"CLICK" CHEMISTRY

Olefins, spring-loaded electrophiles, and heteroatom connections are key elements in a fast, modular, process-driven approach to molecular discovery.

m.p. 140°C 17.4 g
85%

m.p. 122°C 22.5 g
85%

m.p. 142°C 8.5 g
97%

m.p. 186°C 16.7 g
82%

EtO₂C=CO₂Et H₂O, 70°C 97%

NaN₃, NH₄Cl, H₂O, reflux 97%

5.0 g 5.0 g
Click Chemistry: Diverse Chemical Function from a Few Good Reactions

Hartmuth C. Kolb, M. G. Finn, and K. Barry Sharpless*

Dedicated to Professor Daniel S. Kemp

Examination of nature’s favorite molecules reveals a striking preference for making carbon–heteroatom bonds over carbon–carbon bonds—surely no surprise given that carbon dioxide is nature’s starting material and that most reactions are performed in water. Nucleic acids, proteins, and polysaccharides are condensation polymers of small subunits stitched together by carbon–heteroatom bonds. Even the 35 or so building blocks from which these crucial molecules are made each contain, at most, six contiguous C–C bonds, except for the three aromatic amino acids. Taking our cue from nature’s approach, we address here the development of a set of powerful, highly reliable, and selective reactions for the rapid synthesis of useful new compounds and combinatorial libraries through heteroatom links (C–X–C), an approach we call “click chemistry”. Click chemistry is at once defined, enabled, and constrained by a handful of nearly perfect “spring-loaded” reactions. The stringent criteria for a process to earn click chemistry status are described along with examples of the molecular frameworks that are easily made using this Spartan, but powerful, synthetic strategy.

Keywords: combinatorial chemistry · drug research · synthesis design · water chemistry

1. Introduction:
Beyond the Paradigm of Carbonyl Chemistry

Life on Earth requires the construction of carbon–carbon bonds in an aqueous environment. Carbonyl (aldol) chemistry is nature’s primary engine of C–C bond formation. Not only do the requisite carbon electrophiles (carbonyls) and nucleophiles coexist in water, but water provides the perfect environment for proton shuttling among reactants, which is required for reversible carbonyl chemistry.

With CO₂ as the carbon source and a few good carbonyl chemistry based reaction themes, nature achieves astonishing structural and functional diversity. Carbonyl chemistry is used to make a modest collection of approximately 35 simple building blocks, which are then assembled into biopolymers. The enzymatic polymers serve, in concert with increments of energy provided by adenosine triphosphate, as selective catalysts which prevent nature’s carbonyl chemistry based syntheses from collapsing into chaos. Since many biosynthetic pathways require a unique enzyme for each step, the enzyme-control strategy required a heavy investment of time and resources for catalyst development. With a few billion years and a planet at her disposal, nature has had both time and resources to spare, but we, as chemists on a human timescale, do not.

Nevertheless, carbonyl-based reactions have always been profoundly appealing to students and practitioners of organic chemistry. It is our contention that organic synthesis conducted, as it has been, in imitation of nature’s carbonyl chemistry is ill-suited for the rapid discovery of new molecules with desired properties.

Many transformations that form “new” carbon–carbon bonds are endowed with only a modest thermodynamic driving force. In particular, equilibrium “aldol” reactions are often energetically favorable by less than 3 kcal mol⁻¹.[1] For these processes to reach completion in the laboratory, an additional “push” must be provided, often by application of Le Chatelier’s principle (for example, azeotropic removal of water), by coupling the desired process to an exothermic co-reaction (for example, a strong “base” + a strong “acid”), or by virtue of favorable entropic considerations (such as intramolecular ring closure) without enthalpic penalties (such as formation of strained rings). Thus, due in effect to the loss of one “equivalent” of ester, resonance stabilization, the first
step of the intermolecular Claisen condensation (for example, two molecules of ethyl acetate—ethyl acetoacetate—ethanol), is endothermic by approximately 11 kcal mol\(^{-1}\), but the next step—deprotonation of the \(\beta\)-ketoester to its enolate—is highly exothermic and drives the process to completion when a stoichiometric amount of the alkoxide base is provided. Approximately 30 years ago the development of \textit{kinetically controlled} enolate chemistry, enabled by even stronger bases like lithium disopropylamide, provided the ultimate form of this type of reaction control. Natural products of bewildering complexity are synthesized almost routinely in this manner by the elite practitioners of the art, so it is obviously a powerful strategy, and the best work in this area is fascinating to study as a rich source of new insights into factors which affect chemical reactivity. However, as discussed below, we believe that this approach ultimately pulls organic synthesis in troubling directions, the most insidious problem being the complexity engendered by the need for global protection and deprotection of protic functional groups.

“The most fundamental and lasting objective of synthesis is not production of new compounds, but production of properties.”
George S. Hammond, Norris Award Lecture, 1968

If useful properties are our goal—for example, better pharmaceuticals—then the use of complicated synthetic strategies is justified only if they provide the best way to achieve those properties. The bioactive natural products that have most intrigued synthetic organic chemists have frameworks which are difficult to construct largely because there are too many contiguous carbon–carbon bonds. However, these are not the only kinds of molecules that can have useful biological effects. The long and admirable history of natural products synthesis, culminating as it has in the protection-laden schemes of kinetic carbonyl chemistry, perhaps blinds us to the possibility of developing synthetic strategies that enable much more rapid discovery and production of molecules with a desired profile of properties.

K. Barry Sharpless and his coworkers have discovered and developed many widely used catalytic oxidation processes, including the first general methods for stereoselective oxidation—the Sharpless reactions for asymmetric epoxidation, dihydroxylation, and aminohydroxylation of olefins. His mentors at Dartmouth College (BA in 1963), Stanford University (PhD in 1968 and postdoctoral research), and Harvard University (further postdoctoral research) were Prof. T. A. Spencer, Prof. E. E. van Tamelen, Prof. J. P. Collman, and Prof. K. Bloch, respectively. Before 1990, when he became W. M. Keck Professor of Chemistry at The Scripps Research Institute, Prof. Sharpless was a member of faculty at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (1970 – 77, 1980 – 90) and Stanford University (1977 – 80). Prof. Sharpless’s honors include the Chemical Sciences Award of the National Academy of Sciences (of which he is a member), the Roger Adams and Arthur C. Cope Awards from the American Chemical Society, the Tetrahedron Award, the King Faisal Prize, the Prelog Medal, the Wolf Prize, and honorary doctorates from five American and European universities. The Sharpless research group continues to search for new homogeneous oxidation catalysts and for transition metal catalyzed asymmetric processes.

