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Small Ring Compounds in Organic Synthesis III

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With 1 Figure and 11 Tables



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Synthesis and Synthetic Applications of 1-Donor Substituted Cyclopropanes with Ethynyl, Vinyl and Carbonyl Groups

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Substituted on the same carbon by an electron donating group and an adjacent multiple bond, cyclopropanes provide building blocks of unprecedented synthetic potential. They are readily available along different routes involving: cyclopropanone hemiacetals, oxaspiropentanes, alkylidenecyclopropanes, 1-heterosubstituted lithiocyclopropanes, α -enone silyl enol ethers, 1,3-dichloroacetone and 1-hydroxycyclopropylcarbonyl derivatives as main sources.

First of all, they undergo acid-induced $C_3 \rightarrow C_4$ ring expansion to four-membered rings, in particular to the 2-vinylcyclobutanone system, which is an efficient precursor of C_5 , C_6 and C_8 homologous rings by subsequent acid- and base-induced, thermal, or photolytic ring enlargements. On the other hand, they undergo thermal $C_3 \rightarrow C_5$ ring expansion providing cyclopentanone enol ethers or derivatives with high chemo-, regio- and stereoselectivity.

Synthesis and Synthetic Applications of 1-Donor Substituted Cyclopropanes

The usefulness of these ring enlargements has been illustrated by the total synthesis of some natural products with four- (grandisol), five- (α -cuparenone, prostanoid, jasmanoid, methylenomycin B, spirovetivane, aphidicolin, dicranenone), six- (β -selinene, compactin) and eight-membered rings (poitediol). Regioselective α or α' monomethylation of α -enones is based on the base-induced ring opening of trimethylsiloxycyclopropanes whereas, stereoselective alkylation can be obtained by the base-induced ring opening of cyclobutanones (grandisol, deoxypodocarpate). Finally, these attractive building blocks provide a convenient key to enter the field of the homoenolate chemistry.

1 Introduction

Although cyclopropane derivatives have been known for more than 100 years ¹), is was not until about 1960 that the exploration of the cyclopropane chemistry really began. In fact the utility of such building blocks for organic synthesis has been recognized only in the recent years.

The chemical reactivity of a cyclopropane ring, closely resembles that of an olefinic double bond: both groups interact with neighbouring π -electron systems and pelectron centers, add acids, halogens and ozone, undergo catalytic hydrogenation and cycloaddition, form metal complexes, etc.²⁾. More specifically, the three-membered ring can undergo ring openings induced by solvolysis, bases, electrophiles, nucleophiles, metals as well as thermally and photolytically³⁾. With an adjacent electron deficient center, the cyclopropane ring readily ring enlarges to four-membered ring derivatives ³⁾. Substituted by a vinylic moiety it undergoes $C_3 \rightarrow C_5$ ring enlargement to five-membered ring derivatives, a process which provides an efficient three-carbon annelation method ^{3, 4)}. The cyclopropane ring undergoes interconversions with related cyclobutane and open-chain derivatives ⁵⁾, but it is also produced in high yields in a ring contraction of four-membered cyclic systems bearing both electron donating and leaving groups, in a vicinal arrangement ³⁾.

Like that of most other functional groups, the reactivity of the cyclopropane moiety can be strongly influenced by the substituents on the ring. Thus, for instance, specific reactivity originates from combinations of a three-membered ring with an adjacent multiple bond. Furthermore, cyclopropanes with multiply bonded groups and an electron donating substituent on the same carbon exhibit unexpected and unprecedented synthetic utility. This review summarizes the preparation of such building blocks and exemplifies their use in organic synthesis.

2 Preparation of 1-Donor Substituted Ethynylcyclopropanes

2.1 From Cyclopropane Hemiacetal

Cyclopropanone chemistry has received considerable attention in recent years ⁶); nevertheless, the chemistry of this unusually reactive class of ketones has previously found limited use in synthesis mainly because of the difficulties encountered in the preparation and handling of such strained systems. However, the discovery of derivatives capable of delivering the parent three-membered ring ketone or equivalent species *in situ*, has brought the development of cyclopropanone chemistry a decisive step forward. Among them, the cyclopropanone hemiacetal 3, which is now readily available ⁷), became a substrate of choice in a number of useful chemical transformations including the formation of cyclopropanols, methylenecyclopropanes, cyclobutanones, β -lactames, γ -butyrolactones, cyclopentanones, pyrroline derivatives, etc. ⁸). Previously prepared by the tedious and quite hazardous addition of diazomethane to ketene in the presence of one equivalent of methanol⁹) or ethanol¹⁰, the cyclopropanone hemiacetal can now be obtained readily in high yield by simple methanolysis of 1-ethoxy-1-(trimethylsiloxy)cyclopropane 2, the product of the

acyloin-type cyclization of commercial ethyl 3-chloropropanoate I by sodium in refluxing ether in the presence of chlorotrimethylsilane, Eq. (1)⁷⁾.



Another access to 1-alkoxy-1-siloxycyclopropanes 5, precursors of substituted cyclopropanone hemiacetals 6, was developed with the addition of carbenes, generated from alkylidene iodides and diethylzinc, to the trimethylsilyl enol ethers of carboxylic esters 4, Eq. (2)¹¹.

$$\begin{array}{c}
 R_1 & OSiMe_3 \\
 R_2 & OCH_3 \\
 4 & 5 & 6
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 R_2 & R_1 & OSiMe_3 \\
 MeOH & MeOH & OCH_3 \\
 OCH_3 & OCH_3 \\
 OCH_3 & 6
\end{array}$$
(2)

Similarly, the addition of the Simmons-Smith reagent (CH₂I₂ + Cu-Zn couple) to 1-ethoxyvinylacetate (or benzoate) provided 1-ethoxycyclopropylacetate, which upon reaction with methanol or ethanol yielded 3 or the corresponding methyl hemiacetal ¹²).

The chemical properties of cyclopropanone hemiacetals have been reviewed ⁸⁾. Besides oxidative cleavage with low oxidation potential metals (Cu^{II}, Fe^{III}, Ce^{II}, ...) or with molecular oxygen and peroxides, these hemiacetals underwent acid and base induced ring openings. Furthermore, they were subject to nucleophilic attack by various reagents providing an efficient pathway to 1-substituted cyclopropanols. Therefore, the ethyl hemiacetal of cyclopropanone 3 now constitutes a convenient and storable source of the parent ketone 7, on the basis of the equilibrium shown in Eq. (3) ^{10, 12}.

$$\bigcup_{\substack{OEt\\3}}^{OH} \longrightarrow \bigcup_{\substack{DEt\\7}} 0 + EtOH$$
(3)

However, owing to this formal equilibrium, two equivalents of the acetylenic Grignard reagents 8, were required to obtain the propargylic cyclopropanols 9, Eq. $(4)^{10, 13}$.

$$3 + 2 \text{ RC} = CMgX \xrightarrow{\text{THF, 4}} R + \text{RC} = CH$$

$$8 \qquad 21 - 86\% 9$$

$$R = H^{(10)}, OEt^{(14)}$$

$$CH_3, C_6H_5, pCH_3C_6H_4, pCH_3OC_6H_4, CH_2 = CH^{(15)}$$
(4)

On the other hand, the cyclopropanone hemiacetal 3 did not react with nucleophilic lithium reagents such as lithium cyanide 16 , ethynyllithium 16 or aryllithium 17 .

This difficulty was overcome by first treating 3 with an equimolar amount of methylmagnesium iodide, to convert it into a species, most likely the magnesium derivative 10, which did react with various organolithium reagents to give the expected 1-substituted cyclopropanols 11, Eq. (5) ^{16, 17}.



For instance, the trimethylsilylbutadiynyl lithium derivative 12, resulting from the selective monodesilylation of bis-silylbutadiyne ¹⁸, when treated with the magnesium salt 10 provided good yields of the 1-(trimethylsilylbutadiynyl) cyclopropanol 13, which was successfully used as a prostaglandin precursor, (vide infra, Sect. 5.5.2.1) Eq. (6) ¹⁵.

$$\frac{10 + Me_{3}SiC = C - C = CLi}{12} \xrightarrow{67\%} OH \frac{13}{13}$$
(6)

2.2 From Tetrachlorocyclopropene

Addition of dichlorocarbene to trichloroethylene gave pentachlorocyclopropane which was smoothly dehydrochlorinated by aqueous potassium hydroxide into tetrachlorocyclopropene 14^{19} . On heating at 150–180 °C, 14 provided an efficient source for tetrachlorovinylcarbene 15, which could be trapped intermolecularly by olefins to give the 1-chloro-1-(trichlorovinyl)cyclopropanes 16, Eq. (7) ²⁰.



Upon reaction with two moles of *n*-butyllithium the adducts 16 gave the 1-chlorocyclopropylethynyllithium reagents 17 which could be trapped by a wide variety of electrophiles (CO₂, ClCO₂Me, Me₃SiCl, H₂CO, R₁COR₂, NCS, CH₃SSCH₃ ...) to give the corresponding cyclopropylacetylene derivatives 18. Further metalation with three equivalents of *n*-BuLi gave the dianion 19 which, on electrophilic substitution, led to difunctional cyclopropylacetylenes 20 with any desirable combination of donor or acceptor functional groups, Eq. (8) ²¹.

2.3 From 1,1,3,3- and 1,2,3,3-Tetrachlor propene and 1,1,2,3,3-Pentachloropropane

Alternatively, 1,1,3,3- and 1,2,3,3-tetrachloropropene 21 and 22 or 1,1,2,3,3 pentachloropropane 23 underwent dehydrochlorination with potassium t-butoxide to give, probably through 1,3,3-trichloropropyne 24, the dichlorovinylidenecarbene 25 which was trapped by olefins to lead to the dichloroethenylidenecyclopropanes 26. Then, the highly reactive allene 26 added electrophiles as well as nucleophiles such as methoxides to give, for instance, 1-methoxy(2-chloroethynyl)cyclopropane 27, Eq. $(9)^{22}$.



2.4 From Ethynylcarbenes

The 3,3-dimethyl-5-alkynyl-3H-pyrazoles 28, obtained by addition of 2-diazopropane to diacetylene, were irradiated to give the alkynylvinylcarbenes 29 and 30 the relative reactivity of which depended mainly on the substituent R on the triple bond. These carbenic species were trapped by cyclopentadiene or furan to give the ethynylcyclopropane derivatives 31 and 32, respectively, Eq. (10)²³.

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The pyrolysis at 140–150 °C of the lithium salts of diethynyl ketone tosylhydrazones 33 led to the formation of the triplet diethynylcarbenes 34 which were trapped by olefins to give, in a nonstereospecific reaction, the 1,1-dialkynylcyclopropane derivatives $35a, b, \text{Eq.}(11)^{24}$.



2.5 From Ethynyl Vinyl Oxiranes

Upon heating to 300–350 °C the ethynyl vinyl oxiranes 36, obtained by condensation of vinylsulfonium ylides with acetylenic carbonyl compounds, underwent a Copetransposition into the oxacycloheptadiene 37, followed by a Claisen-type reaction leading to a cis, trans mixture of 2-ethynylcyclopropanecarboxaldehydes 38, Eq. $(12)^{25}$.



3 Reactivity of 1-Donor Substituted Ethynylcyclopropanes

3.1 $C_3 \rightarrow C_4$ Ring Expansions

Contrary to the 1-vinylcyclopropanol derivatives which easily underwent an acid catalyzed or thermally induced $C_3 \rightarrow C_4$ ring expansion as discussed in Sect. 5.1.1, the acetylenic cyclopropanols 9 were surprisingly unreactive towards acids. Thus, on heating for two hours to 55 °C in acidic (0.75N HCl) 50% aqueous dioxane containing a catalytic amount of mercuric chloride or upon treatment with m-chloroperbenzoic acid (MCPBA) for 12 hours at room temperature, the alcohol 9 (R = H) was recovered unchanged. However, treatment of 9 with an alcohol free solution of t-butylhypochlorite (t-BuOCl) in chloroform resulted in an exothermic reaction which yielded 2-chloromethylenecyclobutanone 39 as the only isolable product, Eq. (13) ¹⁰.



1-(Ethoxyethynyl)cyclopropanol 9 (R = OEt), obtained by addition of an excess of ethoxyethynylmagnesium bromide to 3, was transformed into the ethyl (1-hydroxycyclopropyl)acetate 40 on heating in acidic (0.75N HCl) aqueous dioxane containing a catalytic amount of mercuric chloride at 55 °C for 2 hr. Upon treatment with t-BuOCl it underwent exothermic ring opening to the β -chloroethyl ethoxyethynyl ketone 41, while addition of MCPBA and hydrolysis with aqueous acetone led to the 1-hydroxycyclopropanecarboxylic acid 42, Eq. (14)¹⁴.



A more convenient preparation and the synthetic utility of 42 will be discussed in Sect. 4.7 (vide infra).

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On the other hand, 1-(phenylethynyl)cyclopropanol 9 (R = Ph) underwent a $C_3 \rightarrow C_4$ ring expansion and subsequent decarboxylation when treated with MCPBA to yield the 2-phenylcyclobutanone 47, likely via the intermediate 2-(1-hydroxy-cyclopropyl)-2-phenyl ketene 44, formed by migration of the cyclopropyl group in the vinyl cation 43. The ketene 44 thus resulting could be attacked by a second equivalent of MCPBA and ring expanded to the β -ketoacid 46 which would easily decarboxylate to yield 47, Eq. (15)¹⁴.



3.2 $C_3 \rightarrow C_5$, C_6 and C_7 Ring Expansions

A mixture of cis- and trans-2-methylethynylcyclopropanes 48 and 49, prepared by the catalyzed (CuCl) addition of diazomethane to 3-penten-1-yne, upon heating to 530 °C underwent rearrangement to 3- and 4-methylenecyclopentenes 51 and 52, likely via the intermediate allylallene 50, and to 1,3-cyclohexadiene 54 and benzene 55, likely via the intermediate 1,3,5-hexatriene 53, Eq. (16) ²⁶.



The thermal isomerization of 1-ethynyl-2-vinylcyclopropane 57 has been also reported. Thus, the dimer 59 was formed in the pyrolysis of the tosylhydrazone salt

of syn- and anti-tricyclo[$4.1.0.0^{2,4}$]heptan-6-one 56 via the cycloheptatriene 58, the product of a Cope rearrangement of cis- 57 Eq. (17)²⁷⁾.



It is noteworthy that, contrary to 1-trimethylsiloxyvinylcyclopropanes which readily undergo thermal $C_3 \rightarrow C_5$ ring expansion (*vide infra*, Sect. 5.5), the O-silylated 1-ethy-nylcyclopropanols 9 were recovered unchanged, on heating to 600 °C ²⁸).

3.3 Solvolysis

As the 1-ethynylcyclopropanols 9 were remarkably stable to acids (*vide supra*, Sect. 3.1), it appeared interesting to investigate the solvolytic behaviour of the corresponding tosylates ¹³⁾. As a matter of fact, it was known that simple cyclopropyl derivatives usually underwent concerted ionization and disrotatory ring opening to allyl cations ²⁹⁾. Such a ring opening however, can be prohibited by steric constraints ³⁰⁾ or conjugative interactions with donor substituents ⁸⁶⁾; thus for instance, 1-cyclopropylcyclopropyl chloride ³²⁾ or tosylate ³¹⁾ to a certain extent yielded unrearranged solvolysis products, i.e., 1-cyclopropylcyclopropanols. Thus it appeared worthwhile to determine the extent to which an adjacent ethynyl group would be able to delocalize the positive charge of a cyclopropyl cation and prevent the ring opening.

The only products of solvolysis of the tosylate 60 from the 1-ethynylcyclopropanol 9, with $R = CH_3$ was the allyl derivatives 61 ($R = CH_3$) from the ring opening of the cyclopropane ring, while unrearranged cyclopropanols (or derivatives) 62 were obtained in high yields when R = cyclopropyl or aryl, Eq. (18)¹³.



The solvolysis product distribution and the kinetic data (solvent effect ³³): m = 0.583 - 0.505, substituent effect ³⁴): $\varrho = -2.98$) were clearly consistent with a SN_i' ionization process involving the anchimeric assistance of the triple bond $(k_{\Delta})^{35}$ leading to the resonance stabilized cation 63 with its positive charge delocalized through the adjacent triple bond into the aryl (or cyclopropyl) group ¹³).

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It was concluded that the stabilization of the positive charge of 63, by delocalization over the three carbons of the mesomeric propargyl allenyl system, entailed a powerful electron releasing substituent at the allenyl end ¹³. However, although in theory electron releasing substituents might render 1-substituted cyclopropyl cations more stable than their 2-substituted allyl counterparts ³⁶, the expected ring closure of a 2-substituted allyl cation such as *e.g.* 64 to the cyclopropyl cation 65 has not been observed experimentally, Eq. (19) ³⁷.



3.4 [2+4] Cycloadditions

Several of these cyclopropylacetylenes constitute convenient substrates for catalyzed or uncatalyzed cycloaddition reactions. For instance, the methyl 3-[1-chlorocyclo-propyl]propiolate 66 is a reasonably reactive dienophile which underwent thermal reaction with various 1,3-dienes to yield [2 + 4] cycloadducts, such as 67, Eq. (20)²⁰.



In fact from the synthetic point of view, the 1-ethynylcyclopropanols 9 have been mainly used as precursors of 1-donor substituted vinylcyclopropanes, the preparation and utility of which are discussed in the following sections.

4 Preparation of 1-Donor Substituted Vinylcyclopropanes and Cyclopropylcarbonyl Compounds

Because of their exceptional reactivity and reactivity pattern, 1-donor substituted vinylcyclopropanes and cyclopropylcarbonyl compounds, appear to be very attractive building blocks, endowed with unexpected synthetic potential, which has not yet been fully explored. Various routes to these challenging compounds have successfully been tested recently.

4.1 From Cyclopropanone Hemiacetal

As first reported by Wasserman, the addition of two equivalents of vinylmagnesium bromide in refluxing THF to the cyclopropanone hemiacetal 3 led to the 1-vinylcyclopropanols 68 in 64% yields Eq. (21)¹⁰⁾.

$$3 + 2 CH_2 = CHMgBr \xrightarrow{THF, 4} 68 64^{\circ}/_{\circ}$$
 (21)

Since the hemiacetal 3, can now readily be prepared from cheap commercially available starting materiais (*vide supra*, Eq. (1))⁷⁾, this reaction constitutes a convenient source of 1-vinylcyclopropanols. Otherwise, the 1-ethynyl-cyclopropanols 9, also easily available from 3 or from its magnesium salt 10 (*vide supra*, Eq. (4) and (6) underwent either lithium aluminium hydride reduction in refluxing THF to lead exclusively to the E-1-vinylcyclopropanols 69 or reduction with dicyclopentadienyl-titanium hydride in ether at 0 °C, prepared from isobutylmagnesium halides and a catalytic amount of dicyclopentadienyl titanium dichloride ($\eta^5-C_5H_5$)₂TiCl₂), to yield exclusively the Z isomer 70, Eq. (22)^{15, 39}.



4.2 From 1,3-Dichloroacetone

Following a known synthesis of 1-alkylcyclopropanols⁴⁰⁾, addition of vinylic Grignard reagents 72 to commercially available 1,3-dichloroacetone 71 led to the magnesium salt of a 1,3-dichloro alcohols 73 which ring closed to 1-vinylcyclopropanols 74 induced by the highly reactive low valent iron formed *in situ*, by the simultaneous addition of etheral solutions of ethylmagnesium bromide and anhydrous ferric chloride, Eq. (23)⁴¹⁾.



4.3 From Simmons-Smith Cyclopropanation of α-Enone Enol Ethers

The selective cyclopropanation of the α -enone silyl enol ether 75, by methylene iodide and the zinc-silver couple ⁴², is remarkable. Only the double bond bearing the trimethylsiloxy group reacted to yield the 1-trimethylsiloxy vinylcyclopropane 76 when not more than 1.1 equivalent of the Simmons-Smith reagent was used, but the bis-cyclopropanation product 77 was obtained in good yield with an excess (3 equivalents) of the cyclopropanating reagent, Eq. (24) ⁴².



Subsequent treatment with methanol led to 1-vinyl- and 1-cyclopropylcyclopropanols respectively and with IM methanolic sodium hydroxide to the corresponding ketones by ring opening of the silyl cyclopropyl ether moieties, in excellent yields ⁴²). Specific α or α' -monomethylation of conjugated cycloalkenones was then possible through such siloxyvinylcyclopropanes intermediates. Thus, from testosterone 78



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the silyl enol ethers 79 and 82 have been obtained, practically pure upon treatment with triethylamine and trimethylsilyl chloride (TMSCl), or with lithium diisopropylamide and TMSCl, respectively. Thence, chemoselective cyclopropanation with CH_2I_2 and the Zn/Ag couple followed by alkaline hydrolysis of the trimethylsiloxyvinylcyclopropane intermediates 80 and 83 led either to 4-methyl 81 or to 2- α -methyl testosterone 84 in excellent yields, Eq. (25)⁴².

Reagents: a) NEt₃, ClSiMe₃, DMF; b) Zn/Ag, CH₂I₂, Et₂O, reflux, pyridine, 52%; c) NaOH, EtOH, reflux 10 hr, 88%; d) LDA, ClSiMe₃, THF-Et₂O, 90%; e) Zn/Ag, CH₂I₂, Et₂O, reflux 18 hr, 85%; f) NaOH, EtOH, reflux 48 hr, 100%.

Simmons-Smith regioselective cyclopropanation of α -enone alkyl enol ethers also provided 1-alkoxyvinylcyclopropanes in high yields ⁴³.

4.4 From Dye-Sensitized Photooxygenation of Alkylidenecyclopropanes

The dye-sensitized (eosin) photooxygenation at -50 °C of alkylidenecyclopropanes 85, easily available by the Wittig reaction of 3-bromopropyltriphenylphosphonium ylide ⁴⁴⁾ and suitable ketones, gave the hydroperoxides 86, which were reduced *in situ* by an equivalent of triphenylphosphine ⁴⁵⁾ to 1-alkenylcyclopropanols 87 in good yields. When PPh₃ was replaced by pyridine (5%) 86 rearranged exclusively



to β' -hydroxy α -enones 88, whereas in the absence of pyridine the α, α' -dienones 89, dehydration products of 88, were formed competitively. On the other hand, the photo-oxygenation of the olefins 85 at 3 °C led to three types of products: the hydroxyenones 88 arising from the thermal rearrangement of the unstable hydroxyperoxides 86, the cyclobutanones 91, likely through the well known ring expansion of the oxaspiropentanes 90 ^{41, 46} formed by addition of singlet oxygen to the olefins 85 ⁴⁷ and the ketones 93 from the thermal fragmentation of the intermediate dioxetanes 92, Eq. (26) ⁴⁸

4.5 From Oxaspiropentanes

Oxaspiropentanes have been synthesized by the epoxidation of methylenecyclopropanes with peracetic ⁴⁹, peroxybenzimidic ⁵⁰, with p-nitroperbenzoic ⁴⁶ and m-chloroperbenzoic acid ⁵¹. The parent oxaspiropentane 95, a convenient precursor of cyclobutanone ⁴⁶, was obtained from the peracid oxidation of a methylene chloride solution of methylenecyclopropane 94, Eq. (27) ^{46, 51}.

$$94 \qquad \qquad \underbrace{[0]}_{94} \qquad \underbrace{[0]}_{-10^{\circ}\text{C}, \text{ CH}_2\text{CI}_2} \qquad \underbrace{95 \quad 43-70^{\circ}\text{/}_{\bullet}}_{95 \quad 43-70^{\circ}\text{/}_{\bullet}} \qquad (27)$$

Besides by these epoxidations, oxaspiropentanes have been prepared through the nucleophilic addition of 1-lithio-1-bromocyclopropanes to ketones at low temperature. Thus for example, the dibromocyclopropane 96 prepared by addition of dibromocarbene to cyclohexene 52 underwent metalation with butyllithium to give the lithio-bromocyclopropane 97 which was converted into the oxaspiropentane 98 upon simple addition to cyclohexanone, Eq. (28) $^{53, 54}$.



The intermediacy of such oxaspiropentanes has been proposed in the addition of diazomethane to ketones ⁵⁰ and in the reaction of dimethyloxosulfonium methylide with α -haloketones ⁵⁵. In contrast to phosphorous ylides, sulfur ylides usually condense with carbonyl compounds to yield epoxides, thus reaction of the N,N-dimethylaminophenyloxosulfonium cyclopropylide *99* with cyclohexanone produced the dispiroepoxide *100* which rearranged to the spiro [3.5] nonan-1-one *101* upon isolation by gas chromatography, Eq. (29) ⁵⁶.



Oxaspiropentanes have been obtained from the cyclopropylide 103, prepared by treatment of cyclopropyldiphenylsulfonium tetrafluoroborate 102 either with sodium methylsulfinyl carbanion in dimethoxyethane at --45 °C or with potassium hydroxide in dimethylsulfoxide at 25 °C. While the reaction of the ylide 103 with α , β -unsaturated carbonyl compounds has resulted in selective cyclopropylidene transfer to the α , β -carbon-carbon double bond leading to spiropentanes, condensation of 103 with non-conjugated aldehydes and ketones led to oxaspiropentanes such as 104, which have been isolated in 59–100% yields, Eq. (30) ⁵⁷.



The direction of the base induced ring opening of oxaspiropentanes proved to be highly depending on the nature of the base and solvent. Thus the epoxide 100 opened either mainly to 1-(1-cyclopropenyl) cyclohexanol 106 on reaction with lithium diisopropylamide in ether or mainly to the expected 1-(1-cyclohexenyl) cyclopropanol 105 on reaction with lithium diethylamide in pentane, Eq. $(31)^{57}$.



These results have been rationalized on the basis of the stereochemical features of the reaction 57 . The regioselectivity can also be influenced by kinetic or thermodynamic control of the reaction. Thus, exposure of the oxaspiropentane 107 to a sterically hindered base (LDA) for a relatively short time in a hydrocarbon solvent resulted in the abstraction of a proton of the methyl group by kinetic preference, leading almost exclusively to the 1-vinylcyclopropanol 108, in contrast, use of a sterically less demanding base for a longer time in hexane provided exclusively the thermodynamically more stable 1-vinylcyclopropanol 109 as a 98/2 trans/cis mixture, Eq. (32) ⁵⁸.



A severe limitation of this method, however, is the failure of the ylide 103 to yield oxaspiropentanes (*vide supra*) from α , β -unsaturated ketones and the poor yields of vinylcyclopropanes obtained from its reactions with hindered ketones or with conformationally rigid six-membered rings. Moreover, attempts to extend the oxaspiropentane ring opening to compounds containing an adjacent tertiary center have failed; thus, oxaspiropentane 110 did not lead to 111, Eq. (33) ⁵⁷.



It has also been shown that oxaspiropentanes undergo smooth ring opening with sodium phenylselenide at room temperature to give β -hydroxyselenides, which, upon oxidation with m-chlorobenzoic acid at -78 °C and ring enlargement at -30 °C in the presence of pyridine led directly to cyclobutanones. However, in the case of the oxaspiropentane *112* prepared from an aldehyde, the intermediate *113* mainly eliminated selenoxide to give the 1-vinylcyclopropanol *114*, which was not converted to the cyclobutanone *115* under these conditions, Eq. (34) ⁵⁹.



4.6 From 1-Heterosubstituted Lithiocyclopropanes

4.6.1 1-Arylthiocyclopropyllithium

Treatment of cyclopropyl phenyl sulfide $^{60)}$ with *n*-butyllithium in tetrahydrofuran at 0 °C for 2 hr led to 1-phenylthiocyclopropyllithium 116 $^{61)}$, which added to ketones



at 0 °C to yield hydroxysulfide 117^{62} ; this, upon treatment with thionyl chloride in pyridine at 0 °C, was dehydrated without complications arising from ring expansion (*vide infra*) to give the phenylthiovinylcyclopropane 118, Eq. (35)⁶².

Simple saturated ketones, however, were recovered unchanged even when a twofold excess of the lithiocyclopropyl phenyl sulfide 116a was employed apparently due to problems of enolization, but hindered ketones or α -enones underwent complete carbonyl condensation ⁶¹.

Reaction of the lithiocyclopropyl aryl sulfides 116a-c with dimethylformamide gave the 1-arylthiocyclopropanecarboxaldehydes 119a-c, which were treated at -78 °C with the enolate of cyclohexanone, for instance, to form the aldol products 120a-c in 83–86% yield. Subsequent dehydration of 120a-c, which could be complicated by retroaldol or ring enlargement reactions, required the use of a mixture of phosphorus oxychloride and hexamethylphosphorus triamide to give the expected vinylcyclopropanes 121a-c in 71–76% yields, Eq. (36) ^{63a}.



A simpler and improved synthesis of 120a was reported recently; the lithium salt of α -hydroxymethylene ketones when reacted with the lithiosulfide 116a at -78 °C gave 120a in 89% yield ⁶⁴. For a recent review on the synthesis of arylthiocyclopropanes see Ref. ^{63b}.

4.6.2 1-Methylseleno- and 1-Phenylselenocyclopropyllithium

Cyclopropanone diselenoacetals 122 prepared by lithium diisopropylamide induced ring closure of 3-chloro 1,1-di(methylseleno)- or 3-chloro-1,1-di(phenylseleno)- propane, have been transformed into the corresponding 1-selenocyclopropyllithium derivatives 123 upon treatment with *n*-butyllithium in THF at -78 °C. These intermediates have been trapped at -78 °C with aldehydes and ketones to produce the corresponding β -hydroxyselenides 124 in good yields, Eq. (37) ⁶⁶.



Dehydration of 124 to the expected 1-seleno-1-vinylcyclopropanes was succesful only with tertiary alcohols of this type; it required the use of thionyl chloride in the presence of triethylamine, pyridine or hexamethylphosphorus triamide followed by reaction with potassium t-butoxide in DMSO, or the use of the Burgess reagent $[CH_3O_2CN^-SO_2^{+}NEt_3]^{+67}$ in toluene at 110 °C. Thus, dehydratation of *e.g.* the selenohydroxide 125 with this reagent led to a mixture of the 1-methylselenovinyl-cyclopropanes 126 and 127, Eq. (38)^{-68}.



This lack of generality and regioselectivity has been overcome, however, by using the 1-selenocyclopropyl aldehydes 128 a, b prepared in high yield either upon reaction of 123 with dimethylformamide or by reduction of the phenylselenocyclopropyl 129⁶⁹ with diisobutylaluminum hydride⁷⁰. Subsequent olefination of aldehydes 128 with the suitable phosphorus ylides produced the desired 1-seleno-1-vinylcyclopropanes 130 in high yield with preferred (Z)-stereochemistry, Eq. (39)^{70a}.



On the other hand, reaction of the α -selenoalkyllithium 131 with the aldehydes 128 at -78 °C (method A), or reaction of the α -selenoaldehyde 132 with the α -lithiocyclopropylselenide 123 (method B) led to the hydroxy β , β' -diselenides 133 in high yields. Subsequently, regioselective elimination of the hydroxy and seleno groups to give the desired 1-seleno-1-vinylcyclopropanes occurred when reacting 133 with PI₃ (or P₂I₄) and triethylamine at 0 °C with predominant formation of the (E)isomer 134 (55 and 98% by method A and B, respectively), Eq. (40) ^{70a)}. For a recent review on the synthesis of 1-metallo-1-selenocyclopropanes see Ref. ^{70b}.



4.6.3 1-Alkoxycyclopropyllithium

Since an alkoxy group stabilizes an adjacent positive charge better than an arylthio group, an improved reactivity was expected from compounds of type 116 with an alkoxy group. To prove this, 1-methoxy-1-phenylthiocyclopropane 135 was prepared by successive treatment of 1-phenylthiocyclopropyllithium 116a with iodine and sodium carbonate in refluxing methanol. Reductive lithiation with two equivalents of lithium 1-(dimethylamino)naphthalenide (LDMAN) in THF at -78 °C led to 1-methoxycyclopropyllithium 136, Eq. (41)⁷¹⁾.



The O,S-cyclopropanone acetal 135 was also obtained by reacting cyclopropyl phenyl sulfide with trichloroisocyanuric acid (chloreal), silver nitrate and cadmium carbonate in methanol, or by reacting cyclopropanone bis-phenylthioacetal with mercuric chloride and mercuric oxide in methanol at 100 °C ^{72, 73}. The reductive desulfurization of 135 with LDMAN, however, required rather careful control of the experimental conditions. Therefore, other more practical approaches to 136 have recently been investigated. Thus, reaction of tri-*n*-butylstannyllithium (or magnesium chloride) with the magnesium salt 10^{16, 17} of cyclopropanone hemiacetal 3⁸ (vide supra, Sect. 2.1) afforded after protection of the hydroxyl group, low yields of the (1-methoxymethoxycyclopropyl)tri-n-butylstannane 137; this could smoothly be transmetalated with *n*-BuLi in THF at -78 °C to provide the l-alkoxy-cyclopropyllithium reagent 138, Eq. (42) ⁷⁴.



The most convenient preparative scale precursor of 1-alkoxycyclopropyllithium reagents was found to be 1-bromo-1-ethoxycyclopropane 139, prepared in good yields by reaction of 1-ethoxy-1-trimethylsiloxycyclopropane 2^{7} with phosphorus tribromide in the absence of pyridine. Addition of 139 to t-butyllithium (2 equivalents) in ether at -78 °C resulted in immediate and exothermic halogen metal exchange to form the expected 1-ethoxycyclopropyllithium 140, Eq. (43)⁷⁴.

$$2 \xrightarrow{PBr_{3}, r.t.} \bigcup_{Br} \xrightarrow{2 t - BuLi}_{Et_{2}0, -78^{\circ}C} \bigcup_{Li}^{OEt} (43)$$

The 1-alkoxycyclopropyllithiums 136 and 140 have been added to a variety of conjugated aldehydes and ketones to produce cyclopropyl carbinols such as 141,

which, when treated directly in acidic media (e.g., 10% HBF₄ in wet tetrahydrofuran) underwent ring expansion to the challenging 2-vinylcyclobutanone 142 (vide infra, Sect. 5, Eq. (44)) ^{43, 64, 73, 74}).



4.6.4 1-Trimethylsilylcyclopropyllithium

Trialkylsilyl substituents behave in a twofold manner, showing the properties of both electron donor and acceptor groups. It is well established that such substituents strongly favour carbenium ion development at the β -carbon (the β -effect), but exert a weak electron-attracting effect at the α -carbon atom ⁷⁵⁾. Trimethylsilylcyclopropane 143 ⁷⁶⁾, contrary to cyclopropyl phenyl sulfide (vide supra, Sect. 4.6.1) could not be deprotonated at its cyclopropyl position under a variety of conditions, including prolonged exposure to sec-butyllithium and tetramethylethylenediamine in THF. On the other hand, 1-trimethylsilylcyclopropyl phenyl sulfide 145, readily available either from the addition of chlorotrimethylsilane to 1-phenylthiocyclopropyllithium 116a ^{61, 77)}, or by sequential treatment of 1,3-di(phenylthio)propane with two equivalents of *n*-Buli ⁷⁸⁾ and Me₃SiCl, underwent reductive lithiation either with lithium naphthalenide in THF at $-78 \,^{\circ}C^{79}$ or with LDMAN at $-45 \,^{\circ}C^{77}$ to give 1-trimethylsilylcyclopropyllithium 144, Eq. (45).



Similarly, 144 has been obtained from the reaction of 1-trimethylsilylcyclopropyl methyl selenide with n-BuLi⁸⁰⁾. The α -bromosilane 147 underwent lithiation with *n*-BuLi in THF at --78 °C to provide 144 with superior efficiency to any other method, Eq. (46))⁸¹⁾. 147 was prepared in large quantities by the Hunsdiecker degradation of the 1-trimethylsilylcyclopropanecarboxylic acid 146, obtained by successively reacting the commercially available cyclopropanecarboxylic acid with *n*-BuLi (2 equivalents) and ClSiMe₃⁸²⁾. Uneventfully, 144 added to carbonyl compounds, except for cyclopentanone where enolate anion formation competed; the 1-trimethylsilylcyclopropanes 149^{79,81)} while base induced elimination (KH, diglyme, 90 °C) led to cyclopropylidenecycloalkanes 150⁷⁷), Eq. (47).

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The addition of α -lithiovinyltrimethylsilane 151⁸³, generated from α -bromovinyltrimethylsilane ⁸⁴ with *t*-BuLi (1.5 equivalents) at -78 °C in ether, to ketones and aldehydes was also investigated. The allylic alcohols 152 thus obtained underwent smooth cyclopropanation when the modified Simmons-Smith procedure utilizing EtZnI⁸⁵ was applied. The cyclopropylcarbinols 153 were directly dehydrated without rearrangement upon exposure to catalytic amounts of p-TsOH in benzene at 20 °C to give 149 in yields of 52-75%, Eq. (48)^{79,81}.



A number of functionalized 1-trimethylsilylcyclopropanes have become readily accessible along this and other routes ⁸⁶. Among them, the 1-trimethylsilylcyclopropane carboxaldehyde *156* was obtained from the spiroalkylation of trimethylsilylacetonitrile *154* upon successive treatment with 1 equivalent of lithium diisopropylamide (LDA), 1.5 equivalent of 1,2-dibromoethane and finally with a second equivalent of LDA. Subsequent diisobutylaluminum hydride (DIBAH) reduction of *155* followed by hydrolysis of the resulting imine with dilute sulfuric acid gave the aldehyde *156* in high yields, Eq. (49) ⁸⁶.



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The bifunctional cyclopropane 156 was also prepared by modified Simmons-Smith cyclopropanation $^{85)}$ of 2-trimethylsilyl-2-propen-1-ol 157 $^{84)}$ followed by oxidation of the cyclopropylcarbinol 158 with activated manganese dioxide $^{88)}$, in 72% overall yield, Eq. (50) $^{86,89)}$. Coupling of the aldehyde 156 with 2,6-dimethylcyclohexenone 159 $^{90)}$ induced by the low valent titanium reagent from TiCl₃ and zinc-copper couple (or lithium metal) provided the silylated cyclopropyldiene 160, in 50–60% yield, Eq. (51) $^{89,91)}$.



