

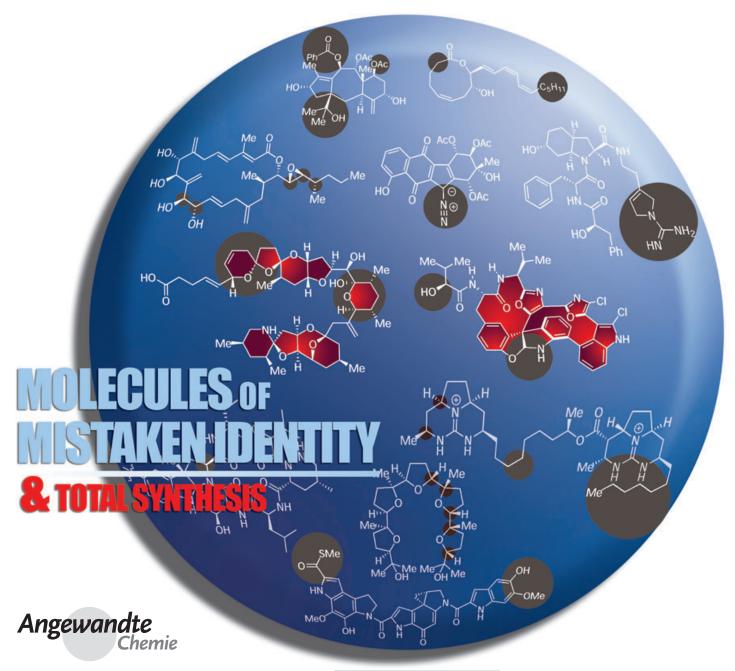
Natural Products Synthesis

Chasing Molecules That Were Never There: Misassigned Natural Products and the Role of Chemical Synthesis in **Modern Structure Elucidation**

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Over the course of the past half century, the structural elucidation of unknown natural products has undergone a tremendous revolution. Before World War II, a chemist would have relied almost exclusively on the art of chemical synthesis, primarily in the form of degradation and derivatization reactions, to develop and test structural hypotheses in a process that often took years to complete when grams of material were available. Today, a battery of advanced spectroscopic methods, such as multidimensional NMR spectroscopy and high-resolution mass spectrometry, not to mention X-ray crystallography, exist for the expeditious assignment of structures to highly complex molecules isolated from nature in milligram or sub-milligram quantities. In fact, it could be argued that the characterization of natural products has become a routine task, one which no longer even requires a reaction flask! This Review makes the case that imaginative detective work and chemical synthesis still have important roles to play in the process of solving nature's most intriguing molecular puzzles.

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1. Introduction

During all of the 19th century and most of the early half of the 20th century, natural product structure elucidation was an art that depended almost entirely on the power of chemical synthesis, or, more specifically, on the effectiveness of degradation or derivatization processes, to reveal the architectural design of a molecule. Assuming both that gram quantities of the substance under investigation were available and that the chemical transformations employed proceeded along expected lines, researchers of that era might have expected to solve their molecular puzzles after a few years of painstaking effort. The assignment of absolute or relative configuration was, of course, essentially out of the question in most cases.

Needless to say, this intellectually difficult and physically tedious approach had its limitations, and was often attended with errors. For example, during the 1920s there was tremendous interest in establishing the structures of a number of steroids. Although a formidable task that stymied many, two researchers in Germany, Wieland and Windaus, rose to the challenge and unraveled several of the key structural motifs of these molecules, leading them to propose a number of architectures, such as structure 1 for cholesterol (Figure 1).^[1] So impressed was the chemical community with this work that it ultimately served as part of the basis for their separate receipt of the Nobel Prize in Chemistry in 1927 and 1928, respectively. Unfortunately, as anyone today can instantly recognize, their proposals had a number of inaccuracies in terms of the core structure-mistakes that were revealed in 1932 when Bernal obtained the first X-ray crystal structure of a steroid (ergosterol (2), Figure 1).^[2]

Nevertheless, the near-exclusive use of chemical synthesis for structural elucidation did score a number of remarkable successes, such as correct assignments for the natural products quinine (**4**)^[3] and haemin (**5**)^[4] prior to the start of World War II, and strychnine (**6**) in 1946 (Figure 2).^[5] Equally

1: Wieland/Windaus structure for cholesterol (1927)

2: structure of ergosterol (1932) (verified by X-ray crystal-structure analysis)

3: correct structure of cholesterol (1932)

Figure 1. A classical misassignment: Wieland and Windaus were awarded the Nobel Prize in Chemistry in 1927 and 1928, respectively, for deriving structures of natural products, such as their proposed structure 1 for cholesterol.

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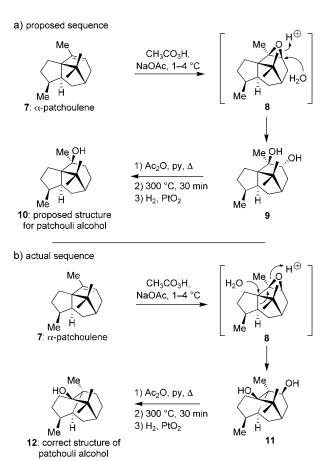


important, if not more so, these efforts also served as the principle driving force for the discovery of new chemical reactivity. Indeed, much of our present knowledge regarding heterocyclic chemistry was established through structural work directed towards the targets shown in Figure 2, among

Figure 2. Quinine (4), haemin (5), and strychnine (6): The elucidation of the structures of these natural products inspired a great deal of new chemistry.

others, just as work focused on confirming the connectivities of the steroids afforded insight into how carbon–carbon bonds could be forged and cleaved. Phrased differently, as recently formulated by Doering: "In the beginning, the isolation of chemicals from natural sources provided an unceasing stimulus to the creation and development of science." [6]

By contrast, total synthesis played almost no role as a vehicle for chemical discovery during these early days. Instead, it served as the means to obtain a final proof of structure once degradative work had been completed, under the belief that if synthetically derived material matched its natural counterpart in all respects, then the proposed structure must be correct. This assumption was an accurate one for the most part, though it, too, could lead to misassignments. A classic example resides in work directed towards patchouli alcohol, a natural product that had been assigned structure 10 (Scheme 1) in 1961 by Büchi and his colleagues at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) after several years of careful study.^[7] In 1962, the Büchi group felt that they had confirmed their structural proposal by obtaining synthetic material that corresponded fully to authentic patchouli alcohol in just four steps from another natural product, αpatchoulene (7). [8] As shown in Scheme 1 a, those operations were: 1) epoxidation of the double bond in 7 followed by nucleophilic ring opening to generate diol 9; 2) acetylation of



Scheme 1. The total synthesis of patchouli alcohol by Buchi et al. caused faith to be placed in the wrong structure for the natural product (they postulated **10** instead of **12**). The error occurred as a result of an unexpected skeletal rearrangement.

the resulting secondary alcohol; 3) thermally induced elimination of the newly formed acetate; and 4) hydrogenation of the resulting olefin.

Although this synthesis should have provided the final verdict on the structure of patchouli alcohol, the case was reopened a year later when Dunitz and his colleagues at the Eidgenössische Technische Hochschule Zürich obtained an X-ray crystal structure of a diester derivative that suggested that 12, rather than 10, was the structure of patchouli alcohol.^[9] What had happened? Well, the problem did not



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lie with the crystal structure or with the sequence employed by the MIT team. Instead, the discrepancy resulted from an unanticipated skeletal rearrangement that had occurred in the Büchi synthesis when 7 was treated with peracid, an operation that fortuitously generated the correct architecture of the natural product as represented by 11.^[10] A lucky coincidence, indeed!

By the late 1960s, the chances of encountering such an unanticipated outcome during efforts towards structure elucidation dropped precipitously as the "classical" chemical approach was gradually replaced by a far more accurate battery of nondestructive methods, such as nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), ultraviolet (UV), and infrared (IR) spectroscopy, circular dichroism (CD), and mass spectrometry (MS).[11] Today, these methods have grown both in number and power to the extent that a researcher seeking to characterize a few milligrams of an unknown natural product would probably rely entirely on spectroscopic techniques to obtain a complete structural assignment. The benefits, at least based on some recently assigned natural product structures, are clear: Far more complex molecules can be tackled in far less time, even when the compounds are isolated in miniscule amounts. Furthermore, for synthetic chemists, discovery has become intricately linked to processes other than degradation, such as total synthesis. Even as early as 1963, the chemical community keenly perceived the power of these changes, as evidenced by the following remarks:

If penicillin were discovered today ... the scientific problems of studying a pure crystalline compound with a molecular weight of about 350 would not have been nearly so difficult. The conclusion is that a good graduate student would probably work out the structure of penicillin in a day or so. Just a generation ago, that same scientific feat took the best of us years of intensive work.

