Origin of High *E*-Selectivity in 4-Pyrrolidinopyridine-Catalyzed Tetrasubstituted $\alpha_{,}\alpha'$ -Alkenediol: A Computational and Experimental Study

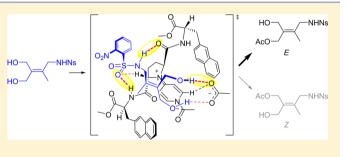
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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: We have developed 4-pyrrolidinopyridine catalysts for the geometry-selective (*E*-selective) acylation of tetrasubstituted α, α' -alkenediols. To elucidate the major factors of the high geometry selectivity, experimental and computational studies were carried out. The control experiments with respect to the substituent of the substrate indicated the fundamental hydrogen bonding of the acidic hydrogen of NHNs and the *Z*-OH in the substrate. Comparison between C_2 - and C_1 -symmetric catalysts exhibited the necessity of the C_2 -symmetric catalyst structure. The computationally proposed transition state (TS)



model well explained the experimental results. Whereas the fundamental NH/amide-CO and the two-point free-OH/acetate anion hydrogen bonds stabilize the transition state (TS), affording the *E*-product, the steric repulsion between the N-protecting group and the amide side chain destabilizes TS, affording the *Z*-product. The role of the two amide side chains of the catalyst in a C_2 -symmetric fashion is the enhancement of the molecular recognition ability through the additional hydrogen bond in a cooperative manner.

INTRODUCTION

The selective manipulation of multiple hydroxy groups of polyol compounds is a fundamental challenge in current organic synthesis.^{1,2} We have developed numerous selective reactions, including the chemo- and regioselective acylation of glycopyranoses,³ the chemoselective monoacylation of linear diols,⁴ the chemoselective acylation of a secondary alcohol in the presence of a primary alcohol,⁵ and the geometry-selective acylation of tetrasubstituted α, α' -alkenediols⁶ by organocatalysis. In those reactions, the multiple hydrogen bonds between the C_2 -symmetric 4-pyrrolidinopyridine catalysts (1 and 2) and the substrates play key roles in the molecular recognition depending on the substrate structure (Figure 1). In particular, the discrimination of the two hydroxy groups having intrinsically similar reactivity has been a difficult task.⁷ Whereas the geometry-selective acylation of various unsymmetrically trisubstituted 2-alkylidene-1,3-propanediols and the deacylation of the corresponding diesters have been achieved by enzymatic methods,⁸ the corresponding nonenzymatic method has been scarcely reported. We have reported the highly geometryselective (E-selective) acylation of tri- and tetrasubstituted 2-alkylidene-1,3-propanediols 3 and 4 using 2 as the catalyst (Figure 2).⁶ To the best of our knowledge, this is the only example of the highly geometry-selective acylation of tetrasubstituted

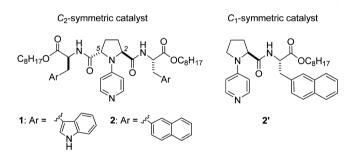


Figure 1. C₂- and C₁-symmetric 4-pyrrolidinopyridine catalysts.

2-alkylidene-1,3-propanediols among enzymatic and non-enzymatic methods.

We herein clarify the origin of the unprecedentedly high geometry selectivity and the role of the two amide side chains at C(2) and C(5) of 2 by experimental and computational studies. Focusing on the molecular recognition process through hydrogen-bonding interactions between 2 and tetrasubstituted alkenediols, the substituent effects of 4, 5, and 6 were investigated in detail (Figure 2). In addition, the molecular recognition ability of 2 and 2' was experimentally and

Received:December 30, 2014Published:February 12, 2015

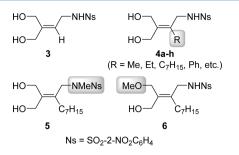
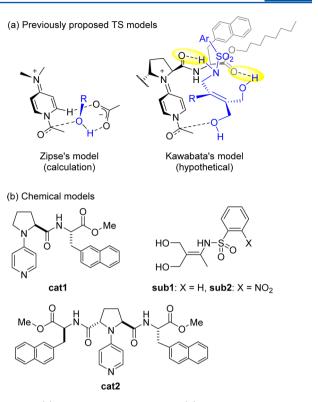


