Metal-Catalysed Azidation of Organic Molecules

Goswami, M.; de Bruin, B.

DOI
10.1002/ejoc.201601390

Publication date
2017

Document Version
Final published version

Published in
European Journal of Organic Chemistry

License
CC BY-NC-ND

Citation for published version (APA):
Metal-Catalysed Azidation of Organic Molecules
Monalisa Goswami[a][‡] and Bas de Bruin*[a][‡]

Abstract: The azide moiety is a desirable functionality in organic molecules, useful in a variety of transformations such as olefin aziridination, C–H bond amination, isocyanate synthesis, the Staudinger reaction and the formation of azo compounds. To harness the versatility of the azide functionality fully it is important that these compounds be easy to prepare, in a clean and cost-effective manner. Conventional (non-catalysed) methods to synthesise azides generally require quite harsh reaction conditions that are often not tolerant of functional groups. In the last decade, several metal-catalysed azidations have been developed in attempts to circumvent this problem. These methods are generally faster, cleaner and more functional-group-tolerant than conventional methods to prepare azides, and can sometimes even be conveniently combined with one-pot follow-up transformations of the installed azide moiety. This review highlights metal-catalysed approaches to azide synthesis, with a focus on the substrate scopes and mechanisms, as well as on advantages and disadvantages of the methods. Overall, metal-catalysed azidation reactions provide shorter routes to a variety of potentially useful organic molecules containing the azide moiety.

1. Introduction
Azides, molecules bearing the \(-\text{N}^\equiv\text{N}^+=\text{N}^-\) functionality, are useful in a variety of desirable transformations. Since the discovery of organic azides about 150 years ago, numerous synthetic protocols and applications of these energy-rich molecules have been developed.[1] Azides are ubiquitously employed in Huisgen 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition (“click”) reactions,[2] in which all three atoms of the azide are used to construct triazole rings. Azides can also react vigorously by releasing dinitrogen, thus leading to the formation of electron-deficient nitrenes. In the presence of transition-metal complexes, they can also form metal-bound nitrenes. As such, many frequently applied reactions involving organic azides are based on using azide functionalities as “nitrene” precursors. This involves a variety of (metal-catalysed) transformations ranging from olefin aziridination, C–H bond amination, isocyanate synthesis, the Staudinger reaction and formation of azo compounds.[3–5] Azides have found several applications in diverse synthetic organic contexts, including peptide chemistry, combinatorial chemistry and het-
erocyclic chemistry. As such, organic azides occupy an important position at the interface between chemistry, biology, medicine and materials science.

Figure 1 provides a schematic representation of some of the different reaction types involving organic azides. An excellent review by Bräse and co-workers covers most aspects of (non-metal-catalysed) synthesis and reactivity of azide-containing molecules up to 2005.\[3\]

![Figure 1. Different reactions in which organic azides take part.](image)

The past few years have shown a revival in popularity of the use of organic azides in synthetic organic chemistry. Transition-metal-catalysed formation of N-containing heterocycles has been widely explored, and many of these strategies involve azides as metal-bound nitrene precursors. Just as in metallo-carbene chemistry,\[6\] C–H amination via metallonitrenes\[7,8\] is rapidly taking centre stage as a fascinating and useful research area. This strategy involves controlled insertion of a metal-bound nitrene moiety into a C–H bond, leading to the direct formation of C–N bonds. Organic azides have several advantages over other nitrene precursors such as iminoiodanes and haloamine-Ts. They show better solubility in organic solvents of choice and are more stable, easier to use and not as over-oxidising as some iminoiodanes and haloamine-Ts can be. The strategy of using metallonitrene intermediates for N–X bond formation was first disclosed for Rh\(^{II}\) systems,\[9,10\] but gradually systems based on more abundant base metals have emerged. Cobalt(III) porphyrins, for example, are successful catalysts for a variety of nitrene transfer reactions in which organic azides are used as nitrene precursors.\[11\]

For the azide moiety to be fully exploited as a functional group there is a need to find protocols for synthesising azides in easy ways and without the need for the use of harsh reagents or reaction conditions. Several common methods for the construction of azides are based on classical nucleophilic substitution reactions, such as the Mitsunobu reaction with alcohols or substitution with alkyl halides. However, with these methods, protecting-group strategies or lengthy synthetic sequences are often necessary, due to chemo- and regioselectivity issues in azidation reactions of functionalised compounds. These problems can be partially overcome by using other methods, such as diazotisation of an amine followed by a Sandmeyer reaction with an alkali-metal azide, but the problem with this method is the selective azidation of one amine group in the presence of other amine groups. At the same time the harsh oxidation conditions associated with this method are not functional-group-tolerant.

The bottom line is that there is a lack of methods for azidation of molecules that contain functional groups, or what can be called late-stage azidation. The synthetic challenges aside, it is very important to point out the inherent dangers of working with azides or intermediate diazo compounds, especially on a large scale. As such, it is desirable to find methods in which the azide-containing compound does not need to be carried through many protection/deprotection steps to furnish the desired end product.

Thus, the scope of functionalised azides being used as substrates in a plethora of reactions having been outlined, it is obvious that the development of new (catalytic) ways to synthesise azides should provide enhanced potential for their application. In the past few years the field of metal-catalysed azidations has seen substantial progress, with many examples having been reported. A variety of metals are used to achieve efficient and selective azidations, thus functionalising molecules for further reactivity. However, a concise review of such transformations is so far lacking. This review highlights the new metal-catalysed approaches for organic azide synthesis, with a focus on applicability, substrate scopes, mechanisms and advantages and disadvantages of the applied methods. Many of these metal-catalysed reactions represent efficient synthetic methodologies for the preparation of substrates that are attractive for further (catalytic) incorporation of nitrogen atoms in organic molecules. Metal-free azidation of organic molecules is not dealt with in this review.

The review is divided into two main sections, based on the type of catalytic metal used: base metals and noble metals. This has been done in view of the distinct mechanistic pathways that are involved in the reactions depending on the type of metal. The base-metal-catalysed processes are dominated by one-electron processes and reactions involving azide radicals, whereas for the noble-metal reactions (with one exception) mostly ionic pathways are operative, involving the azide ion in nucleophilic-substitution-type reactions. This also dictates the different kinds of substrates that can be accessed. Thus, in Section 2 the activity of base metals is discussed, with subsections dedicated to specific metals such as Cu, Fe and Mn. In Section 3 noble-metal-catalysed azidation reactions are described.

### 2. Base-Metal-Catalysed Azidation Reactions

In this section, relevant examples of azidation reactions catalysed by the base metals Cu, Fe and Mn are discussed. Cu is
mostly used in azidation of aromatic substrates, whereas Fe and Mn prevail in azidation of aliphatic C–H bonds. The substrate specificity and applicability of other types of substrates still need to be explored in many cases. The azidating reagents are similar for most reactions. In most cases NaN₃ or tetramethylsilyl azide (TMSN₃) in combination with an oxidant or alternatively an azide-containing hypervalent iodine compound is used. In particular, cyclic hypervalent-iodine-based azidation agents have proved useful; these are reasonably stable and act both as group-transfer agents and as oxidants.[12,13]

2.1. Copper-Catalysed Azidation

Cu-catalysed systems are by far the most intensively explored systems in metal-catalysed azidations. Most reactions result in high yields and proceed under relatively mild reaction conditions. As can be expected, the reaction conditions depend on the type of C–H bond being azidated. Most examples encountered are those taking place at aromatic substrates, but examples of azidation of substrates containing activated (allylic, benzylic, α-keto) C–H bonds have also been reported. Azidation of alkynes and alkenes is also known. Activation and azidation of aromatic C–H bonds typically does not require heating, but that of other C–H bonds typically requires elevated temperatures and longer reaction times.

As far as azidating reagents are concerned, the use of NaN₃ or TMSN₃ in combination with an oxidising agent is most frequently encountered for systems based on Cu. The oxidants tert-butyl hydroperoxide (TBHP), 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidine 1-oxyl free radical (TEMPO), O₂ and PhI(OAc)₂ are often used. When the azide source itself is oxidising, the use of another oxidant is not necessary. This is the case for azide-containing hypervalent iodine compounds. In some cases, the azide-containing hypervalent iodine compound is generated in situ. Both Cu¹ and Cu⁸ sources are encountered, but – because the reaction conditions are typically oxidative – conversion of Cu¹ to Cu⁸ can be expected during these reactions.

Mechanistically, most of these reactions proceed through radical-type mechanisms involving formation of azide radicals (N₃−), which subsequently add to an aromatic ring, followed by hydrogen atom transfer (HAT). In some exceptional cases the Cu¹X catalyst is oxidised to a Cu⁸N₃ species, followed by reductive elimination to produce the azidated product. Thus far, enantioselectivity has been reported only for one Cu-catalysed system.