M. G. Finn received his PhD degree from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, working with Prof. K. B. Sharpless. This was followed by an NIH postdoctoral fellowship with Prof. J. P. Collman at Stanford University. He joined the faculty of the University of Virginia in 1988, and moved to his present position on the faculty of the Department of Chemistry and The Skaggs Institute for Chemical Biology at The Scripps Research Institute in 1998. His group has studied the reactivity of Fischer carbene complexes, metal-substituted phosphorus ylides, and a variety of transition metal catalyzed processes. His current interests include methods for combinatorial catalyst discovery and the use of viruses as molecular building blocks.

Hartmuth Kolb received his PhD in synthetic organic chemistry under the supervision of Prof. S. V. Ley at Imperial College in London. After two years of postdoctoral study with Prof. K. B. Sharpless at The Scripps Research Institute, he joined the Central Research Laboratories of Ciba – Geigy in Basel. Four years later, he moved to Princeton, New Jersey, to join the Coelacanth Corporation, a high-performance chemistry company founded by K. B. Sharpless and A. Bader. Currently, he is Vice President of Chemistry at the Coelacanth Corporation. His research interests include natural product and carbohydrate synthesis, investigation of reaction mechanisms, molecular modeling, medicinal chemistry, process chemistry, and combinatorial chemistry.
2. A “Process Chemistry” Point of View

The molecules produced by living systems have always fascinated and inspired synthetic organic chemists. As our skills and tools have advanced, the compounds chosen for synthesis have become ever more challenging. So it is no surprise that today’s favorite targets are found among the most diabolically complex natural substances ever discovered—the various secondary metabolites produced by plants and microorganisms for self-defense. No expense or effort is spared to synthesize even minute quantities of these extraordinary molecules.[2, 3]

The pharmaceutical industry, a direct scion of natural products chemistry,[4] has not been put off by difficult syntheses and many compounds being explored today as drug candidates represent substantial synthetic challenges.[5] While it sharpens the skill and fraternal esteem of the research team, implicit in the decision to pursue a complex drug target is the acceptance of enormous constraints on the scope of the structure space to be explored. When natural products are the models, it usually takes so long to synthesize analogues in a given series that even the most ambitious exploratory efforts, viewed objectively, are often superficial. The process of probing structure–activity relationships (SAR) in these situations has a perverse tendency to discover the “best” candidates in difficult synthetic territory, near the outer limits of “accessibility.” Difficult syntheses also tend to arise when trying to reach patentable structural territory after original discoveries have been made by a competitor.

The time required for SAR probing and then synthesis of enough of the better compounds for pharmacokinetic and toxicity profiling is staggering, and goes a long way toward explaining why this phase of pharmaceutical research takes so long. And yet, buoyed by the eventual success in obtaining complex target structures, discovery chemists and top executives alike display little concern for issues of synthetic accessibility. Ignored is the fact that any lead or development series that supply problems risks inadequate SAR conclusions and development decisions. The story of the carbapenem antibiotic thienamycin[6–8] is illustrative: it required six years of superb effort by several research groups in both industry and academia to develop the final therapeutic agent (meropenem,[9] a derivative of thienamycin) after the initial synthesis of thienamycin was published.[10] The AIDS protease inhibitor Crizivian (indinavir) provides a more recent example—a very difficult synthesis at nearly commodity-chemical scale.[10]

Only at the end are issues of process development considered, and synthesis on production scale is often expensive. Nevertheless, the prospect of a blockbuster drug is such a powerful motivator for a synthesis team that the job nearly always gets done. The crucial point is that the cost which complex synthesis adds to the final drug, while substantial, is insignificant compared to all the “hidden” costs imposed on the speed and quality of the discovery/development phase by this same complex style of synthesis. In other words, the way organic synthesis is done has pervasive effects on the entire process of drug discovery, development, and manufacture. If a more modular, faster style of synthesis were to prove effective, lower manufacturing costs should be the least of its benefits. Lead structures should not be synthetically “precious,” and one should be able to jump easily from one series to another. As it is now, most discovery endeavors suffer from being too invested in structure, when function is what is sought.

Consider how nature synthesizes her most important molecules, the primary metabolites. While the aforementioned secondary metabolites have extensive networks of contiguous carbon–carbon bonds, and have claimed the lion’s share of synthetic organic chemists’ attention, it is reversible condensation processes involving carbon–heteroatom connections that are used to assemble polynucleotides, polypeptides, and polysaccharides—the three families of macromolecules that are central to life processes. By embracing the strategy of making large oligomers from small building blocks, nature is also a consummate combinatorial chemist[11] and achieves astonishing diversity from less than 40 monomers. These building blocks contain at most six contiguous C–C bonds, with the exception of the three aromatic amino acids. Thus, nature is a promiscuous creator of carbon–heteroatom connections, choosing this method to encode and express information.

Nature’s ability to create and control biomolecular diversity is largely dependent on the exquisitely selective catalysts she deploys. Our devices for managing reactivity and selectivity are much less sophisticated, particularly with respect to C–C
bond formation. Therefore, the chemist who plans a synthesis that requires the construction of C–C bonds that are not present or latent (for example, CH–CX + base → C=C) in the available starting materials is asking for trouble, particularly if such a synthesis must be reliable for a number of substrates (as for combinatorial searches or SAR studies) or applicable to practical, large-scale production. Problems are less likely if one only needs to unite, functionalize, and/or reorganize starting materials and intermediates in ways which do not require de novo C–C bond construction. If such “new” C–C bonds are required, it is best to make them intramolecularly,[12] but it is better still to leave the really tough C–C bond synthesis to nature.[13]

There is, however, still plenty of room for discovery: Guida and co-workers have estimated the pool of “reasonable” drug candidates (≤ 30 non-hydrogen atoms; ≤ 500 daltons; consisting of only H, C, N, O, P, S, F, Cl, and Br; likely to be stable at ambient temperature in the presence of water and oxygen) at between 10^{20} and 10^{30} discrete molecules.[14] With this kind of structure space available,[15] we contend that it makes little sense to search in hard-to-reach places for a desired function. Instead, we present here synthetic methods for drug discovery that adhere to one rule: all searches must be restricted to molecules that are easy to make. We hope to convince the reader that a wide diversity of interesting molecules can be easily made, and that the chances for achieving desirable biological activity are at least as good with such compounds as with the traditional target structures now favored by medicinal chemists.