Figure 2. Tri- and tetrasubstituted 2-alkylidene-1,3-propanediols.

computationally compared to identify the necessity of the C_2 -symmetric catalyst structure. The computationally proposed transition state (TS) model well explained the experimental results.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Selected data for the catalytic acylation of various tetrasubstituted alkenediols 4 from our previous report⁶ and additional new data (entries 8 and 12) are shown in Table 1. Remarkable differences in geometry selectivity depending on substituent R were observed in the present 2-catalyzed acylation of 4. Highly *E*-selective $(96:4 \sim > 99:<1)$ acylation (93-98%) was noted for 4a-4g (entries 1-7). In contrast, nonselective acylation was observed in the catalytic acylation of phenyl-substituted alkenediol 4h (E-7:Z-7 = 50:50, entry 8). The high geometry selectivity in the acylation of 4b-4f was associated with the high yield of the monoacylation (entries 2-6).⁹ This indicates that the first acylation to give the monoacylate proceeded in an accelerative manner.^{4,10,11} The high selectivity (98:2) was maintained even when the reaction was conducted in CHCl₃/ DMF = 4:1 instead of $CHCl_3$, but the chemical yield was decreased (69%, entry 4 vs entry 9). On the other hand, use of pure DMF hampered the geometry selectivity (entry 4 vs entry 10). The experimental results suggest that the hydrogenbonding interactions between 2 and 4 play a key role in the



Article

Figure 3. (a) Proposed TS models and (b) computational chemical models.

geometry-selective acylation and the smooth monoacylation through molecular recognition. To obtain the mechanistic insights with respect to the hydrogen-bonding network between 2 and 4, substituent effects on the coordination sites of 4 were investigated. The use of NMeNs (Ns = 2-nitrobenzene-sulfonyl) derivative 5 resulted in a significant decrease of the geometry selectivity and a diminished yield of the mono-acylation (entry 11 vs entry 4). The relative acylation rate

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Table 1.	Catalytic <i>I</i>	Acylation of	Tetrasubstituted	Alkenediols 4	in the	Presence of 2
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	HO-R 4	HNs 2 (10 mol%) Ac ₂ O (1.03 eq) collidine (1.7 eq) CHCl ₃		cOR_R	
entry	0.01 M R	–60 °C, 24 h 4	HO— R Z- 7 7 [%]	E-7:Z-7 ^b	8 [%]/recovery [%]
1	Me	4a	52	>99: <1	24/24
2	Et	4b	93	98:2	1/2
3	Pr	4c	96	98:2	~0/3
4	C ₇ H ₁₅	4d	98	98:2	~0/1
5	$H_2CH_2CH=CH_2$	4e	97	98:2	~0/3
6	CH ₂ Ph	4f	98	98:2	~0/1
7^a	Br	4g	73	96:4 ^b	15/12
8	Ph	4h	55	50:50	15/15
9 ^c	C ₇ H ₁₅	4d	69	98:2	8/6
10^d	C ₇ H ₁₅	4d	41	50:50	14/36
11^e	C ₇ H ₁₅	5	64 ^f	64:36 ^g	
12^h	C ₇ H ₁₅	4d	97	93:7	

^{*a*}Run in CHCl₃/THF (10:1). ^{*b*}E-7g and Z-7g (R = Br) indicate that NHNs and OAc are in *E*- and Z-geometry to each other, respectively, although this does not follow the nomenclature. ^{*c*}Run in CHCl₃/DMF (4:1). ^{*d*}Run in DMF. ^{*c*}The corresponding NMeNs derivative was used. ^{*f*}The yield of the corresponding NMeNs derivatives. ^{*g*}The ratio of the corresponding NMeNs derivatives. ^{*k*}Catalyst 2' was used instead of 2.

