

SOLID-PHASE ORGANIC SYNTHESIS

Concepts, Strategies, and Applications

EDITED BY
PATRICK H. TOY
YULIN LAM

 **WILEY**

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Preface	xv
Acknowledgments	xvii
Contributors	xix

Part I CONCEPTS AND STRATEGIES 1

1 LINKER STRATEGIES IN MODERN SOLID-PHASE ORGANIC SYNTHESIS 3

Peter J. H. Scott

1.1	Introduction	3
1.2	Classical Linker Strategies	5
1.2.1	Acid and Base Cleavable Linker Units	5
1.2.2	Cyclorelease Linker Units	14
1.2.3	Traceless Linker Units	18
1.2.4	Photolabile Linker Units	21
1.2.5	Safety-Catch Linker Units	24
1.3	Multifunctional Linker Strategies	28
1.3.1	Nitrogen Linker Units	28
1.3.1.1	Triazene Linker Units	28
1.3.1.2	Hydrazone Linker Units	32
1.3.1.3	Benzotriazole Linker Units	34
1.3.2	Sulfur Linker Units	37
1.3.3	Phosphorus Linker Units	47
1.3.4	Selenium and Tellurium Linker Units	51
1.3.5	Silyl and Germyl Linker Units	54
1.3.6	Boron and Stannane Linker Units	63
1.3.7	Bismuth Linker Units	64
1.3.8	Alkene Linker Units	69
1.4	Conclusions	73
	References	73

2 COLORIMETRIC TEST FOR SOLID-PHASE ORGANIC SYNTHESIS 83

Yan Teng and Patrick H. Toy

2.1	Introduction	83
2.2	Functional Group Tests	84
2.2.1	Amine Groups	84
2.2.1.1	Ninhydrin (Kaiser) Test	84

2.2.1.2	TNBSA Test	84
2.2.1.3	Bromophenol Blue Test	84
2.2.1.4	Chloranil Test	85
2.2.1.5	DABITC Test	85
2.2.1.6	MGI Test	85
2.2.1.7	Isatin Test	85
2.2.1.8	DESC Test	86
2.2.1.9	NPIT Test	86
2.2.1.10	NF31 Test	86
2.2.1.11	Nondestructive NF31 Test	87
2.2.1.12	Naphthol Test	87
2.2.1.13	2-Amino-3-chloro-1,4-naphthoquinone Test	87
2.2.2	Alcohols	87
2.2.2.1	PNBP Test	88
2.2.2.2	TCT–AliR and TCT–Fluorescein Test	88
2.2.2.3	Diphenyldichlorosilane–Methyl Red Test	88
2.2.2.4	9-Anthrionyl nitrile Test	89
2.2.2.5	NMA Test	89
2.2.2.6	Protecting Group NPB Test	89
2.2.2.7	Methyl Red/DIC Test	90
2.2.2.8	Other Methods	90
2.2.3	Thiol Groups	90
2.2.3.1	Ellman’s Test	90
2.2.3.2	Other Methods	90
2.2.4	Halogen Groups	90
2.2.4.1	Fluorescein Test	90
2.2.4.2	Other Methods	91
2.2.5	Carboxylic Acid Groups	91
2.2.5.1	Malachite Green Test	91
2.2.5.2	PDAM Test	91
2.2.6	Aldehyde and Ketone Groups	91
2.2.6.1	Fluorescent Dansylhydrazine Test	91
2.2.6.2	<i>p</i> -Anisaldehyde Test	92
2.2.6.3	Purpald Test	92
2.3	Conclusions	92
	References	92
3	PRACTICAL ASPECTS OF COMBINATORIAL SOLID-PHASE SYNTHESIS	95
	<i>Jan Hlaváč, Miroslav Sural, and Viktor Krcňák</i>	
3.1	Introduction	95
3.1.1	What Is Combinatorial Chemistry	96
3.1.2	What Is Not Combinatorial Chemistry	97
3.1.3	History of Combinatorial Chemistry: Breakthrough Discoveries That Shaped the Future of the Combinatorial Chemistry Field	98
3.1.3.1	Solid-Phase Synthesis	98
3.1.3.2	Pooling Strategy	99
3.1.3.3	Parallel Synthesis	99

