO\(_4\))\(_2\cdot3\)H\(_2\)O complex, the corresponding desilylated \(\Delta^2\)-pyrazoline was obtained in 99\% ee. The introduction of an isopropyl or propyl group at the \(\beta\)-position of the oxazolidinone led to a decrease in the enantioselectivity of the cycloaddition (Scheme 61).\textsuperscript{176}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(\mathbf{R})</th>
<th>% ee</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Me</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n)-Pr</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i)-Pr</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The observed stereochemistry in the cycloaddition of the oxazolidinone \textbf{75} is due to attack at the top face of the dipolarophile by trimethylsilyldiazomethane as the bottom face is shielded by the lower 4-phenyl group of the ligand (Figure 35). As the isopropyl and propyl groups are more flexible than the methyl group, steric hindrance between the shielding phenyl group and the \(R\) substituent exists and the reaction site departs from the shielding zone of the 4-phenyl group, leading to decreased chiral shielding efficiency and hence lower enantioselectivities.\textsuperscript{176}
Interestingly, the introduction of an isopropyl or propyl group at the β-position of 4,4-dimethyl-2-oxazolidinone had no detrimental effect on the enantioselectivity of the magnesium catalysed cycloaddition with trimethylsilyldiazomethane, and % ee’s ranging from 97 – 98 were achieved in the presence of Mg(ClO₄)₂ complexed to 98 (Scheme 62).¹⁷⁶

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>% ee</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Me</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n-Pr</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i-Pr</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scheme 62

In this instance, the top face of the alkene is shielded by the top 4-phenyl group on the ligand and trimethylsilyldiazomethane attack occurs exclusively from the bottom face (Figure 36). For the cycloadditions described in Scheme 61 and Scheme 62, *endo* approach of the dipole is favoured as the *exo* transition state is expected to be less stable due to steric repulsion between the bulky trimethylsilyl group and the β-substituent.

While reports of 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions of acrylamides with diazotalkanes are limited, very good diastereomeric ratios of up to 93:7 have been obtained, and in the Lewis acid catalysed enantioselective cycloadditions, excellent enantiomeric excesses of up to 99% ee were achieved. The resulting cycloadducts have also been transformed to a variety of useful building blocks for asymmetric synthesis.

### 1.2.4 Cycloadditions with Azomethine Ylides

The 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of azomethine ylides to alkenes and alkynes leads to the formation of pyrrolidines and pyrrolines respectively (Scheme 63).
Azomethine ylides are allyl anion-type 1,3-dipoles that are bent even in the ground state. The 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions of azomethine ylides are generally stereospecific, with the stereochemistry of the dipole and dipolarophile retained in the cycloadduct. Cycloadditions with azomethine ylides have been extensively investigated in recent years and these have been applied in asymmetric and natural product synthesis, as well as the syntheses of biologically interesting compounds.\textsuperscript{1,6}

1.2.4.1 Synthesis of Azomethine Ylides

Azomethine ylides are unstable species that must be generated in situ and are subsequently trapped by the added dipolarophile. A number of methods have been developed for their generation, including deprotonation of imminium salts,\textsuperscript{177} thermal isomerisation of imines of \(\alpha\)-amino acids\textsuperscript{178} and decarboxylation of imminium ions derived from primary and secondary \(\alpha\)-amino acids.\textsuperscript{179} The most commonly employed methods nowadays involve the thermolysis or photolysis of suitably-substituted aziridines\textsuperscript{180} and the desilylation of cyanoaminoamines.\textsuperscript{181}

The fluorine-mediated desilylation of cyanoaminoamines was developed by Padwa in 1985.\textsuperscript{181} Treatment of \(\alpha\)-cyanoaminoamines with silver fluoride results in fluoride-assisted desilylation to give the intermediate anion, and subsequent loss of cyanide yields the azomethine ylide (Scheme 64).

