SYNTHESIS OF $\beta\text{-LACTAM}$ BELACTOSIN A ANALOGS AS POTENTIAL 20S PROTEASOME INHIBITORS

by

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ABSTRACT

Belactosin A is a naturally occurring proteasome inhibitor with potent antitumor activity, however it does not possess the properties necessary to be used clinically. Like other proteasome inhibitors, such as carfilzomib and bortezomib, which are currently used to treat myelomas, belactosin A exhibits a peptidomimetic backbone with a serine trap at the C-terminal end. Key structural features of the natural product include a cyclopropane ring and a terminal β -lactone as the serine trap.

While several syntheses of belactosin A have been reported, only a few analogs have been prepared, all of which maintained the β -lactone as the serine trap. Though β -lactams are classic serine traps, only two have been reported as proteasome inhibitors. The synthesis of novel β -lactam analogs of belactosin A is reported here, with the key step being coupling of cyclopropyl peptidomimetics to β -lactams. The use of phenylalanine, leucine, and valine as starting materials leads to benzyl, isobutyl, and isopropyl analogs of the natural product. Attempts were made to optimize functionalization of the cyclopropyl backbones for coupling to the β -lactams, which lead to the proposal of a modified synthetic route to achieve the proposed analogs.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

20S Proteasome as an antitumor target

Proteasome structure and function

The 26S proteasome is a multi-subunit complex that plays a central role in the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway for regulated protein degradation, and its activity affects a multitude of cellular processes. The 26S proteasome is comprised of a 20S proteolytic core and two 19S regulatory "caps" (Figure 1a). In the ubiquitinproteasome pathway, proteins are marked for degradation by ubiquitination. The 19S regulatory cap binds to the ubiquitin chain and allows the protein to enter the barrel-like proteolytic core where it is proteolyzed and released (Figure 1b). Because its inhibition induces apoptosis (cell death) in proliferating cells and prevents angiogenesis (development of new blood vessels), the 20S proteasome is an attractive anti-tumor target. Proteasome inhibition also blocks NF-кВ activation necessary to produce interleukin growth factors required by cancerous cells [1]. Many anti-tumor chemotherapies currently in clinical use, such as doxorubicin and radiotherapy, stop tumor growth by damaging DNA. Proteasome inhibition has been found to also work synergistically with these therapies by preventing the activation of DNA repair enzymes [6].

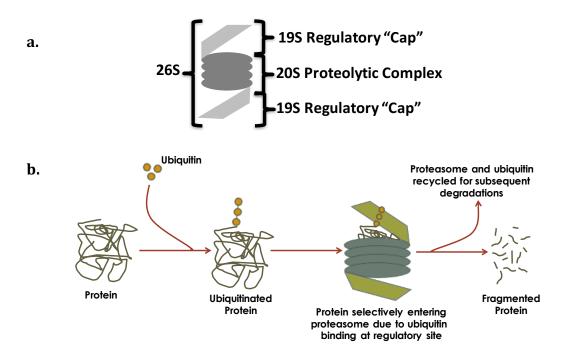


Figure 1: Proteasome structure and function: (a) Simplified graphic representing the regulatory and catalytic components of the 26S proteasome (b) Ubiquitin-proteasome pathway for regulated protein degradation.

The structure of eukaryotic 20S proteasomes can be further broken down into two β -rings that each consist of three β -subunits for a total of two chymotrypsin-like (CT-L), two trypsin-like (T-L), and two caspase-like (C-L) active sites that specifically cleave after hydrophobic/aromatic, basic, and acidic residues respectively [1]. The majority of proteasome inhibitors target a combination of these active sites, but the CT-L subunits are the most frequently targeted. While CT-L activity has historically been considered the "rate-limiting step" of protein degradation, recent studies have shown that all six subunits contribute equally and that relative activities are dependent on the specific substrates and the cell-type.

Some cancer cell lines have been shown to be more dependent on C-L and T-L activities and are less susceptible to drugs that primarily target the CT-L subunits [2].

Proteasome mechanism of action

In general, the active site of a protease contains a nucleophilic catalytic residue that is activated through some form of catalytic cascade. The most common mode of activation is through what is termed the catalytic triad, which consists of an acidic residue (Asp or Glu), a basic histidine (His) residue, and the nucleophilic residue. Proteases are classified primarily by the identity of this nucleophilic residue and by the mechanisms through which this residue acts upon the peptide bond. The most common proteases are metallo (34%), serine (30%), and cysteine (26%) proteases, but the aspartic (4%) proteases have also been well characterized [3]. However, the β-subunits of the proteasome are unique in that they utilize an Nterminal threonine (T1) activated by a lysine residue (K33) as their catalytic mechanism rather than an acid-activated histidine. Eva Huber and her colleagues suggest that the N-terminal amine plays a significant role in stabilizing the incoming protein substrate as well as donating a proton to the C-terminal cleavage product and subsequently activating a water molecule for cleavage of the N-terminal product [4]. This mechanism is depicted in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Proteasome catalytic mechanism for protein cleavage. Substrate highlighted in blue.

Serine traps as structural elements for proteasome inhibition

In order to occupy the active site and trap the nucleophilic threonine residue, most proteasome inhibitors take advantage of traditionally electrophilic structural moieties that have been termed "serine traps" as warheads. Most drugs containing serine traps bind covalently and irreversibly to their target, but there are some drugs, particularly borates, that have been found to be reversible inhibitors. Figure 3 displays the most common serine traps that will be discussed.

Figure 3: Common serine traps that target nucleophilic catalysts.

Boronate inhibitors

Boronates are slow binding, but highly selective proteasome inhibitors.

Though boronates are considered to be reversible inhibitors, they maintain a considerably slow dissociation rate that renders them essentially irreversible within the timescale of a typical cell culture experiment. The electrophilic boron atom captures the nucleophile in a covalent bond that is only semi-reversible (Figure 4).

Figure 4: General mechanism of boronates as reversible 20S-proteasome inhibitors [1].

Boronates have been found to be highly selective for proteasome inhibition over other proteases. Boron and sulfur have a very weak interaction, which makes boronates poor inhibitors of cysteine proteases. Boronates have also been found to be 1000-fold weaker serine protease inhibitors than they are proteasome inhibitors. This is due to the increase in the rate of hydrolysis of the boronate-serine adduct [1]. In the early stages of its development, researchers searched extensively to identify any other targets of the boronate proteasome inhibitor and cancer drug bortezomib (Figure 5), but they failed [5].

Figure 5: Structure of bortezomib. Boronate serine trap is highlighted in red.

Bortezomib was the first proteasome inhibitor to be used clinically to treat cancer. It was approved by the FDA in 2003 for the treatment of multiple myeloma and gained later approval in 2006 for the treatment of mantle cell lymphoma. The drug is currently involved in over 200 active clinical trials for various combination therapies with other chemotherapeutic agents. The limitations of toxicity in dosing, however, have rendered bortezomib unsatisfactory for the treatment of solid tumors [6]. The structurally related drug, CEP-18770 (Figure 6), has been found to exhibit similar activity to bortezomib, but it has a much more favorable cytotoxicity profile towards healthy cells [7].

Figure 6: Structure of cancer drug candidates, MLN9708 and CEP-18770, currently in Phase I clinical trials. The boronate of MLN9708 is hydrolyzed in vivo to its active form. Boronate serine trap is highlighted in red for both compounds.

CEP-18770 is currently in Phase I trials for the treatment of solid tumors and non-Hodgkin's lymphoma [7]. Another boronate currently in clinical trials is MLN9708 (Figure 6). The boronate of MLN9708 is masked in the ring, but hydrolyzes to the

active form immediately upon entering the plasma. MLN9708 is currently in Phase I clinical trials for the treatment of lymphoma and non-hematological malignancies and in Phase II trials for treatment of multiple myeloma. All three of the boronate drugs mentioned selectively inhibit the CT-L subunit of the 20S proteasome [6].

Epoxyketone inhibitors

Epoxyketones react through a unique mechanism that incorporates both the hydroxyl and free amine of the N-terminal threonine to covalently bind the drug to the active site through formation of a six-membered morpholino ring (Figure 7)[8].

Figure 7: General mechanism of peptide epoxyketones as irreversible 20S proteasome inhibitors.

The dual nature of the epoxyketone mechanism to target both the hydroxyl and terminal amine provides epoxyketone drugs with a high selectivity towards the unique N-terminal catalytic residue of the proteasome and renders the drugs as entirely irreversible inhibitors [1].

Epoxomicin (Figure 8) is a natural product isolated from an unidentified actinomycete bacterial strain based on its anti-tumor activity in mice [9]. It was the

first epoxyketone identified as a proteasome inhibitor, but it doesn't have the necessary pharmaceutical properties to be a clinical drug.

Figure 8: Structure of epoxomicin and carfilzomib. Epoxyketone serine trap is highlighted in red.

Carfilzomib (Figure 8) was discovered as an analog of epoxomicin with improved properties. In Phase I clinical trials, carfilzomib exhibited equal potency, greater selectivity, and less peripheral neuropathy than bortezomib [6]. In 2012, carfilzomib was approved by the FDA for the treatment of multiple myeloma [10]. Both carfilzomib and bortezomib can only be administered intravenously, but proteasome inhibitor therapy requires twice weekly dosing that would make an orally available inhibitor advantageous. Oprozomib (Figure 9) was developed as an analog of carfilzomib to address this need [6].

Figure 9: Structure of oprozomib. Epoxyketone serine trap is highlighted in red.

Oprozomib has demonstrated similar activity to carfilzomib as an orally bioavailable drug and is currently in Phase I clinical trials for treatment of hematologic malignancies and solid tumors [11]. The oral bioavailability of oprozomib compared to carfilzomib is attributed to the truncated size and incorporation of the methylserine residues. Di- and tripeptides are more likely to cross intestinal epithelial barriers and be absorbed into the blood stream compared to tetrapeptides like carfilzomib. An SAR study led by Han-Jie Zhou of Proteolix identified that the tripeptide form retained the greatest activity against the proteasome. He also identified the methylserine residues provided better metabolic stability and solubility for oral bioavailability than the bulky residues of carfilzomib and bortezomib. Once the side chains were optimized, the N-cap was optimized for potency revealing that 2-Me-5-thiazole provided the best results [12].

β-Lactone and β-lactam inhibitors

 β -Lactones are the least stable of the proteasome inhibitors. Lactone esters are readily hydrolyzed by water at neutral pH and exist in equilibrium with the lactathione form that results from reacting with free glutathione in mammalian

cells. Though most β -lactone proteasome inhibitors are considered irreversible, the adduct formed with the proteasome is slowly ($t_{1/2} \approx 20$ h) hydrolyzed by water allowing for recovery of proteolytic activity. The general mechanism of an "irreversible" β -lactone inhibitor is depicted in Figure 10.

Figure 10: General mechanism of β -lactones as irreversible 20S proteasome inhibitors.

Salinosporamide A (also known as marizomib) is the most notable β -lactone proteasome inhibitor that is in clinical development (Figure 11).

Figure 11: Structure of salinosporamide A. β -lactone serine trap is highlighted in red.

Salinosporamide A was isolated from the marine bacterium $Salinospora\ tropica$ and has been found to bind irreversibly to all three types of β -subunits in the proteasome, whereas all of the other drugs discussed thus far primarily only target the CT-L subunit [6]. The irreversibility of salinosporamide A has been suggested to be due to the involvement of the chloroethyl substituent after opening of the β -lactone ring. E. J. Corey and colleagues have suggested that the chloroethyl undergoes an intramolecular substitution with the hydroxyl to form a tetrahydrofuran derivative that reduces the rate of dissociation (Figure 12) [13].

Figure 12: Extension of β -lactone mechanism against 20S proteasome with tetrahydrofuran ring closure of the chloroethyl of salinosporamide A.

Corey and colleagues' suggestion is based on the identification of the tetrahydrofuran derivative as a product when they treated salinosporin derivatives with benzylamine, which they used as a chemical model for the nucleophilic N-terminal threonine of the proteasome [13].

Corey and colleagues have also worked to develop a β -lactam analog of salinosporamide A (Figure 13).

Figure 13: Corey β-lactam analog of salinosporamide A. β-lactam highlighted in red.

Though **1** is suspected to undergo the same mechanism as salinosporamide A, the rate of proteasome inhibition of **1** is significantly slower. However, Corey states that the slow rate is "more than compensated for" by the increased aqueous stability of **1** under physiological conditions compared to salinosporamide A [14].

The only other β -lactam proteasome inhibitors that have been investigated are those that have been synthesized by Patricia Imbach at Novartis Institutes for BioMedical Research in Switzerland. Novartis had previously reported a non-covalent 20S proteasome inhibitor that selectively targeted the CT-L β -subunits. Imbach applied computational modeling of this scaffold to guide the optimum placement of a β -lactam moiety and synthesized several analogs fitting this model (Figure 14).

Figure 14: Scaffold of Novartis β -lactam proteasome inhibitors.

Imbach found that the R configuration at the β -lactam was necessary to properly orient the bulky substituent into the binding pocket and that the methoxy substituents at R² provided the most potent activity. Changes at R¹ and R³ had little effect on the activity. This observation is characteristic of covalent inhibitors, which do not depend as greatly on optimization of intermolecular interactions for potency. Covalent inhibition was confirmed by mass spectrometry implying that these β -lactam compounds are irreversible inhibitors. The antiproliferative activity of the β -lactam derivatives against human breast carcinoma cell line MDA-MB-435 was also competitive, reaching an IC $_{50}$ as low as 32 nM [15].

Belactosin A and associated analogs as proteasome inhibitors

Belactosin A (Figure 15) was first isolated in 2000 as a novel *Streptomyces* metabolite following observation of both antitumor and antibiotic activities [16].

Figure 15: Structure of belactosin A.

In 2004, the antitumor activity was identified to be the result of irreversible 20S proteasome inhibition at the CT-L β -subunit [17]. There have been three reports of total syntheses of belactosin A [18, 19, 20], but Satoshi Shuto and colleagues are the only group to have developed analogs of the compound as well.

Shuto's first structure-activity relationship (SAR) study of belactosin A was to synthesize all of the possible stereoisomers to identify the most potent form, but the most important observation of this study came forth from their serendipitous decision to also test the benzyl carbamate (Cbz) protected vinyl synthetic intermediates for proteasome inhibition (Figure 16).

Figure 16: Structure of lead compound in Shuto's SAR study of belactosin A analogs exhibiting an unnatural *cis*-cyclopropyl (pink). The vinyl (red) and Cbz (blue) substituents were determined to increase potency 20-fold.

The vinyl and Cbz substituents were found to significantly enhance the potency of the compound. The most potent *cis/L-anti* analog (Figure 16) was found to be 20 times more potent than belactosin A [21]. This compound was then used as the lead for a subsequent SAR study that looked at different bulky hydrophobic substituents in place of the Cbz-alanine and the vinyl substituents [22]. Both of these studies showed that the addition of bulky hydrophobic aromatic substituents greatly enhanced potency and selectivity towards the CT-L subunit. Based on these analogs, Shuto developed a nonpeptidic derivative of belactosin (Figure 17) and coupled it to peptide boronate and epoxyketone fragments.

CT-L activity: IC $_{50}$ = 29 nM HCT116 cell growth: IC $_{50}$ > 10 μ M

Figure 17: Shuto's nonpeptidic belactosin derivative [23].

The configuration of the resulting compounds (Figure 18) was designed to maximize all possible binding pocket interactions based on observations of the protein crystal structure of both fragments bound to the active site [24, 25]. Note

the incredible increase in potency of the boronate derivative with an IC_{50} of 32 nM against cancer cell lines. This activity is competitive with the leading clinical drug bortezomib ($IC_{50} = 10$ nM) [22].

Boronate Derivative
$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Epoxyketone Derivative} \\ \text{CT-L activity: } \text{IC}_{50} = 2.7 \text{ nM} \\ \text{HCT116 cell growth: } \text{IC}_{50} = 32 \text{ nM} \\ \end{array}$$

Figure 18: Shuto's nonpeptidic belactosin derivatives with alternative peptide boronate and epoxyketone warheads. The addition of the peptide warhead maximizes binding pocket interactions with the CT-L active site [24, 25].

Goals of project

To date, Shuto's lab is the only group to synthesize and investigate analogs of belactosin A. No analogs have been investigated that maintain the cyclopropyl peptidomimetic core with an alternative serine trap warhead to the natural β -

lactone. Based on the success of Imbach and Corey's β -lactam proteasome inhibitors and the limited number of β -lactam inhibitors in existence, nine β -lactam belactosin A analogs are proposed herein for synthesis and investigation of activity against the 20S proteasome (Figure 19).

Figure 19: Projected library of nine analogs and retrosynthetic analysis. Each analog will have four possible stereoisomers.

The nitro and ester cyclopropyl peptidomimetic core elements were previously developed in Norma Dunlap's lab [26, 27]. The key steps in synthesizing the proposed analogs are the syntheses of each of the three proposed β -lactam fragments and optimizing the procedure for coupling the β -lactams to the

cyclopropyl core fragment. Once the synthesis of the analogs is completed, biological assays will be conducted to evaluate their inhibitory effects on the 20S proteasome. The goal of this project is to complete the β -lactam amine analog series and, time permitting, further explore optimization of the amine reduction for the β -lactam acid analog series.

Synthesis of β -lactams

β -Lactam acids

In developing a synthesis for the natural product dealanylalahopcin, Jack Baldwin engineered a method to synthesize β -lactam acid **4** from the readily available D-aspartic acid. This process proceeds through a base (tBuMgCl) catalyzed cyclization of a dibenzyl ester, N-silyl intermediate. Hydrogenolysis of the benzyl ester provides the final β -lactam acid product (Scheme 1) [28].

Scheme 1: Synthesis of β -lactam acid following Baldwin's procedure.

β-Lactam amines

In 1988, a synthesis was developed at Roche involving an intramolecular cyclization of a sulfate-activated amide by displacing a mesylate leaving group to afford a β -lactam amine. These β -lactam amines synthesized by Roche generally exhibited additional substitutions at the β -position of the unnatural amino acids, whereas the desired β -lactam δ has no additional substitutions on the β -lactam ring. Applying this method to Cbz-L-serine as a cheap starting material would theoretically afford the sulfonated β -lactam amine δ (Scheme 2) [29].

Scheme 2: Synthesis of β -lactam via sulfonation following Roche procedure.

Another method for synthesizing β -lactam amines was developed by Marvin Miller in 1980. This method would also utilize Cbz-L-serine as a starting material, but it goes through a benzyl hydroxamate rather than a sulfonate in order to activate that amide for cyclization to afford β -lactam **11**. This method also utilizes a Mitsunobu reaction to transform the serine hydroxyl into a good leaving group rather than a mesylate (Scheme 3) [30].

Scheme 3: Synthesis of β -lactam via O-benzyl hydroxamate following Miller procedure

A third method for synthesizing β -lactam amines is a one-step reaction developed by Shital Chattopadhyay in 2015. This method does not require going through any intermediates in order to activate an amide for cyclization. Instead Cbz- β -amino-alanine, an unnatural amino acid, is used as the starting material and 2-chloro-1-methyl pyridinium iodide (Mukaiyama's reagent) is used to activate the acid, resulting in cyclization (Scheme 4) [31].

Scheme 4: Synthesis of β -lactam via Mukaiyama's reagent following Saha's procedure.

Synthesis of cyclopropyl backbone

The cyclopropyl backbones are a signature of Dunlap's group. The synthesis utilizes protected amino acids as the starting material, providing an easy route to R-group variability. The amino acids are converted to Weinreb amides and treated with vinylmagnesium bromide in order to form the enone intermediate. From this intermediate, the synthesis diverges to form either the ester or the nitro cyclopropyl product via treatment with ethyl (dimethylsulfuranylidene)acetate (EDSA) and bromonitromethane, respectively. After cyclopropyl formation, the resulting ketone is reduced by sodium borohydride to yield the final product (Scheme 5) [26, 27].

Scheme 5: Synthesis of cyclopropyl backbone core.

β-Lactam coupling

Finally, in order for the β -lactams to be coupled to the cyclopropyl backbones, the ester series must be hydrolyzed to an acid and the nitro series must

be reduced to an amine. Once this is completed, the two pieces can be coupled through EDCI catalyzed amide bond formation in order to form the initial precursor to the proposed analogs (Scheme 6).

Scheme 6: Coupling of β -lactams to amino acid-derived cyclopropyl backbones.

These precursors are lacking the Cbz-alanine unit at the end opposing the β -lactam. In Shuto's SAR analysis, he was able to show that the analogs were able to maintain activity without the alanine unit as long as a benzyl substituent was in place at the terminal end [22]. Based on these observations, these precursors will be evaluated for cancer cell cytotoxicity prior to addition of the Cbz-alanine terminal unit.

CHAPTER II: MATERIALS AND METHODS

Instruments, materials, and reagents

NMR data are obtained using a 500MHz FT-NMR model ECA-500 JEOL (Peabody, MA) purchased with funding provided by the National Science Foundation through the NSF-MRI program (#0321211). Chemical shifts are reported in parts per million (ppm) in reference to tetramethylsilane (TMS). Splitting patterns are represented by the following abbreviations: s (singlet), d (doublet), t (triplet), q (quartet), m (multiplet), dd (doublet of doublets), ddd (doublet of doublet of doublets), dt (doublet of triplets) and br (broad signal). Coupling constants (J values) are recorded in Hz. High-resolution electrospray ionization-mass spectrometry (ESI-MS) was performed at Notre Dame University, Notre Dame, Indiana. All other MS data was collected on Waters Synapt HDMS QToF instrument at Middle Tennessee State University.

Thin-layer chromatography (TLC) was performed on glass plates coated with silica gel with UV active backing purchased from Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA.

TLC plates were analyzed utilizing UV light (254 nm) absorbance and subsequent staining with either phosphomolybdic acid (PMA), ninhydrin, or anisaldehyde (reagent grade, Aldrich, Milwaukee, WI) stain solutions or utilizing an iodine chamber. Flash column chromatography was performed with silica gel, 32-63 micron ASTM (reagent grade, Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA), and, where

indicated, flash column chromatography was also performed on an ISCO CombiFlash R_f 200 Teledyne ISCO, (Lincoln, NE) using a Teledyne ISCO cartridge preloaded with 5g of normal phase silica and a Teledyne ISCO preloaded 12g flash column.

Dichloromethane (DCM), methanol (MeOH), acetone, ethyl acetate (EA), ethanol (EtOH), and hexanes (Hex) were purchased from Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA. Chloroform was purchased reagent grade from Acros Organic, New Jersey, USA. Anhydrous tetrahydrofuran (THF) was obtained using a Pure Solv solvent purification system (Model PS-MD-3, Innovative Technology, Amesbury, MA). Deutero-chloroform (CDCl₃), Deutero-methanol (Methanol-d₄), and Deutero-acetone (Acetone-d₆) were purchased from Aldrich, Milwaukee, WI. Solvent extractions were performed using EA or DCM where indicated and washed with either distilled water, 1M hydrochloric acid (HCl), saturated sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO₃), and/or brine (reagent grade, Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA). The organic layer was dried with magnesium sulfate (MgSO₄) (Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA) and filtered. Evaporation of solvents was achieved using a Heidolph rotary evaporator (Model G3, Schwabach, Germany).

Triethylamine (Et₃N) and zinc metal (powdered) were obtained from Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA. (S)-3-Amino-2-(benzyloxycarbonylamino)-propanoic acid (95%) was purchased from Matrix Scientific. All other reagents were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (Milwaukee, WI). Where indicated, catalytic hydrogenation was performed on a Parr hydrogenation apparatus (Mod# A16CA, Moline, IL) using a GE Motor (Mod# 5KH35LNB1645X, RPM 1725).

Synthetic methods

β-Lactam acid

(L)-Dibenzyl aspartate (2): To a solution of D-aspartic acid (2.0 g, 15.0 mmol) in 6 mL of benzene, benzyl alcohol (12.5 mL, 120.0 mmol) and p-toluenesulfonic acid (5.7 g, 30.0 mmol) were added and the reaction was refluxed with a Dean-Stark trap for 3 hrs. The reaction solution was cooled to room temperature and transferred to an Erlenmeyer flask with an additional 15 mL of benzene and 25 mL of diethyl ether where the product was allowed to slowly crystallize out of solution over 4 weeks under refrigeration. The crystals were collected to yield 4.24 g (58%) of dibenzyl ester tosylate salt. To a 25 mL aqueous solution containing 1.6 g K_2CO_3 , 1.2 g of the dibenzyl ester tosylate salt was added. The aqueous solution was extracted three times with EA. The combined organic layers were dried over MgSO₄ and evaporated to give 660 mg (85%) of the dibenzyl ester amine 2.

(4S)-Benzyl-N-(t-butyldimethylsilyl)azetidin-2-one-4-carboxylate (3):

To a solution of amine 2 (660 mg, 2.10 mmol) in 9 mL of dry acetonitrile (MeCN),

tert-butyldimethylsilyl chloride (TBSCl) (64 mg, 0.42 mmol) and N-tert
butyldimethylsilyl-N-methyltrifluoroacetamide (MTBSTFA) (0.9 mL, 4.2 mmol)

were added and the reaction mixture was allowed to stir at room temperature. After

1.5 hrs, the solvent was evaporated and placed under high vacuum conditions for 26

hrs to remove remaining MTBSTFA, providing 983.5 mg (110%) of crude silylated

product. The crude N-silylated dibenzyl ester was then suspended in 10 mL of anhydrous diethyl ether under argon and cooled to 0°C. Once cooled, 1.1 mL of 2.0 M *tert*-butyl magnesium chloride (*t*BuMgCl) (2.3 mmol) in diethyl ether was added dropwise over 45 min resulting in the formation of a pale yellow precipitate. After the reaction mixture stirred for 17 hrs at room temperature, 15 mL of aqueous ammonium chloride (NH₄Cl) was added and allowed to stir for an additional 20 min. The reaction mixture was extracted twice with EA and the combined organic layers were then washed with brine. The organic layer was then dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated. The crude product was chromatographed on a 20 x 150 mm silica gel column eluting sequentially with 1:10, 1:7, and 1:5 EA/Hex to give 477 mg (71%) of β-lactam 3. ¹H-NMR (500 MHz, Chloroform-*d*) δ 7.41 – 7.33 (m, 5H, aryl), 5.19 (s, 2H, benzyl CH₂), 4.07 (dd, J = 6.2, 2.8 Hz, 1H, β-lactam CH₁), 3.33 (dd, J = 15.1, 6.0 Hz, 1H, β-lactam CH₂), 3.07 (dd, J = 15.0, 2.8 Hz, 1H, β-lactam CH₂), 0.93 (s, 9H, 3 TBS *t*Bu CH₃), 0.25 (s, 3H, TBS CH₃), 0.06 (s, 3H, TBS CH₃).

(4S)-N-(t-Butyldimethylsilyl)azetidin-2-one-4-carboxylic acid (4): To a solution of β-lactam 3 (477 mg, 1.49 mmol) in 40 mL anhydrous THF, 500 mg of 10% Pd/C was added. The reaction vessel was flushed twice with an argon balloon and twice with a H₂ balloon and stirred under H₂ (1 atm). After 20 hrs, the reaction mixture was filtered through celite, washing twice with EA, and the solvent was evaporated to yield 302 mg (88%) of β-lactam acid 4 as a white solid. 1 H-NMR (500 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 4.05 (dd, J = 6.1, 2.9 Hz, 1H, β-lactam CH), 3.37 (dd, J = 15.2, 6.1 Hz, 1H, β-lactam CH₂), 3.10 (dd, J = 15.2, 2.8 Hz, 1H, β-lactam CH₂), 0.90 (s, 9H, 3

TBS tBu CH₃), 0.09 (s, 6H, 2 TBS CH₃). ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 175.76 (β-lactam <u>C</u>=0), 171.49 (<u>C</u>00H), 48.69 (β-lactam <u>C</u>H), 43.94 (β-lactam <u>C</u>H₂), 25.69 (3 TBS tBu CH₃), 18.60 (TBS tBu 4°C), -3.58 (2 TBS CH₃).