2.1. “Click Chemistry”

Following nature’s lead, we endeavor to generate substances by joining small units together with heteroatom links (C–X–C). The goal is to develop an expanding set of powerful, selective, and modular “blocks” that work reliably in both small- and large-scale applications. We have termed the foundation of this approach “click chemistry,” and have defined a set of stringent criteria that a process must meet to be useful in this context. The reaction must be modular, wide in scope, give very high yields, generate only inoffensive byproducts that can be removed by nonchromatographic methods, and be stereospecific (but not necessarily enantioselective). The required process characteristics include simple reaction conditions (ideally, the process should be insensitive to oxygen and water), readily available starting materials and reagents, the use of no solvent or a solvent that is benign (such as water) or easily removed, and simple product isolation. Purification—if required—must be by nonchromatographic methods, such as crystallization or distillation, and the product must be stable under physiological conditions.

It is important to recognize that click reactions achieve their required characteristics by having a high thermodynamic driving force, usually greater than 20 kcal mol$^{-1}$. Such processes proceed rapidly to completion and also tend to be highly selective for a single product: we think of these reactions as being “spring-loaded” for a single trajectory. Carbon–heteroatom bond forming reactions comprise the most common examples, including the following classes of chemical transformations:

- cycloadditions of unsaturated species, especially 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition reactions, but also the Diels–Alder family of transformations;
- nucleophilic substitution chemistry, particularly ring-opening reactions of strained heterocyclic electrophiles such as epoxides, aziridines, aziridinium ions, and episolium ions;
- carbonyl chemistry of the “non-aldol” type, such as formation of ureas, thioureas, aromatic heterocycles, oxime ethers, hydrazones, and amides; and
- additions to carbon–carbon multiple bonds, especially oxidative cases such as epoxidation, dihydroxylation, aziridination, and sulfenyl halide addition, but also Michael additions of Nu–H reactants.

2.2. Olefin-Based Organic Synthesis

Consider, as a counterpoint to the pharmaceutical industry, the world of petrochemicals and the materials it has spawned (textiles, resins, plastics, etc.). The petrochemist’s starting materials are “gifts” prepared by the carbonyl-based syntheses of ancient organisms: in fossil oils are stored the energy of CO$_2$-based photosynthesis, and, more importantly, countless carbon–carbon bonds. However, natural petroleum, being almost completely saturated, is useless for most organic synthesis needs. The petroleum industry is therefore based upon the manipulation of C–C bond “currency”, which entails exchanging C–C α bonds for new C–C π bonds by “cracking”, and creating new C–C π bonds at the expense of C–H bonds by “reforming”. The products of these processes are a small number of reactive monomers, which are then assembled, with a battery of selective catalysts, into myriad useful materials. Thus, the manufacture of petrochemical products, based as it is on a modular, and supremely efficient, synthetic strategy, makes the energy expended on “upgrading” saturated hydrocarbons to olefins seem insignificant.

In a general sense, life chemistry and petrochemistry have evolved identical strategies for the synthesis of substances with diverse functions/properties: modular assembly of specially synthesized monomers under the control of selective catalysts. That one depends on reversible carbonyl chemistry and the other on irreversible olefin chemistry should not obscure the striking similarity at the heart of the two approaches. We are denied the ability to realistically imitate nature’s modular carbonyl-based synthesis style (see above), so the modular olefin-based style given to us by the petroleum chemist is the model we choose to follow.[16] The concept of the C–C bond as a unit of “currency” is central to an appreciation of the value of click chemistry in organic synthesis. Scheme 1 depicts examples of how the currency can be exchanged. The bookkeeping device to keep track of the “total C–C bond count” is often, but not necessarily, connected to demonstrable interconversions. Starting with n-octane, the total C–C bond count remains constant at seven regardless of the number of transformations of a saturated C=C bond into a C=C π bond, for example, C$^1$–C$^2$–C$^3$=H → C$^3$–H+ C$^1$=C$^2$. Such a transformation is of
course endothermic, but becomes favorable at high temperatures, thanks to a substantial positive entropy term. The petrochemical industry practices “steam cracking” (a gas-phase process at approximately 850 °C) on enormous scales, to make available a family of inexpensive olefins. The newly created C–C \( \pi \) bonds are highly reactive, having about 22–25 kcal mol\(^{-1}\) greater free energy content\(^{[17]}\) than a C–C \( \sigma \) bond; in effect, the energy expended in “cracking” is partly captured/stored in the C–C linkage. This becomes apparent in processes such as the Diels–Alder reaction and hydroformylation, which gain \( \sigma \) links by reorganizing \( \pi \) C–C links, again without altering the total C–C bond count. Olefin metathesis provides an extraordinarily facile way to redistribute C=C links for further manipulation. (Acetylene links (counting as 3C–C bonds), with two unstable \( \pi \) bonds, are even better than olefins for driving a host of useful \( \pi \)-carbon – carbon bond reorganizations.) Many such processes are highly reliable precisely because no “new” C–C bonds are created; all are nascent in the reactant’s \( \pi \) bonds.

Olefins are the most attractive starting materials available to the synthetic chemist, readily accessible in large quantities and in many varieties, especially if one includes the naturally abundant terpenes. The simplest are the handful of C\(_1\)–C\(_8\) blocks shown in Scheme 2. Produced by the petrochemical industry on a massive scale, they are the ultimate starting materials for 90% by weight of all useful man-made organic compounds.\(^{[18]}\) The Wilke cyclooligomerizations of butadiene to cyclooctadiene and cyclododecatriene are perfect examples of processes that further expand the core olefin structures available to us at modest cost.\(^{[19]}\) The \( \pi \) bonds of butadiene are reorganized effortlessly by the catalyst, to regio- and stereo-selectively create sophisticated new carbon skeletons while leaving behind one olefinic linkage per butadiene monomer for the “decoration” steps to follow. Thus, between natural olefin sources (terpenes, fatty acids,\(^{[20]}\) etc.) and “reworked” natural hydrocarbons (olefins derived from petroleum) we have been richly endowed by living systems with a diverse olefinic starting material platform. It would be fitting if we could devise short sequences for assembling these “gift” olefins into new substances with beneficial biological functions.

