

Synthesis of γ , δ -unsaturated amino acids via ester enolate Claisen rearrangement of chelated allylic esters

Review Article

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Summary. Deprotonation of N-protected amino acid allylic esters with LDA at -78° C and subsequent addition of a metal salt presumably results in the formation of a chelated metal enolate which undergoes Claisen rearrangement upon warming up to room temperature, giving rise to unsaturated amino acid. Many different metal salts can be used for chelation, but in general the best results are obtained with zinc chloride. Due to the fixed enolate geometry, as a result of chelate formation, and a strong preference for the *chair like* transition state, the rearrangement proceeds with a high degree of diastereoselectivity. This methodology can be applied to acyclic as well as to cyclic substrates, and even to peptides, and allows for the synthesis of amino acids containing quaternary carbon centers.

Keywords: Amino acids – Chelate-enolate Claisen rearrangement – Chair like transition state – Unsaturated amino acids

Introduction

 γ , δ -Unsaturated amino acids are of current interest, not only as naturally occurring non-proteinogenic amino acids like the isoleucine antagonist cyclopentenylglycine **1** (Edelson et al., 1958; Cramer et al., 1980) and the antibiotic furanomycine **2** (Katagiri et al., 1967), but also as important intermediates for the synthesis of complex amino acids as illustrated by the derivatives **3–5** (Bartlett et al., 1982a; Ohfune et al., 1985, 1986; Baumann and Duthaler, 1988; Broxterman et al., 1992).

Therefore, various approaches to the synthesis of this class of amino acids have been developed during the last few years. Besides the *N*-sulfonylimine ene reaction (Achmatowicz and Pietraszkiewicz, 1981; Tschaen and Weinreb,

Scheme 1

OSiMe₃

1982, 1984) and the nucleophilic allylation of glycine cation equivalents (Williams et al., 1988; Easton and Scharfbillig, 1990; Roos et al., 1992, 1993), the sigmatropic rearrangement processes are well suited for the introduction of unsaturated side chains (Williams, 1989) (Scheme 1).

The first synthesis of allylic amino acids by Claisen rearrangement was described in 1975 by Steglich et al. (Kübel et al., 1975; Engel et al., 1977). Treatment of N-Benzoyl amino acid allylic esters $\bf 6$ with dehydrating agents such as phosgen results in the formation of allyloxazolinones $\bf 8$ via Claisen rearrangement of the primarily formed oxazole intermediates $\bf 7$. The reaction is especially suitable for the synthesis of α -alkylated allylic amino

acids ($\mathbb{R}^1 \neq \mathbb{H}$) because, in this case, epimerization of the α -chiral center *via* enolization of the oxazolone **8** is not possible (Fischer et al., 1986; Burger et al., 1988; Castelhano et al., 1988; Colombo et al., 1991; Holladay and Nadzan, 1991).

As a result of the fixed olefin geometry in the oxazole ring and a strong preference of the *chair like* transition state these α -alkylated amino acids 9 are formed in a highly diastereoselective fashion. Unfortunately, this elegant methodology is limited to N-benzoyl amino acid esters (or related aromatic or heteroaromatic N-acyl derivatives), while other common protecting groups like carbamates (Z, BOC, FMOC, etc.) show no cyclization to the corresponding oxazole. For these derivatives another rearrangement process has to be applied.

The Ireland-Claisen rearrangement (Ireland and Mueller, 1972) of different N-protected glycine allylic esters was intensively studied by Bartlett and Barstow (1982). This method is applicable to various protecting groups and can be applied to the synthesis of normal ($R^1 = H$) as well as to α -alkylated amino acids. However, the diastereoselectivity of the rearrangement strongly depends on various reaction parameters, like solvent or the base used, the N-protecting group, and the substitution pattern of the allylic ester moiety. As a result, this methodology is not generally suitable to the diastereoselective synthesis of these unsaturated α -amino acids.

