Scheme I

quantitative yield. Irradiation of 1 in CHCl3 in the absence of phosphine does not lead to identifiable products even upon subsequent addition of PMe3 to the reaction mixture. Cyclic voltammetry of 1 in the absence of additional ligands shows an irreversible oxidation at 0.35 V versus Ag/Ag⁺. No evidence of a return wave could be seen at scan rates up to 1 V/s, consistent with decomposition of the cation. Attempts at electrochemistry in the presence of PMe₃ resulted only in phosphine oxidation.

The mechanism shown in Scheme I is consistent with these observations. Electron transfer from excited state 1 to chloroform gives the 17-electron cationic complex 1+, chloride ion, and *CHCl₂.¹² The organic radical is then scavenged by the excess phosphine. 13 Ligand exchange of phosphines for phosphites occurs from the 17-electron species 1+ to give 3. Abstraction of a chlorine atom from the solvent yields the final product 2 and another *CHCl₂ radical. The overall reaction sequence thus produces 2 equiv of 'CHCl₂ radical for each equivalent of 1 consumed, consistent with the assignment of the unidentified phosphinecontaining product as the result of radical trapping.

Electron transfer from the MLCT states of metal complexes to halocarbons has previously been observed in the photooxidation of $M(CNPh)_6$ (M = Mo, W) in CHCl₃ to give the seven-coordinate product $[M(CNPh)_6Cl]^+Cl^{-14}$ Photochemical reduction of halocarbons by metal complexes has also been observed upon excitation of charge transfer to solvent (CTTS) transitions. 15 However, comparison of the UV-vis spectra of 1 in CHCl₃, CH₂Cl₂, and THF reveals no transition in the region 300-550 nm that could be attributed to CTTS. Involvement of CTTS states can thus be ruled out in the photooxidation of 1. In addition, reaction occurs upon irradiation of the lowest energy transition of 1 ($\lambda > 520$ nm), an absorption that is unchanged in solvents such as THF which are poor electron acceptors.

The irreversibility of the electrochemical oxidation of 1 suggests that 1⁺ undergoes rapid chemical reaction. In addition, the substitutional lability of organometallic complexes is known to be greatly increased upon oxidation to 17-electron cationic species. 16 Given the π -acidity of the phosphite ligands, it is reasonable that dissociation of P(OMe)₃ from 1⁺ should be facile

(11) This unstable PMe₃-containing product has a single ¹H NMR signal at 1.87 ppm (d, $J_{CP} = 12$ Hz). The proton-phosphorus coupling constant suggests that the phosphine is not metal bound, but its lability prevented isolation and further characterization. We believe this compound to result

from trapping of radicals by excess phosphine.

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and exchange for phosphines should be favorable. Conversion from the resulting metal radical 3 to the final product 2 requires abstraction of Cl* from solvent. Such halogen abstractions are well known for metal radicals. 17,18

Reversing the order of the ligand exchange and atom abstraction steps would result in intermediacy of the 18-electron cationic complex 4, which would then exchange its P(OMe)₃ ligands for

phosphines. We believe this to be less likely as the analogous complex 5 and its hydride analogue have been described as stable. 19 As we see no intermediates in the conversion of 1 to 2, the ligand exchange process must be fairly rapid. Although no information on the reactivity of 5 with phosphines is available, its reported properties do not suggest that the phosphites are labile enough for the conversion of 4 to 2 to occur without detectable inter-

Photooxidation of metal carbyne 1 adds electron transfer to the photoprocesses that have been observed for these complexes. The resulting odd electron species undergoes ligand exchange and halogen abstraction. However, no reaction occurs at the metal-carbon triple bond despite the presence of both metal and organic radicals. Further studies on this reaction are in progress.

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Atom-Transfer Annulations in Heterocycle Synthesis. An Efficient Synthesis of (-)-Trachelanthamidine and **Related Ring Systems**

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Annulation sequences which involve free-radical intermediates have achieved increasing importance for the synthesis of bioactive substances. Among the various methods for effecting radical annulations, those which involve an atom-transfer propagation step would appear optimum for cases in which premature chain termination via hydrogen atom transfer is problematic.^{1,2} In this communication we will describe the first examples of γ -butyrolactam-forming atom-transfer annulations of allylic α -iodoacetamides as well as the application of this new method in an en-

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antioselective synthesis of (-)-trachelanthamidine (1).