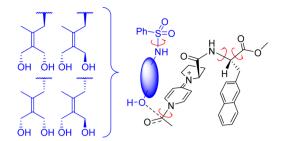


Figure 4. Conformational analysis of various TS models using cat1.

between 4d and 5 (k_{4d}/k_5) was found to be 26 based on the competitive acylation reaction between them.⁶ In addition, the acylation of 4d was 89 times faster than that of the corresponding *Z*-OMe derivative 6 in the presence of 2 $(k_{4d}/k_6 = 89)$.⁶ Those substituent effects indicate that the acidic hydrogen of

NHNs and the *Z*-OH in **4d**, which potentially act as hydrogen bond donors, are responsible for the *E*-selective acylation as well as the accelerative monoacylation of *E*-OH. The reaction of **4d** using the corresponding C_1 -symmetric catalyst **2'** showed slightly lower selectivity than the C_2 -symmetric one, but yet showed significantly high selectivity (*E*-7:*Z*-7 = 93:7, 97% yield of the monoacylation, entry 12).

Chemical Model and Computational Method. According to Zipse's computationally predicted mechanism¹² and our previously proposed mechanism,⁶ the TS model of the nucleophilic attack of 4 on the *N*-acetylpyridinium ion of 2 was computationally investigated (Figure 3a). As the geometry selectivity was determined in the nucleophilic addition step, the diastereomeric TS models of this step (TS-E and TS-Z) leading to the *E*- and *Z*-acylation were compared. To obtain a mechanistic insight into the roles of the two amide side chains derived from α -amino-2-naphthalenepropanoic acid in a

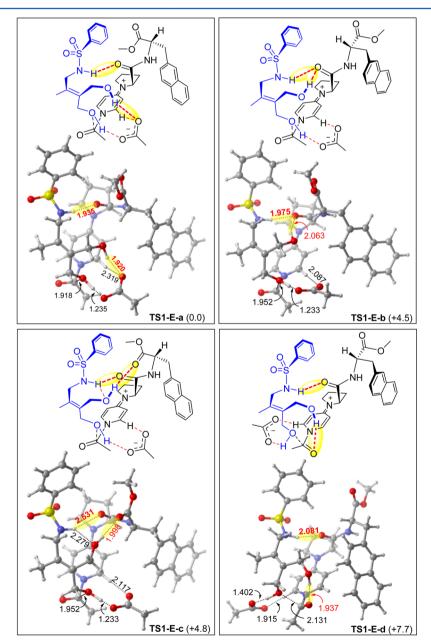


Figure 5. Schematic and 3D structures of typical diastereomeric TSs for TS1-E. Relative Gibbs free energies are shown in kcal/mol. Bond lengths are shown in Å.

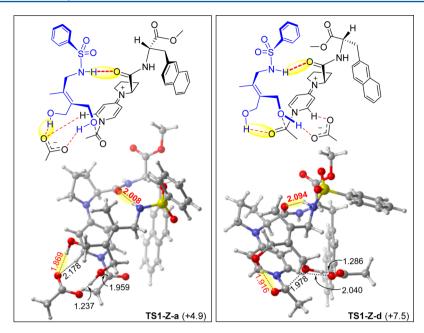


Figure 6. Schematic and 3D structures of typical diastereomeric TSs for TS1-Z. Relative Gibbs free energies are shown in kcal/mol. Bond lengths are shown in Å.

 C_2 -symmetric fashion, cat1 (C_1 symmetry) and cat2 (C_2 symmetry) were used as the chemical models of 2 (Figure 3b). In the chemical models of cat1 and cat2, methyl ester was employed instead of octyl ester in the original catalyst structure to reduce computational cost, respectively. Focusing on the primary interactions (highlighted in yellow, Figure 3a) between the catalyst and the substrate for both cat1 and cat2, the benzenesulfonyl group on the nitrogen substituent was initially employed instead of the Ns group in sub1 to identify the most favored TS structure for geometry selectivity control. Based on the ideal TS structure, a more realistic chemical model of sub2 bearing the NHNs group was also used to clarify the secondary effect of the NO₂ group in TS. All calculations were performed with the Gaussian 09 package.¹³ Geometries were fully optimized and characterized by frequency calculation at the B3LYP/6-31G* level.^{14,15} Gibbs free energies were also computed for the gas phase by single-point energy calculations at the same level.