The chelate-enolate Claisen rearrangement

Working in the field of amino acid synthesis, we are mainly interested in reactions of chelated amino acid ester enolates 10 (Fig. 2). These chelated enolates have several advantages in comparison to their non chelated analogues:

- a) The chelated enolates are significantly more stable than the corresponding, probably non chelated, lithium enolates. In contrast to lithium enolates, the chelate enolates can be warmed up to room temperature without decomposition. Side reactions such as ketene formation *via* elimination can be suppressed in most cases. This allows the expansion of the field of enolate chemistry to reactions which can not be carried out with *normal*, non stabilized enolates.
- b) Because of the fixation of the enolate geometry by chelation, many reactions of these enolates proceed with a high degree of diastereoselectivity. For example, aldol reactions of 10 with various aldehydes occur in a highly diastereoselective fashion in the presence of titanium or zinc salts, whereas

Fig. 2

the corresponding lithium enolates show only modest selectivity (Kazmaier and Grandel, 1995).

c) Many manipulations on enolates such as 10 as possible. Besides variations of the protecting group X, an excessive *metal tuning* should allow the modification of the reactivity and selectivity of these enolates. Because, in most cases, the coordination sphere of the metal ion M is not saturated in the bidentate enolate complex, the additional coordination of external ligands on the chelated metal is possible. *Ligand tuning* with chiral ligands should probably allow enolate reactions to be carried out not only in a diastereoselective but also in an enantioselective way.

It is important to know if a chelate enolate is formed under certain reaction conditions, because many variations of the reaction parameters are possible. Therefore we were looking for a reaction that provides us with the desired information. A reaction, especially suitable for our purpose, is the ester enolate Claisen rearrangement, which is known to proceed preferentially via a *chair like* transition state. Therefore, the relative configuration of substituents in the rearrangement product strongly depends on the enolate geometry. If high diastereoselectivities are observed, one of the two possible enolates is significantly favored (Ziegler, 1988; Blechert, 1989; Wipf, 1991; Pereira and Srebnik, 1993; Frauenrath, 1995). E.g. the high *syn*-selectivity in the enolate Claisen rearrangement of chiral α-alkoxysubstituted allylic

Table 1. Rearrangement of *N*-protected glycine allylic esters **11**

Entry	Y	MX_n	R	Yield [%]	ds [%]
1	Z	ZnCl ₂	CH ₃	90	95
2	\mathbf{Z}	$CoCl_2$	CH_3	78	93
3	\mathbf{Z}	$MgCl_2$	CH_3	85	91
4	\mathbf{Z}	$Al(OiPr)_3$	CH_3	75	90
5	\mathbf{Z}	$Ti(OiPr)_4$	CH_3	50	90
6	${f Z}$	Me ₃ SiCl	CH_3	60	83
7	\mathbf{Z}	\mathbf{ZnCl}_2	H	88	_
8	\mathbf{Z}	\mathbf{ZnCl}_{2}^{-}	C_3H_7	76	95
9	BOC	$ZnCl_2$	CH_3	84	96
10	BOC	$ZnCl_2$	C_3H_7	78	96
11	TFA	ZnCl_2	C_3H_7	79	95

esters is explained by the rearrangement via a primarily formed chelated ester enolate (Bartlett et al., 1982b; Burke et al., 1983; Kallmerten et al., 1986).

Recently we described a new variation of the ester enolate Claisen rearrangement, one that is especially suitable for α -amino acid synthesis (Kazmaier, 1994a). Deprotonation of N-protected amino acid allylic esters (Scheme 2) like 11 with LDA at -78° C and subsequent addition of a metal salt (MX_n) presumably results in the formation of a chelated metal enolate 12 which undergoes Claisen rearrangement upon warming up to room temperature, giving rise to unsaturated amino acid 13.