The stereospecific thermal and photolytic conversion of aziridines to acyclic azomethine ylides was reported by Huisgen in 1967.\textsuperscript{180} As the aziridine ring system is isoelectronic with the cyclopropyl anion, the thermal isomerisation of aziridines to azomethine ylides involves a conrotatory ring opening by the Woodward and Hoffmann rules, and the photochemically induced process involves a disrotatory ring opening.\textsuperscript{182} Thus, the cis-dicarboxylic acid ester \(99\) will undergo conrotatory ring opening under thermal conditions to give the trans-azomethine
ylide and disrotatory ring opening under photochemical conditions to yield the cis-azomethine ylide (Figure 37). The trans-dicarboxylic acid ester 100 behaves in a similar manner.

![Figure 37]

The ring-opening of the aziridines and the cycloaddition are stereospecific if the cycloaddition occurs before bond rotation in the intermediate azomethine ylide. For example, the trans-azomethine ylide thermally derived from the cis-dicarboxylic acid ester 99 combines stereospecifically even with weak dipolarophiles whereas for the cis-azomethine ylide thermally derived from the trans-dicarboxylic acid ester 100, isomerisation to the trans-isomer competes with the cycloaddition except for reactions with highly reactive dipolarophiles such as tetracyanoethylene.183,184

1.2.4.2 Reactivity and Regioselectivity

The cycloaddition of azomethine ylides to alkenes can lead to the formation of two regioisomeric pyrrolidines. In general, the reactions exhibit marked regioselectivity, with almost exclusive or predominant formation of one regioisomer. The cycloadditions of azomethine ylides occur most readily with electron-deficient dipolarophiles through a HOMO-dipole controlled interaction (Figure 38). The presence of electron-rich or conjugating groups on the dipole raise the energy of the HOMO and hence the energy gap between the HOMO-dipole and LUMO-dipolarophile is reduced leading to a more efficient reaction.

![Figure 38]

The cycloaddition of electron-rich dipolarophiles to azomethine ylides is also possible through a LUMO (dipole) – HOMO (dipolarophile) interaction, but cycloadditions of this type are less common.185
1.2.4.3 Asymmetric 1,3-Dipolar Cycloadditions of Azomethine Ylides

As chiral pyrrolidines are common building blocks for many natural and unnatural compounds which possess important biological activity, the asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of azomethine ylides has attracted much attention.\(^{34}\) Chiral azomethine ylides (both cyclic and acyclic),\(^{186-190}\) chiral dipolarophiles\(^{191-193}\) and chiral catalysts\(^{74,191}\) have all been successfully implemented for asymmetric induction in azomethine ylide 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions.

Most of the reported studies on the control of the stereoselectivity by use of chiral dipolarophiles concern the use of acrylates.\(^{192,194,195}\) However, excellent results have also been achieved with chiral acrylamides, and the synthesis of a number of biologically active compounds has been accomplished through their use.

1.2.4.4 Asymmetric 1,3-Dipolar Cycloadditions of Azomethine Ylides and Acrylamides

Encouraged by Curran’s work on the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of Oppolzer’s chiral sultam derivative 12 to nitrile oxides,\(^{83}\) Garner investigated the cycloaddition of 12 to photochemically generated azomethine ylides as a route to the asymmetric synthesis of quinocarcin 101, a potential antitumor antibiotic isolated from Streptomyces broths.\(^{196-200}\)