The aldehyde 156 has also been condensed with α -lithioselenides to lead to β -hydroxyselenides which underwent regioselective elimination (*vide supra*, Sect. 4.6.2, Eq. (40)⁷⁰) upon treatment with methanesulfoxyl chloride and triethylamine providing complementary methods for gaining access to 1-silylated vinylcyclopropanes⁹¹.

4.7 From 1-Hydroxycyclopropylcarbonyl Compounds

The high synthetic potential of 1-hydroxycyclopropanecarboxylic acid 42 with its two functionalities on the same carbon of the three-membered ring has only recently been recognized 92).

As a matter of fact, 42 is readily accessible, starting with the acyloin condensation of succinic esters in the presence of trimethylsilylchloride to provide 1,2-disiloxycyclobutene 161 in high yields ⁹³). Bromination of 161 in pentane at low temperature, led to the 1,2-cyclobutanedione 162, which underwent acid or base induced ring contraction to 1-hydroxycyclopropanecarboxylic acid 42⁹⁴). More conveniently, 42 was prepared in a one-pot reaction by first adding bromine in CH₂Cl₂ at -10 °C and then ice-water to 161; the hydroxyacid 42 was obtained by continuous extraction in 94% yield, Eq. (52) ^{95,96}.



Other conceivable routes to 42, for instance the oxidation of the lithium salt of α -lithiocyclopropanecarboxylic acid ⁹⁷⁾ with molecular oxygen ⁹⁸⁾, have failed ³⁹⁾.

Cyclopropanols in general, can well serve as homoenolate anion precursors, i.e., the β -anion of ethyl propionate ⁹⁹⁾, however, to avoid the easy base or acid induced ring opening the hydroxyl function of 42 must be protected when necessary. On simple addition of one equivalent of 3,4-dihydro-2H-pyran to a CH₂Cl₂ solution of the α -hydroxy acid 42, the tetrahydropyranyl ether 163 was obtained exclusively,

in the absence of an acid catalyst. Then addition of two equivalents of methyllithium to the acid 163 gave the methyl ketone 164, which underwent Wittig olefination *e.g.* with p-methylbenzylidenetriphenylphosphorane, to produce an (E/Z) mixture of the vinylcyclopropane 165; deprotection was achieved by simple action of ethanol in the presence of 10% of pyridinium p-toluenesulfonate (PPTS)¹⁰¹ and gave the 1-vinyl-cyclopropanol 166, Eq. (53)⁹²¹.



Like 1-acylcyclopropanols in general, the 1-hydroxycyclopropanecarboxaldehyde 167, the counterpart of l-arylthio-119a-c, 1-phenyl(methyl)seleno-128a-b and 1-trimethylsilylcyclopropanecarboxaldehyde 156 (vide supra) could not be isolated, as it readily expanded to the corresponding 2-hydroxycyclobutanone 168⁴¹). The labelling pattern in deuterium oxide-NaOD has suggested an equilibrium between the two isomeric acyloins 167 and 168 favouring the four-membered ring. Eq. (54) ¹⁰²).



This difficulty, however, could be overcome by first protecting the hydroxyl group as a MEM ^{103,104}, THP ¹⁰¹) or t-BuMe₂Si ether ¹⁰⁵) before forming the carbonyl function of *167*; this way the 1-hydroxycyclopropanecarboxaldehyde derivatives *171 a-c* were sufficiently stable to be prepared and handled. To this end, esterification



of 42 with methanol and a catalytic amount of thionyl chloride ¹⁰⁶⁾ gave 169, which was protected either with β -methoxyethoxymethyl chloride ^{103, 104)}, dihydropyran ¹⁰¹⁾ or t-butyldimethylsilyl chloride ¹⁰⁵⁾ and then reduced with lithium aluminium hydride to give the cyclopropylcarbinols 170. Finally, oxidation of 170 either with pyridinium chlorochromate (PCC) ¹⁰⁷⁾, pyridinium dichromate (PDC) ¹⁰⁸⁾ or with oxalyl chloride activated dimethylsulfoxide ¹⁰⁹⁾ produced the expected aldehydes 171*a*-*c* in 88, 68 and 98% yields, respectively, Eq. (55) ^{92,96,110,111}.

Another route to the aldehyde 171d (R = EtO(CH₃)CH-) involved the cyclopropanone cyanohydrin 173a, which was prepared either from the labile cyclopropanone 7 and hydrocyanic acid ¹¹²) or by the addition of lithium cyanide to the magnesium salt of the cyclopropanone hemiacetal 10^{16} . Reaction of 173a with excess ethyl vinyl ether at room temperature gave the acetal 173b, in quantitative yield ¹¹³; 173b had previously been obtained in 62% yield by the ring closure of 2-chloropropionaldehyde cyanohydrin ethoxyethyl ether 172 with sodium bis-trimethylsilylamide ¹⁴. Subsequent reduction of 173b with sodium dihydro-bis(2methoxyethoxy)aluminate ¹¹⁵) led to the aldehyde 171d Eq. (56) ¹¹³.



The protected 1-hydroxycyclopropanecarboxaldehyde 171 is an efficient and convenient precursor to 1-donor substituted vinylcyclopropane derivatives. Thus, for instance simple Wittig reaction of the aldehyde 171b with cyclohexylidenephosphorane prepared from the corresponding phosphonium iodide and potassium *t*-butoxide in THF gave the vinylcyclopropane 174 in high yields Eq. (55), a precursor of spirovetivanes (*vide infra*), which could not be obtained by the ring opening of the oxaspiropentane 110 (*vide supra*, Sect. 4.5, Eq. (33))¹¹¹.



Another approach to such vinylcyclopropanes involved the addition of Grignard reagents, *e.g. n*-amylmagnesium bromide to 171b leading to the cyclopropylcarbinol 175. Oxidation at -60 °C in methylene chloride with DMSO-(COCl)₂ ¹⁰⁹⁾ led to the ketone 176, which was treated with ethylidenetriphenylphosphorane for instance to produce in 69% overall yield from 171b a (Z, E) mixture of the disubstituted vinylcyclopropanes 177, precursors of dihydrojasmone (vide infra, Sect. 5.5).

4.8 From Optically Active 1-Hydroxyvinylcyclopropanes

The cyclopropane moiety is present in a large number of natural products ¹¹⁶) and pharmaceutically interesting compounds ¹¹⁷, most of which are optically active. For instance, such units have been found in the side chain of sterols from marine sources ¹¹⁸) and have been synthesized along a stereocontrolled route from $(+)\alpha$ -pinene involving the stereospecific ring contraction of a cyclobutanol p-toluenesulfonate ¹¹⁹. Moreover, optically active vinylcyclopropane units have been found in Hormosirene (or Dictyopterene B) *178*, a specific sex attractant of several brown algae of the Austra-Jian shelf, which displays an intense ocean smell and in Dictyopterene A *179*, a minor constituent of the pheromone bouquets ¹²⁰.



The synthesis of optically active 178 and 179 have been performed starting with a resolution of the trans 2-vinylcyclopropanecarboxylic acid ¹²¹⁾. Highly stereoselective S_cN' reactions of chiral homoallylic esters derived from (+)camphor¹²², and of optically active allylic¹²³ benzoates involving chirality transfer have also been reported for the enantioselective preparation of 178 and 179, respectively. Optically active 1-hydroxycyclopropylcarbonyl compounds and 1-hydroxyvinylcyclopropane derivatives were available from chiral succinic esters, following the synthetic scheme displayed in equations 52-55 (vide supra, Sect. 4.7). Thus, (+)-(R)dimethyl methylsuccinate 180 (97% e.e.) readily obtained by enzymatic resolution of the racemic ester ¹²⁴⁾ upon acyloin condensation in the presence of ClSiMe₃ led to the (+)-(R)-3-methyl-1,2-bis(trimethylsiloxy) cyclobutene 181 ($[\alpha]_{D} = 19.05^{\circ}$, c = 2.34 (CCl₄)). Then, bromination and subsequent hydrolysis of 181⁹⁵ quantitatively gave, after continuous extraction with ether, (-)-(1S,2R)-1-hydroxy-2-methylcyclopropanecarboxylic acid $182a([\alpha]_D = -57^\circ, c = 1.38(CCl_4))$ which was esterified with methanol and thionyl chloride to give 182b ($[\alpha]_{D} = -32.76^{\circ}$, c = 1.4 (CCl₄)). Determination of the enantiomeric ratios by ¹H NMR in the presence of Eu(hfc)₃ ¹²⁶⁾ has shown that the ester 182b had >97% e.e. ¹²⁵⁾. Therefore, practically no racemisation *i.e.*, no enolisation occurred during the acyloin condensation of 180 which involved radical anions as intermediates ⁹³). Protection of the hydroxy group of 182b (tBuMe₂SiCl, imidazole, DMF)¹⁰⁵⁾, reduction with DIBAH in toluene at -70 °C followed by oxidation (DMSO-(COCl)₂)¹⁰⁹⁾ (vide supra, Sect. 4.8, Eq. (55)) gave the aldehyde 183 ($[\alpha]_D = -45^\circ$, c = 2.1 (CHCl₃)) in 94% overall yield. Subsequent addition of triethylphosphoacetatecarbanion in THF led in 88% yield to the optically active (-)-(1S, 2R) 1-siloxyvinylcyclopropane 184 a ($[\alpha]_D = -2.45^\circ$, c = 2 (CCl₄)) and after removal of the protective group (CH₃OH, ClSiMe₃), to the trans-1-vinylcyclopropanol 184b, whose ¹H NMR analysis in the presence of Eu(hfc)₃ ¹²⁶⁾ showed an enantiomeric excess of 87%, Eq. (58) ¹²⁵⁾.



4.9 Miscellaneous Methods

Lithium (phenylthiocyclopropylcuprate) 185, prepared by the reaction of cuprous thiophenolate with cyclopropyllithium in THF at -78 °C, was added to β -iodo-enones. For example, treatment with 3-iodo-2-cyclohexen-1-one 186 provided the corresponding β -cyclopropyl α , β -unsaturated ketones 187 with high efficiency, Eq. (59) ¹²⁷.



Otherwise, cuprous iodide-catalyzed addition of methylmagnesium iodide to 2-cyclohexen-1-one in ether at 0 °C, followed by trapping of the resultant enolate anion 188 with cyclopropanecarboxaldehyde 189, afforded the two diastereomers of the cyclopropylcarbinol 190 a. Further transformation into the corresponding acetates 190b (acetic anhydride, pyridine), followed by treatment with 1,5-diazabicyclo[4.3.0]-non-5-ene (DBN) in refluxing benzene, provided in 78% yield, a mixture of the desired β -cyclopropyl enones 191 and 192, in a ratio of 13:1, Eq. (60) ¹²⁷.

In analogy to the preparation of the cyclopropanone hemiacetal 3 (vide supra, Eq. (1)⁷⁾, reductive cyclization of the piperidide of 3-chloropropionic acid 193 with sodium in ether in the presence of ClSiMe₃, gave the 1-piperidino-1-trimethylsilyloxy-cyclopropane 194a which was converted to the cyclopropanol 194b upon treatment with methanolic tetrabutylammonium fluoride. Both 194a and 194b can be used for the ready generation of cyclopropane derivatives; thus the silyl ether 194a could be reacted directly with the vinylic Grignard reagents 195 to provide the vinyl cyclopropane derivative 196, (Eq. (61)¹²⁸).



Furthermore, treatment of 194a, b with potassium cyanide in the presence of aqueous acetic acid gave the cyclopropylnitrile 197 in 62–73% yield. This nitrile was then allowed to react with cyclopropyllithium in ether at -78 °C to give the cyclopropyl ketimine 198, Eq. (62)¹²⁹.



While the nucleophilic addition of 1-lithio-1-bromocyclopropanes to ketones gave oxaspiropentanes, precursors of 1-donor substited vinylcyclopropane derivatives (*vide supra*, Sect. 4.5, Eq. (28)), addition of n-BuLi at low temperature to 1,1-dibromocyclopropane 199 (prepared in 75% yield from the addition of dibromocarbene Jacques R. Y. Salaün

to isobutene) led to the carbenoïd 200 which was added to N-methylformanilide to give the 1-bromocyclopropanecarboxaldehyde 201. Wittig olefination with triphenylmethylenephosphorane produced the 1-bromovinylcyclopropane 202, and upon treatment either with *n*- or *t*-butyllithium, the 1-vinylcyclopropyllithium 203, which was able to undergo electrophilic substitution. For instance, addition of carbon dioxide and diazomethane, gave the cyclopropanecarboxylic acid 204*a* and ester 204*b*, successively, Eq. (63) ¹³⁰.



5 Reactivity and Synthetic Applications of 1-Donor Substituted Vinylcyclopropanes and Cyclopropylcarbonyl Compounds

5.1 Involving $C_3 \rightarrow C_4$ Ring Expansions

The ring enlargement of properly activated cyclopropane moities is now one of the major methods of forming cyclobutane derivatives. Thus, cyclopropyl groups adjacent to an electron deficient center X (carbon or heteroatom) underwent $C_3 \rightarrow C_4$ ring expansion to four-membered ring derivatives, involving cation, radical or carbene intermediates. Some of these reactions, however, afforded mixtures of cyclobutyl, cyclopropylmethyl and 3-butenyl compounds, which severely limited their synthetic applicability ¹³¹. On the other hand, cyclopropanes 205 with an electron donor substituent Y on the same carbon underwent specific and thereby synthetically valuable $C_3 \rightarrow C_4$ ring expansion to cyclobutanones 206 or related four-membered ring compounds, Eq. (64) ^{43, 132}.

$$\begin{array}{c}
 & Y = 0, S, N \\
 & X = C, C = C, C = 0, N \\
 & 205 & 206
\end{array}$$
(64)

Indeed, cyclobutanones constitute challenging synthetic intermediates for a whole host of applications including cyclopentanone, cyclohexanone and cyclooctanone formation, olefin and diene synthesis, geminal alkylation, reductive acylation, among others, ... (vide infra).

5.1.1 From 1-Vinylcyclopropanol and Vinylogous Derivatives

First of all, it has been shown that the 1-vinylcyclopropanols 207 undergo ring expansion to cyclobutanones 209 with a large variety of electrophilic reagents. Thus, with hydrobromic and perbenzoic acid and with t-butylhypochlorite, 2-alkyl-, -2-hydroxymethyl- and 2-chloroalkylcyclobutanones 209, respectively, were obtained, through 1-hydroxycyclopropylcarbinyl cation intermediates 208 Eq. (65) ^{10, 133}.



With paraformaldehyde and dibenzylamine hydrochloride in refluxing ethanol 1-vinylcyclopropanol 68 underwent a Mannich-type reaction to yield the corresponding 2-(2-dibenzylaminoethyl)cyclobutanone 210, Eq. (66) 10 .



When 2-methyl-1-vinylcyclopropanol 211 was treated with concentrated sulfuric acid at 0 °C, the rearrangement took place to the extend of 40 % within 5 min to give a mixture of 2,4-trans- 212, 2,4-cis- 213, 2,3-trans- 214 and 2,3-cis-dimethylcyclo-butanone 215 Eq. (67) ¹³³.



In a non polar solvent, the acid-catalyzed ring expansion of 211 took a different course. Thus, when the cyclopropanol 211 was treated with dry HBr in methylene chloride at 0 °C for 5 min, only the 2,3-dimethylcyclobutanones 214 and 215 were formed in 83% yield with a trans/cis ratio (214/215) of 3:1. It has been verified that under all the acidic conditions employed, the 2,3 and 2,4-isomers did not interconvert;
starting from either 2,3-isomer, cis-trans isomerization occurred in the HBr/CH₂Cl₂ medium and resulted in the formation of product mixtures with the same trans/cis ratio ¹³³). The observation that 2,3-dimethyl-substituted products apparently were favored in the acid-catalyzed rearrangement was consistent with a preferred migration of the more highly substituted carbon atom, also observed in the peracid oxidation of methylenecyclopropanes ¹³⁴). The vinyl carbinol *211* was recovered unchanged after heating at 110 °C for 17 hr in pyrolysis tubes which had been previously washed with concentrated ammonium hydroxide solution ¹³³). On the other hand, on heating at 100 °C either in the liquid phase (sealed tube, not washed with base) or in the gas phase (gas chromatography), the vinyl cyclopropanols *74a*, *b* were converted, in nearly quantitative yield, into the corresponding spirocyclobutanones *216a*, *b* (Eq. (68)) ⁴¹.



The stereochemistry and mechanism of such a thermally induced ring expansion have been investigated by rearranging a deuterium labelled cyclopropanol. As a matter of fact, a thermally allowed $[2_a + 2_a + 2_s]$ concerted process ¹³⁵ would imply an *anti-addition* to the double bond of 74a (hydroxyl H—C⁵ and C³—C⁴ bonding) (Fig. 1). On the other hand, an intramolecular addition of the hydroxyl proton to the π -orbital of the double bond at C⁵, would result in the formation of a positive charge at C⁴. As it has been shown that the delocalization of the positive charge of the cyclopropylcarbinyl cation would prevent the free rotation around the C¹—C⁴ axis ¹³⁶, such a process would imply a *syn-addition* (Fig. 2). Finally an intermolecular transfer of a proton on the double bond at C⁵, analogous to the electrophilic addition (*vide supra*, Eq. (65)) would probably lead to a mixture of products of *syn-* and *anti-addition* (Fig. 3).



The thermal rearrangement in a sealed tube at 100 °C of the $[D_5]$ -labelled cyclopropanol 217 (prepared from perdeutero- α, α' dichloroacetone, (*vide supra*, Sect. 4.2, Eq. (23)) led to the expected 2,2,3,3,5-pentadeuteriospiro[3.4] octan-1-one 218, Eq. (69)⁴¹)



The *anti*-orientation of the deuterium at C⁵ on the spirocyclobutanone 218 was proven unambiguously by examination of the ¹H NMR spectra of this ketone coordinated with tris-(dipivalomethano)europium; effectively, two protons at C⁵ and C⁸ were markedly shifted downfield ($\Delta \delta = 3$ ppm) implying their syn orientation with respect to the carbonyl group. Therefore, the thermal ring enlargement $217 \rightarrow 218$ seemed to involve an intramolecular stereospecific cis-addition on the double bond (Fig. 2) which, consequently ruled out a concerted process ⁴¹).

Addition of triethylphosphonoacetate carbanion in THF to the 1-tetrahydropyranyloxycyclopropanecarboxaldehyde 171b gave the trans-vinylcyclopropanecarboxylate 219 in 88 % yield; reduction of the ester with DIBAH to minimize conju-



Scheme 1. Synthesis of 2-vinylcyclobutanone ⁹⁶

gate reduction, deprotection of the OH group (PPTS, EtOH) ¹⁰¹ led to the allylic diol 220. On the other hand, addition of vinylmagnesium bromide to aldehyde 171b provided the allyl alcohol 221 and after removal of the THP group ¹⁰¹ the 1-(1-vinylcarbinol)cyclopropanol 222. Upon addition of a catalytic amount of BF₃—Et₂O both vinylogous diols 222 and 220 underwent quantitative dehydration and $C_3 \rightarrow C_4$ ring expansion to 2-vinylcyclobutanone 224, within 15 min at room temperature as monitored by t.l.c., most likely via the intermediate formation of the same cyclopropylcarbinyl cation 223, (Scheme 1) ⁹⁶.

Peterson olefination of the aldehyde 171b with 1-trimethylsilylprop-3-ynyl lithium ¹³⁷, furnished a (Z, E) mixture of enynes 225 in 85% yield. Desilylation with KF in DMF ¹³⁸, metalation with n-butyllithium, condensation with hexanal and lithium aluminum hydride reduction gave the conjugated dienol 226 in 72% overall yield from 171b. Treatment of 226 with 10 mol. % of PPTS ¹⁰¹) in ethanol at 55 °C led directly, within 30 min, as monitored by t.l.c. to (E, E)-2-(1,3-nonadienyl)-cyclobutanone 227 (Eq. (70)) ⁹⁶. This $C_3 \rightarrow C_4$ ring enlargement occurred under rather mildly acidic conditions since the pH of a 1 M aqueous solution of PPTS is 3.0 ¹⁰¹.



Furthermore, such a $C_3 \rightarrow C_4$ ring expansion could even be induced by lithium chloride. Thus, the cyclopropylcarbinol 228, prepared by addition of acetylenic Grignard reagents to the cyclopropanecarboxaldehyde 171a in 80–90% yield ¹¹⁰, was transformed into the tosylate 229 upon successive treatment with one equivalent of methyllithium in *ether* at 0 °C and with one equivalent of tosyl chloride at -40 °C, lithium chloride being formed as by-product. The formation of tosylate 229 appeared, however, to be strongly dependent upon the nature of the solvent; effectively, the same



reaction (*i.e.* addition of CH₃Li and tosyl chloride to 228) carried out in *tetrahydro-furan*, led directly to the 2-alkynylcyclobutanone 230 (45% yield) and to the 1-methoxy-ethoxymethyl-2-alkynylcyclobutenyl ether 231 (15%), Eq. (71)¹¹⁰⁾.

Moreover, removal of ether under vacuum and addition of tetrahydrofuran to the crude mixture of tosylates 229 and LiCl effected the ring expansion to cyclobutanones 230 and cyclobutenyl ethers 231. Upon treatment with anhydrous zinc bromide in methylene chloride, enol ethers 231 also underwent cleavage to give the expected cyclobutanones 230. In this way 2-alkynylcyclobutanones 230 with different substituents on the triple bond (i.e., $R = CH_3$, C_6H_5 , cyclopropyl, etc.) were obtained in 55–60% yield ¹¹⁰. It was obvious from these experiments that LiCl in THF was effective to cleave the MEM ethers 228, while MEM ethers usually require zincbromide ^{103–104}, and induce their ring expansion. This likely involves, after ionization of the tosylates in THF, the intermediacy of the cyclobutyl cyclopropylcarbinyl carbenium ion system 232¹¹⁰.



5.1.2 From 1-Arylthiocyclopropyl Derivatives

The adducts of 1-arylthiocyclopropyllithium 116^{61} to aldehydes and ketones, upon treatment with p-toluenesulfonic acid in refluxing benzene under anhydrous conditions or with the Burgess reagent 67 , underwent ring expansion to 1-phenylthiocyclobutenes, which may be hydrolyzed to cyclobutanones, desulfurized to cyclobutanes or thermolyzed to dienes. Thus, the cyclopropylcarbinol 233, adduct of 116*a* to *t*-butyl methyl ketone, was rearranged to the cyclobutanone enol thioether 234, Eq. (72) ¹³⁹.



Direct rearrangement to cyclobutanones can be achieved under four sets of conditions: a) with 48% aqueous fluoroboric acid in ether, at room temperature; b) with anhydrous stannic chloride in methylene chloride, normally at room temperature; c) with p-toluenesulfonic acid in benzene saturated with water, at reflux and d) with trimethyloxonium tetrafluoroborate in methylene chloride (Meerwein's reagent). For instance, the cyclopropylcarbinol 233 was rearranged to 2-*t*-butyl-2-methylcyclobutanone 235, upon treatment with one equivalent of pTsOH in water-saturated benzene at reflux for 1.5 hr, Eq. (72) ¹³⁹. In a slightly different approach, the alcohol was converted into a better leaving group to allow ring expansion under milder conditions. Thus, the alkoxide generated by the addition of 116a to cyclohexanone was quenched with O-phenylenephosphorochlorodite to give the phosphite 236. In contrast to the tosylate 229 (vida supra, Sect. 5.1.1, Eq. (71)), simple warming of these adducts in THF did not lead to rearrangement; the addition of a catalytic amount of concentrated HCl to aqueous THF at reflux for 15 hr was necessary to achieve ring enlargement to the spiro[3.5]non-1-one 216b, Eq. (73)¹³⁹. (See for comparison Eqs. (68) and (71)).



The utility of this $C_3 \rightarrow C_4$ ring expansion was demonstrated by the total synthesis of (\pm) grandisol 241 a constituent of the sex pheromone of the bool weevil ¹⁴⁰, based on a double cyclobutanone annelation $(237 \rightarrow 240)$ using 116a as spiroannelating reagent, followed by a stereospecific haloform cleavage of a cyclobutanone ring, allowing the introduction of the side chains of this monoterpene with the proper cis stereochemistry (Scheme 2) ¹³⁹. For a comparable synthesis of 241 also based on a $C_3 \rightarrow C_4$ ring expansion see Ref. ⁴³.



Scheme 2. Synthesis of (\pm) grandisol¹³⁹

The challenging 2-vinylcyclobutanone system (vide infra, Sects. 5.3 and 5.4) was also available from the $C_3 \rightarrow C_4$ ring expansion of 1-arylthiocyclopropyl vinylcarbinols 242. Thus, upon addition to a mixture of ether and 48% fluoroboric acid, 242 gave rise to the 2-vinylcyclobutanone derivative 243 in most cases, however, in moderate yields, (Eq. (74))⁶³⁾.

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Since thiophenol was formed in the reaction, this by-product trapped the intermediate cation to give the bis(phenylthio)vinylcyclopropane 244 and so limited the formation of the desired cyclobutanone. To overcome this problem, a substitution pattern providing electronic acceleration for the cyclopropyl bond migration but also a steric bulk to inhibit the nucleophilicity of the thiol was required. For this purpose, 1-(2,6-dimethoxyphenylthio)vinylcyclopropanes such as 242b were prepared; the yield and cleanliness of the reaction were effectively increased, allowing by this route the isolation of pure cyclobutanones 243^{63} .

It has recently been reported that β -(1-phenylthio)cyclopropyl enones 245 were more conveniently prepared from the lithium salt of β -hydroxymethylene ketone and the phenylthiocyclopropyllithium 116 a (vida supra, Sect. 4.6.1); upon treatment with Lewis acids (e.g., AlCl₃, SnCl₄, TiCl₄, etc.) in CH₂Cl₂ or better with refluxing 50% aqueous trifluoroacetic acid, they were converted to γ -ketocyclobutanones such as 246, Eq. (75) ⁶⁴.



For a recent review see Ref. 63 b).

5.1.3 From 1-Methylseleno- and 1-Phenylselenocyclopropyl Derivatives

It has been shown that 1-methyl (or phenyl) selenocyclopropylcarbinol derivatives, analogous to arylthiocyclopropylcarbinols, undergo either acid induced dehydration into 1-selenovinylcyclopropanes (*vide supra*, Sect. 4.6.2, Eq. (38)) or directly ring expansion, upon treatment with the Burgess reagent (CH₃O₂CN⁻, SO₂N⁺Et₃, toluene, 110°, 4 hrs)⁶⁷, *e.g.* 247 to the regioisomeric selenocyclobutenes 248 and 249, Eq. (76)⁶⁸.



An unusual reactivity was observed for the 1-methylselenocyclopropylcarbinol 250 bearing a p-tolyl group α to the hydroxyl function. It underwent ring enlargement to 2-methyl-2-p-tolylcyclobutanone 251 upon simple treatment with p-TsOH in refluxing aqueous benzene for 12 hr. Substituted by a hydrogen or an alkyl group, the corresponding 1-methylselenocyclopropylcarbinol remains unchanged under these conditions. The cyclobutanone 251 was then treated with the bulky 2-lithio-2-selenopropane to provide in 66% yield the β -hydroxyselenide 252 as a 5/1 mixture of stereoisomers which was rearranged to α -Cuparenone 253 when treated with thallium ethoxide in CHCl₃ (57%), with silver tetrafluoroborate on alumina in CH₂Cl₂ (69%), or with methyl fluorosulfonate in ether, (82%), (Scheme 3)¹⁴¹.



Scheme 3. Synthesis of α -Cuparenone

Reagents: a) pTsOH, $C_{6}H_{6}$ -H₂O, 80 °C, 12 hr, 80 %; b) Me₂CSeMeLi, Et₂O, -78 °C, 66 %; c) TlOEt, HCCl₃, 20 °C, 21 hr, 57 %; or AgBF₄, Al₂O₃, CH₂Cl₂, 20 °C, 3 hr, 69 %; or CH₃OSO₂F, ether, 20 °C, 1 hr, 82 %.

β-Cuparenone was also synthetized following a similar strategy ¹⁴¹). The synthetic applications of 1-metallo-1-selenocyclopropanes have recently been reviewed ^{70b}).

5.1.4 From 1-Alkoxycyclopropyl Derivatives

The replacement of the phenylthio- or phenylseleno group by an alkoxy group gave, as expected, better results in the formation of cyclobutanone derivatives due to the greater ability of oxygen to stabilize a positive charge and the ready acid-catalyzed hydrolysis of the intermediate enol ether. Thus, the addition products of 1-alkoxy-cyclopropyllithium *140* to conjugated aldehydes or ketones were treated directly with 10% HBF₄ in wet THF (one volume of aqueous 48% HBF₄ mixed with 4 volumes of THF) to yield 2-vinylcyclobutanones in satisfactory yields (*vide supra*, Sect. 4.6.3, Eq. (44)). For other synthetic applications of the ring expansion of alkoxycyclopropanes see Ref. ^{43 b}.

5.2 Involving $C_3 \rightarrow C_4 \rightarrow C_5$ Ring Expansions

The rearrangements reported herein concern only the 2-vinylcyclobutanone derivatives which have also been obtained from the cycloaddition of vinylketenes to simple olefins ^{142, 143}. For such a stepwise $C_3 \rightarrow C_4 \rightarrow C_5$ ring enlargement, not involving a 2-vinylcyclobutanone, see for instance Scheme 3 (Sect. 5.1.3).

5.2.1 Acid Induced

As a matter of fact, 2-vinylcyclobutanones were able to undergo further $C_4 \rightarrow C_5$ or $C_4 \rightarrow C_6$ ring expansions depending on the nature of the substituents on the system. Thus, for instance, in the presence of a 10:1 mixture of methanesulfonic acid and phosphorus pentoxide (Eaton's reagent)¹⁴⁴), the 1-methyl-1-vinylcyclobutanone 254b underwent predominantly $C_4 \rightarrow C_5$ ring enlargement to the spirocyclopentenone 257b (51%) and to a lesser extent $C_4 \rightarrow C_6$ ring expansion to the fused cyclohexenone 261b (13%); while the normethyl analogue 254a yielded exclusively the 1,3-rearrangement product 261a (65%) (Eq. (77))¹⁴⁵.



This result can be rationalized assuming protonation of the double bond of 254b to lead to the cyclobutylcarbinyl cation 255b, which subsequently rearranged to the tertiary cyclopentyl cation 256b and by deprotonation and double bond migration the conjugated spirocyclopentenone 257b was produced. On the other hand, protonation of the carbonyl group and electrophilic attack of the resulting cation 258a, b on the olefinic linkage can lead to the strained bicyclic cation 259a, b which would be expected to spring open to 260a, b. Finally acid catalyzed migration of the double bond into the conjugated position led to 261a, b (Eq. (77))¹⁴⁵⁾.

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The 2-alkyl-2-vinylcyclobutanones required for this rearrangement were also readily prepared under milder conditions from cyclopropanol derivatives. Thus, the vinylogous alcohols 262 a, b and 263 a, b were obtained from the cyclopropyl methyl ketone 164 (vide supra, Sect. 4.7, Eq. (53)) following the sequence used for the preparation of 2-vinylcyclobutanone (vide supra, Sect. 5.11, Scheme 1). Upon treatment either with 0.1 equivalent of BF₃-Et₂O in CHCl₃ at room temperature for 15 min, or with 0.1 equivalent of the 10:1 mixture MeSO₃H—P₂O₅ (Eaton's reagent)¹⁴⁴) in ether at room temperature for 5 min both alcohols were converted quantitatively into the 2-vinylcyclobutanones 264 a, b (R' = H, C₄H₉). Furthermore, treatment of neat 262 a, b or 263 a, b with 10:1 MeSO₃H—P₂O₅¹⁴⁴ (17 equiv.) at room temperature led directly, (as did the cyclobutanones 264 a, b under the same conditions) either to dihydrojasmone 265 a (R' = C₄H₉) in 65–90% yields, or to 2,3-dimethylcyclopentenone 265 b a precursor of methylenomycin B¹⁴⁶, in 55–68% yield, (Scheme 4) ¹⁴⁷). (See scheme 11 for an other synthesis of dihydrojasmone involving a C₃ \rightarrow C₅ ring expansion of a 1-hydroxyvinylcyclopropane derivative).



Scheme 4. Syntheses of dihydrojasmone and of a methylenomycin B precursor *Reagents*: a) BF_3 —Et₂O, CHCl₃, r.t., 15 min, 100 %: b) $MeSO_3H$ — P_2O_5 , Ether, r.t., 5 mn; c) neat CH₃SO₃H— P_2O_5 , r.t.

5.2.2 Base Induced

In practice, addition of 1-(lithioethyl)phenyl selenoxide 267 to spiro[3.5]non-5-en-1one 266 ^{63,73}, followed by neutralisation with acetic acid and heating in refluxing THF cleanly afforded the vinylic cyclobutanol 268 in 72 % yield, as a 8:1 mixture of diastereomers. On the other hand, when the reaction mixture was refluxed in THF without prior neutralisation, an unexpected regiospecific $C_4 \rightarrow C_5$ ring expansion occured within minutes, leading to the cyclopentanone 270 and its α -selenenylated derivatives 271. Conversion of the α -selenenylated ketone 271 into 270 could be accomplished most conveniently by treatment of the crude reaction mixture with aluminum amalgam providing the cyclopentanone 270 in 71% yield from 266. The mechanism of this ring expansion is apparently a direct pinacol-like rearrangement of the initial adduct 269, in which the more highly substituted carbon migrates preferentially (Eq. (78)) ¹⁴⁸. Synthesis and Synthetic Applications of 1-Donor Substituted Cyclopropanes



5.2.3 Photolytic

The spirocyclobutanones 272-274a, b, incorporating a cyclohexa-, cyclohepta- and cyclooctadiene moiety respectively, have been synthetized following mainly the same methodology, *i.e.* by the acid induced (50 % HBF₄) C₃ \rightarrow C₄ ring expansion of a 1-methoxyvinylcyclopropylcarbinol, prepared from 1-methoxycyclopropyllithium 136. Upon photolysis in acetonitrile (($\lambda > 347$ nm) in the presence of Michler's ketone as





a triplet sensitizer, these 2-vinylcyclobutanones underwent an oxa-di- π -methane rearrangement ¹⁴⁹, which included as primary steps a 1,2-acyl shift involving one or both double bonds of the diene system and leading to the intermediates 275, 276 and 277 respectively. The tricyclic cyclopentanones 278–283 arose from these intermediates by ring closure either between C⁴ and C⁶ or C⁴ and C⁸ (Eqs. (79–81)) ¹⁵⁰.

The presence of a gem-dimethyl group as in 272, 273 a and 274 a dramatically changed the photoproduct distribution, since only these substrates led to the products 279, 281 a and 283 a resulting from vinylogous ring closure. Substrates 273 b and 274 b without methyl substitution gave only products of rearrangement involving one double bond ¹⁵⁰.

5.3 Involving $C_3 \rightarrow C_4 \rightarrow C_6$ Ring Expansions

5.3.1 Acid Induced

The acid-induced $C_3 \rightarrow C_4 \rightarrow C_6$ rearrangement has been summarized above, together with the acid induced $C_3 \rightarrow C_4 \rightarrow C_5$ ring expansions, (vide supra, Sect. 5.2.1, Eq. (77)).

5.3.2 Base Induced

The lithium and potassium salts of 2-vinylcyclobutanols underwent $C_4 \rightarrow C_6$ ring expansion at 25–70 °C, providing an efficient method for the synthesis of 3-cyclohexenol derivatives. Thus, reduction of 2-phenyl-2-vinylcyclobutanone 284a with 2 equivalents of Li-sec Bu₃BH ¹⁵¹ in THF at --78 °C produced a mixture of diastereomeric cyclobutanol salts, which rearranged to 4-phenyl-3-cyclohexenol 286a upon warming to room temperature. On the other hand, upon reduction of 2-methyl-2vinylcyclobutanone 284b with Li- or K-sec Bu₃BH, the system resisted rearrangement even at 70 °C in the presence of hexamethylphosphoric triamide. However, when this mixture was treated with a slight excess of methyllithium, the resulting salts underwent smooth rearrangement to 286b ¹⁵²; alternatively, when 284b was treated directly



with 1.15 equiv. each of Li-sec-Bu₃BH and CH₃Li in THF-H₂O-HMPT (9:1:5) at 70 °C for 7 hr, 4-methyl-3-cyclohexenol 286 b was obtained in 72% yield, Eq. (82) ¹⁴².

Apparently, the borate complex 285a, b generated by reduction of 284b was stable to the rearrangement; methyllithium served to liberate the more reactive free lithium alkoxide. In fact, this rearrangement was effected in good yield at room temperature by employing the potassium vinylcyclobutanol salts, readily generated by reaction of 2-vinylcyclobutanones with 1.15 equivalents each of Li-sec-Bu₃BH and CH₃Li in the presence of excess potassium ethoxide in THF—H₂O—HMPT ¹⁴²⁾.