We initiated our investigation by examining the behavior of the N-(cyclohex-2-en-1-yl)-N-methyliodoacetamide $(2)^3$ under

established reaction conditions for reductive and atom-transfer radical cyclizations. Homolytic reduction of 2 with $(n-Bu)_3SnH$ (1.1 equiv) under high dilution conditions (0.02 M in benzene) led to inefficient cyclization with the production of the perhydroindolone 3 and the acetamide 4 (3/4 = 0.5) in 80% isolated yield. By way of contrast, efforts to bring about the cyclization of 2 under typical atom-transfer conditions $[(Bu_3Sn)_2 \ 10 \ mol\%, PhH, sunlamp]$ afforded the anticipated iodoindolones 5a,b together with 4 (5a,b/4 = 0.5) in <10% yield. In addition, about 90% of the starting iodoacetamide 2 could be recovered from this reaction.⁴ Efforts to force the consumption of 2 did little to

improve the cyclization efficiency of the intermediate radical. Accordingly, treatment of 2 with (Bu₃Sn)₂ (0.7 equiv, 0.1 molar in Ph-H, sunlamp) furnished 5a,b and 4(5a,b/4 = 0.45) in 58%yield.⁵ We speculated that the inefficiency observed for these cyclizations was attributable to the predisposition of α -acylamide radicals to undergo hydrogen atom abstraction as well as to an intrinsically short chain length for this reaction. Moreover, the increased barrier for s-cis/s-trans conformational interconversion of the amide C-N bond relative to that for esters was expected to be strongly expressed in these annulations.⁶ In light of the foregoing considerations, the cyclization of 2 was executed with (Bu₃Sn)₂ (0.55 equiv) in the presence of C₂H₅I (3.5 equiv, Ph-H, sunlamp) which was expected to serve the dual role of an Strans-acetamide radical sink and an iodine atom source. Under these conditions the desired indolones 5a,b (5a/5b = 5.5) were isolated in 68% chromatographed yield together with 20% of the reduction product 4.7,8

Scheme I

A series of experiments was then conducted with the intent of clarifying the generality and regiochemical course of radical lactam annulations. Atom-transfer cyclization of the iodoacetamide 6^9 via the action of $(Bu_3Sn)_2$ (0.55 equiv) in the presence of C_2H_5I

(3.50 equiv) (Ph-H, sunlamp) provided the γ -iodolactams 7a and **b** (7a/7b = 1.3) via the corresponding secondary cyclohex-2-yl radical in 65% chromatographed yield. It is worthy of note that none of the uncyclized amide 8 nor the isomeric δ -lactam 9 (which would have arisen from a tertiary cyclohex-1-yl radical) were detected as byproducts from this reaction. In consequence with our previous experience, the utilization of C₂H₅I was mandatory for the enhancement of cyclization efficiency. Accordingly, exposure of 6 to (Bu₃Sn)₂ (0.60 equiv) in the absence of C₂H₅I (Ph-H, sunlamp) furnished 7a and b in only 30% yield admixed with 15% of the hydrogen atom abstraction product 10.10 In principle, the iodo moieties of the γ -lactams 5a,b and 7a,b could be transformed into other useful functionality. To this end the lactams 5a,b and 7a,b were cleanly and in the former case regiospecifically dehydrohalogenated to the corresponding cyclohexene derivatives 11 (92%) and 12 (98%) via treatment with DBU in CH₃CN.

We envisaged an enantioselective approach to the azabicyclic skeleton of (-)-trachelanthamidine (1) from L-proline which was destined to rely on an atom-transfer γ -lactamization. The prospective key cyclization was also expected to provide the first example of diastereoface selection in an atom-transfer annulation.

(S)-2-Vinyl-N-(tert-butoxycarbonyl)pyrrolidine $(13)^{11}$ was transformed into the iodoacetamide 14 in 57% overall yield as illustrated in Scheme I. Cyclization of 14 as before secured the pyrrolizidone 15a along with the stereoisomer 15b (15a/15b = 30) in 58% isolated yield.^{12,13} Treatment of this mixture with

⁽³⁾ Iodoamide 2 was prepared by the acylation of the corresponding amine [(ClCH₂CO)₂O, (i-Pr)₂NEt, CH₂Cl₂, 0 °C] followed by halide exchange (NaI–CH₃CN, 25 °C, 12 h).