The importance of olefins is dramatically enhanced by their role as progenitors of still higher energy intermediates, such as epoxides, aziridines, episulfonium ions, and aziridinium ions—all nearly perfect for click chemistry transformations (Scheme 3). This sequence of oxidative creation/nucleophilic quenching of reactive electrophiles is what most enables the crucial block ligation steps at the heart of click chemistry.

Thus, the chemistry of olefins provides for the creation of diverse scaffolds and the attachment and display of myriad functionality through oxidative addition of heteroatoms to specifically placed olefinic sites.\(^{[21]}\) The robust nature of these reactions is predicated on the irreversible progression from systems of high energy to systems of lower energy in a stepwise fashion. Each step has a high driving force, the *sine qua non* condition of click chemistry, which enables reliable *intermolecular* connections to be established.

Carbonyl compounds, by contrast, are quite stable thermodynamically relative to olefins and even relative to their hydrocarbon progenitors. Hence, their repertoire of click chemistry transformations is limited. Among the few general and highly reliable reactions starting from aldehydes and ketones are their *imine-forming condensations* to give oximes and hydrazones, and particularly to generate aromatic heterocycles (see below). Also noteworthy, are the few *intermolecular* carbonyl-based new C–C bond forming reactions which approach perfection (Scheme 4): 1) hydroxymethylation and
aminomethylation reactions using formaldehyde, the least stable carbonyl representative, and 2) HCN additions to carbonyl compounds, driven by the great stability of the resulting cyanohydrin unit (primarily due to the nitrile group’s attachment through an sp-hybridized bond, made even stronger by a substantial dipolar contribution). Another excellent carbonyl-based process for intermolecular C–C bond formation is the Michael reaction, an exception which proves the rule, since no new C–C bond is created. Its >20 kcal mol⁻¹ driving force is provided by the C=C bond which is consumed in the H–Nu addition step.

Since click chemistry is intended to provide a foundation for the rapid assembly of new and pure molecular entities, stereochemistry is important. The ideal click reactions are based on stereospecific processes, but absolute stereochemistry need not be so stringently controlled. In any case, when only one stereogenic element is involved, generation of the racemate for initial biological screening will be preferred. Even when two stereogenic elements are united or created in a ligation step, it should be advantageous to test the racemic mixtures of two or three diastereomers in the first pass at a biological target.[22] With the accelerating development of improved analytical and separation techniques for deconvolution of complicated mixtures,[23] even greater relaxation of stereochemical restrictions on assembly reactions will be feasible in the near future.

Nature achieves highly specific syntheses of complex substances by the uniquely selective action of enzyme catalysts. However, the success of a desired click chemistry sequence requires that virtually all of the control elements and the enabling “energy packets” be present in the reactive components. At first, this plan may sound fanciful—how could any but the most trivial set of reactive components be “self-contained” regarding the instructions and potential energy needed to direct a reaction cascade to a unique synthetic endpoint? Happily, we are finding that this goal is not so difficult, provided one plans carefully and, above all, uses only the handful of “perfect” reactions for the crucial intermolecular block ligation steps.

2.3. Click Chemistry in Water

Over the past two years, we have found that many of the reactions that meet click chemistry standards often proceed better in water than in an organic solvent. This is a natural outcome of one or more of the following five factors.

1) Click reactions often proceed readily in hot water, to give a single product, even when one or more of the reactants, as well as the product, appear to be insoluble in this medium. The fact that reactions between organic species in aqueous solution can have higher apparent rate constants than the same processes in organic media has been observed and exploited by a number of laboratories.[24] Among the many explanations offered for such phenomena, we call particular attention to the notion that the free energies of organic molecules are substantially greater when poorly solvated in water, and often impart increased reactivity, which compensates for the low concentration of the participants.[25]

2) Nucleophile additions to epoxide[26] (“homocarbonyl”) and aziridine (“homoimine”) electrophiles (as well as aziridinium and episulfonium ions) are favored by solvents best able to respond continuously to the demanding range of hydrogen-bonding situations that arise during these processes. In this respect, water is unique, and for the same reasons, it is the perfect milieu for reversible carbonyl chemistry.

3) Two important subsets of olefin and acetylene click reactions are oxidations by electrophilic reagents and cycloaddition reactions. These processes are either concerted or involve polarizable nucleophiles/electrophiles, so that water is not an interfering medium.[27] More generally, it should be appreciated that the use of water offers the greatest leverage for differentiating the reactivities of competing “hard” (nonpolarizable) and “soft” (polarizable) species.

4) A highly favorable reaction of two solutes (say at 0.1 M concentration) is usually much faster than a low driving force side-reaction of one of the solutes with solvent water (55 M).[28] The Schotten–Baumann method for making amides from acyl or sulfonyl halides in water is a well-known example [Eq. (1)][29]

\[
\begin{align*}
R^1\text{Cl} + \text{H}^+ + \text{H}_2\text{O} &\rightarrow R^1\text{Cl} + \text{H}^+ + \text{H}_2\text{O} \\
\text{NaOH} &\rightarrow \text{NaOH} \\
\text{H}_2\text{O} &\rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} \\
R^3^+ &\rightarrow R^3^+ \\
O^+ &\rightarrow O^+ \\
\end{align*}
\]

5) Water is a superb heat sink, due to its high heat capacity, and has a convenient boiling temperature; both are useful for large-scale processes. Water is usually regarded as an ideal solvent in terms of its environmental impact and low cost. A benefit which is little appreciated but has enormous consequences is that most hydroxy O–H and amide N–H groups will not interfere with click reactions performed in water. As a consequence, the installation and removal of protecting groups is avoided—probably the best single reason for adopting this style of synthesis. Indeed, we view many of the best reactions for installing “protecting groups” as good click reactions in their own right (see Section 3.3).

These considerations highlight the fact that, although click reaction components are necessarily highly reactive, their chemoselectivity profiles are quite narrowly defined, that is, “orthogonal” to an unusually broad range of reagents,
solvents, and other functional groups. This attribute allows for reliable and clean sequential transformations of broad scope.[30] For example, opening epoxide or aziridine rings by “HN3” installs a highly reactive “sticky spot” for [3+2] cycloaddition with alkynes, but one that is “invisible” to most other functional groups.