The utility of this stepwise $C_3 \rightarrow C_4 \rightarrow C_6$ ring expansion has been demonstrated by the synthesis of the optically active eudesmane sesquiterpene (—)- β -selinene 295 starting from the commercially available (—)-perillaldehyde 287¹⁵³. Thus, addition of the 1-lithio-1-methoxycyclopropane 136 (vide supra, Sect. 4.6.3, Eq. (44)) to 287,



Scheme 5. Synthesis of (-)- β -selinene ¹⁵³⁾

Reagents: a) THF, $-78 \,^{\circ}C$; b) 48% aq. HBF₄, THF, 25 °C, 15 mn, 67%; c) LiAlH₄, Et₂O, 0 °C, 100%; d) KH, THF, reflux, 1 hr; e) MeCOMe, CrO₃; f) Al₂O₃, EtOAc-Hexane (3:97), 64.5% from 294; g) CuI, MeLi, Et₂O, BF₃-Et₂O, $-70 \,^{\circ}C$, 46%; h) NaH, DMSO, Ph₃PCH₃, Br⁻, 80 °C, 70 hr, 61%. followed by exposure of the crude product 288 to 5% HBF₄ in THF for 10 min, yielded the 2-vinylcyclobutanone 289. It is noteworthy that this type of rearrangement could be conducted under conditions that did not affect the sensitive isopropenyl group. Reduction of 289 with LiAlH₄ yielded the 2-vinylcyclobutanol 290 as a 18:82cis, trans mixture, which upon treatment with potassium hydride in refluxing THF for 1 hr produced the cyclohexenol 291 by a base-induced $C_4 \rightarrow C_6$ ring expansion. Oxidation of 291 with Jones reagent yielded the nonconjugated enone 292 which was converted to the conjugated enone 293 in 64.5% yield from 290 by rapid passage through a short column of basic alumina. Conjugate addition of a methyl group, accomplished by the use of CH₃CuBF₃¹⁵⁴⁾ yielded the ketone 294 (as a mixture of two stereoisomers with one highly predominating), in 46.6% yield. Finally, Wittig olefination in DMSO according to a procedure known to convert a cis-trans mixture of such decalones to the trans epimer ¹⁵⁵, converted the ketone 294 into the optically active ([α]_D = -49.5° [c = 6.55, hexane]) (-)- β -selinene 295 contaminated with only about 5% of an isomer as shown by capillary G.C., (Scheme 5) ¹⁵³.

This type of rearrangement was even capable of counteracting the aromaticity of the furan ring. Thus, the adduct 296 of 1-methoxycyclopropyllithium 136 to furfural was rearranged with 5% HBF₄ in THF without much destruction of the sensitive furan ring. The resulting 2-(2-furfuryl)cyclobutanone 297 obtained in 54% yield from 136, was reduced with LiAlH₄ to the cyclobutanol 298a, and this compound was treated with potassium hydride to yield the furanocyclohexenol 299, albeit in modest yield; the tertiary alcohol 298b, from the addition of MeLi to 297, led, however, under identical conditions exclusively to fragmentation products, Eq. (83) ¹⁵³.



The stereoselective preparation of the decalol diene 305, which is a model compound for an important intermediate in the synthesis of Compactin ¹⁵⁶), the inhibitor of a key step in the cholesterol biosynthesis ¹⁵⁷), has also been achieved following this strategy. Thus, 1,3-cyclohexadiene-2-carboxaldehyde 300 was reacted with 136 to give the cyclopropylcarbinol 301, which was rearranged to the acid sensitive cyclobutanone 302 in dilute acid, in 52% overall yield from 300. Then, the major reduction product obtained from 302 with LiAlH₄, *i.e.*, the trans-cyclobutanol 303, underwent $C_4 \rightarrow C_6$ ring enlargement in the presence of KH in refluxing THF to give the axial and equatorial cyclohexenols 305 and 306 in a ratio of 92:8. The cis-cyclobutanol 304, formed uncontaminated with the trans-isomer 303 by reduction with K-selectride, was reacted with KH under similar conditions to give the same cyclohexenols 305 and 306 in a ratio of 72:28. Thus, the readily available 2-(1,3-cyclohexadien-2-yl)-cyclobutanone 302, provided rather stereoselectively and efficiently the compound 305, a precursor to compactin (Scheme 6) ¹⁵³.



Scheme 6. Synthesis of a compactin precursor ¹⁵³⁾ Reagents: a) THF, -78 °C; b) 48% HBF₄, THF, 0 °C, 20 min. 52%; c) LiAlH₄, Et₂O, 0 °C, 93%; d) KH, THF, reflux, 1 hr, 93%.

5.3.3. Thermal

Reaction of $\alpha(n$ -butylthiomethylene) cyclohexanone 307 with 1-phenylthiocyclopropyllithium 116a did afford the desired adduct 308a efficiently, but, the expected $C_3 \rightarrow C_4$ ring expansion into cyclobutanone 310 could not be effected cleanly, probably because the intermediate cation 309a was more stable than its analogue without the



sulfur atom ^{61, 62}. Better results were obtained by the use of 1-methoxycyclopropyllithium 136 providing 308b which, upon treatment with a 48% aqueous HBF₄ solution in THF (1:4) ⁷³, led via 309b to the spirocyclobutanone 310 in 64% yield. The derivative of the cyclobutanone chosen for the $C_4 \rightarrow C_6$ ring expansion was the easily prepared, trimethylsilyl cyanohydrin 311, which had the requisite electron withdrawing group ¹⁵⁸. Thus, 310, was mixed with 1.5 equivalents of trimethylsilylcyanide (TMSCN) and a catalytic amount of ZnI₂; the resulting mixture was added to anhydrous diglyme and refluxed for 2.5 hr to give, after treatment with *n*-Bu₄N⁺F⁻ the cyclohexenone 312 in 59% yield (Eq. 84)) ¹⁵⁹.

5.4 Involving $C_3 \rightarrow C_4 \rightarrow C_8$ Ring Expansions

5.4.1. Base Induced

There are several important classes of natural products, which contain eight-membered rings, but, owing to unfavorable entropic factors as well as large increases in enthalpy resulting from transannular and torsional strain, the syntheses of cyclooctanes from acyclic precursors were only marginally successful ¹⁶⁰. Recently a novel and versatile cyclooctane synthesis has been developed, based upon the anionic oxy-Cope rearrangement of 1,2-dialkenylcyclobutanols, now readily available from 2-vinylcyclobutanones, products of $C_3 \rightarrow C_4$ ring expansions of 1-donor substituted cyclopropane derivatives. For instance, reaction of 2-methyl 2-(2-methylpropen-1-yl)cyclobutanone 313^{63,73} with vinyllithium afforded essentially the trans-divinylcyclobutanol 314 in nearly quantitative yield. Treatment of 314 with potassium hydride in THF at room temperature resulted in rapid rearrangement to the (Z)- and (E)cyclooctenones 315 and 316, in a 79/21 ratio, which were isolated in 62% overall yield from the cyclobutanone 313 (Eq. (85))¹⁶¹.



The facile rearrangement of these cyclobutanols was somewhat surprising in view of the observation that trans-1,2-divinylcyclobutanes do not undergo Cope rearrangement, but instead react predominantly via [1,3])-shift processes at elevated temperatures ¹⁶². It is reasonable to assume that 314 is a trans-dialkenylcyclobutanol and that the rearrangement to cyclooctenones presumably occurred via initial isomerization to the cis-isomer and subsequent Cope rearrangement, since no products resulting from [1,3]-rearrangements were detected in these reactions ¹⁶². More readily,

after reaction of 5-methylenespiro[3.5]nonan-1-one 317 with vinyllithium a mixture of bicyclo[6.4.0]dodec-1(8)-en-4-one 320 and 5-(2-methyl-1-cyclohexen-1-yl)-1-penten-3-one 321 was isolated in 78% yield and in a ratio of 44/56; presumably, 320 was formed via the rapid oxy-Cope rearrangement of the intermediate cis-divinylcyclobutanol 318, while the ring-opened ketone 321 was produced via a retro-ene reaction of the intermediate trans divinylcyclobutanol 319, Eq. (86) ¹⁶¹.



Whatever the case, the formation of the cyclooctenone 320 from the cyclobutanone 317 constituted the first example of a one-step $C_4 \rightarrow C_8$ ring expansion. In the same way, the spirocyclobutanone 266^{63,73}, was treated with vinylmagnesium bromide to generate a mixture of the diastereomeric cyclobutanols 322 and 323 in 78% yield (ratio 21/79). Each diastereomer, separated by HPLC, individually subjected to KH in THF at room temperature, rearranged cleanly to bicyclo[5.3.1]undec-1(11)-en-4-one in 80% yield, Eq. (87)¹⁶¹.



5.4.2. Thermal

This methodology has been illustrated by the total synthesis of poitediol 334, a sesquiterpene diol isolated from the red seaweed Laurencia Poitei ¹⁶³. Thus, stereoselective reduction of the cyclohexenone 325 with DIBAH in Et₂O at -100 °C and cyclopropanation ¹⁶⁴) afforded in 60% yield a separable mixture of norcaranols 326 a, b (8:1 ratio). Oxidation of the major compound with PCC in CH₂Cl₂ ¹⁰⁷) and addition of vinylmagnesium bromide gave the norcaranol 327 (77% yield), which

underwent quantitative $C_3 \rightarrow C_4$ ring expansion to the bicyclo[3.2.0]heptanone 328 upon treatment with 1 equivalent of $BF_3 \cdot Et_2O$. Addition of lithium acetylide gave the 1-alkynyl-2-vinylcyclobutanol 329 which, underwent unprecedented oxy-Cope rearrangement on simple heating in hexane at 50 °C for 4 hr to give in 55% yield the cycloocta-4,7-dien-3-one 330. Geminal dimethylation and carbonyl transposition were achieved by addition of methyllithium, oxidative rearrangement with PCC and reaction with dimethylcuprate to afford the enone 331 in 74% overall yield. Reduction with DIBAH in ether at -78 °C and benzylation followed by epoxidation with MCPBA afforded a 3:2 mixture of the isomeric epoxides 332, which were treated with LiEt₃BH. After separation, the suitable diastereomer of the corresponding alcohol was successively protected as a SEM ether ¹⁶⁵, debenzylated and oxidized (DMSO-(COCl)₂)¹⁰⁹⁾ to give the cyclooctanone 333 in 54% overall yield. Introduction of the α -methylene group was accomplished in 60% yield by enolate formation with LDA, quenching with formaldehyde and dehydration of the intermediate alcohol. Finally, reduction with DIBAH produced a separable 1:1 mixture of alcohols which were deprotected to afford (\pm) poitediol 334 and (\pm) -4-epi poitediol 335, (Scheme 7) 166).



Scheme 7. Synthesis of (\pm) poitediol ¹⁶⁶⁾

Reagents: a) DIBAH, Et₂O, $-100 \degree$ C; b) Et₂Zn, CH₂I₂, toluene, 60 °C, 60%; c) PCC, CH₂Cl₂; d) CH₂=CHMgBr, THF, 77%; e) BF₃-Et₂O, 99%; f) LiC≡CH, THF, $-30 \degree$ C, 5 min; g) hexane, 50 °C, 4 h, 50–60%; h) MeLi, Et₂O, $-78 \degree$ C; i) PCC, CH₂Cl₂; k) LiMe₂Cu, Me₂S, Et₂O; l) DIBAH, Et₂O, $-78 \degree$ C; m) KH, THF, PCH₂Br; n) MCPBA, CHCl₃; o) LiEt₃BH, THF; p) SEMCl, i-Pr₂NEt, THF, 50 °C q) Na, NH₃; r) (COCl)₂, Me₂SO, $-78 \degree$ C, 54%; s) LDA, THF, CH₂O; t) Me₃SiCl, i-Pr₂NEt, 60%; u) DIBAH, hexane, $-78 \degree$ C; v) 0.1 M HCl, MeOH.

5.5 Involving $C_3 \rightarrow C_5$ Ring Expansions

5.5.1 Introduction

The thermal vinylcyclopropane-cyclopentene rearrangement was discovered by Neureiter in 1959 ¹⁶⁷⁾. After many mechanistic and theoretical studies ¹⁶⁸⁾, this thermal $C_3 \rightarrow C_5$ ring expansion was incorporated into many useful synthetic schemes. Various hetero analogues of the vinylcyclopropane system have also been investigated; the rearrangements of cyclopropyl ketones and cyclopropyl imines, for instance, provided useful synthetic methods to dihydrofurans and dihydropyrroles, respectively ^{169,170)}. Photochemical and transition metal promoted rearrangements of vinylcyclopropane shave also been emphasized ^{3,4)}. Although the thermal vinylcyclopropane rearrangement usually required a free energy of activation of 48 to 53 kcal/mol and occurred between 250–600 °C ¹⁶⁸⁾, dramatic acceleration has been obtained for the ring expansion of 2-alkoxy and 2-carbanion-substituted vinylcyclopropanes providing cyclopentenes with high yield and stereospecificity at 25 °C and --30 °C, respectively ¹⁷¹.

This section is concerned only with the thermal rearrangements of 1-trimethylsiloxy, 1-alkoxy-, 1-phenylthio- and 1-trimethylsilylvinylcyclopropanes into cyclopentene derivatives, which occurred either on heating in the liquid phase (sealed tube) at about 300 °C for 30 min, or by passing through a conditioned hot tube at 300 °C with a contact time of 4 sec or by flash thermolysis at 600 °C for 10 m sec³⁾.

5.5.2 Via 1-Trimethylsiloxyvinylcyclopropanes

It has been shown that 1-vinylcyclopropanols underwent thermal rearrangement into cyclobutanones (*vide supra*, Sect. 5.1.1, Eq. (68))⁴¹, an alternate pathway, however, was followed with a trimethylsilyl protected hydroxyl group providing the regiospecific formation of a silyl enol ether of a cyclopentanone. Moreover, the 1-trimethylsiloxy group on the cyclopropane ring appeared to facilitate the rearrangement by 5 kcal/mol¹⁷², whereas it hampered the rearrangement by 3 kcal/mol when placed on the double bond of the vinylcyclopropane system ¹⁷³. This driving substituent effect of the siloxy group was illustrated by the thermal rearrangement of the 1-(2-cyclopropylvinyl)-1-trimethylsiloxycyclopropane 336, which led exclusively to the 3-cyclopropylcyclopentanone silyl enol ether 337, although two vinylcyclopropane moities could *a priori* be involved in the rearrangement, the isomer 338 was not obtained, Eq. (88) ¹⁵.



Acid or base hydrolysis of the thermolysis products, *i.e.*, the 1-siloxycyclopentenes, unmasked the carbonyl group and provided the corresponding cyclopentanones ^{15, 43, 174}, while dehydrosilylation led to cyclopentenones ^{58, 92}. On the other hand, treatment either with methyllithium ¹⁷⁵, n-butyllithium ¹⁷⁶ or lithium amide in ammonia ¹³⁸ allowed the generation of the corresponding lithium enolates, which could then be alkylated regiospecifically to introduce further alkyl groups leading to 2,3-disubstituted cyclopentanones. Alternatively, the cyclopentanone enol silyl ethers have also been alkylated directly in the presence of Lewis acids ¹⁷⁷.

Because of the discovery of a growing number of naturally occurring substances of biological importance that contain the five-membered ring moiety ¹⁷⁸, the synthesis of cyclopentanoid compounds is a subject of present interest. Indeed, among the various approaches recently investigated, the thermal vinylcyclopropane-cyclopentene rearrangement of readily available 1-siloxy-1-vinylcyclopropanes (*vide supra*, Sect. 4.1.5) constitutes an efficient three-carbon annelation process ¹⁷⁹.

5.5.2.1. From the Cyclopropanone Hemiacetal

Aside from the ready preparation of some α,β -disubstituted cyclopentanones, the utility of the cyclopropanone hemiacetal approach has been illustrated by the total synthesis of the methyl ester of 11-deoxyprostaglandin E₂ 342¹⁵). Towards this end, 1-trimethylsilylbutadiynylcyclopropanol 13, readily available from the cyclopropanone hemiacetal 3 (vide supra, Sect. 2.1, Eq. (6)) was successively treated with dihydropyran in CH₂Cl₂ in the presence of 10% mol. equiv. of PPTS ¹⁰¹). Desilylation by potassium fluoride in DMF ¹³⁸), formation of the lithium salt with *n*-BuLi and condensation with hexanal gave the propargylic alcohol 339 in 64% overall yield. The



Scheme 8. Synthesis of (\pm) 11-deoxyprostaglandin E_2 methyl ester ¹⁵⁾ Reagents: a) DHP, PPTS, HCCl₃, 100%; b) KF, 2 H₂O, DMF, 91%; c) *n*-BuLi, THF, CH₃(CH₂)₄CHO, 70%; d) EtOH, PPTS, 55 °C, 95%; e) LiAlH₄, THF, 65 °C, 86.5%; f) ClSiMe₃, NEt₃, DMSO, 82,5%; g) Flash vacuum pyrolysis at 600 °C, 100%; h) NH₂Li, NH₃, methyl cis-7-bromo-5-heptenoate, 44.5%.

conversion of 339 to 1-trimethylsiloxy-1-(5-trimethylsiloxydeca-1,3 dienyl) cyclopropane 340 involved the removal of the THP protecting group ¹⁰¹), and lithium aluminum hydride reduction of the two triple bonds followed by double silylation in the presence of DMSO ¹⁸⁰. Flash thermolysis of 340 at 600 °C provided the prostaglandin precursor 341 in nearly quantitative yield (~95%); the overall yield from 13 was 44%. Finally the lithium enolate generated in liquid ammonia by reaction of 341 with lithium amide ¹³⁸) was alkylated with a four-fold excess of methyl (Z)-7bromo-5-heptenoate to yield a *ca*. 50:50 diastereomeric mixture of the 11-deoxyprostaglandin E₂ methyl esters 342 and its C₁₅-epimer, (Scheme 8) ¹⁵).

It is noteworthy that the regio- and stereoselectivity of the allylation of 341 was recently improved by using the Pd-catalyzed coupling reaction of the corresponding lithium cyclopentenolate-BEt₃ complex with the appropriate (Z)-allylic acetate, which provided 342 in 74% yield ¹⁷⁶.

5.5.2.2 From Oxaspiropentane

Ring opening of the oxaspiropentane 343 upon treatment with sodium phenylselenide (vide supra, Sect. 4.5, Eq. (34))⁵⁹⁾ and O-silylation produce the vinylcyclopropanol trimethylsilyl ether 344 which, on flash thermolysis at 670 °C, gave the siloxycyclopentene 345 as a 2:1 mixture of epimers at C₍₈₎. Then, allylation of the more substituted enolate arising from 345, opens a convenient way to the antitumor agent, aphidicolin 346¹⁸¹).



Scheme 9. Synthesis of (\pm) aphidicolin¹⁸¹⁾

5.5.2.3 From 1-Hydroxycyclopropylcarbonyl Derivatives

It has been shown that 1-hydroxycyclopropanecarboxaldehyde derivatives 171 underwent Wittig olefination with cyclohexylidenephosphorane (vide supra, Sect. 4.7,

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Eq. (55)); the O-silylated derivative $^{180)}$, (contrary to the corresponding oxaspiropentane *110* (*vide supra*, Sect. 3.5, Eq. (33)) readily led to the 1-siloxyvinylcyclopropane *111*, which upon thermolysis regioselectively gave the silyl enol ether of spiro[4.5]-decan-2-one *347*, Eq. (89) 111).



The spiro compound 347 constitutes the basic carbon framework found in sesquiterpenes of the spirovetivane and acorane class ¹⁸⁴, which have been the target of many syntheses ¹⁸⁵. The thermal $C_3 \rightarrow C_5$ ring expansion $111 \rightarrow 347$ was of



Scheme 10. Synthesis of a Spirovetivane ¹¹¹

Reagents: a) Et_2O , 0 °C; b) i, Ac₂O, pyridine, r.t.; ii, DBN, C₆H₆, 80 °C, 24 h, 73 %; c) i, LDA, DMF, 0 °C; ii, ClSiMe₃, NEt₃, 0 °C, 100 %; d) F.V.T., 600 °C; e) NEt₃, MeOH, 30 °C; f) i, IMgCH₃, Et₂O; ii, pTsOH, C₆H₆, 80 °C, 70 %. particular advantage in that it directly provided a spiroketone with the carbonyl group in the 2-position as found in spirovetivanes such as 355. The latter is a constituent of Vetiver oil and plays a significant role in the reconstitution of this essential oil; in addition it constitutes a particularly convenient intermediate for the synthesis of biogenetically related spirovetivanes of economic importance such as α -vetispirene, β -vetivone, hinesol, agarospirol, etc. ¹⁸⁶

The stereoselective total synthesis of the challenging spiroketone 355 has been achieved from 1-(t-butyldimethylsiloxy)cyclopropanecarboxaldehyde 171 c (vide supra, Sect. 4.7, Eq. (55)). Thus, trapping of the enolate anion 348 resulting from the cuprous iodide-catalyzed addition of methylmagnesium iodide to 2-cyclohexen-1-one with 171 c afforded the ketol 349, which was treated with successively acetic anhydride in pyridine and with 1,5-diazabicyclo[4.3.0]non-5-ene in refluxing benzene, to produce the enone 350 in 73% overall yield from 171 c. Ketone 350 was converted into the silyl enol ether 351 upon reaction with lithium diisopropylamide in DME and trimethylsilyl chloride in NEt₃ at 0 °C. Flash thermolysis at 600 °C quantitatively gave a mixture of the spirocyclic bissilyl enol ethers 352 (78 %) with the desired stereochemistry and 353 (22%), resulting from the preferential rearrangement to the less sterically shielded side of the six-membered ring of 351. On the other hand, flash thermolysis of the enone 350 produced a substantial amount of desilylated derivatives of 352 and 353. Highly chemoselective desilylation to the epimeric cyclohexanones 354 was achieved upon treatment with 0.1 M triethylamine in methanol ¹⁸⁷⁾ at 30 °C for 48 hr. Finally addition of methylmagnesium iodide, followed by dehydration of the corresponding epimeric alcohols and desilylation on treatment with p-toluenesulfonic acid in refluxing benzene provided a mixture of spiroenones, from which the expected spiroenone 355 was isolated in 70 % yield, (Scheme 10) ¹¹¹).

The accessibility to 2,3-disubstituted — and 4,5-disubstituted 2-cyclopentanones by this thermal $C_3 \rightarrow C_5$ ring expansion has been illustrated by the syntheses of dihydrojasmone ⁹², cis-Jasmone ⁹² and dicranenone A ¹⁸⁸.

Jasmonoïds, important raw materials in the perfume industry, are among the best known and most often synthetized members of the cyclopentanoïd class, because these simple compounds incorporate the 2,3-dialkylated cyclopentanone and cyclo-



Scheme 11. Synthesis of Dihydrojasmone⁹²⁾

Reagents: a) EtOH, PPTS, 55 °C, 6 h, 100 %; b) ClSiMe₃, NEt₃, DMSO, 96 %; c) F.V.T. 600 °C; d) 0.5 equiv. of Pd(OAc)₂, 0.5 equiv. of p-benzoquinone, CH₃CN, 92 %.

pentenone units found in a large number of biologically active natural products. Dihydrojasmone for example, was also prepared from the readily available 1-hydroxy vinylcyclopropane derivative 177 (vide supra, Sect. 4.7, Eq. (57)). Thus, removal of the THP protecting group ¹⁰¹⁾ and 0-silylation ¹⁸⁰⁾ gave a E,Z mixture of the disubstituted 1-trimethylsiloxy 1-vinylcyclopropane 356. Flash thermolysis at 600 °C of the isomeric olefins mixture produced exclusively the cyclopentanone silyl enol ether 357 which, on treatment with palladium acetate and p-benzoquinone yielded dihydrojasmone 358 in 88% overall yield from 177b, (Scheme 11) ⁹²⁾.

The synthesis of cis-jasmone from the aldehyde 171b was realized as shown in Scheme 12. First of all, 171b was treated with ethylidenetriphenylphosphorane to produce the (E,Z)-olefin 359a, cleavage of the THP group ¹⁰¹ and O-silylation ¹⁸⁰ led to the 1-trimethylsiloxy-1-vinylcyclopropane 359b in 92% overall yield. Flash thermolysis gave the 3-methyl-1-trimethylsiloxycyclopentene 360 and addition of phenylselenenyl bromide ¹⁸⁹ the 3-methyl-2-phenylselenocyclopentanone 361. Treatment of crude 361 with LDA in THF containing 2 equivalents of HMPA followed by alkylation with cis 2-pentenyl bromide resulted in the formation of cyclopentanone 362 in 89% overall yield. Unfortunately, oxidative elimination of the α -selenocyclopentanone 362 gave a mixture of endo and exocyclic enones; however, this defect was easily corrected by the procedure of Liotta which allows the isomerization 362 \rightarrow 363 upon treatment with LDA in THF-HMPA at -78 °C ¹⁹⁰. Elimination by a two phase system containing methylene chloride and 30% hydrogen peroxide gave the cyclopentenone 364 which was isomerized to jasmone 365 by sodium methoxide in methanol, (Scheme 12) ⁹².





Reagents: a) $CH_3CH=P(C_6H_5)_3$; THF, reflux, 18 h, 84%; b) EtOH, PPTS, 55 °C; c) ClSiMe₃, NEt₃, DMSO, 92%; d) FVT, 600 °C; e) C_6H_5SeBr , Et_2O , -78 °C; f) LDA, THF, HMPA, *cis* 2-pentanyl bromide, -78 °C, 2 hr, r.t., 15 hr, 89%; g) LDA, THF, HMPA, -78 °C; h) 30% H_2O_2 , CH_2Cl_2 ; i) NaOCH₃, CH_3OH , r.t., 83%.

The dicranenones, which constitute a new class of fatty acids containing a cyclopentenone ring with a structural similarity to prostanoids and jasmonoids, have recently been isolated from Japanese mosses, and possess antimicrobial activities ¹⁹¹. With respect to the synthesis of dicranenone A, the ethyl-E-3-(1-tetrahydropyranyl-oxycyclopropyl)prop-2-enoate 219, readily available from the aldehyde 171b (vide supra, Sect. 5.11, Scheme 1), was successively deprotected (EtOH, PPTS ¹⁰¹) and 0-trimethylsilylated (ClSiMe₃, NEt₃, DMSO ¹⁸⁰). Reduction of the ester group with DIBAH and silylation of the resulting allylic alcohol led to the (E)-disiloxyvinyl-cyclopropane 366 in 78% overall yield from 219. Upon flash thermolysis at 600 °C, 366 underwent quantitative, regiospecific ring expansion into the cyclopentenol silyl ether 367. Alkylation of 367 with (Z)-pent-2-enylbromide in the presence of zinc bromide ¹⁹¹) gave the expected 2-allylcyclopentanone in only 20–40% yield. In an alternative approach, however, the copper salt-catalyzed cyclopropanecarboxylate



Scheme 13. Synthesis of (\pm) dicranenone A ¹⁸⁸⁾

Reagents: a) EtOH, PPTS, 55 °C, 95%; b) Me₃SiCl, NEt₃, DMSO, 98%; c) iBu₂AlH, Toluene, -60 °C; d) ClSit-BuMe₂, imidazole, DMF, 20 h, 93%; e) 600 °C; f) Cu(MeCOCH₂COMe)₂, C₆H₆, 80 °C, ethyl diazoacetate, 75%; g) EtOH, ClSiMe₃, r.t. 12 hr, 99%; h) HOCH₂CH₂OH, C₆H₆, pTsOH, 80 °C; i) ClSitBuMe₂; j) LiAlH₄, THF; j) LiAlH₄, THF, 65 °C, 1 h; h) DMSO, (COCl)₂; l) EtCH=PPh₃, 73%; m) pTsCl, pyridine, 0 °C, 82%; n) LiBr, Me₂CO reflux, 12 hr, 92%; o) LiC \equiv CH-NH₂CH₂CH₂NH₂, (1.5 equiv.) DMSO, 8 °C; p) *n*-BuLi, THF, 0 °C, I-(CH₂)₄R, 23%; q) : i, *n*-BuLi, THF, 0 °C; ii, B[(CH₂)₅OTHP]₃, THF; iii, I₂, ether -78 °C, 61%; r) : i, CH₃COOH/H₂O/THF 6.5:2.5:1.0, 45 °C; ii, DHP, pTsOH, CH₂Cl₂, r.t., 80%; s) i, LDA, THF, -78 °C; ii, PhSeCl; iii, H₂O₂, pyridine, CH₂Cl₂, r.t., 55%; t) i, p-TsOH, CH₃OH, r.t., 82%; ii, CrO₃-H₂SO₄, acetone, -20 °C, 94%. Jacques R. Y. Salaün

368 in 75% yield. On simple addition to ethanol acidified by a drop of ClSiMe₃, 368 underwent desilylation and regiospecific opening of the cyclopropane ring to afford the γ -keto ester 369. Acetalization with ethylene glycol in the presence of PPTS ¹⁰¹, followed by reduction and oxidation gave, after Wittig olefination of the corresponding aldehyde with salt-free *n*-propylidenetriphenylphosphorane 194 , the acetal 370 a in 73% overall yield from 369. Tosylation and treatment with lithium bromide in acetone, followed by acetylenation with the lithium acetylide ethylenediamine complex in DMSO ¹⁹⁵⁾ led to the propyne derivative 370c in 85% yield. Alkylation of the terminal acetylenic carbon with the ortho-ester prepared from 5-iodopentanoic acid chloride and 3-methyl-3-hydroxymethyloxetane ¹⁹⁶⁾ gave the orthoester 371a in 23% yield ¹⁸⁸), while alkylation with tris[5-(tetrahydropyran-2-yloxy)pentyl]borane followed by oxidation with iodine gave 371 b in 61 % yield ¹⁹¹⁾. Final steps toward the dicranenone A 372 involved introduction of the double bond at the required position in the five-membered ring; thus, for instance the cyclopentanone obtained after deacetalization of 371 b was treated with LDA at -78 °C and the corresponding kinetic enolate ¹⁹⁷⁾ was trapped with PhSeCl and oxidized with hydrogen peroxide 198). After removal of the THP group (p-TsOH, CH₃OH, r.t.) and oxidation with Jones reagent, the racemic dicranenone A 372 was obtained in 34% overall yield from 371b, (Scheme 13) 188).

5.5.3 Via 1-Phenylthiovinylcyclopropanes

As shown in Eq. (35) (vide supra, Sect. 4.6.1) 1-arylthiocyclopropyllithium 116 reacted with carbonyl compounds to provide, after dehydration, 1-arylthiovinylcyclopropane derivatives which were also able to undergo thermal $C_3 \rightarrow C_5$ ring expansion to cyclopentenol thioethers ⁶²⁾. In principle, these enol thioethers can be desulfurized to yield regiospecifically generated cyclopentenes ¹⁹⁹⁾, hydrolyzed to give regiospecifically generated cyclopentenones ²⁰⁰⁾ or hydrogenated to cyclopentanes. The regioselectivity of this annelation process which parallels that based upon the oxaspiropentane intermediate (vide supra, Sect. 5.5.2.2) and its high stereoselectivity which enhanced the utility of this approach have been discussed in a recent review on this topic ^{63 b)}. The thermal rearrangement of β -(1-phenylthio)cyclopropylenones, however, was shown to afford a mixture of cyclopentenoïd products. For instance, all attempts to effect the thermal ring expansion of 373, a precursor of the challenging spiro[4.5]decane skeleton (vide supra, Sect. 5.5.2.3) gave at best a 9% yield of the incompletely characterized phenylthiocyclopentene 374, Eq. (90) ⁶⁴⁾. (For comparison see Eq. (89) and Scheme 10).



5.5.4 Via 1-Trimethylsilylcyclopropanes

Contrary to the accelerating effect of the trimethylsiloxy group (vide supra, Sect. 5.5.2, Eq. (88), the trimethylsilyl group retarded the thermal vinylcyclopropane rearrangement, as it exerts a destabilizing effect on the diradical formed after rupture of the cyclopropane ring ²⁰¹). Consequently, on the pyrolysis of 1-cyclopropyl-1-(1-trimethylsilylcyclopropyl)ethylene 375, the opening of the unsubstituted three-membered ring was kinetically favored to initially lead to 376 and ultimately to 377; the intermediate vinylsilane 378 and allylsilane 379 involving initial rearrangement of the silylcyclopropane moiety were not observed, indicating clearly that $k_H \gg k_{Si}$, Eq. 91) ^{81, 202}.



Under controlled conditions, vinylsilanes such as 377 undergo regioselective electrophilic substitutions. Thus, acetylation by means of acetyl chloride and aluminum chloride in CH₂Cl₂ at -78 °C afforded 380, while bromination led to the vinyl bromide 381. Epoxidation with m-chloroperbenzoic acid efficiently transformed 377 into a 60:40 mixture of the epimers of 382, Eq. (92)⁸²⁾.



Furthermore, such vinylcyclopropanes have also successfully been used for the stereoselective construction of quaternary carbon centers such as those which occur in many spirovetivane-type-sesquiterpenes ¹⁸⁴). Thus, the (Z)-1-[1-(trimethylsilylcyclopropyl)methylenel-2.6-dimethyl-2-cyclohexene 160, readily available from the 1-trimethylsilylcyclopropanecarboxaldehyde 156 (vide supra, Sect. 4.6.4, Eq. (51)), underwent thermal bond reorganization upon heating to 560 °C in a tube packed with quartz chip to yield a 4:1 mixture of the spirocyclic vinylsilanes 383 and 384. The predominance of 383 signalled again preferential rearrangement to the less sterically shielded side of the six-membered ring of 160^{89,91} (vide supra, Sect. 5.5.2.3, Scheme 10). Various attempts to acylate 383 chemospecifically at its vinylsilane center under Friedel-Crafts conditions failed; similarly exposure to bromine, iodine, cyanogen bromide and dichloromethyl methylether-TiCl₄²⁰³⁾ led only to formation of tarry products ⁹¹⁾. Since α , β -epoxysilanes can usually be converted into carbonyl compounds ²⁰⁴), the synthesis of 386 was pursued as a possible route to the challenging spirovetivane 355. To this end, epoxidation of 383 and 384 with 3 equivalents of m-chloroperbenzoic acid in CH₂Cl₂ provided the diepoxide 385. Selective cleavage of the cyclohexane-annellated oxirane ring was accomplished by treating 385 with diphenyl diselenide and sodium borohydride in ethanol 205 , the resulting β -hydroxy selenide then underwent reductive elimination 2061 to afford 386 in 45 % yield. Unfortunately, a variety of protic and Lewis acid catalysts known for their efficiency in transforming α , β epoxysilanes to carbonyl compounds ²⁰⁴⁾ did not give the expected spirocyclopentanone 355 (For comparison see Scheme 10). In related studies, coppermediated reactions of isopropenyl magnesium bromide and isopropenyllithium with 386 gave no evidence of coupling product, Eq. (93)⁹¹⁾.



However, an efficient synthesis of the spirovetivane-sesquiterpene α -Vetispirene 392 was achieved initiating the cleavage of the silicon-cyclopropane carbon bond of 160 by fluoride ion. This was effected with anhydrous tetra-*n*-butyl ammonium fluoride in THF solution containing acetone at reflux temperature for 10 hr. The pentadienyl anion 387 thus generated experienced highly regioselective addition of acetone at the

cyclopropyl carbon atom, thereby avoiding the development of methylenecyclopropane moiety and providing the isomerically pure alcohol 388 in 90% yield. Subsequent conversion to the methyl ether 389 with sodium hydride and methyl iodide, thermal $C_3 \rightarrow C_5$ ring expansion at 440 °C produced a 5:1 mixture of the cyclopentenes 390 and 391 in quantitative yield, which upon exposure to p-toluenesulfonic acid in benzene for 25–30 min at 5–20 °C yielded a mixture of the (±)- α -vetispirene 392 and its C₁₀-epimer (ratio 5:1), (Scheme 14) ^{89,91}).



Scheme 14. Synthesis of (\pm) - α -vetispirene

Reagents: a) $Bu_4N^+F^-$, CH_3COCH_3 , THF, reflux, 10 hr, 90%; b) :i, NaH, THF, HMPT, -20 °C; ii, CH_3I, 0 °C, 100%; c) pTsOH, C₆H₆, 10 °C, 5 hr, 100%.

5.5.5 Miscellaneous

Metal-promoted vinylcyclopropane $C_3 \rightarrow C_5$ ring expansions have been reported. Thus, ethyl 2-methoxy-2-vinylcyclopropanecarboxylate 393 rearranged to a 2:1 mixture of 3-methoxy-2-cyclopentenecarboxylate 396 and 3-methoxy-3-cyclopentenecarboxylate 397 on heating at 160 °C in the presence of catalytic amounts of copper bronze or copper(I) chloride; in contrast, platinum and rhodium complexes catalyzed



the ring opening with subsequent H-migration to yield the ethyl 4-methoxy-3,5hexadienoate 398. This dichotomy and the production of both 396 and 397, rather than only the vinylcyclopropane-cyclopentene rearrangement product 397 was consistent with the generation of the intermediate 395 from the initially formed η^3 -allyl metal hydride complex 394 ²⁰⁷ (Eq. (94)) ²⁰⁸.

The dicyclopropyl ketimine 198 prepared from the O,N-cyclopropanone hemiacetal 194 (vide supra, Sect. 4.9, Eq. (62)), heated in xylene with ammonium chloride for 4 hr underwent ring expansion exclusively to the enamine 399 followed by isomerization to the cyclopropyl pyrroline 400. Although further ring expansion was not observed on prolonged heating, 400 was converted to the hydrobromide 401 with anhydrous HBr ²⁰⁹ which upon heating to 140 °C for 10 min experienced a second cyclopropyl imine rearrangement to provide the pyrrolizidone 403 in 51 % yield, most probably via the HBr adduct 401 by cyclization to the pyrroline 402 followed by acid-induced hydrolysis, Eq. (95) ¹²⁹.



This sequence opened a route to pyrrolizidines that are of obvious interest in natural product synthesis. The effects of substituents in determining the preferred opening (A versus B) of the cyclopropyl rings of the dicyclopropyl ketimines 404 have been examined. Thus, on heating 404 a, b in refluxing xylene to 140 °C for 1.5-5 hr, in the presence of ammonium chloride, the pyrrolines 405 a, b were obtained exclusively through the rearrangement of the less substituted or thiophenyl-substituted cyclo-



propane rings (B), while with the substrate 404c a combination of steric and electronic factors yielded a mixture of products 405c and 406c (Eq. (96))^{129b)}.

A completely different result was obtained when the dicyclopropyl ketimines were subjected to acid-catalyzed thermolysis in the presence of a non-nucleophilic counterion. Thus, on heating 404a, b in xylene with the dimethyl ether complex of fluoroboric acid, both substrates underwent rearrangement to pyrrole derivatives 407a, b resulting from ring-opening of the cyclopropyl ring A containing the electron-releasing piperidino group, in disagreement with previous reports $^{209, 210}$, Eq. (97) 129b .