2.1.1. C–H Azidation of Anilines

Jiao and co-workers reported a Cu-catalysed aryl azidation reaction in which the amine functionality was employed as a directing group to functionalise the ortho-C–H bonds of anilines (Scheme 1).[14] TMSN₃ was used as the azide source, TBHP as the oxidant and CuBr as the catalyst. Under the optimised reaction conditions (30 °C, 10 mol-% catalyst loading and 2 equiv. of TBHP), a 68 % yield of the desired product (for the o-phenyl substituted aniline) was obtained within 2 h. The functional-group tolerance was demonstrated for substituents such as halogens, alkynes, and alkyl groups. The substituent R in Scheme 1 can also be an aromatic group (for phenyl substitution, 68 % yield) or a thiophene moiety (67 % yield).

The authors showed that the reaction is completely inhibited by radical scavengers such as TEMPO and hydroquinone, thus suggesting that it follows a radical pathway. The proposed mechanism (Scheme 2) involves formation of amido intermediate A by reaction between the aniline substrate and CuBr, followed by formation of Cu¹-azide adduct B upon reaction with TBHP and N₃−. Single-electron transfer (SET) from the aryl ring to the metal centre then takes place, followed by transfer of the azido ligand to the phenyl group. Subsequent release of CuBr produces intermediate D, which releases the azide product upon deprotonation and one-electron oxidation.
Another system that uses a directing-group strategy was re-
ported by Punniyamurthy and co-workers (Scheme 3).
In that work the authors first combined amines with aldehydes to form imines, which chelate to Cu salts (CuI was mainly used, although CuBr gave comparable results) and direct the azidation reactivity to the ortho position. Tautomerisation leads to the formation of the products. The reaction is inhibited by the presence of radical scavengers such as TEMPO, again pointing to a radical mechanism (as reported for Jiao’s system). The substrate scope is broad, allowing several substituents on the aromatic ring. Various aldehydes can be used as well. The authors reported gram-scale syntheses of two of the products, which showed that reactive TMSN₃ and ligand-CuIII-N₃ intermediates can even be used in larger-scale syntheses without any hazards.

Hao and co-workers demonstrated in 2014 that CuII can also be used to activate ortho-C–H bonds in anilines to give o-azidoanilines. The difference from the protocol reported by Jiao and described above is that azidobenziodoxoles were used as the azide source instead of TMSN₃, circumventing the need for an external oxidant. The authors successfully combined this reagent with a CuII source to achieve aromatic azidation reactions (Scheme 4). Azidobenziodoxoles have advantages as an azide source, because they exhibit higher thermal stability and are easier to store. On the other hand, they generate higher-weight side products in the fragmentation reaction and hence are more polluting.

The authors further demonstrated the usefulness of the aromatic azidation protocol by post-synthesis functionalisation of o-azidoanilines. GC–MS analysis of reaction mixtures poisoned with TEMPO revealed the presence of TEMPO-azide, pointing to a radical pathway.

2.1.2. Cyclisation and Azidation of γ,δ-Unsaturated Keto-o-Benzoyl Oximes

In 2014 Yu and co-workers reported an intramolecular imination/azidation sequence based on γ,δ-unsaturated keto-benzoyl oximes (Scheme 5). The catalyst used in this case was CuPF₆, together with a β-keto ester ligand. With the use of
oximes that can be cleaved at the N–O bond by transition metals to form active iminyl intermediates, this system is able to use an azidyl group as a nucleophile to form the 5-exo-cyclised azidated product. In general, the cyclisation products were obtained in moderate to good yields. For 1-aryl-substituted oxime derivatives, the yields were lower when the aryl ring was an electron-rich furan or thiophene system. Better results were obtained when the substrates were disubstituted with methyl groups at the α-position. On the other hand, in the case of the α-carbon atom being tertiary, the azidation also took place at the α-position.

This system, however, requires 300 mol-% of TMSN$_3$ together with 20 mol-% catalyst and is not very selective for unsubstituted substrates. Here the substrate itself acts as an oxidant. However, for substrates with substituents next to the imine, double azidation products are obtained. The authors suspect the presence of air in the reaction mixture to be responsible for the oxidation required for the second azidation.

2.1.3. Cu-Catalysed Azidation of Carbonyl Compounds

In 2014 Jiao and co-workers disclosed a copper-catalysed protocol for aerobic oxidative C–C bond cleavage to convert alkyl aryl ketones directly into benzamides$^{[18]}$ (Scheme 6). Nitrogenation of 4-phenylacetophenone with sodium azide afforded 4-phenylbenzamide in 84 % yield when the reaction was catalysed by CuCl$_2$ in DMF at 120 °C in the presence of TEMPO and O$_2$ (1 atm). Aryl ketones either with electron-donating or with electron-withdrawing substituents at the aryl ring were tolerated, and the aryl methyl ketones could be expanded to heteroaryl ketones.

Mechanistically, this is an interesting example, because the nature of the involvement of the copper catalyst in the mechanism is not obvious. To elucidate the reaction pathway, some potential intermediates such as the corresponding aldehyde, α-hydroxy ketone, α-keto aldehyde, α-keto carboxylic acid, and amide species were prepared and tested under the same reaction conditions. However, none of these substrates afforded the desired product. It was therefore postulated that nucleophilic attack of the N$_3^-$ anion at the carbonyl moiety of the ketone is an essential step, thus forming a geminal azido alcohol intermediate, which is oxidised to generate an α-hydroxylated intermediate of type A (Scheme 7). The azidation and hydroxylation steps might also be reversed. Subsequent rearrangement of intermediate A via B produces intermediate C, involving C–C bond cleavage. This is followed by release of molecular nitrogen and an aldehyde as byproducts. Finally, tautomerisation of C affords the desired amide product. The formation of a nitrile from the aldehyde (possibly by a Schmidt reaction) was detected with GC–MS. Overall, this is a useful and effective system that does not seem to have the Cu$^+$ catalyst involved directly in the azidation step.

Scheme 7. Possible mechanism of the reaction depicted in Scheme 6.

A domino radical protocol for simultaneous addition of a trifluoromethyl moiety to an alkene and azidation of a remote carbonyl α-C–H position in a site-selective manner was reported by Liu and co-workers (Scheme 8)$^{[19]}$. This leads to the formation of CF$_3$-containing α-azido ketones. These α-azido ketones could be converted into trifluoromethyl γ-lactam and spirobenzofuranone lactam scaffolds in a one-pot process in the presence of a base such as triethylamine.

Interestingly, the authors first examined the reaction under metal-free conditions, either with CF$_3$SiMe$_3$ as the ·CF$_3$ source and PhI(OAc)$_2$ as the oxidant, or with the Togni reagent II and nBu$_4$NI as the CF$_3$ radical initiator. However, the desired product was not obtained in any of the metal-free reactions. In combination with CuI as the catalyst, though, the desired CF$_3$-containing α-azido ketone was obtained in 93 % yield after optimisation of the reaction conditions. The authors proposed a mechanism in which CuI plays a dual role. Besides activating the Togni reagent, CuI is also believed to catalyse the azidation step, although it is also possible that the azidation is a result of an uncatalysed nucleophilic attack of the azide anion. Gram-scale syntheses were demonstrated without the overall yield of the product being compromised, making this quite an interesting synthetic protocol.

Scheme 6. CuCl$_2$-catalysed conversion of aryl ketones into benzamides.
A synthesis of 2,4,5-trisubstituted imidazoles, by a Cu-mediated three-component reaction involving ketones, aldehydes and Me$_3$SiN$_3$, has recently been reported by Li, Zhu and co-workers (Scheme 9).[20]

Both terminal and internal alkynes proved compatible with the reported mild reaction conditions, thus delivering the CF$_3$-containing azirines in moderate to good yields. Combining the copper(I) catalyst...
[Cu(CH₃CN)₄]PF₆ with the Togni reagent, TMSN₃ and (4-chloro-phenyl)acetylene led to the desired trifluoromethylation/azidation product in 75 % yield at room temperature under optimised reaction conditions. CuII sources also worked, but CuI sources seemed to give better results. The reason for this is not obvious, because oxidising conditions are used, and in the proposed mechanism (Scheme 11) Cu undergoes oxidation under the applied reaction conditions. To convert the azide into the azirine the sample was irradiated after removal of the Cu catalyst.

To discern more information about the mechanism of the reaction some mechanistic studies were performed. TEMPO was found to be detrimental in the reaction, with CF₃-substituted TEMPO being obtained, thus pointing to a radical mechanism. In addition, a competition experiment with styrene also led to CF₃-substituted species. These results revealed that a CF₃ radical is involved in the reaction; it probably adds to the alkyne to produce a CF₃–vinyl radical species. Compounds containing electron-rich aryl groups reacted more rapidly than those with electron-poor aryl groups. A significant Hammett value of ρ = −0.29 was measured, in agreement with a mechanism involving radical addition to the alkyne triple bond (Scheme 11).