⁽⁴⁾ In contrast to this finding, the corresponding cyclohex-2-en-1-yl iodo-acetate has been successfully cyclized under standard atom-transfer conditions.^{1b}

⁽⁵⁾ All new compounds have been fully characterized by 300 MHz NMR, ¹³C NMR, and IR spectrometry and possess satisfactory (C, H) analyses or exact mass.

⁽⁶⁾ The barrier to rotation about an amide C-N bond is ca. 11 kcal/mol higher in energy than the corresponding barrier to rotation about an ester C-O bond.

⁽⁷⁾ It is significant that corresponding intermolecular additions of α -io-doacetamides to alkenes (e.g., $16 \rightarrow 18$) also proceed inefficiently under standard atom-transfer conditions. The facility of intermolecular addition is readily restored in the presence of $(Bu_3Sn)_2$ (0.5 equiv) and C_2H_3I (3.5 equiv, sunlamp) to afford 18 in 65% isolated yield.

⁽⁸⁾ The use of alternative alkyl iodides (e.g., 2-iodopropane or iodemethane) led to comparable yields of iodolactams in these reactions.

⁽⁹⁾ The iodoamide 6 was prepared in a manner analogous to 2. (10) For comparative purposes, the iodo- γ -butyrolactams 5a,b and 7a,b were *quantitatively* reduced to γ -butyrolactams (e.g., 10) via the action of $(n-Bu)_3$ Sn-H in Ph-H.

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CsO₂CC₂H₅ (DMF, 60 °C)^{14,15} followed by reduction (LiAlH₄, THF, reflux) afforded (-)-trachelanthamidine (1) ($[\alpha]^{25}_D$ -14.1° (c 3.6, C₂H₅OH), lit. ¹⁶ -13.5° (c 2, C₂H₅OH)] in 80% yield after chromatography.

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Vicinal Diol Cyclic Sulfates: Like Epoxides Only More Reactive

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Epoxides play a unique role in organic synthesis: they simultaneously activate and protect adjacent functionalized carbon atoms for nucleophilic attack, and they are usually superior to equivalent acyclic synthons because their cyclic nature renders competing elimination processes stereoelectronically unfavorable.¹ The same fortunate properties are shared by another class of vicinally substituted electrophiles—the 1,2-cyclic sulfates.²

However, these diol cyclic sulfates 2 are not found in the repertoire of main line organic synthesis. This deficit is apparently due to lack of a good method for their preparation. Our recent discovery of a catalytic process for the asymmetric dihydroxylation of olefins provided incentive to find uses for the chiral diol products.³ We report here on a facile process for conversion of diols 1 to cyclic sulfates 2 and on the versatile electrophilic behavior of this overlooked functional group.

Table I. One-Pot Synthesis of Cyclic Sulfates 2^a

entry	cyclic sulfate 2	\mathbf{R}_1	R ₂	yield ^b (%)	mp (°C)
1	2a	CO ₂ i-pr	CO ₂ i-Pr	90-93°	
2	2b	CO ₂ Et	CO ₂ Et	69°	75-76
3	2c	CO ₂ Me	CO ₂ Me	63°	70-71
4	2d	$n-C_8H_{17}$	Н	92	
5	2e	$c-C_6H_{11}$	Н	97 ^d	75-76
6	2f	$n-C_4H_9$	$n-C_4H_9$	89	
7	2g	$n-C_{15}H_{31}$	CO ₂ Me	90-95	45-46
8	2h	$c-C_6H_{11}$	CO ₂ Et	95-97	
9	2i	Η	$CO_2c-C_6H_{11}$	88	55-57
10	2j	Н	CONHCH ₂ Ph	64	95-97

^aReactions were performed as described in ref 8. ^b Isolated yields. $^{c}(2R,3R)$ -(+)-Tartrates were used. d Prepared by Dr. B. B. Lohray.