3.2	Strategies in Combinatorial Solid-Phase Synthesis	101
3.2.1	Random Split-and-Pool Method	102
3.2.1.1	One-Bead–One-Compound Concept	103
3.2.1.2	Encoding Methods for the OBOC Technique	103
3.2.1.3	Organized Mixtures	105
3.2.2	Directed Split-and-Pool Method in Practice	107
3.2.2.1	Formulation of Solid-Phase Supports for the Directed Split-and-Pool Technique	107
3.2.2.2	Chemical History of the Resin Formulations	109
3.3	Equipment and Instrumentation	112
3.3.1	Manual Solid-Phase Synthesis	112
3.3.2	Integrated Semiautomated Synthesis	114
3.3.3	Fully Automated Synthesizers (Gone with the Wind)	116
3.3.4	Instruments for Sorting	117
3.4	Characterization and Purification	118
3.5	Conclusions	121
	Acknowledgments	121
	References	121

4 DIVERSITY-ORIENTED SYNTHESIS **131**

Kieron M. G. O’Connell, Warren R. J. D Galloway, Brett M. Ibbeson, Albert Isidro-Llobet, Cornelius J. O’Connor, and David R. Spring

4.1	Introduction	131
4.2	Small Molecules and Biology	131
4.3	Diversity-Oriented Synthesis, Target-Oriented Synthesis, and Combinatorial Chemistry	133
4.4	Molecular Diversity	134
4.4.1	Molecular Diversity and Chemical Space	135
4.4.2	Synthetic Strategies for Creating Molecular Diversity	136
4.5	Diversity-Oriented Synthesis on Solid Phase	137
4.5.1	Reagent-Based Strategies	137
4.5.2	Substrate-Based Strategies	140
4.5.3	Build/Couple/Pair Strategies	144
4.6	Diversity-Oriented Synthesis Around Privileged Scaffolds	146
4.7	Diversity Linker Units in Solid-Phase Organic Synthesis	147
4.8	Conclusions	148
	References	149

5 DIVERSITY-ORIENTED SYNTHESIS OF PRIVILEGED HETEROCYCLES USING DIVERGENT STRATEGY **151**

Seung Bum Park and Jonghoon Kim

5.1	Introduction	151
5.2	Divergent Synthesis of Natural Product-Like Polyheterocycles Using a Cyclic Iminium as a Single Key Intermediate	153

5.2.1	Practical Solid-Phase Synthesis of Diaza-bridged Heterocycle and Tetrahydro-beta-carboline Through Intramolecular Pictet–Spengler Cyclization (Type I, II, and III)	155
5.2.1.1	Synthesis of Diaza-Bridged Heterocycles (Type I and II)	155
5.2.1.2	Synthesis of Tetrahydro-beta-carbolines (Type III)	158
5.2.2	Practical Solid-Phase Synthesis of Δ^5 -2-Oxopiperazines via <i>N</i> -Acyliminium Ion Cyclization (Type IV)	160
5.2.3	Novel Application of the Leuckart–Wallach Reaction for the Synthesis of a Tetrahydro-1,4-benzodiazepin-5-one Library (Type V)	164
5.3	Conclusions	168
	References	168

6 CHEMO- AND REGIOSELECTIVITY ENHANCEMENT IN SOLID-SUPPORTED REACTIONS **171**

Douglas D. Young and Alexander Deiters

6.1	Introduction	171
6.2	Transition Metal-Mediated Solid-Supported Reactions	172
6.2.1	Olefin Metathesis Reactions	172
6.2.1.1	Olefin Cross Metathesis	172
6.2.1.2	Ring-Closing Metathesis	176
6.2.1.3	Ring-Opening Metathesis	178
6.2.2	[2 + 2 + 2] Cyclotrimerization Reactions	180
6.2.3	Pauson–Khand Reactions	182
6.2.4	Miscellaneous Transition Metal-Mediated Reactions	183
6.2.4.1	Dötz Benzannulation Reactions	183
6.2.4.2	Cadiot–Chodkiewicz Coupling Reactions	184
6.2.4.3	Cyclopropanation Reactions	184
6.3	Non-transition Metal-Mediated Solid-Supported Reactions	186
6.3.1	Cycloaddition Reactions	186
6.3.2	Hydroxylation Reactions	189
6.3.3	Aldol Condensation Reactions	190
6.3.4	Radical Reactions	190
6.3.5	Oxidative Coupling Reactions	191
6.4	Traceless Cleavage	192
6.4.1	Cyclizative Cleavage	192
6.4.2	Cyclizative Immobilization	198
6.4.3	Chemoselective Cleavage	199
6.5	Conclusions	201
	References	201