In contrast to the corresponding lithium enolates, which do not show this rearrangement because they decompose during warming up, the chelateenolates are much more stable. Many different metal salts can be used for chelation (Table 1) and, in general, yields and diastereoselectivities are high. The best results are obtained with zinc chloride while the lower yield in the reaction with titaniumisopropoxyd (entry 5) results from a partially split of the allylic ester via titanium catalyzed transesterification. Otherwise, the metal enolates are clearly superior to silvlketene acetals (entry 6), both in terms of their reactivity and selectivity. The driving force for the accelerated rearrangement of the chelate enolates is probably the transformation of the high-energy ester enolate 12 into a chelate bridged, stabilized carboxylate 13. Due to the fixed enolate geometry, as a result of chelate formation, the rearrangement proceeds with a high degree of diastereoselectivity independent of the substitution pattern and the protecting groups Y used.

Because of the good results obtained with acyclic substrates, the chelateenolate rearrangement was also applied to cycloalkenyl glycinates 14 (Scheme 3) (Kazmaier, 1994b). These substrates are of special interest, not only because of the biological activity of the resulting amino acids, but also because it is known, that cyclic allylic esters prefer to rearrange via the boot like transition state. The influence of the ring size as well as the metal salt used for chelation of the ester enolate was investigated. The results are listed in Table 2.

The best results concerning yield as well as stereoselectivity are obtained with cyclohexenyl glycinate (n = 2). In this case all metal salts give the desired product with excellent yields. The same high degree of diastereoselectivity is obtained in the rearrangement of the homologous cycloheptenyl derivative (n = 3), whereas the selectivity decreases in the case of the smaller ester

Scheme 3

MX _n	ZnCl ₂		MgCl ₂		Al(OiPr) ₃		SnCl ₂	
	Yield [%]	Ratio 15:16	Yield [%]	Ratio 15:16	Yield [%]	Ratio 15:16	Yield [%]	Ratio 15:16
1 2 3 4	79 83 73 57	80:20 90:10 92:8 86:14	57 94 79 78	79:21 92:8 92:8 91:9	47 91 69 42	75:25 90:10 89:11 79:21	76 88 71 74	67:33 71:21 63:67 41:59

Table 2. Rearrangement of *N*-Boc protected cycloalkenyl glycinates **14**

$$Y = Boc$$
 $S = Solvent$
 $S = Zn, Mg, Al$
 $S = Zn, Mg, Al$

Fig. 3

(n = 1) and larger, probably more flexible cyclooctenyl ester (n = 4). The results with tin(II) chloride are in sharp contrast to the selectivities obtained in the presence of the other metal salts. Obviously, tin(II) chloride is not able to form chelated enolates under the usual reaction conditions. Although the diastereomer 15 was formed preferentially in good yields, the diastereomeric ratio varies and is even inverted in the case of the cyclooctenyl ester. Even though this phenomenon is surprising, it is also observed in the rearrangement of acyclic substrates.

The product formation as well as the high diastereoselectivity observed in the rearrangement of the six- and seven- membered allylic esters can be explained by rearrangement *via* a *boat-like* transition state which is discussed frequently for cyclic allylic substrates (Fig. 3). Steric interactions between the cycloalkenyl ring and the probably solvated chelating metal obviously disfavor the *chair-like* transition state.

Synthesis of quaternary amino acids

The good results obtained with acyclic as well as cyclic glycine allylic esters encouraged us to evaluate the chelate-enolate rearrangement to the synthesis of sterically high demanding amino acids containing quaternary carbon centers. Therefore, the rearrangement was also applied to esters of other amino acids 17 (Scheme 4, $R^1 \neq H$). The influence of the protecting group Y, the side chain R^1 , the substitution pattern $(R^2 - R^3)$ as well as the metal salt MX_n used for chelation of the ester enolate was investigated (Kazmaier and Maier, 1995, 1996). The results are listed in Table 3. As in the examples mentioned earlier, no dependence on the protecting group is observed for the rearrangement.