For the final C–N bond formation, there are two possibilities (Scheme 11). In path a, the azide ion released from TMSN₃ is oxidised by copper(II) to give the azide radical, which is then trapped by the CF₃–vinyl radical species to give the final product. In path b, the azide anion may coordinate to copper(II), and then the CF₃–vinyl radical is trapped by this [CuIN₃] species to form a copper(III) intermediate, which undergoes reductive elimination to yield the product. With the available experimental data, neither of these pathways could be excluded.

In 2014 Wen and co-workers reported an example[22] in which the CuI catalyst had a dual function. One role was in the context of catalysing the azidation, as in the above example from Jiao (Schemes 1 and 2), and the other was in catalysing a classical click reaction (Scheme 12). Here the authors used a cyclic iodonium triflate as an oxidising substrate, which undergoes exchange of triflate with an azide ion. The azide source in this case is NaN₃. After oxidative addition and reductive elimination, intermediate C (Scheme 13) is obtained, and this then undergoes a Cu-catalysed alkyne–azide cycloaddition (CuAAC) reaction to furnish the final phenanthridine product. The system is tolerant towards a variety of alkyynes and also tolerates a range of different substituents on the iodonium triflate.

2.1.5. Oxo-Azidation and Alkoxy-Azidation of Indoles, Tryptamines and Tryptophols

Dearomatisation of 3-substituted indoles has been an attractive topic in organic synthesis due to the importance of the derivatised products, such as indolenines and 2-oxindoles. This was reported by the group of Jiao, who used a Cu(acac)₂ catalyst with 3-methylindole as a model substrate and azidoiodinane as the source of azide (Scheme 14).[23] Reasonable yields were initially also obtained when CuBr was employed as the catalyst, which indicated that copper salts might be beneficial for the reaction. Although both CuI and CuII sources could be employed in the transformation, best results were obtained with Cu(acac)₂, in which case the reaction times could be reduced to 90 min, with the products being obtained in yields of up to 77 %.

As such, this is an interesting three-component cascade-type reaction that is performed by combining azidation, CuAAC and Ullmann coupling, with use of a single and cheap CuI catalyst.
Additionally, in 2015 Wang and co-workers reported a Cu(OAc)$_2$·H$_2$O-catalysed cyclisation/azidation protocol based on tryptophols as substrates.[24] PhI(OAc)$_2$ was used as the oxidant and NaN$_3$ as the azide source. The reactions used an excess of both the azide and the oxidant and worked best at 60 °C (Scheme 15). The authors demonstrated post-functionalisation of the installed azide moiety producing heterocycles. Mechanistic studies revealed a radical pathway based on the formation of azide radicals.

Azidations of alcohols with the aid of Cu(OTf)$_2$ and TMSN$_3$ were described by Kumar and co-workers.[25] The substrates were mostly benzylic alcohols, although secondary alcohols based on other heterocycles were also transformed into the corresponding azides. Cu(OAc)$_2$ has also been used as a catalyst to transform aryloboronic acids into the corresponding azides. In an article by Aldrich and co-workers, Chan–Lam coupling conditions[26] were evaluated for azidation of (4-cyanophenyl)boronic acid.[27] Sodium azide was used as the azide source.

2.1.6. Cu-Catalysed Azidations with Alkenes

In this section we discuss the numerous reports of Cu-catalysed azidation of alkenes, which in many cases have been followed by other reactions in tandem. Jiao and co-workers have also very recently compiled such reactions with alkenes elsewhere.[28]

One of the first examples of azidation of alkenes to give alkyl azides actually used a cobalt-based system. After the success of Co and Mn catalysis[29] in hydrohydrazination reactions of alkenes, Carreira and co-workers explored hydroazidation of alkenes to give alkyl azides (Scheme 16).[30] On modifying the ligand, a cobalt complex that was active in hydroazidation of a variety of alkenes could be synthesised or complexed in situ. The reaction showed Markovnikov selectivity, and the saturated alkane was an observed side product. Better selectivity towards the azide product (20:1) was obtained with use of TMDSO (1,1,3,3-tetramethyldisiloxane) instead of PhSiH$_3$, although slightly longer reaction times were required. The other remarkable aspect of this reaction is that tosyl azide could be used as the azide source. Free alcohols and styrenes were not accessible under these reaction conditions.

In 2012, Suna and co-workers reported a system capable of transforming C–H bonds of electron-rich heterocycles into C–N bonds through the use of heteroaryl(phenyl)iodonium azides, which fragmented in situ to give heteroaryl azides.[31] Use of λ$_3$-iodanes can potentially lead to the formation of product mixtures in reactions with nucleophiles. Nevertheless, regiocontrol can be achieved by differentiation of electronic and steric properties of aromatic moieties. The regiocontrol over the fragmentation step of the unsymmetrical iodane is where the Cu catalyst plays a crucial role. The Cu catalyst further catalyses the cycloaddition of the azide to the acetylene. The reaction sequence is outlined in Scheme 17.

In 2012, Suna and co-workers reported a system capable of transforming C–H bonds of electron-rich heterocycles into C–N bonds through the use of heteroaryl(phenyl)iodonium azides, which fragmented in situ to give heteroaryl azides.[31] Use of λ$_3$-iodanes can potentially lead to the formation of product mixtures in reactions with nucleophiles. Nevertheless, regiocontrol can be achieved by differentiation of electronic and steric properties of aromatic moieties. The regiocontrol over the fragmentation step of the unsymmetrical iodane is where the Cu catalyst plays a crucial role. The Cu catalyst further catalyses the cycloaddition of the azide to the acetylene. The reaction sequence is outlined in Scheme 17.

Yu and co-workers recently reported the synthesis of quinoxalines from N-arylenamines and TMSN$_3$. In this method two oxidative C–N bond-forming processes take place in tandem.
Scheme 17. C–H azidation aided by CuCl as reported by Suna and co-workers.

through the use of (diacetoxyiodo)benzene as the common oxidant. The reaction conditions are mild, and the substrates are readily accessible N-arylenamines. The general reaction and the mode of operation are depicted below (Scheme 18).

A procedure for azidocyanation of alkenes that was catalysed by Cu(TFA)$_2$ and used PhI(OAc)$_2$ as the oxidant and TMSN$_3$ as the azide source was reported by Wang and co-workers (Scheme 19). A radical process was proposed, based on the fact that the reaction was suppressed on addition of 2,6-di-tert-butyl-4-methyl-phenol (BHT).

A method for azidotrifluoromethylation of alkenes was reported by Liu and co-workers. In the presence of the Togni reagent and [Cu(MeCN)$_4$]PF$_6$ as the catalyst, TMSN$_3$ could be used as the azide source to form CF$_3$-containing organic azides (Scheme 20). The resulting azides could be transformed into valuable CF$_3$-containing amines.

Scheme 18. Oxidative azidation/cyclisation of N-arylenamines to give quinoxalines.

A similar transformation for aminotrifluoromethylation of alkenes has also been reported. Photoredox-catalysed azidotrifluoromethylation of alkenes in the presence of [Ru(bpy)$_3$](PF$_6$)$_2$ as the photocatalyst was reported by Masson, Magnier and co-workers. The same researchers also reported trifluoromethylation of enecarbamates with use of the Togni reagent as the CF$_3$ source.

In an elegant example from Greaney and co-workers the Zhdankin reagent was used as the azide source in light-controlled reactions involving a copper catalyst and styrene-like alkenes. Under irradiation with light, along with azidation, the addition of methanol or bromide at the benzylic position would take place. However, in the absence of light, double-azidation products were obtained. The reactions proceeded at room temperature and with 1 mol-% of loading (Scheme 21).

In a follow-up study, benzylic C–H azidation was reported by the same group. Primary, secondary and tertiary azides could be synthesised with the aid of the same catalyst under irradiation with light, with excellent functional-group tolerance.

A Cu-catalysed synthesis of a wide range of chiral lactones, starting from alkene-containing carboxylic acids in the presence of a chiral ligand, was also developed by Buchwald and co-workers (Scheme 22). Remarkably, this is the only Cu-catalysed system to date that performs enantioselective azidation.

Access to isoxazolines was reported by Wang and co-workers, who used Cu(OAc)$_2$ as the catalyst and TMSN$_3$ as the azide source. The reactions proceeded under mild conditions, forming the azido-substituted isoxazolines in good yields (Scheme 23). The mechanism for this transformation remains unclear.

A synthesis of precursors for vicinal azides, employing a Cu$^1$ catalyst, TMSN$_3$ as the source of azide and N-fluorobenzene-sulfonamide (NFSI) as nitrogen radical precursor, was reported by Studer and co-workers (Scheme 24). This transformation showed high diastereoselectivity in most examples.
Scheme 20. Azidotrifluoromethylation of styrenes catalysed by copper.


Scheme 22. Enantioselective azidation of alkenes in the presence of a chiral ligand and a Cu catalyst.