Irradiation of the aziridine 102 yielded the azomethine ylide 103, which subsequently underwent selective \textit{exo} attack at the \textit{si} face of Oppolzer’s chiral sultam 12 to give the \textit{exo}-substituted pyrrolidine 104 (diastereomeric ratio >25:1). As 12 is photochemically unstable, portionwise addition to the azomethine ylide 103 was necessary. The cycloaddition of chiral acrylates derived from menthol and 10-[dicyclohexyl(sulfonylamido)]isoborneol to a number of photochemically generated azomethine ylides was also conducted, however no facial selectivity was observed.\(^{197}\) With four of the six stereogenic centres present in quinocarcin 101 now in place, the pyrrolidine 104 was transformed to 101 \textit{via} a number of synthetic steps (Scheme 65).\(^{199}\)
In 1997, Ma and co-workers utilised the asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of the azomethine ylide derived from \( N\)-benzyl-\( N\)-(methoxymethyl)-trimethylsilylmethylamine 105 with a range of chiral oxazolidinones as a route to a series of optically active \( \text{trans}\)\-3-amino-4-alkylpyrrolidines, which is present at the C-8 position of 2-pyridones, novel DNA gyrase inhibitors that exhibit antibacterial activity (Scheme 66).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( R )</th>
<th>( R_1 )</th>
<th>major:minor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Me</td>
<td>( i)-Pr</td>
<td>60:40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Bn</td>
<td>58:42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>73:27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Et</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>77:33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( c)-Pr*</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>80:20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>67:33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\*\( c\)-Pr = cyclopropyl

Scheme 66
The pyrrolidines were obtained in high yield and moderate diastereoselectivity, with the diastereoselectivity dependant on the structure of the oxazolidinone; diastereomeric ratios of up to 80:20 achieved when R = cyclopropyl and R¹ = phenyl. The major diastereomer resulted from the favoured dipole attack on the alkene from the face opposite to the R¹ substituent. Although the selectivity was moderate, the desired major diastereomer was easily separated by recrystallisation or chromatography, and this was subsequently transformed to the chiral pyrrolidine\textsuperscript{201}.

In 2001, Karlsson reported the doubly diastereoselective cycloaddition of chiral azomethine ylides to a range of chiral acrylamides\textsuperscript{202,203}. On employment of oxazolidinone and camphorsultam derivatives, the camphorsultam derivatives furnished the greater diastereoselectivities, with diastereomeric ratios of up to 88:12 achieved. The diastereoselectivity was found to be solvent-dependant, with the employment of more polar solvents furnishing higher diastereoselectivities. The optimum diastereoselectivity was achieved by reacting the camphorsultam derivative (\textminus )-\textsuperscript{106} with the (R)-1-phenylethyl-derived azomethine ylide (Scheme 67).

\begin{center}
\begin{tabular}{lccc}
\textbf{solvent} & \textbf{R} & \textbf{major:minor} \\
\hline
Toluene & (R)-1-phenylethyl & 70:30 \\
Toluene & (S)-1-phenylethyl & 52:48 \\
Acetonitrile & (R)-1-phenylethyl & 88:12 \\
Acetonitrile & (S)-1-phenylethyl & 75:25 \\
\end{tabular}
\end{center}

\textit{Scheme 67}

The major diastereomer results from attack of the azomethine ylide to the \textit{re-re} face of the dipolarophile (Figure 39). The enhanced selectivity in more polar solvents is believed to be due to dipole-dipole interactions caused by the polar solvent stabilising the transition state.
The resulting pyrrolidines can act as chiral building blocks for the synthesis of enantiopure bioactive pyrrolidines, and Karlsson demonstrated this in his short synthesis of (3R,4R)-4-(hydroxymethyl)pyrrolidin-3-ol 107, a known glycosidase inhibitor (Scheme 68).\textsuperscript{202}

![Scheme 68]

When Karlsson extended this work to include monocyclic five-membered α,β-unsaturated acrylamides, reduced diastereoselectivity was observed.\textsuperscript{204} Interestingly, changing the absolute configuration of the starting ylide reversed the diastereoselectivity of the cycloaddition (Scheme 69).