YHN
$$R^{1}$$
 R^{2} R^{2} R^{2} R^{2} R^{2} R^{2} R^{3} R^{2} R^{2} R^{3} R^{3} R^{2} R^{3} R^{3} R^{2} R^{3} R^{3}

Scheme 4

Table 3. Rearrangement of various amino acid allylic esters 17

Entry	Y	\mathbb{R}^1	\mathbb{R}^2	R³	MX_n	Yield [%]	ds [%]
1	Z	H	Н	CH ₃	$ZnCl_2$	92	_
2	BOC	CH_3	Н	CH_3	$ZnCl_2$	81	-
3	\mathbf{Z}	$C_2 H_5$	H	CH_3	$ZnCl_2$	87	
4	\mathbf{Z}	C_2H_5	Н	CH_3	$MgCl_2$	80	
5	\mathbf{Z}	$CH(CH_3)_2$	Н	CH_3	$ZnCl_2$	39	-
6	Z	CH ₂ Ph	Н	CH_3	$ZnCl_2$	63	_
7	TFA	$CH_2^{2}Ind^{a}$	\mathbf{H}	CH_3	$ZnCl_{2}^{r}$	34	
8	TFA	CH_2^2 Ind ^a	Н	CH_3	$MgCl_2$	79	
9	Z	$(CH_2)_4NHBOC$	H	CH_3	$ZnCl_2$	69	
10	BOC	$(CH_2)_2$ SCH ₃	Н	CH_3	$ZnCl_2$	80	-
11	TFA	CH ₃	CH_3	Н	$ZnCl_{2}^{\tilde{2}}$	84	96
12	TFA	CH_3	Ph	H	$ZnCl_{2}^{r}$	65	94
13	TFA	CH_3	CH_3	H	$ZnCl_{2}^{r}$	84	92
14	TFA	CH_3	CH_3	Н	$MgCl_2$	89	94
15	TFA	Ph	CH_3	H	$ZnCl_2$	94	95
16	Z	(CH ₂) ₄ NHBOC	CH_3	Н	$ZnCl_2$	74	94

^aInd 3-Indolyl.

Overall, best results are obtained in the presence of zinc chloride as the chelating metal salt. Among all the other metal salts which can be employed, particularly magnesium chloride gives comparable yields in many cases (entries 13 and 14). For the tryptophan derivative the yield is even higher (entries 7 and 8). This example also shows that this methodology is not restricted to amino acids with aliphatic or aromatic side chains but can also be applied to derivatives of functionalized amino acids like tryptophan, lysine (entries 9 and 16), or methionine (entry 10). These examples have been chosen, because especially the tryptophan and lysine derivatives are critical substrates for α -alkylation reactions (Gander-Coquez and Seebach, 1988). The α -alkylated methionine derivative is also an interesting substrate, because it can be converted easily into other amino acids like ethyl glycine (Raney-Ni) (Schöllkopf and Konsky, 1983) or vinyl glycine (via an oxidationelimination pathway) (Weber et al., 1986). The diastereoselectivities observed for the E-configurated allylic esters (entries 11-16) are comparable to the results obtained with the corresponding glycine derivatives (Table 1).

Amino acids containing quaternary β -carbon centers are, in addition to α -alkylated amino acids, an especially interesting class of non-proteinogenic

amino acids. The most common representative, tert.-leucine, occurs as a building block in various complex natural products. Recently, tert.-leucine was used as a precursor for the synthesis of chiral auxiliaries and ligands applied to asymmetric synthesis. While various methods are known for the synthesis of α -alkylated amino acids, there are fewer procedures available for the formation of amino acids containing quaternary β -centers (Martin, 1980; Fuji, 1993). Besides Michael- and cycloadditions, the sigmatropic rearrangement processes are suitable for this purpose (Takano et al., 1984; Ito et al., 1988).

Because of the promising results obtained with E-configurated allylic esters, the chelate-enolate rearrangement was also applied to the rearrangement of highly substituted allylic esters such as 19 (Scheme 5), giving rise to amino acids containing quaternary β -carbon centers. Starting from amino acids other than glycine ($\mathbb{R}^1 \neq \mathbb{H}$) allows for the generation of two vicinal quaternary centers in one step (Kazmaier, 1995).