Scheme 23. Synthesis of azido-substituted isoxazolines catalysed by copper.

The mechanism in action here is slightly different from those of other Cu-catalysed systems, because the NFSI is believed to oxidise the CuI catalyst to a CuIII species, which could exist in equilibrium with a CuII-stabilised N-centred radical (Scheme 25). This is the precursor for the bis(sulfonylamidyl) radical, which can add to the alkene in two ways. In path a, trapping of C with D can provide CuIII species E, which can undergo ligand exchange followed by reductive elimination to give the product and regenerated catalyst. In path b, D can oxidise C to intermediate G, which is trapped by TMSN₃ to give the products.

A dearomative azidation of β-naphthols in the presence of CuBr as catalyst was reported. These reactions lead to highly valuable naphthalenone derivatives such as quaternary azide derivatives, which can be transformed into the corresponding amines (Scheme 26).[43]
2.1.7. Cu-Catalysed Synthesis of Azide-Transfer Reagents

Sulfonyl azides are very widely used substrates in organic synthesis, as well as nitrene-transfer reagents. The method commonly used to synthesise sulfonyl azides involves the use of sulfonyl chlorides. These produce sulfonic acids in the presence of water, leading to the formation of toxic and shock-sensitive hydrazoic acid during the azidation step. To overcome these problems, a direct, mild and facile route to sulfonyl azides was reported by Fokin and co-workers.[44] Using CuSO₄ in the presence of a base, azidation of sulfonyl amides could be performed to give the corresponding sulfonyl azide (Scheme 27). The azide source here was triflyl azide. Under the optimised reaction conditions 4 mol-% of CuSO₄ was used together with 4 equiv. of NaHCO₃ (with respect to substrate) at room temperature. The reaction times varied between 15 and 42 h. A one-pot version of this reaction that does not require the isolation of triflic azide was also devised. Use of triflic anhydride, sodium azide, NaHCO₃ solvent and a reaction time of 78 h gave the sulfonyl azide in 89% yield. Electron-donating and -withdrawing substituents were tolerated, but substrates that contained carbon nucleophiles instead underwent diazotisation. No mechanistic suggestions were reported for this Cu-catalysed transformation.

Scheme 27. Top: Cu-catalysed synthesis of sulfonyl azides. Bottom: diazotisation when a C-nucleophile is present.

In another report from Goddard-Borger and co-workers,[45] a shelf-stable imidazole-1-sulfonyl azide hydrochloride was synthesised. With this reagent in a Cu-catalysed reaction, primary amines could be converted into the corresponding azides. In the case of chiral primary amines the stereochmistry is re-
tained in the azide-transfer step (Scheme 28). This reagent could also be used to form diazo compounds from activated methylene substrates. The reactions are summarised in Scheme 28 for one particular primary amine.


2.2. Iron-Catalysed Azidations

Unlike in the case of Cu-catalysed azidations, Fe-catalysed systems have mostly been applied in azidation of saturated C–H bonds. In many cases azidation of activated C–H bonds such as those flanked by keto/ester groups or an allylic C–H bond has been reported. However, there are also examples of azidation of non-activated aliphatic C–H bonds, such as those in decalin. Remarkable chemo-, regio- and enantioselectivities have been reported.

Mechanistically, oxidative C–H bond azidation is mostly encountered. The FeCl₃ catalyst can also act as a Lewis acid catalyst, activating the O–Me bond in the case of azidation of silyl ethers. In case of olefin azidation in combination with TMSN₃ and an oxidant, double-azidation products are also obtained.

2.2.1. FeCl₃ in Stereoselective Synthesis of Glycosyl Azides

Azidoglycosides are important intermediates in the synthesis of many building blocks such as glycopeptides, glycosamines, glycoproteins etc. A mild method to synthesise these glycosyl azides was reported by Chen and co-workers,[46] who used glycosyl β-peracetates as substrates (Scheme 29). Almost quantitative yields could be achieved in 6 h with use of 5 mol-% of FeCl₃. Reaction times could be reduced to 1 h by use of 10 mol-% of the catalyst. The selectivity of this reaction was purely towards the 1,2-trans product. On combining the system with Cu⁰, which could be oxidised by FeCl₃ to generate Cu¹, click reactions could also be accessed in the same pot. It is noteworthy that α-D-glucose was an inert substrate in this reaction.

Scheme 29. FeCl₃-catalysed synthesis of glycosyl azides.

2.2.2. FeCl₃ in Chemoselective Azidation of Benzylic Silyl Ethers

In a report by Sajiki and co-workers,[47] secondary and tertiary silyl ethers were found to be transformed into the corresponding azides in the presence of primary benzylic silyl ethers (Scheme 30). FeCl₃ was used as the Lewis acid and the system performed best with TMSN₃ as the azide source. Use of FeBr₃ gave comparable results. However, substrates containing no benzylic secondary alkyl alcohol were unreactive. When non-protected alcohols such as phenylethanol were treated under the same reaction conditions the azide products were obtained only in very low yield (28 %). Substantial amounts of dimerised ether products were obtained. This indicates that the azidation perhaps does not involve removal of the silyl ether as the first step.

Scheme 30. Conversion of tertiary silyl ethers into the corresponding azides.

The authors further demonstrated the chemoselectivity of the system. When both secondary and primary silyl ethers were present only the secondary silyl ether underwent azidation. Interestingly, even in the presence of halides such as Cl on the aromatic ring, only the silyl ether was converted into an azide. Because racemic azidated products were obtained when starting from an enantiopure silyl ether, a pathway involving a carbocation can be expected. On this basis a reaction mechanism was proposed (Scheme 31) in which the oxygen atom of the silyl ether could be activated either by coordination to both Lewis acids, TMSN₃ and FeCl₃.

Scheme 31. Mechanism of iron-catalysed azidation of silyl ethers.

In a separate article by the same group, treatment of tetrahydrofuran with FeCl₃ and TMSN₃ was reported to cause THF ring opening, associated with azide formation at the benzylic position (Scheme 32).[48]
2.2.3. FeCl₃-Catalysed Three-Component Syntheses of Homoallyl Azides

In a model reaction combining benzaldehyde, allylsilane and TMSN₃ (1:1:1), together with FeCl₃, selective formation of a homoallyl azide was reported by Ghorai and co-workers.[49] No diazides or diallyl compounds were detected as side products (Scheme 33). Electron-deficient aldehydes were not successfully converted with this system. Here, too, like in the case of Sajiki (Scheme 30), the FeCl₃ plays the role of a Lewis acid, and a benzylic carbocation is involved as an intermediate.

Scheme 33. Synthesis of allylic azides reported by Ghorai and co-workers.

The synthesised allylic azides were explored for further reactivity such as in classical click reactions, reductions, Heck couplings etc.

2.2.4. Fe-Catalysed Enantioselective Azidation of β-Keto Esters and Oxindoles

The first Fe-catalysed enantioselective azidation of β-keto esters was reported in 2013 by Gade and co-workers, who used an II compound as the azido-transfer reagent (Scheme 34).[50] The reacting C–H bond in the substrates is activated by the flanking keto and ester functionalities. Screening of the reaction conditions showed Fe(OOCOEt)₂ to give the best results. With use of the chiral “boxmi” pincer ligand developed by the same group, good enantioselectivities were obtained. The best enantioselectivities were obtained in combination with carboxylates. The authors therefore explored different carboxylates in the reaction. Exchanging the anionic ligand of the catalyst with silver arene carboxylates gave better ee values. Finally, silver 4-nitrobenzoate gave the highest ee of 93 %. It is good to note that on exchanging the anion the AgCl formed does not require isolation. The methodology was also applicable to 3-aryloxindoles with comparable enantioselectivities, although it required further optimisation. Subsequent transformation of the installed azide functionality was also demonstrated.

Scheme 34. Feᴵᴵ-catalysed enantioselective azidation of β-keto esters and oxindoles.

2.2.5. Feᴵᴵ-Catalysed Azidation of Tertiary C–H Bonds

Direct C–H functionalisation of tertiary unactivated C–H bonds is still one of the holy grails in transition-metal catalysis. Many contemporary catalytic systems can activate relatively unreactive C–H bonds under mild conditions. C–H bond functionalisation has evolved from being a curiosity to a reality for synthetic chemists.[51,52] The C–H azidation of such bonds was reported in 2015 by Hartwig and co-workers,[53] who used an iron catalyst based on the tridentate nitrogen ligands of the pybox family (Scheme 35). The azide-transfer reagent was an II compound. The solvent used was acetonitrile, and the reaction proceeded at room temperature. Decalin as substrate gave a 75 % yield under these conditions, and the products were formed in a 4:1 diastereomeric ratio. Better diastereomeric ratios (trans/cis, 6:1) could be obtained in ethyl acetate. Interestingly, electronic bias towards the more electron-rich tertiary C–H bonds was found to be inherent to the system. In cases of multiple C–H bonds, the regioselectivity was influenced by the distance of the electron-withdrawing group from the proximal tertiary C–H bond, in a way reminiscent of the regioselectivity in oxidation reactions.