John C. Sheehan (1982)[12]

We have now reached the stage where often we have insufficient material for a retention sample; where crystallization is not worth attempting; where determination of a melting point may be a prohibitive waste of material; and yet, where we have learned more about the structure of that molecule than we did years ago with grams of substance.

Carl Djerassi (1980)^[13]

While it is undeniable that organic chemistry will be deprived of one special and highly satisfying kind of opportunity for the exercise of intellectual *élan* and experimental skill when the tradition of purely chemical structure elucidation declines, it is true too that the not infrequent dross of such investigations will also be shed; nor is there any reason to suppose that the challenge for the hand and the intellect must be less, or the fruits less tantalizing, when chemistry *begins* at the advanced vantage point of an established structure.

R. B. Woodward (1963)^[5d]

At the same time, these advances have also left some (especially those who "grew up" during the classical era) with a lingering sense that something important and valuable has been lost, that the practice of structure elucidation can never again provide the drama it once did:

Today ... spectroscopic methods have almost entirely supplanted this classical approach, and therewith deprived the science of a nigh inexhaustible source of unpremeditated discoveries.

W. von E. Doering (1999)^[6]

Until the mid-1960s, structure determination was an art that could be likened to solving a complicated detective case, but with the spectacular advancement in spectroscopy it has become less inspiring, and since the mid-1980s, in most cases, structure determination has become rather "routine".

Koji Nakanishi (1991)^[14]

In any event, progress can not be reversed, and, at present, our spectroscopic abilities have converted chemical synthesis into its own highly specialized and rewarding discipline, one that has little to do with structure elucidation apart from the assignment of absolute or relative stereochemistry in those cases where spectroscopy or X-ray crystallography can not provide the answer. We might be able to gauge the current state of the field of structural elucidation by considering molecules such as palytoxin (13, Figure 3), a compound whose highly ornate architecture was established almost completely by spectroscopic means with synthesis filling in the missing stereochemical information.^[15] A number of other examples could also be used as a barometer. To mention just one, synthesis has not yet made its final mark on amphidinolide N (14). With nine unassigned stereocenters, the correct structure is one of 512 possible isomers! $^{[16]}$

Certainly a rosy picture, but is it completely accurate? Are structural elucidations mostly uneventful endeavors? Have spectroscopic techniques made the process of characterization one almost devoid of errors? Is there no role for total synthesis beyond stereochemical assignment? Herein we address these issues and hope to succeed in convincing you not only that chemical synthesis still has much to offer, but also that there is a long way to go before natural product characterization can be considered a process devoid of adventure, discovery, and, yes, even unavoidable pitfalls.

2. The State of Modern Structure Elucidation

As a starting point for tackling some of the questions listed above, we searched a variety of scientific databases for a series of keyword terms, such as "structural misassignment" and "revised structure", to ascertain just how frequently natural products have been incorrectly assigned during the past few years. [17] We expected to find only a few errors, with most of these arising from a misassigned stereocenter or two, and those in only the most complex or unique of structures. The actual output proved to be very different. Limiting our search to literature published from January 1990 to April 2004, we uncovered the existence of well over 300 structural revisions, many of which extended far beyond simple stereo-



Figure 3. Determination of absolute/relative configuration: the last frontier of chemical-stucture elucidation? The structure of palytoxin (13) was ultimately determined by chemical synthesis. In the proposed structure of amphidinolide N (14) the configurations of nine stereocenters remain unassigned.

chemical problems into the realm of profound, and sometimes complete, constitutional changes. Tables 1 to 8 present 50 members of this collection in no particular order. Amazingly, the examples cover virtually every compound class, including steroids, terpenes, indole alkaloids, and peptides, and encompass molecules of all sizes and levels of stereochemical complexity.

Clearly, this diverse array of structures reveals that mistakes are still a common occurrence despite our present advantages. But why do so many errors occur? The answer certainly does not place into question the skills of the scientists who made the original structural determination. On the contrary, it is amazing just how many complicated natural products have been assigned correctly, especially when only limited material was available or the natural substance in question was unlike any other ever observed. Instead, the number of errors simply reflects the fact that *every* method for assignment has its weaknesses, some of which can not be resolved even if every other tool for structural elucidation is also applied.

For example, although X-ray crystallography is traditionally viewed as an infallible technique, it can occasionally lead to misassignments because it does not reveal the positions of hydrogen atoms (those shown in any crystal structure have always been drawn in). Consequently, it is sometimes difficult

to discern between O atoms and NH groups, as discussed at some length with an example in Section 4. X-ray crystallography can also confuse the identity of atoms within certain functional groups devoid of hydrogen atoms. Table 4 shows an example in which the assignment of a C atom instead of an N atom (a cyano rather than a diazo group) led to a long-standing incorrect structure for the kinamycins.^[70–72]

NMR spectroscopy, too, can only provide so much of the overall picture, especially in the case of molecules with insufficient hydrogen atoms to obtain the ¹H, ¹³C correlations needed to assign their deeper domains properly. Many of the structural revisions in the tables fall into this category, even though a number of powerful two-dimensional techniques, such as INEPT, HMBC, HMQC, and TOCSY, were applied. In some cases, even NMR spectroscopy is of little use as a tool despite its awesome power, and more basic methods, such as IR spectroscopy, become the principal source of structural information. Such was the case with the unnamed coumarin shown in Table 2, a compound whose structure proved exceedingly difficult to ascertain considering its relatively small size. [39,40]

Of course, structural assignments

are rarely based on just one method and are typically the culmination of a careful refinement process that considers a variety of architectural possibilities, pruned only when new information is added to the overall picture. Consequently, assignment errors are often the result of faith placed in spectroscopic data that is actually spurious, as incorrect structures that should have been excluded early in the process can then survive. For example, in their effort to assign a structure to halipeptin A (see Table 1), the research group of Gomez-Paloma used high-resolution mass spectrometric data obtained by the fast-atom bombardment (FAB) technique to identify its molecular formula. Their finding (C₃₁H₅₄N₄O₈) was then combined with information from other sources (primarily NMR spectroscopy) to generate a proposed structure that included a unique four-membered ring linked to a carbonyl group at the core of the molecule. [27] However, upon reinvestigation of the molecular formula a year later by using a different high-resolution mass spectrometric technique (electron-spray ionization, ESI), the data now suggested that the molecular formula C₃₁H₅₄N₄O₆S was a far better match for halipeptin A (i.e., the exchange of two oxygen atoms for a sulfur atom). Consequently, a very different structural assignment for the central portion of the molecule resulted.^[28] A similar type of mass spectrometric error was responsible the misassignment of a portion of didemniser-



 Table 1:
 Selected structures of misassigned natural products and proposed structural revisions.

| Proposed structure | Methods used in original assignment | Revised structure and basis for revision | Verified by total synthesis |
|--|---|--|--|
| Me NH NH OME | NMR UV IR MS | Me Ne OH | Cornella and Kelly (2004) ^[20] |
| porritoxin Suemitsu et al. (1992) ^[18] | | 2D NMR experiments Horiuchi et al. (2002) ^[19] | |
| Me O, H N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N | NMR UV IR CD MS | Me Q,, H N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N | no |
| nomofungin Hemscheidt et al. (2001) ^[21] | | comparison with literature data for another natural product Stoltz et al. (2003) ^[22] | |
| Me Me Me OH | NMR UV IR MS | Me Me Me Me Me Me OH | no |
| neomarinone Fenical et al. (2000) ^[23] | | 2D NMR spectroscopy and feeding experiments Moore et al. (2003) ^[24] | |
| OH OH Me HO OH HO OH | NMR IR MS | Me HO H H Me Me OH | Lee et al. (2002) ^[26] |
| lasonolide A McConnell et al. (1994) ^[25] Me O Me O Me O O Me O O O O O O O O O | NMR UV IR | chemical synthesis Lee et al. (2002) ^[26] | no |
| Me NH Me halipeptin A Gomez-Paloma et al. (2001)[27] | MS derivatization | reevaluation of MS data and chemical synthesis Gomez-Paloma et al. (2002) ^[28] | |
| Me Me Me Me | NMR IR MS | Me Me Me OH | Overman, Paquette, et al. (2001) ^[31] |
| sclerophytin A Sharma and Alam (1988) ^[29] | | 2D NMR spectroscopy and chemical synthesis Paquette et al. (2000) ^[30] | |
| Me" N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N | NMR UV IR MS | Me N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N | Cohen and Overman (2001) ^[33] |
| batzelladine F Faulkner et al. (1997) ^[32] | | reevaluation of MS data and chemical synthesis Cohen and Overman (2001) ^[33] | |