As in the other systems investigated, various metal salts can be used for chelation (Table 4, entries 1–4) as well, but in general, best results are obtained with zinc chloride and methylaluminium dichloride. Therefore, zinc chloride is applied for this purpose in standard reactions because it is less expensive and easier to handle.

YHN
$$R^{1}$$
 1) 2.2 equiv LDA 1.1 equiv MX_n R^{3} R^{2} R^{1} 1.1 equiv MX_n R^{3} R^{2} R^{1} YHN COOCH₃ (±)-20

Table 4. Ester enolate Claisen rearrangement of amino acid allylic esters **19**

Scheme 5

Entry	Y	\mathbb{R}^1	\mathbb{R}^2	\mathbb{R}^3	MX_n	Yield [%]
1	Z	H	CH ₃	CH ₃	$ZnCl_2$	81%
2	\mathbf{Z}	H	CH_3	CH_3	AlMeCl ₂	78%
3	Z	H	CH_3	CH_3	MgCl_2	75%
4	Z	\mathbf{H}	CH_3	CH_3	$Al(OiPr)_3$	36%
5	BOC	\mathbf{H}	—(CF	$I_2)_4$ —	$ZnCl_2$	64%
6	BOC	H	—(CF	$I_2)_4$ —	$AlMeCl_2$	62%
7	BOC	H	—(CI	$I_2)_5$ —	$ZnCl_2$	45%
8	BOC	H	—(CF	$I_2)_5$ —	$AlMeCl_2$	69%
9	BOC	CH_3	CH_3	CH_3	$ZnCl_2$	68%
10	\mathbf{Z}	Bn	CH_3	CH_3	$ZnCl_2$	69%
11	BOC	Bn	CH_3	CH_3	$ZnCl_2$	64%
12	TFA	Bn	CH_3	CH_3	$ZnCl_2$	67%
13	Tos	Bn	CH_3	CH_3	$ZnCl_2$	75%
14	TFA	Ph	CH_3	CH_3	$ZnCl_2$	69%

The rearrangement can be applied to acyclic as well as to cyclic substrates (entries 5–8). This methodology is not limited to glycine esters illustrated by the rearrangement of various amino acid allylic esters (entries 9–15). Aliphatic as well as aromatic sidechains are suitable and even the extremely sterically demanding α -alkylated amino acids are obtained in good yields. The influence of the protecting group Y is investigated for the phenylalanine derivatives (entries 11–14). No significant dependence on the protecting group is observed for the rearrangement. This makes the method of general value for the synthesis of various N-protected amino acids.

Furthermore, not only the symmetrically substituted allylic esters ($R^1 = R^2$), but also the unsymmetrically substituted esters ($R^1 \neq R^2$) are of special interest. The rearrangement of the *E*-configurated esters results in the formation of the *syn*-configurated amino acids in a highly diastereoselective fashion. The observed diastereoselectivity ($\geq 95\%$ ds) results from a preferential rearrangement *via* a *chair like* transition state and agrees with the selectivities observed for other *E*-configurated allylic esters. On the other hand, the rearrangement of the *Z*-configurated esters gives rise to the opposite diastereomer, although with a significantly lower degree of selectivity. The lower diastereoselectivity may result from interactions of the *cis*-oriented side chain and the chelated enolate. These interactions should destabilize the *chair like* transitions state with the consequence that the *boat like* transition state should become more favored.

To prove this possibility, the acetylenic substrates 21 and 22 were also subjected to rearrangement (Scheme 6). Because of the acidic acetylenic proton, 3.5 equiv LDA are used for the rearrangement of these substrates. While the *E*-configurated ester 21 give the expected product 23 in a highly diastereoselective fashion, the oppositely configurated *Z*-ester 22 unexpectedly yield the same product – although less selectively. The formation of the same product from these complementary precursors can be explained by a change of the transition state geometry (Scheme 7).