β -Lactam amine

N-Benzyloxycarbonyl-L-serine amide (6): Cbz-L-Serine 5 (1.05 g, 4.39 mmol) was dissolved in 10 mL of MeOH and one drop of concentrated HCl was added. The solution was allowed to stir at room temperature for 24.5 hr. The reaction mixture was then extracted with EA and water and the organic layer was dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and the solvent evaporated to yield 1.03 g Cbz-L-serine methyl ester (92.4%).

Cbz-L-serine methyl ester (891.3 mg, 3.52 mmol) was dissolved in 50 mL of MeOH and ammonia gas (NH₃) was bubbled into the solution for 7 min at 0°C. The excess gas was allowed to vent into water. The reaction mixture was then allowed to stir at room temperature overnight. After 25.5 hr the reaction mixture was poured into 30 mL of 1M HCl, extracted with EA twice, and washed with brine. The organic layer was dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and the solvent evaporated to yield 382 mg crude product (45.6%). The amide **6** was then purified by recrystallization from EA. The crude product was suspended in 4.5 mL EA and heated in a 60°C water bath until the product was dissolved. The mixture was then allowed to cool to room temperature before being placed in an ice bath. The resulting white rod-shaped crystals were filtered through a Buchner funnel and dried yielding 127.2 mg (33.3%)

recovery) of product. m. p. = 119.2-120°C. ¹H-NMR (500 MHz, Acetone- d_6): δ 7.40 – 7.26 (m, 5H, aryl C<u>H</u>), 7.07 (br s, 1H, N<u>H</u>), 6.58 (br s, 1H, N<u>H</u>), 6.37 (br s, 1H, N<u>H</u>), 5.06 (s, 2H, Cbz C<u>H</u>₂), 4.22 (m, 1H, α -C<u>H</u>), 3.78 (m, 2H, β -C<u>H</u>₂), ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, Acetone- d_6): δ 172.4(amide <u>C</u>=0), 155.5 (Cbz <u>C</u>=0), 137.3 (4° aryl <u>C</u>), 128.4 – 127.8 (5 aryl <u>C</u>), 66.0 (β -CH₂), 62.5 (Cbz <u>C</u>H₂), 56.6 (α -CH).

N-Benzyloxycarbonyl-L-serine(O-mesyl) amide (7): Cbz-L-serine amide 6 (313.7 mg, 1.317 mmol) was dissolved in 4 mL of 1,2-dimethoxyethane under argon, cooled to -10°C, and treated with 550 μL (3.950 mmol) of Et₃N. An excess (255 μL, 3.292 mmol) of mesyl chloride (MsCl) was added dropwise. It is important to note that the appearance of yellow precipitate during addition of MsCl is an indicator that the reagent is being added too fast or the cooling bath is not cold enough which will reduce the product yield. The mixture stirred at -10°C for one hour before being slowly diluted with 6 mL of saturate brine and extracted with an equal volume of EA three times. The organic layer was dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated to yield a crude yellow oil. The oil was purified by trituration out of hexane and vacuum-dried to yield a white solid 7 (340.2 mg, 81.6%): ¹H-NMR (500 MHz, Acetone- d_6): $\delta 7.49 - 7.18$ (m, 5H, aryl CH), 6.89 (br s, 1H, NH), 5.10 (m, 2H, Cbz CH₂), 4.59 (m, 1H, α-C<u>H</u>), 4.50 (m, 2H, β-C<u>H</u>₂), 3.06 (s, 3H, sulfonyl-C<u>H</u>₃); 13C-NMR (125 MHz, Acetone- d_6): δ 170.4 (amide C=0), 156.2 (Cbz C=0), 137.1 (4° aryl C), 128.5 – 127.9 (5 aryl <u>C</u>'s), 69.4 (β-<u>C</u>H₂), 66.4 (Cbz <u>C</u>H₂), 54.03 (α-<u>C</u>H), 36.4 (sulfonyl-<u>C</u>H₃).

O-Benzyl-α-N-Cbz-L-serine hydroxamate (9): Cbz-L-serine 5 (1.0236 g,
 4.28 mmol) was dissolved in 20 mL DCM and stirred at -10°C (ice/acetone) for 10

minutes. Once cooled, 1-Ethyl-3-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)carbodiimide (EDCI) (822 mg, 4.28 mmol), Et₃N (242 μL, 4.28 mmol), and *O*-benzylhydroxylamine hydrochloride (683 mg. 4.28 mmol) were added in succession. The reaction mixture was stirred for 21.5 hrs, slowly coming to room temperature. The reaction mixture was diluted with 25 mL DCM and poured into 50 mL of 1M HCl. The aqueous layer was back-extracted with two 25 mL portions of DCM. The organic layers were combined, dried with MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated. The crude product was purified by Combiflash using a 40 g prefilled column (1:1 to 4:1 EA/Hex for 3 min, hold 4:1 EA/Hex for 7 min, 4:1 EA/Hex to 100% EA for 4 min, and hold 100% EA for 3 min) to yield 154.5 mg (9.5%) of product **9** and 870.7 mg (69%) of an undesired dimer of product 9 (See Discussion). ¹H-NMR (500 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 9.65 (br s, 1H, hydroxamate NH), 7.30 (m, 10H, aryl), 5.96 (br d, J = 8.0 Hz, 1H, Cbz NH), 5.02 (m, 2H, Cbz C \underline{H}_2), 4.83 (s, 2H, hydroxamate C \underline{H}_2), 4.11 (dt, J = 8.9, 4.5 Hz, 1H, α -C \underline{H}), 3.87 (dd, J = 11.2, 4.0 Hz, 1H, β -C \underline{H}_2), 3.56 (dd, J = 11.5, 5.8 Hz, 1H, β -C \underline{H}_2). ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 168.46 (hydroxamate <u>C</u>=0), 156.52 (Cbz <u>C</u>=0), 135.88 – 134.89 (2 4° aryl \underline{C}), 129.31 – 128.01 (10 aryl \underline{C}), 78.33 (hydroxamate $\underline{C}H_2$), 67.35 (Cbz CH₂), 62.33 (β -CH₂), 53.56 (α -CH₂). Mass spectrum (ESI-MS) m/z ($C_{18}H_{21}N_2O_5$) calculated for (M+1) 345.1445, found 345.1446.

3-[(Cbz)amino]-2-azetidinone (13): To a solution of 2-chloro-1-methyl pyridinium iodide (Mukaiyama's reagent) (1.113 g, 4.36 mmol) in 150 mL dry MeCN, 575 μ L (3.27 mmol) of diisopropylethylamine (DIPEA) was added and stirred over low heat. In 50 mL of dry MeCN, 519.0 mg (2.18 mmol) of **12** was sonicated to

achieve even suspension. This suspension was added dropwise over the course of 10 min. The reaction mixture was refluxed at 70°C for 1 hr, allowing for full dissolution of reagents, and slowly cooled to stir at room temperature for an additional 27 hrs. The reaction mixture was poured into 50 mL of brine and extracted with two equal portions of EA. The organic layers were combined, dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated. The crude product was chromatographed on 20 x 150 mm silica gel eluting sequentially with 1:2, 1:1, 2:1, and 4:1 EA/Hex to afford 200.3 mg (42%) of the Cbz-protected β -lactam amine 13. ¹H-NMR (500 MHz, Acetone- d_6) δ 7.47 – 7.06 (m, 5H, aryl), 6.93 (br s, 1H, NH), 4.96 (s, 2H, Cbz CH₂), 4.73 (m, 1H, β -lactam CH₂), 3.42 (t, J = 5.4 Hz, 1H, β -lactam CH₂), 3.13 (dd, J = 4.8, 2.7 Hz, 1H, β -lactam CH₂). ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, Acetone- d_6) δ 167.66 (β -lactam C=0), 155.62 (Cbz C=0), 137.21(4° aryl C), 128.40 – 127.91 (5 aryl C), 66.10 (Cbz-CH₂), 59.31 (β -lactam CH), 43.39 (β -lactam CH₂). Mass spectrum (ESI-MS) m/z ($C_{11}H_{12}N_2NaO_3$) calculated for (M+23) 243.0740, found 243.0732.

3-[Amino]-2-azetidinone hydrochloride (14): β-lactam **13** (96.4 mg, 0.438 mmol) was dissolved in EA and transferred to glass Parr bottle and diluted to approximately 50 mL. The 10% Pd/C (225 mg) was added and the reaction mixture was kept under H_2 (35 psi) on Parr shaker for 21.5 hrs. The reaction mixture was then filtered through celite and evaporated to give 54.5 mg of crude product. The crude product was resuspended in 25 mL EA and extracted three times with an equal volume of 1M HCl. The aqueous layers were combined and lyophilized to yield 50.6 mg (94%) of the hydrochloride salt **14**. 1 H-NMR (500 MHz, Methanol- d_4) δ 3.60

(m, 1H, β -lactam C<u>H</u>₂), 2.69 (dd, J = 25.0, 6.6 Hz, 1H, β -lactam C<u>H</u>₂), 2.69 (dd, J = 52.1, 6.7 Hz, 1H, β -lactam C<u>H</u>₂), 2.47 (d, J = 2.5 Hz, 1H, N<u>H</u>). ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, Methanol-d₄) δ 167.46 (<u>C</u>=0), 49.74 (β -lactam <u>C</u>H), 38.43 (β -lactam <u>C</u>H₂).

Cyclopropyl acids

*NOTE: Due to the carboxybenzyl (Cbz) group not being stable under the basic conditions required for the ester hydrolysis an alternative analog series was proposed (Scheme 7). Refer to discussion for further elaboration.

Scheme 7: Alternative synthesis of cyclopropyl acids for coupling to β -lactam amine.

Ethyl 2-((S)-2-amino)-1-hydroxy-3-methylbutyl)

cyclopropanecarboxylate (33): To a solution of 15 (171.1 mg, 0.487 mmol) in 25 mL of MeOH, ammonium formate (NH₄HCO₂) (828.4 mg, 13.1 mmol) and 10% Pd/C (300 mg) were added. After 50 min stirring at room temperature, the reaction

mixture was filtered through celite and the solvent evaporated. The resulting slurry was then resuspended in saturated NaHCO₃ and extracted three times with EA. The aqueous layer was brought to a pH of 8 with 1M NaOH and extracted two additional times with EA. The organic layers were combined, dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated to yield 54.9 mg (52%) of amine **33** as a clear oil. 1 H-NMR (500 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 4.13 (m, 2H, OCH₂CH₃), 3.66 – 3.42 (m, 1H, OCH), 2.48 (m, 1H, α -CH), 1.75 – 1.51 (m, 2H, 2 cyclopropyl CH), 1.46 (m, 1H, β -CH), 1.26 (m, 4H, cyclopropyl CH₂, OCH₂CH₃), 1.13 – 1.00 (m, 2H, cyclopropyl CH₂), 0.97-0.85 (m, 7H, 2 CH₃, cyclopropyl CH₂). 13 C-NMR (125 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 174.41 (C=O), 71.47 – 69.41 (O-CH), 62.13 – 61.95 (α -CH), 60.62 (OCH₂CH₃), 23.39 – 22.32 (β -CH), 20.20 – 19.23 (2 CH₃), 16.78 – 16.51 (cyclopropyl CH), 14.34 (OCH₂CH₃), 12.13 – 10.80 (cyclopropyl CH₂).

Ethyl 2-((S)-2-amino)-1-hydroxy-3-phenylpropyl)

cyclopropanecarboxylate (35): To a solution of 17 (303.3 mg, 0.764 mmol) in 50 mL of MeOH, NH₄HCO₂ (1.3 g, 20.6 mmol) and 10% Pd/C (603.3 mg) were added. After 40 min stirring at room temperature, the reaction mixture was filtered through celite and the solvent evaporated. The resulting slurry was then resuspended in saturated NaHCO₃ and extracted three times with EA. The organic layers were combined, dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated to yield 169.2 mg (84%) of amine 35 as a yellow oil. 1 H-NMR (500 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 7.42 – 6.98 (m, 5H, aryl), 4.10 (m, 3H, α -CH, OCH₂CH₃), 3.13 (m, 1H, OCH), 3.04 – 2.36 (m, 2H, β -CH₂), 1.78 – 1.48 (m, 2H, 2 cyclopropyl CH), 1.36 – 1.11 (m, 3H, OCH₂CH₃), 1.11 –

0.79 (m, 2H, cyclopropyl CH₂). ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, Chloroform-*d*) δ 174.22 (<u>C</u>=O), 139.22 (4° aryl <u>C</u>), 129.32 – 126.51(5 aryl <u>C</u>), 75.26 – 72.90 (0-<u>C</u>H), 60.69 (0<u>C</u>H₂CH₃), 57.21 (α-<u>C</u>H), 40.79 – 38.87 (β-<u>C</u>H₂), 26.23 – 23.67 (cyclopropyl <u>C</u>H), 17.79 – 17.28 (cyclopropyl <u>C</u>H), 14.35 (0CH₂<u>C</u>H₃), 12.58 – 11.43 (cyclopropyl <u>C</u>H₂).

Ethyl 2-((S)-2-(benzylcarbonylamino)-1-hydroxy-3-methylbutyl) **cyclopropanecarboxylate (36):** To a solution of phenylacetic acid (34.4 mg, 0.253) mmol) in 1 mL of DCM, (1-Cyano-2-ethoxy-2oxoethylidenaminooxy)dimethylamino-morpholino-carbenium hexafluorophosphate (COMU) (108 mg, 0.253 mmol) was added and allowed to stir at 0°C for 15 min to activate the acid. After 15 min, amine **33** (54.9 mg, 0.253 mmol) was suspended in 1 mL of DCM and added to the reaction mixture followed by DIPEA (89 μL, 0.506 mmol). After stirring at 0°C for 1 hr, the reaction mixture was allowed to come to room temperature and stir overnight. After 26 hrs, the reaction mixture was poured into 25 mL of EA and extracted sequentially with two 5 mL portions of 1M HCl, two 5 mL portions of NaHCO₃, and two 5 mL portions of brine. The organic layer was dried over MgSO₄ and evaporated to yield 116.7 mg of crude product. The product was purified on a 15 x 100 mm silica column eluting with 1:10 EA/Hex, 1:5 EA/Hex, 1:1 EA/Hex, 4:1 EA/Hex, 100% EA, and 100% MeOH. The product was identified to elute off the column in 1:5 EA/Hex, affording 37.1 mg (44%) of amide **36** with some impurities. ¹H-NMR (500 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 7.49 – 6.96 (m, 5H, aryl), 4.24 - 3.98 (m, 2H, $OC_{H_2}CH_3$), 3.83 - 3.47 (m, 3H, benzyl amide

CH₂, CH), 3.41 - 3.09 (m, 1H, CH), 2.16 (m, 1H, β -CH), 1.80 - 0.71 (m, 13H, 3 CH₃, 2

cyclopropyl CH₂, cyclopropyl CH₂). ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 173.29 – 173.14 (C=0), 168.90 (C=0), 134.98 (4° aryl C), 129.36 – 126.99 (5 aryl C), 80.21 (0-CH), 65.05 ((α -CH), 60.91 (0-CH₂CH₃), 43.66 (benzyl amide CH₂), 28.97 (β -CH), 27.68 – 26.78 (cyclopropyl CH), 21.71 (CH₃), 20.45 (CH₃), 14.31 (0-CH₂CH₃), 12.36 (cyclopropyl CH₂). Mass spectrum (ESI-MS) m/z (C₁₉H₂₈NO₄) calculated for (M+1) 334.2013, found 334.2011.

Ethyl 2-((S)-2-(benzylcarbonylamino)-1-hydroxy-3-phenylpropyl) **cyclopropanecarboxylate (38):** To a solution of phenylacetic acid (87 mg, 0.643 mmol) in 8 mL of DCM, EDCI (123 mg, 0.643 mmol) was added and allowed to stir for 15 min to activate the acid. After 15 min, amine **35** (169.2 mg, 0.643 mmol) was suspended in 8 mL of DCM and added to the reaction mixture followed by Et₃N (638) uL, 4.83 mmol). After stirring at room temperature for 21 hrs, the reaction mixture was poured into 25 mL of 1M HCl and extracted two times with an equal volume of EA. The organic layers were combined and washed with saturated NaHCO₃. The organic layer was dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated to give 141.6 mg of crude product. The product was further purified by triturating with hexane to afford 56.8 mg (23%) of amide **38**. 1 H-NMR (500 MHz, Chloroform-*d*) δ 7.49 – 6.76 (m, 10H, aryl), 5.57 (dd, J = 16.8, 7.3 Hz, 1H, NH), 4.32 – 4.16 (m, 1H, α -CH), 4.16 – 4.00 β -CH₂), 1.76 – 1.39 (m, 2H, 2 cyclopropyl CH), 1.32 – 1.17 (m, 3H, OCH₂CH₃), 1.18 – 0.83 (m, 2H, cyclopropyl CH₂). 13 C-NMR (125 MHz, Chloroform-*d*) δ 174.24 (C=0), 172.60 (C=0), 137.39 (4° aryl C), 134.27 (4° aryl C), 129.53 – 126.75 (10 aryl C),

74.80 – 73.26 (O-<u>C</u>H), 60.79 (O-<u>C</u>H₂CH₃), 57.10 – 56.94 (α-<u>C</u>H), 43.59 – 43.55 (benzyl amide <u>C</u>H₂), 35.81 – 35.41 (β-<u>C</u>H₂), 24.36 – 16.79 (2 cyclopropyl <u>C</u>H), 14.38 (O-CH₂<u>C</u>H₃), 11.92 – 11.36 (cyclopropyl <u>C</u>H₂). Mass spectrum (ESI-MS) m/z (C₂₃H₂₈NO₄) calculated for (M+1) 382.2013, found 382.2001.

2-((S)-2-(benzylcarbonylamino)-1-hydroxy-3-methylbutyl)

cyclopropanecarboxylic acid (39): To a solution of ester 36 (37.1 mg, 0.111 mmol) in 6 mL THF/1 mL H₂O, lithium hydroxide monohydrate (40 mg, 0.952) mmol) was added and the reaction was stirred at room temperature. After 4 hrs, the reaction mixture was poured into 5 mL EA/5 mL H₂O and the organic layer was collected for starting material. The aqueous layer was acidified to pH=2 and extracted three times with DCM. The DCM organic layers were combined, dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated to give 12.8 mg of crude product. The EA layer was also found to contain product, which afforded an additional 12.9 mg for a combined mass of 25.7 mg (75%) of crude product with some starting material still present. ¹H-NMR (500 MHz, Chloroform-*d*) δ 7.55 – 6.97 (m, 5H, aryl), 3.67 (s, 2H, benzyl amide CH₂), 3.58 (dd, J = 8.4, 4.5 Hz, 1H, α -CH), 3.21 (m, 1H, 0-CH), 2.29 – 2.08 (m, 1H, β-CH), 1.74 – 1.66 (m, 1H, cyclopropyl CH), 1.61 (m, 1H, cyclopropyl CH), 1.23 – 1.18 (m, 1H, cyclopropyl CH_2), 1.17 (d, J = 6.6 Hz, 3H, CH_3), 1.12 (d, J = 7.0 Hz, 3H, C_{H_3}), 0.91 – 0.78 (m, 1H, cyclopropyl C_{H_2}). ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 177.48 (<u>C</u>=0), 168.95 (<u>C</u>=0), 134.74 (4° aryl <u>C</u>), 129.87 – 126.01 (5 aryl <u>C</u>), 82.76 – 77.64 (O-CH), 70.23 – 62.82 (α -CH), 43.48 (benzyl amide CH₂), 28.81 (β -CH), 27.69 – 27.17 (cyclopropyl <u>C</u>H), 21.02 (CH₃), 20.30 (CH₃), 19.98 (cyclopropyl <u>C</u>H), 12.71 (cyclopropyl CH₂).

2-((S)-2-(benzylcarbonylamino)-1-hydroxy-3-phenylpropyl) cyclopropanecarboxylic acid (41): To a solution of ester 38 (56.8 mg, 0.149 mmol) in 8 mL THF/2 mL H₂O, lithium hydroxide monohydrate (25 mg, 0.596 mmol) was added and the reaction was stirred at room temperature. After 5 hrs, the reaction mixture was poured into 5 mL EA/5 mL H_2O and the organic layer was collected for starting material. The aqueous layer was acidified to pH=2 and extracted three times with DCM. The organic layers were combined, dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated to afford 19.9 mg (38%) of crude product. ¹H-NMR $(500 \text{ MHz}, \text{Chloroform-}d) \delta 7.46 - 6.81 \text{ (m, 10H, aryl)}, 5.57 \text{ (m, 1H, NH)}, 4.23 \text{ (m, 1H, NH)}$ α -CH), 3.65 (s, 2H, benzyl amide CH₂), 3.62 – 3.40 (m, 1H, 0-CH), 2.93 (m, 1H, β -CH₂), 2.65 (m, 1H, β -CH₂), 1.71 (m, 1H, cyclopropyl CH), 1.65 – 1.45 (m, 1H, cyclopropyl CH), 1.17 – 0.77 (m, 2H, cyclopropyl CH₂). 13 C-NMR (125 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 176.75 (C=0), 173.25 (C=0), 137.07 (4° aryl C), 134.06 (4° aryl C), 129.55 – 126.83 (10 aryl C), 56.97 (α -CH), 43.39 (0-CH), 41.17 (benzyl amide CH₂), 35.58 (β-CH₂), 24.90 (cyclopropyl CH), 17.03 (cyclopropyl CH), 12.18 (cyclopropyl $\underline{C}H_2$).

Cyclopropyl amines

2-((S)-2-(benzylcarbonylamino)-1-hydroxy-4-methylpentyl)

cyclopropaneamine (28): To a solution of nitrocyclopropyl 25 (36 mg, 0.11 mmol)

in 2 mL isopropyl alcohol and 1 mL 1M HCl, 30 mesh granular Zn (130 mg, 2.0 mmol) was added and the solution was stirred at room temperature. After 35 min, the reaction mixture was gravity filtered, washing with ethyl acetate, and poured into saturated NaHCO₃ (aq). The aqueous solution was extracted two times with EA and the organic layers were combined, dried over MgSO₄, and evaporated to yield 49 mg (100%) of crude cyclopropylamine.

2-((S)-2-(benzylcarbonylamino)-1-hydroxy-3-phenylpropyl)

cyclopropaneamine (29): To a solution of nitrocyclopropyl 26 (60 mg, 0.1g mmol) in 3 mL isopropyl alcohol and 1.5 mL 1M HCl, Zn dust (190 mg, 2.9 mmol) was added and the solution was stirred at room temperature. After 40 min, the reaction mixture was gravity filtered into a separatory funnel containing 20 mL of water and 20 mL of EA. The aqueous layer was extracted twice with EA and the organic layers were combined, dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated to afford 44 mg (81%) of crude cyclopropylamine. 1 H-NMR (500 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 7.74 – 6.84 (m, 10H, aryl), 5.59 – 5.14 (m, 1H, α -CH), 5.14 – 4.86 (m, 2H, Cbz CH₂), 4.20 – 3.74 (m, 2H, O-CH₂), 3.24 – 2.70 (m, 2H, β -CH₂, cyclopropyl CH), 2.35 – 1.89 (m, 1H, cyclopropyl CH), 1.08 – 0.41 (m, 1H, cyclopropyl CH₂). 13 C-NMR (125 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 156.74 (C=0), 138.30 – 136.55 (2 4° aryl C), 129.28 – 126.51 (10 aryl C), 75.57 – 74.27 (CH), 66.78 (Cbz CH₂), 57.22 (CH), 38.44 (β -CH₂), 29.80 – 25.51 (CH), 12.70 (cyclopropyl CH₂).

Belactosin analogs

Benzyl *N*-[(2S)-1-{2-[1-(*tert*-butyldimethylsilyl)-4-oxoazetidine-2-amido]cyclopropyl}-1-hydroxy-4-methylpentan-2-yl]carbamate (31): To a solution of β-lactam **4** (27 mg, 0.11 mmol) in 1.0 mL DCM, EDCI (21 mg, 0.11 mmol) was added and the reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 10 min to activate the acid. Once the acid was activated, amine **28** (33 mg, 0.11 mmol) was added in 1 mL DCM followed by 0.2 mL Et₃N. After stirring at room temperature for 18 hrs, the reaction mixture was poured into 1M HCl and extracted two times with EA. The organic layers were combined, dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated to give 226 mg of crude product. The crude product was chromatagraphed on 25 x 100 mm silica gel eluting sequentially with 1:10, 1:5, 1:1, and 4:1 EA/Hex to afford 15.2 mg (27%) of belactosin analog **31**. The 1 H-NMR was complex, but key peaks were recognized. Mass spectrum (ESI-MS) m/z (C₂₇H₄₄N₃O₅Si) calculated for (M+1) 518.3020, found 518.3045.

Benzyl *N*-[(2S)-1-{2-[1-(*tert*-butyldimethylsilyl)-4-oxoazetidine-2-amido]cyclopropyl}-1-hydroxy-4-phenylpropan-2-yl]carbamate (32): To a solution of β-lactam **4** (30 mg, 0.129 mmol) in 1.0 mL DCM, EDCI (25 mg, 0.129 mmol) was added and the reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 15 min to activate the acid. Once the acid was activated, amine **29** (44 mg, 0.129 mmol) was added in 1 mL DCM followed by 0.2 mL Et₃N. After stirring at room temperature for 18 hrs, the reaction mixture was poured into 1M HCl and extracted two times with EA. The organic layers were combined, dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and

evaporated to give 89 mg of crude product. The crude product was chromatagraphed on 15 x 100 mm silica gel eluting sequentially with 1:10, 1:6, 1:3, 1:1, and 3:1 EA/Hex to afford 19 mg (27%) of belactosin analog **32**. The 1 H-NMR was complex, but key peaks were recognized. Mass spectrum (ESI-MS) m/z ($C_{30}H_{42}N_{3}O_{5}Si$) calculated for (M+1) 552.2888, found 552.2878.

Model coupling for proof of concept

Due to limited materials and time, a model coupling was performed to prove that a method had been developed to successfully couple the β -lactams to a respective amine and carboxylic acid (Scheme 8).

Scheme 8: Model coupling of β-lactams.