 Table 2:
 Selected structures of misassigned natural products and proposed structural revisions.

| Proposed structure | Methods used in original assignment | Revised structure and basis for revision | Verified by total synthesis |
|--|---|--|---|
| OMe Me OH Me OH OH OH OH OH OH OH OH OH O | NMR UV IR MS | Me M | Paterson et al. (1994) ^[36] |
| swinholide A Carmely and Kashman (1985) ^[34] physalin K Ramachandra Row et al. (1980) ^[37] | NMR EA UV IR CD MS derivatization | reisolation and reexamination Kitagawa et al. (1990) ^[35] isolation of related compounds and more detailed spectroscopic investigations | no |
| Me OMe Me OMe unnamed coumarin Atta-Ur-Rahman et al. (1991) ^[39] | NMR UV IR MS | Kawai et al. (1995) ^[38] MeO MeO MeO Chemical synthesis Kalinin and Snieckus (1998) ^[40] | Kalinin and Sniecku (1998) ^[40] |
| sinharine Hofer et al. (1992) ^[41] | NMR UV IR MS | chemical synthesis Johnson et al. (1994) ^[42] | Johnson et al. (1994) ^[42] |
| Me Me Me Me AcO _{OH} calyculaglycoside A Rodríguez et al. (1997) ^[43] | NMR UV IR MS degradation | isolation of related compounds, biogenetic considerations, and degradation Rodríguez et al. (2001) ^[44] | no |
| Me Me Me OOMe Oome Oome Oome Oome Oome Oome Oome Oom | NMR UV IR CD MS | X-ray crystallography and 2D NMR spectroscopy Fischer et al. (1997) ^[46] | no |



 Table 3:
 Selected structures of misassigned natural products and proposed structural revisions.

| Proposed structure | Methods used in original assignment | Revised structure and basis for revision | Verified by total synthesis |
|---|---|--|--|
| N HO N | NMR IR MS | N HO N | no |
| xestocyclamine A Crews et al. (1993) ^[47] | | isolation of related compounds and reevaluation Rodríguez and Crews (1994) ^[48] | |
| Me Me HO OH | NMR IR MS | Ph O OAC OAC HO Me OH | no |
| brevifoliol Tachibana et al. (1991) ^[49] | | reisolation and reexamination Georg et al. (1993) ^[50] | |
| MeO NH N | NMR EA UV IR derivatization | MeO N N N | Hubbs and Heathcock (1999) ^[53] |
| isoschizogamine Renner and Fritz (1965) ^[51] | | reisolation and 2D NMR spectroscopy Hájícek et al. (1998) ^[52] | |
| $Me \bigvee_{Me} O CO_2Na$ | NMR EA IR derivatization | Me O CO ₂ H | no |
| FR900148 Kuroda et al. (1980) ^[54] | | reisolation and reexamination Yasuda and Sakane (1991) ^[55] | |
| Me Me OH Me Me Palominol Rodríguez et al. (1990) [56] | NMR IR MS derivatization | isolation of related compounds and comparison of spectra Shin and Fenical (1991) ^[57] | Corey and Kania (1998) ^[58] |
| HO, Me O Me Me Me HO, Me HO, Me HO, Me HO, Me | NMR UV IR CD MS derivatization | chemical synthesis Trost and Harrington (2004) ^[60] | Trost and Harrington (2004) ^[60] |
| Me Me Me sacacarin | NMR UV IR MS | chemical synthesis | Grossman and Rasne (2001) ^[62] |
| Maciel et al. (1998) ^[61] | | Grossman and Rasne (2001) ^[62] | |



Table 4: Selected structures of misassigned natural products and proposed structural revisions.

| Proposed structure | Methods used in original assignment | Revised structure and basis for revision | Verified by total synthesis |
|--|---|---|-----------------------------|
| O NH ₂ O NH ₂ O NH ₂ O NH ₂ O NH O NH Me NH Me NHMe NHMe | NMR EA UV IR MS degradation | N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N | no ^[65] |
| GE2270A Ferrari et al. (1991) ^[63] | | degradation and chemical synthesis Tavecchia et al. (1995) ^[64] | |
| Me Me Me Caespitenone Asakawa et al. (1980) ^[66] | NMR UV IR MS derivatization | 2D NMR spectroscopy Asakawa et al. (1993) ^[67] | no |
| OMe Me OH antidesmone Bringmann et al. (1999) ^[68] | NMR UV CD IR MS derivatization | feeding experiments Bringmann et al. (2000) ^[69] | no |
| ACQ OAC Me OH OAC N OAC OH OH OAC C Omura et al. (1973) ^[70] | X-ray crystallography NMR UV IR MS degradation derivatization | 2D NMR spectroscopy and chemical synthesis Gould et al. (1994) ^[71] and Dmitrienko et al. (1994) ^[72] | no |
| MeO OMe NH MeNMe2 OH | NMR UV IR MS degradation derivatization | OMe OMe HN OMe OH OH OH OH OH OH OH OH OH O | no ^[75] |



 Table 5:
 Selected structures of misassigned natural products and proposed structural revisions.

| Proposed structure | Methods used in original assignment | Revised structure and basis for revision | Verified by total synthesis |
|---|---|---|--|
| Ме | NMR IR MS | Me OH | Ziegler et al. (1992) ^[78] |
| sporol Tempesta et al. (1986) ^[76] | | NMR spectroscopy and chemical synthesis Ziegler et al. (1988) ^[77] | |
| Me H H OH OH OH | NMR UV IR MS derivatization | Me He OH | no |
| tetrapetalone A Hirota et al. (2003) ^[79] | | ¹ H- ¹⁵ N HMBC spectroscopy Hirota et al. (2003) ^[80] | |
| HO NH ₂ O CO ₂ Et | NMR UV IR MS | NaO ₃ SO NH ₂ O H CO ₂ Et MS and chemical synthesis | Ley et al. (2002) ^[82] |
| Jiménez et al. (1999) ^[81] | NMR | Ley et al. (2002) ^[82] | |
| NH HN | UV IR CD MS derivatization | HN | Borschberg et a (1991) ^[84] |
| (+)-aristolasicone Husson et al. (1988) ^[83] | denvanzanon | X-ray crystallography and chemical synthesis Borschberg et al. (1991) ^[84] | |
| Me Me Me | NMR IR MS | Me Me | Takikawa et al. (2003) ^[86] |
| annuionone A Macías et al. (1998) ^[85] | | reevaluation of NMR spectroscopic data Takikawa et al. (2003) ^[86] | |
| MeH OAc | NMR MS | Me Me Me | Arnó et al. (2003) ^[88] |
| aplyroseol-14 Taylor and Toth (1997) ^[87] | | chemical synthesis Arnó et al. (2003) ^[88] | |
| MeO HO Me | NMR UV IR MS | MeO HO Me | no |
| TAEMC161 Nakajima et al. (2000) ^[89] | | comparison with literature data for another natural product Wipf and Kerekes (2003) ^[90] | |
| N N N | NMR MS | | Zoltewicz et al. (1995) ^[93] |
| nemertelline Kem et al. (1976) ^[91] | | X-ray crystallography and chemical synthesis Zoltewicz and Cruskie (1995) ^[92] | |



 Table 6:
 Selected structures of misassigned natural products and proposed structural revisions.

| Proposed structure | Methods used in original assignment | Revised structure and basis for revision | Verified by total synthesis |
|---|--|---|--|
| ascidiatrienolide A Lindquist and Fenical (1989) ^[94] | NMR UV IR MS | chemical synthesis Holmes et al. (1993) ^[95] | Holmes et al. (1993) ^[95] |
| Me M | NMR UV IR MS | Me Me Me 2D NMR spectroscopy and X-ray crystallography Saito et al (2001) ^[97] | no |
| Me HO NH Me HO Me | NMR MS | Me Me Me HO Me HO Me reisolation and reevalution Ireland et al. (1992) ^[99] | no |
| H ₂ N O Me CO ₂ H HO HO O HO ₂ C H HO OH Me HO O NHAC OHO | NMR MS degradation derivatization | Ho OH Me HO OH HO CH R HO OH ME HO OH NHAC HO OH ME HO OH NHAC HO OH ME HO OH NHAC HO OH ME ME ME ME MS and 2D NMR spectroscopy Fehlhaber et al. (1990)[101] | no |
| MeO O H HO MeMe OAC Me OHO HO Me Me OHO HO Me Me DO HO HO Me Me DO HO HO Me Me DO HO | NMR UV MS | 2D NMR spectroscopy Schaufelberger et al. (1991) ^[103] | Yamamura et al. (2000) ^[104] |



 Table 7:
 Selected structures of misassigned natural products and proposed structural revisions.