Scheme 6

The E-configurated ester 21 rearranges preferentially via the expected chair like transition state A. In the case of the Z-configurated ester 22, strong steric interactions could arise in the corresponding transition state C between the triple bond and the presumably solvated chelated metal. The system can

switch to the *boat like* transition state **D** to avoid these possible interactions, accepting the less dramatic interaction of the axial hydrogen and the chelate. Consequently the *syn* product **23** is produced preferentially.

Introduction of bulky substituents (aryl or trialkylsilyl groups) on the acetylenic moiety has no further influence on the reaction. Yield and diastereoselectivity were comparable to the results obtained with ester 21.

Asymmetric Claisen rearrangements

As illustrated, it is possible to carry out the ester enolate Claisen rearrangement in a highly diastereoselective fashion via control of the enolate geometry. Although from a synthetic point of view, the generation of racemic products is not fully satisfying. For an application to amino acid synthesis, it is important not only to control the *relative*, but also the *absolute* configuration of the stereogenic centers. The Claisen rearrangement is also very suitable for this purpose as well, because of the high preference for the chair like transition state (Ziegler, 1988; Blechert, 1989; Wipf, 1991; Pereira and Srebnik, 1993; Frauenrath, 1995). Due to the concerted, suprafacial nature of the Claisen rearrangement the degree of 1,3-chirality transmission (from C-4 to C-6 of the 1,5 dienic system) is often >90% to nearly quantitative. If esters of chiral allylic alcohols are used, chirality transfer occurs not only from the ester moiety (C-4) to C-6 but also to the α -position (C-1) of the carboxylic acid subunit (1,4-chirality transfer). The degree of this chirality transfer not only depends on the transition state structure (chair vs. boat) but also on the enolate geometry (E-enolate vs. Z-enolate) of the intermediary formed ester enolate. Therefore, the influences (solvent etc.) on the chirality transfer are rather complex. However, the same factors which control the 1,4-chirality transmission of the chiral esters should also affect the relative orientation of the newly formed chiral centers at the α and the β position of the rearrangement product (syn/anti selectivity).

The diastereoselectivities observed in our investigated version of the ester enolate Claisen rearrangement are generally very high (\approx 95% ds). For that reason we applied this methodology also to amino acid esters of chiral allylic alcohols such as **25** (Scheme 8).

As expected, the rearrangement occurs with a high degree of chirality transfer giving rise to optically active amino acids like 26. The rearrangement

can be applied to various substituted allylic, esters, which allows the synthesis of highly functionalized amino acids. On the other hand, these derivatives can be used as precursors for the synthesis of polyhydroxylated pyrrolizidine and indolizidine alkaloids.

Besides this more or less classical approach to chirality transfer we are also interested in other possibilities of chiral induction. In addition to using chiral alcohols and transferring chirality from the carboxyl-terminus to the α -position of the amino acid, the chiral information can also be placed in the amino-terminus of the amino acid. Although chiral protecting groups are not very common, the introduction of the amino acid allylic ester moiety into a peptide chain is an interesting approach. Carrying out the rearrangement with peptide esters would allow the introduction of allylic side chains onto an already existing peptide chain. This concept of peptide modification was developed by Seebach in 1983 (Seebach, 1988), allowing an extremely economical modification of sarcosine subunits of linear (Seebach et al., 1991) as well as cyclic peptides (Miller et al., 1993). In application of this technique. the immunosuppressive cyclic undecapeptide cyclosporin was alkylated in a highly regio- as well as stereoselective fashion (Seebach et al., 1993). Another interesting approach using this concept of side chain introduction was described by Reetz with the stereoselective addition of cuprates to vinylic pseudopeptides (Reetz et al., 1992). However, the control of the stereochemistry in the alkylation step is not trivial. Therefore, we focused mainly on the question, whether it would be possible to transfer the chiral information via some peptide metal enolate complexes from the peptide chain to the new chiral center formed during the rearrangement process.

