Intra- and Intermolecular Reactions of Nucleophilic Carbenes

John Warkentin

Department of Chemistry, McMaster University, Hamilton, Ontario, L8S 4M1, U.S.A.

Abstract: General properties of nucleophilic carbenes are addressed briefly. The preparation of oxadiazoline precursors of such carbenes, and some of their chemical reactions, are presented. Intramolecular reactions include rearrangement and attack by the carbene center on a tethered functional group. Intermolecular reactions include nucleophilic attack at the carbonyl carbon of isocyanates and at the triple bond of dimethyl acetylenedicarboxylate.

INTRODUCTION

Nucleophilic carbenes are more reactive toward electron-deficient sites than toward electron-rich sites. For example, the nucleophilic dimethoxycarbene does not react with butenes (Ref. 1) but attacks the carbonyl carbon of fluorenone (Ref. 2). Systematic classification of carbenes into electrophilic, ambiphilic, and nucleophilic categories has been reported by Moss, et al. (Ref 3). A carbene's nucleophilicity stems from the ability of substituents to donate electron density to the carbene carbon in the singlet ground state (Ref. 1) of the carbene and in the transition state for attack at an electrophilic site.

Some intramolecular reactions of nucleophilic carbenes are analogous to those of electrophilic carbenes, except for substituent effects on the rate constant. For example, the slow 1,2 H-migration (ca 10⁴ s⁻¹) (Ref. 4) in neopentylmethoxycarbene compared to that in dimethylcarbene (ca 10⁷ s⁻¹) (Ref. 4) can be attributed in part to lowering of the ground state energy of the former by conjugation. Conjugation with methoxy groups also shows up in a large singlet/triplet energy gap, computed to be ca 76 kcal mol⁻¹ in dimethoxycarbene (Ref. 1) compared to ca 2 kcal mol⁻¹ in dimethylcarbene (Ref. 5). Although 1,2-H migrations are most common, intramolecular reactions of carbenes also include 1,2-alkyl migrations, as in cyclobutylidene (Ref. 6), acyl migrations, as in phenylacetoxycarbene (Ref. 7), silyl migrations (Ref. 8), [2,3]-sigmatropic rearrangements (Refs. 9-11), fragmentations to ethylene

and heterocumulene (Refs. 12, 13), and the generalized unimolecular attack of the carbene center at a σ - or π -bond, Scheme 1. Other examples can be found in a large review (Ref. 14).

Migrations in carbenes must generally be exothermic by roughly the energy of a π -bond (Scheme 2). The greater strength of CO double bonds (ca 179 kcal mol-1) compared to CC double bonds (ca 146 kcal mol-1) suggests that migrations from oxygen to carbon could have some extra driving force from product stability. That feature is tempered, however, by the ground state stabilization that an oxy substituent provides. To date there isn't any clear evidence that alkyl group migration from oxygen to a carbene carbon is more facile than alkyl group migration from carbon to the same carbene center.

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
R & \xrightarrow{X} & X & & X$$

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We have explored the chemistry of some potential precursors of dioxycarbenes and aminooxycarbenes including di(benzyloxy)carbenes (1), methoxytriphenylsiloxycarbene (2), allyloxymethoxycarbenes (3), 3-butyne-1-oxycarbenes (4), and alkoxyaminocarbenes of the general type 5, Scheme 3. The first undergo 1,2-benzyl group migration from oxygen to carbon while in 2 the silyl moiety migrates from oxygen to carbon. Carbenes 3 undergo apparent overall [1,2]-migrations and [2,3]-sigmatropic rearrangements in competition while 4 undergo attack on the CC triple bond. Carbenes 5 can fragment to ethylene and isocyanate,

but the process is slow enough to permit their intermolecular trapping. Of those carbenes, only 2, 4, and 5 are discussed in more detail, because of the time/space limitation and because recent results point to complications from radical chemistry with the precursors of 1 and 3.

The precursor was, in each case, an oxadiazoline, prepared by the general procedure (Ref. 15) of Scheme 4 for dioxycarbenes, and according to Scheme 5 for alkoxyaminocarbenes (Ref. 16).

R= Me, PhCH₂; R'= SiPh₃, ArCH₂,
$$CH_2CH_2C \equiv CY, o-C_6H_4C \equiv CY$$
Scheme 4

Oxadiazolines generally undergo thermal cycloreversion to N_2 and a carbonyl ylide in a first step (Refs. 17-20), and that mechanism is assumed to apply in the absence of evidence to the contrary. In a subsequent step the ylide fragments to carbene and carbonyl compound, Scheme 6. Carbene 2, from thermolysis of the corresponding oxadiazoline, rearranged by migration of the triphenylsilyl group from oxygen to carbon to afford ester 10, Scheme 7. The major product, however, was ether 11. Isolation and subjection of 10 to the reaction conditions afforded 11 (Brook rearrangement) (Ref. 21), but too slowly to account for the