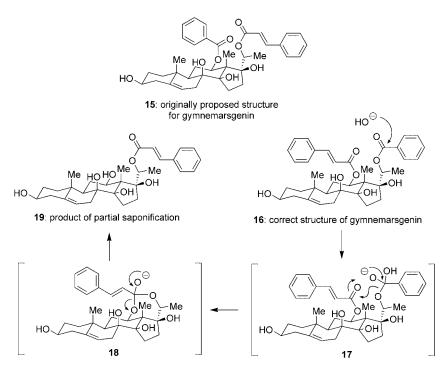
| Proposed structure | Methods used in original assignment | Revised structure and basis for revision | Verified by total synthesis |
|--|--|---|--|
| Me HO Me Me HO OH | NMR UV IR MS degradation | Me HO Me Me HO OH NMR spectroscopy | no |
| Zhou et al. (1989) ^[105] Me H Me H Me OH Me glabrescol Reynolds et al. (1995) ^[107] | NMR IR MS | Cordell et al. (1995) ^[106] Me H Me H Me OH Me Chemical synthesis Morimoto et al. (2000) ^[108b] | Morimoto et al., Xiong and Corey (2000) ^{∏08b, c]} |
| Me M | NMR UV IR MS degradation | chemical synthesis and comparison with literature data for another natural product Eguchi, Kakinuma, et al. (2004)[110] | no |
| Me OAC OAC OAC OAC OH OAC OH ME OH M | NMR UV MS derivatization | chemical synthesis and NMR spectroscopy Kishi et al. (1999) ^[112] | Wang and Kishi (1999) ^[113] |
| himastatin Leet et al. (1996)[714] | NMR UV IR MS degradation derivatization | chemical synthesis Kamenecka and Danishefsky (1998) ^[115] | Kamenecka and Danishefsky (1998) ^[115] |
| robustadial A Nakanishi et al. (1984) ^[116] | NMR UV IR CD MS degradation derivatization | chemical synthesis Cheng and Snyder (1988)[117] | Salomon et al. (1988) ^[118] |



 Table 8:
 Selected structures of misassigned natural products and proposed structural revisions.

| Proposed structure | Methods used in original assignment | Revised structure and basis for revision | Verified by total synthesis |
|---|--|---|---|
| HO Me Me Me Me OH Me Me OH | NMR UV IR MS | Me Me Me Me OH OH reisolation and reexamination Paterson et al. (2004) ^[120] | no |
| lepadiformine Biard et al. (1994) ^[121] | NMR IR MS derivatization | chemical synthesis Kibayashi et al. (2000) ^[122] | Kibayashi et al. (2000) ^[122] |
| Me NH HN Me Me trunkamide A Ireland, Bowden, et al. (1996)[123] | NMR UV IR MS degradation derivatization | Me NH HN Me Me Me chemical synthesis Wipf and Uto (2000)[124] | Wipf and Uto (2000) ^[124] |
| Me M | NMR CD UV IR MS | Me Me Me Me Me Me Chemical synthesis Shioiri et al. (1999)[126] | Shioiri et al. (1999) ^[126] |
| HO HN NH | NMR MS | chemical synthesis Hanessian et al. (2004) ^[128] | Hanessian et al. (2004) ^[128] |
| yatakemycin Igarashi et al. (2003)[129] | NMR UV IR MS | chemical synthesis Boger et al. (2004) | Boger et al. (2004) ^[130] |





Scheme 2. Potential characterization pitfalls: A degradation reaction leads to an internal migration, and the structure **15** is therefore assigned (erroneously) to the steroid natural product gymnemarsgenin (**16**).

inolipid B (Table 5), although the revision in this case involved a much smaller constitutional change. [81,82]

In other instances, the collected spectroscopic data might have led to the right assignment, if a chemical method had not led to a mistake. Such was the case in the attempt to assign a structure to the steroid natural product gymnemarsgenin (Table 7), whereby a final degradative reaction seeking to cleave only one of the two ester groups was employed to assist in confirming the positions of these functionalities within the molecule. Unfortunately, this experiment led the original research team to propose an incorrect structure (15, see Scheme 2), as an internal migration reaction occurred under the conditions used, an outcome that was not recognized until well after publication. [105,106]

We could fill pages with the stories behind some of these reassignments. Rather than doing this, we encourage you to explore independently those examples that interest you most, as they provide a rich source of potential research projects and a wealth of interesting problems as to how one might attempt to discern between the original and revised structures. Instead, we use the examples in Tables 1 to 8 to make the case that chemical synthesis still has a major role to play in structural assignments, especially structural revisions. Indeed, for over half of the reassignments in this sample (27), chemical synthesis was required to reach a revised architecture, and in 22 cases it was total synthesis that indicated that there was a problem in the first place. Many of these examples involved the process of establishing/revising the configuration of stereocenters, as hinted above, but that should not give the false impression that such a correction involved little work. For example, the research group of Lee had to prepare a number of structural isomers of lasonolide A (Table 1) before they realized its true constitution. Similarly, Trost and Harrington synthesized ten different diastereomers of amphidinolide A (see Table 3) to assure themselves of its identity, as differences in the chemical-shift values in the NMR spectra were only slight, and no natural sample was available to enable a direct comparison. [59,60]

In other cases, chemical synthesis served to confirm a given motif. For example, apart from using a different mass spectrometric experiment to reassign the structure of halipeptin A, the Gomez-Paloma team also synthesized a model compound bearing the newly proposed thiazoline motif so that they could compare its spectroscopic properties to those of the natural product. [28] Similarly, Hirama and co-workers prepared a substantial portion of the kedarcidin chromophore (Table 4) to convince themselves of

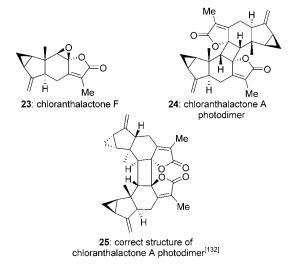


Figure 4. Selected examples of natural products isolated independently by two different research groups, each of whom proposed a structure. In each case it was ultimately shown that neither proposal was correct.

Reviews

the altered connectivity and configuration that they intended to propose in its revised architecture.^[74] It is inconceivable, of course, that all these corrections could have been made without chemical synthesis.

Thus, given our present state, the question becomes: Can anything be done to limit the number of mistakes made in structural assignments? In our opinion, apart from perhaps the isolation of more sample, there is only modest room for improvement without the introduction of more powerful spectroscopic techniques. However, one type of unfortunate error could potentially be avoided if chemists were to deposit all their spectral data into a universal database similar to that used for X-ray crystal structures: namely, the proposal of an incorrect structure for a natural product that has already been isolated and characterized. There are five examples in the tables in which this situation occurred: nomofungin, TAEMC151, FD-891, renieramycin H, and the unnamed coumarin. Figure 4 shows two additional examples, whereby different research teams isolated the same natural product independently and proposed different structures (and names) for that compound, only for it to be recognized later that they were both in error. [131,132] Perhaps all these mistakes (and much work) could have been avoided if it was easier to determine through a computer search engine whether a given natural product had already been isolated and/or independently characterized. Access to spectra (not just tables of data) could certainly assist in the assignment of newly isolated members of a given class of natural products and should facilitate the structural reassignment process in those instances in which an error has occurred.

Finally, for a considerable number of natural products whose originally proposed structures have been called into question through total synthesis, a revised assignment has yet to be made. Figure 5 shows just a few of these unsolved mysteries, some of which have been lingering without an alternative structure for a number of years.

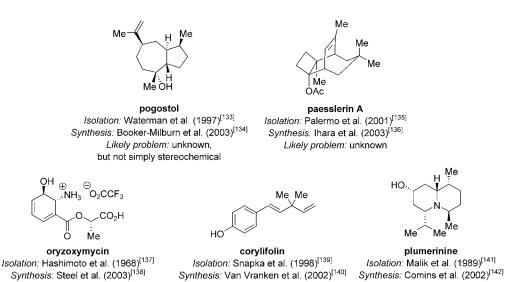
3. The Ramifications of Structural Misassignments

While the story behind any individual reassignment of the structure of a natural product can afford insight into the weaknesses of a particular method used for its initial assignment, it is rare that such a misassignment does not also incur a number of palpable and sometimes far-reaching consequences. Of these, the most serious might be the temptation to develop inaccurate biosynthetic proposals for entire classes of compounds.