![Scheme 69]

More recently, the large-scale synthesis of 107 has been reported by Chand et al., in which an achiral ylide was employed using an N-benzyl substituent in place of the N-phenylethyl substituent. Kilogram quantities of 107 have been prepared using this synthesis.\textsuperscript{205}

In 2001, Carey reported an efficient synthesis of (3S,4R)-ethyl 1-azabicyclo[2.2.1]heptane-3-carboxylate 108 in which the key step was the cycloaddition of an azomethine ylide with a camphorsultam derivative (Scheme 70).\textsuperscript{206} Cycloaddition of the camphorsultam derivative 109 with the azomethine ylide derived from 105 yielded a diastereomeric mixture of pyrrolidines in a 4:1 ratio, which were readily separated by column chromatography. The stereochemistry of the major pyrrolidine 110 was consistent with the
cycloaddition proceeding via the normal transition state structure for reactions of camphorsultam derivatives.

Scheme 70

The cycloaddition of an azomethine ylide to an acrylamide derivative was also the key step in the Williams report of the asymmetric total synthesis of spirotryprostatin A 111, which is a member of a promising class of antimitotic agents.\textsuperscript{207,208}

The unstable acrylamide dipolarophile 112 was prepared \textit{in situ} by treatment of 113 with trifluoroacetic acid in toluene. This was then added to the azomethine ylide generated from morpholinone 114 and aldehyde 115 to yield an approximately 2:1 mixture of cycloadducts. The major cycloadduct 116 was then subjected to further synthetic transformations to yield spirotryprostatin A 111 (Scheme 71).

The use of Lewis acid catalysts has also been reported to promote asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions of azomethine ylides, with silver catalysts the most commonly employed.\textsuperscript{6}

Diastereomeric ratios of up to 98:2 (\textit{exo:end}o) were achieved by Pandey and co-workers on employment of cyclic azomethine ylides in silver fluoride catalysed cycloadditions with the
Oppolzer chiral sultam derivative 117. This route was then utilised towards a formal synthesis of optically active ent-epibatidine 118.

The chiral dipolarophile 117, which was synthesised by a Heck reaction, reacted with the cyclic azomethine ylide derived from 119 to give the pyrrolidine diastereomers in a 9:1 mixture. These were separable by chromatography, and the chiral auxiliary was cleaved from the major diastereomer 120 by exposure to lithium hydroxide in tetrahydrofuran and water, followed by reaction with thionyl chloride in methanol to yield 121 (Scheme 72). The conversion of 121 to ent-epibatidine 118 was reported earlier by the same group.

In 2005, Nyerges et al. reported the silver acetate catalyzed asymmetric cycloaddition of azomethine ylides derived from arylidene glycine imides and chiral acrylamides. A range of chiral acrylamides were studied, with single pyrrolidine diastereomers obtained when the cyclic pyrrolidine derived and the (1R,2S)-(--)-ephedrine derived acrylamides 122 and 123 were employed (Scheme 73).
The employment of acrylamides derived from Oppolzer’s sultam again led to good diastereoselectivities in 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions with azomethine ylides. In the absence of metal catalysis diastereomeric ratios of up to 90:10 were obtained, while addition of silver fluoride led to an improved ratio of 98:2.

1.2.5 Cycloadditions with other 1,3-Dipoles

1.2.5.1 Allyl Anion Type Dipoles

Azomethine imines are a class of allyl anion type dipoles that undergo 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions with alkenes and alkynes to furnish pyrazolidines and pyrazolines respectively (Scheme 74).\(^\text{212}\)

![Scheme 74](image_url)

The resonance form A in Figure 40 is expected to be more important as a result of the higher electronegativity of nitrogen relative to carbon.\(^\text{212}\)
These dipoles are too reactive to be isolated and are normally generated in situ, most commonly by reaction of $N,N'$-disubstituted hydrazines with an aldehyde (Scheme 75).\(^{212}\)

![Scheme 75](image)

Asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions of azomethine imines have not been extensively studied.\(^6\) The first report of an asymmetric reaction between an azomethine imine and an acrylamide was communicated in 2007 by Suga, who described the highly enantioselective and diastereoselective Lewis acid catalysed 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition between azomethine imines (derived from the reaction of pyrazolidin-3-one with an aldehyde)\(^{213}\) and the oxazolidinone 76.\(^{214}\) Employing a chiral Ni(II)-binaphthyldiimine complex as the catalyst, diastereomeric ratios of 64:36 to >99:1 were achieved in enantiomeric excesses of 74-97% (Scheme 76).\(^{214}\)

![Scheme 76](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>major:minor</th>
<th>% ee major</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$p$-MeOC(_6)H(_4)</td>
<td>80:20</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p$-MeC(_6)H(_4)</td>
<td>91:9</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p$-CNC(_6)H(_4)</td>
<td>97:3</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p$-ClC(_6)H(_4)</td>
<td>91:9</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$o$-ClC(_6)H(_4)</td>
<td>&gt;99:1</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p$-BrC(_6)H(_4)</td>
<td>93:7</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-naphthyl</td>
<td>93:7</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-furyl</td>
<td>64:36</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cyclohexyl</td>
<td>82:18</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The re face of the oxazolidinone is shielded from dipole attack by the 4-methylquinoline moiety of the Ni(II) complex, and the trans selectivity is believed to be due to favourable secondary orbital interactions between the empty nitrogen orbital of the azomethine imine and the oxazolidinone (Figure 41).

![Figure 41](image_url)

1.2.5.2 Allenyl/Propargyl Anion Type

The 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of nitrilimines to alkenes and alkynes is a very useful method for the preparation of 2-pyrazolines and pyrazoles (Scheme 77).^86

![Scheme 77](image_url)

Nitrilimines are prepared in situ, generally from hydrazonoyl halides (Scheme 78).^86

![Scheme 78](image_url)

Despite the utility of enantiopure pyrazolines and pyrazoles, the asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of nitrilimines has only become useful in recent years.25 Molteni and co-workers communicated the cycloadditions of nitrilimines with a range of enantiopure acrylamides as a route to enantiopure 4,5-dihydropyrazoles in 2002.215 Diastereoselectivities of up to 83:17 were obtained on employment of the Oppolzer chiral sultam derivative 12 (Scheme 79). Cleavage of
the auxiliaries was easily achieved by sodium hydroxide hydrolysis to yield the dicarboxy pyrazoles 124 and 125, potentially interesting new chiral building blocks.

![Chemical structure and mechanism]

Scheme 79

1.3 Conclusion

As up to four stereocentres can be introduced in a stereoselective manner in a single step, the asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition is one of the most useful methods for the preparation of chiral five-membered ring heterocycles. This review focused on the employment of acrylamides as dipolarophiles in asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions, with particular emphasis on the rationale for the observed stereocontrol; the conformational properties of the acrylamides, relative to the more conformationally mobile acrylates for example, are critical to their use as chiral auxiliaries in these processes. Thus, the use of chiral acrylamides has led to the attainment of high levels of regioselectivity, endo/exo selectivity, diastereofacial selectivity and stereocontrol in cycloadditions with a range of 1,3-dipoles. The synthetic utility of the resulting cycloadducts was demonstrated in a number of natural product syntheses. For each of the dipoles discussed, acrylamides derived from Oppolzer’s sultam proved to be the most advantageous; excellent diastereoselectivities could be achieved in each case. The majority of studies on metal-catalysed cycloadditions have focussed on nitrones, with excellent enantioselectivities and diastereoselectivities obtained. Acrylamides bearing a wide variety of chiral auxiliaries have been explored in 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions with nitrile oxides, as these reactions are not amenable to Lewis acid catalysis.

The employment of chiral acrylamides as dipolarophiles, particularly in 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions with nitrile oxides in which the use of chiral catalysts and chiral 1,3-dipoles is not an attractive option, will continue to be exploited in asymmetric 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions.

1.4 References