There are a wide variety of conformational isomers for both the catalyst and the substrate because of their flexible linear structures (red curved arrows in Figure 4). To identify the fundamental interactions between the catalyst and the substrate, various diastereomeric TS models (**TS1**) using **cat1** and **sub1** were explored. As a preliminary conformational analysis, the relative Gibbs free energies of possible TS models having various types of hydrogen-bonding networks were compared to determine the energetically most favored TS structure. Using the totally optimized 31 TS models (**TS1-E**: 16 models, **TS1-Z**: 15 models; see the Supporting Information) as local minimum structures, diastereomeric TSs (series **a**-**d**) constructed by the typical hydrogen-bonding network are shown in Figures 5 (**TS1-E**) and 6 (**TS1-Z**).

On the basis of Zipse's computationally predicted TS model,¹² the nucleophilic OH group of **sub1** attacks the *N*-acylpyridinium ion while maintaining the interaction between the functional groups of **cat1** and the remaining OH group, and simultaneously the acetate anion abstracts the proton of the nucleophilic OH group. The hydrogen bond

between the NH group of sub1 and the amide carbonyl (amide-CO) of cat1 plays a key role in the TS stabilization. It is supposed that the acidic NH group on the N-protecting phenylsulfonyl group of sub1 forms an NH/amide-CO hydrogen bond as a fundamental interaction between sub1 and N-acylpyridinium ion. In addition to this fundamental hydrogen bond, other hydrogen bonds formed between the remaining OH (free-OH) of sub1 and the negatively charged sites of N-acylpyridinium ion (e.g., acyl and ester carbonyl groups) or acetate anion also affect the stabilization of TS (highlighted in yellow, Figures 5 and 6).¹⁶ The most stable TS1-E-a has a strong NH/amide-CO hydrogen bond (1.935 Å) and two-point hydrogen bonds between the two OH groups of sub1 and the acetate anion (1.235 Å, 1.920 Å). The two-point hydrogen bonds formed between the two OH groups and the anionic site enhance the stability of TS1-E-a (Figure 5). In contrast, free-OH interacts with amide-CO (2.063 Å) while keeping the strong NH/amide-CO hydrogen bond (1.975 Å) in TS1-E-b. However, TS1-E-b is 4.5-kcal/mol less stable than TS1-E-a due to the relatively weak hydrogen bond formed between free-OH and neutral amide-CO. Although TS1-E-c is our previously proposed TS model where the ester group of cat1 (ester-CO) interacts with free-OH, it is 4.8-kcal/mol less stable than TS1-E-a. The ester-CO/free-OH hydrogen bond (1.998 Å) geometrically induces the intramolecular NH/ free-OH hydrogen bond (2.279 Å) to significantly weaken the NH/amide-CO hydrogen bond (2.531 Å) in TS1-E-c. Such changes in the internal hydrogen-bonding network between sub1 and cat1 destabilize TS1-E-c. The other scenario involving the hydrogen bonding of free-OH stabilizes the developing negative charge of the N-acylpyridinium carbonyl group (acyl-CO) in TS (TS1-E-d). However, TS1-E-d is 7.7-kcal/mol higher in energy than TS1-E-a and an energetically disfavored TS. Whereas TS1-Z also has the fundamental NH/amide-CO hydrogen bond in a manner similar to TS1-E, only two series (a and d) of the hydrogen-bonding network enable to be constructed due to the geometrical requirement of the Z-selective acylation in TS1-Z (Figure 6). In both TS1-Z-a