The types of reactions, and especially reaction conditions, that fall into the click chemistry category were more common in the organic literature of 50 to 100 years ago.[31] Few solvents were used then, and heat was the preferred way to speed up reactions. The dearth of available purification techniques meant that processes were chosen for their reliability in giving a single isolable product. Without seeking to collect an exhaustive list of click or click-like reactions,[31] an attempt is made here to illustrate the scope of this approach with a number of representative examples taken both from the literature and from our own work. We focus on nucleophilic openings of the reactive small-ring species readily made by oxidative addition of heteroatoms to olefins, and on concerted cycloadditions and carbonyl/imine condensation reactions to aromatic heterocycles.

2.4. Comments on “Solid-Phase” Synthesis

We are proposing here the use of click reactions in combinatorial style to generate molecules of highly diverse structure and function. Much of the enormous effort in library synthesis currently pursued in academic and industrial laboratories makes use of polymeric supports for the stepwise construction of products.[32] In our view, solid-phase organic synthesis is popular precisely because it allows reactions that fall short of “click” status to be employed as click reactions—that is, in situations where extremely high yields and simple purification procedures are required. These attributes are achieved by using a large excess of the reactants in the mobile phase. While this approach has been very effective for the synthesis of large libraries, the final products tend to be too lipophilic to probe the full range of biological interactions. The hydrophobic character of these collections may, in part, be due to the absence of “bystander” protic functional groups, which tend to be omitted, intentionally or otherwise, to avoid extra protection/deprotection steps.

Most importantly, the solid-phase approach is ill-suited to “process-driven” discovery: it is very expensive and highly wasteful of reagents and solvents; it is difficult to make large amounts of products, and when such large-scale syntheses are attempted, the yield per unit volume is poor; intermediates bound to polymeric supports are difficult to analyze directly by standard spectrometric methods; and another layer of chemical technology—the installation and cleavage of a “linker”—is required. In other words, since solid-phase combinatorial approaches to the discovery of biologically active compounds ignore most of the issues that constrain practical organic syntheses, the most likely outcome is a trend toward drugs that are even harder to manufacture.

2.5. Creation of Modules by Oxidative Addition of Heteroatoms to Olefins

The potential of olefins for generating diversity is unlocked by their oxidative functionalization. Much of our effort for the past three decades has centered on this goal, and a useful set of reliable transformations has emerged from a number of laboratories including our own. The broad scope and high yields of many olefin oxidation processes, and the fact that olefins are the primary organic starting materials, render these reactions the most fundamental enablers of click chemistry. The oxidation step generates highly reactive, yet stable intermediates such as epoxides and aziridines. Both the oxidations to the intermediates and their subsequent fusion with nucleophiles are stereospecific, and thus very predictable; Table 1 shows the processes we use most often. Most of the oxidation steps depend on the oxidation step; catalysis for which efficient enantioselective versions are well established.

A nearly ideal case is our recent discovery of a class of olefins that exhibits unique reactivity in osmium-catalyzed aminohydroxylation and dihydroxylation reactions performed in water or water/organic mixtures. Unlike most olefins, these special substrate classes undergo rapid and nearly quantitative aminohydroxylation, with very low catalyst loading, in the absence of cinchona alkaloid ligands, and with only one equivalent of the haloamine salt. Moreover, the reactions can be conducted at molar concentrations in substrate, whereas the standard asymmetric aminohydroxylation process is best performed at ≤0.1 molar concentration. Among the substrates that exhibit this type of enhanced reactivity are α,β-unsaturated acids and amides; Scheme 5 gives five examples.[40]

3. Click Chemistry Reaction Types

Below appears a description of the three most useful click reactions presently in use in our laboratory. The best are pure

Table 1. Processes used to create oxidized electrophiles or their precursors from olefins[33–39]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Oxidation Method</th>
<th>Additional Information</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>racemic</td>
<td>Tc(NaCl)</td>
<td>cat. MeReO₃, H₂O₂, pyridine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asymmetric</td>
<td>PhNMe₃·Br⁺</td>
<td>cat. OsO₄, cooxidant, cat. OsO₄, cooxidant, cinchona alkaloid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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[a] Ts = tosyl = toluene-4-sulfonyl. [b] H₂salen = N,N'-bis(salicylidene)ethylenediamine.
fusion processes, which means that the combined formulae of the reactants equals the formula of the product. They can be divided into two classes: those in which protons must be shuffled about (epoxide ring opening, for example) and those in which no $\sigma$-bond connections are severed (cycloaddition reactions, the most useful and reliable being the Huisgen dipolar cycloadditions). The former tend to benefit dramatically from an aqueous environment, while the latter reveal little solvent dependence and are better overall in their adherence to click chemistry ideals. Indeed, the azide + acetylene $\rightarrow$ triazole version of Huisgen’s [2 + 3] cycloaddition family of processes is about as good as a reaction can get. Nevertheless, it is the “less ideal” epoxide and aziridine opening processes which are the workhorses for installing, often in the penultimate step of a block synthesis, the azide or alkyne moieties.

3.1. Nucleophilic Opening of Spring-Loaded Rings

The four types of primary olefin oxidation products shown in Table 1 are themselves high-energy species or may be readily converted into such intermediates. The $S_{\beta}$,2 ring-opening reactions of these molecules—epoxides, aziridines, cyclic sulfates, cyclic sulfamidates, aziridinium ions, and episulfonium ions—are reliable, stereospecific, often highly regioselective, and nearly quantitative—all in all, surpassingly useful (Scheme 6). We focus here on the chemistry of three-membered ring heterocyclic electrophiles.

The paramount advantage of nucleophilic openings of three-membered rings is that competing elimination processes are stereoinducedly disfavored which results in high yields and easy product isolation. All of the ring opening reactions shown in Scheme 6 are fusion events, and most can be performed in the absence of solvents or in water, alcohol, or water/alcohol mixtures. In a number of cases, the regioselectivity can be controlled by the choice of solvent, a perfect example being the reaction of cis-cyclohexadiene diepoxide 1 with amines (Scheme 7). In the absence of solvents, the bis-epoxide reacts with amines to give the amino alcohol 2, in which the entering nucleophiles are 1,3-related. When protic solvents are added, the same reactants give regioisomer 3, with the entering nucleophiles in the 1,4-relationship.