1-(*tert*-Butyldimethylsilyl)-4-oxo-*N*-(propan-2-yl)azetidine-2-carboxamide (45): To a solution of acid 4 (20.0 mg, 0.087 mmol) in 2 mL of DCM, EDCI (16.7 mg, 0.087 mmol) was added and allowed to stir for 15 min to activate the

acid. After 15 min, 2-aminopropane (7.5 μL, 0.087 mmol) was added followed by an excess of Et₃N (0.2 mL) and the reaction was stirred at room temperature for 22.5 hrs. Once complete, the reaction mixture was poured into 1M HCl and extracted two times with EA. The organic layers were combined, dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated to afford 14.9 mg (63%) of **45**. 1 H-NMR (500 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 5.89 (d, J = 8.1 Hz, 1H, NH), 4.11 (dt, J = 13.8, 6.9, 6.9 Hz, 1H, CH), 3.93 (dd, J = 6.2, 2.8 Hz, 1H, β-lactam CH), 3.38 (dd, J = 15.7, 6.6 Hz, 1H, β-lactam CH₂), 2.97 (dd, J = 15.5, 2.9 Hz, 1H, β-lactam CH₂), 1.17 (t, J = 6.8 Hz, 6H, 2 CH₃), 0.97 (s, 9H, 3 TBS tBu CH₃), 0.30 (s, 3H, TBS CH₃), 0.15 (s, 3H, TBS CH₃). 13 C-NMR (125 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 172.44 (C=O), 170.74 (C=O), 50.61 (β-lactam CH), 48.57 (CH), 44.93 (β-lactam CH₂), 26.31 (3 TBS tBu CH₃), 22.64 (CH₃), 22.57 (CH₃), 18.67 (TBS tBu 4° C), -5.42 (TBS CH₃), -6.02 (TBS CH₃).

 $\emph{N-}$ (2-oxoazetidin-3-yl)-2-phenylacetamide (52): To a solution of β-lactam 13 (73.9 mg, 0.336 mmol) in 50 mL of ethyl acetate, 184.3 mg of 10% Pd/C was added and placed under H₂ at 25 psi to react on a Parr shaker for 2 hrs. After 2 hrs, the reaction suspension was filtered through celite and evaporated to provide 46 in an assumed 100% yield of 41 mg. A solution of phenylacetic acid (45.7 mg, 0.336 mmol) and 1-hydroxybenzotriazole (HOBt) (45.4 mg, 0.336 mmol) in 2 mL of DCM was cooled to 0°C and EDCI (64.5 mg, 0.336 mmol) was added. The reaction was stirred at 0°C for 30 min and at room temperature for an additional hour. Amine 46 was suspended in 2 mL of DCM and added to the activated acid followed by Et₃N (89 μL, 0.672 mmol) to stir overnight at room temperature. After 21 hrs, the reaction

mixture was poured into 1M HCl and extracted three times with EA. The organic layers were combined and washed with NaHCO₃. The organic layer was dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and evaporated to provide 15.4 mg of crude product. The product was purified by trituration with 2:3 EA/Hex to afford 3.8 mg (5.5%) of **47** with minor impurities. 1 H-NMR (500 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 7.59 – 6.98 (m, 5H, aryl), 6.13 (d, J = 7.2 Hz, 1H, NH), 4.93 (ddd, J = 7.5, 5.2, 2.5 Hz, 1H, β -lactam CH), 3.68 – 3.54 (m, 3H, β -lactam CH₂, Ph-CH₂), 3.34 – 3.19 (m, 1H, β -lactam CH₂), 1.85 – 1.75 (m, 1H, β -lactam NH). 13 C-NMR (125 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 174.66 (C=O), 171.50 (C=O), 134.10 (4° aryl C), 129.57 – 127.37 (5 aryl C), 58.20 (CH), 44.67 (CH₂), 43.46 (CH₂). Mass spectrum (ESI-MS) m/z (C₁₁H₁₃N₂O₂) calculated for (M+1) 205.0972, found 205.0948.

CHAPTER III: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Synthesis of the β -lactams

Although several β -lactam syntheses have been reported, the β -lactam cyclization can be difficult to achieve. Intramolecular cyclizations require a great deal of dilution and controlled rates of reagent addition to prevent any intermolecular coupling. Many of these reported syntheses also require that the nitrogen of the amide bond have a certain nucleophilicity and/or pKa of its associated hydrogen. Obtaining the specified conditions of the previously reported methods proved to be quite challenging. A discussion of the issues encountered with each method is described herein.

β-Lactam acid

For the β -lactam acid, there was no difficulty in obtaining the silylated dibenzylester, but several attempts were made to close the ring using tBuMgCl. In the experimental write-up, Baldwin instructs to add the tBuMgCl dropwise in the cyclization step, taking the dibenzyl ester directly to β -lactam 3 [28]. However, when adding at a rate of 3 drops every 10 sec, the product was obtained at only an 8.2% yield and a 17% recovery of desilyl dibenzyl ester 2. A subsequent attempt utilized the same drop rate but with an increased the amount of tBuMgCl from 1.2 to 1.6 equivalents only provided the product at a 28% yield and an increase to 2.0

equivalents yielded no product. Bringing the amount of tBuMgCl back to 1.2 equivalents and slowing the rate to only 2 drops every 5 sec, completing the addition in about 15 min, also yielded no cyclized product. Finally, upon further investigation in the literature, it was discovered that in the procedure that cyclized the closely related N-TMS dibenzyl ester **48** to β -lactam **43** (Scheme 9) Baldwin listed an addition rate of 23.0 mL of 2M t-BuMgCl over 45 min [28].

Scheme 9: Alternative synthesis of β -lactam acid used by Baldwin et al.

When this same rate was used for the cyclization of the N-TBS dibenzyl ester, the cyclization to β -lactam 3 was achieved in a 71% yield (Scheme 1).

β -Lactam amine

Formation of the β -lactam amine proved to be especially challenging. The primary challenge was in the formation of either a C-N bond or an amide bond in order to close the ring. Three different procedures were attempted to accomplish this synthesis with the Saha procedure being the most successful.

In following the Roche procedure as outlined in Scheme 2, several attempts and modifications were made due to availability of materials. Serine amide **6** was

readily accessible and since tosyl chloride (TsCl) was already in stock, an attempt was made to synthesize tosylate **50** rather than mesylate **7**, but the reaction inexplicably and consistently failed (Scheme 10).

Scheme 10: Summation of attempted syntheses of β -lactam amine following Roche procedure. Dashed reaction arrows denote reactions that remain unattempted.

Mesyl chloride (MsCl) was purchased from Sigma Aldrich, and the mesylation resulted in a 74% yield of **7**. An attempt was made to directly cyclize **7** to β -lactam **13** using potassium carbonate and heat, but the reaction failed (Scheme 10). Further research revealed that an electron withdrawing group (EWG) must be attached to the amide nitrogen in order for cyclization to occur. This is because the EWG significantly lowers the p K_a of the amide, resulting in selective deprotonation and inhibition of undesired proton-transfer processes. Without the selectivity provided

by an EWG, direct cyclizations of primary amides fail [32]. This knowledge revealed the necessity of the sulfate intermediate in the Roche procedure. Sulfonation of $\bf 7$ was first attempted using a pyridine-sulfur trioxide complex, but these attempts repeatedly failed. Further research revealed that an extensive study had previously been conducted that showed that the 2-picoline-sulfur trioxide complex was the only complex capable of providing the desired product $\bf 51$. All other complexes, including pyridine-sulfur trioxide, result in incomplete conversion to the sulfonated product [33]. An attempt was made to synthesize the 2-picoline-sulfur trioxide complex, but when that failed, other routes to the β -lactam amine that did not require sulfonation were investigated.

The Miller procedure provided an alternative route to the β -lactam amine. Rather than using a sulfonate as an EWG, Miller utilized N-alkoxy groups, specifically an N-benzyloxy, to lower the pKa of the amide. Initially, an attempt was made to couple methoxyamine to the serine acid to yield product **52** (Scheme 11). The rationale behind this decision was to keep the substituents on the β -lactam as small and unobtrusive as possible. However, after several failed attempts to synthesize **52** utilizing both DMF/H2O and methylene chloride as reaction solvents and running the reaction at both room temperature and -10°C, efforts switched to Miller's N-benzyloxy instead. Compound **9** was synthesized in a 9.5% yield along with an undesired dimer **53** appearing in a 69% yield. Initially, it was thought that dimer **53** was the desired product due to the ¹H-NMR signals being closer in

similarity to those reported in the literature than those presented by product ${\bf 9}$ in CDCl₃.

Scheme 11: Summation of attempted syntheses of β -lactam amine following Miller procedure.

The literature had reported the data in 1:1 CDCl₃/CD₃COCD₃, which prevented an exact comparison. However, HR-MS of **53** did not show the calculated peak of the desired product (m/z: 345.1445). Rather, the primary peak was a m/z of 588.1883, which matches the calculated value of the dimer at 588.1958. The verification of the dimer structure of **53** was then verified upon looking closer at the integrations of the 1 H-NMR. Cyclization of **9** repeatedly failed to give the desired β -lactam **10**. After β -lactam **13** was successfully synthesized via Saha's procedure, it was decided to forgo this route as well.

The cyclization of amino acid 12 utilizing Mukaiyama's reagent as a catalyst worked splendidly to provide β -lactam 13 in one step with yields as high as 60%.

Transfer hydrogenation using ammonium formate as a hydrogen donor was the first route attempted to remove the Cbz, and, while it may have been successful, the product was too small and polar and could not be extracted out of the aqueous layer. Catalytic hydrogenation utilizing a Parr shaker was attempted next, and provided the β -lactam as a primary amine with a 100% yield. However, the primary amine was not stable. To solve this issue, the primary amine was extracted from ethyl acetate with 1M HCl following catalytic hydrogenation and the water was lyophilized to provide a 94% yield of the more stable ammonium salt **14**.

Synthesis of the cyclopropyl amines and esters

Nitrocyclopropanation

In order to pursue each series, more nitrocyclopropyls and cyclopropyl esters needed to be synthesized as starting material following the procedure previously developed by Dunlap's lab [26, 27]. However, issues were encountered in trying to repeat the nitrocyclopropanation of enones. Rather than forming the valine nitrocyclopropyl **55** as expected, the major product isolated was bromonitrocyclopropyl **56** (Scheme 12). The identity of **56** was confirmed through both 1D and 2D NMR spectroscopy and mass spectrometry. Table 1 shows a comparison of ¹H and ¹³C shifts for product **55** and **56**.

Scheme 12: Synthesis of undesired bromonitrocyclopropyl products.

The predicted m/z and isotopic pattern of **56** was 398 (100%), 399 (17%), 400 (100%), 401 (17%). Using Waters TOF MS ES+, masses of 421, 422, 423, and 424 were identified and correspond to the mass of **56** with a sodium adduct (+23).

To further verify whether the bromine was attached to C10 and not C9, **56** was reduced to the alcohol using NaBH₄ following the procedure cited previously by Dunlap's lab [26, 27] to give **57** (Scheme 13).

Scheme 13: NaBH₄ reduction of valine bromonitrocyclopropyl.

Using both 1D and 2D NMR spectroscopy, it was verified that H8 and H9 are on adjacent carbons and, thus, that the bromine and nitro groups were attached to the same carbon. COSY showed a clear coorelation between H8 and H9, as well as a coorelation between H9 and H11 and between H8 and H7. It is also interesting that one stereoisomer also shows a coorelation between H8 and H11. Table 2 summarizes the ¹H-NMR shifts of **57** along with the COSY interactions that confirmed these assignments.

*Note: The correlation between H8 and H11 only occurs for one stereoisomer. This data corresponds to a mixture of four stereoisomers.

Position	δ ¹ H-NMR (mult, J Hz)	COSY Coorelations
1 OSICIOII	0 11-Wik (mate, j 112)	COST COOLEIAUOUS
1	_	
2	7.33 (m)	
3		
4		
5	5.07 (m)	
6		
7	3.76 (ddd, 10.0, 7.7, 5.4)	H8, H12, NH
8	3.59 (td, 8.4, 2.3)	H7, H9, *H11
9	4.83 (ddd, 9.9, 7.8, 2.3)	H11
10		
11	3.45 (dd, 16.8, 7.8)	*H8, H9
	3.20 (dd, 16.8, 9.9)	
12	2.07 (m)	Н7, Н13
13	0.93 (d, 6.8)	H12
	0.88 (d, 6.7)	
NH	4.99 (d, 10.2)	Н7
ОН	1.76 (s)	

A multitude of different reaction conditions were attempted in order to prevent the formation of **56**, but ultimately it was determined to be the consequence of poor purification of enone **54** by the CombiFlash. Prior to these attempts, the enone had always been purified by manual column chromatography. Once the enone was repurified by manual column chromatography, the reaction proceeded with little to no formation of undesired product **56**. Due to the extra mass of undetected impurities from the CombiFlash purification, an excess of

bromonitromethane was used. It is suspected that this excess produced enough Br₂ to form dibromonitromethane *in situ* that could react through a carbene cyclopropanation mechanism rather than the nucleophilic cyclopropanation of Michael-acceptors (enones) (Figure 20).

Nitrocyclopropanation of Michael Acceptor

$$\begin{array}{c} & & \\$$

Bromonitrocyclopropanation via Carbene Formation

Figure 20: Mechanism of nitro- versus bromonitrocyclopropanation.

In the original publication of this reaction, Ballini noted that the bromonitromethane had to be added in several fractions, otherwise the yields would be "decreased substantially." Ballini proposed that this may be due to the bromonitromethane undergoing partial decomposition under basic conditions [34]. However, the reduced yield that Ballini observed may have actually been due to the side formation of the carbene when bromonitromethane is in excess.

Cyclopropyl amines

Functionalization of the cyclopropyl backbones for coupling proved to be one of the greater challenges of this project. To reduce the nitro to an amine, a reagent had to be chosen that could selectively reduce the nitro without opening the cyclopropyl ring or removing the Cbz-protecting group. Previous work in Dunlap's lab determined that transfer hydrogenation, while easily reducing the nitro, quickly removed the Cbz and was not an optimal reduction method. The only reduction method that seemed to work was Zn and HCl (Scheme 6). However, the amine product from this reaction could not be purified, making product verification quite challenging. The only verification came from comparing crude ¹H-NMR spectra of the product in question to that of the amine products that had successfully coupled to the β-lactam acid. The lack of consistent crude spectra and many failed or low yielding coupling attempts proved this reduction method to exhibit limited reproducibility and questionable yields. Further work is needed to optimize another reduction method as well as developing a purification method for the final amine product.

Cyclopropyl acids

Functionalization of the cyclopropyl ester to an acid via a base catalyzed hydrolysis (Scheme 6) presented some unanticipated complications. From the crude ¹H-NMR data of the products of the hydrolysis of the esters **15-17**, it was

determined that a side reaction was occurring that was eliminating a benzyl alcohol from the Cbz. It is suspected that the basic reaction conditions deprotonated the alcohol creating a strong nucleophile that could then attack the carbonyl of the Cbz to form a favored five-membered oxazolidinone ring (Figure 21).

Figure 21: Proposed mechanism for undesired intramolecular cyclization.

To solve this issue, an alternative synthesis was developed to replace the Cbz carbamate with a benzyl amide that would not be prone to the same nucleophilic attack and intramolecular cyclization (Scheme 7). While this synthesis did not exhibit the best yields, particularly regarding the coupling of phenylacetic acid and ester hydrolysis, acids **39** and **41** were successfully obtained. However, the removal of the Cbz on leucine ester **16** by transfer hydrogenation was unsuccessful at both 45 min and 4 hr reaction times. The explanation is uncertain as to why this method removed the Cbz from **15** and **17**, but failed to remove it from **16**. Catalytic hydrogenation under high pressure on the Parr shaker will be used in future attempts to obtain amine **34** to complete the series.

Coupling of β -lactams to cyclopropyl backbones

Due to the many issues encountered in functionalizing the cyclopropyl backbones, only analogs $\bf 31$ and $\bf 32$ were successfully synthesized, but with a yield of only 27% for the two steps. Because of the inability to purify the amines $\bf 27-29$ it is still unclear whether the low yield was due to the reduction or the coupling step. After performing the model coupling of β -lactam acid $\bf 4$ and 2-aminopropane (Scheme 8), it was found that product $\bf 45$ was afforded in a 63% yield. While this does not necessarily prove that the reduction is the primary step affecting the yield, it does prove that it is possible to couple β -lactam $\bf 4$ to amines in relatively high yields. If the reduction is not the issue, then the yield of the coupling could also be hindered by the alcohol of $\bf 27-29$ competing with the amine as a nucleophile capable of attacking the activated acid.

Regrettably, the coupling of acid **41** with β -lactam **14** failed and acid **41** was unable to be recovered. Due to limited time and resources, a model system was also developed to determine if β -lactam **14** could be successfully coupled to phenylacetic acid. When this reaction also failed to afford **47**, it was determined that the ammonium salt, though theoretically more stable, was not reacting as it should. Upon further investigation into the literature, a procedure for coupling β -lactam **46** to an acid activated with *N*-hydroxysuccinimide and *N*,*N*'-dicyclohexylcarbodiimide (DCC) was uncovered. In this procedure, the filtrate containing β -lactam **46**

following catalytic hydrogenation was directly added to a solution containing the activated acid and reacted on a rotary evaporator where the reaction mixture was allowed to slowly concentrate to the appropriate volume. Once the reaction mixture was reduced to a third of its original volume, it was removed from vacuum and stirred at 35°C for 18 hours [35]. The key aspects of this procedure reveal a likely instability of the β -lactam amine requiring that it be reacted immediately after formation. It also revealed that an additional boost in acid activation may be required, which was the function of N-hydroxysuccinimide in the procedure.

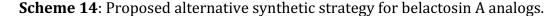
Based on these findings, an alternative synthesis of the model-coupling product 47 was attempted. This procedure utilized HOBt to aid EDCI in acid activation, which operates through the same mechanism as N-hydroxysuccinimide, and amine 46 was added immediately following the work-up of the catalytic hydrogenation. Though product 47 was successfully attained by this method providing proof of concept, the yield was only 5.5%. Modifications to the reaction conditions will need to be explored to increase this yield before another attempt is made to couple the β -lactam amine to one of the cyclopropyl acids.

Conclusions

Belactosin A is a β -lactone natural product that has been shown to halt tumor growth via proteasome inhibition. Several analogs of its structure have previously been explored in attempts to improve efficacy and reduce toxicity, but none of these

analogs utilized a β -lactam as a serine trap. The goal of this project was to synthesize novel β -lactam analogs of belactosin A based on the cyclopropyl backbones previously developed by Dunlap.

While only two analogs were successfully obtained, the many issues encountered in this synthesis have been illuminating. Due to the necessity of switching the Cbz-protecting group for a benzyl amide in order to achieve acids 39-**41**, a new avenue for the total synthetic design of this project can now be explored. Due to the low yields observed with coupling phenylacetic acid to amines that also contain alcohols in close proximity, it is worth trying to couple the phenylacetic acid prior to the reduction of the ketone to the alcohol. To accomplish this, the Cbz would need to be removed from the Weinreb amide. This is because the Weinreb amide is much less susceptible to the nucleophilic attack of free amines compared to the ketone. Once the benzyl amide cyclopropyl alcohols are obtained, they can be functionalized to the respective amine and acid. With the benzyl amide in place, it will be worth retrying transfer hydrogenation to reduce the nitro to an amine. When this was attempted on the Cbz-protected nitrocyclopropyls before, the nitro was reduced, but the Cbz was also removed. With the benzyl amides, the transfer hydrogenation should only reduce the nitro, eliminating the previous issue. Hopefully, this switch will allow for higher yields to be obtained. The proposal for this new synthetic strategy is shown in Scheme 14.



The incorporation of the benzyl amide also creates the opportunity to explore other bulky hydrophobic groups at that position. Two enones that would be especially interesting and useful to try to bring to cyclopropyl amines and acids are shown in Figure 22. The phenylethylamide provides an additional carbon of length, making it more comparable to the Cbz. The benzyl amide alanine would mimic the alanine residue seen in belactosin-A, making it even more comparable to Shuto's analogs.

Figure 22: Additional enones that could be explored to expand on the belactosin A analogs.

As shown in Scheme 14 and Figure 22, there are many areas where the synthesis of β -lactam belactosin A analogs can be expanded. Once the model coupling procedures are fully optimized, they can be applied to the cyclopropyl amines and acids, which by this new synthetic strategy, may be able to be afforded in higher yields. When more analogs are obtained, they can be assayed for proteasome inhibition to identify those exhibiting the greatest activity. The most promising analogs can then be further studied to identify which stereoisomers are the most active.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: NMR DATA

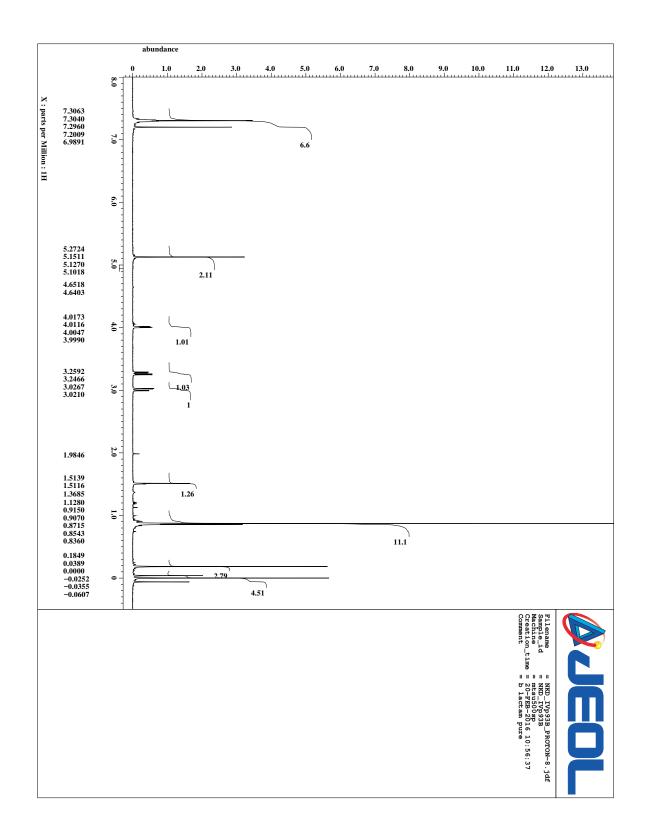
$(4S) \hbox{-Benzyl N-(t-butyldimethylsilyl)} azetidin-2-one-4-carboxylate (3) \\$

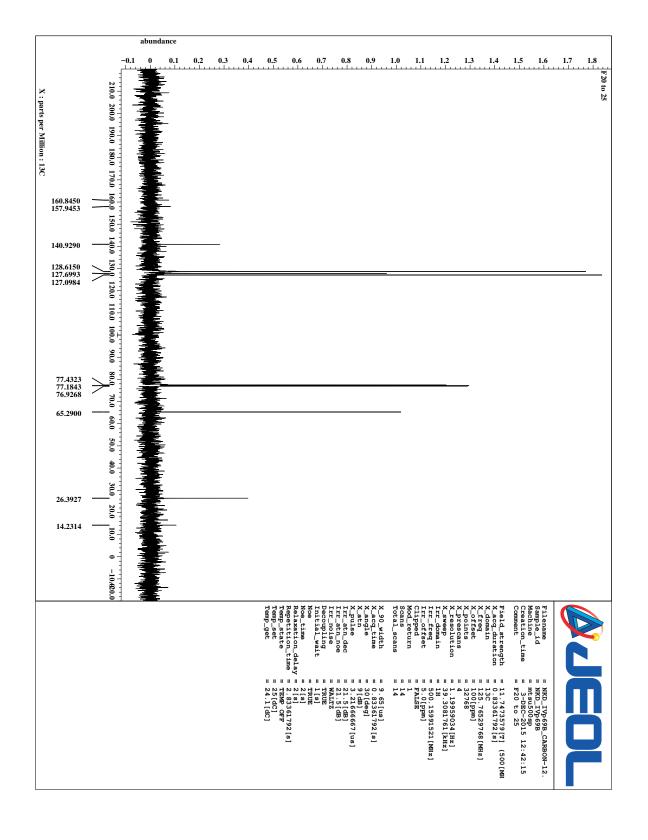
NMR

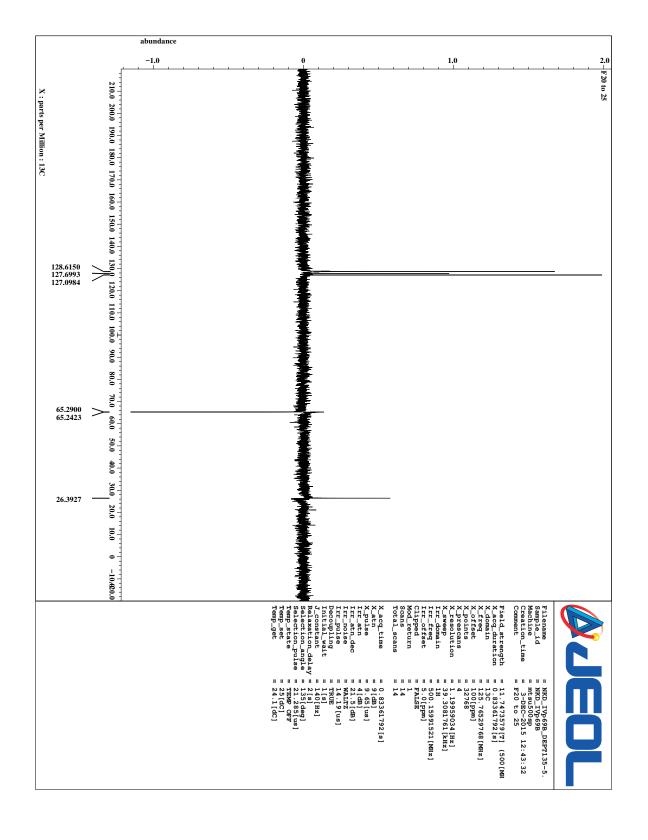
¹H-NMR (CDCl₃)

¹³C-NMR (CDCl₃)

DEPT₁₃₅ (CDCl₃)







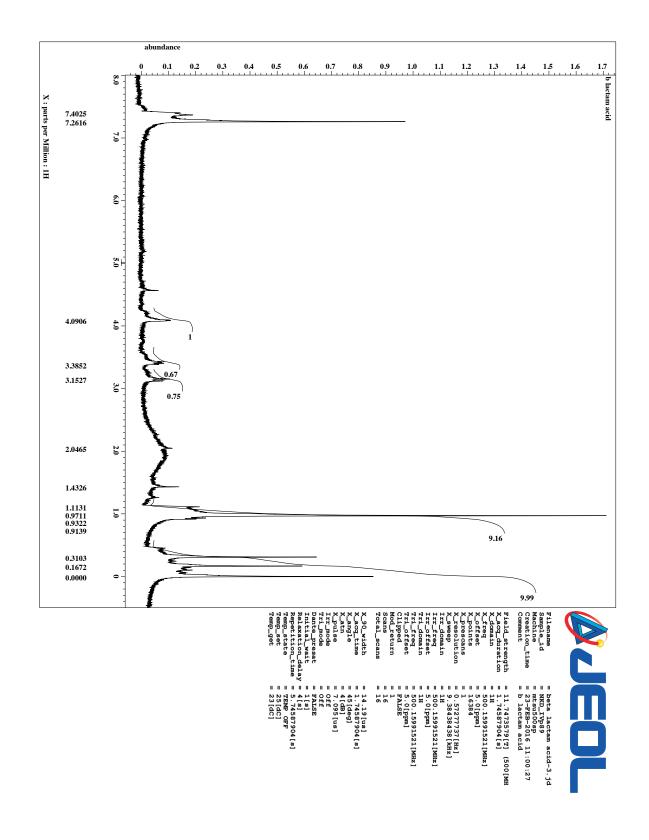
(4S)-N-(t-Butyldimethylsilyl)azetidin-2-one-4-carboxylic acid (4)