Part II Applications 205

7 ASYMMETRIC SYNTHESIS ON SOLID SUPPORT 207

Baburaj Baskar and Kamal Kumar

7.1	Introduction	207
7.2	Asymmetric Chemical Transformations of Solid-Supported Substrates	208
7.2.1	Asymmetric Aldol Reactions	208
7.2.2	Asymmetric Allylation Reactions	211
7.2.3	Enantioselective Cycloaddition Reactions	214
7.2.4	Stereoselective Epoxide Ring-Opening Reactions	216
7.2.5	Asymmetric Alkene Cyclopropanation Reactions	217
7.2.6	Enantioselective Alkylation Reactions	218
7.3	Asymmetric Transformations Using Resin-Bound Chiral Catalysts and Auxiliaries	219
7.3.1	Catalytic Asymmetric Synthesis with Resin-Bound Chiral Catalysts	219
7.3.2	Asymmetric Synthesis Using Resin-Bound Chiral Auxiliaries	223
7.4	Conclusions	227
	References	227

8 RECENT ADVANCES IN MICROWAVE-ASSISTED SOLID-PHASE SYNTHESIS OF HETEROCYCLES 231

Prasad Appukkuttan, Vaibhav, P. Mehta, and Erik Van der Eycken

8.1	Introduction	231
8.2	Fused 1,3-oxazin-6-ones	232
8.3	Thiazolo[4,5- <i>d</i>]pyrimidine-5,7-diones	233
8.4	Pyrazoles	234
8.5	HSP70 Modulators	234
8.6	Benzimidazo[2,1- <i>b</i>]quinazolin-12(5 <i>H</i>)-ones	236
8.7	Imidazoles	237
8.8	1,4-Naphthoquinones	238
8.9	Phthalocyanines	238
8.10	1,2,3,4-Tetrahydroquinolines	242
8.11	1,2,3-Triazoles	243
8.12	2,8-Diaminopurines	244
8.13	Imidazolidin-4-ones	245
8.14	Indoles	247
8.15	1,2,3,4-Tetrahydroquinolines Using a SmI ₂ -Cleavable Linker	248
8.16	Hydantoins	249

8.17	Imatinib	250
8.18	Isoindolines	252
8.19	2-(Benzylthio)imidazo[1,2 <i>a</i>]-pyrimidin-5-ones	253
8.20	2-Aminobenzothiazoles	254
8.21	Pyrimidines, Pyrazoles, and Isoxazoles	255
8.22	Quinolin-2(1 <i>H</i>)-ones and Coumarins	256
8.23	Benzofurans	257
8.24	<i>i</i> -Condensed Purines	258
8.25	2(1 <i>H</i>)-Pyrazinones	259
8.26	Conclusions	260
	References	261

9 SOLID-PHASE SYNTHESIS OF HETEROCYCLES FROM PEPTIDES AND AMINO ACIDS **269**

Zhi Li, Marc Giulianotti, Wenteng Chen, Richard A. Houghten, and Yongping Yu

9.1	Introduction	269
9.2	Synthesis of Various Heterocycles	269
9.2.1	Three-Membered Ring Heterocycles	269
9.2.2	Four-Membered Ring Heterocycles	270
9.2.3	Synthesis of Five-Membered Ring Heterocycles	271
9.2.3.1	Five-Membered Ring Heterocycles Containing One Nitrogen Atom	271
9.2.3.2	Five-Membered Ring Heterocycles Containing Two Nitrogen Atoms	274
9.2.3.3	Five-Membered Ring Heterocycles Containing Three Nitrogen Atoms	293
9.2.3.4	Five-Membered Ring Heterocycles Containing Four Nitrogen Atoms	295
9.2.4	Six-Membered Ring Heterocycles	296
9.2.4.1	Six-Membered Ring Heterocycles Containing One Nitrogen Atom	296
9.2.4.2	Six-Membered Ring Heterocycles Containing Two or More Nitrogen Atoms	298
9.2.5	Seven-Membered Ring Heterocycles	311
	References	316