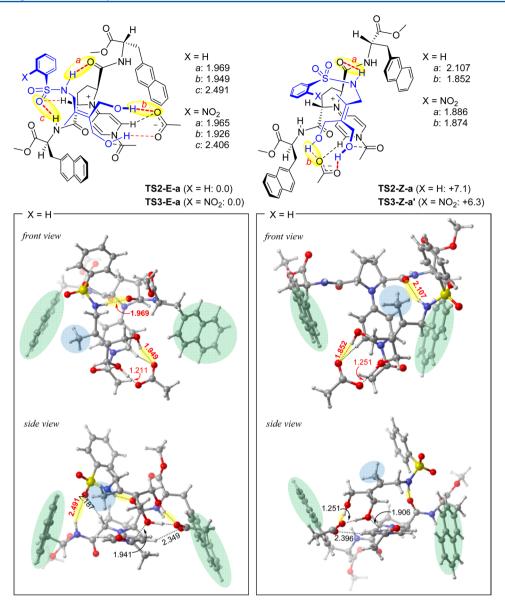


Figure 7. Schematic and 3D structures of diastereomeric TSs for cat2. Relative Gibbs free energies are shown in kcal/mol. Bond lengths are shown in Å.

and **TS1-Z-d**, the N-protecting phenylsulfonyl group is located close to the sterically demanding amide side chain of **cat1** to induce a large steric repulsion. **TS1-Z-a** having the two-point hydrogen bonds between the two OH groups of **sub1** and the acetate anion (1.237 Å, 1.869 Å) is energetically more favored than **TS1-Z-d** having the free-OH/acyl-CO hydrogen bond (1.916 Å). The relative Gibbs free energy difference between the most stable **TS1-E** and **TS1-Z** (e.g., **TS1-E-a** and **TS1-Z-a**) is qualitatively consistent with the experimental results in an *E*selective manner.

After exploring TS1 using cat1 and sub1, the ideal TS structures were found to be TS1-E-a and TS1-Z-a, where the NH group and the free-OH of sub1 interact with amide-CO and acetate anion, respectively, and the 2-naphthyl group is located far from sub1 as the stable conformation of the amide side chain. On the basis of these promising TS structures, more realistic TS models (TS2) using C_2 -symmetric cat2 were investigated to elucidate the role of the two amide side chains. In addition, a more realistic chemical model of sub2 bearing the NHNs group was also studied to identify the secondary effect

of the NO₂ group in TS (TS3). By expanding TS1-E-a and TS1-Z-a, the realistic TS models (TS2-E-a, TS2-Z-a, TS3-E-a, and TS3-Z-a) were geometrically optimized, respectively (Figure 7). The relative Gibbs free energies between TS-E and TS-Z were significantly increased for TS2 (7.1 kcal/mol) and TS3 (6.9 kcal/mol) compared to TS1 (4.9 kcal/mol). This is in qualitatively good agreement with the experimental results where C_2 -symmetric **2** achieved higher *E*-selectivity (*E*:*Z* = 98:2) than C_1 -symmetric **2**' (*E*:*Z* = 93:7). The gross structure and the hydrogen-bonding network in the right-hand part of TS2-E-a and TS2-Z-a are almost the same as those of TS1-E-a and TS1-Z-a, respectively (Figure 7). Both TS2-E-a and TS2-Z-a also have the NH/amide-CO hydrogen bond and the twopoint free-OH/acetate anion hydrogen bonds as fundamental interactions stabilizing TS (highlighted in yellow). As for TS2-E-a, it is noted that the NH group of the additional amide side chain (amide-NH, left-hand part in TS2-E-a) interacts with the sulfonyl group of sub1 (SO_2) to enhance the stabilization of TS (highlighted in yellow). This indicates that cat2 possesses the dual function of the two amide side chains, albeit in a

 C_2 -symmetric fashion. The induced-fit-type structural change of cat2 caused by the multiple hydrogen-bonding interactions enables geometrical recognition. In contrast, the C_2 -symmetric structure of cat2 has no impact on the stability of TS2-Z-a because no additional interaction exists other than the fundamental interactions in cat1 (Figure 7). Therefore, the additional SO₂/amide-NH hydrogen bond significantly stabilizes TS2-E-a and increases the relative Gibbs free energy difference between TS2-E-a and TS2-Z-a to achieve higher Eselectivity for 2 than 2'. Focusing on the structural feature of TS2, the Me group of sub1 in TS2-E-a (highlighted in blue) is located close to the additional amide side chain (highlighted in green, Figure 7). It is clear that the sterically demanding substituent (e.g., Ph) of the substrate induces a large steric repulsion with the additional amide side chain. In fact, phenylsubstituted alkenediol 4h showed no geometry selectivity (E:Z= 50:50 in Table 1). The introduction of the N-protecting Ns group (TS3-E-a and TS3-Z-a) has little influence on the gross structures, the hydrogen-bonding network, and the relative Gibbs free energies of both TS2-E-a and TS2-Z-a. As the secondary effect of the NO2 group in TS3, fundamental hydrogen bonds tend to be enhanced in comparison with TS2.