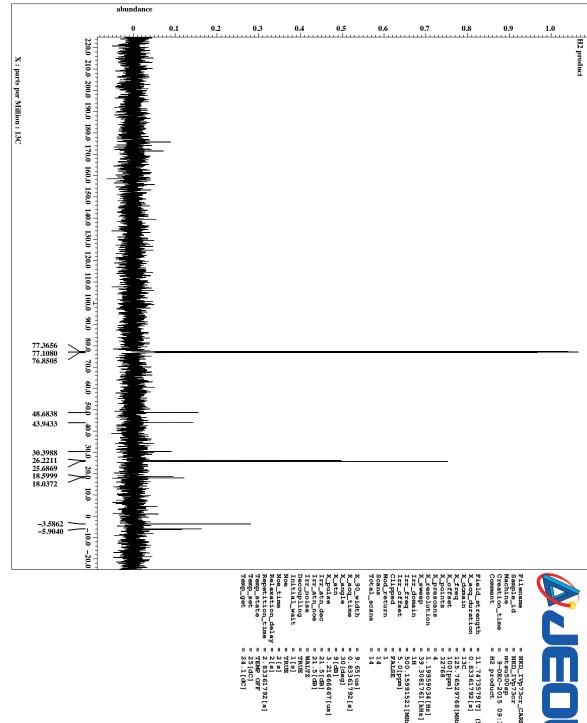
NMR

¹H-NMR (CDCl₃)

¹³C-NMR (CDCl₃)

DEPT₁₃₅ (CDCl₃)



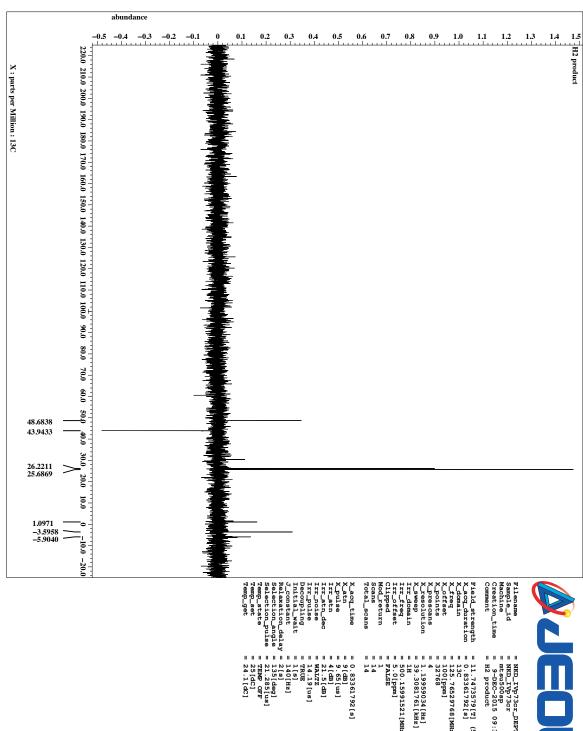


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= 11.7473579[T] (500[MH = 0.83361792[s] = 13C = 13E.76529768[MHz] = 100[ppm] = 100[pfm]

= 1.19959034[Hz] = 39.3081761[kHz] = 1H = 500.15991521[MHz] = 5.0[ppm] = FALSE





= 11.7473579[T] (500[MH = 0.83361792[s] = 13C = 13E.76529768[MHz] = 100[ppm] = 100[pfm]

= 1.19959034[Hz]
= 39.3081761[kHz]
= 1H
= 500.15991521[MHz]
= 5.0[ppm]
= FALSE

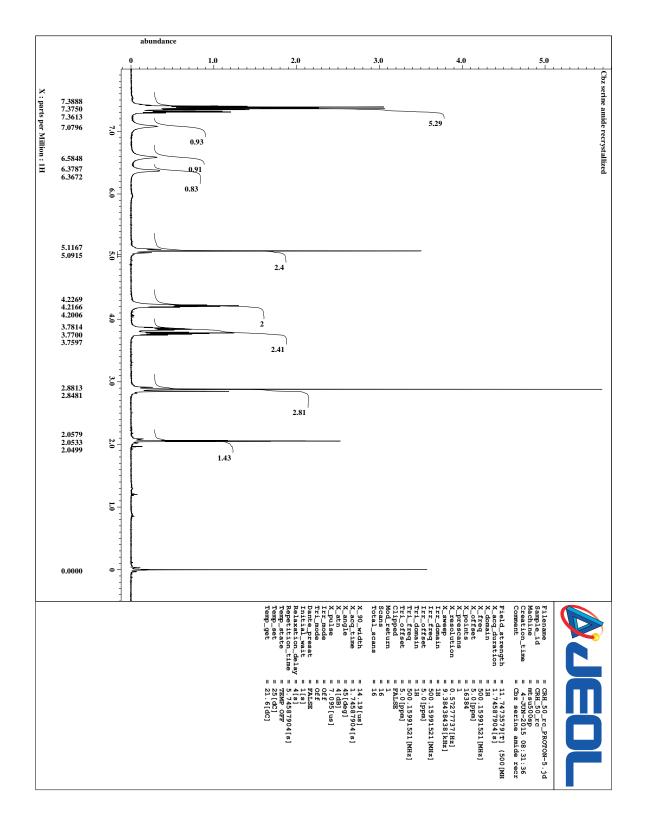
N-benzyloxycarbonyl-L-serine amide (6)

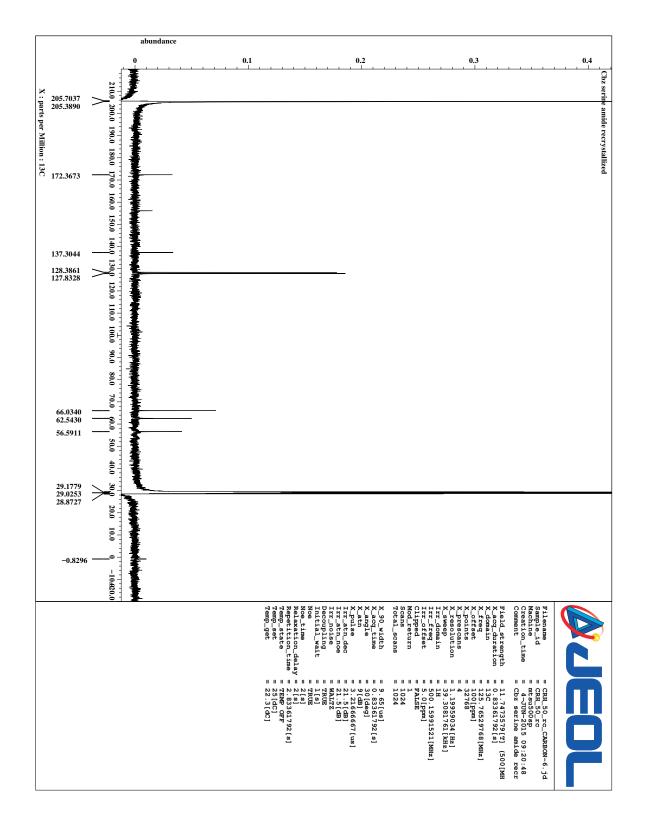
NMR

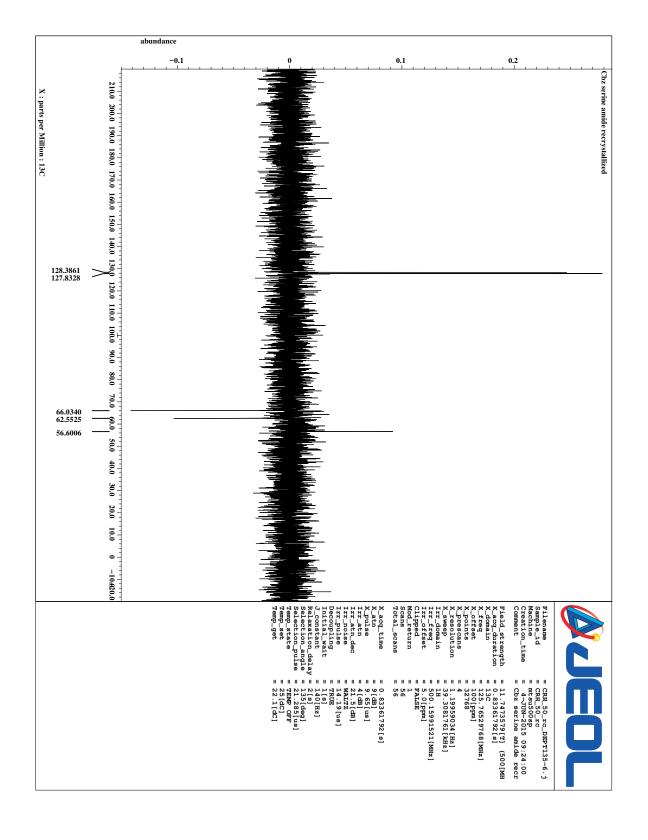
 1 H-NMR (Acetone- d_{6})

 13 C-NMR (Acetone- d_6)

DEPT₁₃₅ (Acetone-d₆)







N-benzyloxycarbonyl-L-serine(O-mesyl) Amide (7)

NMR

 1 H-NMR (Acetone- d_{6})

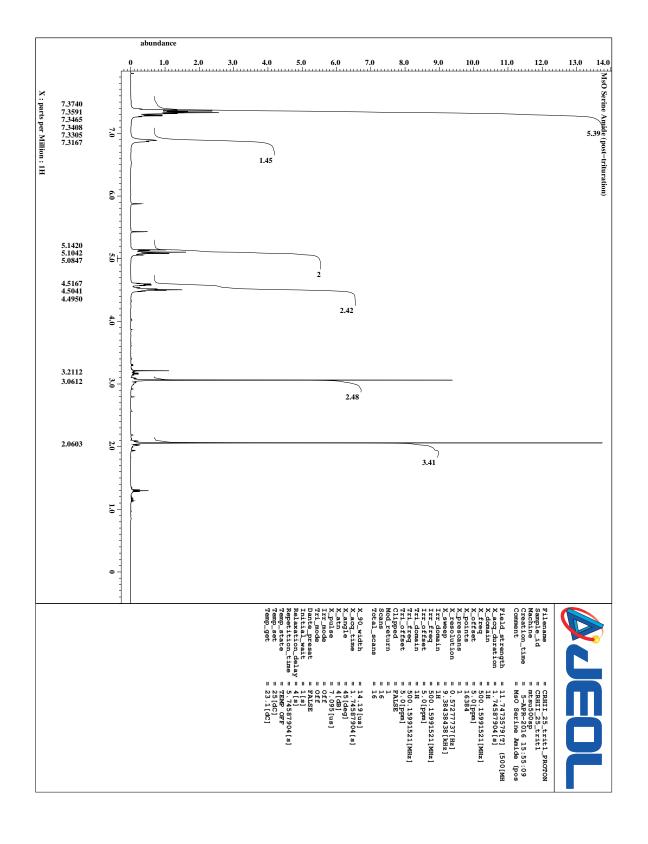
 13 C-NMR (Acetone- d_6)

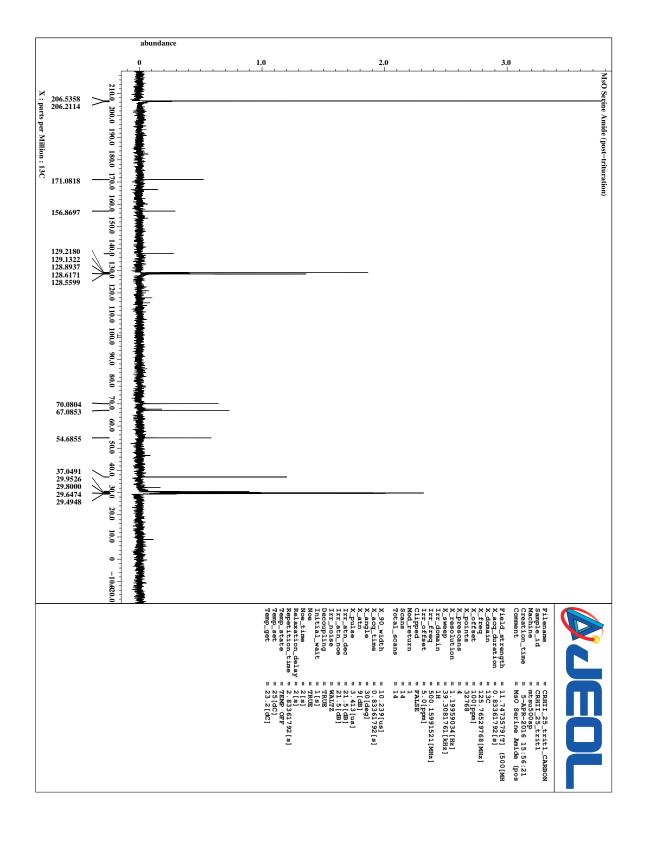
 $DEPT_{135}$ (Acetone- d_6)

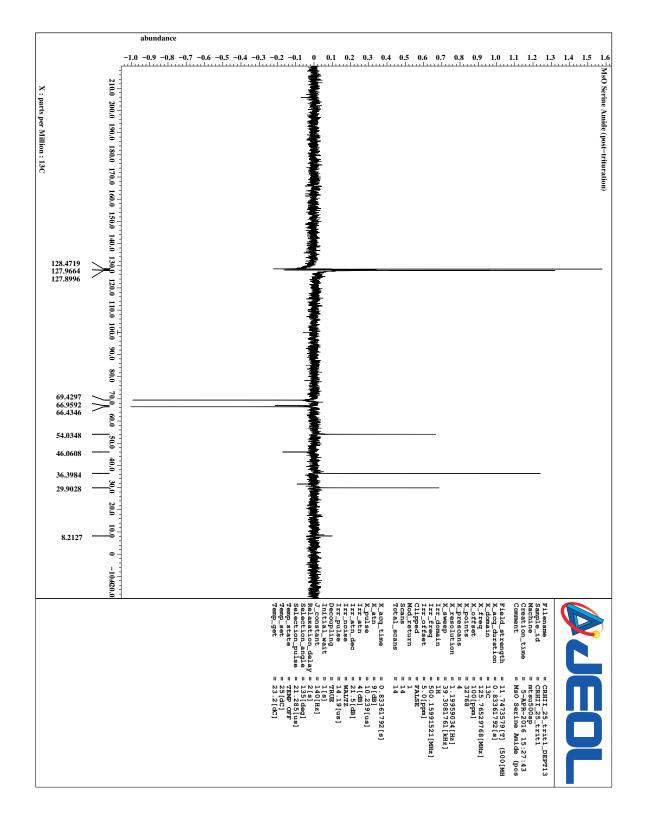
COSY (Acetone- d_6)

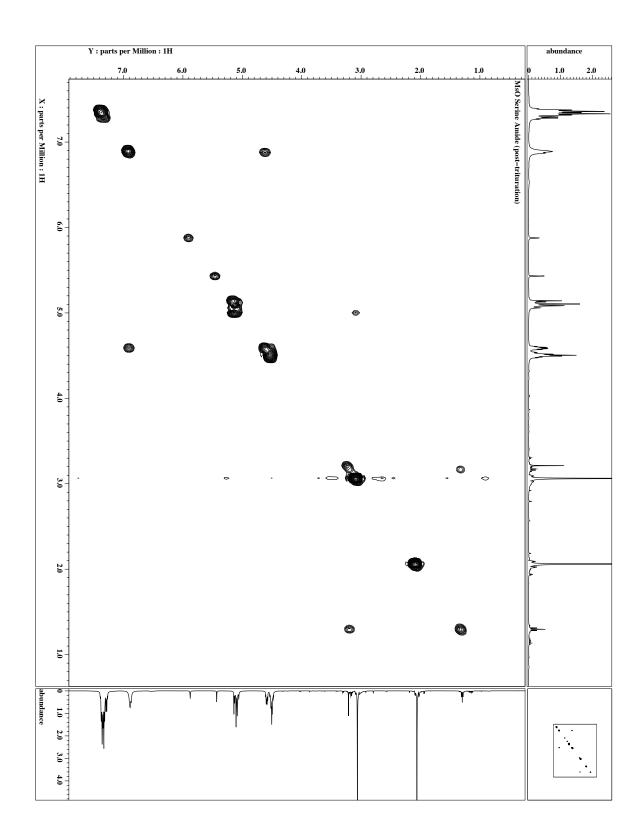
HMQC (Acetone- d_6)

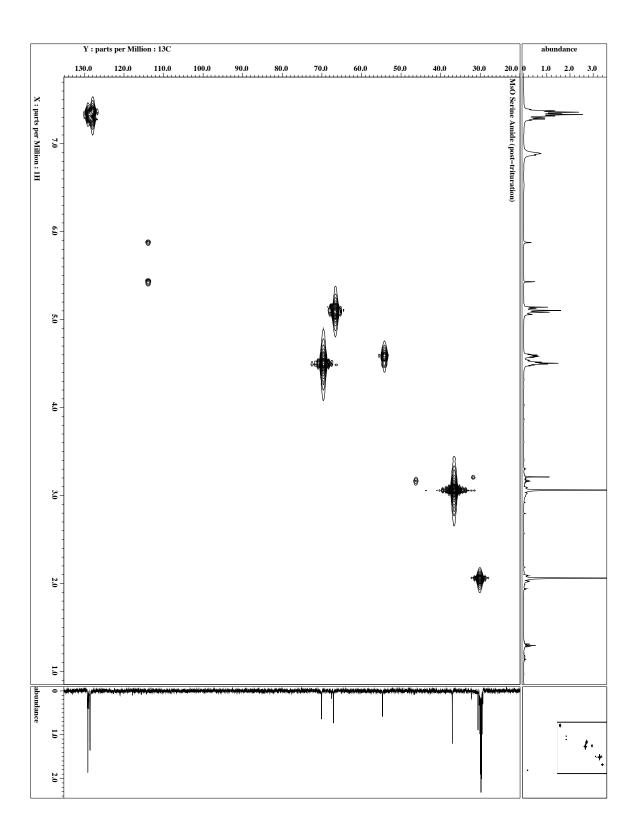
HMBC (Acetone- d_6)

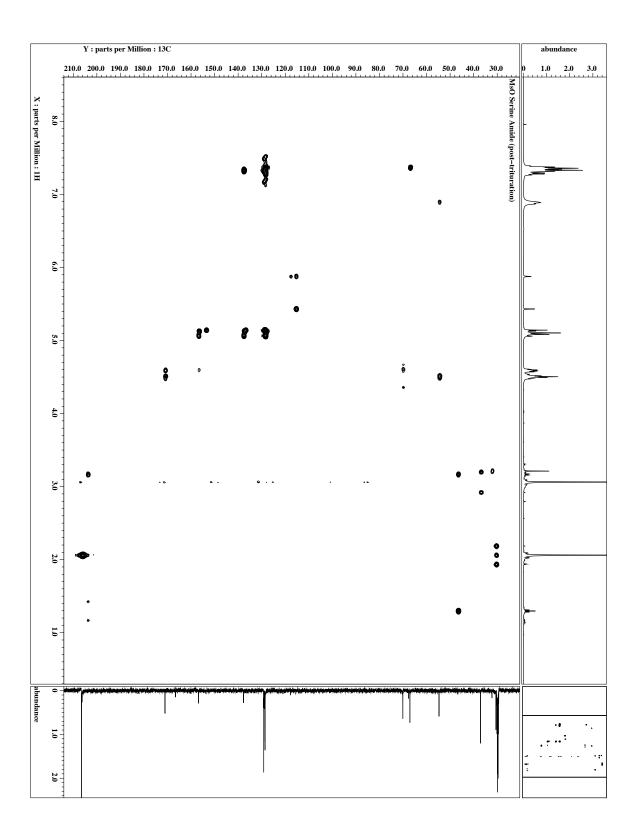












O-Benzyl-α-*N*-Cbz-L-serine hydroxamate (9)

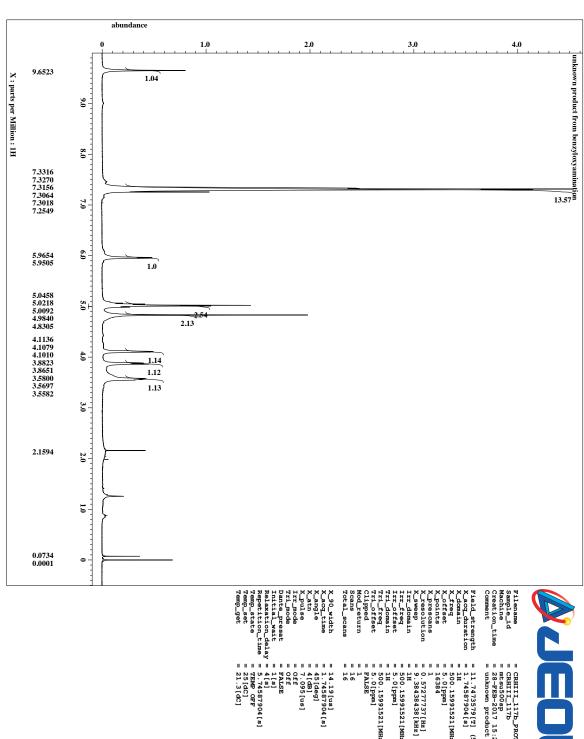
NMR

¹H-NMR (CDCl₃)

¹³C-NMR (CDCl₃)

DEPT₁₃₅ (CDCl₃)

HMQC (CDCl₃)



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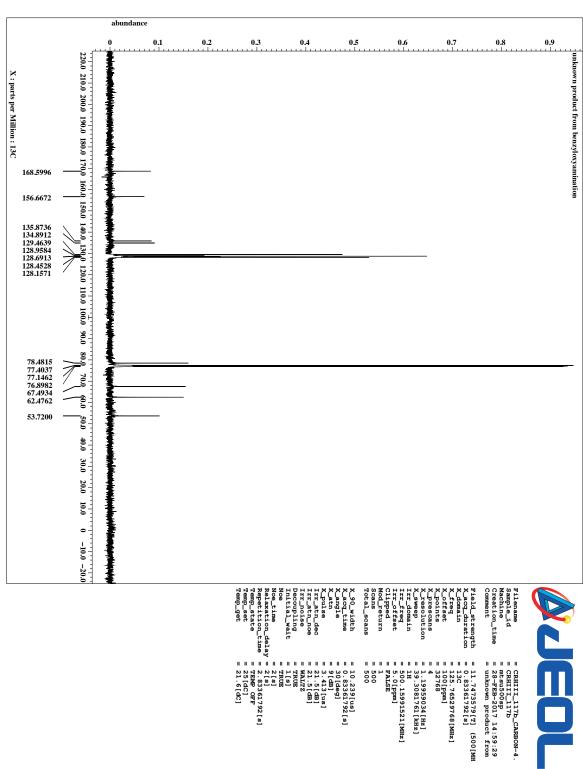
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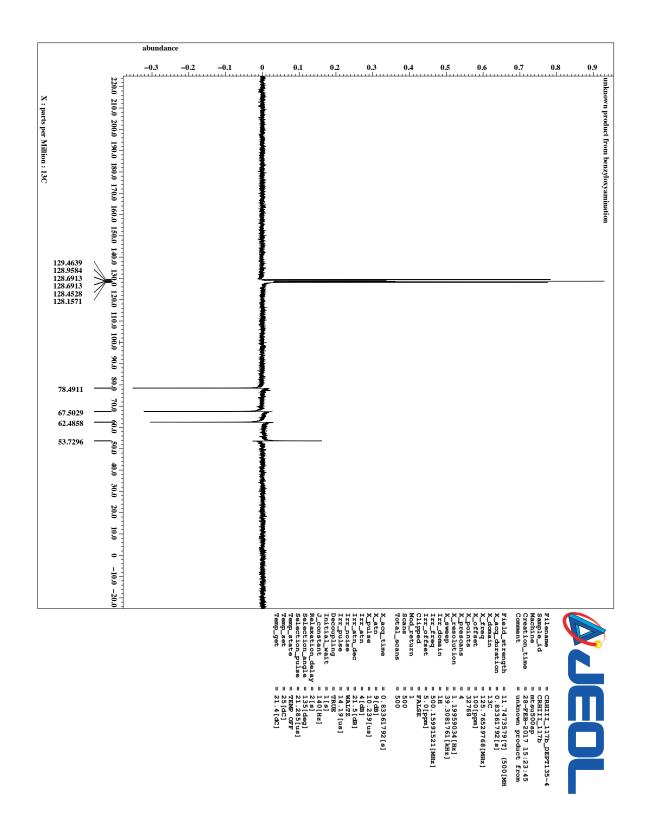


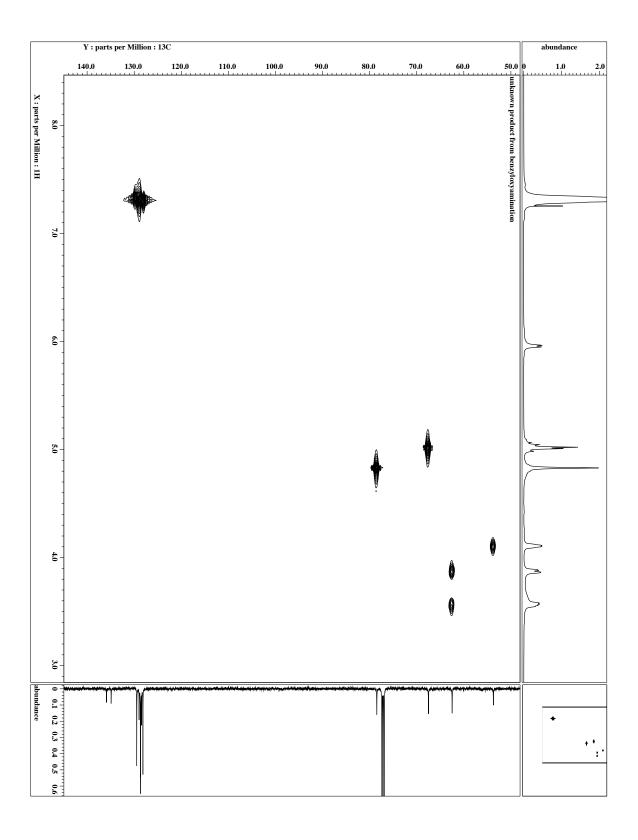
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= 1H = 500.15991521[MHz] = 5.0[ppm] = 16384









3-[(Cbz)amino]-2-azetidinone (13)

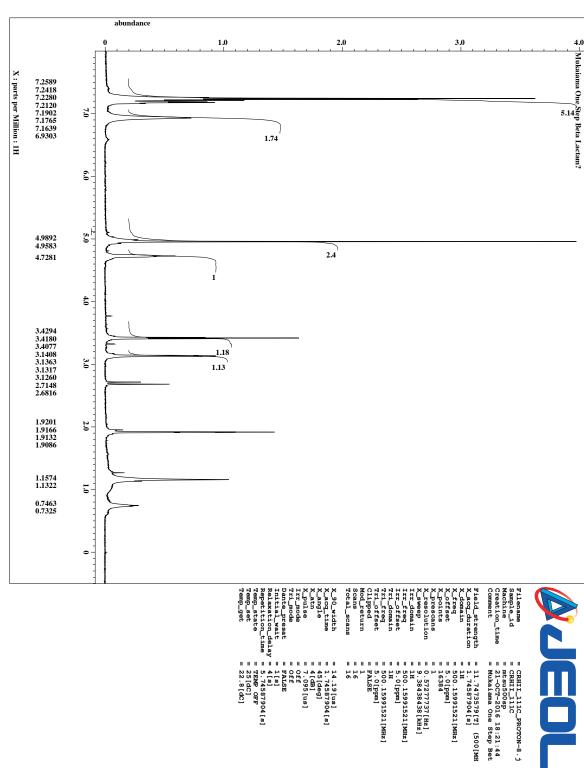
NMR

 1 H-NMR (Acetone- d_{6})

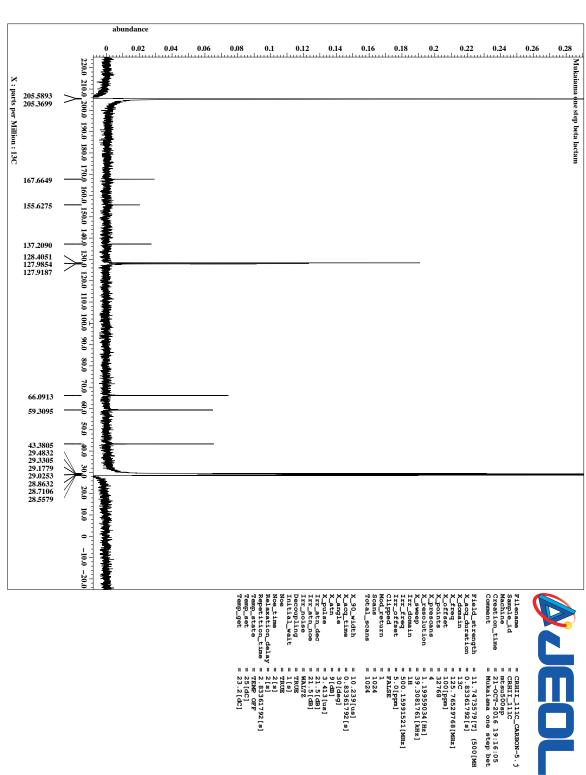
 13 C-NMR (Acetone- d_6)