5.6 Involving Ring Openings

5.6.1 From Cyclopropyl Derivatives

It has been shown that the regioselective cyclopropanation of enol silvl ethers of α enones provided 1-donor substituted-vinylcyclopropanes which underwent baseinduced ring opening to provide specific α or α' -monomethylation of conjugated cycloalkenones (*vide supra*, Sect. 4.3, Eq. (25)). On the other hand, epoxidation (H₂O₂) and acid-induced (HCO₂H) ring opening of vinylcyclopropane derivatives have been used for the introduction of the allylic alcohol substituent of the prostaglandins PGE₁ and PGF₁²¹¹. Other useful synthetic applications of cyclopropane ring openings have been reviewed ³. It is noteworthy that 1-ethoxy-1-trimethylsiloxycyclopropane 2 can act as a synthetic equivalent of the β -anion of ethyl propionate ⁹⁹. Thus, addition of 2 to carbonyl compounds was readily achieved with the aid of one equivalent of titanium tetrachloride to provide γ -lactones in high yields ²¹²⁾. Zinc homoenolates of alkylpropionate 408 were also available from the reaction of 2 with zinc chloride



(98)

in ether; successive addition of a catalytic amount (5%) of CuBr—Me₂S complex, hexamethylphosphoric triamide (HMPT) and an unsaturated carbonyl compound at 0 °C led to the regiospecific silyl enol ether (>99%) of 6-oxo esters, such as 409. The addition of acyl chlorides under the same conditions led to 4-oxo esters 410^{213} . On the other hand, transmetalation of 408 with a catalytic amount of palladium (5%)of PdCl₂(o-Tol₃P)₂) and coupling reactions with aryl-, vinyl- or acyl halides in THF led to products 410 of homoenolate arylation, vinylation or acylation respectively, Eq. (98) ²¹⁴.

Although 2 was inert to tributyltin chloride ²¹⁵), reaction of the readily available 1-vinylcyclopropanols 69*a*, *b* (vide supra, Sect. 4.1) with trimethyl- or tributylstannyl chloride in ether in the presence of triethylamine and DMSO, resulted in ring opening and β -C-stannylation to provide the enone 411 Eq. (99) ²¹⁷). Under the same conditions, Me₃SiCl led to O-silylation exclusively ¹⁸⁰ (vide supra, Sect. 4.5.2.1, Scheme 8). Alkylation and acylation of these intermediates involving trans-metalation ²¹⁶) have been investigated.

5.6.2 From Cyclobutyl Derivatives

The utility of the ring opening of cyclobutanone derivatives has been demonstrated by the total synthesis of the sex pheromone grandisol ¹³⁹ (vide supra, Sect. 5.1.2, Scheme 2). In addition to uses discussed above, Baeyer-Villiger oxidation of cyclobutanones led to γ -butyrolactones ²¹⁸) which also constituted important precursor to cyclopentenones ²¹⁹. Anion-stabilizing groups such as phenyl, bromine, sulfur etc. at the α -position of a cyclobutanone facilitated the ring cleavage by nucleophiles including hydroxide, methoxide and methyllithium. This method allowed net replacement of the carbon-oxygen bonds of a carbonyl group by either C—H or C—R bonds (reductive alkylation) or by two C—R bonds (geminal bis-alkylation) in a highly stereoselective fashion ^{220, 221}. It has been utilized for instance to generate the methyl deoxypodocarpate 414, an important structural unit in many natural products. The key step of this synthesis involved the base induced cleavage of the ring of the α , α dithiocyclobutanone 412, prepared by spiroannelation of the suitable tricyclic ketone with the diphenylsulfonium cyclopropylide 103 (vide infra, Sect. 4.5, Eq. (30) followed by α -thioacetalisation ²²³. Then, hydrolysis of the dithiane 413 and decarbonylation



with Wilkinson's catalyst $^{224)}$ gave, in a highly stereoselective fashion, methyl deoxy-podocarpate 414, Eq. (100) $^{221)}$.

Addition of nucleophiles to 2-vinylcyclobutanone followed by epoxidation provided systems which underwent base-induced ring-opening with hydride, alkyl and aryl organometallic reagents as well as with ester enolates ⁶³. Among the various possible applications, this functional carbon chain elongation procedure has been used in cyclopentane synthesis. Thus, the aldol product of 1-arylthiocyclopropanecarboxaldehyde 119 with 3-(benzyloxy)octan-2-one was dehydrated to provide the vinylcyclopropane 415 (vide supra, Sect. 4.6.1, Eq. (36)). After reduction with DIBAH and *n*-BuLi the allylic alcohol 416 then underwent acid-induced $C_3 \rightarrow C_4$ ring expansion upon treatment with 48% HBF4 to the 2-vinylcyclobutanone 417 (vide supra, Sect. 5.1.2, Eq. (74)). Addition of the ester enolate prepared from methyl acetate and LDA followed by epoxidation with m-chloroperbenzoic acid gave the epoxide 418 which was directly fragmented upon treatment with methanolic magnesium methylate to give a 1:1 mixture of Z and E allylic alcohols 419⁶³⁾. Finally, direct reaction of 419 with boron trifluoride etherate in CH₂Cl₂ at 0 °C led to the O-alkylation product 420 which underwent smooth isomerization with bis(1,2-diphenylphosphinoethane)palladium in refluxing dioxane, in the presence of O,N-bis(trimethylsilyl) acetamide to avoid decarbomethoxylation ^{225, 226)} to provide cyclopentanone 421, the Roussel-Uclaf intermediate to prostaglandins PGA2²²⁷⁾ and PGE²²⁸⁾, opening a formal synthetic entry into PG's (for a comparable entry to prostanoids vide supra, Scheme 8)



Scheme 15. Synthesis of prostaglandin precursors ⁶³ Reagents: a) DIBAH, n-BuLi, THF, r.t., 98%; b) 48% HBF₄, Et₂O, 41%; c) LDA, MeOAc, Et₂O, -78 °C, 85%; d) MCPBA, CH₂Cl₂, r.t.; e) Mg(OCH₃)₂, MeOH, 2°C, 72 hr; f) BF₃--Et₂O, CH₂Cl₂, -78 °C, 0 °C, 45%; g) (DIPHOS)₂Pd, Me(Me₃SiO)C = SiMe₃, dioxane, reflux, 5 hr, 69%.

¹⁵⁾. Furthermore, a lactone related to 421 has been found to have hypotensive activity ²²⁹⁾ (Scheme 15) ⁶³⁾.

6 Conclusion

1-Donor substituted ethynylcyclopropanes have been prepared from the readily available cyclopropanone hemiacetal or from various sources of chlorovinyl-, chlorovinylidene- and ethynylcarbenes as well as from the thermal rearrangement of ethynyl vinyl oxiranes. Surprisingly unreactive towards acids, they undergo $C_3 \rightarrow C_4$ ring expansion only with *t*-butylhypochlorite or with metachloroperbenzoic acid; their thermal $C_3 \rightarrow C_5$ (C_6 or C_7) ring expansions required the presence of a 2-methyl or 2-vinyl substituent on the three-membered ring. The ring opening of the cyclopropyl cation could be completely avoided by delocalization of the positive charge through the adjacent triple bond.

1-Donor substituted vinylcyclopropanes appears to be much more attractive building blocks owing to their exceptional reactivity. Various routes have been developed towards these challenging compounds involving the simple nucleophilic addition to the cyclopropanone hemiacetal of vinylic- or acetylenic organometallic reagents followed by stereoselective hydride reduction, the iron induced cyclization of 1,3dichloroacetone adducts, the chemoselective Simmons-Smith cyclopropanation of α -enone silvl enol ethers, the dye sensitized photooxygenation of alkylidenecyclopropanes, the regioselective base induced ring opening of oxaspiropentanes, the nucleophilic addition of 1-heterosubstituted lithiocyclopropanes to carbonyl compounds followed by acid-induced dehydration, as well as the simple Wittig olefination with 1-hydroxycyclopropylcarbonyl compounds. While 1-vinylcyclopropanol and vinylogous derivatives undergo thermal or acid induced $C_3 \rightarrow C_4$ ring expansion leading to cyclobutanone derivatives under mild conditions, the rearrangement of 1-phenylthio-, 1-methyl (or phenyl) seleno- and 1-methoxyvinylcyclopropanes required more drastic conditions. It is worth noting that 2-vinylcyclobutanones are readily formed in this way and that these are efficient precursors of the C_5 , C_6 or C_8 homologous rings, which are formed by subsequent thermal, acid- and base-induced as well as photolytic rearrangements, as illustrated by the total synthesis of dihydrojasmone and a methylenomycin B precursor (C_5), of (-)- β -selinene and a compactin precursor (C_6) and of (-) poitediol (C_8) . From the synthetic point of view, the thermal vinylcyclopropane - cyclopentene ring expansion is also very useful; thus the accelerating substituent effect of the trimethylsiloxy group of O-silylated 1-vinylcyclopropanol derivatives allowed the chemo-, regio- and stereoselective formation of cyclopentenol silvl ethers leading to cyclopentanone, cyclopentenone and spiroketone derivatives which encompass an important class of biologically active substances, as illustrated by the total synthesis of (\pm) 11-deoxyprostaglandin E₂ methyl ester, of (\pm) aphidicolin, of a spirovetivane, of dihydrojasmone and cis-jasmone and of dicranenone A. Although the 1-arylthio-, and 1-trimethylsilylvinylcyclopropane derivatives, in general, also underwent the thermal $C_3 \rightarrow C_5$ ring expansion providing cyclopentenol thioethers and 1-trimethylsilylcyclopentene respectively, the final generation of the carbonyl group was more difficult compared to the simple methanolysis of a silyl enol ether.

The usefulness of the ring opening of these C_3 or C_4 derivatives has also been demonstrated by the regioselective α - or α' -monomethylation of the α -enones and by the highly stereoselective preparations of (\pm) grandisol and of (\pm) methyl deoxypodocarpate. The ring opening of these cyclopropanol derivatives induced by Lewis acids such as TiCl₄, ZnCl₂, Me₃SnCl, etc. allowing subsequent transmetalation also appears to be very promising. Now easily available, the 1-donor substituted vinylcyclopropanes therefore constitute highly recommendable building blocks.

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Donor-Acceptor-Substituted Cyclopropanes: Versatile Building Blocks in Organic Synthesis

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Syntheses and ring opening reactions of vicinally donor-acceptor-substituted cyclopropanes are treated in this review. Special attention is directed to methyl 2-siloxy cyclopropanecarboxylates which display an particularly rich and versatile chemistry leading to synthesis of polyfunctional compounds, certain carbocycles, and heterocyclic systems. Other classes of donor-acceptor-substituted cyclopropanes are also regarded emphasizing new developments. Although preparative aspects are strongly accentuated, interesting mechanistic features, characteristic for this type of three-membered rings, will also be discussed.

Donor-Acceptor-Substituted Cyclopropanes: Versatile Building Blocks in Organic Synthesis

1 Introduction

Reactions of cyclopropane derivatives activated by one type of functional group have been well understood and applied in organic synthesis for quite some time¹). The far-reaching analogy between reactivity of olefins and cyclopropanes can be explained by the π -type orbitals of strained three membered carbocycles and their interaction with the activating substituents^{2, 3}.

Therefore acceptor cyclopropanes I will be ring opened by nucleophiles N⁻ to provide products like 2 (homo Michael addition) as depicted in Eq. 1. On the other hand, electrophiles E⁺ cleave donor activated cyclopropanes 3 affording adducts 4 or 5 which demonstrates that the cyclopropane serves as a homoenolate equivalent in this sequence (Eq. 2). Seebach consequently classified these methods as umpolung with the cyclopropane "trick" ⁴.



Chemistry of cyclopropane derivatives, which combine different sorts of activating substituents, has less definitely been investigated and their synthetic potentials have only recently been explored. Whereas geminally donor-acceptor-substituted systems 6 were treated in preceeding contributions to this series ^{5, 6, 7)}, this review will be confined to vicinally activated compounds 7.

Their reactivity should reflect charge distribution as shown in the mesomeric formula 8. This intuitive view is supported by MNDO calculations⁸⁾. It is therefore to be expected that nucleophiles and/or electrophiles add to 7 affording products with the general structure 9 or derivatives thereof. Thus 7 should combine the features of a homo Michael system and those of a homoenolate equivalent.



An application of donor-acceptor-substituted derivatives such as 7 not only effects cyclopropane cleavage under milder conditions, but also generates products having

at least two functional groups. This is of special value with regard to further synthetic manipulations.

The review will be restricted to systems carrying strong π -acceptors such as carbonyl, cyano, or sulfonyl groups; halide, phenyl, vinyl, or related groups will not be regarded as activating substituents. With respect to the donor function oxy-, amino-, and thio-cyclopropanes will be considered. The trimethylsilylmethyl unit is the weakest donor dealt with, whereas processes as illustrated in Eq. 3 are beyond the scope of this article.



This review will concentrate on recent developments in the eighties and to synthetic applications. The literature coverage includes 1986.

2 Donor-Acceptor-Substituted Cyclopropanes — Principles of Synthesis and Ring Cleavage

2.1 Synthesis

Not surprisingly, cyclopropanes became synthetic tools only after methods of their preparation had been improved. This is mainly due to progress in carbene chemistry, and several modes to construct donor-acceptor-substituted cyclopropanes also benefit from these advantages. Scheme 1 is an attempt to summarize the most important possibilities of how to build up the systems under discussion and it shows that four of six paths use a carbene or its equivalent.



Scheme 1. Possible pathways for preparations of donor-acceptor-substituted cyclopropanes

From the three direct [2 + 1]-cycloaddition routes, path a employing electronrich olefins and acceptor-substituted carbenes is the most efficient one, since the alkenes can be synthesized from carbonyl compounds or other precursors and the carbenes are produced from easily available diazo alkanes. Therefore this very flexible mode to construct donor-acceptor substituted cyclopropanes is by far the most frequently used route.

It is rather difficult to generate donor-substituted carbenes (path b), and methylenation of push-pull-olefins (path c) is not very efficient due to the low reactivity of these alkenes. Therefore these two alternative [2 + 1]-cycloadditions have been of relatively low importance so far. This is also true for the addition of suitable nucleophiles to cyclopropenes activated by electronwithdrawing substituents (path e).

However, a respectable alternative to the direct [2 + 1]-routes (a)–(c) is the variant using halo- or dihalocyclopropanes as precursors for the desired target molecules (path d). The cyclopropane ring is formed by addition of halocarbenes to the olefin and subsequent change of functionalities is achieved by treatment with nucleophiles. It is very unlikely that a direct substitution incorporates the donor-substituent. Instead an elimination/addition sequence with the intermediacy of a cyclopropene has to be assumed.

The very first synthesis $^{9)}$ of a donor-acceptor-substituted cyclopropane had been performed along route (f). Michael addition of a suitable nucleophile is followed by an intramolecular substitution (elimination of Hal⁻) to create the three membered ring. Since all carbon atoms are already assembled in the starting material, and the reaction is not very general, it did not receive too much attention.

2.2 Ring Cleavage

Concerted cycloadditions and radical processes do not play a prominent role in the transformations of donor-acceptor-substituted cyclopropanes. Due to their equipment with functionalities able to stabilize charges, reactions via polar intermediates are the most frequent ones. Although the facility of ring cleavage is strongly influenced by the kind and number of activating substituents involved, a general reactivity pattern can be drawn and will hopefully help to understand the following paragraphs (Scheme 2).

In certain systems — especially in those carrying more than one donor or acceptor group — a ring expansion to five-membered heterocycles 11 occurs at relatively low temperatures. This process can be classified as a 1,3-sigmatropic shift and is most conveniently explained by the intermediacy of the 1,3-zwitterion 10.

The nucleophilic character of the unsubstituted cyclopropane is usually still predominating in donor-acceptor-activated derivatives. Thus, most ring openings start with the attack of an electrophile E^+ and give products 13 passing through intermediates of type 12 (Scheme 2). In contrast, additions of nucleophiles N⁻ giving 15 via 14 are so far restricted to exceptional cases with enhanced activity.

Conversion of the acceptor substituent to a function containing a good leaving group LG allows transformation of 16 to the olefin 18 with the homoallyl cation 17 as an intermediate.

Structures 11, 13, 15, and 18 are often not the isolated products, since further

transformations can proceed under the reaction conditions employed to bring about opening. Thus in protic media very often carbonyl groups are generated according to Eq. 4.



Scheme 2. General reactivity pattern of donor-acceptor-substituted cyclopropanes

$$X \longrightarrow D_0 \xrightarrow{H_2 0} D_0 = R0, RS, R_2 N \dots$$
(4)

3 Alkoxy Groups as Donor-Substituents

As early as 1938 Rambaud reported the first synthesis of a donor-acceptor-substituted cyclopropane — obtained by the addition/elimination path (f) (Scheme 1) — and he also recognized that these cyclopropanes are prone to ring cleavage providing 1,4-dicarbonyl compounds. After saponification 19 opens to 20 which is oxidized by air to the isolated succinic acid 21^{9} .



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Later Julia and coworkers developed another important mode of ring breaking: addition of Grignard compounds or reduction converts the ester 22 to the corresponding alcohols which are startingpoints for a cyclopropylcarbinyl/homoallyl cation rearrangement. After acid treatment β , γ -unsaturated carbonyl compounds (e.g. 23) can be isolated, which sometimes isomerize to the α , β -unsaturated systems ¹⁰.



Mainly these two variants of cyclopropane cleavage or modifications thereof were explored for preparative purposes and for natural product syntheses since 1970. Not too long ago Wenkert reviewed his very impressive contributions in this field ¹¹). Therefore only principles and typical applications will be repeated here and supplemented by more recent examples.

3.1 Simple Enol Ethers as Olefins

Enol ethers react with diazo ketones in the presence of Cu-catalysts to give cyclopropanes such as 24. Ring cleavage with acid and subsequent intramolecular aldol condensation constitutes a flexible route to cyclopentenones (Eq. 7)^{12,13)}. This procedure has also been applied to a synthesis of *cis*-jasmone employing isopropenyl acetate as a donor olefin¹⁴⁾.



As can be expected, use of ethyl diazoacetate procides γ -oxoesters¹⁵) or γ -oxocarboxylic acids¹⁶) from enol ethers. Emploging the Julia method with 25 leads to the β , γ -unsaturated aldehyde 26. Thus, this sequence establishes an overall α -vinylation of a given aldehyde^{12,17,18}).



The two modes of ring cleavage have been joined together in the synthesis of bicyclic lactone 27 - a precursor for certain alkaloids¹⁹.



In attempts to prepare alkoxy-substituted cyclopropane carbaldehydes like 29 only ring expanded compounds 30 have been isolated. The two-step route via carbinol 28^{20} and the selective reduction ²¹ with DIBAI both afford the 2-alkoxy-dihydro-furan 30.



A very intriguing system 31 with donor-acceptor substitution pattern can be obtained by an intramolecular cyclopropanation²²⁾. The tricyclic product 31 permits several ring cleavage reactions (Scheme 3), some of which are not known for less strained cyclopropanes. All methods lead to oxabicyclo[2.2.2]octane derivatives. Thus, hydrogenolysis proceeds under relatively mild conditions breaking the bond between the donor and the acceptor substituted carbons exclusively.

Cuprates add directly to the carbonyl group; however, promoted by the Lewis acid BF_3 , ring cleavage is facilitated and a 1,5-addition affords the bicyclic compound 32. This mode of cyclopropane opening is a key step in the short preparation of the monoterpene eucalyptol²².

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Scheme 3. Ring opening reactions of cyclopropane 31 obtained by intramolecular cyclopropanation

3.2 Furan as Donor Substrate

Cyclopropanation of dienol ethers is not regioselective and therefore of low preparative importance ²³⁾. However, furan gives the bicyclic compound 33 (homofuran derivative) which can also be classified as a donor-acceptor-substituted cyclopropane. The low yield obtained upon photolytic generation of the carbene ²⁴⁾ has impressively been improved by $Rh_2(OAc)_4$ -catalysis under thermal conditions ²⁵⁾. Heating of 33 results in electrocyclic ring opening to afford the *trans*, *cis*-muconic acid semialdehyde 34, whereas employment of strong acids brings about cleavage to the more stable *trans*,*trans*-compound 35 ²⁵⁾. Similar experiments have been performed with 2,5dimethyl furan ²⁶⁾.



This strategy to prepare *trans,cis*-configurated functionalized dienes like 34 has elegantly been exploited for syntheses of HETEs (hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acids) and leukotrienes ²⁷⁾. These metabolites of arachidonic acid have received much attention due to their biological activity. Syntheses of HETEs, for instance, follow the principle outlined in Eq. 12 with the acid catalysed ring opening of homofuran derivatives 36 to 37 as the stereoselective key step.



A report dealing with the intramolecular mode of this cyclopropanation uncovers a remarkable dependency of the ring cleavage on the substitution pattern and the conditions employed ²⁸⁾. Two examples with regioisomeric benzofuran systems (Eq. 13 and 14) demonstrate that thermolysis of 38 or 41, respectively, causes electrocyclic reactions which finally give the benzopyran derivative 40 or the biphenyl compound 43. Traces of acid completely change the cleavage behaviour and give "normal" products 39 or 42. For the formation of these tricyclic benzofuran derivatives breakage of the internal cyclopropane bond is necessary to give the annulated cyclohexenone systems instead of the conceivable five-ring spiro compounds. Simpler furan derivatives without a condensed benzo ring give similar results ²⁸.

3.3 Diketene as Donor Olefin

The enol acetate moiety in diketene can be utilized for cyclopropane formation. Unfortunately, with most diazo compounds, yields are rather moderate ²⁹, and therefore the synthetic value of methods developed on this basis is restricted. As exemplified by the ethyl diazoacetate adduct 44 (Scheme 4) the ring opening of this masked tricarbonyl compound can lead to different classes of acyclic or cyclic products. The outcome of these reactions depends on the conditions employed. They simultaneously transform the β -ketoester unit present in 44 ^{29 b}.



Scheme 4. Ring cleavage reactions of diketene adduct 44

Addition of a suitably substituted diazo ketone to diketene has served as a key step — albeit with low efficiency — in yet another synthesis of cis-jasmone ³⁰.

3.4 Derivatives with Two Donor or Two Acceptor Groups

1,2-Dialkoxyalkenes such as 45 behave very similarly to enol ethers and yield cyclopropanes like 46 with reasonable efficiency (Eq. 15). Ring cleavage to formyl ketone 47 with acid is followed by intramolecular aldol addition and elimination of methanol to give the cyclopentenone 48. This can be isomerized to 49 — an intermediate for prostaglandin PGE₁. The same strategy has been employed to prepare tetrahydropyrethrolone methyl ether 50³¹.



O,O-ketene acetals 51 have also been reacted with diazo ketones under copper catalysis. However, not the expected cyclopropanes but the corresponding dihydrofuran derivatives 52 are obtained as products ³²). Very likely the three-membered precursors of 52 are unstable under the cyclopropanation conditions (Cf. Scheme 5). Hydrolysis of 52 yields the γ -oxocarboxylic acids 53.



If the acceptor strength of the carbene substituent is slightly reduced, bisdonor substituted cyclopropanes become stable enough to be isolated. Thus the esters 54 are formed predominantly with their acyclic isomers 55 as side products ³³⁾ (Cf. rearrangement in Eq. 68). Cyclopropanes 54 are rather sensitive to moisture and usually converted to the orthoesters 56 without purification in reasonable overall yield ³⁴⁾. A similar dependency of the resulting products on the starting diazo compound has been found for other ketene acetals ³⁵⁾ and also in reactions using the more active Rh-catalyst ³⁶⁾.

The combination of one donor substituent and two acceptor groups also enhances the cyclopropane activity. Although compounds 57 can be synthesized without special precautions, they readily expand at room temperature to the isomeric dihydrofuran derivatives if dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide ³⁷⁾. By assistance of the highly polar solvent the charges might be stabilized in an intermediate 1,3-zwitterion formed by heterolytic cleavage of the cyclopropane bond.



Reaction of the enol ether 58 with dimethyl diazomalonate provides the spiro compound 59 in high yield. Reduction and acid catalyzed cyclopropane cleavage gives the unsaturated γ -lactol 60 which can be oxidized to β -methylene γ -butyro-lactone 61²⁰.



Under similar conditions diazo acetoacetate does not afford cyclopropanes but dihydrofurans as 62 which can be aromatized (e.g. to 63) 20). A different furan derivative 64 is obtained from ethyl diazopyruvate as outlined in Eq. 19 38). Possibly cyclopropanes are intermediates in these reactions, which rearrange to the five-membered heterocycles under the conditions employed.



The results in this section impressively illustrate that a well balanced strength of the donor and the acceptor substituents is essential for the stability of cyclopropanes. Otherwise the cyclopropane bond between these functional groups is too fragile and is eventually broken to provide ring expanded or ring opened products.

3.5 Other Methods for the Synthesis of Acceptor Activated Oxycyclopropanes and Their Ring Cleavage Reactions

3.5.1 Reaction of Electrondeficient Olefins with Donor-Carbene-Equivalents

One interesting application of Fischer-type carbene complexes in organic synthesis is their addition to acceptor olefins affording methoxy substituted cyclopropanes 65 (Eq. 20).

$$(CO)_5 Cr \longrightarrow R^1 + R^2 \xrightarrow{Acc} MeO \longrightarrow R^1 R^2$$
 (20)

The initial reports ³⁹⁾ only contain a few examples with unsaturated esters used as the olefinic component in large excess (entries 1–3, Table 1). Recent investigations ⁴⁰⁾, however, underline that this complementary approach to donor-acceptor-substituted cyclopropanes is rather general. Since equimolar amounts of olefins and carbene complexes are sufficient to give good results (entries 4–8), this method might be of preparative value.

With α,β -unsaturated ketones the expected cyclopropanes could not be isolated, but acrylonitrile derivatives can also be used as acceptor olefins ⁴⁰. They provide cyanocyclopropanes in good yield (entries 6, 7), which might be interesting precursors for other cyclopropanes or ring opened compounds because of the synthetic versatility of the nitrile group.

There are limitations when the olefin is substituted with bulky groups however, flexibility, is guaranteed by R^1 , which may be an aryl or an alkyl group (entry 8).

Entry	R ¹	R ²	Acc	cis/trans	Yield	Ref.
1	Ph	Ph	CO,Me	1:3.9	34%	39)
2	Ph	CO, Et	CO, Et	_	39 %	39)
3	Ph	Me	CO, Me*	1:2.5	60 %	39)
4	Ph	Me	CO, Me ^b	1:1.5	59%	40)
5	Ph	н	CO, Me	1:1.3	57%	40)
6	Ph	н	CN	1:1	72%	40)
7	Ph	Me	CN°	d	53%	40)
8	n-Bu	н	CO ₂ Me	~1:1	30 %	40)

Table 1. Synthesis of Donor-Acceptor-Substituted Cyclopropanes with Fischer-Carbene-Complexes

^a 10 equivalents of olefin; ^b Equimolar amounts of olefin; ^c cis/trans mixture of olefins; ^d 4 isomers

Since alkoxysubstituted methyl cyclopropanecarboxylates like 66 undergo ring opening upon acid treatment to provide the γ -oxoester 67, the cyclopropanation/ring cleavage sequence establishes an overall nucleophilic acylation of α , β -unsaturated esters ⁴⁰.



Catalytic hydrogenolysis of the nitrile 68 is regioselective and affords γ -methoxy γ -phenyl butyronitrile 69 as the single product ⁴⁰.



3.5.2 Methylenation of Donor-Acceptor-Substituted Olefins

Vicinally donor-acceptor-substituted olefins usually are rather unreactive species. Nevertheless cyclopropanation of 2,2-dimethyl-3(2 H)-furanone 70 could be executed with dimethyl oxosulfonium methylide as a methylene source. The bicyclic compound 71 is formed in modest yield accompanied by the spiro epoxide as a second product in almost equal amounts. Carbinols 72 derived from 71 by alkyl lithium addition can be nitrosated and photolyzed to suffer a Barton fragmentation. The resulting γ -oxoaldehydes are directly cyclized to afford the 2-substituted cyclopentenones 73 in good yield ⁴¹.



Reactions of benzo-4-pyrones with the methylide have been reported earlier. After hydrolysis 1,4-dicarbonyl compounds could be isolated ⁴²⁾.

3.5.3 Halocyclopropanes as Precursors

The efficient formation of dihalocyclopropanes could be extended to allyl alcohol adducts 74, which are oxidized to 75. The resulting ketones are very useful synthetic building blocks. Reaction with alkoxide, for instance, affords dihydrofuran derivatives 76 via alkoxysubstituted cyclopropyl ketones ⁴³⁾. This ring enlargement might be a purely thermal process (1,3-sigmatropic shift), but other mechanistic possibilities could also be conceived (cf. Scheme 2).



Scheme 5. Reactions with dichlorocyclopropylketone 75 as key starting material

The cyclic enol ethers 76 either form 1-alkoxy furans 77 by elimination ⁴⁴) or, more interestingly, they are oxidized by bromosuccinimide to brominated intermediates 78 which give α,β -unsaturated γ -oxoesters 79 after base treatment ⁴⁵). Reaction of the cyclic orthoesters 76 with LiAlH₄ leads to γ -oxoaldehydes 80 or their acetals 81 depending on the work-up procedure ⁴⁶).

As to be expected, monochloro cyclopropyl ketones 82 can be ring opened to γ -oxoaldehydes 83 by treatment with sodium methoxide without preceeding reduction ⁴⁷).



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Analogously, several dichloro- or difluoro-cyclopropyl ketones provide γ -oxoesters under similar conditions ^{48,49}, whereas dichloro-cyclopropyl sulfones give γ -sulfonyl orthoesters ⁵⁰.

3.5.4 Other Compounds as Starting Materials

Another method to construct methoxysubstituted cyclopropyl ketones is outlined in Eq. 25. Here acid chlorides and allyl chloride are combined to give 84 which could be cyclized to the key compound 85 after addition of methanol. Standard methodology brings about preparation of γ -oxoaldehydes 86 or β , γ -unsaturated acetals 87⁵¹.



Deprotonation/alkylation of suitably functionalized cyclopropanes opens the way to a new manifold of substituted compounds. Thus cyclopropyl sulfone 88, carrying a MEM-group as donor function, can easily be converted to the cyclopropyl anion 89 which smoothly reacts with alkyl halides yielding 90 or with ketones providing hydroxyalkylated cyclopropyl sulfones, respectively. The latter could directly be transformed to unsaturated sulfones (e.g. $92 \rightarrow 93$) by acid treatment, but alkylated products 90 have to be cleaved in a two step procedure. Deprotection of the MEMgroup with HBF₄ allows subsequent base induced ring opening of the resulting cyclopropanols and after elimination of sulfinate α,β -unsaturated aldehydes 91 are formed ⁵².



The stereochemistry of the alkylation of a carbanion related to 89 has recently been studied by another group ⁵³⁾.

An exceptional case of ring formation and cleavage deals with a system incorporating two cyclopropane units with donor-acceptor pattern. Photochemical synthesis of 94 and electrocyclic reaction afford the unusual bridged hexanooxepin 95⁵⁴⁾.



4 Trialkylsiloxy Groups as Donorsubstituents

As demonstrated in the preceeding paragraph alkoxysubstituted cyclopropanes provide access to a variety of different 1,4-dicarbonyl derivatives and are therefore valuable and versatile building blocks for organic synthesis.

Since most methods are based on alkyl enol ethers as starting materials, however, they are faced with severe drawbacks as far as selectivity and flexibility are concerned. Preparations of alkoxyalkenes are sometimes very tedious to put into practice and usually not chemo-, regio-, or stereoselective. In addition, the cyclopropanation step is frequently inefficient due to purification problems or the need of using a large excess of olefin. But most importantly cyclopropane cleavage requires rather harsh conditions (strong acid or base) because of the strength of the C—O-bond that has to be broken. Therefore these methods of ring opening are not compatible with many functional groups.

In contrast, the related silyl enol ethers are available by mild selective transformations from carbonyl compounds or other precursors ⁵⁵⁾. Their stability and that of products derived from these alkenes can easily be regulated by choosing suitable substituents at silicon. Selective cleavage of a Si—O-bond is possible with fluoride reagents under very mild conditions, and this is why cyclopropane ring opening can now be performed with high chemoselectivity.

Exploiting these major advantages, siloxysubstituted cyclopropanes have become extremely versatile building blocks for many preparative purposes in the last decade. Besides these important practical aspects, they also have provided a deeper insight into many fascinating mechanistic features of donor-acceptor-substituted cyclopropanes.

4.1 Synthesis of Methyl 2-Siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates by Carbenoid-Addition and Their Ring Cleavage to γ-Oxoesters

A large variety of silyl enol ethers 96 has been transformed to the corresponding cyclopropanes 97 by reaction with methyl diazoacetate in the presence of copper catalysts (Eq. 28). Although at first the isolation of mainly ring-opened products had been reported 56 , the preparation of methyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates proceeds generally in very good yields (Table 2) 57 .

Table 2. Synthesis of methyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates 97 from methyl diazoacetate and silyl enol ethers 96 according to Eq. 28 and ring cleavage to γ-oxoesters 98

intry	Å	K.	R⁴	K,	сусноргоранс УЛ			γ-Oxoester	98	
					cis: trans	Yield	Ref.	Method [*]	Yield	Ref.
-	Me,	H	H	 H	18:72	58%	57)	A	63%	62)
2	Me,	Me	Н	Н	35:65	20%	57)	Υ	71%	61)
~	Me	n-C,H,,	Н	Н	39:61	%18 81%	57)	Α	29%	(19
	Me	CHMe,	Н	Н	42:58	80%	57)	Α	%68	62)
	Me	CMe, É	Н	Н	48:52	87%	57)	A	30% 200	62)
ý	Me,	Ph	Н	Н	48:52	78 %	57)	A	78%	62)
-	Me	CH=CH,	Н	Н	36:64	73%	83)	A	75%	62)
~	Me	$CMe = C\dot{H}$	Н	Н	49:51	65%	84)	1		
•	Me,	, H	Н	Me	22:78	73 %	57)	В	92 %	65)
_	Me,	CMe,	Н	Me	35:75	67%	65)	C	%66	65)
_	Me	Ph	Н	Me	45:55	21%	57)	A	80%	62)
0	Me	CH = CH	H/Me	Me/H ^b	4 isomers	48%	84)	ł	;	
~	, Me	, H	Me	Me	25:75	%62	57)	В	86%	62)
+	Me,	Me	Me	Me	32:68	86%	57)	V	63%	62)
10	Me	Ph	Me	Me	46:54	80%	57)	A	82 %	(19
, c	Me	Н	-(CH ₂),		25:75	58%	57)	В	80%	62)
-	Me	Н	-(CH ₁),-		26:76	75%	57)	В	93%	62)
~	Me,	$-(CH_2)$), – "(Н	46:54	72%	57)	A	%16	62)
•	Me	-(CH ₂)	[Н	58:42	75%	57)	A	%16	62)
_	Me	-(CH ₂	· (Н	47:53	21 %	57)	A	93%	62)
_	Me	$-(CH_2)$	- "(Н	30:70	73%	(11	ļ	•	
5	Me,	-CH = CH -	-CH,-CH,-	Н	64:36	65%	83)	1		
3	Me		:Н,), — ́	Н	4 isomers	74%	57)	A	%16	62)
4	Me	$-(CH_{1})_{1}-CI_{2}$	HMe-	Н	60:40	62%	57)	4	88%	62)
S	Me	-(CH,),-Cl	H(tBu)CH,	Н	4 isomers	74 %	57)	٨	83%	(19
6	Me	$-(CH_{1})_{4}$	•	OSiMe	>95 % trans	899	57)	D	87%	62)
7	tBuMe,	Н	Me	Me	23:77	% LL	57)	I		
8	tBuMe ₂	Ph	Н	Н	40:60	78 %	57)	E(F)	68%(72	%) ⁶²⁾
6	tBuMe ₂	CMe ₃	Н	Н	42:58	%08	57)	-		

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Nearly equimolar amounts of the components are sufficient to obtain satisfying results even in large-scale runs. $Cu(acac)_2$ is the most suitable catalyst; $Rh_2(OAc)_4$, which is effective even at room temperature, might be preferable in exceptional cases. As expected, the cyclopropanation step occurs regioselectively (entries 4, 14) and stereospecifically (entries 9--11), thereby retaining the olefin configuration completely in the product. On the other hand, there is only a very moderate stereoselection as far as the methoxy carbonyl group is concerned, and usually *cis/trans* mixtures are obtained ⁵⁷).

If the olefin is chiral (entries 23–25) high diastereoselectivity has been observed, when the center of asymmetry is at C-3 of cyclic silyl enol ethers (entry 24). Cyclopropanation then occurs *trans* to the substituent at this carbon ⁵⁷⁾ exclusively, and due to the very mild cleavage conditions this *trans*-relationship is preserved in the subsequent ring opening (vide infra). This protocol has been applied to introduce a side chain during the stereoselective synthesis of a prostaglandin ⁵⁸⁾ and of dicranenone A⁵⁹⁾.



Interestingly, the cyclopropanation is completely nonstereoselective if the starting material is a chiral siloxy cyclohexene derivative with alkyl groups at C-4 or C-6 (entries 23, 25).

The prostaglandin approach above (Eq. 29) also shows that the reaction with the carbenoid is compatible with further functions and even a second olefinic unit. However, this second double bond is left unattacked only because of its deactivation by the allylic siloxy group. Competition experiments have demonstrated that simple olefins like styrene or cyclohexene react with methyl diazoacetate under copper-catalysis in rates comparable to those of silyl enol ethers 57.

Reactions of trimethylsilyl enol ethers with diazo ketones give cyclopropanes contaminated by ring opened compounds $^{60, 61)}$. Use of the more stable tert-BuMe₂Siderivatives or of Rh₂ (OAc)₄ as a catalyst might eventually improve the situation. O-Silylated ketene acetals and O,S-ketene acetals, respectively, did not provide products with cyclopropane structure 61 .

Methyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates 97 are thermally stable compounds, which can nevertheless be cleaved under very mild conditions to give γ -oxoesters 98 (Eq. 28)⁶¹⁾. The Me₃Si-derivatives are ring opened by acids or strong bases, but they can selectively be cleaved by fluoride reagents. This retro aldol type reaction via cyclopropanol intermediates is most effectively achieved by the easily accessible NEt₃ · xHF (x = 1-3)⁶³⁾, which generates 98 in almost quantitative yield (table 2). With catalytic amounts of acid or base methanol is another operating medium for desilylation (entry 26, lit. ⁵⁹). PdCl₂(MeCN)₂-catalysis allows smooth ring opening in wet acetone (entry 10)⁶⁵. When switching to the more stable *tert*-butyldimethylsiloxy compounds n-Bu₄NF is the reagent of choice for ring cleavage (entry 28). The opening of the three-membered ring completes the combination of an enolate equivalent (silyl enol ether) with an enolium equivalent (methyl diazoacetate) for the construction of the 1,4-dicarbonyl compound via a cyclopropane.



Although alkylations of enolates with α -halo ester compounds are quite effective in singular cases, these reactions often proceed with poor yield and selectivity. Therefore the siloxycyclopropane route is to be considered even for large scale preparations of relatively simple γ -oxoesters. Synthesis of rather sensitive formyl esters (entries 9, 13, 16, 17) or the stereoselective generation of *trans*-substituted cyclic γ -oxoesters as mentioned above can hardly be achieved with comparable efficiency by other methods.

The mild cleavage conditions with NEt₃ · HF, which do not cause epimerization at centers α to the carbonyl group, are essential for an enantioselective synthesis of γ -oxoesters using optically active catalysts ⁶⁴⁾ in the cyclopropanation step. Up to 50% ee have been obtained so far ⁶⁵⁾. Improvements should be possible, if the *trans/cis*-ratio of the siloxycyclopropane can be increased. Formylesters of type 99 are promising building blocks for further transformations (e.g. synthesis of γ -butyrolactones).



With the methodology presented so far only compounds with a $-CH_2CO_2R$ moiety can be synthesized. However, specifically mono- or dideuterated γ -oxoesters are obtainable as illustrated in Eq. 31⁵⁷.



According to Scheme 1 methyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates should also be available from donor-acceptor-substituted olefins like 100, which are easily synthesized by silylation of the corresponding 1,3-dicarbonyl compounds. Cyclopropanation of 100 with methyl diazoacetate or diazomethane could be realized in the presence of Cu(II)-catalysts, but due to the relatively low reactivity of the olefins a large excess of diazoalkanes had to be employed. This makes the isolation of 101 troublesome and therefore direct hydrolysis with acid to give 1,4-dicarbonyl compounds 102 is advantageous (Eq. 32) 66 .



With $R^2 = OEt$, however, some condensation to the furan derivative 103 cannot be avoided. Homologisation of ethyl benzoylacetate via the silyl compound 100 with diazomethane to the γ -ketoester 102 is incomplete, and hydrolyzed starting material is recovered.

Photolysis of acylsilanes produces siloxysubstituted carbenes, which could be trapped by an excess of electrondeficient olefins. This route to the resulting alkyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates seems not to be of preparative value, however ⁶⁷⁾.

Since methyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates 97 are masked γ -oxoesters, the protected carbonyl group cannot disturb reactions modifying the ester function. This great advantage is demonstrated in the following paragraphs and especially in the deprotonation/alkylation sequence, which allows introduction of a substituent at C-1 of the cyclopropane and therefore leads to compounds containing a --CHR'CO₂R unit after ring cleavage.

4.2 Synthesis of Methyl 2-Siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates by Deprotonation/Alkylation

4.2.1 Preparative Aspects

For the introduction of further substituents at C-1 of methyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates 97 the deprotonation and smooth alkylation of the resulting enolates is a very feasible route (Eq. 33) $^{68)}$. It opens the way to a large variety of cyclopropanes without the necessity of preparing a new diazo compound for every desired substituent at C-1.



The enolates 104 can be generated in tetrahydrofuran at -78 °C with 1.5 equivalents of lithium diisopropylamide (LDA) and trapped by electrophiles at this temperature or under "warm up" conditions. Usually, very high yields of alkylation products 105 are attained (Table 3)⁶⁸⁾.

With its low yield of 40% entry 1 is exceptional, since in this case very likely missing steric hindrance causes considerable self condensation during enolate generation $^{69)}$. This process has been reported as the exclusive reaction in attempts to deprotonate the unsubstituted ethyl cyclopropanecarboxylate $^{70)}$. Decreased CH-acidity of the starting material and increased reactivity of the corresponding enolate — both caused by I-strain in the intermediate $^{71)}$ — should be responsible for this self condensation. It proceeds in the deprotonation phase, if not prevented by additional substituents as in almost all other cases in Table 3.

It should be mentioned that the existence of a carbanion located β to a potential leaving group is not self-explanatory. Since the elimination product would be a highly strained cyclopropene derivative, this process does not occur at least at low temperatures.

The examples in Table 3 demonstrate that many S_N^2 -active alkyl halides can be employed as electrophiles with good success ⁶⁸). Secondary alkyl halides like 2-propyl iodide, however, are not reactive enough in the low temperature ranges required for obtaining clean addition without decomposition of the enolate.

The alkylated products 105 can be transformed to the corresponding γ -oxoesters 106 in high yield by the usual ring cleavage with fluoride reagents (Eq. 33) as shown in Table 3 for some representative cases. With the cyclopropanation/alkylation/ring opening sequence one of the most flexible and efficient routes to specifically substituted γ -oxoesters 106 has been established. Many of the alkylated products shown in Table 3 are starting materials for further synthetic transformations as decribed in upcoming paragraphs.

Heteroelectrophiles like dimethyl disulfide (entries 9, 18, 29) lead to trifunctional compounds. A second methoxycarbonyl group can be introduced with methyl chloroformiate (entries 38, 42). However, the trimethylsiloxy compounds are extremely sensitive and undergo very fast ring opening to malonic ester derivatives⁶¹.

Not surprisingly, carbonyl compounds are excellent reaction partners for the ester enolates 104. Since the primary adducts are only isolable in singular cases and the subsequent ring opened products (γ -lactols) are very versatile precursors for synthesis of heterocycles, these addition reactions as well as those of electrophiles with a S=C unit will be discussed in a separate paragraph (see section 4.6).

- 7 8 4 8 9		•	16 <i>97</i>			Cyclopropar	ne <i>105</i>		γ-Oxoeste	r 106	
-0.04.00		R¹	R ²	R³	El-X	trans: cis	Yield	Ref.	Method ^a	Yield	Ref
Q w 4 w Q	Me,	Н	H	Н	Me-I	90:10	40%	68)			
<i>w</i> 4vo	Me	Me	Н	Н	MeI	90:10	85%	68)	A	81%	62)
4 v v	Me	Me	H	Н	BuI	>95:5	% IL	(89	۲	88%	62)
5 6	Me	Me	H	Н	CH. = CHCHI	90:10	21 %	(8)	¥	%LL	61)
9	Me	Me	Н	Н	PhĆH,—Br	75:25	61%	(8)	I	2	
	Me	CMe	Н	Н	MeI	>97:3	92%	(8)	A	%06	62)
7	Me	CMe	Н	Н	BuI	> 95:5	91%	68)	A	%06	62)
80	Me,	CMe	Н	Н	CH, = CHCH, – Br	> 97:3	88%	68)	A	86%	62)
6	Me	CMe	Н	Н	MeŜSMe	> 95:5	36 %	68)	A	95%	62)
10	Me	CH=CH,	Н	Н	Me—I	>95:5	64 %	68)	A	20%	62)
11	Me	CH = CH	Н	Н	CH,=CHCH,-Br	>95:5	62 %	68)	A	20%	62)
12	Me	CH = CH	Н	н	5-bromo-1,3-pentadiene	>95:5	80%	86)	see section	n 4.4.2	
13	Me	Ph	Н	Н	Me—I	>97:3	84%	68)	A	%66	62)
14	Me	Ph	Н	Н	BuI	> 97:3	74%	(8)	A	%06	(19
15	Me	Ph	Н	Н	$CH_{3} = CHCH_{3} - Br$	> 98:2	%08	(8)	I		
16	Me	Ph	Н	н	Me,C=CHCH,-Br	>95:5	78%	68)	I		
17	Me	hh	Н	Н	PhČH,—Br	>95:5	%68	68)	Ι		
18	Me	Ph	Н	н	MeSSMe	> 97:3	80%	(89)	I		
61	Me	Н	Н	Me	Me—I	85:15	47%	68)	B	61 % ^b	61)
20	Me,	Ph	Н	Me	Me—I	>95:5	76%	68)	A	4 %66	62)
21	Me	Н	Me	Me	Me—I	90:10	87%	68)	B	%6L	62)
22	Me,	Н	Me	Me	EtI	88:12	%06	68)	B	73%	61)
23	Me	Н	Me	Me	BuI	81:19	%LL	68)	I		
24	Me	Н	Me	Me	I(CH ₂) ₄ -1	84:16	63%	(89)	1		
25	Me	Н	Me	Me	CH, = CHCH, - Br	82:18	81%	68)	в	86%	62)
26	Me	Н	Me	Me	$CH_{i} = CHCH_{i} - I$	72:28	26%	68)	ł		
27	Me	H	Me	Me	Me, C = CHCH, Br	75:25	85%	68)	1		
28	Me₃	Н	Me	Me	PhCH ₂ -Br	65:35	81%	(89	в	84%	(1)
29	Me	Н	Me	Me	MeS-SMe	11:89	%16	(8)	I		
30	Me	Me	Me	Me	$CH_{,} = CHCH_{,} - Br$	>95:5	78%	97)	I		

61)	() ^b 62) b 62)		61)		
%96 %78	(97 % 89 %	5	87%		
– A (F)	A I				
68) 61) 68)	68) 68)	68) 68)		79) (8)	(16
70% 20% 20%	73% 81%	81% 70%	87%	54%	84%
92:8 >97:3 >97:3	>97:3 >97:3	2 isomers >95:5	> 95:5	90:10	t. 04
Me—I CH ₂ = CHCH ₂ —Br Me—I	$CH_2 = CHCH_2 - Br$ PhCH ₂ -1	Me—I Me—I	MeO ₂ C—CI Me—I	Me—I Me _ I	MeO ₂ C-Cl
Н Н	нн	H	нн	Me	Me
)3 – Me	* _* _* _*	le(CH ₂) ₃ —) ₁ CHMe—) ₃ CHMe— H	Н	Me
Ph -(CH ₂)	– (CH ₂)–	-CHM -(CH,	– (CH ₂	Ч	H
Me ₃ Me	Me ₃ Me ₃	Meg	Me ₃ tBuMe.	tBuMe ₂	tBuMe ₂
31 32 33	34 35	36 37	38 39	40	42

^a For Methods A-F see Table 2; ^b Mixture of 2 diastereomers

4.2.2. Explanation of the Diastereoselectivity

Although of no importance for most of the subsequent ring opening reactions, the diastereoselectivity of the enolate alkylations deserves attention for mechanistic reasons. Regardless of the *cis/trans*-ratio of the starting materials in tetrahydrofuran as solvent the deprotonation/alkylation sequence provides *trans*-configurated products exclusively or with high preference (Table 3). This incorporation of the electrophile *cis* to the siloxy group predominates even in cases where the sterically more hindered side of the enolate has to be attacked, thus leading to *contrasterical* alkylation (e.g. entries 19, 21–28, 41).

Further experiments have shown that this effect is due to the oxygen-function at C-2, as similar alkoxy cyclopropanes display the same behaviour ⁶⁹. Therefore the term "syn-oxyphily" has been suggested for this unusual phenomenon, the explanation of which is still speculative. Since it operates against pure steric effects, it must be of electronic nature with the β -oxygen as the key element.

Very likely enolates of alkyl cyclopropanecarboxylates are generally not planar but pyramidal to a certain extent, thereby avoiding some of the I-strain caused by a methylenecyclopropane type double bond ⁷¹). It is supposed that in oxycyclopropanes the two possible pyramidal enolates *syn-107* und *anti-107* are caused to be energetically different by the RO-groups. Predominating formation of *trans-108* is explained by the higher population of the more stable *anti-108*.



The higher stability of *anti-107* might simply be attained for electrostatic reasons with the electronegative moieties in *anti* position. However, an anomeric effect with overlap of the occupied enolate π -orbital and the σ^* -orbital of the β -C-O-bond can also be operative. Whereas usually the antiperiplanar arrangement of the orbitals involved maximizes the anomeric effect ⁷², with the rigid cyclopropane geometry this situation is unfavourable. Therefore pyramidalization of the planar enolate to *anti-107* with the larger orbital lobe ("lone pair") at C-1 syn to the RO-substituent is energetically more advantageous than the alternative arrangement (see Fig. 1). This might be the first example with evidence of a syn-anomeric effect ⁷³). It should lead to preferred attack of electrophiles at the side with the larger orbital lobe, thus explaining formation of mainly *trans*-products.



Fig. 1. Pyramidalization of Esterenolate 107 (View along the cyclopropane C-1/C-2 bond, π -type orbital in front, σ^* -orbital of the C-2/OR-bond behind)

The stereoelectronic effect of the RO-group is less pronounced, when bulkier electrophiles are employed (Table 3, entries 23, 27, 28), but is increased when the well solvating agent hexamethyl phosphorous amide (HMPA) is used as an additive $^{61,68)}$. On the other hand, if one performs the deprotonation/alkylation sequence in the unpolar solvent pentane, a complete reversal of the stereochemical outcome provides the *cis*product in excess (Eq. 35) $^{61)}$. Now a coordination of the lithium cation to the siloxy function might favour structures like *109* (or its oligomers) and cause predominant formation of *cis*-cyclopropanes.



With dimethyl disulfide as the electrophile the cis/trans-ratio is 90:10 even in tetrahydrofuran. Competition experiments show that this reaction is much faster than the usual alkylations, which afford mainly *trans*-compounds ⁶⁸⁾. With the sulfur electrophile a single electron transfer (SET) seems likely generating a cyclopropyl radical as a reactive species, which naturally displays a different selectivity compared to the enolate anion.

4.3 Simple Ring Opening Reactions of Methyl 2-Siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates

4.3.1 One-Pot-Reactions to Products Derived from y-Oxoesters

In the preceeding sections it has been demonstrated that a great variety of γ -oxoesters can be synthesized by fluoride induced ring cleavage of methyl 2-siloxycyclopropane-

carboxylates. As a trimethylsiloxy function is easily converted to a hydroxyl group under acidic or strongly basic conditions $^{55)}$, this quality can be explored for onepot-procedures with certain reagents which are able to transform the siloxycyclopropanes to γ -oxoesters and to trap these intermediates giving new types of products.

Equations 36 and 37 illustrate that γ -oxoacids or acetals of γ -oxoesters are available under appropriate conditions ^{62, 74}). Heating with concentrated hydrochloric acid transforms *110* to the α , β -unsaturated lactone *111* (Eq. 38)⁶²), whereas compounds displaying the suitable substituent pattern can be cyclized to 1,3-cyclopentane diones with bases (Eq. 39) ⁶¹).



Nitrogen functions will be incorporated by treatment with phenylhydrazine or hydroxylamine providing the corresponding hydrazones⁷⁵⁾ or oximes⁶¹⁾ (Eq. 40). When siloxycyclopropanes containing a masked aldehyde function ($\mathbb{R}^1 = \mathbb{H}$) are heated with hydroxylamine and formic acid under reflux, dehydration of the intermediate oxime generates β -cyanoester 112 in moderate to good yield (Eq. 41)⁶¹⁾.





4,5-Dihydro-2H-3-pyridazinones 113 are obtained in excellent yields from several methyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates with hydrazine hydrate as a reagent 75 .



Although in most cases reaction conditions for these one-pot-transformations are rather harsh, it is conceivable that optimization might lead to milder methods in singular cases. Nevertheless, these straightforward transformations make available a variety of interesting products by very simple and cheap procedures.

4.3.2 Methods Leading to Reduced Products

Treatment of methyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates with potassium borohydride in methanol and acidic work-up afford γ -butyrolactones 114 by a very simple one-pot procedure in excellent yields and with high purity (Eq. 43)⁷⁶.



The multistep reaction very likely starts with desilylation by potassium methylate (generated *in situ*) and ring opening to the γ -oxoester. This is immediately reduced to a γ -hydroxyester, which undergoes lactonization to form the final product 114. Corresponding to the regioselective synthesis of the starting cyclopropanes, isomeric γ -butyrolactones can easily be constructed. When the reaction is performed in CD₃OD, α -deuterated γ -butyrolactones can be prepared.

The electrochemical reduction of γ -oxoesters like 115, synthesized via the cyclopropane route, results in cyclization with participation of the olefinic unit ⁷⁷⁾. This reaction provides interesting cyclopentanol derivatives, which can be transformed to the corresponding cyclopentenes. Alternatively a fragmentation to medium sized ketones like 116 occurs after saponification and anodic oxidation ⁷⁷⁾.



The reduction of methyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates can also be started at the ester function when lithium aluminum hydride in ether is the reagent. The resulting alcohols undergo the wellknown cyclopropylcarbinyl/homoallyl rearrangement upon treatment with acid to provide β , γ -unsaturated carbonyl compounds *117*. These are synthesized isomerically pure and in good yields in a number of cases, if the two-phase-system 2N hydrochloric acid/pentane is employed ⁷⁸⁾. Otherwise the very easy isomerization to the conjugated α , β -unsaturated compounds *118* occurs to some extend, which can intentionally be completed by base catalysis.



Methyllithium as a nucleophile finally provides compounds with a trisubstituted double bond (Eq. 46). Ring cleavage of the intermediate cyclopropylcarbinols under strongly basic conditions gives γ -hydroxy carbonyl compounds like 119⁷⁸. The regioselectivity of this ring opening is remarkable, since it seems to be governed by the hydroxymethyl group passing through a secondary carbanion as an intermediate.



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These reductions can be combined with other transformations as exemplified by cyclopropane 120, which has been converted to the nitrile 122, the spiro lactone 123, and the functionalized spiro tetrahydrofuran 121^{61} . All products are eventually derived from cyclohexane carbaldehyde.

Direct reductive cleavage by catalytic hydrogenolysis of a cyclopropane C-C-bond is only possible in exceptional cases, where the three membered ring is further activated by a phenyl or a vinyl group. With unpoisoned catalyst a subsequent reductive desiloxylation occurs to afford esters like 124 (Eq. 48), whereas addition of small amounts of triethylamine allows isolation of the desired siloxy compounds (e.g. 125, Eq. 49). Interestingly, both reactions demonstrate that the cleavage of the cyclopropane bond proceeds non-stereoselectively with inversion and retention at C-1 and C-2, respectively ⁷⁹.



4.3.3 Methods Leading to Oxidized Products

By addition of bromine at low temperature methyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates are regioselectively cleaved to give α -bromo- γ -oxoesters *126* quantitatively. These can be isolated in singular cases, but usually they are directly transformed to α , β -unsaturated γ -oxoesters *127* by subsequent elimination of hydrogen bromide with triethylamine ⁸⁰. Thereby *E*-alkenes are obtained in good overall yields, which are interesting acceptor building blocks for further synthetic operations.



Due to the great flexibity in the preparation of the cyclopropanes — especially with regard to R^4 — a variety of other alkenes 127 should be available in a regio- and stereo-selective manner by this overall methoxycarbonylmethylenation method of a given carbonyl compound.

Reaction with an excess of bromine can be performed under warm-up conditions delivering the α,β -dibromo- γ -oxoester 128 as a mixture of diastereomeres. Interestingly, the ratio of these stereoisomers is strongly influenced by the reaction conditions

chosen. Both dibromo compounds are converted to the corresponding acetylene 129 by triethylamine treatment ⁶¹. Thus, using very simple and cheap reagents the siloxy-cyclopropanes can serve as precursors for γ -oxoesters with a single, a double or a triple bond between C- α and C- β .



Whereas chlorine or iodine as electrophiles do not provide clean addition products ⁶¹, phenylselenenyl chloride opens siloxycyclopropanes forming α -selenenylated γ -oxoesters ⁸¹. Usually, however, this process is better conducted in the presence of Lewis acids at low temperature (vide infra, section 4.5.1).

4.4 Cleavage Reactions of Methyl 2-Siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates Combined with Subsequent C-C-Bond Forming Processes

Although methyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates are cleaved by certain electrophiles, only tetracyanoethylene (TCNE) as a carbon electrophile could directly be added to phenyl or vinyl activated cyclopropanes providing cyclopentane derivatives ⁶¹.



Eq. 52 and 53 demonstrate remarkable characteristics of this [3 + 2]-cycloaddition: starting with a pure diastereomer 130, two stereoisomeric cyclopentanes 131 are obtained. This stereorandom outcome is most simply rationalized assuming a stepwise mechanism with a 1,5-zwitterion as an intermediate in the cycloaddition. The vinylcyclopropane 132 only gives five-membered ring products 133 and no cycloheptene derivative, which would result from a conceivable [5 + 2]-cycloaddition. Less activated olefins or cyclopropanes do not undergo a similar [3 + 2]-cycloaddition. Due to the specific substitution pattern, the cyclopentane formation from these siloxy-cyclopropanes is of no preparative value.
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Synthetically more interesting are ring openings which were performed under conditions allowing *in situ* reactions of the resulting γ -oxoesters. Thus siloxycyclo-propane 134 is cleaved to the formylester 135, which can directly be transformed to the substituted γ -butyrolactone 136 by subsequent treatment with allylbromide/zinc⁸² and acid⁶⁵.



Whereas scope and limitations of this procedure are yet unknown, vinyl ketones obtained as intermediates from methyl-2-alkenyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates have already demonstrated their extreme versatility for synthetic purposes.

4.4.1 Michael Additions to Vinyl Ketones Generated from Vinylcyclopropanes

Siloxycyclopropane 132 — which is a masked vinyl ketone — has served as test substrate for many *in situ* transformations. It cleanly reacts with several of O-, N-, and S-nucleophiles under mild acidic or basic conditions leading to polyfunctionalized γ -oxoesters 137 (Eq. 55)⁸³, which for instance can be further converted to γ -butyrol-actones, as exemplified by the one-pot-synthesis of 138⁷⁶.





More interestingly, Michael additions of CH-acidic compounds 139 onto the vinyl ketone — generated from 132 by action of the catalyst Triton B (0.08 equiv. in methanol) — smoothly afford adducts 140 in good yields (Eq. 57)⁸³⁾. Under these conditions methoxide acts as the desilylating agent as well as the base to form the corresponding carbanions.



Nitroalkanes provide products, which are especially versatile building blocks, since the nitro group introduced can be converted to several other functionalities. The examples shown in Eq. 58–61 include synthesis of regioisomeric 7-nitro-4-oxoesters, of a cyclic system 141, and of a propenyl substituted derivative — all proceeding with good overall yield from easily available, inexpensive starting materials ^{83, 84)}.



Transformations of the nitro function in 142 to a carbonyl group employing variants of the Nef reaction or its reduction to a cyclic nitrone 143, which is capable to undergo 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions, underscore the high synthetic potential of these nitroalkane adducts (Eq. 62)⁸⁴.



Free radical additions of phenylthio or stannyl radicals to 2-alkenyl 2-siloxycyclopropanes afford similar products although a completely different mechanism is operative ⁸⁴). This direct generation of protected γ -oxoesters 144 and 145 is of interest since the silyl enol ether function might be usable for regioselective C-C-bond formation and the allyl stannane moiety in 145 could be activated for subsequent transformations. Yet further examples have to demonstrate utility and scope of this mode of ring opening.



4.4.2 Cycloadditions to Vinyl Ketones Obtained from Vinylcyclopropanes

The acceptor quality of vinyl ketones liberated from methyl 2-alkenyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates can also be used in cycloaddition reactions. Thus γ -oxoester 147 adds smoothly to 2-siloxybutadien 146 affording a cyclohexene derivative which after desilylation gives the tricarbonyl compound 148. This crucial intermediate can be obtained from vinyl cyclopropane 132 as a precursor of 147 in 72% overall yield ⁸⁵. Its chemoselective methylation, lactonization, and dehydration make norbisabolid available — a constituent of the root bark of *atalantia monophylla*.

More fascinating, however, are intramolecular modes of the Diels-Alder reaction. The vinyl cyclopropanes in discussion open a very short and flexible entry to substrates suitable to undergo this cycloaddition. Cyclopropane 149 — easily obtained by alkylation of the unsubstituted compound 132 (see Table 3, entry 12) — after ring cleavage with fluoride gives a trienone 150, for instance, which has ideal electronic and steric properties for an intramolecular [4 + 2]-cycloaddition. After reaction at



room temperature a 6:1 mixture of two *cis*-octalones 151/152 is identified, from which the major isomer 151 can be isolated by crystallization ⁸⁶⁾. This compound is probably formed *via* a boat-like *endo*-transition state TS with the ester function in a sterically favourable position.



When the crude reaction mixture is chromatographed on Al_2O_3 the *trans*-octalone 153 is obtained in 57% overall yield as a result of epimerization. The potential of this route to prepare bicyclic or polycyclic carbon skeletons under mild conditions and in a stereocontrolled manner is evident.

4.4.3 Fluoride Triggered Ring Opening/Addition Reactions of Alkyl 2-Siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates

If the cleavage of siloxycyclopropanes with fluoride anions could be performed under strictly anhydrous conditions, the ester enolate generated by ring opening should be interceptable by electrophiles different from protons. This process could be realized in the methylation of cyclopropane 154 (Eq. 66), however the degree of alkylation does not exceed 60 %. The intramolecular variant also gives a mixture of alkylated and protonated product (Eq. 67)⁶²⁾.



Scheme 6. Fluoride induced repetitive [3 + 2]-annulation using ethyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates

Very likely the ammonium fluorides are the proton sources and therefore the reason for incomplete conversions, since potassium fluoride in acetonitrile gives high yields in a very elegant [3 + 2]-annulation process⁸⁷⁾. It combines a Michael addition to a vinyl phosphonium salt with an intramolecular Wittig reaction and proceeds only in the presence of 18-crown-6 with satisfying yield. This cyclopentene synthesis has been executed in a repetitive manner to prepare linear triquinanes as illustrated in Scheme 6. Unfortunately, the sequence is non-stereoselective with regard to the ethoxycarbonyl functions.

4.5 Lewis Acid Induced Reactions of Methyl 2-Siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates

4.5.1 Catalytic Processes

Whereas methyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates are thermally stable up to temperatures as high as 170 °C, they readily rearrange at low temperatures under the influence of appropriate Lewis acids. Catalytic amounts (0.05–0.4 equiv.) of iodo-trimethylsilane within minutes to days promote a quantitative ring opening of cyclopropanes 155 to the corresponding silyl enol ethers 156 (Eq. 68, Table 4) ⁸⁸).



Although the presence of the base hexamethyl disilazane facilitates the isolation of pure olefins 156, it is not essential for the occurrence of the rearrangement. ¹H-NMR spectroscopy reveals that the "simple" ring opening under proton transfer $155 \rightarrow 156$ is actually a cascade of silylgroup and proton shifts ⁶¹, which finally establishes the thermodynamic equilibrium. Therefore, with small substituents R¹ or R² mixtures

Entry	R ¹	R ²	R ³	Reaction- time	Z/E	Yield
1	CMe,	Н	н	1 d	100/0	97.%
2	CMe,	н	Me	1 d	100/0	100 %
3	CMe.	Н	SMe	4 d	100/0	100 %
4	CMe,	Н	CH, CH = CH,	2 d	100/0	71 %
5	Ph	Н	н	5 h	90/10	77 %
6	CH = CH	н	н	30 min	65/35	49 %
7	H	н	н	20 min	80/20	100 %
8	н	Me	Н	30 min	50/50	95 %
9	Me	н	Н	20 min	70/20/10ª	89 %
10	-(CH,)		н	20 min	84/0/16ª	72 %
11	CHMe ₂	Н	Н	6 h	25/0/75*	83 %

Table 4. Isomerization of Cyclopropanes 155 to Silyl Enol Ethers 156 According to Eq. 68

^a Formation of the possible regioisomeric silyl enol ether

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of E/Z-isomers are obtained (entries 5–9) and compounds capable to enolize α and α' to the keto function give the possible regioisomeric silvl enol ethers (entries 9–11). It is evident that cyclopropane 157 can only rearrange to the γ , δ -unsaturated ester 158 (Eq. 69).



The functionalized silyl enol ethers 156 are useful synthetic intermediates since electrophiles can now be introduced either directly in the β -position by known methodology ⁵⁵⁾ or in the α -position after deprotonation with LDA to an allyl anion (Eq. 70) ⁶¹⁾. Both pathways should enormously widen the scope of specifically substituted γ -oxoesters and their derivatives obtained via siloxycyclopropanes.



Cyclopropanation of the enol ether 159 and normal ring cleavage introduces a second methoxycarbonylmethyl group, but deprotonation of the intermediate cyclopropane 160 now occurs at the more acidic side chain CH_2 and not at the cyclopropane core. Therefore a ring opening followed by elimination yields the electrondeficient diene 161 (Eq. 70)⁶¹.

Treatment of siloxycyclopropane 162 with equimolar amounts of iodotrimethylsilane and triethylamine generates the electronrich diene 163 in high yield ⁸⁸⁾. Many further applications of compounds like 163 — cycloadditions, for instance, or reactions with electrophiles — should be manageable.



A remarkable double cyclopropanation with the Simmons-Smith reagent and ring cleavage under basic conditions provides two carboxylic acids 164 and 165 in almost equal amounts. None of the expected β -benzoyl propionic acid could be isolated. Although formation of the crucial intermediate 168 has been explained with a slightly different mechanism by the authors ⁸⁹, according to the Me₃SiI-catalyzed rearrangement described above the pathway suggested in Eq. 72 via 167 is more likely. Either iodotrimethylsilane is formed *in situ* or ZnI₂ is the catalyst transforming 166 to 167. Surprisingly, the ring opening of the cyclopropanolate generated from 168 under basic conditions occurs with negligible regioselectivity.



The soft "counterion" iodide is essential for the Me₃SiI-induced ring cleavage $155 \rightarrow 156$. Employment of hard Lewis acids like titanium tetrachloride as catalysts leads to a smooth *cis/trans* equilibration of methyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates even at very low temperatures ⁹⁰). The equilibrium seems to be governed by steric effects mainly, although not all aspects of this process are understood. A straightforward mechanistic interpretation suggests a coordination of the Lewis acid to the carbonyl oxygen, which strongly accelerates heterolytic cleavage of the donor-acceptor activated cyclopropane 169. In the zwitterionic intermediate 170 rotation around single bonds and reclosure to 169 is possible, thus the thermodynamic equilibrium at the cyclopropane stage can be established.



This mechanistic picture is supported by the fact that the ketene acetal moiety in 170 can be trapped by suitable electrophiles providing adducts 171. Ring cleaving selenenylation and sulfenylation is therefore possible at -78 °C in the presence of a few drops of TiCl₄ (Table 5, entries 1-5)⁹¹. Without Lewis acid no reaction with the sulfur electrophile could be observed at room temperature and incorporation of the phenylselenenyl group occurs only rather slowly.

Entry	R ¹	R ²	R ³	R ⁴	El-X	LA	Yield
1	Н	Me	Me	Me	PhSe-Cl	TiCl	69%
2	Me	Me	Me	н	PhSe-Cl	TiCl₄	88 %
3	CMe.	Н	н	н	PhSe-Cl	TiCl	85%
4	CMe,	Н	Н	Me	PhSe-Cl	TiCl₄	82%
5	CMe,	Н	Н	Н	ArS-Cl ^a	TiCl	87%
6	Me	Me	Me	Н	$CH_{2} = NMe_{2}Cl$	TiCl	55%
7	Me	Me	Me	н	$CH_{2} = NMe_{2}OTf$		74%
8	CMe.	Н	Н	Н	$CH_{2} = NMe_{2}OTf$		89 %
9	CMe	Н	Н	Me	$CH_{2} = NMe_{2}OTf$		80%
10	Ph	Н	н	Н	$CH_{2} = NMe_{2}OTf$	_	56%
11	-(CH ₂)	4	Н	н	$CH_2 = NMe_2OTf$	-	65%

Table 5. Lewis Acid Promoted Addition Reactions of Electrophiles to Cyclopropanes 169 According to Eq. 73 and 74

^a Ar = $0 - NO_2C_6H_4$

4.5.2 Reactions with Equimolar Amounts of Lewis Acids

In contrast to transformations described in the preceeding section additions of N,Ndimethylmethaniminium chloride or carbonyl compounds, respectively, to siloxycyclopropanes 169 require equimolar quantities of Lewis acid. Probably the promotor is deactivated by the resulting Lewis basic products. Aminomethylation can be performed with the iminium chloride and TiCl₄ (Table 5, entry 6), but it proceeds more easily and reproducibly with the corresponding iminium triflate — generated *in situ* from the iminium chloride by anion exchange with trimethylsilyl trifluoromethanesulfonate ⁹¹⁾. Very likely a rearrangement induced by traces of trimethylsilyl triflate present forms an O-methyl O-silyl ketene acetal 172 (detectable by ¹H-NMR)⁶¹¹, which should be the true reacting nucleophilic species (Eq. 74).



Several α -aminomethylated γ -oxoesters 173 can be prepared in good yield. However, for reasons not understood so far compounds 169 with $R^1 = H$ do not undergo this C-C-bond forming cyclopropane cleavage. Products 173 can serve as precursors for syntheses of acrylate derivatives or α -methylene γ -butyrolactones (Eq. 75) ⁹¹.



Synthetically even more versatile trifunctional intermediates result from the addition of carbonyl compounds onto methyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates ⁹²⁾. Benzophenone, titanium tetrachloride, and *162*, for instance, provide an excellent yield of the α -hydroxyalkylated γ -oxoester *174*, which predominates in the equilibrium with its cyclic hemiacetal *176* (γ -lactol). It can undergo elimination to the unsaturated ester *175*, but as Scheme 7 illustrates, *174/176* can also serve as the starting material to several highly substituted furan(one) derivatives.

Whereas most transformations are selfexplanatory, the conversion to the tetrahydrofuran-3-carboxylate 178 should be regarded with special attention. This highly stereoselective reaction proceeds with an oxacarbenium ion as intermediate and could also be extended to certain silvlated C-nucleophiles (vide infra)⁹³.



Scheme 7. Synthesis of Furan(one) Derivatives from Hydroxyalkylation Product 174/176 obtained from Cyclopropane 162

The synthesis of dihydrofuran derivatives such as 177 has been performed to explore scope and limitations of the Lewis acid promoted hydroxyalkylation of siloxycyclopropanes. Table 6 shows that aromatic as well as aliphatic ketones can efficiently be incorporated. Enolization of ketones does not occur and a 1-methyl group at the cyclopropane is no obstacle for the reaction, which now binds the carbonyl compound to a quarternary center with surprisingly high efficiency (entry 5). Albeit there are some restrictions with regard to the substitution pattern of the cyclopropanes, bicyclic siloxycyclopropanes also give good yields (e.g. entry 6 and Eq. 76). Further examples of the tetrahydrofuran synthesis from intermediate γ -lactols with

Entry	Starting Material	Carbonyl Compound	Method ^{a)}	Product	Yield [%]
1	Me ₃ Si0	0=	В		88
2	//	0=	С	Ph CO ₂ Me	58
3	11	0-	c]	CO ₂ Me	61
4	Me ₃ SiO	e 0= Ph	A	D Ph Ph CO ₂ Me	75
5	Me ₃ Si0	e 0≠< ^{Ph} Ph	С	Ph CO ₂ Me	88
	CO ₂ Me Me ₃ SiO	,Ph			

С

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Table 6. Synthesis of Dihydrofuran Derivatives Analogous to 177 (Scheme 7)

^{a)}Method A : see Scheme 7

6

Method B : crude acetal is thermolized

0=

Ph

Method C : crude γ -lactol is thermolized

52

CO2Me

triethylsilane/BF₃ are displayed in Eq. 76 and 77. Here bicyclic products with spiro or linear annulated rings result 92 .



Intriguing mechanistic details of the TiCl₄-promoted C-C-bond forming process were discovered during attempts to execute the addition of 162 to benzaldehyde ⁶¹⁾. The usual conditions with premixing of the carbonyl component and TiCl₄ followed by warm up together with 162 leads to two diastereomeric chlorinated products 179, whose origin from the primary adduct(s) via a S_N^1 -type substitution is obvious (Eq. 78). However, treatment of cyclopropane 162 with the Lewis acid and warm up without aldehyde generates a new species as indicated by a colour change of the resulting solution from wine red to yellow. This intermediate is reactive enough to add cleanly to benzaldehyde at -78 °C providing one diastereomer after aqueous work up.



The *anti*-stereochemistry of the adduct 180 is confirmed by its smooth transformation to *cis*-tetrahydrofuran derivative 181. Therefore, combination of two highly stereoselective processes brings about the efficient preparation of the specifically substituted heterocycle 181^{61} .





¹³C-NMR spectroscopy proves that titanoxycyclopropane 182 is the crucial species, which is formed at ca. -30 °C and reacts with the aldehyde at lower temperature without chlorination. Scheme 8 illustrates generation of 182 and its stereoselective addition to the aldehyde with a transition state TS locating the phenyl group in the sterically favourable *anti*-position with respect to the large *tert*-butyl group.

This mechanism is therefore completely different from that established for the formally related reaction of 1-ethoxy 1-trimethylsiloxycyclopropane 183, which gives γ -butyrolactones with aldehydes ⁹⁴⁹. In this homoaldol addition the β -titanated ester 184 is the reactive intermediate.