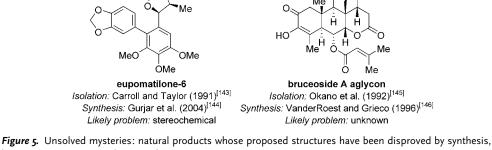
For example, in 1925 Pummerer et al. showed that the one-electron oxidation of p-cresol with $K_3[Fe(CN)_6]$ afforded the dimeric product 28 (Scheme 3), whose formation was rationalized as the coupling of two radicals (26a and 26b)

> followed by a spontaneous cyclization. This structural assignment was further supported by the subsequent reaction of the compound with acid and acetic anhydride to generate the biaryl system 29.[147] Although the Pummerer ketone (28) is not a natural product, the assignment of its structure was important because its identity and mode of formation served as the basis for a number of biosynthetic pathways proposed over the next 30 years, such as that proposed by Robinson for morphine (34).[148]

> These ideas would all be turned upside down in 1955. Unable to formulate a mechanism by which compound 28 could be converted into 29 and uncertain of why the cyclization step required for the formation of 28 from 27 would occur at ambient temperature, Barton[148] proposed an alternative pathway for the reaction (Scheme 3). He suggested that the true structure of the Pummerer ketone was the product 31 derived from the union of the two carbon-centered radicals 26b and 26c. Compound 29 could then be formed from 31 simply by an acid-induced dienone-phenol



Likely problem: unknown



but are awaiting a revised proposal.

Likely problem: sidechain placement

and composition

Likely problem: unknown

Scheme 3. A structural misassignment for the Pummerer ketone served as the basis for numerous errors regarding the biosynthesis of natural products such as morphine (**34**). Barton's reexamination of this problem led to a structural revision with important ramifications, including a two-step total synthesis of usnic acid (**33**).

rearrangement. Within a few weeks, laboratory experiments proved him right, and he was able to extend the validity of his alternate mechanism and the new structure for the Pummerer ketone to a number of other areas, such as the synthesis of the lichen-derived natural product usnic acid (33) in just two steps from 32. Barton also used his mechanism to formulate a biosynthetic pathway for morphine that was entirely different from those previously proposed, with benzylisoquinoline alkaloid 35 as a likely starting substrate. Although unknown at the time, compound 35 was isolated as a natural product a few years later (named reticuline)^[149] and shown through

feeding experiments to be intimately involved in the biosynthesis of morphine.

Such major revisions to biosynthetic pathways occur with some frequency today. Although there are several elegant examples we could cite, perhaps one of the most interesting comes from recent work by the research group of Lichtenthaler that disproved a structure established by Barton himself! The natural product in question is daucic acid, which was first assigned structure 36 (Scheme 4) based primarily on

Scheme 4. Although many aspects of Barton's original proposed structure for daucic acid (**36**) were accurate, the structure was ultimately proven to be incorrect in 2003 through chemical synthesis.

its conversion into compounds such as **37**, **38**, and **39**, the second of which fully matched a diester of another natural product, osbeckic acid (**40**). In 2003, the Lichtenthaler team was not entirely convinced that the configurations of the C2 and C3 stereocenters proposed earlier by Barton were correct, so they synthesized all possible stereoisomers of daucic acid and proved that **41** was the actual structure. The fact that daucic acid has a D-lyxo configuration, rather than the D-xylo configuration originally proposed, has a number of implications for the biosynthetic pathways through which plants generate such dicarboxylic acids, a line of study that is still being investigated today.

Sometimes, though, it need not be an entire pathway that is wrong. Confusion can also arise when a proposed structure appears incongruent with known biosynthetic data. A good example of such a phenomenon comes from the story of the mitomycins, an especially important group of natural products, one of which (mitomycin C) is employed clinically as an anticancer agent. In 1967, their structures were fully assigned (including their absolute configurations) based on a battery of spectroscopic methods and X-ray crystallography. [152] The structure of one of these agents, mitomycin A (42), is shown in Scheme 5. A few years later this assignment seemed questionable in light of some feeding experiments that revealed D-glucosamine (43) as the source of most of the "right-hand"



Scheme 5. Although established by X-ray crystallography, the absolute configuration of the structure assigned to mitomycin A **(42)** in 1967 did not make sense in light of biosynthetic feeding experiments. This discrepancy would not be reconciled for 20 years.

domain of the molecule. If this were true, a number of the stereocenters of this building block would have to be epimerized to produce a mitomycin architecture with the absolute configuration corresponding to 42. [153] Why was there this discrepancy? As it turns out, the original X-ray crystal structure of mitomycin A provided the wrong absolute configuration (as determined by the R-factor-ratio test). In 1987, a crystal of better quality was obtained, and the structural and biosynthetic data were finally reconciled with the revised structure 44. [154]

Incorrectly assigned natural products not only complicate the determination of biosynthetic schemes, but can have additional costs in terms of time and money if effort is devoted toward their synthesis. Perhaps one of the earliest and best illustrations of this point is the truly profound body of resources brought to bear by the American and British governments on the problem of synthesizing penicillin during World War II in the hopes of increasing its supply. Since these were the days before the β -lactam structure **49** (Scheme 6) of

Scheme 6. Debate surrounding the structure of the penicillins had a profound effect on synthetic approaches to their total synthesis both during and after World War II.

this agent was verified by Crawfoot-Hodgkin by X-ray crystallography, [155] the lack of certainty regarding its actual constitution led synthetic chemists of the period to pursue a number of potential penicillin structures in the laboratory. Famous examples include the oxazolone-thiazolidine architecture 45 favored principally by Robinson and a tricyclic alternative 48 that was advocated at one point by Woodward. [12] Each of these structures calls for a unique synthetic approach (such as the connection of 46 and 47 to generate 45). However, since neither comes even close to matching the true architecture of the target molecule, it is not surprising that the millions of dollars and hundreds of years' worth of human effort invested in their synthesis during the war afforded few dividends on the penicillin-supply front. [156] Indeed, fermentation remained the only viable source of these powerful antibiotics until the late 1950s, when Sheehan and his colleagues at MIT finally completed a total synthesis after developing a number of novel synthetic methods for the purpose.[12]

Similar chances exist today for a synthetic chemist to devote effort to the synthesis of a proposed structure that bears little relationship to the actual architecture of the natural product, even though it has been assigned based on a number of advanced spectroscopic techniques unavailable during the 1940s and 1950s. Several of the natural products listed in the eight tables in Section 2 would certainly fit this bill. As a further example, consider the series of structures **50**– **52** proposed between 1982 and 1992 for the relatively complex and stereochemically rich natural product carzinophilin (Figure 6). These proposals are certainly quite

50: originally proposed structure for carzinophilin (1982)^[157]

51: revised structure for carzinophilin (1983)^[158]

52: second revised structure for carzinophilin = azinomycin B (1992)^[159]

Figure 6. Progression of structural assignments for carzinophilin.

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disparate, as no structural element apart from the terminal aromatic motif is shared by all. $^{[160]}$

However, a structural reassignment that involves a much smaller alteration to the molecular architecture can throw a synthetic approach into a similar degree of disarray. A good illustration resides in the elucidation of the structure of the liminoid insect antifeedant azadirachtin. In 1975, the research group of Nakanishi correctly determined most of its architecture based exclusively on spectroscopic methods and proposed structure 53 (Figure 7). [161] By the mid-1980s,

53: originally proposed structure for azadirachtin (1975)^[161]

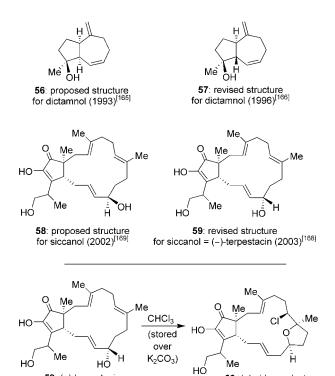
AcO OHO OHO OHO OHO

55: final revised structure for azadirachtin (1985/1986)[163]

Figure 7. Progression of structural assignments for the limonoid insect-antifeedant azadirachtin.

however, the isolation of some structurally related compounds began to suggest that some elements of the central core were inaccurate. These findings led ultimately to a series of reassignments, first by Ley and co-workers in 1985, who proposed structure **54**, [162] and then by teams led by Ley and Kraus a few months later, who finally proposed structure **55** based on X-ray crystallography in the former case and NMR spectroscopy in the latter. [163] Although apparently subtle, these changes are profound in terms of the strategies that one would probably employ for the synthesis of the different structures, especially considering that most published strategies at the time these revisions were made sought to build the azadirachtin structure by connecting fragments corresponding to its "left-" and "right-hand" domains. [164]

Arguably, the misassignment of the configuration of a single stereocenter can have similar ramifications. For example, if a stereocenter at a ring junction is incorrectly assigned, as happened with the natural product dictamnol (57, Scheme 7), then a completely new synthetic approach might be required. [165–167] Similarly, in an age driven by the use of asymmetric reactions to establish stereocenters, a stereochemical error in another part of the molecule could have an impact on the strategy/catalyst design. A recent example is a total synthesis reported by Chan and Jamison at MIT^[168] that



Scheme 7. When misassigned stereocenters occur at critical positions, such as ring junctions, profound alterations in the synthetic strategies are typically required to access the revised structure.