 $DEPT_{135}$ (Acetone- d_6)

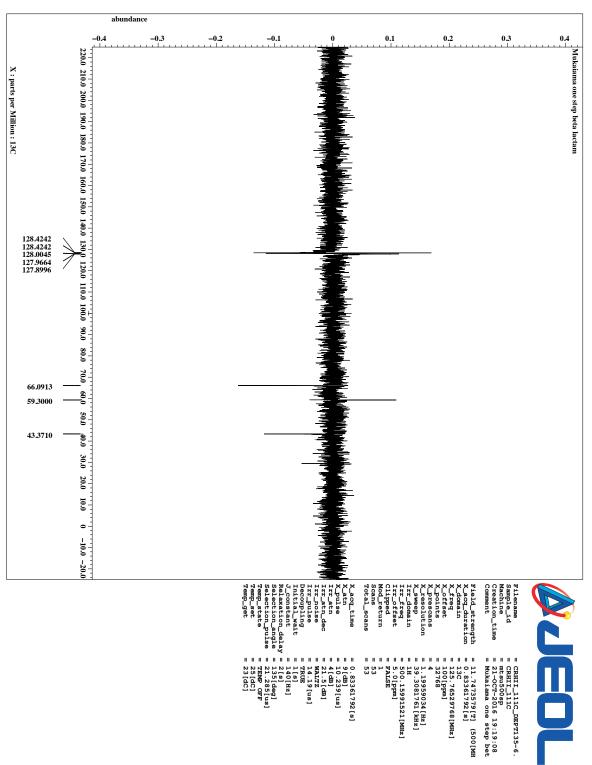
COSY (Acetone- d_6)



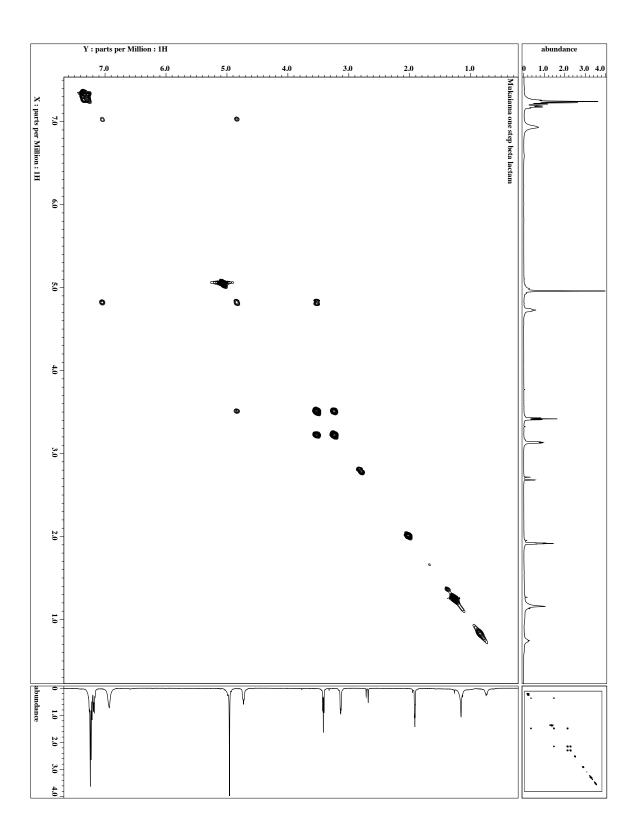












3-[amino]-2-azetidinone hydrochloride (14)

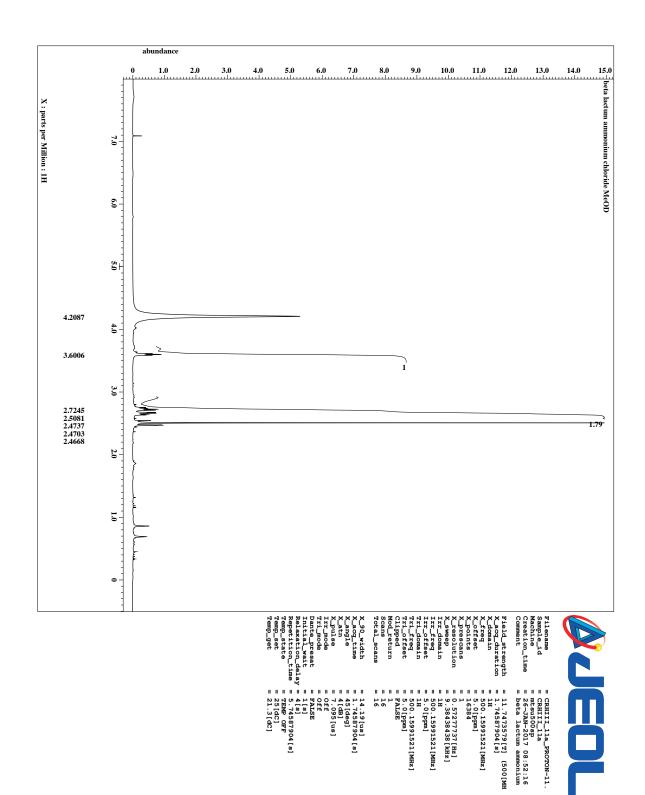
NMR

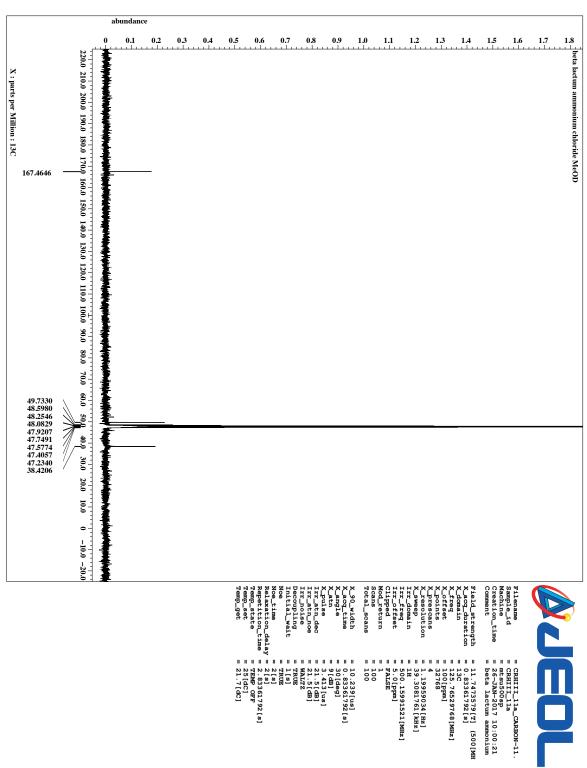
 1 H-NMR (Methanol- d_{4})

 13 C-NMR (Methanol- d_4)

DEPT₁₃₅ (Methanol- d_4)

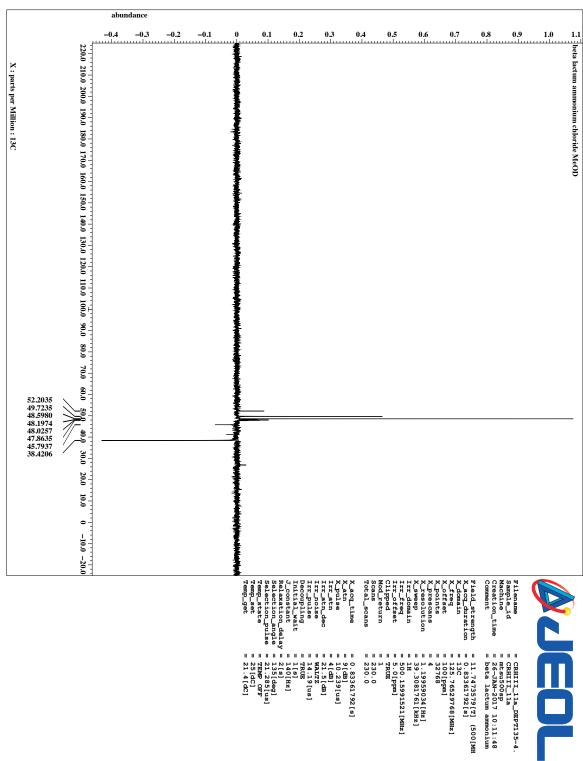
HMQC (Methanol- d_4)



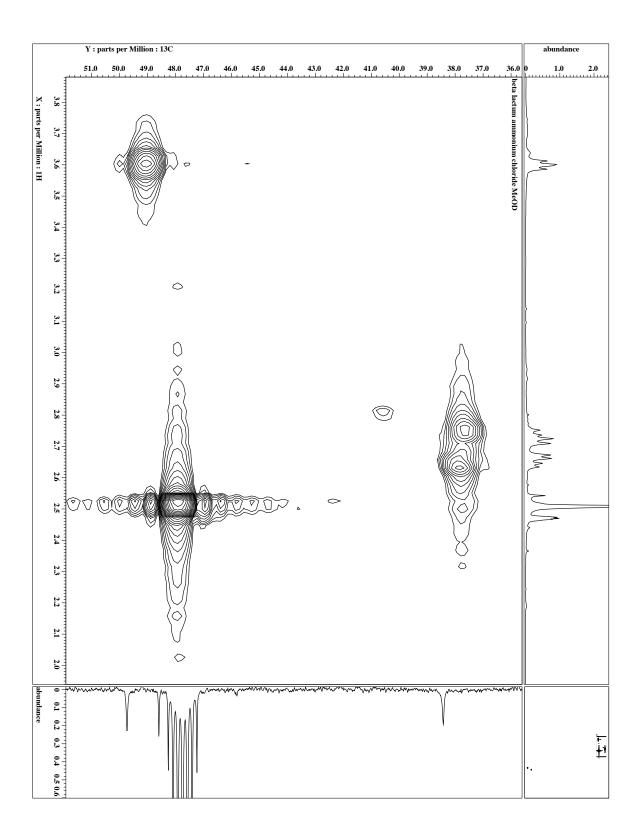




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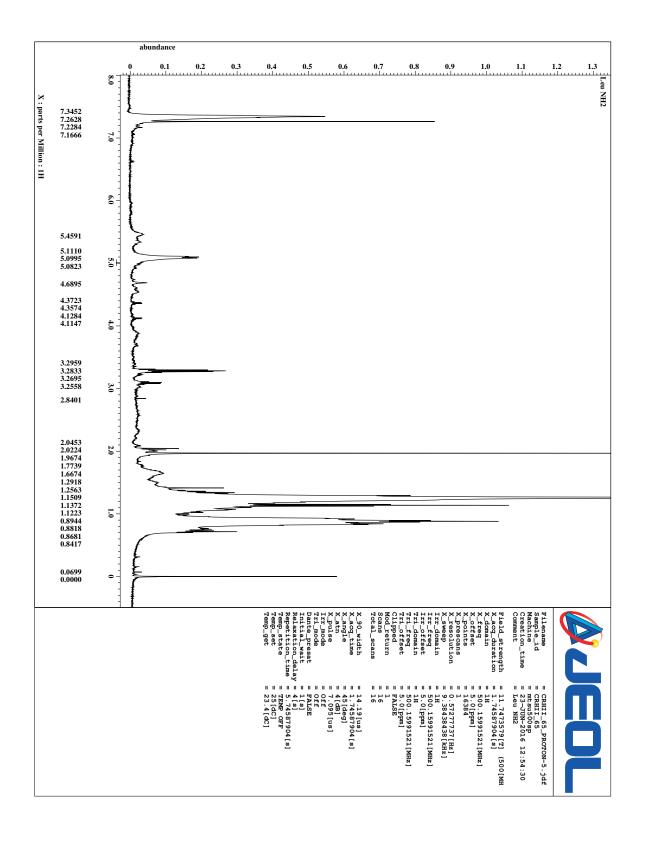
2-((S)-2-(benzylcarbonylamino)-1-hydroxy-4-methylpentyl) cyclopropaneamine (28)

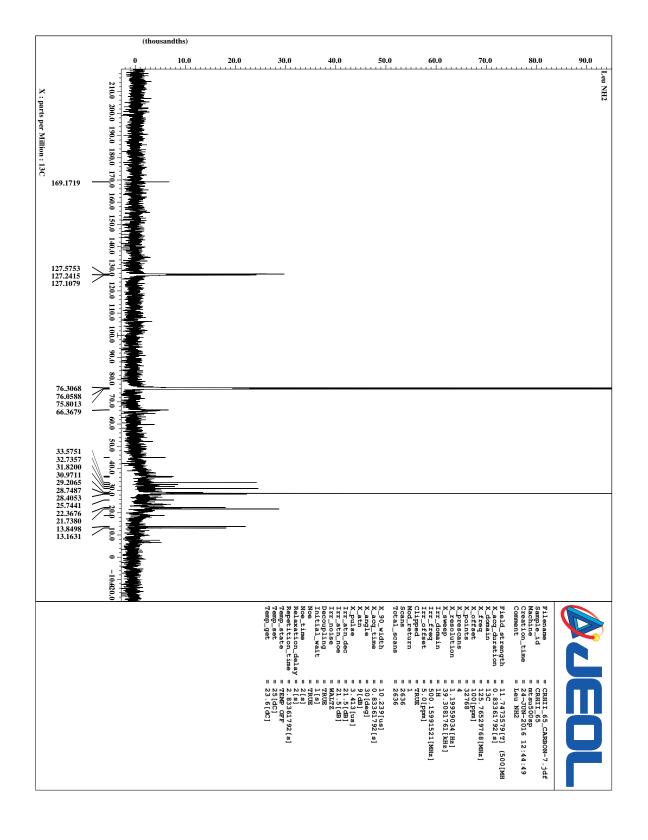
NMR

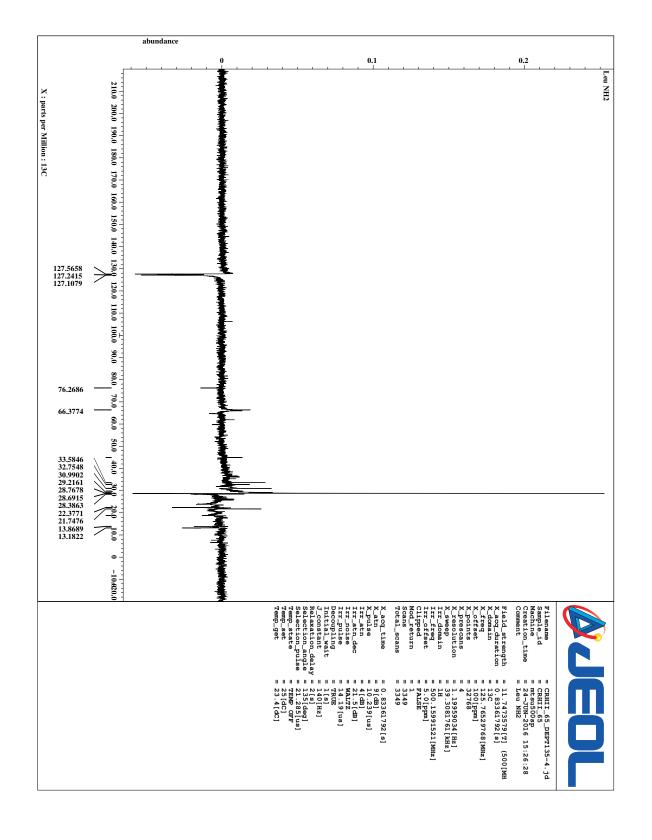
¹H-NMR (CDCl₃)

¹³C-NMR (CDCl₃)

DEPT₁₃₅ (CDCl₃)







2-((S)-2-(benzylcarbonylamino)-1-hydroxy-3-phenylpropyl) cyclopropaneamine (29)

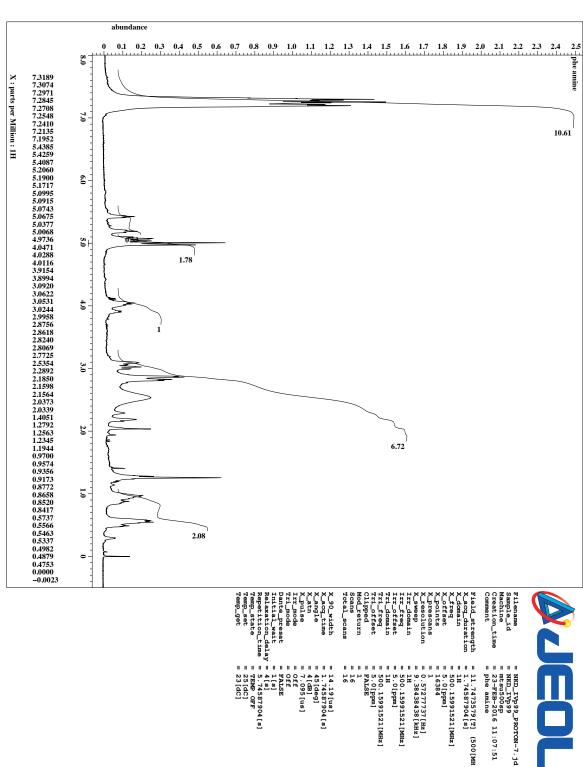
NMR

¹H-NMR (CDCl₃)

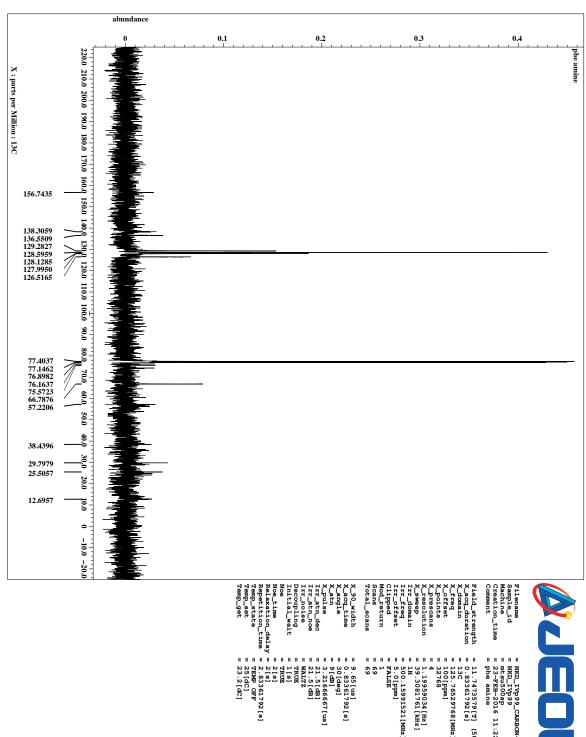
¹³C-NMR (CDCl₃)

DEPT₁₃₅ (CDCl₃)

COSY (CDCl₃)





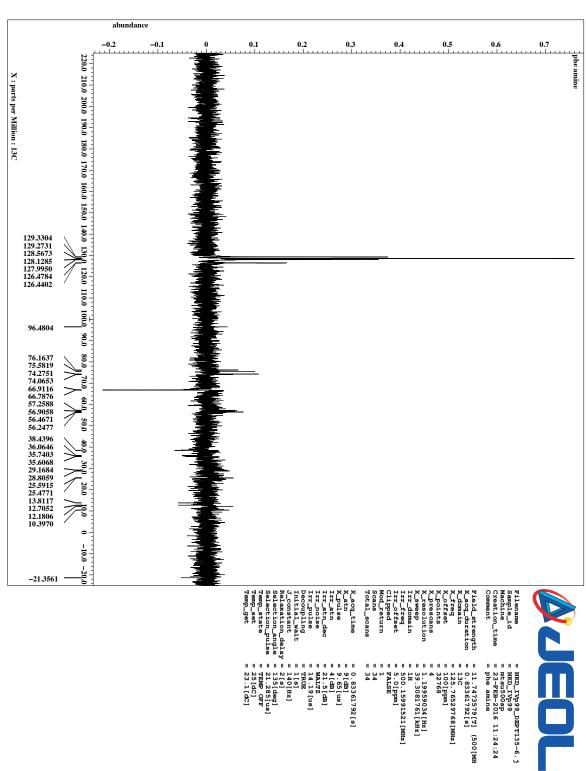




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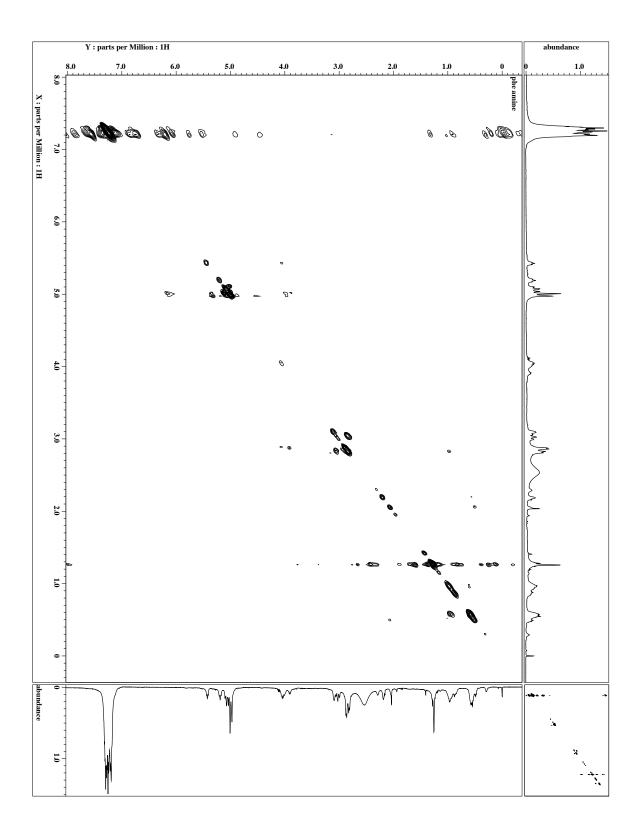
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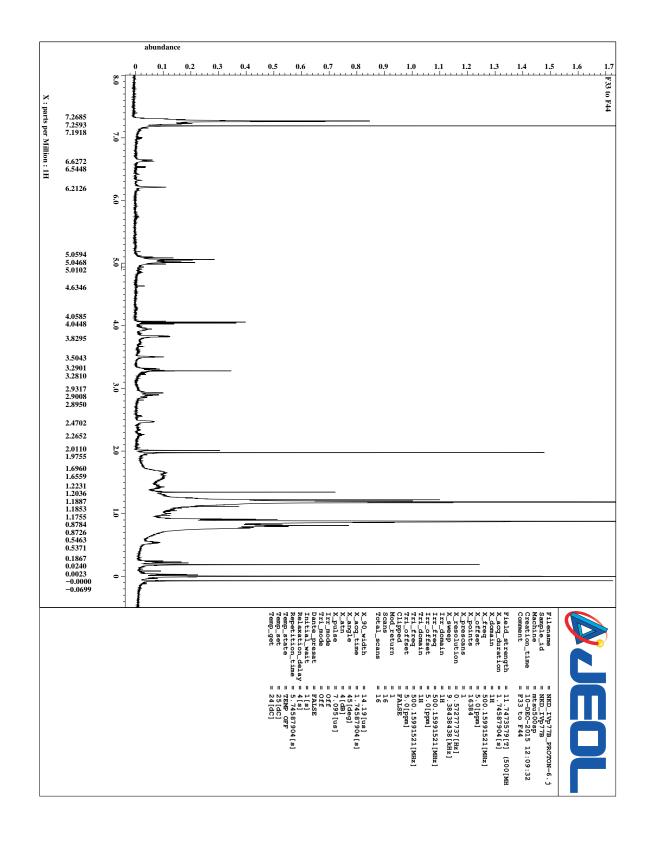
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Benzyl N-[(2S)-1-{2-[1-(tert-butyldimethylsilyl)-4-oxoazetidine-2-amido]cyclopropyl}-1-hydroxy-4-methylpentan-2-yl]carbamate (31)

NMR

¹H-NMR (CDCl₃)



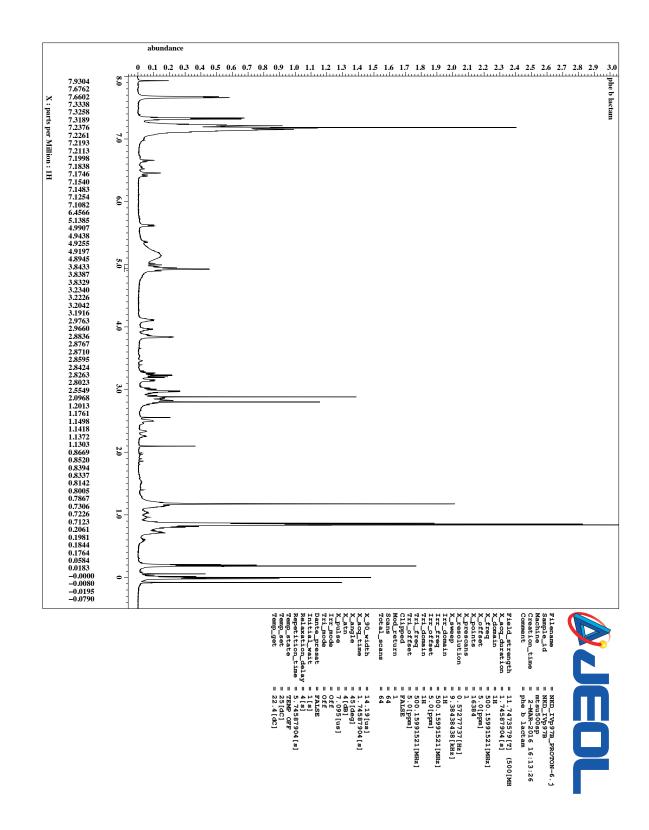
Benzyl N-[(2S)-1-{2-[1-(tert-butyldimethylsilyl)-4-oxoazetidine-2-amido]cyclopropyl}-1-hydroxy-4-phenylpropan-2-yl]carbamate (32)