CONCLUSION

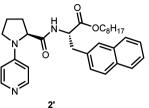
Experimental and DFT studies of the 4-pyrrolidinopyridinecatalyzed geometry-selective acylation of tetrasubstituted $\alpha_{,\alpha'}$ alkenediols were carried out to reveal the major factors affecting E-selectivity, particularly the role of the two amide side chains of the catalyst in a C_2 -symmetric fashion. Experiments comparing C_1 -symmetric and C_2 -symmetric catalysts showed that the geometry selectivity was sufficiently achieved even by the C_1 -symmetric unit of the catalyst, and the additional amide side chain of the C_2 -symmetric unit enhanced the stereocontrol ability. A mechanistic insight into the role played by the two amide side chains of the catalyst was obtained by DFT calculations. The fundamental NH/ amide-CO and the two-point free-OH/acetate anion hydrogen bonds as well as the steric repulsion between the N-protecting group and the amide side chain mainly contribute to the E-selective acylation. The other amide side chain of the catalyst acts cooperatively to further stabilize TS of the E-selective acylation through the additional hydrogen bond, thereby achieving higher E-selectivity. The dual function of the amide side chains is responsible for the molecular recognition process. Each of them participates independently and in a cooperative manner in the events to achieve high geometry selectivity in the tetrasubstituted $\alpha_{,}\alpha'$ -alkenediols.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

General Remarks. ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra were obtained at 400 and 600 MHz, respectively, with chemical shifts being given in ppm units (tetramethylsilane as internal standards, indicating 0). IR spectra were recorded on an FT-IR spectrometer. Specific rotation was measured with an automatic digital polarimeter. MS spectra were recorded by a FAB mass spectrometer. TLC analysis and preparative TLC were performed on commercial glass plates bearing a 0.25 mm layer or 0.5 mm layer of silica gel. Silica gel chromatography was performed with 150–325 mesh silica gel. Dry solvents (dichloromethane, and chloroform; <50 ppm water contents) obtained from commercial suppliers were used without further purification.

Synthesis of Octyl (S)-3-(Naphthalen-2-yl)-2-((S)-1-(pyridin-4-yl)pyrrolidine-2-carboxamido)propanoate (2'). To a solution of octyl (S)-2-amino-3-(naphthalen-2-yl)propanoate hydrochloride (406 μ L, 0.57 mmol), N-(4-pyridyl)-L-proline¹⁷ (189 mg, 0.38 mmol) in CH₂Cl₂ (5 mL) were added EDCI (109 mg, 0.57 mmol), HOBt (78 mg, 0.57 mmol) and NMM (115 mg, 1.14 mmol). After being stirred for 24 h, the mixture was diluted with EtOAc and washed with sat. aq. NaHCO₃ and brine, dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated in vacuo. The residue was purified by column chromatography to afford PPY-catalyst 2' in 34% (142 mg) as a colorless powder.

Octyl (S)-3-(Naphthalen-2-yl)-2-((S)-1-(pyridin-4-yl)pyrrolidine-2carboxamido)propanoate (2').