The most attractive part of this transformation is the fact that it can be applied to complex molecules containing multiple tertiary C–H bonds. Irrespective of the number of tertiary C–H bonds, the azidation takes place at the most electron-rich
Scheme 36. Selective C–H azidation of gibberlic acid performed with the aid of the FeII catalyst with chiral ligand.

position that is sterically most accessible. This was demonstrated for gibberelic acid in an elegant example of late-stage C–H functionalisation (Scheme 36). The diastereomeric ratio of this reaction is independent of the starting compound, meaning that when starting with a mixture of diastereomers, only one diastereomer is obtained.

Radical-quenching experiments suggested that the reaction does involve the formation of tertiary alkyl radicals. The measured kinetic isotope effect (KIE) of ca. 5.0 in the case of [D10]ethylbenzene implies that the cleavage of the C–H bond is also the rate-limiting step. Follow-up reactions of the products were also undertaken, demonstrating the formation of tetrazoles, amides, amines, N-containing heterocycles etc., which underpins the importance of azides as synthons for a variety of transformations. These elegant examples not only show the potential of late-stage azidation of C–H bonds, but the protocol also uses much milder reagents, does not involve the use of a massive excess of substrate and can be used on complex organic substrates. As such, the work has already attracted quite some attention in the form of highlights and perspectives.[54]

Similar photoredox catalysis was reported for halogenation and azidation by Chen and co-workers.[55] They used the Zhdankin azidoiodane reagent, Ru(bpy)3Cl2 and visible-light irradiation at room temperature to form C–H-azidated or -halogenated products from aliphatic substrates. These reactions are efficient, selective and compatible with complex substrates.

2.2.6. FeII-Catalysed Diazidation of Olefins

An FeII-catalysed diastereoselective olefin diazidation operative at room temperature was reported by Xu and co-workers.[56] The reaction involves the use of TMSN3 as the azide-transfer reagent, combined with benziodoxole as the oxidant. The TMSN3 is assumed to form the required II-III–N3 compound in situ. The diastereomeric ratio could be modulated by changing the ligands on the iron catalyst. Indene was chosen as a test substrate, and in the presence of a bulky pybox-type ligand (similar to the one used by Hartwig and co-workers) diastereomeric ratios of up to 20:1 could be obtained. The products were obtained in 87 % yield (Scheme 37).

After demonstrating the substrate scope, the authors moved on to mechanistic studies, which revealed some interesting facts. The Lewis-acidic nature of the TMS group in TMSN3 was commented on; this may provide some understanding on why some systems work exclusively with TMSN3 and not with NaN3. The excess of TMSN3 used in this system probably activates the III-III–N3 compound to generate a diazido intermediate, which reversibly adds to the alkene, leading to the formation of a carbon radical species (Scheme 38). In the absence of the Fe

Scheme 37. Diastereoselective olefin diazidation of indene with the aid of a chiral FeII catalyst system.

Scheme 38. Plausible mechanism of the reaction depicted in Scheme 37.
catalyst this carbon radical species undergoes elimination of N₃· to give the trans-alkene. However, in the presence of the Fe catalyst the III–N₃ bond in the azide-transfer reagent is reductively cleaved, forming an azido radical that can further add to the carbon radical species. When this occurs in the inner sphere of the catalyst excellent diastereomeric control in the formation of the final bis(azide) product can be achieved.

2.3. Manganese-Catalysed Azidations

Mn-catalysed reactions are reported to be successful for azidation of aliphatic C–H bonds and also for alkenes; as in the case of the Fe-catalysed systems described above, this contrasts with the Cu-based systems, for which aromatic C–H bonds prevail. Typically, Mn catalysts are used in combination with an oxidant and an azide source. The mechanisms are either oxidative C–H azidation or azide radical addition to olefins. For the C–H bond azidations more sophisticated ligands such as salens and porphyrins are required, whereas for the alkenes Mn(OAc)₂ suffices.

2.3.1. Mn-Catalysed Azidation of Aliphatic C–H Bonds

In the context of late-stage azidation Groves and co-workers recently reported an elegant Mn⁰ system capable of azidating aliphatic C–H bonds.⁵⁷ In the development of this system, the authors were inspired by their earlier work on Mn-catalysed C–H bond fluorination.⁵⁸,⁵⁹ In that work, F-atom transfer from an MnIV–F complex to free organic radicals in a rebound-type mechanism was found to have a very low barrier, and as such the authors envisioned a similar mechanism for N₃ transfer to hydrocarbons. The most successful system was found to be a manganese catalyst based on the tetramesitylporphyrin (TMP) ligand. The reaction requires a catalyst loading of 1.5 mol-% (Scheme 39). Mn–salen complexes also proved capable of catalysing this transformation. In these reactions an oxidation product is also expected, and the ratio of the azidation/oxidation (Az/Ox) products was found to be highest (5:1) when Mn(TMP)Cl was used as the catalyst. The substrate scope is large and several functionalities are tolerated, such as amides, esters, ketones, carbamates, tertiary alcohols, terminal alkynes, pyridines, thiophenes etc. For the reaction between trans-decalin and the Mn(TMP)Cl the secondary azidation was preferred. The efficiency of this process is also affected by the electronic nature of the substrate, with electron-deficient substrates performing poorly.

The utility of this method was demonstrated by carrying out azidations of a variety of pharmaceutically relevant complex organic molecules with different substitution patterns, such as memantine (Namenda), pregabalin (Lyrica), rasagline (Azilect), ibuprofen etc. It is noteworthy that mechanistically the Mn⁰TMPCl-catalysed reaction proceeds through a mechanism different from that followed by the systems that use III–N₃ compounds.

Here PhIO first oxidises the resting Mn⁰ catalyst to the hydrogen-abstracting oxo–Mn⁵ intermediate (Scheme 40). The substrate radical formed after hydrogen abstraction is then captured by the Mn⁵–N₃ intermediate to form the C–N₃ bond with regeneration of the catalyst. An excellent perspective article by Groves and Huang focuses on the evolution of these “tamed” azide radicals that take part in C–H bond functionalisation.⁵⁴,⁶⁰

The formation of (TMP)MnN₃ was observed by UV/Vis spectroscopy. The regioselectivity probably arises from the H-abstraction step, presumably by an oxomanganese(V) species rather than by azide radicals as commonly observed for other systems. KIE studies supported this proposal.

The oxidative azidation of cyclobutanols, with ring opening leading to the formation of alkyl azides with γ-carbonyl substituents, was reported by Zhu and co-workers.⁶¹ Mn(OAc)₃ with bidentate N-containing ligands in combination with TMSN₃ and benziodoxole gave the γ-keto azides in up to 85 % yield (Scheme 41). Functional-group tolerance was demonstrated, and both electron-rich and electron-poor substrates were successfully converted.
Mechanistically, a radical pathway was suggested on the basis of the observation that TEMPO or BHT is detrimental to the reaction. Additionally, substrates containing either alkyl or aryl substituents next to the hydroxy group give mixtures of diastereomers. This also suggests a radical mechanism, because an ionic pathway should give rise to single diastereoisomers.

### 2.3.2. Mn-Catalysed Azidation of Alkenes

Mn\textsuperscript{III}-mediated phosphonation/azidation of alkenes with the aid of a simple Mn(OAc)\textsubscript{3} catalyst and TMSN\textsubscript{3} as the azide source has been reported.\textsuperscript{[62]} In this reaction a P–C bond and a C–N bond are formed in a single transformation. With diethyl H-phosphonate and styrene as the reaction partners yields up to 88% could be obtained, although the amount of Mn(OAc)\textsubscript{3} used is used is stoichiometric (Scheme 42). The transformation could also be scaled up to about 1 g.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{R} & \quad \text{HP} = \text{R'} \quad \text{R} \quad \text{TMSN}_3 \\
0.4 \text{ mmol} & \quad 0.6 \text{ mmol} & \quad 0.8 \text{ mmol} \\
\text{NMP} & \quad 55^\circ \text{C}, 12 \text{ h} \\
\text{N}_3 & \quad \text{O}_3
\end{align*}
\]

Scheme 42. Phosphonation/azidation of alkenes in the presence of Mn(OAc)\textsubscript{3}.

In another report, Jiao and co-workers\textsuperscript{[63]} developed a catalytic reaction based on aerobic oxidative generation of azido radicals that add to alkenes. This leads to the formation of β-azido alcohols, which can later be converted into aziridines, β-amino alcohols or N- or O-containing heterocycles. Use of styrene as the model substrate and performing the reaction in air in the presence of MnBr\textsubscript{2} and TMSN\textsubscript{3} gave the desired product in up to 88% yield (Scheme 43). It is noteworthy that Mn\textsuperscript{III} sources also gave the desired products but in lower yields, despite the oxidative conditions of the reaction. MnBr\textsubscript{2} plays a dual role here, both generating the azido radical and stabilising the peroxyl radical. Terminal alkenes can also be azidated and so were internal alkenes. Various aliphatic alkenes could be hydroxy-azidated by use of this protocol.