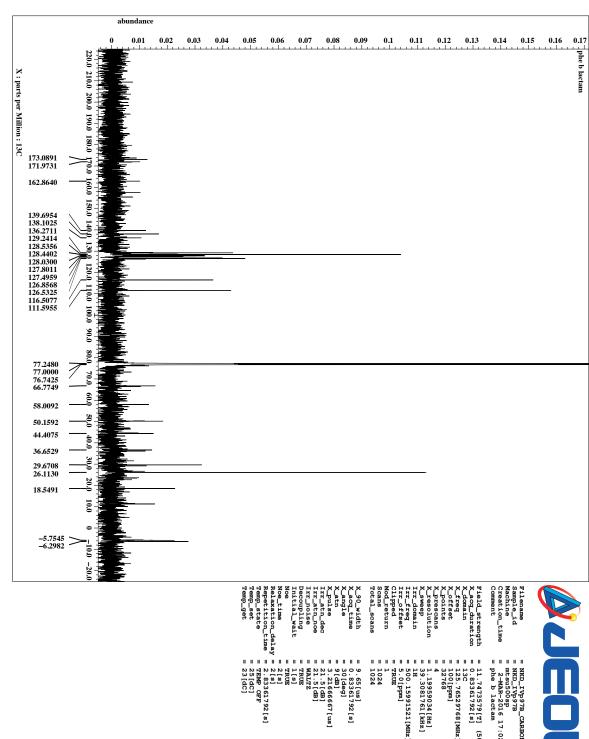
NMR

¹H-NMR (CDCl₃)

¹³C-NMR (CDCl₃)

DEPT₁₃₅ (CDCl₃)

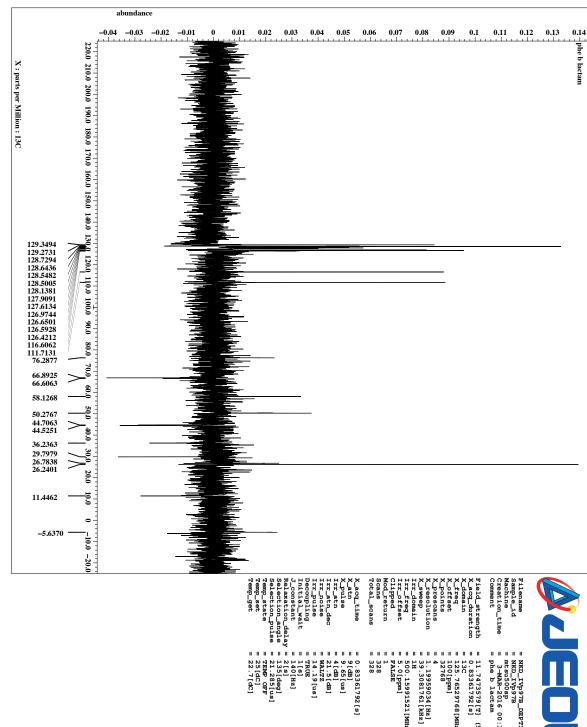






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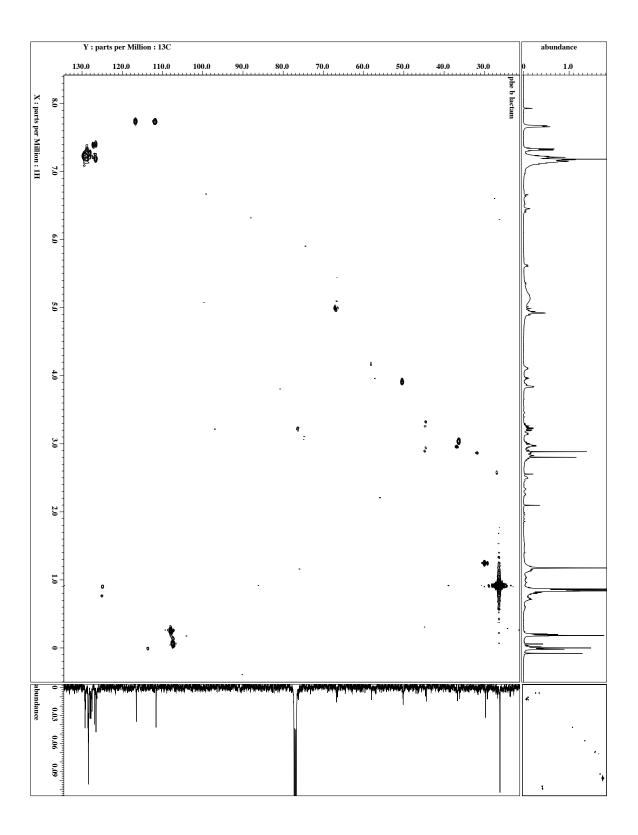




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= 1.19959034[Hz] = 39.3081761[kHz] = 1H

= 500.15991521[MHz] = 5.0[ppm] = FALSE



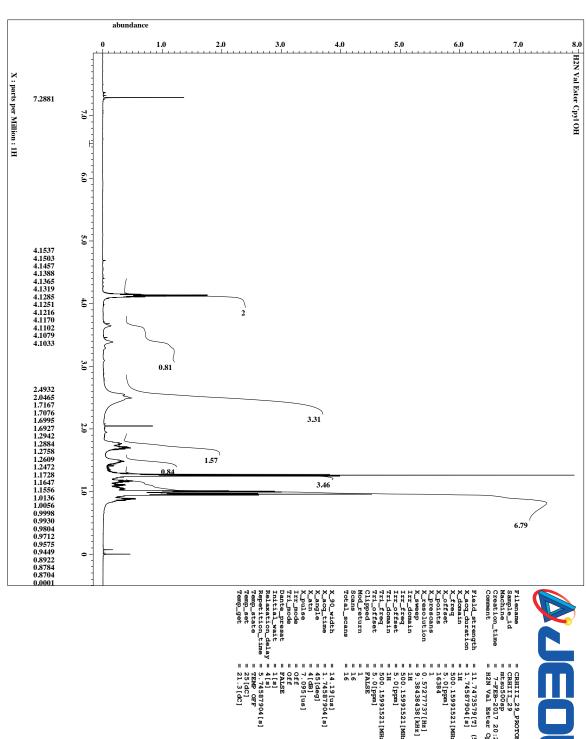
Ethyl 2-((S)-2-amino)-1-hydroxy-3-methylbutyl) cyclopropanecarboxylate (33)

NMR

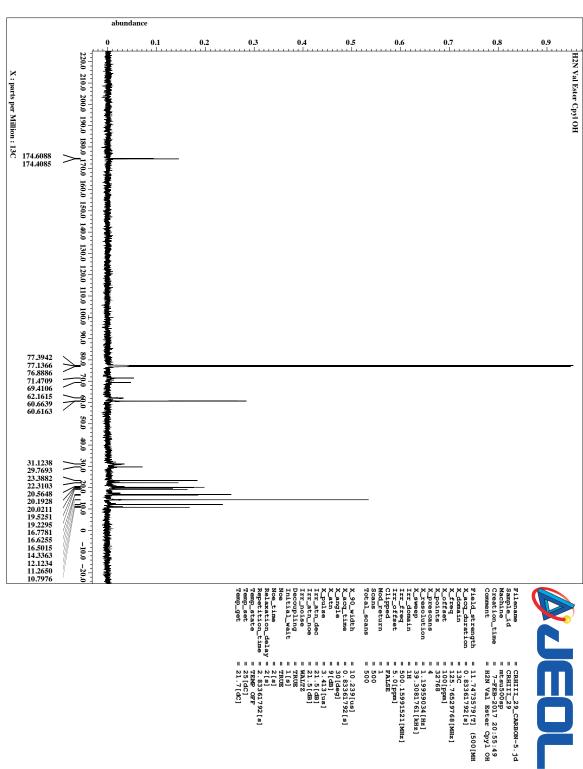
¹H-NMR (CDCl₃)

¹³C-NMR (CDCl₃)

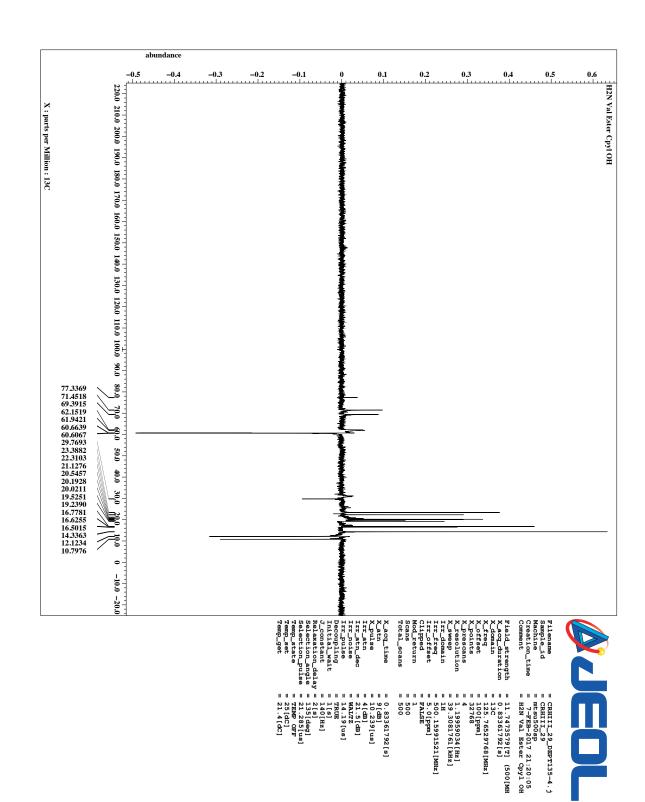
DEPT₁₃₅ (CDCl₃)

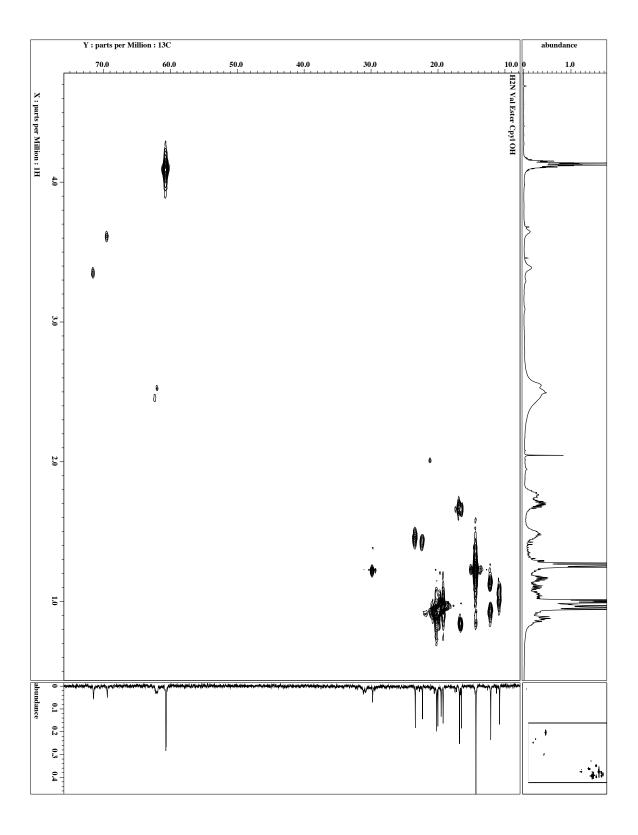












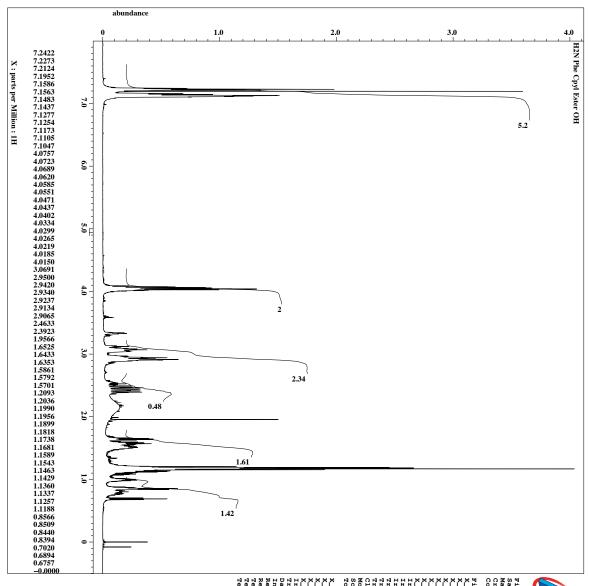
Ethyl 2-((S)-2-amino)-1-hydroxy-3-phenylpropyl) cyclopropanecarboxylate (35)

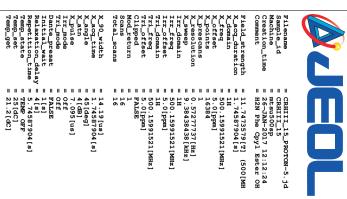
NMR

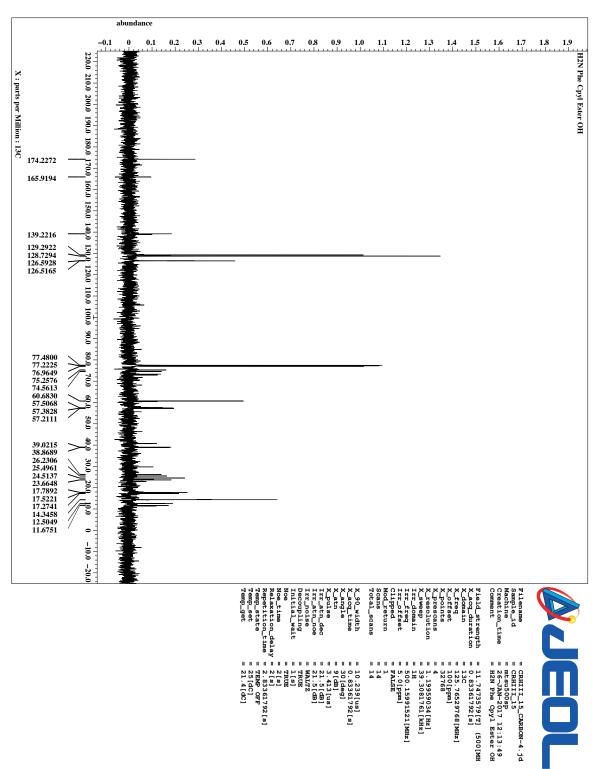
¹H-NMR (CDCl₃)

¹³C-NMR (CDCl₃)

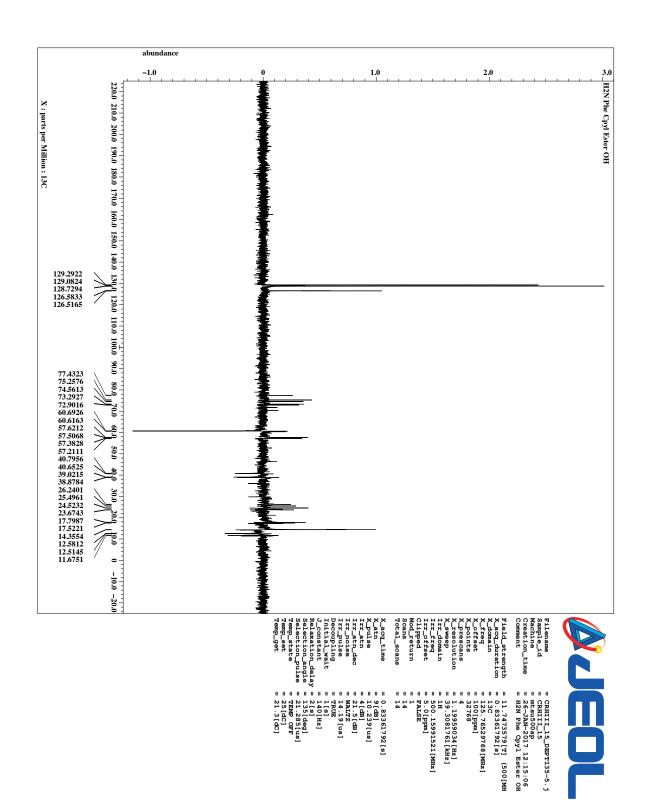
DEPT₁₃₅ (CDCl₃)











Ethyl 2-((S)-2-(benzylcarbonylamino)-1-hydroxy-3-methylbutyl) cyclopropanecarboxylate (36)

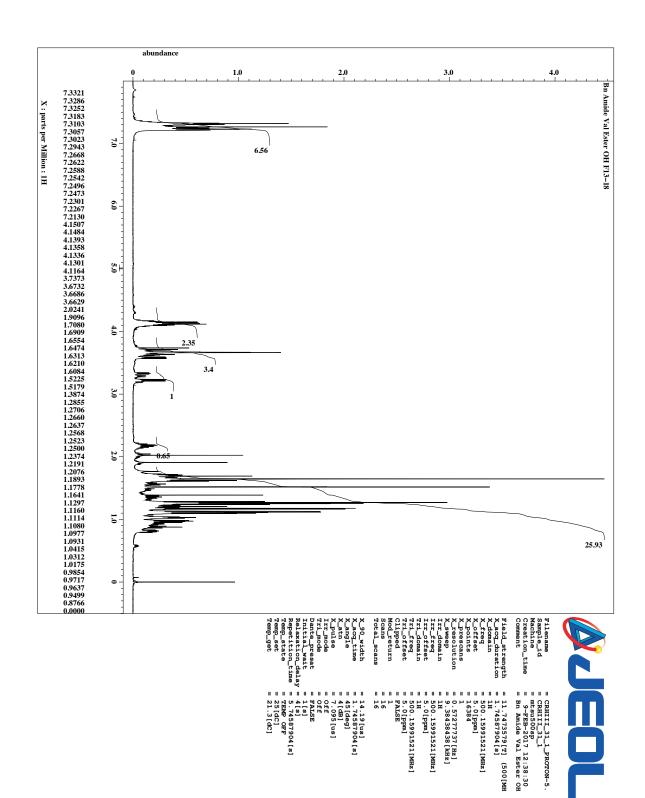
NMR

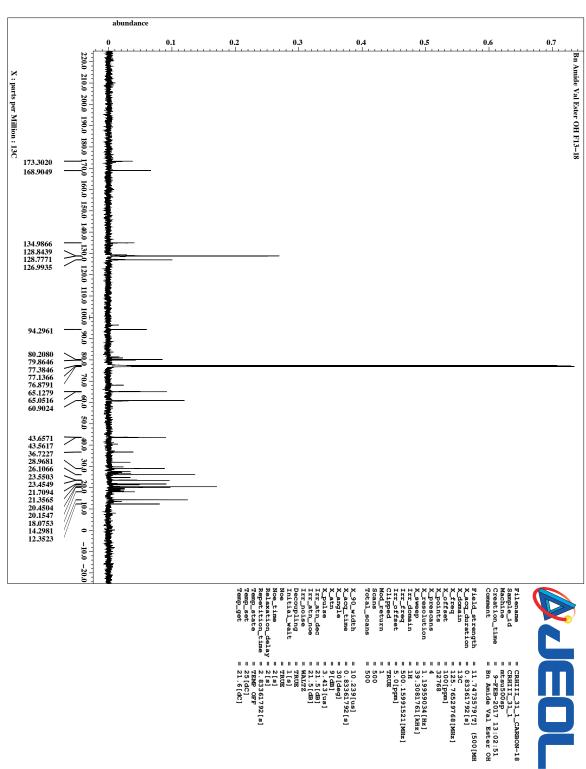
¹H-NMR (CDCl₃)

¹³C-NMR (CDCl₃)

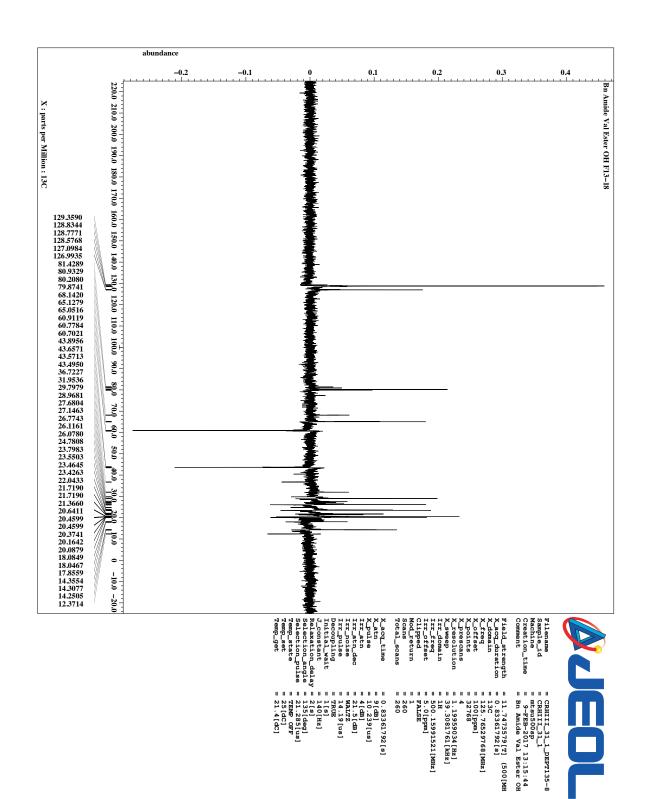
DEPT₁₃₅ (CDCl₃)

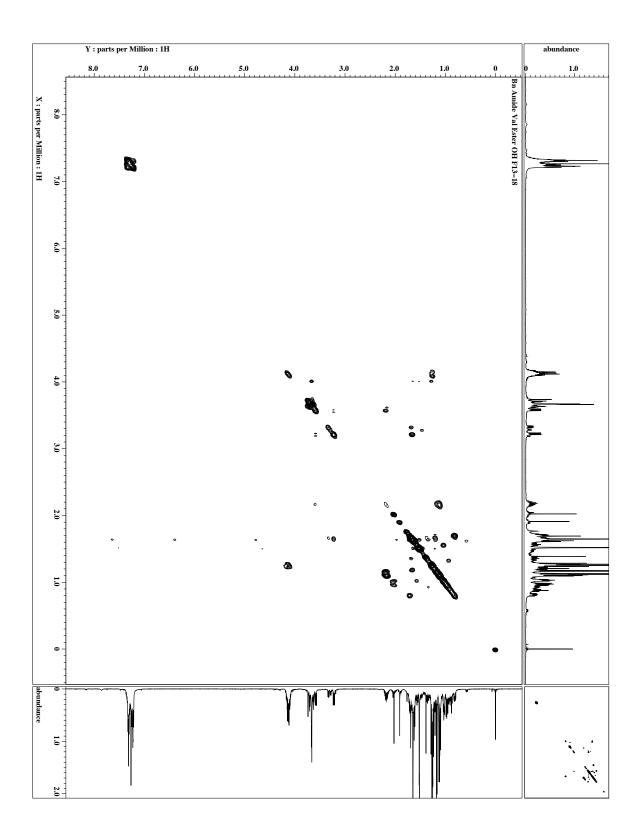
COSY (CDCl₃)

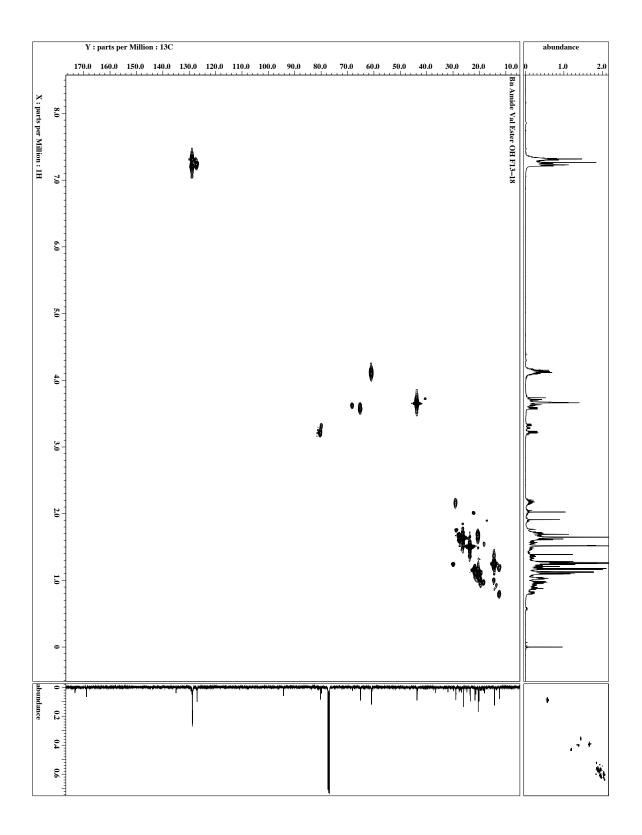












Ethyl 2-((S)-2-(benzylcarbonylamino)-1-hydroxy-3-phenylpropyl) cyclopropanecarboxylate (38)

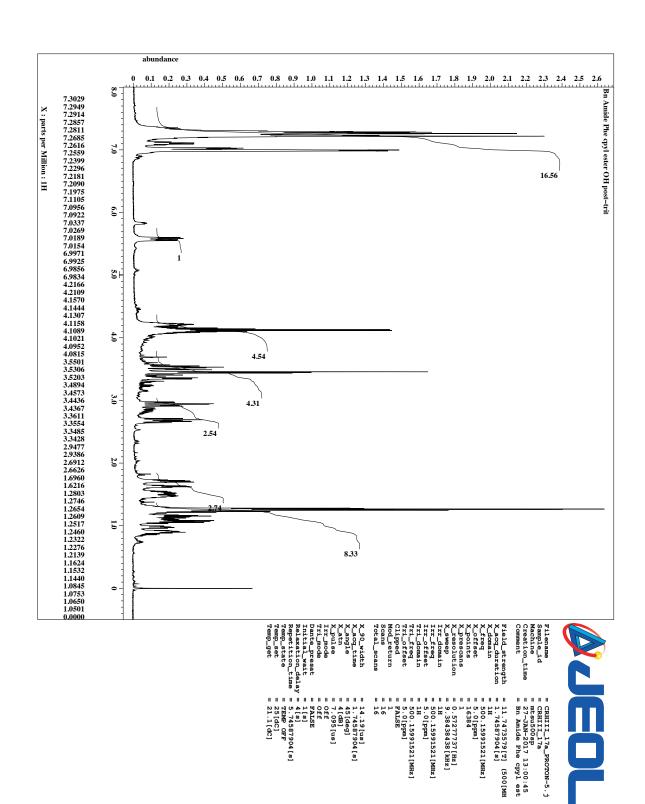
NMR

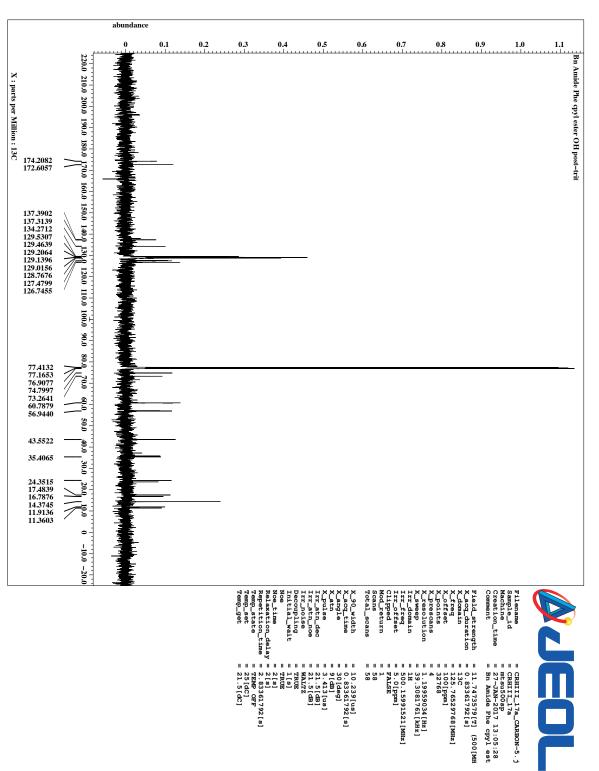
¹H-NMR (CDCl₃)