Table 5. Rearrangement of dipeptide 27 in the presence of various metal salts (MX_n) and catalysts

Entry	MX_n	Catalyst	Diastereomeric ratio (S,S):(S,R)	Yield [%]	
1	ZnCl ₂	_	62:38	28	
2	$ZnCl_{2}^{\tilde{2}}$	PdCl ₂ (COD)	65:35	20	
3	$ZnCl_{2}^{r}$	$Pd(PPh_3)_4$	50:50	75	
4	$SnCl_2$	$Pd(PPh_3)_4$	70:30	36	
5	CoCl ₂	$Pd(PPh_3)_4$	35:65	35	
6	AlCl ₃	$Pd(PPh_3)_4$	40:60	50	

As a first example we investigated the rearrangement of allylic ester 27 (Scheme 9 and Table 5) in the presence of zinc chloride (entry 1) (Kazmaier, 1994c). Subsequent esterification of the rearranged product with diazomethane results in the formation of unsaturated dipeptide 28 in only moderate yields. The (S,S)-diastereomer is formed preferentially.

Since the tremendous work done by Overman and others on rearrangement catalysis (Overman et al., 1976, 1978, 1982, 1984, 1990; Lutz, 1984; Schenck and Bosnich, 1986) many applications, especially of Pd(II)-catalyzed rearrangements, have been described in the literature. In our case addition of 10 mol % Pd(II) results in a decreased yield without affecting the stereoselectivity (entry 2). The formation of a less reactive palladium enolate, which does not rearrange, becomes probable, because Pd(II) is known to form stable complexes with peptides (Sigel and Martin, 1982). In contrast, Pd(0) (10 mol %) catalyzes the reaction in the expected manner (entry 3). Various metal salts (MX_n) were employed (entries 4–6), to verify the influence of the chelated metal on the diastereoselectivity of the rearrangement. Although the yields are generally lower in comparison to zinc chloride, better selectivities are obtained. Addition of tin chloride (entry 4) also leads to the preferential formation of the (S,S)-diastereomer, while cobalt chloride (entry 5) and aluminum chloride (entry 6) generate the opposite (S,R)-diastereomer, probably because of a different complex geometry. This methodology is suitable for various N-protecting groups. So far the best results are obtained with N-Tosyl protected peptides. Rearrangement in the presence of zinc chloride or tin chloride provides the corresponding allylated dipeptides in very good yields (Kazmaier 1994c).

In order to distinguish between the two possible mechanisms, [3,3]-sigmatropic rearrangement or intermolecular allylic alkylation via a π -allylpalladium complex, the reaction of the crotyl ester **29** (Scheme 10) was investigated.

The rearrangement products **30** and **31** are formed in comparable amounts. This fact as well as the nearly complete lack of diastereoselectivity in the newly generated amino acid of **30** ($syn:anti\ 2:1$), is a clear indication for a π -allylpalladium intermediate. Similar observations have been made by Kellogg for the Pd(0)-catalyzed rearrangement of imines of amino acid allylic esters (Van der Werf and Kellog, 1988). The minor product **31** is formed with clean trans double bond geometry. No cis product was detected by NMR.

A second experiment with a mixture of two different allylic esters was carried out to confirm the intermolecular pathway via a dissociated π -allylic complex. All four possible diastereomeric peptides are formed in this cross reaction in comparable ratios. These results make an intermolecular process probable.

Dipeptide 28 was also used to check if racemization of chiral peptides occurs during the reaction. Catalytic hydrogenation yields phenylalanylleucine methylester which was analyzed by chiral GC (Chirasil-L-Val) after trifluoroacetylation. *No racemization was observed!* As described by Seebach et al., the chiral centers of peptides are protected by deprotonation of the

Scheme 11

33

54%

amide bonds. This also seems to be the case with our chelate complexes, even at room temperature.

To show that our methodology is not limited to dipeptides but can also be applied to larger peptides, the allylic ester 32 was also subjected to rearrangement (Scheme 11). The expected product 33 was formed as a nearly 1:1 diastereomeric mixture in reasonable yields.

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