MeO OSiPh₃

MeO OSiPh₃

MeO OSiPh₃

$$Ph_3Si$$
 Ph_3Si
 Ph

Scheme 7

formation of 11 sequentially, via 10, from the oxadiazoline. Thus 10 and 11 are formed from carbene 2 by parallel pathways as in Scheme 7, in which equilibration of carbene 2 with 10, by 1,2-migration of the Ph₃Si group, is postulated, together with attack of the methoxy oxygen at silicon to generate intermediate (or transition state) 12. Thermolysis of oxadiazoline 13a leads sequentially to carbenes 14a and 16a, as indicated by results of trapping experiments with t-butyl alcohol (Scheme 8). At a high alcohol concentration, carbene 14a was intercepted. At a lower alcohol concentration, the first-formed carbene reacted

intramolecularly with the triple bond, leading to carbene 16a, which was then trapped (Ref. 22). In the absence of added alcohol, 16a took part in a cascade of reactions through 18a leading to 19a, while 16b stopped at 18b. From work by the groups of Boger and Nakamura (Refs. 23, 24), with dialkoxy cyclopropenes, it is likely that 15 are intermediates, as shown in Scheme 8.

Scheme 8

Cyclopropene 15 might open to either exocyclic carbene 17 or to endocyclic carbene 16 (Scheme 8), and we have explored the effect of substituent Y on the sense of ring opening with Y= Me and Y= CO₂Me, as well as the effect of changing the 2-carbon tether from CH₂CH₂ to benzo. As Scheme 8 shows, the methyl group and H do not cause any difference in the behaviour of carbenes 14, which apparently afford 16 and, by a subsequent series of reactions, 18 (Ref. 25). The methyl groups are sufficiently hindering, however, to prevent the [2+2] reaction that occurs with 18a, affording 19a (Ref. 22). The methoxycarbonyl substituent, on the other hand, causes ring opening to the exocyclic carbene (17c, Y=CO₂Me), as determined by trapping with t-butyl alcohol, Scheme 9. Thermolysis of oxadiazoline 13c (toluene, 110 °C) in the presence of benzylidenemalononitrile (21) led to the formation of

Scheme 9

racemic adducts 22 and 23 (Scheme 10) (Ref. 25). Those are not *normal* 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition products, because carbene 13c is not a 4 π -electron system, the occupied carbenic orbital being orthogonal to the π -bond (Ref. 26). Boger and coworkers have postulated that analogous reactions (Ref. 23) occur *via* electron transfer from the carbene to 21; subsequent collapse of the radical-ion pair produces the cyclopentene ring. Carbene 24, with a 4-atom tether between the carbene site and the triple bond, afforded analogous products with 21, Scheme 10 (Ref. 25). That carbene also reacted intermolecularly with DMAD, to afford 27 which, by cyclopentadiene isomerization, gave 28. To our surprise, the benzo analogues of 13a, b (29a, b) gave rise to species that behaved like carbenes and cyclopropanated 21, under the same conditions that afforded 22 and 23 from 13a, c, Scheme

13c boiling toluene 17c
$$\frac{PhCH=C(CN)_2}{(21)}$$
 NC $\frac{NC}{NC}$ OMe $\frac{NC}{NC}$

11 (Ref. 27). The products, 32a and 32b, indicate that the benzo tether has two critical effects. First, the initial carbenes (29) afford the exocyclic new carbenes (30) and not the endocyclic 31, regardless of whether the substituent is H or CO_2Me . Second, the derived carbenes (30) do not enter into electron transfer with 21, but attack it as a nucleophilic carbene would. The subtle dependence on the tether type (benzo vs CH_2CH_2) can be rationalized in terms of the Boger electron transfer mechanism for formation of cyclopentenes like 22 and 23. The benzo group presumably stabilizes 30 relative to 31; 30 being 10 π -electron systems. The benzo group is also electron withdrawing, relative to an alkyl group, making 30 more difficult to oxidize to the corresponding radical cations, relative to corresponding carbenes 17. Thus 30, formed preferentially from a cyclopropene precursor (Scheme 11), behave like carbenes toward 21.

Scheme 11

Alkoxyaminocarbene 33, generated from the oxadiazoline, can fragment to methyl isocyanate and ethylene, as indicated by formation of hydantoin 34 as a minor product (Refs. 16, 28-30). That hydantoin could be prepared in good yield by inclusion of methyl isocyanate in the thermolysis tube and the analogous compound was obtained when phenyl isocyanate was the carbene trap, Scheme 12. These results indicate that 33 does not fragment rapidly enough to make trapping difficult, in agreement with Sauers' computed barrier of 17.6 kcal mol⁻¹ (Ref. 31). Carbenes of type 35 also attack DMAD, affording 36 as a major product. These reactions can be rationalized in terms of nucleophilic attack by the carbene at sp² or sp³ carbon, Schemes 12, 13 (Refs. 16, 28, 29). Presumably corresponding three-membered rings (not shown in Schemes 12, 13) are equilibrated with the dipoles drawn, making those reactions analogous to the intramolecular reactions of Scheme 8. Insertions into phenolic OH bonds

went in high yields, affording orthoformate analogues 37, Scheme 14. The process probably involves proton transfer in the first step, as shown, by analogy to insertions of other nucleophilic carbenes into OH bonds (Refs. 32-34).

R= H, Me, CH₂=C(Me), Ph, OMe; Ar= Ph, 4-NCC₆H₄

Scheme 14

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