¹³C-NMR (CDCl₃)

DEPT₁₃₅ (CDCl₃)

COSY (CDCl₃)

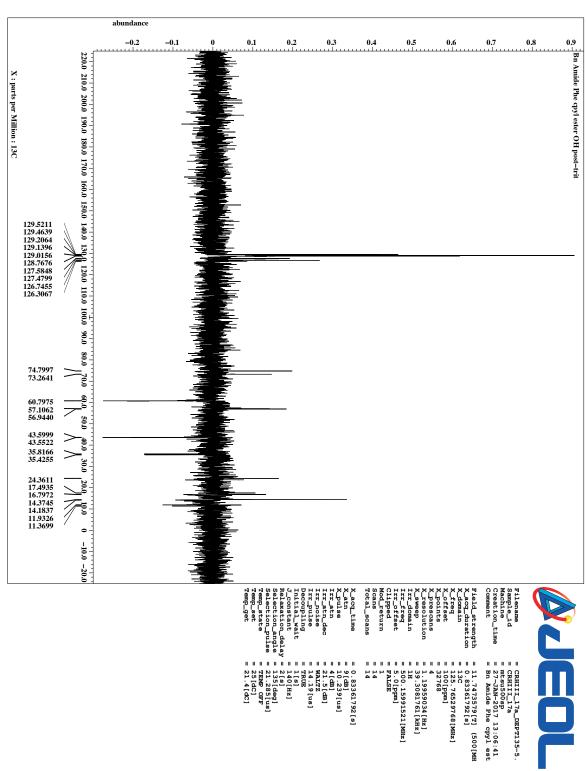






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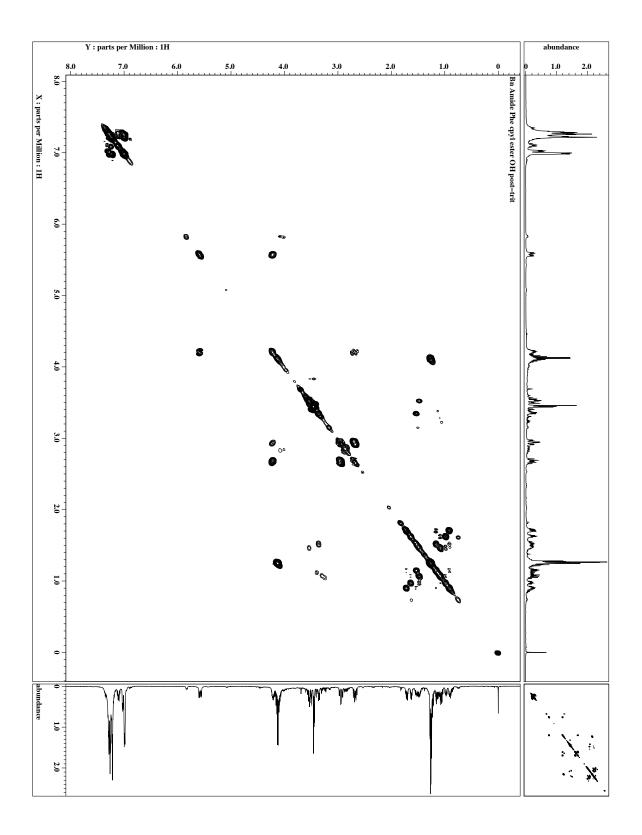
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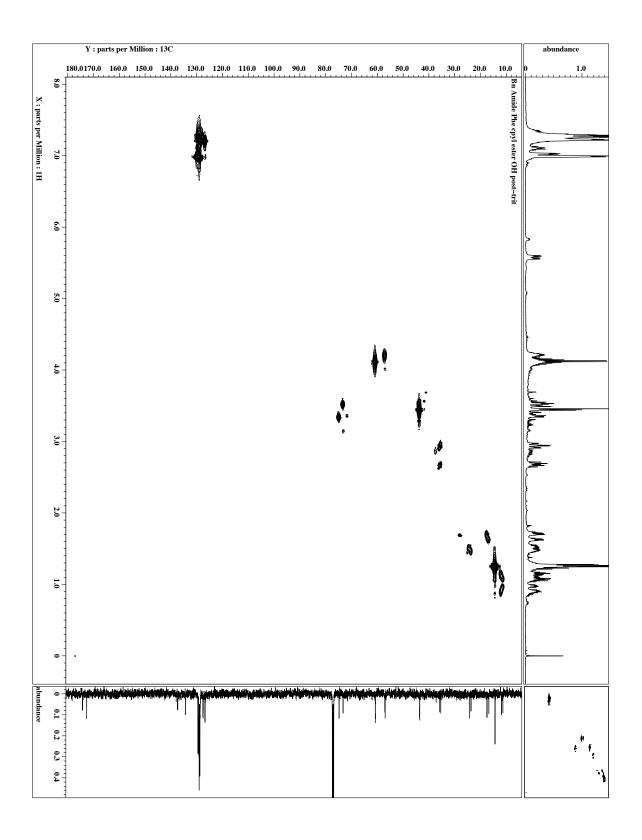




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= 500.15991521[MHz] = 5.0[ppm] = FALSE





2-((S)-2-(benzylcarbonylamino)-1-hydroxy-3-methylbutyl) cyclopropanecarboxylic acid (39)

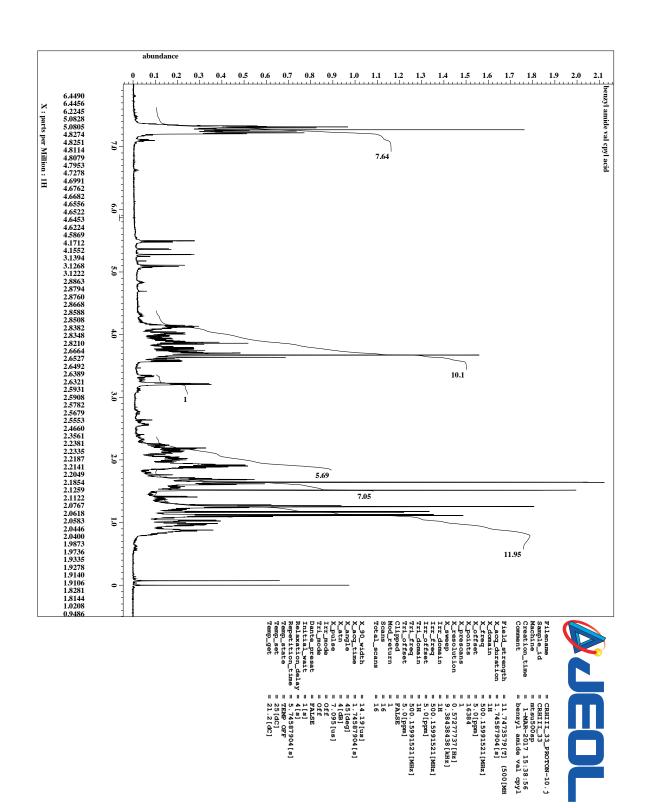
NMR

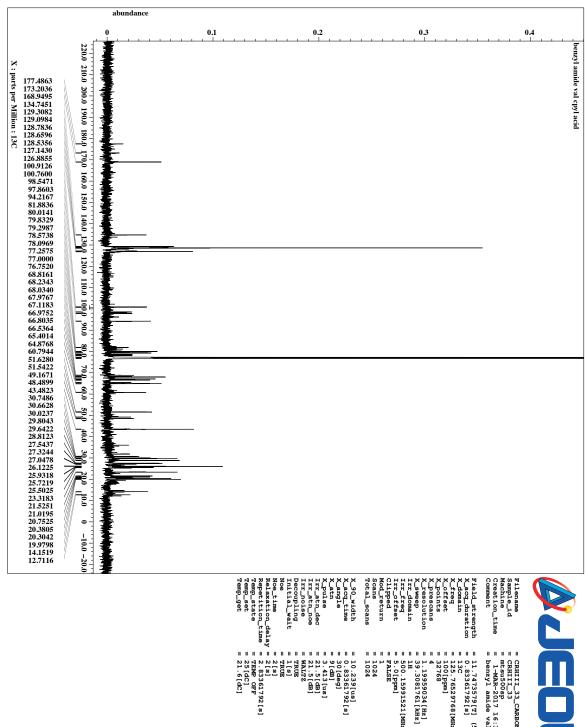
¹H-NMR (CDCl₃)

¹³C-NMR (CDCl₃)

DEPT₁₃₅ (CDCl₃)

COSY (CDCl₃)



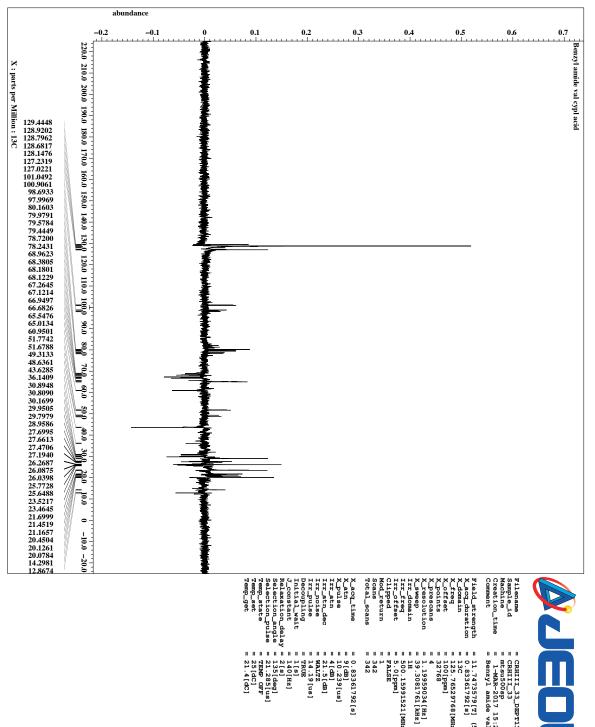




= 11.7473579[T] (500[MH = 0.83361792[s] = 13C = 13C = 125.76529768[MHz] = 100[ppm]

= 1.19959034[Hz] = 39.3081761[kHz] = 1H = 500.15991521[MHz] = 5.0[ppm] = FALSE

= 1024 = 1024



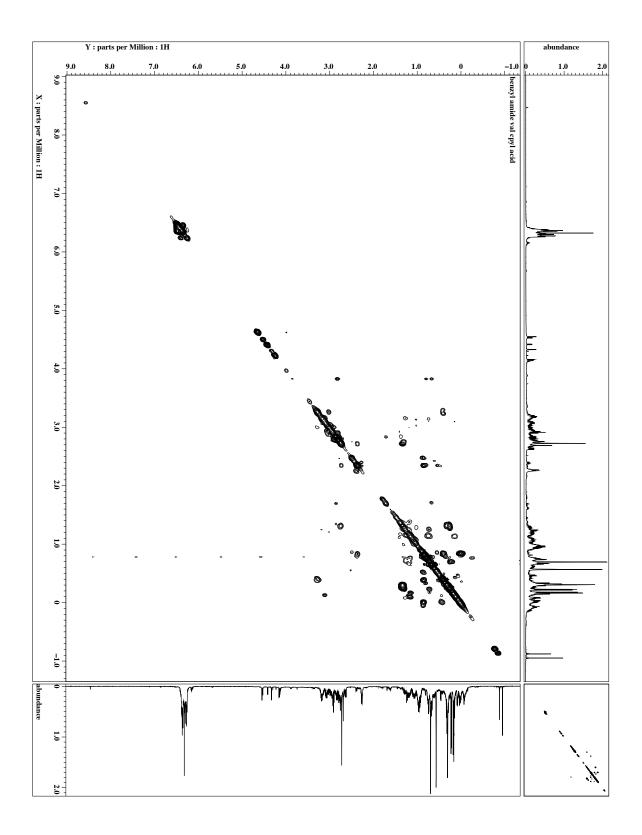


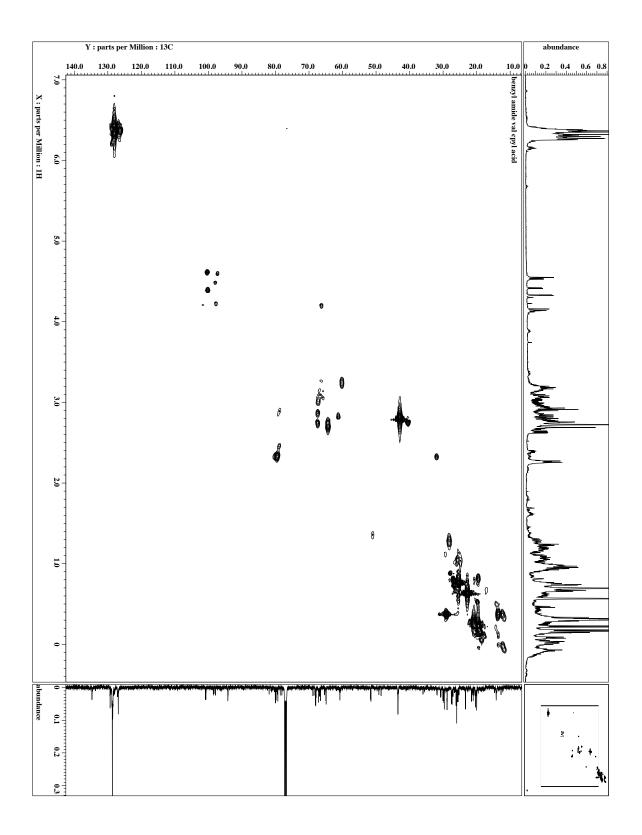
= 11.7473579[T] (500[MH = 0.83361792[s] = 13C = 125.76529768[MHz] = 100[ppm] = 32768

= 1.19959034[Hz] = 39.3081761[kHz] = 1H

= 500.15991521[MHz] = 5.0[ppm] = FALSE

342 342





2-((S)-2-(benzylcarbonylamino)-1-hydroxy-3-phenylpropyl) cyclopropanecarboxylic acid (41)

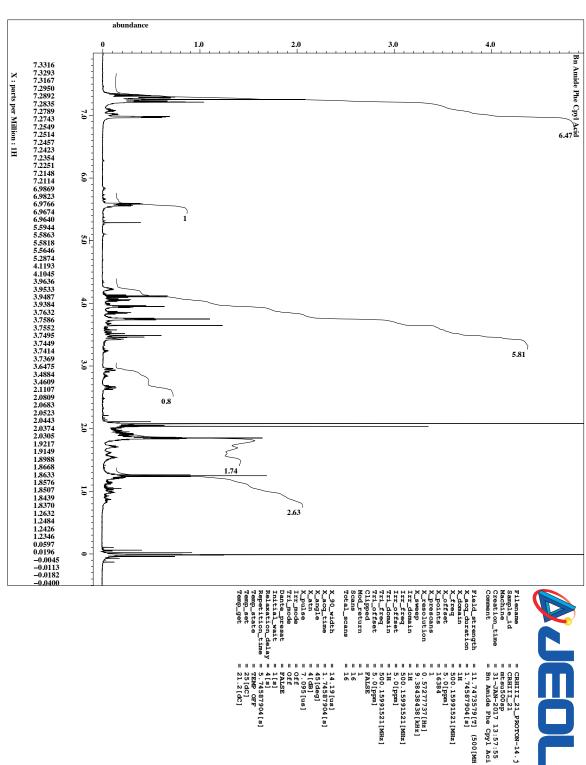
NMR

¹H-NMR (CDCl₃)

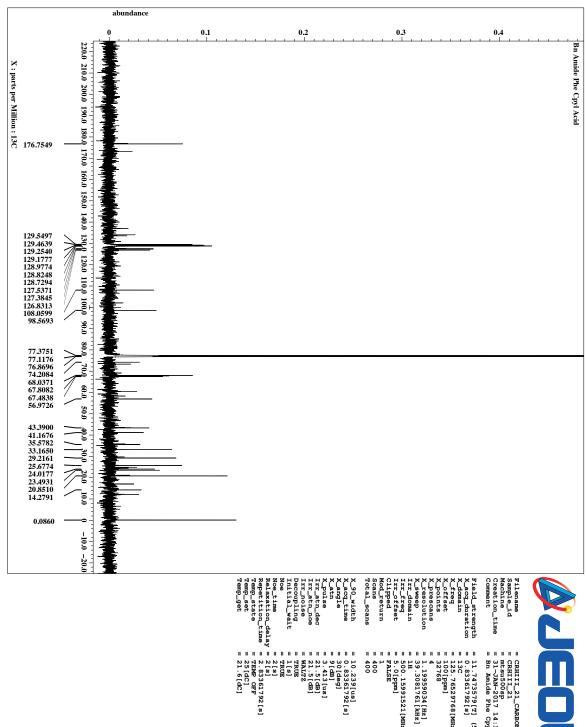
¹³C-NMR (CDCl₃)

DEPT₁₃₅ (CDCl₃)

COSY (CDCl₃)





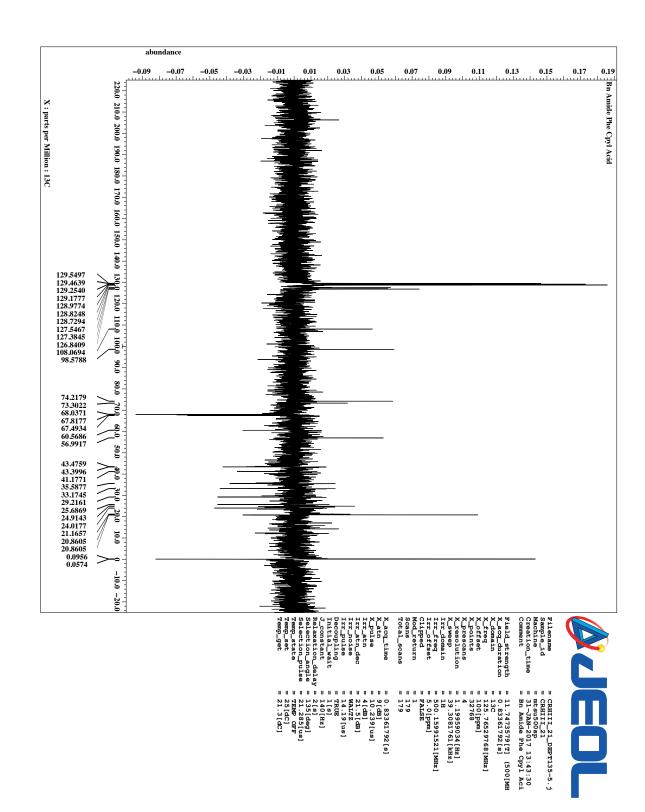


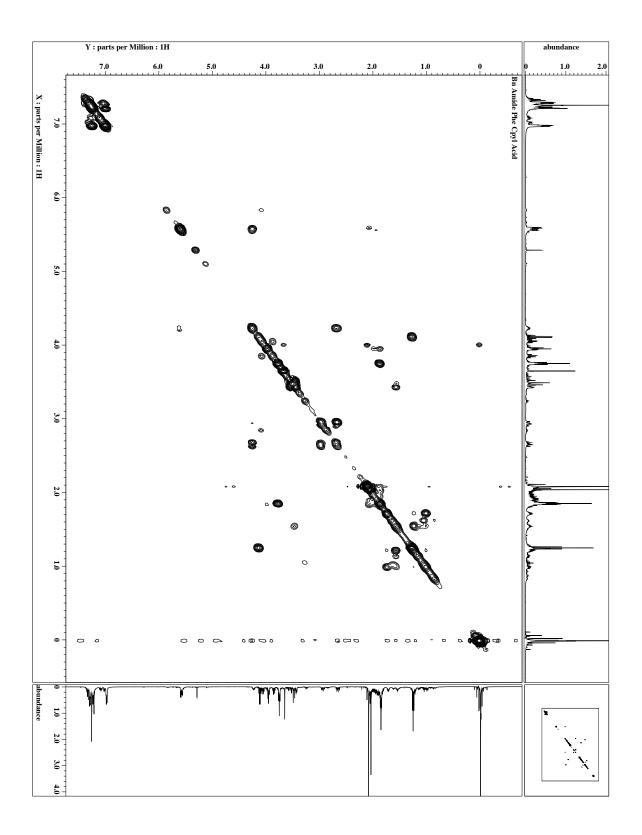


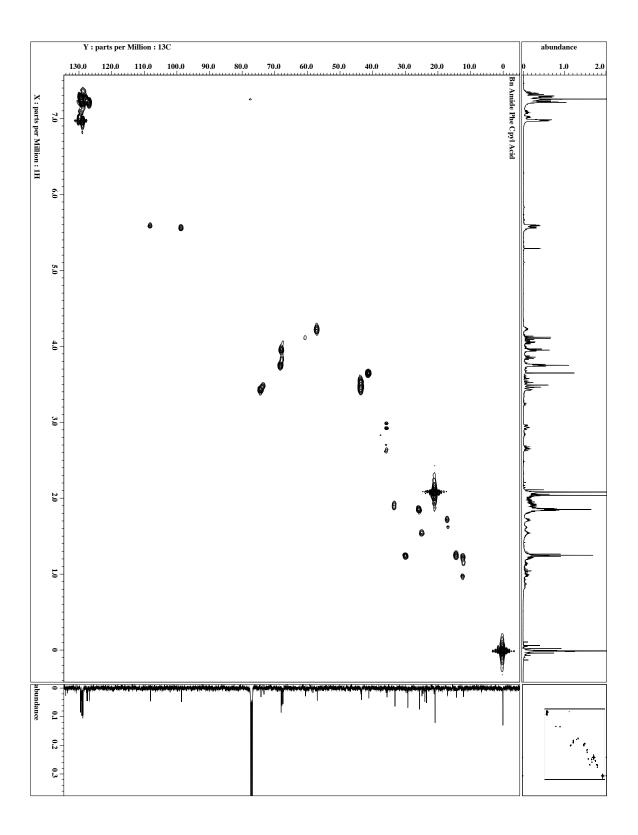
= 11.7473579[T] (500[MH = 0.83361792[s] = 13C = 13E.76529768[MHz] = 100[ppm] = 100[pfm]

= 1.19959034[Hz] = 39.3081761[kHz] = 1H = 500.15991521[MHz] = 5.0[ppm] = FALSE

400







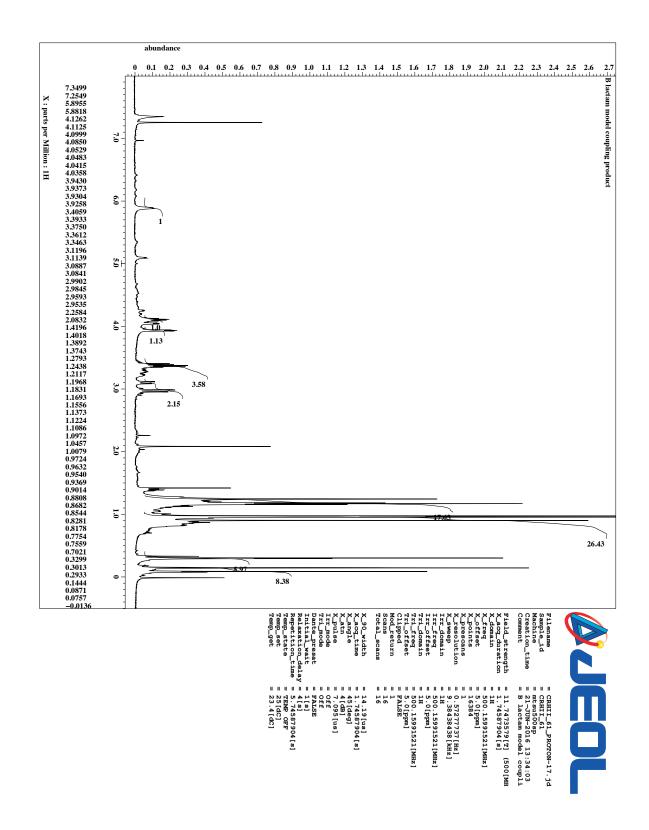
1-(tert-butyldimethylsilyl)-4-oxo-N-(propan-2-yl)azetidine-2-carboxamide (45)

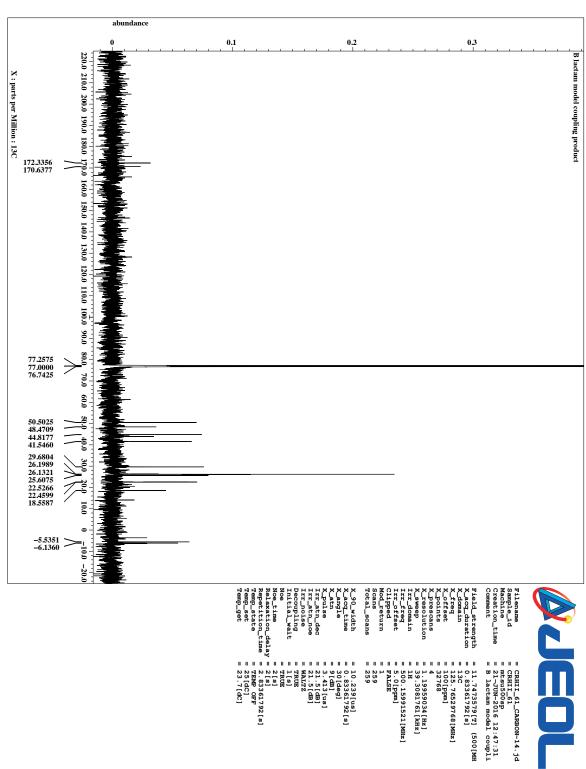
NMR

¹H-NMR (CDCl₃)

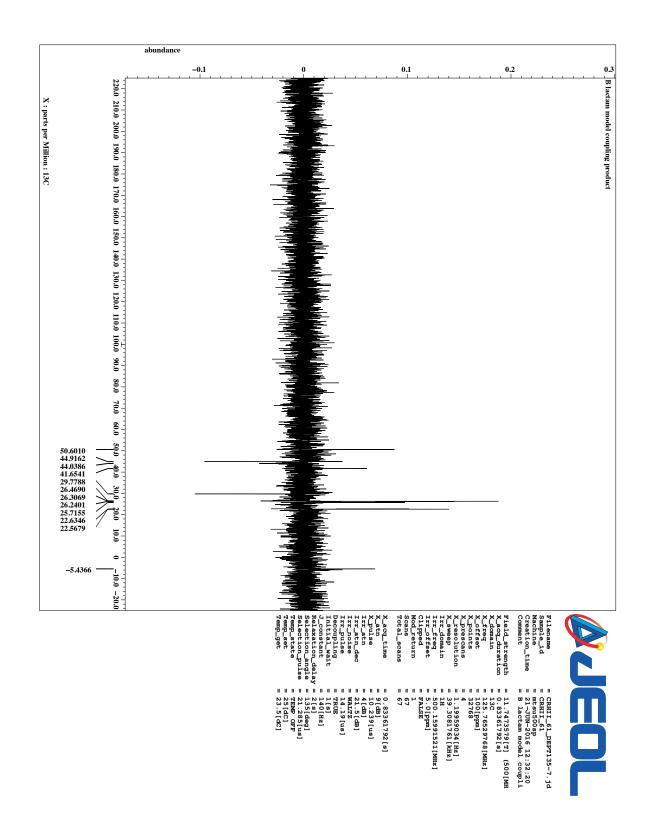
¹³C-NMR (CDCl₃)