The use of O\textsubscript{2} from air as the oxidant is an advantage of this system, because it prevents over-oxidation of other functional groups. This makes this system quite functional-group-tolerant. The azido precursor here is TMSN\textsubscript{3}, which is oxidised by air, meaning that it does not need to be pre-prepared as in the case of halo-azides and hypervalent I\textsuperscript{III}-N\textsubscript{3} reagents.

Mechanistically, Mn\textsuperscript{II} is first oxidised to Mn\textsuperscript{III/IV} by O\textsubscript{2} (Scheme 44). Mn\textsuperscript{III} then oxidises TMSN\textsubscript{3} to form an azido radical. This subsequently attacks the alkene at a sterically favoured position, leading to the formation of a carbon radical, which can then be trapped by molecular oxygen to form the peroxyl radical. This then undergoes Mn-mediated SET and protonation to give the β-azido peroxy alcohol. Finally, PPh\textsubscript{3} reduces the peroxy alcohol to give the final β-azido alcohol.

![Scheme 44. Mechanism of the reaction depicted in Scheme 43.](image)

### 2.3.3. Diastereodivergent Radical Cyclisation/Azidation of 1,7-Enynes

Selective synthesis of both cis- and trans-pyrrrolo[3,4-c]quinolin-ones through the use of two sets of catalysts and ligand systems was reported by Wan and co-workers.\textsuperscript{[64]} In the transformation of N-sulfonyl-tethered 1,7-enynes the Mn(OAc)\textsubscript{3}-catalysed reaction yielded the trans product with high selectivity, whereas the Cu-catalysed system gave the cis product with high selectivity. The transformation is summarised in Scheme 45. Also in this case a radical process is operative; the reactions do not proceed in the presence of TEMPO or BHT.

![Scheme 45. Summary of the diastereodivergent cyclisation/azidation of 1,7-enynes catalysed by Mn and Cu catalysts.](image)
3. Noble-Metal-Catalysed Azidations

As well as base metals, there are also several interesting reports of azidation reactions that are performed by noble metals. Whereas base-metal-catalysed azidations appear to be dominated by radical-type reactions involving generation of azide radicals, noble-metal-catalysed azidation reactions predominantly proceed by (ionic) non-radical pathways in which \( \text{N}_3^- \) acts as a nucleophile. Aliphatic C–H bonds do not seem to be accessible as reaction partners in most noble-metal catalysts reported to date. The only substrates thus far reported to be susceptible to noble-metal-catalysed azidation are allyl acetates, alkenes, allenes, aromatic C–H bonds and alkynes. Mechanistically they mostly proceed by allylic azidation and oxidative addition and reductive elimination pathways. Some enantioselective azidations have been reported in the case of Pd. Chiral catalysts for Ag, Au and Rh systems have apparently not yet been successful or have not yet been explored intensively.

3.1. Palladium-Catalysed Reactions

Although azidation reactions today are dominated by reactions mediated by Cu, Mn and Fe, the first examples of catalytic azidation reactions were based on palladium. However, examples are limited to allyl acetates. Both Pd\(^0\) and Pd\(^{II}\) complexes have been used. In some cases, very high catalyst loadings were needed. However, enantioselective azidation is possible with palladium, and this has been used in the total synthesis of some natural products. The Pd systems are dominated by ionic pathways: that is, allylic azidation and “traditional” oxidative addition and reductive elimination elementary steps.

3.1.1. Palladium(0)-Catalysed Azidations

In 1986 Taniguchi and co-workers reported the Pd-catalysed azidation/amination of allyl acetates\(^{[65]}\). In a one-pot protocol, with Pd(PPh\(_3\))\(_4\) as the catalyst and NaN\(_3\) as the azide source acting as a nucleophile, allyl acetates were converted into allylamines, via allyl azide intermediates (Scheme 46). In each case the (\(E\)) isomer was obtained. Conversion of the allyl azide into the allylamine requires the presence of additional PPh\(_3\) and 2 N NaOH and acidic workup. An example of a case in which the substrate is the (\(Z\)) isomer but the obtained product is the (\(E\)) isomer is shown in Scheme 47.

Scheme 46. Pd(PPh\(_3\))\(_4\)-catalysed azidation of allyl acetates followed by reduction to corresponding amines by PPh\(_3\).

Scheme 47. Pd-catalysed azidation of a (\(Z\))-allyl acetate to give the (\(E\)) product.

This Pd\(^0\) strategy for azidation of esters was also used in an enantioselective variant in the first reported total synthesis of (+)-pancratistatin,\(^{[66]}\) reported by Trost and co-workers in 1995. By use of a Pd–allyl complex together with a chiral ligand the carbonate ester could be stereoselectively converted into the azide, which was then derivatised in multiple steps to form (+)-pancratistatin (Scheme 48). The same strategy was also used for the desymmetrisation step in the total synthesis of (−)-epibatidine, another natural product.\(^{[67]}\)

Scheme 48. Part of the total synthesis of (+)-pancratistatin that employed Pd-catalysed azidation.

3.1.2. Palladium(II)-Catalysed Azidation

Tandem Pd-catalysed C–H azidation and N–N bond formation in arylpyridines, promoted by a Pd(OAc)\(_2\) catalyst, was reported by Jiao and co-workers in 2013 (Scheme 49).\(^{[68]}\) Here, C–H activation of the aromatic ring first takes place through chelation-directed cyclopalladation to form a cyclopalladium(II) dimeric species. Ligand exchange with the azide anion (NaN\(_3\) being the azide source), oxidation [Ce(SO\(_4\))\(_2\)] and subsequent reductive elimination generates the C–H-activated ortho-azidated product with regeneration of the Pd\(^{II}\) catalyst (Scheme 50). The methodology does not work with TMSN\(_3\) and is also sensitive to solvent. Overall this is a concise method for the synthesis of pyrido[1,2-b]indazoles from readily available arylpyridines. The catalyst loadings were, however, as high as 15 %.

Scheme 49. C–H azidation of arylpyridines and subsequent N–N bond formation in the presence of Pd\(^{II}\).
PdII-catalysed allylic C–H azidation, which also uses NaN₃ as the azide source and works under oxygen (atmospheric pressure), has also been reported. The PdII source used is Pd(OAc)₂. The methodology uses DMSO as the solvent and works at the rather high temperature of 100 °C (Scheme 51). The formed products can be further transformed into triazoles by use of a Cu catalyst in the same pot. The installed azide moiety can also be reduced to give allylic amines or oxidised to give allyl nitriles.

3.2. Ag-Catalysed Azidations

All examples of silver-catalysed azidations involve unsaturated bonds – in alkynes, diynes and ethynyl carbinols, for example – and the reactions proceed via intermediate vinyl azides. The formation of trans-alkenyl complex of silver with alkynes is quite different from the corresponding reaction behaviour of gold π complexes. This also leads to different reaction products with similar substrates. There is, however, one exception in which a decarboxylative azidation is mediated by a silver catalyst in a free-radical process. Mechanistically, this seems so far to be the only noble-metal-catalysed azidation reaction that proceeds through a SET process.

3.2.1. Ag-Catalysed Functionalisation of Alkynes by Azidation

In 2013 Jiao and co-workers reported the direct conversion of alkynes into nitriles through C≡C bond cleavage. Although the azide moiety is not retained in this reaction, the corresponding nitrile product is formed via an azide intermediate. Nitriles are commonly encountered structural motifs in nature and are also widely found in agricultural chemicals, medicines, dyes etc. By combining an alkyne azidation step with a silver catalyst Jiao and co-workers were able to show that the silver catalyst leads to the formation of a trans-alkenyl–metal complex, in a way mechanistically distinct from that observed with gold salt π-acid catalysts.

Initially, the nitrogenation of (para-methoxyphenyl)acetylene was investigated in the presence of Ag₂CO₃ and TMSN₃ in DMF as the solvent. This led to the formation of the corresponding nitrile in 58 % yield. On changing the solvent to DMSO the same product was obtained in 81 % yield (Scheme 52). The use of DMSO as the solvent and TMSN₃ as the nitrogen source was crucial for the success of the reaction. At the same time, increasing the reaction temperature from 80 °C to 130 °C led to lowering of the yield.

The substrate scope of this reaction is remarkable. Both electron-donating and halogen substituents on the phenyl ring gave the corresponding aromatic nitriles in moderate to excellent yields. Even substituents with unprotected reactive groups such as NH₂ and NH gave satisfactory yields. Heteroaryl compounds were also tolerated in this reaction. At the same time, aliphatic alkynes were also suitable candidates for this transformation.