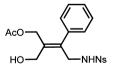


mp 60–61 °C. $[\alpha]_{20}^{D} = -132$ (c 0.32, CHCl₃). ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 0.88 (t, J = 6.9 Hz, 3H), 1.22–1.29 (m, 9H), 1.50–1.58 (m, 3H), 1.79–1.85 (m, 1H), 2.06–2.18 (m, 3H), 3.08–3.15 (m, 1H), 3.20 (dd, J = 7.1, 14.0 Hz, 1H), 3.32 (t, J = 8.5 Hz, 1H), 3.39 (dd, J = 5.7, 14.0 Hz, 1H), 4.01 (dd, J = 2.8, 8.2 Hz, 1H), 4.06 (t, J = 6.9 Hz, 2H), 4.88 (q, J = 6.9 Hz, 1H), 6.31–6.33 (m, 2H), 6.55 (d, J = 7.3 Hz, 1H), 7.20 (dd, J = 1.6, 8.5 Hz, 1H), 7.44–7.50 (m, 3H), 7.71–7.75 (m, 2H), 7.79–7.82 (m, 1H), 8.14–8.15 (m, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 14.1, 22.6, 23.3, 25.7, 28.4, 29.1, 31.0, 31.7, 37.7, 48.4, 52.8, 63.1, 65.9, 108.0, 125.9, 126.4, 126.9, 127.3, 127.7, 127.9, 128.4, 132.4, 133.2, 133.3, 149.8, 151.7, 170.9, 172.0. IR (KBr) 3331, 2954, 2927, 1753, 1657, 1601, 1541, 1515 cm⁻¹. MS (FAB) m/z 502 (M + H)⁺. HRMS (FAB) m/z calcd for C₃₁H₄₀O₃N₃ (M + H)⁺ 502.3070, found 502.3069.

Procedure for Competitive Acylation Reaction between 4d/4h. According to our previous report,⁶ the reaction was carried out as written below.

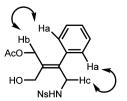
To a solution of *N*-(2-(1,3-dihydroxypropan-2-ylidene)nonyl)-2nitrobenzenesulfonamide (12 mg, 1.0 equiv) and *N*-(4-hydroxy-3-(hydroxymethyl)-2-phenylbut-2-en-1-yl)-2-nitrobenzenesulfonamide (11 mg, 1.0 equiv), catalyst (1.5 mg, 10 mol %) and 2,4,6-collidine (6.6 μ L, 1.7 equiv) in CHCl₃ (2.9 mL, concentration of the substrate: 0.01 M) was added acid anhydride (0.53 M solution in CHCl₃) (58 μ L, 1.05 equiv) at -60 °C. The resulting mixture was stirred at the same temperature for 24 h. The reaction was quenched with MeOH (1 mL), and the solvent was evaporated. The residue was dissolved in EtOAc, washed with 1 N HCl and brine, dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and concentrated in vacuo. The crude compound was purified by preparative TLC (SiO₂, hexane:EtOAc = 1:3) to afford monoacylates 7h in 20% (2.5 mg, *E:Z* = 57:43) and 7d in 76% (9.8 mg, *E:Z* = 95:5). *E/Z* ratio of monoacylate 7h was determined by the integration of ¹H NMR. Spectral data for compounds 7d and 8d were reported in our previous report.⁶

(E)-2-(Hydroxymethyl)-4-((2-nitrophenyl)sulfonamido)-3-phenylbut-2-en-1-yl Acetate) (E-7h).

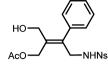


Colorless oil. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 2.04 (s, 3H), 2.25 (t, J = 5.5 Hz, 1H), 4.24 (d, J = 6.4 Hz, 2H), 4.39 (d, J = 5.5 Hz, 2H), 4.49 (s, 1H), 5.61 (t, J = 5.7 Hz, 1H), 6.88–6.90 (m, 2H), 7.20–7.24 (m, 3H), 7.67–7.74 (m, 2H), 7.81–7.84 (m, 1H), 8.02–8.04 (m, 1H). ¹³C NMR (150 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 20.9, 45.9, 59.6, 63.6, 125.4, 128.18, 128.23, 128.6, 130.8, 132.9, 133.4, 134.1, 134.6, 137.6, 139.9, 170.9. IR (KBr) 3610, 3375, 3031, 2927, 1736, 1543 cm⁻¹. MS (FAB) m/z 443 (M + Na)⁺. HRMS (FAB) m/z calcd for C₁₉H₂₀O₇N₂SNa (M + Na)⁺ 443.0889, found 443.0886.

(E)-Stereochemistry was determined by NOESY spectra as shown below.