The ring strain energy ($\sim 5-6 \text{ kcal/mol}$)⁴ of 1,2-cyclic sulfates is most often cited as the reason for the very poor yields in attempted direct preparations from the diol and SO_2Cl_2 or related SO₂X₂ species.⁵ However, cyclic sulfites form readily from 1,2-diols, and hence permanganate oxidation of the sulfite has been the favored route to cyclic sulfates.² Even so, the permanganate approach often gives poor yields and impure products. In 1981 Denmark (1,3-cyclic sulfites) and in 1983 Lowe (1,2-cyclic sulfites) reported that the oxidation step was much cleaner when effected by a stoichiometric quantity of RuO₄, but this procedure is too expensive for preparative work. We now report that our catalytic RuO₄ system⁷ is highly active for this same transformation. The oxidations are complete in less than 1 h with as little as 1 part in 1500 of the ruthenium catalyst. A general procedure for the conversion of diols to cyclic sulfates was developed (Table I). The simplicity of this one-pot procedure is exemplified by the details given for the case of diisopropyl tartrate in ref 8. Pure cyclic sulfates are obtained by simple extraction and filtration of the crude product through a pad of silica gel.9

Most of the 30 cyclic sulfates we have prepared by this method are new compounds.10 Many are from complex synthetic intermediates, such as sugar derivatives, and their novelty is not surprising. However, the entries in Table I, all previously unknown, were selected for their simplicity to reveal just how little the chemistry of this functional group has been developed.

Although there are a number of studies of the reactivity of cyclic sulfate compounds, 2b,11 there are only a few reported applications

⁽¹³⁾ Representative experimental procedure is as follows: An oven-dried 100-mL, three-necked, round-bottomed flask, equipped with a magnetic stirring bar, nitrogen inlet, serum cap, and reflux condensor, was thoroughly flushed with nitrogen. To the flask was added 14 (1.325 g, 5 mmol), benzene (50 mL), iodoethane (2.73 g, 17.5 mmol), and Bu_3Sn_2 (1.595 g, 2.75 mmol). The resulting solution was stirred and irradiated with a 275-W sunlamp for 20 min whereupon GC and TLC indicated the consumption of 14. benzene was evaporated under reduced pressure, and the residue was subjected to column chromatography on silica gel to provide 15a and b (15a/15b = 30) (0.77 g, 58%), mp 48-49 °C; $[\alpha]^{25}_D$ -23.9 (c 1.13, C₂H₃OH). (14) Dijkstra, G.; Kruizinga, W. H.; Kellogg, R. M. J. Org. Chem. 1987,

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⁽⁸⁾ Preparation of 2a: A 250-mL, three-necked, round-bottomed flask equipped with a reflux condenser and topped with a CaCl2 drying tube connected to an HCl trap, a stopper, and a rubber septum was charged with (+)-diisopropyl tartrate (11.72 g, 50 mmol) and CCl₄ (50 mL). Thionyl chloride (4.4 mL, 60 mmol) was added via a syringe to the flask, and the resulting solution was refluxed for 30 min. [These intermediate cyclic sulfites, especially if water soluble, can undergo partial hydrolysis during the following oxidation. To suppress this hydrolysis one expels most of the HCl formed in the first step by refluxing, as done here, or by performing the oxidation rapidly (<5 min) by using up to 1 mol % ruthenium catalyst. Refluxing is needed, in most cases, only for acid removal; sulfite formation is rapid even at room temperature. Alternatively, the HCl can be scavenged by Et₃N or pyridine (0 °C, <10 min), but this necessitates isolation of the sulfite before oxidation to the sulfate.] The solution was then cooled with an ice-water bath and diluted with CH₃CN (50 mL). RuCl₃·3H₂O (8 mg, 0.03 mmol) and NaIO₄ (16 g, 75 mmol) were added followed by water (75 mL). The resulting orange mixture was stirred at room temperature for 60 min. The mixture was the diluted with other (400 mL) and the time phase was represented. The expense diluted with ether (400 mL), and the two phases were separated. The organic layer was washed with water (20 mL), saturated aqueous NaHCO₃ (2×20 mL), and brine (20 mL). After drying over MgSO₄, the solution was filtered through a small pad of silica gel to remove the brown color. The filtrate was then concentrated to afford 2a as an analytically pure colorless liquid (13.6 g, 92%): $[\alpha]_D^{23}$ -71.43° (c 4.41, CHCl₃).

(9) This filtration removes a brown or dark green ruthenium species.

⁽¹⁰⁾ The cyclic sulfates not included here will be described in the planned