Mechanistically, a free-radical pathway was ruled out, because addition of TEMPO was not detrimental to the efficiency of this reaction. However, during the reaction a key vinyl azide intermediate was observed and characterised (Scheme 53). In the presence of more TMSN₃ and Ag₂CO₃, the vinyl azide intermediate was smoothly converted into the corresponding nitrile.
This shows that more than 1 equiv. of TMSN₃ is required for the successful conversion of the alkyne into the nitrile. Additional mechanistic insight was gained by performing the reaction in [D₆]DMSO and monitoring the reaction by ¹H NMR spectroscopy. The peaks of the vinyl azide species could be assigned, and these increased and decreased over time as the nitrile product was generated.

The proposed mechanism is depicted in Scheme 54. The alkyne is first activated by the silver catalyst, followed by attack of the azide anion. This leads to the formation of the trans-alkenyl complex. Protonation of this trans-alkenyl complex generates the vinyl azide, which likely involves the presence of trace amounts of water in the DMSO. The vinyl azide then cyclises with another azide as in a traditional click reaction to form the triazole intermediate. This triazole could either form a tetrazole by release of diazomethane or transform directly into the nitrile under the applied standard reaction conditions. Because a control experiment starting from the tetrazole under the standard reaction conditions did not produce the nitrile product, this pathway could be ruled out. Thus, the reaction involves fast rearrangement of the triazole that releases HN₃ and CH₂N₂ in the process.

Under the standardised reaction conditions with ethynyl carbinol as the substrate, Ag₂CO₃ (10 mol-%) gave the best yields with TMSN₃ (1.5 equiv.) as the azide source and DMSO as the solvent. The substrate scope was demonstrated to be very broad. Substituents with bulky groups required longer reaction times (up to 8 h). Both electron-rich and electron-deficient (hetero)aryl and alkyl groups were tolerated. Other reactive functionalities such as alkenyl, alkynyl and cyclopropyl moieties were also tolerated. By attempting to perform the reaction in dry DMSO, the authors established the importance of residual water in the solvent. Under absolutely dry conditions the desired vinyl azide A was formed together with the O-trimethylsilylated product B in a 1:3 ratio (Scheme 55). Furthermore, on subjection of the O-trimethylsilylated product to the standardised reaction conditions it remained intact, showing that the TMS product does not undergo hydrolysis to give the vinyl azide product.

Additionally, the authors demonstrated gram-scale synthesis of the vinyl azide product starting from the aldehyde, which is remarkable. This product could be transformed into the α-carbonyl vinyl azide by use of pyridinium chlorochromate (PCC) as the oxidant. In addition, by use of potassium phosphate (K₃PO₄) the vinyl azide could be directly converted into the NH aziridine, a transformation not reported elsewhere. By this methodology other substituted vinyl azides were also converted into the corresponding NH aziridines (Scheme 56).

Mechanistically a free-radical pathway was excluded by means of experiments conducted in the presence of TEMPO free radical. Instead, formation of a silver acetylide complex was proposed, based on the observation that when starting from the silver acetylide the vinyl azide was obtained in the presence of TMSN₃ under the standardised reaction conditions without any additional Ag₂CO₃. Also, internal alkynes do not react under these conditions. The importance of the OH group was underlined by an experiment in which the OH moiety was replaced by an OBn substituent. This led to loss of selectivity, because now the nitrile product was also formed. Moreover, when D₂O was added to the reaction mixture the isolated product had...
Microreview

Scheme 56. Synthesis of vinyl azides and azirines starting from the aldehyde in a gram-scale reaction.

93% deuterium incorporated, thus showing the importance of the residual water in the solvent. These observations led to the tentative mechanism depicted in Scheme 57.

Scheme 57. Proposed mechanism for the Ag-catalysed hydroazidation of ethynyl carbinols.

After formation of the silver acetylide complex, the species reacts with hydrazoic acid (HN₃) formed from the silver-catalysed reaction between TMSN₃ and water. This gives a vinyl silver intermediate, which undergoes protonation from residual water to produce the desired azide.

In a follow-up study, Bi and co-workers employed a variety of diynes and TMSN₃ in a silver-catalysed reaction to perform a tandem hydroazidation/alkyne–azide cycloaddition sequence to give 1,5-fused 1,2,3-triazole frameworks. These 1,5-fused 1,2,3-triazoles are biologically active compounds. The general reaction is depicted in Scheme 58.

Scheme 58. Ag-catalysed reaction of diynes to give fused triazoles.

In the reaction of the diyne depicted in Scheme 59 with TMSN₃, 2 equiv. of H₂O and Ag₂CO₃ the triazole product was obtained unexpectedly, in 90% yield. On investigation of the substrate scope the symmetrical diynes showed good reactivity, with yields between 80 and 90%. The yields were also satisfactory for unsymmetrical diynes, thus showing a broad tolerance to different substituents. The mechanism was confirmed to be a sequence involving hydroazidation followed by alkyne–azide cycloaddition of the diynes with TMSN₃. This was done by first synthesising the vinyl azide in a silver-catalysed step and then treating it with propargyl bromides (Scheme 60) under basic conditions. The desired product was formed in excellent yields, thus establishing that the silver takes part only in the hydroazidation step.

Scheme 59. Standardised reaction conditions for the reaction depicted in Scheme 57.

A more general route to vinylic azides by hydroazidation of terminal alkynes with TMSN₃ in the presence of Ag₂CO₃ was reported by Bi and co-workers. Stoichiometric amounts of H₂O were used in the reaction to avoid dependence on the hydroxy group, as in the case of ethynyl carbinols. With 2 equiv. of water full conversion of 1-bromo-4-ethynylbenzene into the corresponding vinyl azide was achieved under catalytic conditions (Scheme 61). Aryl, alkyl and alkenyl terminal alkynes gave good yields. Propargyl compounds were also successfully converted into the vinyl azides. The method was therefore quite general and worked well for unactivated terminal alkynes. The vinyl azide products are interesting substrates for the synthesis of triazoles, amino ketones etc.

Scheme 60. Experiment establishing the non-involvement of Ag in the cyclisation step of the reaction depicted in Scheme 59.

A direct catalytic azidation of allylic alcohols in the presence of AgOTf as the catalyst was reported by Rueping and co-workers.

Scheme 61. Ag-catalysed azidation of alkynes to give vinyl azides.
3.2.2. Silver-Catalysed Decarboxylative Azidation of Carboxylic Acids

Decarboxylative nitrogenation of aliphatic carboxylic acids for the synthesis of alkyl azides was reported independently and almost simultaneously by Li and co-workers\(^\text{[75]}\) and by Jiao and co-workers\(^\text{[76]}\). In this methodology \(\text{K}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_8\) is used as an oxidant, \(\text{AgF}\) or \(\text{AgNO}_3\) as the catalyst and \(\text{PhSO}_2\text{N}_3\) as the azide source. Interestingly, the mechanism is believed, on the basis of EPR and DFT calculations, to involve an alkyl radical formed after decarboxylation of the carboxylic acid moiety. The alkyl azide can be tertiary, secondary or primary. Previously, alkyl substrates had been encountered only for base metals, such as Hartwig’s Fe-catalysed example or Groves’ Mn-catalysed system. For a noble metal this example is an outlier, in the sense that it is effective for alkyl substrates and appears to proceed by a single-electron-transfer mechanism. These are features encountered more typically for base-metal catalysts (Scheme 63).

Scheme 63. Ag-catalysed decarboxylative azidation of carboxylic acids.

After screening of the reaction conditions, the most effective system proved to be a combination of \(\text{AgNO}_3\) or \(\text{AgF}\), \(\text{PhSO}_2\text{N}_3\) as the azide source and \(\text{K}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_8\) as the oxidant (72 % yield). Other azide sources such as \(\text{NaN}_3\) or Togni-N\(_3\) gave no products. \(\text{AgF}\) was chosen as the catalyst of choice because of its higher photostability. The reaction is most effective for tertiary aliphatic carboxylic acids, followed by secondary and primary acids. However, the aromatic benzoic acid does not react under these conditions at all. In this case the addition of 2 equiv. of \([\text{PhO}_3\text{P}]\text{AuCl}\) was used as the catalyst (Scheme 64). Additionally, water was used as an additive, and temperatures were lowered. The regioselectivity of the reaction was found to be dictated by the electronic nature of the alkenes. A phenyl group close to the allene gave only one regioisomer, and the selectivity was reduced as the phenyl group moved further away from the allene. The synthetic utility of this system was demonstrated by the synthesis of iodinated allyl azides. The azide could be used in a further reaction to give a triazole,

Scheme 64. Top: formation of a cyclised side product confirming the involvement of a carbon radical. Bottom: proposed mechanism for decarboxylative azidation in the presence of Ag.