10 GENERATION OF DRUG-LIKE FIVE-MEMBERED HETEROCYCLIC LIBRARIES USING CARBON DISULFIDE AND MERRIFIELD RESIN **319**

Young-Dae Gong and Taeho Lee

10.1	Introduction	319
10.2	Solid-Phase Synthesis of Related Thiazole Compounds	320
10.2.1	Solid-Phase Synthesis of 2,4,5-Trisubstituted Thiazoles	320

10.2.2	Solid-Phase Synthesis of 2,5,6,7-Tetrasubstituted Thiazolo[4,5- <i>b</i>]pyridines	323
10.2.3	Solid-Phase Synthesis of 2,4,6-Trisubstituted Thiazolo[4,5- <i>d</i>]pyrimidine-5,7-diones	324
10.2.4	Solid-Phase Synthesis of 1,3,6-Trisubstituted 1 <i>H</i> -Thiazolo[4,5- <i>c</i>][1,2]thiazin-4(3 <i>H</i>)one-2,2-dioxides	330
10.3	Solid-Phase Synthesis of Benzoxazoles	333
10.4	Solid-Phase Synthesis of Related Pyrazole Compounds and 1,3,4-Triazoles via a Dithiocarbazate Linker	334
10.4.1	Synthesis of a Dithiocarbazate Linker on Solid Support	334
10.4.2	Solid-Phase Synthesis of Pyrazoles via a Dithiocarbazate Linker	338
10.4.3	Solid-Phase Synthesis of Pyrazolo[1,5- <i>a</i>][1,3,5]-2-oxo-4- dithioxotriazines	338
10.4.4	Solid-Phase Synthesis of Pyrazolo[1,5- <i>a</i>][1,3,5]-2,4- dithioxotriazines	340
10.4.5	Solid-Phase Synthesis of 1,3,4-Triazoles	342
10.5	Solid-Phase Synthesis of 1,3,4-Oxadiazoles and 1,3,4-Thiadiazoles via Selective Cyclization	342
10.6	Solid-Phase Synthesis of 1,2,4-Thiadiazoles	347
10.7	Summary	350
	References	350

11 RECENT ADVANCES IN SOLID-PHASE 1,3-DIPOLAR CYCLOADDITION REACTIONS **355**

Kirsi Harju and Jari Yli-Kauhahuoma

11.1	Introduction	355
11.2	Solid-Phase Synthesis of Pyrrolidines, Pyrrolines, and Pyrroles	356
11.3	Synthesis of Pyrazolines and Pyrazoles	361
11.4	Solid-Phase Synthesis of Imidazoles, 1,2,4-Triazoles, and 1,2,3-Triazoles	364
11.5	Solid-Phase Synthesis of Isoxazolidines, Isoxazolines, and Isoxazoles	369
11.6	Conclusions	378
	References	378

12 SULFONES IN SOLID-PHASE HETEROCYCLE SYNTHESIS **383**

Chai Hoon Soh and Yulin Lam

12.1	Introduction	383
12.2	Linkers	384
12.2.1	Sulfone Chemistry	384
12.2.2	Sulfone Linker Units	384
12.2.2.1	Preparation of Sulfone Linkers	384