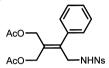


(Z)-2-(Hydroxymethyl)-4-((2-nitrophenyl)sulfonamido)-3-phenylbut-2-en-1-yl Acetate) (Z-7h).



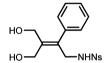
Colorless oil. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 1.90 (t, *J* = 5.9 Hz, 1H), 2.17 (s, 3H), 3.95 (d, *J* = 5.5 Hz, 2H), 4.26 (d, *J* = 5.5 Hz, 2H), 4.95 (s, 2H), 5.54 (t, *J* = 5.9 Hz, 1H), 6.89–6.91 (m, 2H), 7.16–7.22 (m, 3H), 7.64–7.70 (m, 2H), 7.80 (dd, *J* = 7.6 Hz, *J* = 1.4 Hz, 1H), 7.95 (dd, *J* = 1.4, 7.6 Hz, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 21.1, 45.9, 61.1, 61.5, 125.4, 125.4, 128.2, 128.5, 130.7, 132.9, 133.3, 134.2, 134.7, 137.4, 139.3, 1731.4. IR (KBr) 3617, 3371, 2960, 2925, 1730, 1714, 1543, 1412 cm⁻¹. MS (FAB) *m*/*z* 443 (M + Na)⁺. HRMS (FAB) *m*/*z* calcd for C₁₉H₂₀O₇N₂SNa (M + Na)⁺ 443.0889, found 443.0887.

2-(2-((2-Nitrophenyl)sulfonamido)-1-phenylethylidene)propane-1,3-diyl Diacetate (8h).



Colorless powder. mp 97–99 °C. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 2.02 (s, 3H), 2.13 (s, 3H), 4.27 (d, *J* = 6.0 Hz, 2H), 4.40 (s, 2H), 4.85 (s, 2H), 5.58 (t, *J* = 5.5 Hz, 1H), 6.88 (dd, *J* = 1.6, 8.0 Hz, 2H), 7.16–7.26 (m, 3H), 7.63–7.72 (m, 2H), 7.81 (dd, *J* = 1.4, 7.8 Hz, 1H), 7.96 (dd, *J* = 1.6, 7.6 Hz, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 20.8, 20.9, 45.9, 60.6, 62.9, 125.4, 128.1, 128.4, 128.6, 130.2, 130.7, 132.9, 133.3, 134.2, 137.1, 141.8, 147.6, 170.5, 170.9. IR (KBr) 1730, 1539, 1339, 1250 cm⁻¹. MS (FAB) *m*/*z* 485 (M + Na)⁺. HRMS (FAB) *m*/*z* calcd for C₂₁H₂₂O₈N₂SNa (M + Na)⁺ 485.0995, found 485.0992.

N-(4-Hydroxy-3-(hydroxymethyl)-2-phenylbut-2-en-1-yl)-2-nitrobenzenesulfonamide (4h).



Colorless powder. mp 115–116 °C. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 1.97 (s, 1H), 2.44 (s, 1H), 4.08 (s, 2H), 4.21 (d, *J* = 6.0 Hz, 2H), 4.56 (s, 2H), 5.60 (t, *J* = 5.5 Hz, 1H), 6.88–6.90 (m, 2H), 7.18–7.23 (m, 3H), 7.69–7.75 (m, 2H), 7.81–7.83 (m, 1H), 8.05–8.07 (m, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 45.7, 61.4, 63.3, 125.5, 128.1, 128.4, 128.6, 131.0, 133.1, 133.5, 134.2, 136.4, 137.9, 138.0. IR (KBr) 2362, 1539, 1404, 1363 cm⁻¹. MS (FAB) *m/z* 401 (M + Na)⁺. HRMS calcd for C₁₇H₁₈O₆N₂SNa (M + Na)⁺ 401.0783, found 401.0783.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

Copies of ¹H and ¹³C spectra and computational details (Cartesian coordinates and absolute energies for stationary points). This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research on Innovative Areas "Advanced Molecular Transformations by Organocatalysts" from The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Japan, MEXT-Supported Program for the Strategic Research Foundation at Private Universities, and the Collaborative Research Program of Institute for Chemical Research, Kyoto University (No. 2014-82).

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