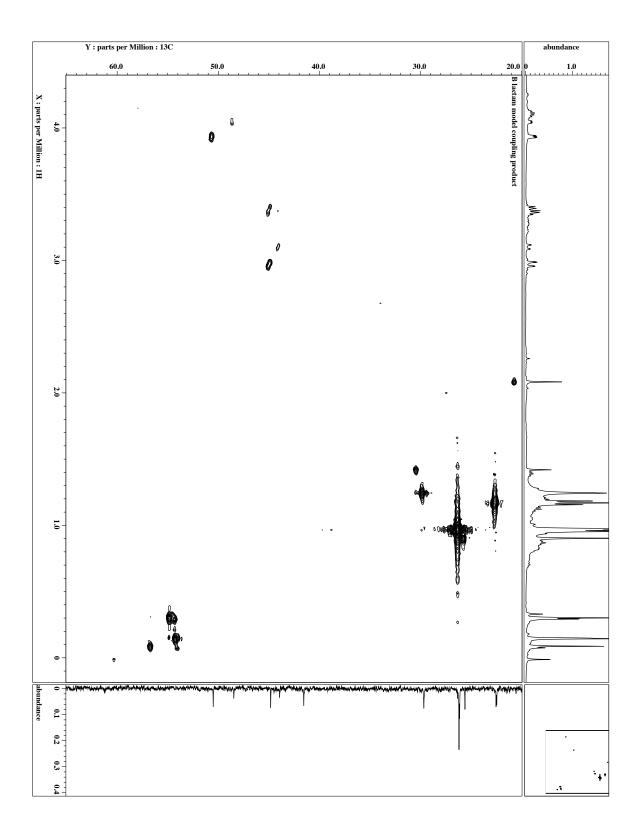
DEPT₁₃₅ (CDCl₃)











N-(2-oxoazetidin-3-yl)-2-phenylacetamide (47)

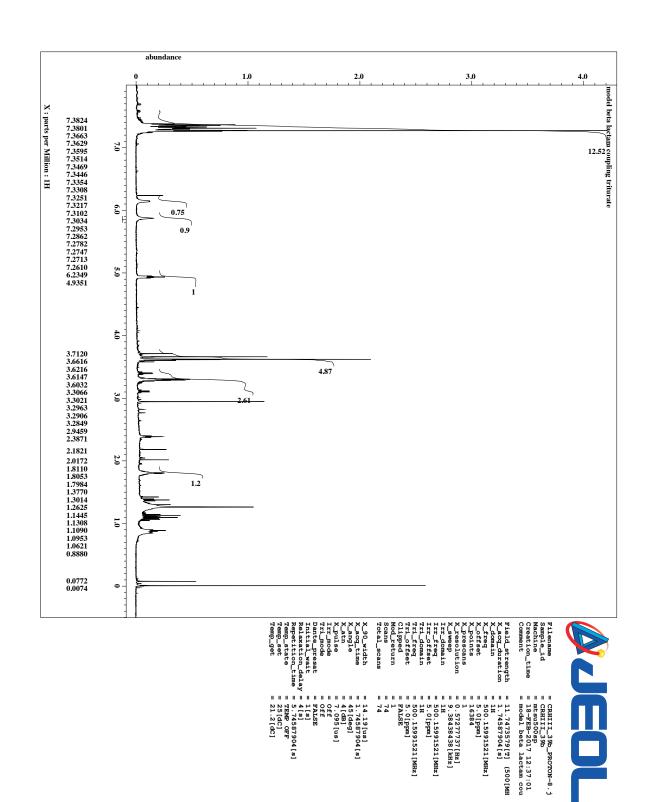
NMR

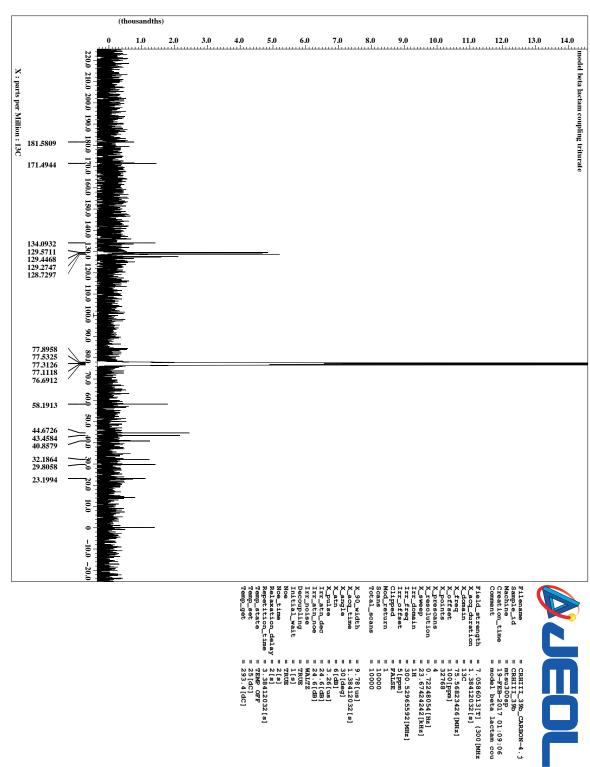
¹H-NMR (CDCl₃)

¹³C-NMR (CDCl₃)

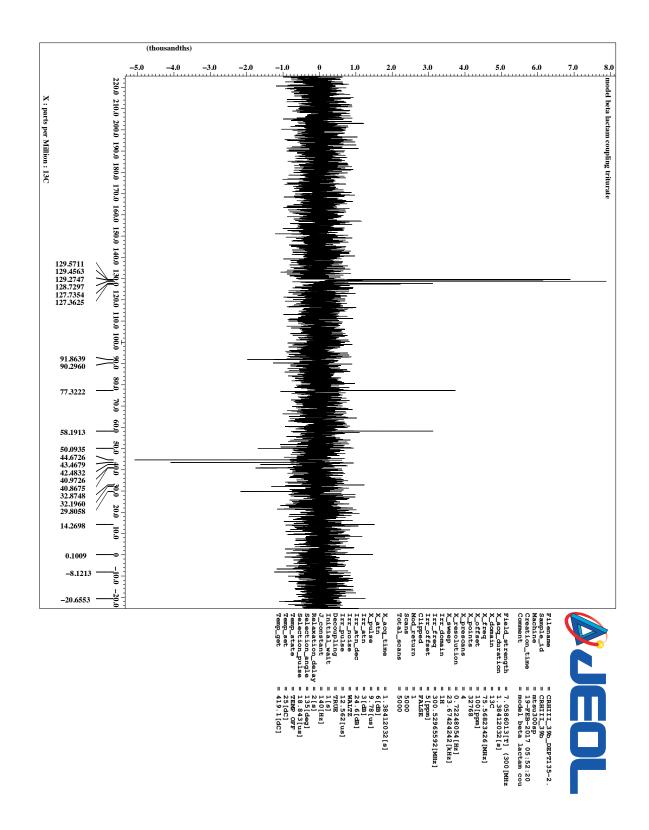
DEPT₁₃₅ (CDCl₃)

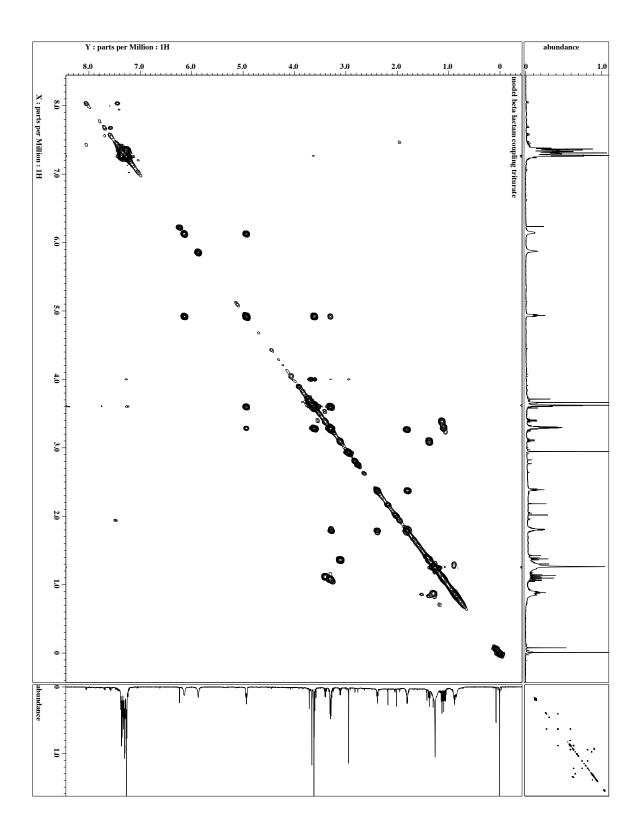
COSY (CDCl₃)











(2S)-2-[(Benzyloxy)carbamoyl]-2-{[(benzyloxy)carbonyl]amino}ethyl (2S)-2-{[(benzyloxy)carbonyl]amino}-3-hydroxypropanoate (53)

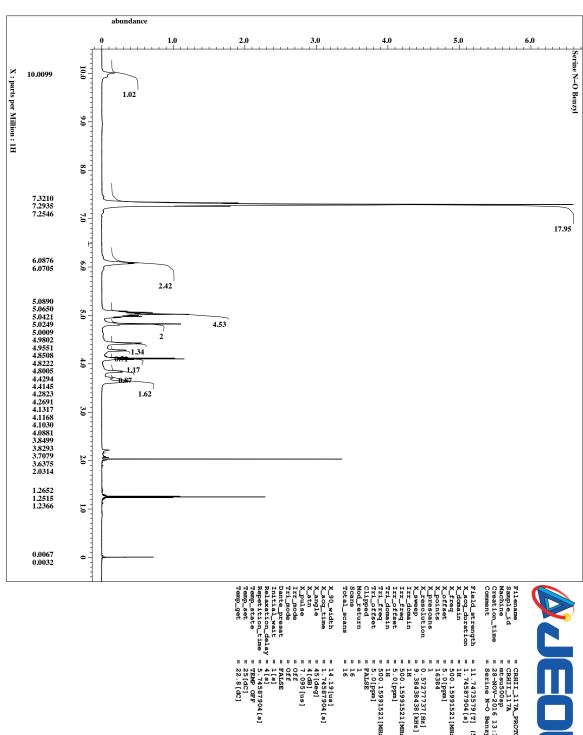
NMR

¹H-NMR (CDCl₃)

¹³C-NMR (CDCl₃)

DEPT₁₃₅ (CDCl₃)

COSY (CDCl₃)



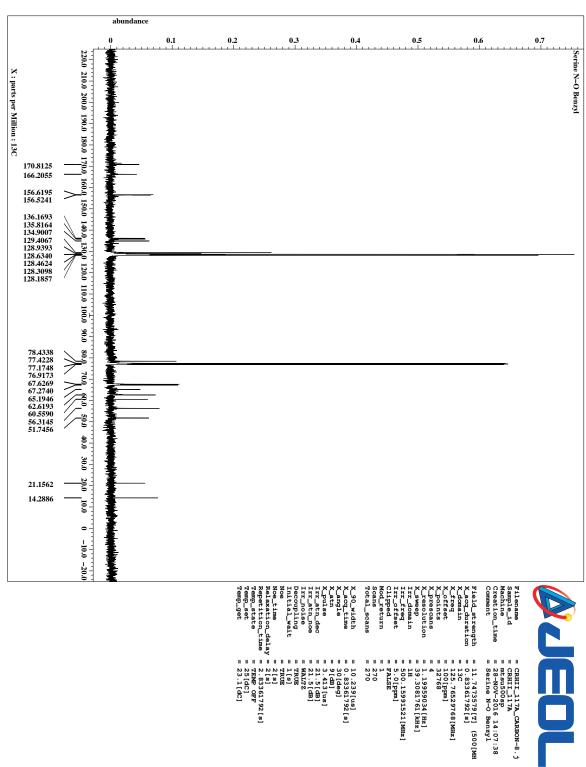


= 11.7473579[T] (500[MH = 1.74587904[s]

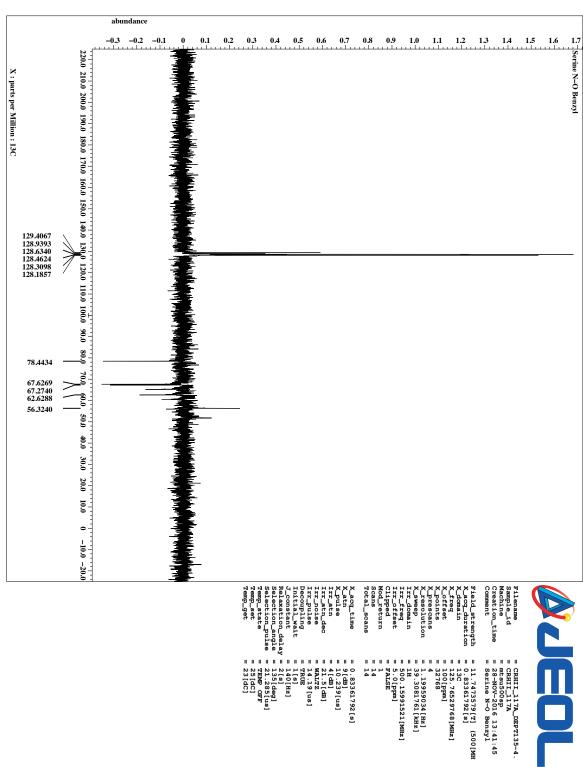
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= 1H = 500.15991521[MHz] = 5.0[ppm] = FALSE

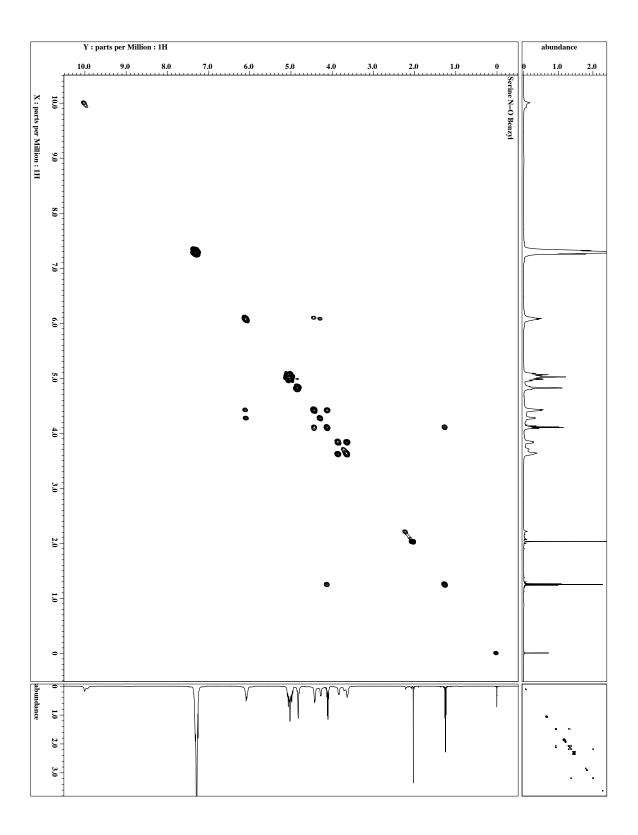
= 500.15991521[MHz] = 5.0[ppm] : 1H 0.57277737[Hz] 9.38438438[kHz]

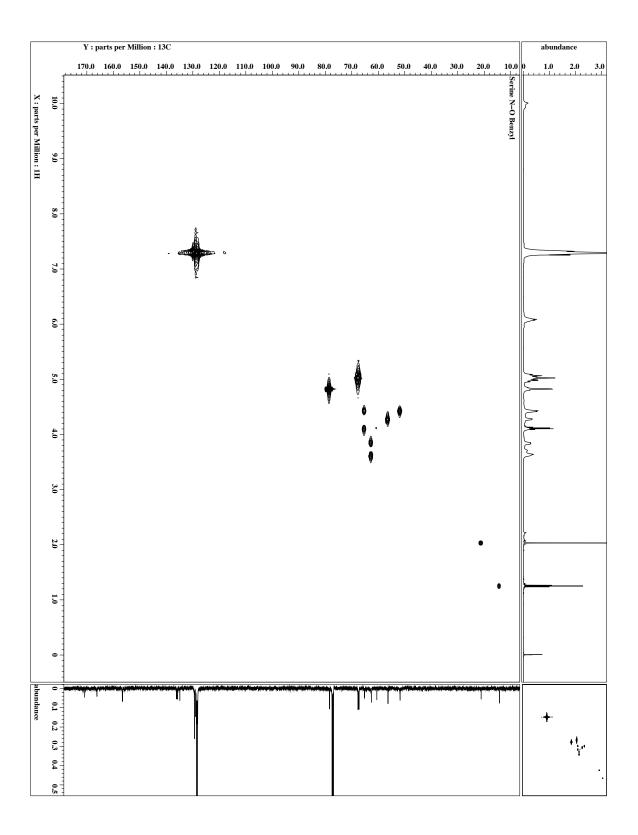










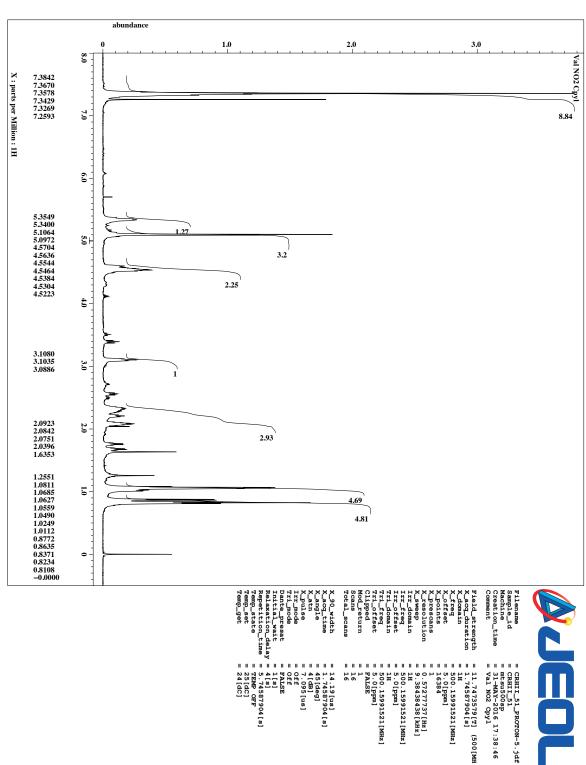


Benzyl N-[3-methyl-1-(2-nitrocyclopropyl)-1-oxobutan-2-yl]carbamate (55)

NMR

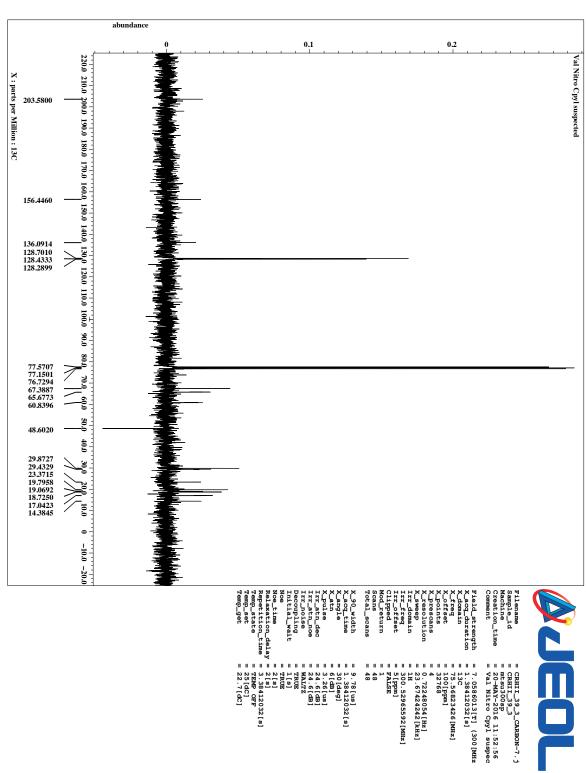
¹H-NMR (CDCl₃)

¹³C-NMR (CDCl₃)



- 14 = 500.15991521[MHz] = 5.0[ppm] = FALSE 500.15991521[MHz] 5.0[ppm] 1H 0.57277737[Hz] 9.38438438[kHz]







= 0.72248054[Hz] = 23.67424242[kHz] = 1H = 300.52965592[MHz] = 5[ppm] = FALSE

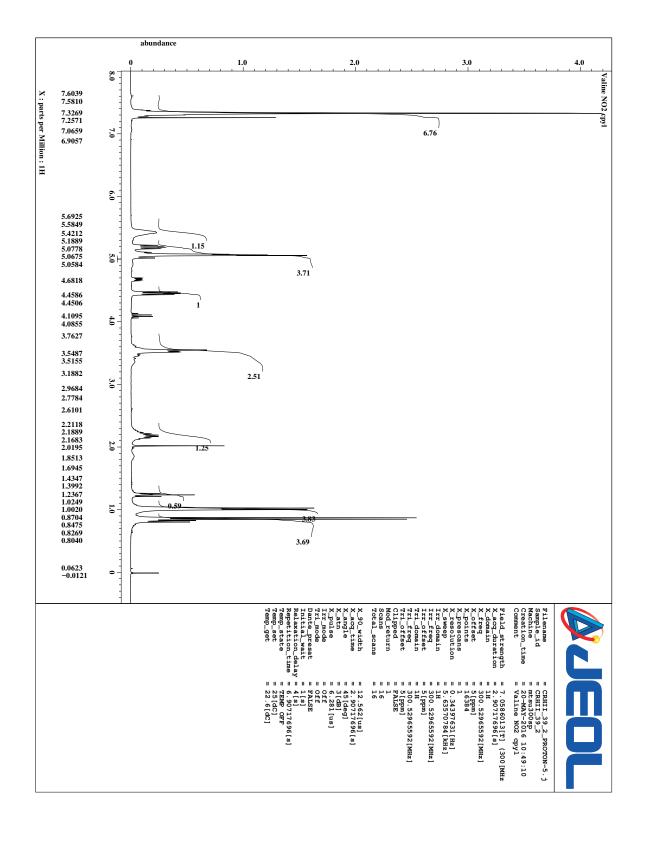
Benzyl N-[1-(2-bromo-2-nitrocyclopropyl)-3-methyl-1-oxobutan-2-yl]carbamate (56)

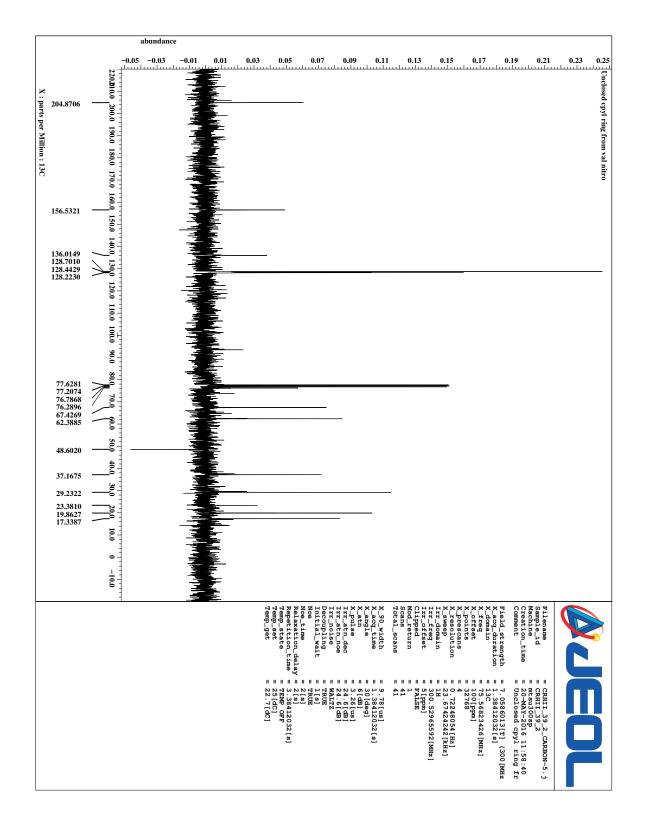
NMR

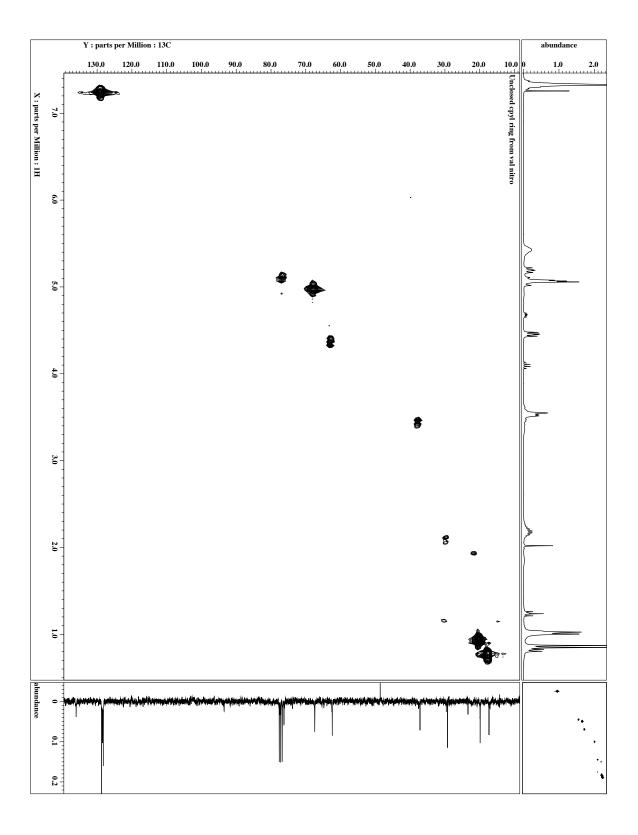
¹H-NMR (CDCl₃)

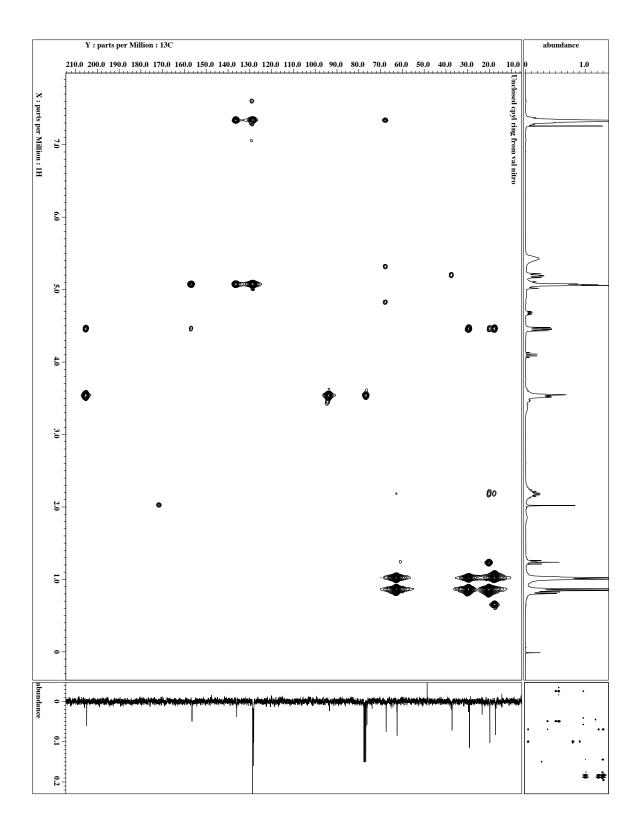
¹³C-NMR (CDCl₃)

HMQC (CDCl₃)









Benzyl N-[1-(2-bromo-2-nitrocyclopropyl)-1-hydroxy-3-methylbutan-2-yl]carbamate (57)

NMR

¹H-NMR (CDCl₃)

¹³C-NMR (CDCl₃)

DEPT₁₃₅ (CDCl₃)

COSY (CDCl₃)

HMQC (CDCl₃)