However, in the usual procedure only aldehydes can be employed as electrophiles for 183, whereas donor-acceptor-substituted cyclopropanes as 162 are active even towards very sluggish ketones like benzophenone. The mechanism depicted in Scheme 8 illustrates that it is the ester function, which serves as a suitable handle for the Lewis acid to start the reaction and to facilitate cleavage of the cyclopropane bond with concomitant formation of a new C-C-bond.

The generality of this stereoselective process has yet to be demonstrated but synthesis of 185 (Eq. 80) from 162 and isobutyroaldehyde in satisfying yield shows that aliphatic aldehydes can also be used as electrophiles ⁶¹.



Scheme 9. Transformations of Hydroxyalkylation Adduct 180

Adduct 180 can be transformed to various furan derivatives (Scheme 9) ⁶¹). Dehydration is accompanied by *cis/trans* isomerization giving *trans*-dihydrofuran 186, and oxidation to ketone 187 followed by condensation provides the trisubstituted furan 188. Cyano and allyl trimethylsilane, respectively, lead to tetrahydrofuran derivatives 189 and 190 with high stereoselection, which carry new substituents suitable for further manipulation. These reactions work equally well for the ketone adduct 176 and a bicyclic γ -lactol affording 191–193 ⁹³).



Other C-electrophiles besides iminium salts and carbonyl compounds have not yet extensively been tested for C-C-forming cyclopropane ring cleavage. However, whereas acyl or tertiary alkyl halides do not give addition products, benzaldimine at least provides the expected secondary amine 194 with good yield and diasteroselectivity ⁶¹.

The reactions portrayed so far in this paragraph involve hard Lewis acids, which coordinate at the cyclopropane carbonyl oxygen and thereby assist different modes of ring cleavage. The soft Lewis acid mercury(II) acetate might directly attack the cyclopropane C-1 of 162. The mercury compound 195 is formed in high yield but, unfortunately, allows only low conversions to the desired addition product 196⁹⁵. It results from free radical reaction of a reductively generated radical, which is obviously deactivated by the ester function. The main product therefore is the γ -oxoester 197 formed by capture of hydrogen.



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4.6 Synthesis of Heterocycles via Enolates of Methyl 2-Siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates

4.6.1 Furan Derivatives by Addition to Carbonyl Compounds

As mentioned in the last paragraph, the methodology employing Lewis acids for activation of siloxycyclopropanes has certain restrictions with regard to the substitution pattern. Therefore an alternative path to prepare hydroxyalkylated adducts would be most valuable. It can actually be achieved via enolates of methyl 2-siloxy-cyclopropanecarboxylates, which add cleanly to many carbonyl compounds (Eq. 83)⁹⁶⁾.



However, due to the free hydroxy function primary adducts 198 with a trimethylsiloxy group are rather labile in most cases and can usually not be isolated in good yield ⁹⁷⁾. Therefore direct treatment of the crude reaction product with n-Bu₄NF is highly advantageous to complete ring cleavage to the corresponding γ -lactols 199. Of course, this two-step-procedure to synthesize hydroxyalkylation products 199 is not stereoselective. Thus for $\mathbb{R}^4 \neq \mathbb{R}^5$ four diastereomeric γ -lactols are formed, which can be oxidized with pyridinium chlorochromate to provide paraconic esters 200 in satisfying overall yield ⁹⁶.

Entry	R ²	R ³	R ⁴	R⁵	Yield	cis: trans	
1	Me	Me	Ph	Ph	70%	·	
2	Me	Me	Me	Me	67%	-	
3	Me	Me	$-(CH_2)$	s —	54%	_	
4	-(CH ₂)5-	Me	Me	43 %		
5	-(CH2)5-	$-(CH_2)$	s —	51%		
6	-(CH2)5-	Ph	Ph	27%	-	
7	Me	Me	Ph	Н	57%	2:3	
8	Me	Me	Me	н	52%	1:2	
9	Me	Me	CHMePh	Н	52%	1:3ª	
10	Me	Me	CH=CHM	e H	38%	1:3	
11	-(CH ₂)5-	Me	Н	51 %	1:1	

Table 7. Synthesis of Paraconic Esters 189 According to Eq. 83

^a Isomers due to the exocyclic center of chirality

Table 7 demonstrates that aromatic, aliphatic, and α,β -unsaturated ketones or aldehydes can be used as electrophiles. With regard to the cyclopropane substituents, R¹ has to be hydrogen for the synthesis of γ -butyrolactones 200, but other examples (vide infra) show that the crucial C-C-bond forming step also proceeds with R¹ \neq H.

As siloxycyclopropanes with $R^1 = H$ were not suitable for the Lewis acid promoted hydroxyalkylation, the two principle methods are supplementary.

In two cases the direct oxidation with PCC of the primary adduct 198 — presumably already contaminated with the corresponding γ -lactol — has been tried and surprisingly the β -hydroxylated γ -butyrolactones 201 are formed (Eq. 84) ^{96 b)}.



A second method to approach synthetically valuable and easily isolable compounds, consists of the Lewis acid promoted addition of silylated nucleophiles to γ -lactols. Again the reagent combination HSiEt₃/BF₃ excellently serves for reductive removal of the anomeric hydroxy group in 202 providing methyl tetrahydrofuran-3-carbo-xylates 203 with satisfying overall yield from 97 (Eq. 85, Table 8) ^{93 b)}. As to be expected for systems with $\mathbb{R}^4 \neq \mathbb{R}^5$ a *cis/trans*-mixture of 203 is obtained, reflecting the missing stereoselectivity in the step forming the γ -lactol.



Table 8. Synthesis of Tetrahydrofuran-3-carboxylates 203 According to Eq. 85

Entry	R ¹	R ²	R ³	R ⁴	R⁵	Yield	cis: trans
1	н	Me	Me	Ph	Ph	47%	
2	н	Me	Me	Me	Me	71%	
3	н	(CH,),	Ph	Ph	20 %	_
4	н	(CH,),	-(CH,)	,	48 %	
5	н	Me	Me	Me	́ Н	51 %	1:3
6	н	Me	Me	Ph	Н	79 %	2:3
7	н	Me	Me	CHMePh	Н	71 %	1:2ª
8	н	-(CH ₂),	Me	Н	54%	1:1

^a 4 Isomers due to the exocyclic center of chirality

As already discussed above several C-nucleophiles also add smoothly to γ -lactols (Eq. 85, Table 9). BF₃ is the promotor of choice allowing efficient and highly diastereoselective reactions with allyl and cyanotrimethylsilane or with bis(trimethylsilyl)ace-tylene which introduce the corresponding substituents at C-5 of the methyl tetra-hydrofuran-3-carboxylates 204. In the case of propargyltrimethylsilane an allenyl group is transferred to the heterocyclic ⁹³.

Entry	R1	R ²	R ³	R⁴	R⁵	R ₃ Si—Nu	Yield	cis: trans
1	н	Me	Me	Me	Me	$Me_{si} - CH_{si} - CH = CH_{si}$	56°.	1:6
2	н	-(CI	$(H_2)_5 - $	Me	Me	$Me_{3}Si - CH_{2} - CH = CH_{2}$	67° a	1:4
3	н	Me	Me	Me	Me	Me, Si-CN	48 ° č	1:3
4	н	-(C)	H_),-	Me	Me	Me Si-CN	92 %	4:5
5	Н	Mè	Me	Me	Me	$Me_{3}Si - C = C - SiMe_{3}$	77%	<1:20
6	Н	-(Cl	H_)	Me	Me	$Me_{3}Si-C \equiv C-SiMe_{3}$	62 °, a	<1:20
7	Н	Me	Me	Me	Me	$Me_{3}Si-CH_{2}-C\equiv CH$	92 % ^a	2:3 ^b

Table 9. Synthesis of 5-substituted Tetrahydrofuran-3-carboxylates 204 According to Eq. 85

^a Yield based on isolated γ -lactol 202; ^b In the product Nu = C=C=CH₂

The stereoselectivity of this reaction rises when more bulky nucleophiles are employed (compare entries 7, 3, 1, and 5). This is most impressively demonstrated by comparison of the γ -lactol reduction with its allylation leading to 205 or 206, respectively (Scheme 10). Formation of tetrahydrofuran derivative 208, dihydrofuran 209, or unsaturated α -methylen- γ -butyrolactone 207 illustrate that various modes of straightforward work-up procedures provide two different five membered heterocycles ^{93 b.} ⁹⁶⁾. A second example without the geminal dialkyl substitution at C-3 of the siloxycyclopropane depicted in Eq. 86 making available the annulated tetrahydrofuran-3carboxylate 210 underlines the generality of the C-C-bond forming hydroxyalkylation reaction via ester enolates.



Scheme 10. Synthesis of Different Furan(one) Derivatives from a Siloxycyclopropane and Acetone



As mentioned earlier, the primary adducts 198 are isolable with good yields in exceptional cases only. To determine the stereoselectivity of the hydroxyalkylation step, the enolate of the more stable *tert*-butyldimethylsiloxy derivative 211 has been combined with acetone. The two diastereomeric adducts 212 and 213 could be isolated and separated by chromatography $^{96 \text{ b}}$. Interestingly the product 213 formed by the "contrasterical" approach of the electrophile predominates although the effect is much less pronounced than with alkyl halides (see above).



To ascertain the relative stereochemistry of 213, attempts to isomerize it into the thermodynamically more stable *cis*-isomer 212 were undertaken. This plan could be realized as anticipated by catalysis with trimethylsilyl triflate in the presence of hexamethyl disilazane (cf. section 4.5.1). However, without this base an unexpected desilylation, ring enlargement, and condensation occurs finally affording α -methylene γ -butyrolactone 214 in high yield. This type of product could also be prepared by use of trimethylsiloxycyclopropanes 215 and 218, respectively (Eq. 88, 89). In the first case, the intermediate unsaturated ester 216 has been isolated and further converted to lactone 217 by acid treatment ^{96 b)}.



All examples shown in this section demonstrate that with methyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates as key building blocks a great variety of furan(one) derivatives can be gained in an extremely flexible manner. Eq. 90 depicts the origin of the parts in such tetrahydrofuran-3-carboxylates.



4.6.2 Thiophene and Pyrrole Derivatives by Addition to Carbon Disulfide and Phenylthioisocyanate

An attempted synthesis of dithioesters 220 by stepwise treatment of enolates from cyclopropanes 97 with carbon disulfide and methyl iodide lead to an unexpected new product without a cyclopropane ring. By spectroscopic means and study of the reactions dihydrothiophene structure 222 has been established 98 .

Control experiments show that the ring enlargement $219 \rightarrow 221$ occurs at the anionic stage even at -78 °C. The driving force for this 1,3-sigmatropic shift — or, more specifically, heterovinyl-cyclopropane/heterocyclopentene rearrangement — should be the loss of ring strain and the better stabilization of the negative charge in 221. The primary adducts 222 or their desilylated derivatives are usually not isolated, but directly converted to thiophenes. The aromatization could be achieved either by acid promoted silanol elimination providing 223 (R³ = H) or by treatment with Lewis acid which induces a Wagner-Meerwein alkyl shift to afford 224 (R¹ = H).

The overall yields are moderate at best (Table 10), since purification of 223 or 224 is tedious and detrimental due to unknown side products formed by CS_2 . Nevertheless several functionalized thiophenes are available by this unique route which might be optimized in singular cases and can possibly lead to other sulfur containing

heterocycles. For instance, if the primary adduct 222 obtained from cyclopropane 215 is oxidized with pyridinium dichromate the thiolactone 225 can be prepared $^{98)}$.



Table 10. Synthesis of Thiophenes 223 or 224 According to Eq. 91

Entry	R ¹	R ²	R ³	Product	Method	Yield
1	Н	Me	Me	224	$BF_3 \cdot OEt_2$	35%
2	н	-(CH	$I_{2})_{5}$ —	224	$BF_3 \cdot OEt_2$	42%
3	Ph	нÌ	н	223	CF ₃ CO ₂ H	20 %
4	CMe ₃	Н	Н	223	CF ₃ CO ₂ H	41%
5	Me	Н	Н	223	CF ₃ CO ₂ H	7%
6	$-(CH_2)$	<u> </u>	н	223	CF ₃ CO ₂ H	16%
7	$-(CH_2)$	5-	Н	223	CF ₃ CO ₂ H	29%



It is evident that this addition/ring enlargement sequence has to be tested with other heterocumulenes too. So far only phenylthioisocyanate has been used, but completely analogous to CS_2 dihydropyrrole derivatives 227 are now generated, which are either isolated or directly aromatized to pyrrole-3-carboxylates 228 after acid treatment (Eq. 93)⁹⁷⁾.



Yields are scattering very likely due to purification problems in some cases (Table 11). Similar to the thiophene series, oxidation of the hemiaminal 229 leads to the unsaturated lactam 230.



Table 11. Synthesis of Pyrrole Derivatives 227 or 228 According to Eq. 93

Entry	R ¹	R ²	R ³	Method	Product	Yield
1	Н	Me	Me	F-	227	57%
2	н	-(CH	[_), —	F-	227	56%
3	Ph	н`	́Н	H+	227	12%
4	CMe.	Н	Н	H+	228	16%
5	$-(CH_2)$	5	н	H^+	228	59%

As mentioned before, this route to heterocycles by ring enlargement of threemembered carbocycles should be extendable to other electrophiles having cumulated double bonds X=Y=Z. Addition of ketenes or allenes, on the other hand, might provide interesting carbocyclic systems.

5 Sulfur-, Nitrogen-, and Carbonfunctions as Donorsubstituents

5.1 Activation of Cyclopropanes by Alkylthio and Arylthio Groups

Cyclopropanes carrying alkyl- or arylthio substituents have found many applications in organic synthesis. Important developments are due to Trost's efforts, who recently reviewed the topic in this series ⁵). There the subsequent reactions of key compound 232 have been described. The donor-acceptor substituted cyclopropane 231 serves as starting material for 232 as outlined in Eq. 95 ⁹⁹).



Cyclopropanes with this combination of substituents did not receive too much attention elsewhere. Ring cleavage of the ester 233 — obtained by the addition elimination path(f) (cf. Scheme 1) — could be achieved by the Julia method providing diene 234^{100} .



Scheme 11. Transformations of the Cyclopropyl Ketones 236

Similarly, carbinols 237 are converted to dienes 238 having two benzenethio substituents (Scheme 11)¹⁰¹⁾. Here again starting materials are dichloro-cyclopropyl ketones 235 (cf. Scheme 5), which can be transformed to the desired dithioacetals 236 by treatment with sodium benzene thiolate. Cyclopropanes 236 are ring opened to β , γ -unsaturated ketones 240, γ -oxothioesters 241, or for R¹ = H expanded to furan derivative 239^{102, 103}.

5.1 Activation of Cyclopropanes by Amino Groups

The dichlorocyclopropyl ketones 242 are also precursors for aminosubstituted cyclopropanes 243 as illustrated in Eq. 97, which yield N,N-dialkyl γ -oxoalkanamides 244¹⁰⁴).

Addition of electrophilic carbenes to enamines usually does not proceed with good efficiency, very likely because of the disturbance by the Lewis basic nitrogen ¹⁵. If however the less basic enamide derivatives are used as olefins, high conversions to donor-acceptor cyclopropanes are possible. Thus cyclic carbamate 245, which itself originates from an oxycyclopropane, gives the bicyclic compound 246 almost quantitatively. Its cleavage with aqueous base provides lactone 247 that could be coupled with tryptophyl bromide to afford 248, a direct precursor of the alkaloid eburnamonine ¹⁰⁵.



Homopyrrole derivative 250 is available in rather low yield by cyclopropanation of N-methoxycarbonyl pyrrole 249 with ethyl diazoacetate. Heating of 250 in the presence of CuBr brings about "normal" ring cleavage under aromatization, whereas gas phase thermolysis gives dihydropyridine derivative 252. Here the intermediacy of the azatriene 251 and its electrocyclic closure to 252 are to be assumed (cf. ring openings of homofuran compounds, section 3.2)¹⁰⁶⁾.



Methylenation of some β -amino α , β -unsaturated esters or ketones under Simmons-Smith conditions is hampered by low activity of the olefins and formation of side products ¹⁰⁷.

The indirect introduction of an acceptor function is more efficient. The example in Eq. 100 shows that arylthiosubstituted aminocyclopropanes — prepared from an enamine and an arylthio carbene — can be oxidized to a sulfoxide or a sulfone, respectively, which allows ring cleavage under protic conditions affording γ -oxosulfoxides or γ -oxosulfones as products ^{108, 109}.



5.3 Activation of Cyclopropanes by a Trimethylsilymethyl Group

The weakest donor function treated in this article will be the Me₃SiCH₂- unit which is able to stabilize a positive charge by the well known β -effect ⁵⁵⁾. On the other hand, very strong donor quality is attained from this substituent by treatment with fluoride that generates a carbonionic centre. Using n-Bu₄NF this type of initiation converts

cyclopropane 253 into methyl 4-pentenecarboxylate 254. The starting material is easily prepared from allyl trimethylsilane 110 .



The ethyl ester 258 (Eq. 103) has been recovered unchanged after treatment with the boron trifluoride acetic acid complex ¹¹¹, whereas cyclopropane 255 with an additional 2-methyl group opens under these conditions to provide γ -butyrolactone 257 ¹¹²). Apparently the intermediate tertiary carbenium ion 256 is sufficiently stabilized by the trimethylsilylmethyl and the methyl group to be generated from 255.



Enhancement of the acceptor quality can be gained by switching from the ester group to a keto function. This has been realized by treating 258 with sodium or lithium salts of sulfones. In the resulting β -ketosulfones 259 the cyclopropane ring is



more strongly activated by the acceptor group — as compared to 258 —, since a secondary carbenium ion as intermediate preceeds 260. This rather flexible synthesis of unsaturated β -ketosulfones could be used for an approach to diketone 261, a known precursor of *cis*-jasmone ¹¹².

Not surprisingly, two trimethylsilylmethyl groups further increase reactivity of cyclopropanes. Therefore 262 opens to 263 even at -78 °C yielding a new functionalized allylsilane as the product. An attempt to transform 262 into the corresponding β -ketosulfone 264 leads to the unusual cleaved compound 265, which carries an allyl and vinylsilane unit as well as the β -ketosulfone moiety. It is evident that this mode of cyclopropane opening is initiated under the basic reaction conditions by deprotonating the intermediate 264 in the side chain α to one of the trimethylsilyl groups ¹¹³.



Assisted by Lewis acid the acyl imidazole 266 can be cleaved to provide the expected carboxylic acid 267. With fluoride in the presence of a Michael acceptor the intermediate enolate can be trapped. A subsequent intramolecular Claisen condensation



forms the cyclobutanone 268 in reasonable yield $^{114)}$. The starting material 266 results from nickel tetracarbonyl-induced reductive carbonylation of the corresponding dibromocyclopropane 265 $^{115)}$.

6 Conclusions and Further Perspectives

Syntheses of donor-acceptor-substituted cyclopropanes are possible by a variety of methods which are often very efficient and flexible. Although these cyclopropanes are usually stable enough to be isolated and handled without problems the vicinal location of activating substituents allows relief of the ring strain under rather specific conditions. These ring opening reactions cause donor-acceptor-substituted cyclopropanes to be a versatile synthetic tool which can be used for transformations often not easily achievable by other means.

Many combinations of substituents at the cyclopropane ring have been realized, but not all are of synthetic value. In this respect alkyl 2-siloxycyclopropanecarboxylates are of particular versatility. They allow many modes of ring cleavages which can be combined with change of functionality or with C-C-bond forming reactions providing a manifold of polyfunctional 1,4-dicarbonyl compounds, carbocycles, and heterocyclic systems as products.

The fundamental chemistry of donor-acceptor-substituted cyclopropanes is now well understood. This solid platform should allow many applications of known processes and exploration of new reaction types. A future challenge will be asymmetric syntheses which should be achievable, for instance, using Lewis acids containing enantiomerically pure ligands. Even more attractive might be cyclopropane formation under the influence of a suitable optically active catalyst. This intriguing approach could lead to enantioselective syntheses of many compounds in a most economical way. Finally it can be expected in the near future that transition metal induced reactions will also play an important role in this area of small ring chemistry.

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Functionalised Cyclopropenes as Synthetic Intermediates

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Although the use of cyclopropanes in synthesis has been an area of very considerable interest for many years, much less attention has been drawn to the potential and actual uses of cyclopropenes. This may perhaps be a reflection of the perceived difficulty in handling such species, but probably also results from the rather limited routes to cyclopropenes, and in particular those bearing other functional groups, compared to the variety available which lead to the saturated analogues. However, the development of more flexible routes to cyclopropenes makes available not only the exploitation of those reactions which are peculiar to the unsaturated system but also, through stereocontrolled addition to the double bond, provides more efficient routes to cyclopropanes of particular stereochemistry. This review will attempt to identify the progress which has been made in the synthesis of cyclopropenes, to show the rich variety of their synthetic transformations, and to point to areas where future progress may occur. It will not cover purely structural or spectroscopic aspects of cyclopropene chemistry, which were dealt with in most excellent fashion by Closs ¹, and in several later reviews ². Nor will the photochemical or metal induced reactions be dealt with in great detail, the former area having been covered in reviews by Padwa ³ and the latter in an article in the present series by Binger and Buch ⁴.

1 Developments in the Preparation of Cyclopropenes

The routes available for generating a cyclopropene ring include those involving the formation of the 1,3- (or 2,3-) bond, with or without allylic rearrangement, of one or both of the 1,2-bonds, of both 1,3- and 2,3- bonds, and of both 1,3- and one of the 1,2-bonds in (1).



1.1 Base Induced Elimination in Allylic Systems

One of the earliest routes to cyclopropenes suitable for large scale use was the dehydrohalogenation of an allylic chloride using strong base. This method is very effective for cyclopropene itself ⁵⁾. It is also effective for simple alkylcyclopropenes, though the base used is critical as in some cases the cyclopropene reacts further to give a methylenecyclopropane; thus, reaction of 3-chloro-2-methylprop-1-ene with sodium amide in tetrahydrofuran at 65 °C can provide large quantities of 1-methylcyclopropene, but with potassium amide the product is methylenecyclopropane ^{6, 7)}. In general, however, lithium amide appears to be the base of choice ^{8, 9)}:



The position of the alkyl substituent in the product indicates that cyclisation occurs with rearrangement of the double bond, ie., by 1,1-elimination and formal formation and cyclisation of a vinylcarbene. Although the overall yields are not always good, the reagents are readily available and large quantities of the simple alkylcyclopropenes can be produced. 1,2-Dimethylcyclopropene has been prepared in a similar process by treatment of methallyl chloride with two equivalents of phenyl lithium, followed by quenching with methyl iodide; presumably, the initial reaction leads to 1-methyl-cyclopropene which is converted in situ to the 2-lithio-species ¹⁰. The elimination of HBr from brominated alkylidenemalonates also leads to cyclopropenes, though in low yield ¹¹:



In a recently developed method, the single bond of a cyclopropene is obtained by 1,3-dehalogenation in an allylic system; thus reaction of the iodochlorides (2) with an alkyl lithium at -78 °C leads to a range of cyclopropenes ¹²):



The required iodochlorides can be prepared from propargylic alcohols by carbometallation followed by iodinolysis:



A variation leads to cyclopropanes:



It is thought that addition of trimethylaluminium across the alkyne leads to (3), which undergoes 1,3-elimination to produce 1-methyl-2-trimethylsilylcyclopropene; addition of trimethylaluminium to the double bond follows, with the expected regiochemistry ¹³.

1.2 Formation of Both Components of the 1,2-Bond: Elimination in 1,3-Halogenated Propanes

Although this review does not in general cover cyclopropenones, it is important to note the elegant preparation of cyclopropenone dimethylacetal by reaction of 2,3-dichloropropene with N-bromosuccinimide in methanol to produce (4), followed by treatment with potassium amide in liquid ammonia ¹⁴:



The double dehalogenation of 1,1,3,3-tetrachlorides provides an attractive route to some cyclopropenes:

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The starting polyhalides are obtained in reasonable yield by addition of, eg., 1,1,1-trichloropropane to 2-chloropropene, initiated by $Fe(CO)_5$ — HMPA. Treatment with zinc in DMF leads to good yields of 1,2-dialkylcyclopropenes, but the reaction is much less satisfactory when one of the substituents is hydrogen or chlorine ¹⁵, and it does not seem to have been tested with more heavily functionalised systems.

The double dehydrobromination of α, α' -dibromoalkanedicarboxylates (5) is a good route to cycloalkene diesters when n = 2-4, but unfortunately is not successful with n = 1; when (5, n = 1) is treated with one equivalent of potassium t-butoxide, a reasonable yield of the E- and Z-bromides (6, X = Br) is obtained, but a second equivalent of base leads to E- (6, X = Bu'O), presumably by addition of t-butylalcohol, to an intermediate cyclopropene¹⁶.



An unusual alternative involves the reaction of the dibromide (7) with base:



This formally occurs by two dehydrohalogenations, 1,3- and 1,2-, though the sequence of these is not certain ¹⁷⁾.

1.3 1,2-Elimination in Cyclopropanes

Early work on 1,2-elimination in cyclopropanes centred on the thermal elimination of amines from cyclopropyltrialkylammonium salts ¹⁾. An elegant example is a route to optically active cyclopropenes involving the resolution of the acid (8, $R = CO_2H$), conversion to the quaternary ammonium salt (8, $R = {}^{+}NMe_3$) and elimination over platinised asbestos at 360 °C ¹⁸⁾:


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However, the ready availability of halocyclopropanes has led to extensive studies of their 1,2-dehydrochlorination, and amines are now rarely used as cyclopropene precursors. Although the reaction of 1,1-dichlorocyclopropanes with strong base does in certain situations lead to cyclopropenes, it is frequently the case that the initially formed 1-halocyclopropene does not survive under the reaction conditions, undergoing either addition of a nucleophile to the alkene bond or prototropic shifts followed by further dehydrohalogenation. Two main variations on this method are available which proceed under conditions where further reaction does not, in general, occur, that is 1,2-dehalogenation and 1,2-dehalosilylation. Each of these three alternatives will be considered in turn.

1.3.1 1,2-Dehydrohalogenation

Because 1,1-dihalocyclopropanes are so readily available by carbene addition to alkenes, their dehydrohalogenation to 1-halocyclopropenes provides, in principle, one of the most attractive routes to functionalised cyclopropenes. However, most early studies of the reaction did not lead to the cyclopropenes themselves, but to products of their further reaction. The main problems arise when the 1-halocyclopropene (9) can undergo prototropic shifts by removal of a proton from C'_2 or C_3 , or when the base used is also a good nucleophile and addition to the cyclopropene can occur:



The former problem is absent in systems such as (10), and the second problem is sometimes lessened when a mono-halocyclopropane is used in place of a dihalide, the rate of addition to the derived cyclopropene being decreased due to the lack of halogen on the double bond. The following discussion is divided into two sections to cover the frequently met situations:

Dehydrohalogenation of Monohalocyclopropanes

Problems with subsequent reaction of a 1-halocyclopropene may be avoided by reduction of the dihalocyclopropane to a monohalocyclopropane prior to dehydro-halogenation. Thus 3,3-dimethylcyclopropene may be obtained in multi-gram quantities by treatment of 1-bromo-3,3-dimethylcyclopropane with potassium t-butoxide in DMSO at $-78 \,^{\circ}C^{19}$. Dehydrohalogenation of a series of related 3,3-dialkyl substituted monochloro- or monobromo-cyclopropanes leads to moderate yields of cyclopropenes (11, R = alkyl, alkenyl, aryl, CN, Cl, R¹ = H, Ph, t-Bu, R² = H)²⁰¹; Indeed, dehydrobromination of (12) leads to either mono- or di-cyclopropenes²¹⁾. Reaction of a dihalocyclopropane with an alkyl lithium at low temperature followed by carboxylation of the derived 1-lithio-1-halocyclopropane provides a convenient source of 1-halocyclopropane carboxylates; dehydrohalogenation leads to cyclo-

propene esters (11, $R^2 = CO_2 R$)²²⁾. In the same way the tricyano-system (13) eliminates on reaction with triethylamine even at $-78 \ ^{\circ}C^{23}$.



A new adaptation of this method involves passing the halocyclopropane at low pressure over potassium t-butoxide on a solid support, condensing the products at low temperature. In this way, bromocyclopropane is converted to cyclopropene, although the yields in preparative reactions are low ²⁴). Using KOBu^t supported on chromosorb-W, 1-chloro-2-methylenecyclopropane is converted into methylenecyclopropene, which is unstable above $-75 \, ^{\circ}C^{25}$, and 1-chloro-2-vinylcyclopropane is converted into 1-vinylcyclopropene ²⁶). In the case of the dichloride (14), however, a simple double dehalogenation does not occur, and 1-vinylcyclopropene again results, in a process involving an overall reduction. The reaction has been explained in terms of initial formation of the monochloride (15) followed by radical cleavage of the cyclopropene bond and elimination of a chlorine atom to produce (16), and then hydrogen atom abstraction; some support for the final step is provided by the isolation of acetone, presumably derived from t-butylalcohol by hydrogen abstraction ²⁶.



When the dehydrochlorination of (14) is carried out in solution, the reaction follows a rather different course, and (17) and (18) are isolated. These products may both be explained by a reaction sequence involving addition of t-butoxide to the monochloride (15) 26 .



Dehydrohalogenation of 1,1-Dihalocyclopropanes

The dehydrohalogenation of cyclopropanes bearing three alkyl or aryl substituents as in (19, $R^1 = t$ -Bu, Ph) leads to halocyclopropenes which cannot undergo prototropic shifts by removal of an allylic hydrogen. When $R^1 = Ph$ and $R^2 = H$, alkyl or aryl, good yields of chlorocyclopropenes may be obtained 2^{27-29} . In other cases ring opening is also observed:



The origin of the alkyne in this reaction was not clear 30 , but this will be discussed again below. In the same way the methylene cyclopropenes (24) can be obtained from the corresponding 1,1-dibromocyclopropanes, although the products are extremely sensitive to water, undergoing rapid hydrolysis at ambient temperature to produce (25) and (26), presumably by initial hydration of either of the two double bonds 31 .



The reaction of the dimethyl-derivative (27) with butoxide ion might be expected to produce the chlorocyclopropene (28); however, in practice two eliminations occur to produce (31) and the carbene (30), which can be trapped by an added alkene. Both products may be derived from (28), by a 1,4- or a formal 1,2-elimination respectively; a study using a ¹⁴C-label at C-1 of (27) showed that the carbene (30) was formed with the label exclusively at C-1, suggesting elimination via (29)³²⁾. However, in a related study, the isolated cyclopropene (28) labelled with ¹²C at C-1 has been shown to react with methyl lithium to produce the carbene (30) labelled only at C-2; this suggests either that the reaction of (28) with butoxide follows a completely different course to that with methyl lithium, or that (28) is not involved in the reaction of (27) with base ³³⁾. In a similar reaction the dichloride (32) has been shown to react with tbutoxide in DMSO to produce the allene (33); the product may be explained in terms of initial elimination to produce (34), followed either by rearrangement to the alkyne (35) and then elimination or by direct 1,4-elimination as in (36), followed in either case by a prototropic shift. Whatever the mechanism, a ¹²C-label at Ca in (32) is found at Ca in $(33)^{33}$.



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An exception to the general rule that halocyclopropenes cannot be isolated when prototropic shifts are available is seen in the reactions of $(37, R = Me(CH_2)_7 \text{ or } H)$ with potassium hydroxide in ethanol at reflux, which are reported to lead to 1,2-elimination to bromocyclopropenes³⁴.

A variation on the above elimination is also possible in certain trihalocyclopropanes. Thus (38) undergoes clean base-induced elimination of HBr to provide a route to 1,1-difluorocyclopropa[a]naphthalene ³⁵.



1.3.2 1,2-Dehalogenation

Dehalogenation of perhalocyclopropanes using zinc provides a very simple route to tetrahalocyclopropenes ³⁶⁾. Moreover, a number of the problems of further reaction inherent in the 1,2-dehydrohalogenation of halocyclopropanes (see above) may be removed by use of dehalogenation of a 1,2-dihalocyclopropane with an alkyl lithium. In this way, reaction of (39, $R = R^1 = Me$) with butyl lithium at -78 °C leads to 1,2-dimethylcyclopropene, while (39, $R, R^1 = (CH_2)_3$ or $(CH_2)_4$) leads to the highly strained bicyclic species (40, n = 3,4) which may be trapped as Diels-Alder adducts ³⁷⁾. The 1,2-dihalocyclopropanes can be prepared from the corresponding dicarboxylic acids by the Hunsdiecker reaction ³⁷¹, but otherwise are not widely reported, though they can be obtained by reduction of tri- or tetrahalocyclopropanes (or by addition of halogen to a cyclopropene!). In general, it is simpler to dehalogenate 1,1,2-trihalocyclopropanes - or 1,1,2,2-tetrahalocyclopropanes themselves; these are readily available by dihalocarbene addition to halogenated alkenes. The presence of the additional halogens has the added advantage of making the initial lithium-halogen

exchange more facile. Thus treatment of (41) with methyl lithium at -90 °C leads to (42) in a reaction which can be explained by lithium-bromine exchange at C¹ followed by 1,2-loss of lithium halide ^{38, 39}.



The reaction is successful with a variety of alkyl substituents at 2- or 3-positions. It is also successful with the geminal-dichlorides (43), though somewhat more vigorous conditions are required. When X = Cl and R = alkyl, the reaction occurs in ca 10 min. at 20 °C, presumably initiated by lithium-halogen exchange at C¹; however, when R = H, the reaction follows a different course, and lithium-hydrogen exchange followed by 1,2-elimination of LiCl is observed ³⁹. When X = Br, the reaction occurs at somewhat lower temperature and may be initiated by lithium-bromine exchange; indeed with R = H or alkyl, overall 1,2-elimination of BrCl is observed ^{38, 39}. This dehalogenation procedure can be carried out on a multi-gram scale and in many cases the 1-halo-cyclopropenes are stable for long periods at ambient temperature. Because the solvent is ether and work-up is simple, it can be applied to relatively unstable products such as (28) ³⁹. An added advantage is that lithium-halogen exchange in the product 1-halocyclopropene occurs readily on addition of a second equivalent of alkyl lithium (see Section 2), enabling a wide range of substituents to be introduced at C¹ of the cyclopropene by further reaction with electrophiles.

1.3.3 1,2-Dehalosilylation

Dehalosilylation of 1-halo-2-trialkylsilylcyclopropanes occurs under mild conditions and in general without further rearrangement, when brought about by fluoride ion. Thus treatment of (45, X = Cl, Br) with caesium fluoride leads to 1-chloro- or 1-bromo-cyclopropenes in good yield, while (46) is converted to the highly strained cyclopropene (47) which can be trapped as a Diels-Alder adduct with a furan ⁴⁰. In the same way reaction of (48, X = Cl) with tetra-n-butyl ammonium fluoride at -20 °C leads to 1-bromo-2-chlorocyclopropene (49, X = Cl) which can be trapped in 80–90% yield by cyclopentadiene ⁴¹. Moreover the cyclopropene, which may be stored for several days at that temperature ⁴², undergoes Diels-Alder reactions with 1,2-bismethylene-cyclohexanes and therefore acts as an efficient synthon in several routes to cycloproparomatics ^{42, 43}. Reaction of the tribromide (48, X = Br) with fluoride ion provides a convenient route to (49, X = Br), while treatment with butyl lithium leads to (49, X = SiMe₃) ⁴⁴.

1.3.4 Other Eliminations

An alternative to the above eliminations, which in principle offers a great many advantages, is the metal induced elimination of the elements of ROBr from a 2-halocyclopropyl ether. Thus the sequence of addition of dibromocarbene to an enol ether, reduction to a monobromide and reaction with magnesium in tetrahydro-furan provides a route to cyclopropene itself⁴⁵⁾.

The oxidation of a phenylselenylcyclopropane with elimination of PhSeOH has also been reported, but in the particular case examined the product, (50), was unstable and could only be detected indirectly by trapping with methanol as the ring opened ester $(51)^{46}$:



Reaction of the sulphonium salt (52) with cyclopentadienide ion leads to methylenecyclopropene, though this can only be trapped in low yield by addition to cyclopentadiene $^{47)}$.

1.4 From Alkynes

The reaction of a diazo-compound with an acetylene either photolytically or in the presence of a catalyst represented one of the earliest routes to cyclopropenes, and is especially useful for 3-functionalised system ¹⁾. In some examples the diazo-compound adds to the acetylene to produce a pyrazole which on photolysis leads either to a vinylcarbene or to the ring-closed cyclopropene. Thus 2-diazopropane adds to acetylenes carrying electron withdrawing groups such as esters or nitriles to give good yields of pyrazoles; these are converted by photolysis to electrophilic cyclopropenes. In the case of acetylenic ketones some dienic products may also be obtained ⁴⁸⁾:

The adduct (53, $R = CO_2Me$, $R^1 = CH = CMe_2$) is quantitatively converted to the cyclopropene ester (54, $R = CO_2Me$, $R^1 = CH = CMe_2$) on photolysis; (53, $R^1 = CO_2Me$, $R = CH = CMe_2$) leads to the same cyclopropene, the intermediate carbene (55) closing regioselectively at the methoxycarbonyl-substituted terminus, presumably due to steric effects in the intermediate ⁴⁹. Other examples of this reaction are not always so efficient. Thus, although (53, $R = R^1 = Ph$) is converted to (54,



 $R = R^1 = Ph$) in very high yield by photolysis, the pyrazole is formed in only 3% yield from diphenylethyne.⁵⁰⁾ The formation of cyclopropenes from pyrazoles apparently occurs via the corresponding diazo-compound. Thus photolysis of (53, $R = R^1 = Ph$) at between 330 and 410 nm has been shown to lead to the diazo-compound (56) which on further photolysis or pyrolysis is converted to (54)⁵⁰⁾. Indeed, photolysis of vinyldiazoalkanes provides a good route to cyclopropenes; thus photolysis of E- (57) leads to 3-alkoxycarbonyl-3-cyanocyclopropene⁵¹⁾, while (58) leads either to the corresponding cyclopropene or to reversal to the pyrazole ⁵²⁾.