60: (+)-side product

59: (-)-terpestacin

showed that the proposed structure **58** of siccanol^[169] was incorrect and that the natural product is identical to (–)-terpestacin (**59**).^[170]

As a final note, the process by which the structure of (-)-terpestacin (59) was assigned is also worth mentioning, since a number of problems were caused by what is normally a routine step in the characterization process: determination of the sign of its optical rotation. Terpestacin (59) was originally reported to have a positive optical-rotation value in chloroform. In 2002, the research group of Myers at Harvard University synthesized the same enantiomer, only to obtain a negative value when they measured its optical rotation in the same solvent. What was the problem? The chemists who had isolated 59 stored their chloroform over K_2CO_3 , a practice which generated enough elemental chlorine to convert terpestacin (59) into 60, a product whose optical-rotation value is positive!

4. Misassignment Case Studies

Structural misassignments, as with all errors in science, also have an emotional component. Certainly a researcher would be disturbed to discover that an assignment he or she had made was incorrect, just as he or she would probably be pleased to find out that his or her proposal had been verified. Since our research group is not directly engaged in the process of isolation and/or characterization, we can not comment on how a scientist feels in such a position from a first-hand perspective. We know, however, what it is like as a synthetic



chemist to be in the midst of a total synthesis or at its "end", only to find out that the molecule we were chasing was never there! In this section, we present two personal accounts that hopefully convey a sense of these emotions, and we hope to show how misassignments can lead to some benefits as well. We want to reiterate, however, that these case studies are not meant to point any blame at structural chemists or indicate frustration with their efforts. Quite on the contrary, these pioneers work wonders with often incredibly complex puzzles, frequently under severe constraints of material and time (present cases included).

4.1. Case Study 1: Diazonamide A

The tale of the marine natural product diazonamide A began in 1991 when the research groups of Fenical and Clardy first communicated its structure (i.e. **66**, Scheme 8) in the *Journal of the American Chemical Society*. From that moment forward, this molecule enraptured the synthetic community in a way that few others ever match, primarily by virtue of its highly intricate and structurally novel architecture and its potential as a new weapon in the fight against cancer. Over the course of the next decade, nearly a dozen research groups initiated campaigns to synthesize its diabolically

Scheme 8. The creative synthetic route of Harran and co-workers led to the proposed structure of diazonamide A (66), but the spectral data did not match those of the natural product.

complex structural elements and explore its chemical biology more fully. [173]

Our own journey of discovery began in June of 1999, when we embarked on the total synthesis of diazonamide A, armed with what we thought was a carefully designed synthetic strategy. Unfortunately, the next few months would teach us what a number of teams before us had already learned: the synthesis of the individual domains, such the indole ring or an oxazole subunit, was relatively simple, but joining these fragments together to form even one of the two 12-membered rings was astonishingly difficult.^[174]

When the synthetic community at large is fully mobilized, however, few challenges in total synthesis remain unanswered for long. At the end of 2001, a team led by Harran at the Southwestern Medical Center in Dallas was finally able to assemble all the disparate subunits of diazonamide A, [175] by using a creative strategy featuring two powerful reactions to forge the formidable macrocyclic domains of the molecule (Scheme 8). The first was an acid-induced pinacol rearrangement of chiral diol 61. In this step, contraction of the 13-membered ring in 61 led to the formation of the 12-membered AG macrocycle and the daunting C10 quaternary center at the heart of the molecule. The second key reaction was an inventive use of the Witkop photocyclization. This operation converted 64 into 65 with complete atropselectivity as a result

of π stacking between the B and E rings in the starting material. With these domains in place, a few finishing touches then converted 65 into diazonamide A; or at least into what was supposed to be diazonamide A (66). Instead, chemical synthesis had uncovered yet another example of a structural misassignment!

What had gone wrong? The story is certainly an interesting one. During the early stages of their structural-elucidation efforts, the Fenical and Clardy groups worked exceedingly hard to obtain a crystal structure for diazonamide A to support their assignment of a structure that was unlike that of any other natural product ever isolated. Although that task would ultimately prove impossible with diazonamide A, the conversion of diazonamide B (67, Figure 8), a structural relative with similar NMR, UV, and IR spectroscopic data, into a p-bromobenzamide derivative provided a beautifully crystalline solid. The structure of this derivative (68) verified much of the anticipated general diazonamide skeleton with only one exception: the presence of an acetal moiety bridging the F and G rings. This outcome was surprising, as NMR spectroscopic data seemed to indicate the existence of an open hemiacetal instead (as drawn for structure 67) based on a small coupling constant between what was assigned as the hydrogen atom at C11 and a hydrogen atom that underwent isotope

for diazonamide A

67: putative structure of diazonamide B

68: structure assigned by X-ray crystallographic analysis a diazonamide B derivative

69: revised structure of diazonamide A

Figure 8. Basis for the structural misassignment and reassignment of diazonamide A.

exchange with D₂O. Needing to reconcile this incongruity, the Fenical and Clardy groups proposed that the closed acetal observed in crystal structure **68** was an artifact resulting from the conditions employed to attach the *p*-bromobenzamide group to **67**. Thus, if a hemiacetal was accepted for the F ring of diazonamide A, then the one element of diazonamide A which the X-ray crystal-structure analysis of **68** could not reveal, namely, the amino acid tethered at the C2 position,

must be a valine residue. This hypothesis would agree with a signal observed by mass spectrometry corresponding to $[M+H-H_2O]^+$. As a result of these observations, diazonamide A was assigned structure **66**. [172]

Armed with the knowledge that both the X-ray crystal structure of **68** and the formula derived from the mass spectrometric data of diazonamide A corresponded to the loss of a molecule of water, the research group of Harran speculated that perhaps the correct structure for the natural product differed from **66** simply through the presence of a closed acetal. This alternate compound would contain all the critical elements of the crystal structure **68** and would thus have a signal in the mass spectrum corresponding directly to $[M+H]^+$. Admirably, this compound was immediately synthesized by the Harran team, but, once again, the physical data of the synthetic material failed to correlate with data obtained from the natural sample of diazonamide A. [175] Where was the problem?

The answer resided in the assignment of the crystal structure that gave 68. By computational analysis, the Harran group subsequently determined that the oxygen atom in the F ring of 68 (and thus in 66) should really be an NH group within an aminal system, as in the revised structure 69. Consequently, a second modification somewhere else in the molecule was required to account for the mass spectrometric profile of diazonamide A. The obvious site for a change was that occupied by the terminal group attached to the amine functionality at C2. If this fragment was 2-hydroxyisovaleric acid, as shown in 69, then all of the previously incongruent data would appear to be reconciled. Thus, the misassignment was the result of a series of logical deductions stemming from a single piece of bad evidence; now it was up to synthesis to prove whether or not the new proposal was correct.

With little question, this structural reassignment sent shockwaves to all the research groups that had been attempting to synthesize this molecule when it was first published in the last December issue of Angewandte Chemie in 2001.^[175] Although we certainly admired the beautiful synthesis of Harran and his team as well as the logic behind the proposed structural revision, our initial reaction could only be described as intense disappointment and frustration. Not only did the molecule that we had been pursuing for over two years not exist, but we were uncertain whether we could even apply any part of our developed sequence in a new drive to access 69, since this new structure was constitutionally different from 66 at a key position. These feelings were magnified by a certain sense of irony in that we had just overcome a major synthetic hurdle which had held us back for a couple of months, finally reaching the advanced and critical intermediate 70 (Figure 8) that we thought was only a few steps away from the final target.