Aziridines, the aza analogues of epoxides, are readily prepared by direct aziridination of olefins by manipulation of the reaction conditions.
of epoxides\textsuperscript{[49]} or amino alcohols\textsuperscript{[50]} and by haloazidation of olefins followed by reductive cyclization.\textsuperscript{[51]} Through variation of the substituent on the ring nitrogen, aziridines enable much greater product diversity than epoxides. Their ring-opening reactivities can be modulated over an enormous range\textsuperscript{[52]} and, most importantly, the nitrogen substituent and the nature of the solvent can be used to control the regioselectivity of ring opening in unsymmetrical cases.\textsuperscript{[53]} The example in Scheme 8 from Stamm and co-workers reveals just how dramatic the effect of the nitrogen substituent can be.\textsuperscript{[54]} Effects deriving from the tendency of sulfonamides to be pyramidal at nitrogen and amides to be planar cause N-sulfonyl aziridines usually to furnish the regioisomer derived from attack of the nucleophile at the sterically least hindered center, while N-acyl aziridines favor the opposite regioisomer.\textsuperscript{[55]} Thus, aziridines have even more potential than epoxides from the standpoint of click chemistry applications.\textsuperscript{[55]}

While N–H and N–alkyl aziridines are perfectly stable under basic conditions, we and others have found that they can be readily opened, particularly by heteroatom nucleophiles, under buffered conditions in various solvents including water.\textsuperscript{[56, 57]} The examples in Scheme 9 illustrate the practicality of aziridine-based click chemistry.\textsuperscript{[58]} A solvent is often not required\textsuperscript{[58]} so that the ring-opened compounds 7 and 8 are obtained in pure form by neat fusion of 6 with the appropriate secondary amine at ap-
approximately 120 °C. Neat thermal fission then removes the N-Boc group in 7 to provide the secondary amine 9, while the primary amine in 10 is unmasked in excellent yield by heating compound 8 at 170 °C with two equivalents of p-TsOH · H2O, again in the absence of solvent. The high temperatures of these solvent-free processes are presented to highlight the reliability of the bond-forming events under any conditions. Each of these reactions can also be done in standard solvents at ≤70 °C.

The opening of even unactivated aziridines proceeds readily in water with buffered azide (to give 11 at 50 °C) and with hydrazine (to give 12 at 25 °C). The resulting intermediates are highly useful; their cycloadditions and condensations with alkynes and β-diketones, respectively, are reliable click reactions in their own right (see Section 3.2). Water is often the solvent of choice, as illustrated by the opening of a simple aziridine with 5-phenyltetrazole to give heterocycle 13. Such a modular approach allows for the formation of a large variety of useful organic intermediates.

Highly activated aziridinium systems are easily generated in situ in the course of neighboring group assisted nucleophilic substitution starting from amino alcohols[59] or β-halo amines[60] and related compounds[61] (Scheme 6). The reactions of the analogous episulfonium systems[62] are even more facile.[63] All these substitutions are stereospecific and proceed with double inversion, and hence net retention of configuration in cases where the nucleophilic attack on the aziridinium or episulfonium ion occurs at the center bearing the leaving group, or with inversion of both centers in cases where the amino or thioether group undergoes a 1,2-shift. The broad scope of these reactions and the easy access to the starting materials from the corresponding epoxides makes them perfectly suited for the rapid generation of building blocks and combinatorial libraries (Scheme 10).[64] An example of the swift access provided by aziridinium chemistry to “druglike” molecules is shown by the preparation of a 1,5-benzodiazepine derivative (Scheme 11).

Aziridinium and episulfonium chemistry is particularly well-suited to the aqueous phase because the spring-loaded three-membered ring intermediates bear a positive charge, balanced by the anionic counterion which served as the


Scheme 10. Aziridinium intermediates in combinatorial assembly. Ms = mesyl = methane sulfonyl.
leaving group. We have noted that, when this leaving group is chloride or, particularly, sulfonate, the beneficial effects of water are most apparent, whereas little or no improvement is noted on changing the solvent from acetonitrile to water when the leaving group is iodide or bromide. The greater stabilization offered by strong protic solvation of the harder anions in water is probably the dominant factor. Furthermore, these “homocarbonyl” electrophiles, like the acyl halides that participate in Schotten–Baumann reactions, are much more reactive toward a range of heteroatom nucleophiles in water than toward the solvent. An example of the beneficial effects of performing these types of reactions in water is given in Scheme 12, in which both yield and selectivity are shown to be improved as the water content of the reaction medium is increased. For the last two sets of conditions shown, which lead to the highest selectivities, neither the starting material nor the products are soluble in the reaction solvent.

In this context, it should also be noted that the mustard-type sulfur compounds are directly accessible from olefins in very high yields by addition of sulfenyl halides (RSX) or the inorganic parent SCl (Scheme 13, top). The addition often proceeds under thermodynamic control, allowing reliable prediction of the products. The exceptional reactivity of the resulting compounds such as 14 enables many additional click chemistry transformations through neighboring-group participation, which provides episulfonium intermediates such as 15. These pathways, and especially the required ejection of anionic leaving groups (for example, the chloride in 14), are uniquely assisted by an aqueous environment. In the cases shown at the bottom of Scheme 13, the reactions proceed cleanly and rapidly from solid-to-solid in aqueous suspension; presumably, the episulfonium ion intermediates are the only water-soluble species on the path from starting materials to products. The dramatically different outcomes for reaction of 14 with saturated solutions of NH₃ in CH₃OH or H₂O underscore the crucial role played by solvation in these substitutions and the unique properties of water as a solvent, especially when solvent separation of ion pairs and/or efficient proton shuttling through solvent hydrogen-bonding networks are important.

### 3.2. Cycloaddition Reactions

Click chemistry ideals are beautifully represented among cycloaddition reactions involving heteroatoms, such as hetero-Diels–Alder and, especially, 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions. These modular fusion reactions unite two unsaturated reactants and provide fast access to an enormous variety of interesting five- and six-membered heterocycles.

As already mentioned, in this powerful class of concerted click reactions we have come to regard the Huisgen dipolar cycloaddition of azides and alkynes as the “cream of the crop”. However, probably because of concerns about the safety of the azide moiety, medicinal chemists have not given these transformations the special attention they deserve. The actual cycloaddition step may be as reliable for other types of [2+3] reactions, but the azide group is by far the most convenient of the 1,3-dipolar components to introduce and to “carry” until needed. Indeed, it may be the only one which is stable toward dimerization and/or hydrolysis. While azides are widely valued for their ease of introduction and reduction to primary amino groups, the remarkable stability (orthogonality) of aliphatic azides to a wide variety of other standard organic synthesis conditions seems largely unappreciated. With a few interesting exceptions, they remain “invisible” unless a good dipolarophile is present.
Two typical examples of azide cycloadditions are shown in Scheme 14.[79] Bis(azide) 16 readily adds two molecules of alkyne to give bis(triazole) 17. A wide variety of alkynes engage in such reactions, with electron-deficient cases usually being the most reactive. Azide 18 reacts with the cyanoacetylene equivalent, 2-chloroacrylonitrile, to give only one regioisomer of triazole 19, which retains its isolated olefins for further decoration.