Photolysis of the 3H-pyrazoles (59) leads to good yields of the corresponding cyclopropenes (60) in reactions which have also been shown to proceed through the diazo-compounds. With (59, $R^3 = Ph$) an additional product is the indene (61), apparently derived by ring closure of the carbene (62) followed by a 1,5-hydrogen shift. Moreover the pyrazoles (59, $R^1 = POPh_2$, X = O) lead to allenes (63) as well as cyclopropenes. In this case the cyclopropene is quantitatively converted to allene on further photolysis, presumably by ring opening to the vinyl carbene followed by a 1,2-shift of the diphenylphosphoryl group ⁵³⁾.



Photolysis of pyrazoles such as (64) has also been shown to produce indenes as well as cyclopropenes. The indene is apparently derived from a triplet intermediate, while the cyclopropene is singlet derived $^{54)}$. In a related example, direct photolysis of dimethyl diazomalonate in an alkyne leads to moderate yields of cyclopropene, whereas sensitized photolysis leads to furans by ring closure of an intermediate diradical (65) $^{55)}$.

In other cases cyclopropenes have been obtained by direct reaction of an alkyne with a diazo-compound in the presence of a suitable catalyst. Typical of these is the reaction of ethyl diazoacetate with alkynes in the presence of copper, which is reported to lead to about 40-50% conversion to cyclopropene per equivalent of diazo-compound. This has been applied to the synthesis of the important naturally occurring cyclopropene, sterculic acid, (66) ⁵⁶:



The addition of alkoxycarbonylcarbene derived by catalysed decomposition of methyl diazoacetate to several simple, and in particular terminal, alkynes leads to low yields ⁵⁷⁾, but the reaction with 1-trimethylsilylalkynes proceeds reasonably efficiently; subsequent removal of the silyl-group either by base or fluoride ion provides a route to 1-alkyl-3-cyclopropenecarboxylic acids. In the same way 1,2-bis-trimethylsilyl-ethyne can be converted to cyclopropene-3-carboxylic acid itself ⁵⁸⁾. The use of rhodium carboxylates instead of copper catalysts also generally leads to reasonable yields of cyclopropenes, even from terminal alkynes ⁵⁹⁾.

The addition of dihalocarbenes to alkynes is again a rather inefficient process and usually leads to the isolation of the cyclopropenone rather than the 3,3-dichlorocyclopropene. In a rather unusual example, however, 2-butyne is reported to be converted to (67). This product is apparently derived by addition of dichlorocarbene to the corresponding methylenecyclopropene, derived in turn by elimination of HCl from the primary adduct (68). The cyclopropene (67) does not appear to ring open to a vinylcarbene, but can be trapped in Diels-Alder reactions with cyclopentadiene 60 . A related addition of dichlorocarbene to ethyl 2-butynoate also leads to a low yield of the 3,3-dichlorocyclopropene, which may be hydrolysed to the cyclopropenone 61 .



Additions of other types of carbene to alkynes are not common, though $Me_2C = C$; generated from 2-methylpropenyl triflate and base, does add to alkynes to produce transient methylenecyclopropenes which may be trapped as Diels-Alder adducts⁶².

1.5 From Cyclopropenium Salts

Reduction of cyclopropenium ions by hydride ion provides a viable route to cyclopropenes ^{63 a)}. With disubstituted ions borohydride has been found to attack exclusively at the unsubstituted position, presumably for steric reasons; this has been used in the synthesis of sterculic acid (66) (see above) ⁵⁶⁾. Reduction of 1,2-diaryl-3-chlorocyclopropenium ions with dimethylamine-borane in methanol-water is also reported to be efficient ^{63 b)}. Cyclopropenium salts are also readily trapped by Grignard reagents; thus 1,2-diphenylcyclopropenium ion is converted to the rather unstable 1,2-diphenyl-3-methylcyclopropene; this may be stored as a charge-transfer complex with 9cyanomethylene-2,4,7-trinitrofluorene and regenerated quantitatively ⁶⁴⁾. A very interesting variation is the trapping of cyclopropenium ions by amide ion to produce the unsaturated analogues of 1-aminocyclopropanecarboxylic acid:



although the reaction has apparently not been extended to less substitued systems, nor has addition to the double bond to produce 1-ACCs themselves been examined ⁶⁵.

Reaction of the diphenylmethoxycyclopropenium ion with (69) provides a simple route to functionalised methylenecyclopropenes 66 :



In the case of the corresponding thio-derivative, the reaction with Grignard reagents is not completely regioselective, although (70) is the major product ⁶⁷⁾. Trapping of cyclopropenium ions with α -lithiodiazoalkenes and with stannylynamines has also been reported ^{68, 69}:



The cyclopropenyl diazocompounds (71) are thermally very stable but decompose under photochemical conditions to produce two alkynes, apparently by fragmentation of a cyclopropenylcarbene $^{68)}$.

2 Functionalisation of the Cyclopropene Double Bond: Metallation at the 1-Position

Many of the routes to cyclopropenes described in section 1 lead to compounds with hydrogen or halogen substituents on the alkene; these may often be functionalised by metal-halogen or metal-hydrogen exchange followed by trapping with electrophiles. The acidity of the vinylic C-H bonds of cyclopropene is close to those in acetylene indeed the vinylic hydrogens of methyl cyclopropene-3-carboxylate exchange when the ester is hydrolysed with aqueous sodium hydroxide 70). The deprotonation can be carried out quite readily using a metal alkyl or dialkylamide, although addition to the cyclopropene is a potential competing process (see addition reactions below). Another process which can compete with metallation at the double bond is removal of an allylic hydrogen from a 1-alkyl substituent on the cyclopropene and rearrangement first to a methylenecyclopropane and then to a vinylcyclopropane. This process occurs readily with bases such as potassium t-butoxide, as seen later in the reactions of some 1halocyclopropenes; further examples are the conversion of 1,3,3-trimethylcyclopropene to 2,2-dimethylmethylenecyclopropane by reaction with KOBut but to 1-lithio-2,3,3-trimethylcyclopropene by treatment with lithium dicyclohexylamide⁷¹), or methyl lithium ⁷²⁾, and the conversion of (72, $X = CO_2R$, COR, CH₂OH) to (73) by base 73).

The majority of metallations have involved lithium, and the metallated derivative may be trapped by a variety of electrophiles¹ including aldehydes⁷⁴, and allylic

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halides $^{72, 75)}$, although in some cases such as dimethylacetamide, ring opening can result $^{76)}$.



Cyclopropen-1-yl sodium derivatives are also readily prepared. Thus reaction of cyclopropene with one equivalent of sodium amide in liquid ammonia leads to 1-sodiocyclopropene which is alkylated by haloalkanes^{77, 78}, reacts with ketones to produce tertiary alcohols and opens epoxides to produce 2-cyclopropenyl-ethanols in moderate to good yields⁷⁹. Moreover, on reaction with two equivalents of base followed by haloalkane, 1,2-dialkylated species are obtained; sequential reactions can also be used to produce unsymmetrically substituted cyclopropenes⁷⁸. Reaction with a deficiency of sodium amide can also cause addition of the cyclopropenyl anion to unreacted cyclopropene, leading to products derived from the 2-cyclopropylcyclopropen-1-yl anion and to 1,2-dicyclopropylcyclopropene⁷⁷.

Reaction of a cyclopropenyl lithium with cuprous chloride at -70 °C leads to the corresponding organcuprate, but this is reported to lose copper; thus the 2,3,3-trimethyl-derivative is converted to (74)⁸⁰⁾. The 1-lithiocyclopropenes may however be converted to 1-trialkylsilyl, trialkylstannyl, or trialkylgermyl derivatives, eg. ^{81,82)}:



and the first of these may be further lithiated at the 2-position and trapped to provide routes to, eg., thioalkylcyclopropenes, $(75)^{82}$.

Lithium-halogen exchange provides a versatile and often more facile alternative to lithium-hydrogen exchange. In particular, 1-bromocyclopropenes such as (77, R = Me) react very readily with lithium alkyls at 0 °C and below. The bromocyclopropene may in principle be obtained by dehydrobromination of a dibromocyclopropane, but an attractive alternative is the reaction of a trihalocyclopropane with two equivalents of methyl lithium, followed by trapping with an electrophile ³⁹:



The overall yields of (78) from (76) are generally about 60–80%. The lithiation reaction is successful even with a hydrogen at C-2, as in the formation of (78, R = H,

 $E = CO_2H$). The lithiation of 1-bromo-2-trimethylsilylcyclopropene has also been reported, providing a simple route to 1,2-bis-trimethylsilylcyclopropene after quenching with chlorotrimethylsilane⁴⁴⁾. The chlorocyclopropene (79, R = Me), which may be obtained from the corresponding 1,1-dichloro-2-bromo- or 1,1,1-trichlorocyclopropane and methyl lithium, also undergoes lithium-halogen exchange on further treatment with methyl lithium, but the reaction is slower, requiring 40 min. at 20 °C³⁹; in this case, the monochloride (79, R = H) reacts instead by lithiumhydrogen exchange, and the ring opens with loss of lithium chloride to produce carbene (80)⁸⁴⁾. Although the related 1-bromo-2-chloro-3,3-dimethylcyclopropene (79, R = Br) is unstable at ambient temperature, ring opening to two isomeric vinvl carbenes (see later), it reacts with methyl lithium at or below ambient temperature in the presence of an alkene to produce a cyclopropane apparently derived by the addition of the same carbene (80) to the alkene. If it is assumed that this reaction is initiated by lithium-bromine exchange, there are a number of possible ways by which (79, R = Li) can rearrange to the carbene, eg. elimination to produce a formal cyclopropyne, or cleavage of either 1,3- or 2,3-bonds with elimination of lithium chloride. A ¹²C labelling study indicates that it is the 1,3-bond which breaks ^{83, 84)}. A similar study of the generation of the carbene from the reaction of (79, R = H) with methyl lithium also shows cleavage of the 2,3-bond, the label appearing at the central allenic carbon on trapping 39).

The conversion of 2,3-disubstituted 1,1-difluorocyclopropanes to 1-alkyl-2,3disubstituted cyclopropenes may be achieved by treatment with two equivalents of alkyl lithium at -70 °C. The reaction apparently proceeds by initial lithium-hydrogen exchange and loss of lithium fluoride to generate a 1-fluorocyclopropene. It is suggested that this undergoes rapid reaction with the lithium alkyl at the carbon bearing fluorine; an alternative process which may occur, particularly when the 2-substituent is phenyl, would be an addition to the double bond followed by elimination of fluoride ion.⁸⁵⁾ In the case of the difluoride (81, R = F), an alternative reaction occurs with butyllithium and (82) is isolated in moderate yield. It seems likely that an intermediate 1-fluorocyclopropene reacts by lithium-hydrogen exchange at C^2 to produce (83). Labelling studies are consistent with the ring opening of this species by cleavage of the 2,3-bond to produce (84); it is proposed that the ring opening is brought about by attack of the alkyl lithium at C³ followed by, or concerted with, loss of fluoride ion, but analogy with the results described above for (79, R = Br, H) suggests that the lithio-species may in fact lose lithium fluoride directly to produce the carbene (85), which could be trapped by the alkyl lithium to produce the lithium salt of (82)⁸⁵⁾. The related monofluoride (81, $R^1 = Ph$, R = Me) is converted to 1-lithio-2-methyl-3,3-diphenylcyclopropene by reaction with butyl lithium, but trapping by carbon dioxide is not very efficient ⁸⁶).



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An alternative method of vinylic substitution involves the reaction of 1-benzenesulphonylcyclopropenes with an alkyl lithium:



The reaction generally proceeds in good yield and could involve an addition-elimination, though the regiochemistry appears to be incorrect for this. An alternative would be an S_{RN} process involving (86). The reaction has been applied to the preparation of (87) from the silacyclopropene; photolysis then leads to the novel tetracycle (88) through an intramolecular [2+ 2]-cyclo-addition ⁸⁷.



3 Thermal Reactions of Cyclopropenes

As might be expected from their inherent strain, many cyclopropenes undergo rearrangement, dimerisation or even polymerisation under relatively mild conditions. The conditions required for reaction are, however, very variable and some cyclopropenes, such as 3,3-dimethylcyclopropene, are stable at relatively high temperature (150 °C in this case). Three main reactions are described below — the ene-reaction, [2+2]-dimerisation, and rearrangement to vinylcarbenes.

3.1 The Ene-Reaction

Cyclopropenes having a hydrogen at C³ often undergo a particularly facile dimerisation by an ene-type reaction. Thus cyclopropene itself has long been known to undergo dimerisation to cyclopropenyl-cyclopropane on standing at -25 °C; the dimer is converted to oligomers at longer reaction times ⁸⁸. The cyclopropene fulfils the roles of both ene- and enophile: Functionalised Cyclopropenes as Synthetic Intermediates



The presence of a methyl-group at C-1 confers little selectivity, a mixture of three dimers being obtained in low yield (18%). The cyclopropene does, however, act as the ene-component in a facile reaction with perfluorobutyne or dimethyl acetylenedicarboxylate at -30 °C, which can proceed with explosive violence at higher temperatures. The initial products are the vinylcyclopropenes (91, X = CF₃, CO₂Me), but these are reported to be unstable at 25 °C⁸⁹. Reaction of the cyclopropene with t-butylcyanoketene leads initially to the ene-product (92), which can either react further or be trapped as an ester by reaction with additional ketene. A similar reaction occurs with perfluorodimethylketene, although in polar solvents such as acetonitrile an additional product is (93); this apparently arises by a polar addition leading initially to (94) which can rearrange to a cyclopropenes, which cannot act as the enophile, reaction with t-butylcyanoketene leads predominantly to (95), though once again a competing dipolar pathway is observed, in this case leading to, eg., (96)⁹¹⁾.



1-Methylcyclopropene is also trapped in moderate yield by ene-reaction with bis(trifluoromethyl)thioketene $^{92)}$. Tetracyanoethylene can also act as the enecomponent in reactions with cyclopropenes. Thus with cyclopropenes bearing an allylic ring hydrogen such as 1-methylcyclopropene the only product is (97), whereas when no such hydrogen is present products apparently derived by trapping of a ringopened vinylcarbene or diradical, eg., (98) from 1,3,3-trimethylcyclopropene, are isolated $^{93)}$.



Other cyclopropenes have also been shown to act as the enophile or the ene; thus (99) is converted to (100) in reasonable yield by reaction with benzyne ⁹⁴⁾, and (101) is converted to the diastereoisomers of (102) on heating with trans-2-butene for 11 h at 80 °C. The major product is believed to be (a), resulting from pseudo-exo-approach as in (103) ⁹⁵⁾.



In other cases the rate of ene-dimerisation is so high that trapping by external enes or enophiles is inefficient. Thus the diarylcyclopropene (104, R = H) is not trapped by 3-phenylpropene, and leads to only low yields of ene-products analogous to (97) with tetracyanoethene, dibenzoylacetylene or dimethyl acetylenedicarboxylate. The major product in each case is an ene-dimer; this was possibly originally identified as (106) 96 , but is now characterised as (105, R = H), and is obtained essentially quantitatively when the cyclopropene itself is warmed above -78 °C. Rate studies reveal a low E_a for the process, but a large negative ΔS^{\pm} , in agreement with a concerted eneprocess. Comparison with the 3-²H-cyclopropene reveals a large isotope effect (3.1 at -30 °C) and the formation of a product with the two H-substituents cis, that is (105, $R = {}^{2}H)^{97}$. The ene-reaction of such 1,3-disubstituted cyclopropenes represents a rather novel process in that, if an exo-transition state is involved as in (104) \rightarrow (105), the process can only occur if the two different components are enantiomers. In the case of the cyclopropenes above, with two identical aryl-groups, it is not possible to confirm this analysis. However, the ester (107) and acid (108) form a single dimer on standing at 20 °C. This has been shown by crystal structure analysis to be (109), confirming the exo-nature of the transition state, at least when the ene component has geminalsubstituents at C^{3} ⁹⁸⁾.

The acid (108) itself undergoes dimerisation at 0–20 °C, leading to two ene-dimers: the major dimer was shown by crystallography to be (110), consistent with an *endo*-transition state in an ene-reaction. The minor dimer is characterised as (111) on the basis of spectroscopic evidence, the regiochemistry at the cyclopropane in this case indicating an *exo*-transition state geometry ⁹⁸).

There are also examples of the intramolecular ene-reaction involving cyclopropenes. Thus, while (112, $R^1 = Me$, $R^2 = H$) undergoes an intramolecular [2+ 2]-cycloFunctionalised Cyclopropenes as Synthetic Intermediates



addition, the isomer (112, $R^1 = H$, $R^2 = Me$) is converted to (113), and the homologue (114) leads to (115) ^{99,100)}.



3.2 [2+2]-Cycloaddition

Although many cyclopropenes dimerise very readily by the ene-process described above, an alternative mode of dimer formation, a [2+2]-cycloaddition, may occur under thermal, metal catalysed or photochemical conditions; this is particularly common when the ene-reaction is slow or when it is blocked by 3,3-disubstitution. Thus 3,3-dicyclopropylcyclopropene is converted to (116, R = R¹ = cyclopropyl) on heating to 70–100. C or in the presence of boron trifluoride ^{101 a)}, while the acetal (116, R, R¹ = O(CH₂)₂O) is obtained quantitatively by [2+2]-dimerisation of the corresponding cyclopropenone acetal at 0 °C in methanol — although at higher temperatures or with related acetals ring opened products are isolated ^{101 b)}. Moreover, 3-methylcyclopropene is converted to (116, R = Me, R¹ = H) in near quantitative yield on brief contact with a zeolite at -30 °C ¹⁰²⁾, and vinylcyclopropene undergoes the [2+2]-dimerization to give (117) even at -60 °C; the facility of the last reaction is explained in terms of relief of ring strain, while the regioselectivity is as expected for a diradical intermediate ²⁶⁾.



In other cases the thermal reaction of the cyclopropene leads to ring opening, but the [2+2]-cycloaddition can be brought about by photolysis ¹⁰³⁾, or by the presence of a metal salt, eg. ^{4,93,104,105)}:



The outcome of these reactions seems to be somewhat difficult to predict, as the presence of a copper salt during the reaction of 3,3-dialkylcyclopropenes leads to trienes (see below) ¹⁰³⁾, which are the products when (118, $R = CO_2Me$) is allowed to react in the absence of a catalyst ¹⁰⁵⁾!

Cyclopropenes may also be made to undergo [2+2]-addition to other alkenes; thus 3,3-dialkylcyclopropenes add to norbornadiene in the presence of Ph₃P · CuCl at low temperature to produce bicyclo[2.1.0]pentanes; at higher temperature the product is apparently derived by addition of a vinylcarbene R₂^{*}C = CH--CH: to the diene ¹⁰⁶. Photochemically induced intramolecular [2+2]-addition is also successful ^{107 a, c)}.



In general, the addition is sensitive to steric factors and the approach geometry is such that interactions are minimised, while the regiochemistry may again be explained in terms of the formation of the more stable biradical intermediate. In other cases a thermal intramolecular addition occurs, eg. ^{107 b}:



3.3 The Cyclopropene — Vinylcarbene Interface

The ring opening of cyclopropenes to species which behave like vinylcarbenes has long been established in a range of systems; the reverse reaction of ring closure of vinylcarbenes provides one of the basic routes to cyclopropenes (see above). However, it is difficult to be certain that the intermediates in these reactions are always vinylcarbenes, and if so that the exact nature of these species is always the same. Thus vinylcarbenes have a number of possible electronic states such as non-planar singlets and triplets (122), and planar singlets and triplets, eg. (123). Although calculations show the planar triplet is the most stable state it is unlikely to be the first formed intermediate in many reactions which formally lead to vinylcarbenes. In addition, the use of product ratios in analysing details of these reactions is complicated by the reversibility of the cyclopropene-carbene process $^{108)}$. The emphasis in this review will be the outcome of the reactions — in particular those which may have synthetic applications — and not the detailed nature of the intermediates, which merits a review in itself!



The thermal rearrangements of a variety of alkylcyclopropenes (124) lead to ring opening and the formation of alkynes, dienes and in some cases cyclopropanes, which may be explained in terms of known carbene reactions resulting from (125) or (126) $^{109)}$. Thus the products of thermal rearrangement of (127) in an acid-free system are consistent with opening to both vinylcarbenes (128) and (129). However the large negative entropy of activation is inconsistent with a simple ring opening and may suggest either bond cleavage concerted with rearrangement, or the formation of a more structured intermediate which rearranges to the isomeric carbenes; formally the major products apparently arise from the more stable carbene (128) $^{110)}$. Gas phase kinetic analysis of the thermal rearrangement of 1-methylcyclopropene, however, indicates that all products arise via 1,2-shifts in a diradical-like intermediate, and that the methyl-group deactivates the ring to rearrangement 111 .



Clearly the use of these reactions in synthesis requires the formation of a single carbene, (125) or (126) from the cyclopropene, and also demands that other thermal reactions such as the ene-reaction or [2 + 2]-cycloaddition do not compete effectively. Although the above alkylcyclopropenes lead to mixtures of products, this is not the case with many other substituents. The regiochemistry of ring opening of aryl-substituted cyclopropenes has been particularly extensively examined both under thermal and photochemical conditions. The details of the photochemical reactions will not be examined here, but some cases which bear on the thermal processes will be discussed. The major product of photolysis of (130) is (131), derived by an overall insertion of the carbene (133) into an adjacent C—H bond of the aromatic ring 12^{-4} ; in contrast, pyrolysis of (130) leads exclusively to (132), apparently derived from (134). Kinetic and product analysis of the thermal decomposition of vinyldiazomethanes (135), leading to 3H-pyrazoles and cyclopropenes, has been used to show that carbene (134) is more stable than (133)¹⁰⁸⁾. However, product ratios are complicated by return to the cyclopropene. Thus the optically active cyclopropene (136) racemises 2.5 times as fast as it is converted to product, the furan (137); the latter is apparently derived entirely from the singlet vinylcarbene (138), formed by cleavage of bond b, rather than its regioisomer 115).



The diaryl substituted systems (139) have been shown to undergo regioselective cleavage of the cyclopropene σ -bond bearing the more electron donating substituent under direct photolysis ¹¹⁶.

Aryl-substituted cyclopropene esters and aldehydes have also been examined in detail. Photolysis of (140) in methanol leads to cleavage of the C^1-C^3 bond to produce (142); this undergoes a 1,2-hydrogen shift to produce the corresponding ketene which is in turn trapped by methanol to produce (143) ¹¹⁷. The ester (141) is thermolysed to produce indene (144), kinetic analysis indicating a non-polar transition state and a vinylcarbene intermediate ¹¹⁸; once again, photolysis of (146) leads instead to the cyclopropene (141) together with the isomeric indene (145) ^{118, 119}.



The cyclopropene - vinylcarbene rearrangement seems to occur particularly readily when there are geminal substituents at the 3-position. 3,3-Dimethylcyclopropene is reported to undergo thermal reaction in the presence of alkenes to produce adducts of (147, R = Me)¹²⁰⁾, while the 3-methyl-3-phenyl compound ring opens at 180 °C to the vinylcarbene (147, R = Ph) which is trapped in low yield by 2,3-dimethylbut-2-ene. An additional product in the latter reaction is the indene (148), derived by a formal insertion of the corresponding (Z)-carbene into a C-H bond of the benzene ring¹²¹⁾. Ring opening of tetrachlorocyclopropene to (149) occurs on heating to 180 °C, and the carbene is readily trapped by alkenes ¹²²); this reaction is described in more detail elsewhere in this series ¹²³⁾. In other cases the ring opening occurs at much lower temperature. Photolysis of the pyrazole (150, R = Et) at -20 °C leads to an unstable intermediate cyclopropene (151) which can be characterised by formation of diasteroisomeric adducts (152) with diazopropane. However, if the cyclopropene is allowed to stand at 5 °C in the presence of a diene such as furan, the product is not a Diels-Alder adduct but instead is a cyclopropane derived by addition of (153, R = Et)to one double bond ¹²⁴).

On standing for 18 h at 20 °C in the absence of an alkene, cyclopropene (151, R = Et) rearranges to the vinylsulphine (154), which can be trapped by cycloaddition to diazopropane; photolysis of (150, R = $4-\text{MeC}_6\text{H}_4$) in a similar way leads to a high yield of (155), and an intermediate vinylcarbene (153, R = $4-\text{MeC}_6\text{H}_4$) may be trapped by ethyl vinyl ether. In each case the intermediate vinyl carbene apparently

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rearranges to the sulphine, which in the latter case loses sulphur to give the isolated product $^{125)}$. Photolysis of (156) does not lead to an isolable cyclopropene; the two major products, (157) and (158), appear to be derived instead from the vinylcarbene (159); indeed this can be intercepted surprisingly efficiently by addition to electron poor alkenes $^{126)}$.



Moreover, trapping of the carbene (159, R = pTol) by an allyl thioether leads largely to (160); removal of the protecting group provides a simple route to artemesia ketone (161) in 65% yield from (156, R = pTol)¹²⁶:



Addition of (159, R = Et) to methyl β , β -dimethylacrylate followed by Raney nickel desulphurisation also provides a convenient route to *cis*-chrysanthemic acids¹²⁷).

Although a 1-(alkylthio)cyclopropene could not be isolated in the above reactions, the corresponding silylated derivative (162) does ring open either on heating or on photolysis, leading to an allene; the reaction may involve a 1,2-silyl-shift in an intermediate carbene (163), though in this case the latter could not be trapped by added alkene 82 .



While the photolysis of (164) can lead to reasonable yields of acylcyclopropenes, no cyclopropenes are detected from the corresponding reactions of (165); however, if the photolysis of (165, R = Me, R' = H) is carried out in the presence of furan, a 2-oxabicyclohexane is isolated. This is apparently derived by addition of the carbene (166) to the 2,3-bond. The oxabicycle in turn rearranges to a single triene (167)¹²⁸.



Photolysis of (168) in the presence of furan leads to a mixture of products, the major one being the Diels-Alder adduct of the latter with 1-nitro-3,3-dimethylcyclopropene. Two other products, (169) and (170) are apparently derived by trapping of the carbene (171) by furan, the former apparently by a 1,3-dipolar addition. The pyrazole (172) is converted to (173) on photolysis, the intermediate carbene again apparently preferring to rearrange rather than cyclise to a cyclopropene ¹²⁹.



Reaction of the tetrachloride (174, X = Cl) with methyl lithium at 0–20 °C in the presence of alkenes leads to the adducts (176) derived by addition of the dichloro-

vinylcarbene (177, X = Y = Cl); this is derived by rearrangement of the dichlorocyclopropene (175, X = Cl), which can be trapped by addition of bromine at lower temperature. The same products are obtained when (174, X = H) is treated with methyl lithium. Presumably a lithium-hydrogen exchange occurs more rapidly than lithium halogen exchange; loss of lithium chloride then leads to the same cyclopropene, (175, X = Cl). The bromochloride (175, X = Br), obtained in a similar manner from the 1,1-dibromo-2,2-dichlorocyclopropane, also ring opens, but little regioselectivity is observed in the formation of (177, X = Cl, Y = Br) and (177, X = Br, Y =Cl)^{83,84}. The corresponding monohalocyclopropenes, eg. (175, X = Cl, Y = H) also rearrange at ambient temperature, in this case to produce haloalkynes ³⁸:



The reaction could be explained in terms of ring opening to a carbene (177, X = Cl, Y = H) followed by a 1,2-chlorine shift as in (178); although the carbene could not be trapped by added alkenes, a labelling study indicated that C¹ became C² of the alkyne, confirming that the C²-C³ bond of (175, X = H) is broken ³⁹.

Reaction of (180, X = Cl) with methyl lithium in the presence of alkenes at ambient temperature leads to apparent carbene adducts (183), in this case derived from ring opening of (181) to the highly functionalised isoprenoid carbene (182). Surprisingly, the bromide (180, X = Br) reacts by a different course, leading to (184), apparently through initial lithium-bromine exchange followed by 1,3- rather than 1,2-elimination of LiCl ¹³⁰.

The 3,3-disubstituted ester (185, R = H) also rearranges at or below ambient temperature. The major product is the triene (186), which at first sight appears to be a dimer of the carbene (187) derived by cleavage of the 2,3-bond. However, examination of the mother liquor reveals a second dimer, (188), which could be obtained by addition of (187) to the cyclopropene ¹⁰⁵; a similar dimer, and indeed related trienes, have been isolated in the photochemical reactions of (185, R = Ph), although in this case the C^1-C^3 bond is broken ¹³¹⁾. On standing at 0-20 °C, (188) is converted to (186). It is not certain that all (186) is derived in this way, or whether the *endo*-carbene adduct isomeric with (188) is produced and rearranges rapidly; either intermediate would avoid the need for the unlikely carbene-carbene dimerisation.



The thermolysis of cyclopropenone acetals at 70–80 $^{\circ}$ C, generally in benzene solution leads to a ring opening which is formally described by the scheme below:



In the presence of an alkene having two electron withdrawing substituents at the 1-position, a [3+2]-cycloaddition is observed leading to cyclopentenone acetals (190)¹³²:



However, when the alkene has only one electron withdrawing substituent, a complete change in reactivity is observed and the cyclopropyl ketene acetal derivatives (191) are produced. These are converted directly to esters either by chromatography over silica gel or by treatment with acid, and in each case the predominant isomer of the ester has the *cis*-stereochemistry of ester and electron-withdrawing groups. It is suggested that a cyclopropane may also be the primary product in the formation of (190), but that the ring closure is reversible under the reaction conditions when two electron withdrawing groups are present, and the cyclopentene is formed under thermodynamic control ¹³³⁾. The dipolar form (189) may also be trapped by reaction with aldehydes or ketones to produce butenolide orthoesters, which may further be transformed to butenolides or furans with acetic acid or to γ -ketoesters (R = H) with hydrochloric acid ¹³⁴⁾:



The ring opening of cyclopropenes may also be induced by metal salts or complxes. 3,3-Dimethylcyclopropene is converted to adducts (192) by treatment with Ni(COD)₂ in the presence of electron poor alkenes; with diethylmaleate the reaction proceeds with predominant retention of stereochemistry ^{4, 135)}. Other 3,3-disubstituted compounds are converted to adducts in good yield by reaction with (EtO)₃ P · CuCl in the presence of alkenes at -40 to 20 °C. In the absence of a trap, a triene (193) is isolated ¹⁰³⁾:



This is explained in terms of dimerisation of the carbene, or a related carbenoid. However, formation and rearrangement of a bicyclo(1.1.0)butane related to (188) must also be considered.

Ring opening of 1,3- and 1,2-disubstituted cyclopropenes has also been examined. The ester (194) rearranges on heating to 98 °C in the presence of copper to give furan (195); the less substituted cyclopropene single bond appears to be cleaved to produce a carbene-metal derivative, which cyclises to the ester group ¹³⁶⁾. A similar photochemical transformation of a cyclopropene-3-ester to a furan has already been described ¹¹⁵⁾.



Reaction of (194, R = Pr) with cuprous chloride induces a similar ring opening and the carbenoid can be trapped by alkenes ¹³⁷. If the reaction is carried out with an organic or inorganic acid HX present in place of the alkene, reasonably high yields of the (E)- and (Z)-alkenes (196) are isolated; no rearrangement occurs in the absence of the copper chloride ¹³⁸. Silver ion induced ring opening can also occur, 1,2-dialkyl-3-carbomethoxycyclopropenes being converted to dienes (197) in reasonable yield, apparently through the silver-carbenoid (198) ^{139 a)}. In other cases intramolecular trapping may occur ^{139 b)}:



These reactions are discussed again in Section 5i.

Rearrangement of cyclopropenes to vinylcarbenes can also occur at low temperature when they are fused to small or medium rings. Treatment of (199, X = Z = H, Y = Cl) with base in THF leads to the ether (200) which can be explained in terms of trapping of an intermediate carbene, (201), derived either by rearrangement of a cyclopropene or by a direct fragmentation. Evidence for the former route was obtained by addition of methane thiol to the reaction, when (199, X = Z = SMe, Y = H) was isolated; the regiochemistry of the addition of the second thiolate to the (presumed) intermediate cyclopropene (202) presumably occurs because the alternative benzylic carbanion cannot easily become planar 140, 141). Evidence for the initial cyclopropene formation is obtained from the reaction of (199, X = H, Z = Me, Y = Cl) with base in the presence of thiolate anion, which leads to a single diastereoisomer of (203) in high yield. A most interesting observation was that the monochloride (204) failed to react with potassium t-butoxide even after extended times, presumably because the elimination in these systems requires a syn-planar arrangement of leaving groups 141); however, a later report has shown that (204) does react with base in THF-DMSO, although only low yields of product were isolated ¹⁴²).

These reactions are discussed again in Section 51.



Treatment of (205) with a large excess of potassium t-butoxide in THF leads to ethers and related compounds; their formation may be rationalised in terms of the formation of a cyclopropene (206) which can undergo a complex set of rearrangements to naphthylcarbenes which are then trapped by alkoxide ion $^{141, 143}$.



Although these reactions are of considerable mechanistic interest, the formation of mixtures limits any synthetic application. However the cyclopropene (207) ring opens to (208) which is trapped reasonably efficiently by furan 38 :



4 Base Induced Double Bond Migration

Reaction of cyclopropenes with bases such as alkoxide or amide ions often leads to a methylenecyclopropene by removal of an allylic hydrogen and reprotonation $^{6-9,71)}$ though other reactions such as nucleophilic addition (see Section 5) or metallation at a vinylic position (see Section 2) may compete. Thus the ester (209) is isomerised by KOH to (210), and under more vigorous conditions to (211) 144 :



The presumed intermediate allylic ions of type (212, R = H) may also be generated from methylenecyclopropane by reaction with eg., butyl lithium; trapping by carbonyl compounds occurs by bond formation from $C^{2 \ 145}$, although when $R = SiMe_3$ trapping by benzaldehyde occurs only at $C^{1'}$, and probably involves an electron transfer process ¹⁴⁶.

Many examples of double bond migration appear in the reactions of dihalocyclopropanes with alkoxide ion, in which the halocyclopropene is a presumed intermediate. Thus dehydrohalogenation of 2,3-dialkyl-1,1-dichlorocyclopropanes provides a very simple route to methylenecyclopropanes, which often rearrange on heating, eg. ¹⁴⁷:





The reaction of the dichlorides (213, n = 3-7) with potassium t-butoxide in DMSO leads to the elimination of two molecules of HCl and the formation of (214, n = 3-7) respectively. In each case the reaction can be explained by a sequence of elimination to a chlorocyclopropene, prototropic shifts, then a second elimination to a cyclopropene followed by prototropic shifts. Thermolysis of (214, n = 3 or 4) leads to (215, n = 3 or 4), although the mechanism of this reaction is rather uncertain; in contrast the larger ring species (214, n = 6 or 7) rearrange to a methylenecyclopentene, (216) ^{148, 149)}. In the case of (213, n = 2), the analogous elimination product (214, n = 2) is not observed, presumably rearranging under the reaction conditions to the observed product (217) ¹⁴⁹⁾.



Moreover, when the ring size is reduced further, very complex product mixtures are obtained. Thus (213, n = 1) reacts with potassium t-butoxide in DMSO to produce toluene, cycloheptatriene, ethylbenzene, 2-ethyltoluene, and isomeric 3-ethylidenecyclohexenes¹⁵⁰. In the same way 7,7-dibromobicyclo[4.1.0]heptane is converted largely to ethylbenzene and 2-ethyltoluene; when deuterated DMSO is used, the methyl-group of the ethylbenzene is almost completely deuterated, and methylene and aromatic positions are also heavily labelled. It is thought that the highly strained intermediate (218) reacts with the solvent as below, further reactions then leading to the eventual products:



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Although no products analogous to (214) were isolated from these reactions, treatment of (219) with KOBu^t-DMSO did lead to (220), albeit in very low yield ¹⁵⁰⁾. It is important to note, however, that the reactions of chlorobicyclo[4.1.0]heptanes with base are highly dependent on both the nature of the base and the solvent ¹⁵¹⁾. Thus (213, n = 1) reacts with KOBu^t in benzene in the presence of a crown ether to produce (221) in moderate yield, while the addition of a small amount of DMSO leads to the products described above. Moreover, reaction with PrⁱOK leads to products such as (222), apparently derived by a reduction at some stage ¹⁵¹⁾.



The use of these reactions in the preparation of highly strained molecules is illustrated by the reaction of (223) with potassium t-butoxide at low temperature:



The intermediate bicyclo[5.1.0]octatriene (225) may be trapped as a Diels-Alder adduct, while at elevated reaction temperature, the heptafulvene (224) may likewise be trapped. The chloride (223, X = Cl, Y = H) may similarly be converted to the parent heptafulvene by reaction with the same base in tetraglyme at 90 °C and low pressure ¹⁵²).

Double dehydrohalogenation of 7,7-dichlorobicyclo[4.1.0]heptenes represented one of the first routes to benzocyclopropenes $^{2, 153}$. In a classical experiment, the labelled species (226) was shown to lead to (227), in agreement with the occurrence of a sequence involving 1,2-elimination, followed by prototropic shifts 154 :



A number of competing pathways have also been identified ^{155, 156)}. Indeed the dehydrohalogenation of (228, X = Br, Cl) is reported to lead to (229). A mechanism is proposed which does not in this case involve a cyclopropene, but instead is initiated by an elimination with rearrangement ¹⁵⁷⁾:



Similar routes have been described to naphtho(b)cyclopropene¹⁵⁸, and to annelated derivatives¹⁵⁹.

5 Addition

The double bond of cyclopropenes is sufficiently reactive that in many cases attack of either electrophiles or nucleophiles can occur. 1,2-Addition to cyclopropenes can create up to three new chiral centres:



In principle the addition could be controlled by a chiral centre at C^3 or by chiral auxiliaries in the C^1 or C^2 substituents or the addend. This would provide a versatile route to optically active cyclopropanes, but to date no emphasis has been laid on this possibility. Instead, a wide range of additions leading to racemic cyclopropanes has been examined.