For a few days, we were unsure of just how to proceed. Questions running through our minds included whether or not we should go ahead and complete the originally proposed structure even though it did not represent the natural substance, and just how we should attempt to tackle the "new" diazonamide A. The team took advantage of the convenient timing of the Christmas holiday and came back together in January of 2002 with a clear battle plan. We would



Scheme 9. The two synthetic routes developed by the Nicolaou group to verify 69 as the correct structure of diazonamide A and ultimately establish the configuration at C37.

tackle the new molecule from two different angles: one based on the order of macrocycle construction that the Harran team had employed to great success, and the other based on key

elements of the strategy we had already developed to access the original structure 66. It would take a year for both of these plans to reach fruition following the development of some novel synthetic strategies and tactics. Finally the correct structure of diazonamide A was proved to be 69 and the absolute configuration of its C37 stereocenter was established.[176,177] The key elements of these two total syntheses are summarized in Scheme 9. Of particular note are the construction of the quaternary carbon center with its adjoining aromatic systems in the first synthesis of diazonamide A, and the application of a novel SmI₂-promoted hetero-pinacol cyclization sequence to create the heteroaromatic second.[178,179]

Reflecting on our project as a whole, we realize now that the frustration we felt at the end of 2001, although understandable, was misplaced. The misassignment of diazonamide A turned out to be more of a reward than a punishment, even though it extended the duration of the project by several months. Indeed, had the correct structure 69 been known from the outset, we would probably have learned much less. For example, our work towards the "incorrect" F ring led us to design a novel 5-exo-tet cyclization reaction to form the quaternary stereocenter of the target molecule (namely, to synthesize 88). When tweaked properly, this reaction can also deliver 3-arvl benzofurans, such as 89, in a controlled manner (Scheme 10a).[180] Furthermore, during work on manipulating this ring system we found that titanocene methylidene compounds can deoxygenate sulfoxides and selenoxides, and can convert pyridine N-oxides into 2-methylpyridines (Scheme 10b).[181] None of these discoveries would have been made if we had been working with indoles or oxindoles instead. Similarly, had we not encountered difficulties in our efforts to form the A ring of 66 from intermediate 98 with the Burgess reagent (99; Scheme 10c), we might never have been inspired to explore the chemistry of this reagent further. These

explorations recently led to the discovery that the Burgess reagent is remarkably effective at mediating a number of nondehydrative transformations, such as the formation of

Scheme 10. a)—c) During the synthesis of the originally proposed structure of diazonamide A, a number of new synthetic methodologies were discovered.

sulfamidates from 1,2-diols, α - and β -glycosylamines from carbohydrates, and cyclic sulfamides from 1,2-aminoalcohols. We also may never have been inspired to devise two distinct strategies to reach diazonamide A (69) in such a short period of time. That alone was a unique and highly rewarding experience.

4.2. Case Study 2: Azaspiracid-1

Our second adventure in the area of structural revision through chemical synthesis concerns the natural product azaspiracid-1, the flagship member of a family of marine toxins identified as the causative agents of several incidents of rather severe shellfish poisoning (termed the azaspiracid syndrome). First isolated in 1996 as a 2-mg sample from 20 kg of mussel meat by the research group of Yasumoto, the structure of azaspiracid-1 was elucidated within a relatively short period of time through the careful application of sophisticated spectroscopic techniques. Azaspiracid-1 was assigned the structure 119 in 1998 (Figure 9). These pioneering studies, however, failed to unveil the absolute configuration of the molecule and the relative stereochemistry between its ABCDE and FGHI domains.

119: originally proposed structure for azaspiracid-1

121: revised structure of azaspiracid-1

Figure 9. The revised structure of azaspiracid-1 (121): far more than just a simple change.

Just like diazonamide A, this molecule quickly caught the attention of the synthetic community because of its structural uniqueness. Of particular interest are an unusual azaoxaspiro ring fused to a 2,9-dioxabicyclo[3.3.1]nonane system, and a trioxadispiroketal framework attached to a tetrahydrofuran ring. Indeed, the first reports on synthetic studies towards structural subunits of this formidable synthetic target already began to appear within months of its structure being disclosed. [184] A team in our research group also began exploring means by which to construct this molecule, with a



full assault beginning in 2001 after some other projects had been completed.^[185]

By the end of 2002 we were able to construct the 9 rings and 20 stereogenic centers of structure 119 through the route summarized in Scheme 11.[186] Key features of the chemistry developed included TMSOTf-induced cascade spirocyclization to form the tetracyclic ABCD system 109 from the linear precursor 107, a subsequent directed epimerization step to generate the correct **ABCD** stereostructure $(110\rightarrow111)$, and fragment coupling steps that made use of a dithiane subunit $(112+113\rightarrow114)$ and Stille reaction (115+116→ 117). Nevertheless, as you might have already guessed, when we finally reached the coveted structure 119, the properties of the synthesized material did not match those of the natural product. The same news awaited us when we arrived at the FGHI epimer of 119 (i.e. 120) through an identical route by using the enantiomer of 116.

At first, we thought this unexpected outcome reflected the fact that something had gone wrong in our reaction sequence: that a stereocenter had been inverted by accident or that an unintended rearrangement had taken place. These fears were quickly allayed when we obtained an X-ray crystal structure for compound 118, an intermediate six steps from the end of the sequence. This result verified that all the preceding steps had gone according to plan. Thus, barring an unknown problem during the final operations, our synthesis had revealed that the proposed

Scheme 11. Selected highlights of the synthesis by Nicolaou and co-workers of the originally proposed structure **119** of azaspiracid-1.



structure for azaspiracid-1 was incorrect. Where the problem(s) lay, however, was far from obvious. It would take us another year of intensive investigations involving synthetic and degradative work (the latter in collaboration with the research group of Satake of Tohoku University), a series of frustrating close calls, and the unearthing of some subtle clues before we were finally able to determine that the solution was structure **121** (Figure 9). This assignment was ultimately verified by total synthesis.^[187]

Our first foray into the identification of the correct structure of azaspiracid-1, as guided by discussions with Professor Satake (a member of the team that isolated the compound), sought to evaluate the orientation of the hydroxy group at C20, since a cloud of doubt surrounded its original assignment. This task proved quite easy to accomplish by using advanced intermediates from our developed sequence, and within a few days we were able to generate both **122** and **123** (Figure 10), the C20 epimers of our originally synthesized

Figure 10. The search for the correct structure of azaspiracid-1: The problem does not lie with the configuration at C20.

compounds 119 and 120. Despite their ready accessibility, however, compounds 122 and 123 brought us no closer to the ultimate goal, for their spectroscopic data bore as many differences to those of the natural sample as the data of the substances we had made before. Clearly, we needed to adopt a much more systematic and rational strategy to pinpoint the location and nature of the errors; guesswork would only waste time and material resources.

Fortunately, a classical approach to structure elucidation made a crucial contribution to this analysis. The Satake group provided the information needed by degrading and derivatizing natural azaspiracid-1 (the originally miniscule supplies of which had been somewhat enriched by a series of additional isolations) into an array of fragments corresponding to both the "upper" (124, 125, and 126) and "lower" domains (127, 128, and 129) of the molecule (Scheme 12). Consequently, our next goal became the preparation of synthetic material that

Scheme 12. Chemical degradation and derivatization of azaspiracid-1: The structures of all compounds are based on the originally assigned structure **119** of azaspiracid-1. (Only one of the four possible absolute configurations based on the original drawings of Satake et al. is shown.)

126

corresponded to these products for comparison purposes. We expected that we could then immediately locate the site (or sites) of the structural errors. We also hoped that these endeavors would help define the relative configuration of the ABCDE and FGHI domains as well as reveal the absolute configuration of each fragment and thus of the entire structure.

We began our studies by focusing on the "lower" half of the structure. Within a few weeks we had synthesized two compounds which corresponded to the degradation product represented in Scheme 12 as 127: the compound with the configuration shown in Scheme 12 and its FGHI epimer 130 (Figure 11). Of these two diastereomers, only 130 was a perfect match with the degradation product. Thus, we now knew that there were no structural misassignments in this region of the molecule, and we knew what the relative configuration was within the EFGHI domain. To ascertain the absolute configuration, we then generated 129 through total synthesis. Since the optical rotation of 129 proved to be equal in value but opposite in sign to that of the degradation



Figure 11. Determination of the relative configuration within the EFGHI domain and the absolute configuration of the FGHI domain of azaspiracid-1.

product, we could then assign with confidence structure **130** to the EFGHI fragment (Figure 11).