Other (that is, non-azide) 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition processes provide interesting five-membered heterocycles, such as the examples shown in Scheme 15, in good yields.[80] The sequence starts with addition of hydrazine to the aziridinium intermediate generated from 20. The resulting cyclic hydrazide 21 then undergoes condensation with aromatic aldehydes to give azomethine ylides 22, which react with a variety of unsaturated components to give [3+2] cycloadducts. The rich array of functionality displayed by these products provides opportunities for the creation of unique combinatorial libraries.

3.3. “Protecting Group” Reactions

While hydroxy groups are nearly “invisible” in aqueous solution, in the absence of water a pair of neighboring hydroxy groups often exhibit unique reactivity. Thus, acid-catalyzed reactions with aldehydes and ketones provide cyclic 1,3-dioxolane rings in high yields. Instead of their ubiquitous role as diol protecting groups, should not acetals, ketals, and some of their azo-analogues be better viewed as an attractive class of heterocycles for medicinal chemistry applications? They are generally stable at physiological pH,[81a] have already appeared as components in orally available drugs,[81b] contribute several hydrogen bond acceptor sites and interesting dipole effects, provide constrained scaffolds with well-defined projections and spatial orientations of their substituents, are assembled from modular and abundant components, and represent one of the rare click chemistry modules based on reversible carbonyl chemistry.

The five acetal-like derivatives (23–26 and ent-26) were easily prepared on multigram scales from the appropriate diols or hydroxysulfonamides.[82] As a consequence of their heteroatom substituent inductive effects, they are resistant to standard acidic hydrolysis conditions, all the more so if the azide group is reduced to the amine. The saturated dioxolane cores can be regarded as permanent elements of the block’s structure under most physiological and chemical conditions, and if further transformations are desired the pendant azide substituents offer many diverse and reliable options.

4. Examples of Click Chemistry Sequences—Diversity with Ease

Complex structures can be rapidly assembled using short sequences of simple click chemistry transformations. An example is the formation of the tricyclic molecule 29 in just three steps, conducted sequentially in one pot and starting from bis-epoxide 4[34, 41] (Scheme 16).[83] The nucleophilic opening of 4 with buffered azide is highly regioselective, resulting in the formation of the crystalline azido alcohol 27 in excellent yield. The bis-triazole 28, formed by 1,3-dipolar addition of the bis-azide with diethylacetylene dicarboxylate, can be collected from the reaction mixture by filtration. The C2-symmetry of the system is then broken during base-catalyzed lactonization to furnish lactone 29, the three rings of which resemble the B, C, and D rings found in...
Scheme 16. Steroid-like skeletons assembled from cyclohexadiene diepoxides.

Steroids. The analogous cis-diepoxide 1, through the same three-step sequence, gives the related lactone 30, which is identical to 29 except that the two “B”-ring substituents have switched positions. All steps for both sequences proceed in excellent yield. (See the frontispiece for large-scale sequences in this series.)

The capabilities of such reaction sequences for library synthesis are illustrated in Scheme 17. Epoxide ring opening with hydrazine and subsequent condensation with a variety of β-dicarboxyls or other bis-electrophiles provide entry to an enormous range of heterocyclic structures. Library synthesis using these protocols is highly efficient, and achieves excellent diversity from the large, available pool of epoxides.[84]

The facile osmium-catalyzed aminohydroxylation of α,β-unsaturated amides is also an attractive starting point for the synthesis of diverse molecules based on the previously rare α,β-diamino acid motif (Scheme 18). In this sequence, the hydroxysulfonamide regioisomers 31a and 31b produced in the aminohydroxylation step conveniently provide the same cis-N-sulfonylaziridine intermediates 32 upon cyclization.[85]

Regioselective aziridine ring opening by a diverse set of primary and secondary amines then yields the threo-3-amino-2-sulfonamides 33. The aminohydroxylation was also performed with the chloramine salt of p-nosyl sulfonamide (see above), and the β-aminosulfonamide products 33 (R = p-NO₂C₆H₄ (p-nosyl)) were freed of their sulfonamide group through the Fukuyama deprotection method,[86] to give 34. The resulting primary 2-amino group of compounds 34 have been capped with more than sixty electrophiles to date, including acid chlorides, sulfonyl chlorides, anhydrides, isocyanates, and isothiocyanates, to give structures of the general form 35.[87] The biological activities discovered in various screens of this library will be reported elsewhere.

Scheme 17. Click chemistry sequences from epoxides and hydrazine.[84]

Scheme 18. A click chemistry library sequence from olefinic acids.[88]
click chemistry) of diverse molecules with druglike structural features. Three-dimensional space is efficiently accessed by the stereospecific nucleophilic openings of such spring-loaded rings, and when these spring-loaded units are embedded in cyclohexane frameworks, the level of regio- and stereochemical control available for core creation/decoration sequences reaches a zenith. Nature certainly uses hetroatom connections, but not in this fashion. Therefore, the structures assembled by opening aziridines and epoxides are usually novel, and almost invariably so when the assembly sequence involves two or more such ligations.

Nature’s giant molecules are constructed from a small set of building blocks using a few types of reactions for stitching them together. If we are to build small molecules which interact specifically with these large and diverse structures, we will need more components than nature has developed. While new building blocks will always be welcome, we expect that a good set of 500 or so will prove effective for many targets.

Our thinking about C–C bonds as gifts of nature has been a constant source of inspiration during the framing and the ongoing refinement of this minimalist synthetic strategy. In any event, endeavoring to transform these matchless building blocks into substances with diverse and useful functions seems an appropriate way to honor the bestowal of such an embarrassment of riches.