3.3. Au-Catalysed Azidations

Allenes and alkynes are widely used substrates in gold chemistry. In gold-catalysed azidation reactions, too, these are commonly encountered substrates. \(\text{AuIPPh}_3\) complexes are used in two of the reactions discussed below, whereas in the other \(\text{JohnPhos/gold(I)}\) catalyst is used. The azidating reagent is \(\text{TMSN}_3\) in all cases. These reactions require no external oxidants. The azide ion simply works as a nucleophile. The products of some of these azidations (an iodo-azide and amides generated by azidation of alkynes, and tetrazoles formed by C–C bond cleavage) are unique to these systems.

3.3.1. Au-Catalysed Azidation of Allenes

A gold-catalysed allene azidation protocol was developed by Muñoz and co-workers in 2014. The authors used \([\text{PPPh}_3]\text{AuCl/AgOTf}\) as the catalyst, \(\text{TMSN}_3\) as the nucleophile and cyclohexylallene as a test substrate\(^\text{[77]}\). Full conversion was achieved to produce the anticipated allyl azide and its regioisomer. Allyl trifluoroacetate was also obtained, together with the corresponding acetamide as an unexpected product. To make the reaction more selective, \([\text{PhO}_3\text{P}]\text{AuCl}\) was used as the catalyst (Scheme 65). Additionally, water was used as an additive, and temperatures were lowered. The regioselectivity of the reaction was found to be dictated by the electronic nature of the allenes. A phenyl group close to the allene gave only one regioisomer, and the selectivity was reduced as the phenyl group moved further away from the allene. The synthetic utility of this system was demonstrated by the synthesis of iodinated allyl azides. The azide could be used in a further reaction to give a triazole,
and the iodo functionality could be utilised for cross-coupling. The mechanism of this reaction requires more attention; NMR studies suggested that a complex equilibrium seems to exist.

Scheme 57. Mechanism of the reaction depicted in Scheme 56.

3.3.2. Au-Catalysed Formation of Amides from Alkynes by Azidation

In a rare example of aryl–alkyne C–C bond cleavage, Jiao and co-workers reported the formation of amides\(^{[78]}\) directly from substrates such as 1,2-diphenylethyne with use of TMSN\(_3\) as nitrogen source (Scheme 66). \((\text{PPh}_3)\text{AuCl/Ag}_2\text{CO}_3\) was found to be efficient, and Ag(CF\(_3\)COO)\(_2\) proved to be the best chloride ion abstractor in this case. The diaryl substitution at the alkyne was not a necessity, but aryl substitution gave better results. An ester-substituted phenylacetylene derivative gave no useful conversion. On monitoring the reaction by NMR spectroscopy the authors were also able to elucidate a mechanism in which activation of the alkyne by the catalyst is the first step, followed by nucleophilic attack of the azide anion to produce a trans-alkenyl–gold complex. In agreement with this hypothesis, (1-azidovinyl)benzene also yielded the expected amide product. This substrate also gave the product in the absence of the catalyst, thus confirming that the Au catalyst is involved only in the first steps of the reaction (i.e., activation of the alkyne and subsequent nucleophilic attack of the azide anion). The proposed mechanism is depicted in Scheme 67.

Scheme 66. Gold-catalysed reaction of aryl–alkynes to give amides by azidation.

3.3.3. Au-Catalysed Synthesis of Tetrazoles from Alkynes

The reported Au-catalysed reaction of alkynes to give amides as discussed above involves the cleavage of the aryl–alkyne bond in the alkyne by the action of \([\text{Au(PPh}_3]\text{Cl})\) and Ag\(_2\)CO\(_3\) in the presence of water and trifluoroacetic acid. In a follow-up study Echavarren and co-workers reported the use of a JohnPhos/gold(I) catalyst that takes part in reactions with alkynes in the absence of Ag\(_2\)CO\(_3\).\(^{[79]}\) The gold catalyst in this reaction plays a dual role, firstly by activating the alkyne towards nucleophilic attack and secondly by generating the Brønsted acid required for the final transformation of the alkenyl azide into the tetrazole (Scheme 68).

Initially the transformation was attempted in a stoichiometric reaction in which an alkyne, TMSN\(_3\), the neutral Au complex and AgSbF\(_6\) were mixed in dichloromethane at room temperature. This gave the tetrazole product still coordinated to the Au complex, thus implying that release of the product from Au might be challenging under the applied catalytic conditions. However, on increasing the temperature and performing the reaction in iPrOH the reaction could indeed be made catalytic. For electron-poor alkynes the yields were lower, and for internal alkynes the reaction was not successful. Aliphatic alkynes could also be employed in the reaction. The proposed mechanism is outlined in Scheme 69.

Scheme 67. Mechanism of the reaction depicted in Scheme 66.

Scheme 68. Au-catalysed synthesis of tetrazoles from alkynes by use of the JohnPhos/Au system.

Scheme 69. Proposed mechanism for the Au-catalysed synthesis of tetrazoles.
The reaction can be explained in terms of a mechanism that proceeds by reaction between an \( (\eta^2\text{-alkyne})\text{gold(I)} \) complex and \( \text{HN}_3 \), formed in situ from \( \text{TMSN}_3 \) and \( \text{iPrOH} \), to give A, which undergoes protodeauration to form B (Scheme 68). Protonation of B would give the iminodiazonium cation C, which could evolve to form the nitrilium cation D by migration of the R group (path a). Competitive migration of the methyl group (path b) is also possible. Finally, a formal 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of \( \text{HN}_3 \) to D provides product E.

4. Conclusions

This review highlights metal-catalysed approaches to azide synthesis, with the main focus on the substrate scopes, mechanisms and applicability. Metal-catalysed reactions that introduce azide moieties into organic compounds are relatively new in the field of catalysis. Most examples in this review date from the last decade if not the last five years, which is rather surprising in view of the frequent use of organic azides in a variety of organic synthetic transformations.

Quite a few examples involve direct functionalisation of C–H bonds. They include aromatic and activated (allylic, benzylic, \( \alpha \)- carbonyl) C–H bonds, but quite a few examples involving azidation of aliphatic C–H bonds are also described. These reactions appear to involve reactive azide radicals in the C–H bond azidation process, and yet proceed quite selectively in many cases. Nucleophilic substitution reactions involving the \( \text{N}_3^- \) anion as the nucleophile are other frequently encountered strategies used to introduce the azide moiety. Notably, reactions proceeding through azide radical formation are frequently encountered for Cu-, Fe- and Mn-catalysed reactions, whereas azidation reactions mediated by the late transition metals Pd, Rh and Au seem
to proceed mostly by ionic pathways, such as allylic azidation and/or “traditional” oxidative addition and reductive elimination elementary steps. This is in line with the commonly observed 1e– reactivity of base metals in contrast to the 2e– reactivity of noble metals.

Directing-group strategies are also frequently encountered in these catalytic reactions, in which advantage is taken of the chelating effect of nitrogen-containing substituents to achieve selective azidation of α-positions in aromatic rings. Azidation of aromatic C–H bonds proceeds at relatively low reaction temperatures and typically has relatively short reaction times. For aliphatic C–H bonds, higher reaction temperatures are typically required. Undoubtedly, the most impressive C–H bond azidation is that achieved with Hartwig’s Fe “boxmi” system, in which tertiary C–H bonds are selectively azided at room temperature in a chemo-, regio- and enantioselective manner. Late-stage azidation is therefore no longer only a desirable reaction, but truly made possible. In many examples, follow-up functionalisation reactions of the installed azide functionality proved to be orthogonal with the azidation protocol, thus enabling interesting one-pot transformations.

In terms of the viability of these transformations there are a few issues that will need to be addressed in order to make these reactions applicable in larger-scale reactions. It is clear that most of these transformations use TMSN₃ or NaN₃ as azide sources, and these are infamous for their toxic and potentially explosive nature. Similarly, the azide products are not harmless either (explosion limit depends on the C/N ratio). Thus, caution needs to be taken in trying to upscale these reactions. As such these reactions are perhaps good contenders for flow chemistry to address safety issues. Nonetheless, in some examples discussed in this review gram-scale synthesis was achieved. Another common element in many of the reactions discussed in this review is the need to use a hypervalent iodine compound, which produces stoichiometric amounts of halogen-containing waste. This needs to be tackled, perhaps by use of milder oxidants or recovery of the waste and reuse. On the bright side, in some examples oxygen/air could be used as an oxidant and this is perhaps the path forward.

Overall, despite some issues that need to be addressed in the future, recent advances made in transition-metal-catalysed azidation reactions provide access to a wide variety of interesting organic azides, ready for subsequent functionalisation reactions. This field can definitely be expected to aid the organic synthetic community in making a variety of products of interest.

**Acknowledgments**

The work was financially supported by The Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research (NWO-CW VICI grant 016.122.613).

**Keywords:** Azides - Transition-metal catalysis - Noble-metal catalysis - Radical reactions - Synthetic methods - C–H activation