With the "bottom" half of the molecule secured, we then focused our attention on the "upper" framework. Now the true adventure would begin. Aware that the structural error(s) must lie within this domain, we began our detective

work with an analysis of synthetic materials corresponding to the degradation fragment 125 (Scheme 12). That precise structure had already been synthesized, and, as expected, it did not match the sample derived from the natural product. Interestingly, however, most of the spectroscopic discrepancies seemed to reside within a single domain of this fragment: the Aring. Yet, despite careful investigations of this structural region, the required correction remained a mystery, since the use of 2D NMR spectroscopic techniques failed to provide any conclusive hints.

As is often the case, nature had already solved the problem for us: Hopmann and Faulkner had isolated and characterized a natural product, lissoketal (131, Figure 12), whose NMR spectroscopic data were beautifully reminiscent of those of the A-ring region of compound 125 derived from natural azaspiracid-1. Therefore, we expected that the structural problem with azaspiracid-1 might reside

simply in the positioning of the A-ring double bond, with 132 being the correct target structure! Filled with excitement that synthetic azaspiracid-1 would soon be in our grasp, we prepared 132 as quickly as we could. Its NMR spectrum would, unfortunately, knock the wind out of our sails, as although the A-ring signals now appeared to be mostly correct, the chemical shifts of a number of other resonances were still incorrect. The fact that we were still dealing with the wrong structure was further confirmed when the double bonds in 132 were hydrogenated to give the fully saturated compound 126, whose ¹H NMR spectrum also differed from that of the hydrogenated derivative of the degradation product.

We now had to go back to the drawing board. Although we had conclusively established the positioning of both double bonds within the azaspiracid-1 framework, we were now left with 128 possible structures for the ABCD domain, since we could not be confident in the assignment of any of the seven stereogenic centers. Not even an army of chemists could hope to prepare such an array of compounds in a timely manner, even with unlimited funding (which we certainly did not have)! The problem seemed insurmountable, but again we were helped by a clue from nature. That piece of information related to thermodynamic stability. During the handling of both azaspiracid-1 itself and the ABCD fragments derived through degradation we noted that the ABC double-spiroketal unit was stable under acidic conditions. By contrast, our synthetic compounds that should correspond to this portion of the molecule had only fleeting lifetimes when exposed to a pH value less than 5, because of epimerization at the C13

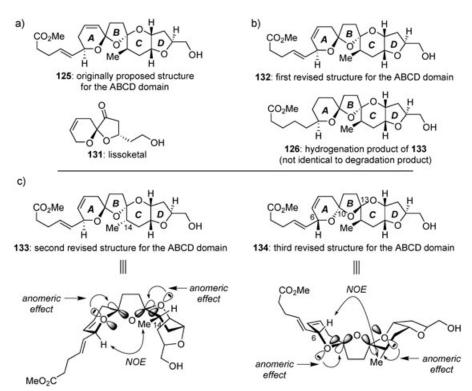


Figure 12. Final steps a)—c) in the assignment of the structure 134 to the ABCD domain of azaspiracid-1. The differences in all of the proposed structures versus the original assignment have been highlighted.

center. This tidbit of information suggested that the problem might lie in this region. Indeed, molecular models pointed to structure 133 as a possible candidate for the degradation product, since it would be favored by a double anomeric effect (an advantage that our original targets did not have) and would be likely to exhibit the obligatory NOE reported for the natural product (see Figure 12c). However, once again chemical synthesis would prove this intuition to be false, as synthetic intermediates encountered en route to 133 were not stable.

There was still one more chance for success. What if we inverted the C6 stereocenter in the A ring? Molecular modeling studies suggested that this variant, **134** (Figure 12c), would exhibit both a double anomeric effect and the required NOE, whereas alterions to any of the other potentially relevant stereocenters in this domain (i.e. C10, C13, and C14) appeared less promising. Our next move was, therefore, to synthesize

compound **134** as quickly as possible, and this time the ¹H NMR spectrum fully matched that of the degradation product!

This outcome was certainly welcome after nearly a year of intense study, but one question remained: What was the absolute configuration of this domain? Only synthesis could answer this question, as the limited amount of material derived from degradation reactions corresponding to the ABCD region of the natural product did not permit the accurate measurement of its optical rotation. Which enantiomer to use was a gamble: a bet that we would ultimately lose, for the wrong stereoisomer was completed first! After a final retreat (and in the knowledge that we would soon prevail) we advanced on the alternate "upper-domain" fragment, and on Monday, May 10, 2004 at 9.00 a.m. one of us (K.C.N.) returned from a meeting in Moscow to discover a set of matching ¹H NMR spectra (Figure 13), which indicated that azaspiracid-1 had finally been synthesized and that its correct structure was 121 (Figure 9)! This data was accompanied by a note written half in Greek and half in English from Dr. Theocharis Koftis, one of the azaspiracid-1 team (Figure 14): "It contains some nBu_4NOH , but the odyssey is over!"

In this long campaign, one which filled us at times with great excitement and at times with intense disappointment, the goal was finally reached through the power of chemical synthesis in a manner not too dissimilar from that used decades ago for structural elucidation. [187] Although spectroscopy revealed most features of the structure of azaspiracid-1 with an amazingly small amount of material, ultimately it

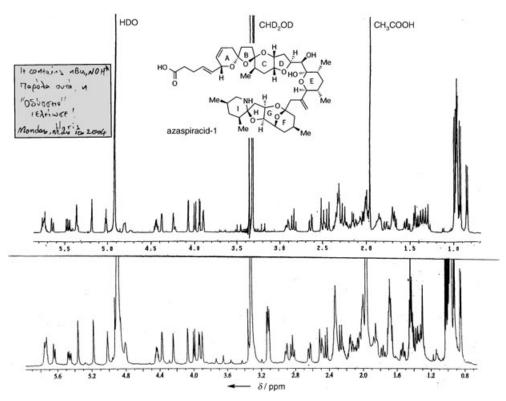


Figure 13. Correlation of NMR spectra of natural (top) and synthetic (bottom)azaspiracid-1 (not exactly to the same scale).



Figure 14. The "finalists" of the triumphant team proudly display the azaspiracid-1 structure and their flags. From left to right: Taotao Ling, Wenjun Tang, Goran Petrovic, Theocharis Koftis, Stepan Vyskocil, Michael Frederick.

could not do it all. Only when spectroscopy was combined with synthesis were all the details finally resolved.

5. Summary and Outlook

Although the past half century has witnessed a remarkable improvement in our ability to isolate and characterize



complex natural products, mistakes are still a relatively common occurrence. However, as the stories in Section 4 relating to our own experiences hopefully indicate, this state of affairs is far from catastrophic. Indeed, structural misassignments clearly provide opportunities for synthetic chemists to make discoveries through total synthesis, and certainly show that there is still adventure to be had in the process of structure assignment. It will be interesting to see just what the next half century will bring in terms of the isolation and synthesis of natural products. Only time will tell, but we can be certain that as long as chemists continue to isolate new and diverse substances from nature, there will be plenty of challenges for our intellectual and physical skills. Moreover, much new science awaits discovery during the struggle to synthesize such new molecular puzzles. [189,190]

List of Abbreviations

AIBN 2,2'-azobisisobutyronitrile

Bn benzyl

Boc tert-butoxycarbonyl

Bz benzoyl

Cbz benzyloxycarbonyl CD circular dichroism

dba trans,trans-dibenzylideneacetone

DDQ 2,3-dichloro-5,6-dicyano-1,4-benzoquinone

DIBAL-H diisobutylaluminum hydride DMA N,N-dimethylacetamide 4-DMAP 4-dimethylaminopyridine

dppf 1,1'-(diphenylphosphanyl)ferrocene

EA elemental analysis

EDC 1-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)-3-ethylcarbo-

diimide hydrochloride

Fmoc 9-fluorenylmethoxycarbonyl HOBt 1-hydroxybenzotriazole

INEPT insensitive nuclei enhanced by polarization

transfer

MOM methoxymethyl
NBS N-bromosuccinimide
NCS N-chlorosuccinimide
NIS N-iodosuccinimide

NOE nuclear Overhauser enhancement

py pyridine

TBAF tetra-*n*-butylammonium fluoride

TBDPS tert-butyldiphenylsilyl TBS tert-butyldimethylsilyl

TES triethylsilyl

Tf trifluoromethanesulfonyl
TFA trifluoroacetic acid
THP tetrahydropyranyl
TMS trimethylsilyl
Ts 4-toluenesulfonyl

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Biology, American Bioscience, Amgen, Novartis, Bristol-Myers Squibb (fellowship to S.A.S.), CaPCURE, the George E. Hewitt Foundation, Pfizer (fellowship to S.A.S.), and the National Science Foundation (fellowship to S.A.S.) for supporting our research programs.

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