This review is dedicated to Professor Daniel S. Kemp, master teacher of carbonyl chemistry to a generation of MIT students and at least one assistant professor. We are very grateful to the following co-workers for their willingness to sail the click chemistry waters, and especially to those who have waited as long as several years to see their efforts reach the printed page: Michael Bartsch, Kristina Burrow, John Cappiello, Han-Ting Chang, Bin Chao, Zhengming Chen, Jay P. Chiang, Tsang-Huang Chuang, Antonella Converso, Zachary Demko, Klaus R. Dress, Valery V. Fokin, Alexander V. Gontcharov, Vincent Jeanneret, Jae-uk Jeong, Dongyol Lim, Hong Liu, Susan Maddock, Andreas Marzinik, Dominique Michel, David S. Nirschel, Janet Elizabeth Pease, Wallace C. Pringle, K. Laxma Reddy, Paul Richardson, A. Erik Rubin, Zai-Cai Shi, Erdal Stevens, Beata Tao, Allen A. Thomas, Andrew R. Vaino, Koennad P. M. VanHessche, Martin A. Winter, Andrei K. Yudin, and Zhi-Min Wang. We also thank Dr. Thomas Archibald (Aerojet Fine Chemicals, Inc.) for educating us on the safe handling of azides and other reactive compounds, Prof. Joseph Gajewski (Indiana University) for insightful mechanistic discussions, and Prof. Subhash Sinha (The Scripps Research Institute) for performing the reactions highlighted in the frontispiece.

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[4] For an eloquent account of the history of medicinal chemistry, see: W. Sneader, Drug Prototypes and their Exploitation, Wiley, New York, 1996. Here Sneader traces the origins of modern medicines back to approximately 200 natural product prototypes, the majority of which are toxic secondary metabolites created by plants and microorganisms for self-defense.
[11] While nature was the first combinatorial chemist, Ivar Ugi may be regarded as the second. His idea of using one-step solution-phase processes, such as his four-component coupling reaction, in such applications was a stroke of genius ahead of its time: “Since four different starting materials take part in the four-component condensation, the reaction is extremely versatile. If, for example, 40 each of the different components are reacted with one another, the result is 4010 = 2560000 reaction products, which is quite a high figure considering that it is of the same order of magnitude as the total number of chemical compounds described to date.” (G. Gokel, G. Liedlé, I. Ugi, in Isonitrile Chemistry (Ed.: I. Ugi), Academic Press, New York, 1971, pp. 145–199; see also: I. Ugi, R. Meyr, U. Fetzer, C. Steinbrückner, Angew. Chem. 1959, 71, 386). When the pharmaceutical industry “discovered” combinatorial chemistry about 20 years later, the solid-phase approach, pioneered by Merrifield for multistep synthesis of large biopolymers, was adapted for multistep syntheses of druglike molecules. Only recently, following ArQuile’s lead, has the drug-discovery community realized the power of Ugi’s vision for quickly generating molecular diversity through robust, yet simple, reaction cascades that assemble multiple components in solution.
[12] The venerable Robinson annelation sequence is an example. The components are first connected intermolecularly by the Michael reaction (no new C–C-bonds made, only the favorable exchange of a H atom for a C–C bond: ΔHf < –20 kcal mol−1) and then only is the hard part (the aldol step) accomplished intramolecularly. The Deckman condensation has enormous scope because it is intramolecular, whereas the intermolecular parent reaction (Claisen condensation) is only reliable for the simplest case (R = H in RCH2COR).
The portion of this drug candidate “universe” that has been synthesized to date is approximately one part in 10^57, or roughly the powers of ten (10^0) from Earth to the edge of the visible universe is traversed in only 25 powers of ten (10^10 – 10^13) meters. The free energy of the hydrogenation of ethylene to ethane is 119 kilocalories/mole.


Note, however, that amide bond synthesis by this or other methods, in spite of being strongly favorable thermodynamically, does not often reach the level of generality, simplicity, and ease of product isolation that characterizes click reactions. For example, compare amide synthesis with the synthesis of ureas from amines and isocyanates. The latter process is a nearly perfect transformation, and like all of the best click reactions it is a pure fusion process requiring no adjuvants of any kind. Amide bond formation, in contrast, usually requires external reagents and generates nontrivial by-products, no adjuvants of any kind. Amide bond formation, in contrast, usually requires external reagents and generates nontrivial by-products.


[48] The 1,3-selectivity in the neat reaction (that is, 1 → 2) probably stems from the interplay of two effects: trans-diaxial epoxide opening and intramolecular epoxide activation by the hydroxy group that is released in the first step (see Scheme 19). The latter effect is much less important in the presence of a protic solvent, and thereby allows the intermediate hydroxy epoxide to react with the other, more stable chair conformer, which gives rise to the diol from 1,4-attack (that is, 1 → 3, Scheme 19).


“Azidophobia” seems to be largely based on the fact that a number of metalic azides are shock sensitive. However, certain organic azides, especially small ones, are also explosive. The following points are noteworthy. Sodium azide is relatively safe, especially in aqueous solution, unless acidified to form $\text{HN}_3$, which is volatile and highly toxic. For organic azides, the “rule of six” is very useful: six carbons (or other atoms of about the same size) per energetic functional group (azide, diazo, nitro, etc.) provides sufficient dilution to render the compound relatively safe. Note that the presence of acetylenic groups or other energy producers with an azide makes for increased hazard.

Decomposition of organic azides can be catalyzed by certain transition metal species (especially those from the Fe and Co triads) and by strong acids (that is the same catalysts that are most effective for decomposition of organic peroxides). Azide groups attached directly to olefinic, aromatic, or carbonyl moieties are much less stable and, or other energy producers with an azide makes for increased hazard. For these reasons, azides should not be distilled or treated in a careless fashion. However, when common sense is employed, they can be prepared, stored, and used without risk in the standard organic chemistry laboratory: We have never experienced a safety problem with these materials. See: M. Peer, Spec. Chem. 1998, 18, 256 – 263.


Z. Demko, D. Michel, B. Chao, K. B. Sharpless, unpublished results.

M. A. Winter, K. B. Sharpless, unpublished results.

E. Stevens, A. V. Gontcharov, K. B. Sharpless, unpublished results.

See ref. [80a] for 10- to 100-gram preparations of these crystalline aziridines.


It should be noted that the simple 1,2-diamine motif is almost completely absent from that part of the ≃ 500-dalton drug candidate “universe” to have been explored so far due to a woeful underutilization of the aziridine group as an intermediate in exploratory medicinal chemistry. For us, this omission highlights the vast regions of structural and functional “space”—the 1020 candidates of Guida and co-workers in ref. [14]—that remain unexplored for the discovery of biologically active molecules.


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