5.1 Electrophilic Addition

The addition of an electrophile to the cyclopropene double bond formally leads to a cyclopropyl cation; this may be expected to undergo ring opening to an allyl ion unless it is rapidly trapped by a nucleophile. In some cases, however, electrophilic attack may occur at one of the σ -bonds, leading directly to an allylic cation.

Addition of halogens often occurs without ring opening. Early reports described a *cis*-addition ¹; though the stereochemistry of addition of chlorine to (229) is *cis*-¹⁶⁰⁾, addition of bromine is *cis*- in non-polar solvents in the presence of sunlight but *trans*-in relatively polar ones ¹⁶¹⁾, and addition of bromine to 1,2-dichloro-3,3-dimethylcyclopropene leads to a mixture of (E)- and (Z)-dibromodichlorides ⁸³⁾. 1,3,3-Trimethylcyclopropene is, however, reported to ring open to 1,3-dibromo-2,3-dimethylbutene on bromination, though 1,2-addition of chlorine occurs with PhICl₂ ¹⁶²⁾. In general little use has been made of these reactions, although the ring-opening of alcohol (230) on treatment with bromine and intramolecular trapping provides a route to optically active dihydropyrans ¹³⁰:



1-Methylcyclopropene undergoes ring opening to methallyl chloride and methallyl acetate on reaction with HCl in acetic acid; with phenylsulphenylchloride addition occurs without ring opening, though with low selectivity, producing (231) and its regioisomer ¹⁶³⁾. The *trans*-addition of arylsulphenylchlorides to 3,3-dimethylcyclopropene shows a large negative entropy of activation, and is believed to involve a tight ion pair, (232) ¹⁶⁴⁾. In the case of the 1-chloro-2,3,3-trimethyl analogue the product is (233), apparently derived by deprotonation of the intermediate episulphonium ion; the cyclopropane rearranges on standing over neutral alumina, leading to diene (234) ¹⁶⁵⁾.

The addition of thiocyanogen to 1-methylcyclopropene is complicated, though the *cis*-adducts (235, X = SCN) and (235, X = NCS) can be isolated ¹⁶³⁾. Addition of nitrosyl chloride is also reported, leading to (236) from (229) ¹⁶⁶⁾.



Oxymercuration of cyclopropenes can also occur without ring opening, the major product from (229) having (E)-stereochemistry ¹⁶⁷⁾. However, in other cases ring-opening does occur, eg., 3-methyl-3-isopropenylcyclopropene is converted to (237) with mercuric acetate in methanol, presumably by solvolysis of an intermediate ring opened allyl cation ¹⁶⁸⁾. One again, intramolecular trapping of intermediate allyl cations can lead to cyclisation, eg., to furans ¹³⁰⁾:



the intermediate organomercury compound apparently undergoing solvolysis. Reaction of 1-methylcyclopropene with diborane in pentane leads predominantly to the 2-methyl-substituted borane, although a small amount of the 1-methyl system is also formed ¹⁶⁹⁾. Reaction of either 1- or 3-methylcyclopropene with tetraethyldiborane, however, proceeds cleanly to (238), which can be converted to essentially pure *trans*-2-methylcyclopropanol by oxidation with trimethylamine-N-oxide ^{9, 169)}. Triallylboranes such as (239) also lead to *cis*-addition with allylic rearrangement, in good yield ¹⁷⁰⁾.



3,3-Dimethylcyclopropene undergoes [2+2]-cyclodimerisation catalysed by reagents such as boron trifluoride or triethylaluminium etherates, but treatment with triethylaluminium in pentane leads to (241), presumably by formation of an intermediate such as (240) followed by trapping with a second equivalent of cyclopropene ¹⁷¹. Reaction of 1,3,3-trimethylclopropene with tri-isobutylaluminium in hexane also leads to ring opening:



The process is believed to occur by addition to form the more stable cation, (242), which undergoes a cyclopropyl-allyl rearrangement followed by a 1,2-shift of an R-group to produce an allyl-substituted dialkyl aluminium, (243), as in the above case. This is trapped by added water, or undergoes an allylic rearrangement before being trapped 1^{72} .

Silver-ion induced isomerisation of cyclopropenes gives products which contrast sharply with those derived by photolysis. Thus reaction of (244) with catalytic quantities of silver perchlorate in benzene leads to a quantitative yield of (245), whereas the photochemical process leads to the 1-methyl-2-phenyl regioisomer. The alcohol (246) is converted to (247) in good yield by reaction with Ag⁺ while (248) leads to the bicyclo[3.1.0]hexene — although other 3-allylcyclopropenes give more complex product mixtures including bicyclohexenes.



The final bicyclic product is obtained with complete retention of the stereochemistry about the double bond of the allyl group, and a mechanism is proposed in which the silver ion attacks one of the ring σ -bonds to produce the more stable cation $1^{73, 174}$:



5.2 Hydrogenation

The hydrogenation of cyclopropenecarboxylic acids leads to good yields of the saturated acid. Two elegant routes to *cis*-chrysanthemic acids have been reported based on this process. In the first, the ester (249) is reduced by either diimide or nickel boride and hydrogen 49 :



In the second, the use of diazopropane is avoided; the alcohol (250) is converted to the pyrazole (251) by a two step sequence of reaction with hydrazine in acetic acid and then oxidation with manganese dioxide. Photolysis then leads cleanly to the cyclopropene, without any interference by cyclisation of an intermediate carbene to the alcohol group; the product is hydrogenated directly, the conversion of (251) to (252) occurring in 94% yield. Elimination of the elements of water leads to *cis*-chrysanthemic acid in good overall yield ¹⁷⁵:



The reaction can also be used to produce *cis*-2-substituted halocyclopropanes, 1-chloro-2-phenylcyclopropenes undergoing efficient hydrogenation using palladium on calcium carbonate by *cis*-addition of hydrogen with no evidence for competing hydrogenolysis of the C—Cl bond 27).

5.3 Hydride Reducing Agents

Lithium aluminium hydride reduction of 1,2-disubstituted cyclopropene-3-carboxylates occurs initially at the ester group, but with additional reagent good yields of *cis*-1,2-disubstituted-*trans*-3-methanols are obtained ¹⁷⁶⁾. The reduction of the double bond is regioselective, leading to the more stable carbanion, and the attack of the hydride ion exclusively *cis* to the 3-substituent may be explained in terms of initial formation of an alkoxyaluminium complex followed by intramolecular hydride transfer ¹⁷⁶⁾. In the case of cyclopropene-1-carboxylates, direct reduction to the saturated alcohol occurs; thus (253) is converted to the *trans*-alcohol ¹⁷⁷⁾:



5.4 Nucleophilic Attack

Alkoxides and thiolates

Although the addition of alkoxides and thiolates and indeed of methanol itself to simple cyclopropenes has been reported, eg. ¹⁷⁸:


the most common examples of addition to cyclopropenes are reactions in which dihalocyclopropanes are treated with strong base in the presence of a good nucleophile. Thus reaction of (254) with potassium isopropoxide in DMSO leads predominantly to the diether (255). Apparently an initially formed 7-chlorobicyclo[4.1.0]hept-6-ene is trapped by attack of alkoxide at C⁶, before a prototropic shift (see Section 4) can occur. The derived anion is protonated and then undergoes a second dehydrohalogenation — addition sequence. The regiochemistry of the second addition is presumably controlled by the stability of the intermediate anion ¹⁷⁹. When the reaction is carried out with potassium isopropoxide in [D₆]-DMSO the product diether is doubly deuterated at C^{7 180}.



In other cases the product is an unsaturated ether ¹⁷⁹:



but the exact sequence of steps is not clear. Good evidence for the formation of cyclopropenes in these reactions is seen in the conversion of (256) to (258), the observation of the intermediate (257) by n.m.r. and its trapping with cyclopentadiene at low temperature ¹⁸¹⁾. The presumed chlorocyclopropene intermediate from the reaction of 1,1-dichloro-2-methylenecyclopropane with potassium t-butoxide in THF (evidence for which is obtained by trapping with thiolate ion) is converted into the enyne (259) in moderate yield. In this case attack of butoxide at C-2 of the 1-chloro-alkene followed by loss of chloride ion may produce (260) which is then rearranged to the acetylene ¹⁸².

The regiochemistry of addition of nucleophiles to cyclopropenes contained in a bicyclic ester skeleton has been examined in some detail. Generation of (261, R = Me, n = 1) in the presence of t-butoxide leads to (262, R = Me) by attack of the nucleophile at the ring junction, whereas in the cases of (261, R = Me, n = 2 or 3)



attack occurs at the benzylic position leading to (263, R = Me). Calculations suggest that the regiochemistry is steric in origin. The larger ring cyclopropene (261, R = Me, n = 3) can in fact isolated ¹⁸³⁾. Reaction of (261, R = H, n = 2), generated in the same way, with t-butoxide leads to attack at both ends of the alkene, whereas (261, R = H, n = 3) only produces the 8-ether (263, R = H, n = 3) ¹⁸⁴⁾.



Addition of alkoxides to $(264, R = SiMe_3)$ apparently occurs by attack on silicon to produce (264, R = H) followed by addition to the alkene. However, attack by thiolates occurs initially on the double bond to produce (E)- and (Z)-isomers of (265); subsequent attack on silicon leads to anions which invert rapidly owing to the presence of the adjacent sulphone and lead to the same (E)-cyclopropane derivative ¹⁸⁵.



An interesting example of nucleophilic addition occurs in the reaction of (266) with methanol in the presence of triethylamine, which leads to (267) (or possibly the corresponding isomer with the methoxy group *endo*)¹⁸⁶⁾:



Nitrogen and Phosphorus Nucleophiles

Early reports of the reactions of cyclopropenes with amide ions indicated complex products derived by addition of an intermediate 2-aminocyclopropylanion to unreacted cyclopropene¹⁾. However, amines themselves can add to cyclopropenes:



With diethylamine, the cyclopropane is the major product but with dipropyl or diphenylamines increasing amounts of ring-opened product are isolated ^{187 a)}. Reaction of 3-acetyl-1-methylcyclopropene with butylamine is also reported, leading to a mixture of 2,4- and 2,5-dimethyl-N-butylpyrroles, though the mechanism of this process has not been examined in detail ^{187 b)}.

Treatment of tetrachlorocyclopropene with pyridine leads to the two indolizines (268) and (269) in essentially quantitative overall yield:



The reaction apparently proceeds though displacement of two of the halogens by pyridine, followed by nucleophilic attack at the double bond and opening of the resulting cyclopropylanion to (270); evidence for the intermediacy of such ions was obtained when the 2- and 6-positions of the pyridine were blocked. With pyridines bearing electron withdrawing groups the reaction stops after diplacement of one of the 3-chlorines¹⁸⁸, while with electron releasing substituents the (tetrapyridinium)-cyclopropene tetra-cation is formed¹⁸⁹.

Although the reaction of cyclopropenes with phosphines can lead to ring opening ^{178 b}, treatment of 1,2-dichloro-3,3-difluorocyclopropene with trialkylphosphites leads to moderate yields of the cyclopropanes (271) ¹⁹⁰⁾.

Carbon Nucleophiles

Addition of organolithium reagents to cyclopropenes can occur, though it is much slower than reaction of an organolithium with an acid or ketone group at the 3-position ¹⁹¹, and is generally not observed in those systems where lithium-hydrogen or lithium-halogen exchange at the vinylic positions or removal of an allylic hydrogen can compete; for example, the reaction of (272) with n-butyl lithium leads only to low yields of the corresponding 1-ethylidene-2-ethylcyclopropane ¹⁹². Addition of phenyl lithium to cyclopropene itself does, however, lead to 2-phenylcyclopropyl lithium with over 99% (Z)-stereochemistry ¹⁹³, while treatment of (273) with methyl lithium in THF at -65 °C leads to the 1-chlorocyclopropene, apparently by addition of methyl lithium to the alkene followed by elimination of lithium chloride ¹⁹⁴.



Addition of Grignard reagents to cyclopropenes occurs much more readily. Reaction of methyl magnesium iodide with 1-methyl- or 1,3,3-trimethyl-cyclopropenes leads to the Grignard of the more stable anion (274), which may be trapped by a variety of electrophiles in an overall *cis*-addition; in some cases the organomagnesium is trapped by unreacted cyclopropene to produce a dicyclopropyl magnesium halide ¹⁹⁵. Reaction with allylic Grignard reagents leads to a clean *cis*-addition. The reaction with vinylic, γ , δ - or δ ,e-unsaturated Grignards is less satisfactory, and higher molecular weight side products derived by addition of the cyclopropyl Grignard to the cyclopropene can be obtained ¹⁹⁶. Thus 1-isobutenylmagnesium bromide adds to cyclopropenes, to produce (275), together with considerable amounts of 1:2 and 1:3 adducts. Quenching of (275) with carbon dioxide or ethyl chloroformate provides an efficient route to *cis*-cyclopropanecarboxylic acids or esters ¹⁹⁷. Addition of allylic Grignards to 1,2-diethyl-3-(hydroxymethyl)cyclopropene also occurs in a *cis*-manner,



from the same face as the 3-substituent and bond formation occurs at the more substituted allylic carbon and at the more substituted cyclopropene carbon ¹⁹⁸.

Reaction of dialkylmagnesiums with spiro[2,4]hept-1-ene proceeds with second order kinetics and leads to the *cis*-2-alkyl cyclopropyl magnesium alkyl with α -substituent effects on the rate in the order primary < secondary > tertiary, suggesting a balance between competing electronic and steric effects ¹⁹⁹.

In a related reaction, addition of organocuprates, alkyl zinc bromide or di-isobutyl aluminium hydride to 1-trimethylsilylcyclopropenes occurs regio- and stereo-selectively, eg. ¹²:



Addition of dimethylsulphonium methylide to triphenylcyclopropene leads to ring opening to (276)²⁰⁰⁾. This may be derived by nucleophilic attack followed by ring opening of the triphenylcyclopropylanion to an allyl anion, and intramolecular proton transfer. Addition of t-butylisocyanide to cyclopropenes can also lead to apparent cyclopropyl-allyl anion ring opening, in this case to a vinylketenimine ²⁰¹⁾.

Reaction of 7,7-dichlorobicycloheptane with base in the presence of malonate, α -cyanoacetate or ⁻CMe(CN)Ph ions leads initially to, eg., (277). Yields are not always high because of further reactions, but in some cases reach over 80 % ^{151, 202}.



The reactions of α , β -unsaturated esters having an α -hydrogen with haloform and base can lead to spiropentanes or methylenecyclopropanes ^{203, 204}:



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and these transformations may also be explained in terms of nucleophiic addition to an intermediate cyclopropene, followed by further additions or, when X = Br, an allylic rearrangement:



Halide Ions

The reaction of tetrahalocyclopropenes with iodide ion leads to replacement of the vinylic halogens by iodine, presumably by an addition — elimination process $^{205)}$.

5.5 Photoaddition

The triplet states of cyclopropenes containing a heteroatom at the 2-position of a 3-substituent undergo hydrogen atom abstraction to produce diradicals, which close to produce bicyclo[3.1.0]hexanes, eg. ²⁰⁶:



6 Cheletropic Addition

Although some carbenes are reported not to add to cyclopropenes²⁰⁷), there are several examples of inter- and intra-molecular addition leading initially to the formation of bicyclobutanes. 1,2-Diphenylcyclopropene-3-carboxylates are converted to a mixture of three stereoisomeric bicyclo[1.1.0]butanes by reaction with ethoxy-carbonylcarbene generated from the thermolysis of ethyl diazoacetate; an additional product is the diene (278) which is apparently formed by rearrangement of an intermediate zwitter ion ²⁰⁸. It should be noted, however, that cyclopropenes readily undergo addition to diazo-compounds, and that subsequent transformations may then lead to bicyclobutanes (see Section 8), and that a free carbene may therefore not be involved in the above process.

Reaction of 1,2,3-trimethylcyclopropene with trichloromethyl lithium generated from bromotrichloromethane and methyl lithium at -110 °C produces the cyclobutene (279). This may be explained in terms of intermediate formation of the bicyclobutane (280), followed by cyclopropyl-allyl rearrangement, though the dichlorocyclopropane could not be detected even at -73 °C ²⁰⁹.



It is noteworthy that the reaction of phenylallene with dichlorocarbene under basic conditions has been reported to lead to the pentachloride $(281)^{210 a}$. However, the structure of the product has now been reassigned as (282), the formation of which appears to involve a similar addition-rearrangement sequence to that described for the formation of (279), the intermediate cyclobutenylcation being trapped by chloride ^{210 b}.



Addition of dimethylvinylidene or a related carbenoid, generated from the reaction of propanone with a diazophosphonate and base, to alkylcyclopropenes leads largely to trienes, eg. (283) from 3,3-dimethylcyclopropene. Apparently the same products are obtained when the carbenoid is generated from 1,1-dibromo-2-methylpropene and base, but it is not clear whether the reactions involve formation and rearrangement of a bicyclobutane or rather collapse of a polar intermediate such as (284) ²¹¹.



Thermolysis of (285, n = 2, $R = R^1 = Ph$) in the presence of copper powder leads to moderately efficient intramolecular addition of the carbene (carbenoid) to the double bond to produce (286, n = 2)²¹²⁾. Photolytic or catalytic decomposition of the lower homologues (285, n = 0,1, eg., R = Ph, $R^1 = H$; $R = ClCH_2$, $R^1 = H$) also leads to intramolecular addition to produce (286, n = 0,1)²¹³⁾. This has been applied in a route to 3,4-fused furans^{213b}:



Photolysis of an alkyl azidoacetate in the presence of 1-methyl- or 1,3,3-trimethylcyclopropenes may be explained in terms of an addition of ethoxycarbonylnitrene to the double bond to produce a 2-azabicyclo[1.1.0]butane, but this rearranges under the reaction conditions to the azadiene, although only in low yield ^{214,215}:



No addition occurs without irradiation, and attempts to obtain the azabicycle by addition of iodine isocyanate to the former cyclopropene led only to ring opened product, $(287)^{215}$.

7 Diels-Alder Addition

In general, cyclopropanes are good dienophiles, although their inherent thermal instability can lead to side reactions, and the presence of substituents at C-3 causes some steric retardation. Cyclopropene itself cycloadds to a range of dienes including forming an *endo*-adduct with cyclopentadiene; in contrast a 1:1 mixture of *exo*-and *endo*-adducts is formed with furan. The change in stereochemistry is probably explained by the reduction in steric repulsion on replacing the methylene group by an oxygen ²¹⁶. Addition to 5-iodocyclopentadiene leads to a rearranged product ²¹⁷:



Cyclopropene also adds to less reactive, acyclic, dienes $^{218)}$, though it is worth noting that the reaction with cyclohexadiene only proceeds in 10% yield $^{219)}$. Addition of a range of alkylcyclopropenes to thiophene dioxides leads to cycloheptatrienes, presumably by cheletropic elimination of sulphur dioxide from the intermediate adduct $^{220)}$:



Reaction with cyclopentadienones or their acetals also occurs readily; hydrolysis of the acetals and decarbonylation also leads to cycloheptatrienes, while hydrogenation prior to the elimination produces cyclohepta-1,4-dienes ^{221,222}:



In the same way, addition to 1,2,4-triazines and 1,2,4,5-tetrazenes leads, after loss of nitrogen, to the corresponding aza- or diazacycloheptatrienes, which are in some cases in equilibrium with their bicyclic forms 223 :



The addition of a second equivalent of cyclopropene can then also occur $^{224)}$. In the case of 3,3'-bicyclopropenyls (288), this provides a ready route to semibullvalenes, the epimeric intermediate cyclopropenes equilibrating and allowing intramolecular cycloaddition to occur $^{225)}$. Addition also occurs to oxadiazin-6-ones $^{-226)}$, to 5-phenyl-

azotropones (289) $^{227)}$, and to the tropylium ion in aqueous dioxan, though yields in the latter case are low $^{228)}$:



Cyclopropenes bearing electron withdrawing groups are, as may be expected, particularly good dienophiles. The cyclopropenes (290, $R^1 = H$ or CO_2Me , $R^2 = CO_2Me$; $R^1 = H$, $R^2 = POPh_2$) undergo *endo*-addition to cyclopentadiene and *exo*-addition to furan in the same way as non-electrophilic cyclopropenes ^{229–231, 53}. Addition of (290, $R^1 = H$, $R^2 = CO_2Me$) to isoprene occurs with low regioselectivity, leading to a 2:1 mixture of (291) and its isomer ^{229, 230}.



Tetrahalocyclopropenes also undergo the cycloaddition $^{232)}$, and stereochemical studies, the effect of solvent and activation parameters appear to be consistent with a concerted mechanism $^{233)}$. In these cases, *endo*-adducts are formed with furan. 3-Chloro-, 1,3-dichloro- and 3,3-difluorocyclopropenes add to cyclopentadiene to give *endo*-adducts $^{233,234)}$.

The Diels-Alder reaction has been particularly widely used in the preparation of cycloproparomatics, using either 1,2-dihalo- $^{41-43}$, or tetrahalocyclopropenes 235,236 :



The perfluorinated cyclopropenes (292, $X = C(CF_3)NH$) may be prepared from (293) by 1,3-dipolar addition of diazomethane followed by desulphurisation with triphenylphosphine to produce, (294), and then thermolysis. Addition of (292, $X = C(CF_3)O$) to 2,3-dimethylbutadiene occurs predominantly in an *endo*-manner, the intermediate undergoing an intramolecular ene-reaction to produce (295). In the same way reaction with pyrrole leads to (296), in this case presumably by an intramolecular nucleophilic attack in the initially formed *endo*-adduct ²³⁷⁾.



8 Dipolar Cycloaddition

8.1 Diazo-Compounds

Diazocompounds readily undergo dipolar cycloaddition to cyclopropenes, leading initially to pyrazolines; however, these are in some cases very sensitive to base and a number of early reports of this reaction indicated that the products were in fact pyridazines, eg. ²³⁸:



A further complication is the conversion of pyrazolines to diazocompounds, which can be brought about in many cases either by heat or by light, coupled to the secondary decomposition of these diazo-species. Reaction of diazoethane with 3-methylcyclo-propene leads to the epimeric diazabicyclo[3.1.0]hexanes (297). Thermolysis of (297a) at 120–190 °C leads to (298a) as the major product, while (297b) leads to (298b), in each ease accompanied by isomeric products. The results are consistent with initial rearrangements to the diazo-compounds (299, a and b), followed by loss of nitrogen to produce the corresponding carbenes 239 .



Photolysis of various diazabicyclo[3.1.0] hexenes related to (300) leads to mixtures of dienes and bicyclo[1.1.0] butanes, eg.:



The dienes are again explained in terms of a rearrangement to a diazo-compound followed by loss of nitrogen to form a carbene and then 1,2-hydrogen shifts. The bicyclo[1.1.0]butanes are thought to arise through loss of nitrogen to form a diradical (301) followed by cyclisation ³⁹⁾. It is interesting, however, to note that diazo-compounds related to (299) can be converted to bicyclo[1.1.0]butanes in high yield (see below), and that in other cases thermolysis of pyrazolines has been reported to lead to high yields of bicyclobutanes ²⁴¹⁾. Whatever the origin, rearrangement of bicyclobutanes such as (302) using a rhodium complex catalyst provides a ready access to the azulene system ²⁴⁰:



Addition of diazomethane to 3,3-dimethylcyclopropene leads to the pyrazolines (303, R = H) but methyl diazoacetate leads to (304) and (305); the former is apparently derived by base induced reaction of the pyrazoline, while the latter may be explained in terms of rearrangement to the diazocompound (306) followed by dipolar addition to the cyclopropene²⁴².



In the case of alkyl substituted pyrazolines such as (307), thermal decomposition at 40-70 °C or photolysis leads to complex products which could be explained either in terms of a diradical intermediate or of rearrangement to a diazo-compound followed by loss of nitrogen to produce a carbene. However, on brief heating to 80 °C or on

photolysis at -50 °C, the pyrazolines are converted to yellow solutions of diazocompounds (308) which survive only for a few hours at 20 °C. The fact that the diazocompound can be isolated from the photolysis of (307) at low temperature and leads to the same products on heating is strong support for its intermediacy in the reactions at higher temperature ²⁴³⁾.



Diazoalkane addition to cyclopropenes having electron withdrawing substituents at 1- or 2-positions generally leads to the regioselectivity predicted on electronic or frontier orbital grounds:



although in some cases minor amounts of the regioisomers are isolated. The adducts, and in particular the major isomers, often rearrange to diazocompounds under mild conditions. The phosphonates (309) rearrange in refluxing benzene or toluene, while reaction of (310) with ethyl diazoacetate or $N_2C \cdot PO(OMe_2)$ at ambient temperature leads directly to the corresponding diazo-compounds ^{244, 245)}. All diazomethane adducts in this series rearrange to pyridazines, eg. (311), on reaction with a trace of base ²⁴⁵⁾. Although the adduct between (312) and diazopropane is reported to be

thermally stable ²⁴⁶⁾, the related ester (313) rearranges cleanly to the diazo-derivative at 70 °C; catalytic decomposition in the presence of rhodium acetate leads to vinyl-migration in an intermediate metal-carbenoid ²⁴⁷⁾:



In other cases, however, the diazo-compound is converted cleanly to a bicyclobutane, eg. ²⁴⁷:



1-Trimethylsilylcyclopropenes also undergo regioselective addition of diazomethane ^{248, 247)} and rearrangement to the diazo-compound ²⁴⁷⁾. Catalytic decomposition of the latter can lead to bicyclobutanes or to isomeric silyldienes, eg.:



Photolysis of pyrazolines derived from 1,2-bis-trimethylsilyl-cyclopropene-3,3-dicarboxylates has also been shown to provide an efficient route to bicyclobutanes²⁴⁹.

In the case of methylenecyclopropenes such as (315), the pyrazoline rearranges to a diazo-compound, which in turn cyclises at the original exocyclic double bond 250 :



8.2 Azides

The reaction of 3,3-dimethylcyclopropene with phenyl- or p-toluenesulphonylazides leads to 2:1 adducts (316). These are apparently derived by rearrangement of an

initial dipolar cycloadduct to give (317), which then reacts with more starting material $^{242)}$. Addition of aryl azides to tetrachlorocyclopropene occurs at elevated temperatures and leads to the tetrachlorides (318), apparently derived from initially formed dihydropyridazines by rearrangement with loss of nitrogen $^{238 \text{ b}}$.



8.3 Nitrile Oxides and Nitrile Imines

Cyclopropene itself and the 3,3-dimethyl-derivative add to nitrile oxides or nitrile imines in good yield ²⁵¹:



8.4 Immonium Ylides

1,2,3-Triphenylcyclopropene cycloadds to a variety of pyridinium dicyanomethylides (319) to produce indolizines and quinolizines, eg.:



Both products are thought to be derived from an initial adduct (320) but the detailed mechanisms are very unclear $^{252)}$. Similar products are obtained from pyridazinium, phthalazinium and pyrazinium dicyanomethylides $^{252)}$.

Although some pyridinium ylides and pyridazinium N-oxide do not form adducts with tetrachlorocyclopropene, compounds (321, Z = NCOR, NCO_2R or $C(CN_2)$) do form moderate to low yields of adducts, eg. (322). This compound undergoes an interesting elimination of AcCl on heating, the a-b bond being cleaved to lead, after proton transfer, to (323)²⁵³.



Other examples of heterocyclic ring synthesis using cyclopropenes are shown below:



9 Oxidation

Peracid oxidation of alkylcyclopropenes leads to ring cleavage with the formation of an enone:



When, eg., $\mathbb{R}^1 = \mathrm{H}$ and $\mathbb{R}^2 = \mathrm{M}$ e the regioselectivity is low, and the reaction is explained in terms of formation and rearrangement of a 2-oxabicyclo[1.1.0]butane derivative ²⁵⁵⁾. The rate of reaction for cyclopropenes is very similar to corresponding cyclobutenes and cyclopentenes, in support of the formation of a highly strained intermediate ²⁵⁶⁾, though the effect of 3-substituents can be interpreted in terms of σ - or π -attack ²⁵⁷⁾. In the case of the sterically hindered cyclopropenes (324) a different process occurs and two products apparently derived by decomposition of (325) are isolated. Apparently the initial reaction in this case involves abstraction of H-3 of the ring, the resulting cyclopropenium ion being trapped to produce (326). Replacing the 1-t-butyl group by phenyl leads to a dual pathway via hydrogen abstraction and oxidation to the oxabicyclo[1.1.0]butane ²⁵⁸⁾.



It is interesting to note that tri-t-butylcyclopropene shows an unusually high reactivity towards chromium(VI), and is again converted to the cyclopropenium ion in a process which shows a high deuterium isotope effect ²⁵⁹.

When the cyclopropene has a single carbomethoxy or aryl substitunt at the 3position, the predominant stereoisomer of the enone obtained has the substituent cisto the ketone $^{260, 261}$. One possible explanation is the formation of a bicyclobutane by peracid attack from the side away from this substituent, followed by a stereocontrolled rearrangement. If the 3-substituent is hydroxymethyl, the reverse stereochemistry is observed in the enone, in agreement with a peracid attack directed by this group to the same face of the cyclopropene, followed again by rearrangement 262 .

Analysis of the second-order rate constants for various methyl and phenyl substituted cyclopropenes shows effects similar to those observed with alkenes undergoing epoxidation, again in agreement with the intermediacy of the oxabicyclo[1.1.0]butane in cyclopropene oxidation ²⁶³.

Peracid oxidation of the 1-trimethylsilylcyclopropene (327) proceeds with good regiocontrol to produce the enone (328) in good yield; this is further oxidized by a second equivalent of reagent to (329):





In the case of the dimethyl-substituted cyclopropene (330), the initial product is (331) but further oxidation occurs more easily. The presence of large substituents at C-2 reduces the regioselectivity of the initial oxidation, (332) producing a 4:1 mixture of isomeric enones 264 .

Although 1-methylcyclopropene is inert to singlet $oxygen 2^{65}$, irradiation of 1,2,3-triphenylcyclopropene in methylene chloride with oxygen in the presence of methylene blue leads mainly to 1,2,3-triphenylpropandione, though in other solvents complex mixtures result. Similar treatment of tetraphenylcyclopropene leads principally to (333), although in this case there is no marked solvent effect 266 . The oxidation has been shown to proceed by a Type I rather than a Type II process on the basis of several observations. It is not affected by the singlet oxygen quencher DABCO, but the rate is reduced by radical inhibitors; moreover the cyclopropene does not react with singlet oxygen generated thermally from triphenylphosphite-ozonide. The photochemical processes, and the effects of solvents and temperature also support the intervention of radicals 267 .

10 Solvolytic Ring Opening

Cycloprop-1-en-1-yl-substituted alcohols often undergo ring-opening on treatment with aqueous perchloric acid. In the case of (334) the initial product is apparently the allene (335), which is further converted to (336) $^{74, 268)}$:



Reaction of 2-halomethylenecyclopropanes with silver ion in methanol can follow a similar course ²⁶⁹⁾, although (337, X = Cl) rather unexpectedly leads to unrearranged product, (337, X = OMe) ²⁷⁰⁾:



Indeed, the chloride (338) reacts under the same conditions with allylic rearrangement to produce the same cyclopropene (R = Et)²⁷⁰, although there are several other related cases which lead to ring opening ²⁶⁹.

It is interesting to note that reaction of (339) with thiolate ion apparently proceeds by an S_N^2 type of process, while the related dichloride (340) leads to products which can be explained in terms of an initial allylic rearrangement ¹⁸².



The reaction of cycloprop-1-enylpropan-2-ols with thionyl chloride is also highly dependent on substitution, presumably reflecting changes in the rate of cyclopropylallyl ring opening ¹⁶⁵:



Cycloprop-2-en-I-ylmethanol derivatives (341) ring expand under acidic conditions to cyclobutenols in a reaction thought to proceed through a homoaromatic cyclobutenyl cation ²⁷¹:



However, closely related alcohols are ring opened by reaction with perchloric acid in THF, suggesting a very strong substituent effect in this reaction ⁷⁴). In a similar process, dithianes such as (342, R = H), readily formed by trapping of cyclopropenium salts with the lithiodithiane, are efficiently converted to endiones, eg. (343), by reaction with calcium carbonate and methyl iodide ²⁷²:



The corresponding methyl-derivative (342, R = Me) leads to a furan under these conditions but deprotection by mercuric oxide and boron trifluoride produces an E/Z mixture of diketones corresponding to (343). Replacing one of the phenyl substituents in (342, R = H) with methyl leads instead to the (E)-ketone (344). Various mechanisms are possible for these reactions, but an attractive one involves methylation on sulphur and ring expansion to (345), followed by trapping by water and ring opening ²⁷²:



11 Ring Expansion

The acid (346) is readily available by addition of phenylchlorocarbene to methyl 3,3-dimethylacrylate followed by elimination of HCl using potassium hydroxide in toluene. The cyclopropene is extremely sensitive to acid, eg. undergoing ring opening on reaction with p-toluenesulphonic acid in toluene; more interesting is the ring expansion on treatment with thionyl chloride 273 :



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The dichloride (347) is converted to (348) on heating, apparently again through an intermediate cyclobutenyl cation. Hydrolysis of either compound with water leads to the ketone (349), which is reconverted to the cyclobutene by treatment with phosphorus pentachloride $^{274)}$.



The hydroxy-cyclopropene (350) undergoes a ready base-induced ring expansion to (351)²⁷⁵⁾:



Reaction of cyclopropenes with cyclopropenium ions leads to a three carbon ring expansion to aromatic derivatives, presumably through ring opening of an initially formed cyclopropenyl-cyclopropylcation ²⁷⁶:



In the case of trapping of cyclopropenium ions by azirines, the regiochemistry is interpeted in terms of an initial one-carbon ring-expansion ²⁷⁷):



Similar ring expansions are observed when 3,3'-bicyclopropenyls are treated with silver ion (see section 9). Reaction of the propanoic acid derivative (352) with oxalyl chloride also leads to a three carbon ring expansion, although the detailed mechanism of the reaction is not clear ²¹²:



Three atom ring-expansion of cyclopropenyl azides and diazo-compounds provides a useful route to triazines and pyridazines respectively ²⁷⁸.



12 Rearrangement of 3,3'-Bicyclopropenyls

The isomerisation of 3,3'-bicyclopropenyls to benzene derivatives is highly exothermic and can be brought about under thermal, photochemical or metal catalysed conditions. The bicyclopropenyl (353, R = H) rearranges in the presence of silver ion to produce one regioisomer of the Dewar benzene (354) ²⁷⁹:



Product analysis shows that the thermal and metal induced reactions follow similar courses. The former reaction may proceed by opening of one ring to produce a formal vinyl carbene, followed by ring expansion; the latter may be rationalised in terms of electrophilic attack by silver ion at one of the cyclopropenes to produce a carbenium ion (355) — that is a silver-coordinated equivalent of the carbene — followed by ring expansion of the second cyclopropene.



In agreement with this (353, R = CN) does not rearrange under either thermal or silver catalysed conditions, the substituent apparently stopping either step depending on the ring which is initially attacked ²⁸⁰⁾. The thermal reactions are complicated by the fact that, e.g., 3,3'-dimethyl-3,3'-bicyclopropenyl is converted to two diastereo-

isomers of the 1,1'-dimethylisomer on heating, and there has been considerable discussion of the mechanisms of the various processes involved ²⁸¹. Analysis of the thermal rearrangement of each isomer under more vigorous conditions to produce mixtures of isomeric xylenes shows that the diastereoisomers interconvert in competition with xylene formation through a path which does not involve direct bonding between the two rings. A process involving formation of a diradical (356) is proposed ²⁸². There is also evidence for discrete intermediates (355) and (357) in the silver ion reactions ²⁸³. ²⁸⁴.



When the latter reaction is carried out in MeOD, the distribution of the label in the products is consistent with attack of silver ion at the π -bond and disrotatory opening of an incipient cyclopropyl cation towards the centre of developing positive charge ²⁸⁴:



Although the mechanisms of these reactions may be complex, they do allow access to a range of highly strained intermediates, eg. ²⁸⁵:



The thermolysis of (358) also leads to aromatisation, in this case in a process believed to involve an intermediate nitrile ylid. Evidence for this is obtained by thermolysis of a series of cyclopropenyl-substituted oxazolinones such as (359) for which cycloreversion with elimination of CO_2 is known to lead to a nitrile ylid. In some cases the ylid could be trapped by addition to methyl propiolate. Substituent effects suggest that the nitrile ylids undergo stepwise addition to produce a bicyclobutyl zwitterion which can either collapse to an azabenzvalene or rearrange to a cyclobutenyl cation ²⁸⁶.



13 Radical Addition

Reaction of t-butyl hypochlorite with 1-methylcyclopropenes can lead to efficient formation of 2-chloro-1-methylenecyclopropanes through trapping of an intermediate allylic radical ^{287, 288}:



Radical reduction of 1-(halomethyl)cyclopropenes can however lead to complex products ²⁸⁸⁾.

14 Sigmatropic Shifts

Thermolysis of 3-acyl-²⁸⁹⁾, or 3-trimethylsilylcyclopropenes ²⁹⁰⁾, can lead to a formal 1,3-shift, eg.:



In the latter case this has been shown to involve an intramolecular silyl-shift. In the case of 3-azido-cyclopropenes, a similar migration apparently occurs through ionic intermediates $^{278)}$.

15 Conclusion

Cyclopropenes are now readily available from a number of synthetic procedures and substituents may readily be introduced through 1-metallated species. The application of cyclopropenes in synthesis has to date provided routes to a very wide range of carbocyclic and heterocyclic systems derived by inter- or intra-molecular addition, and of extremely mild routes to unsaturated carbenes. 1,2-Addition to the alkene provides flexible approaches to a wide variety of *cis*- or *trans*-disubstituted cyclopropanes. The use of the cyclopropene ring as a template in enantiocontrolled synthesis has been largely neglected, but this may well prove to be an area of considerable future interest.

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