12.2.2.2	Cleavage of Sulfone Linkers	386
12.2.2.3	Sulfone Linkers in Oligosaccharide Synthesis	409
12.3	Conclusions	411
	References	411
13	SOLID-PHASE ORGANIC RADIOSYNTHESIS	415
	<i>Raphaël Hoareau and Peter J. H. Scott</i>	
13.1	Introduction	415
13.2	Solid-Phase Organic Radiosynthesis with Fluorine-18	416
13.2.1	Radiolabeled Peptides with Fluorine-18	416
13.2.2	Solid-Phase Organic Radiosynthesis of [^{18}F]FDG	417
13.2.3	Fluorine-18 Displacement of Supported Aryliodonium	418
13.2.4	Solid-Phase Organic Radiosynthesis of [^{18}F]FCH ₂ Br	419
13.2.5	Solid-Phase Organic Radiosynthesis of [^{18}F]FluoroDOPA	419
13.2.6	Solid-Phase Organic Radiosynthesis of β -Amyloid PET Tracers	419
13.2.7	Solid-Phase Organic Radiosynthesis of Oncological PET Tracers	420
13.3	Solid-Phase Organic Radiosynthesis with Carbon-11	421
13.4	Solid-Phase Organic Radiosynthesis with Other Radioisotopes	422
13.4.1	Solid-Phase Purification of Copper-64 Metalloradiopharmaceuticals	422
13.4.2	Solid-Phase Radiosynthesis of [^{131}I]MIBG	424
13.5	Conclusions	424
	References	424
14	SOLID-PHASE SYNTHESIS OF DYES AND THEIR APPLICATION AS SENSORS AND BIOIMAGING PROBES	427
	<i>Marc Vendrell, Hyung-Ho Ha, Sung Chan Lee, and Young-Tae Chang</i>	
14.1	Introduction	427
14.2	On-Bead Sensors	428
14.3	Solid-Phase Approaches in Fluorescent Labeling	429
14.4	Solid-Phase Derivatization of Fluorescent Scaffolds	430
14.5	Diversity-Oriented Fluorescent Libraries	433
14.6	Conclusions	437
14.7	Acknowledgments	437
	References	437
15	DENDRITIC MOLECULES ON SOLID SUPPORT: SOLID-PHASE SYNTHESIS AND APPLICATIONS	441
	<i>Kerem Goren and Moshe Portnoy</i>	
15.1	Introduction	441
15.2	Synthesis	442

15.2.1	General Synthetic Schemes	442
15.2.2	Preparation of Polyamide Dendrons	444
15.2.2.1	Polylysine Dendrons	444
15.2.2.2	Dendrons Combining Natural and Artificial Amino Acids	445
15.2.2.3	Dendrons Made of Artificial Amino Acids	447
15.2.2.4	Polyamide Dendrons from Alternative Building Blocks	450
15.2.3	Preparation of Polyamidoamine Dendrons	451
15.2.4	Preparation of Polyurea Dendrons	453
15.2.5	Preparation of Polyester Dendrons	455
15.2.6	Preparation of Polyether Dendrons	455
15.2.7	Preparation of Polythioether Dendrons	458
15.2.8	Preparation of Polyamine Dendrons	458
15.2.9	Preparation of Dendrons Based on 1,3,5-Triazines	459
15.2.10	Preparation of Poly(arylacetylene) Dendrons	461
15.2.11	Coordination-Linked Dendrons	463
15.3	Applications of Dendronized Supports	464
15.3.1	Dendronized Supports as Synthetic Intermediates	464
15.3.2	High-Loading Dendronized Supports for Solid-Phase Synthesis	468
15.3.3	Dendronized Supports for Multivalent Molecular Recognition	468
15.3.4	Supported Dendritic Catalysts	470
15.3.5	Dendronized Supports in Separation Processes	477
15.3.6	Dendronized Surfaces for Immobilization of Biomacromolecules	479
15.3.7	Other Applications	479
15.4	Conclusions	480
	References	482

16 OLIGOSACCHARIDE SYNTHESIS ON SOLID, SOLUBLE POLYMER, AND TAG SUPPORTS 489

Katsunori Tanaka and Koichi Fukase

16.1	Introduction	489
16.2	Solid-Phase Methods for Synthesis of Oligosaccharides	490
16.2.1	New Linkers and Protection Groups for Solid-Phase Synthesis of Oligosaccharides	490
16.2.2	Application of Unique Glycosylation Methods in Solution to Solid-Phase Synthesis of Oligosaccharides	498
16.2.3	Solid-Phase Synthesis of Complex Oligosaccharides	503
16.2.4	Solid-Phase Methods for Purification of Synthesized Oligosaccharides	507
16.2.5	Monitoring of Solid-Phase Reactions	512
16.3	Polymer-Supported and Tag-Assisted Oligosaccharide Synthesis in Solution	516

16.3.1	Polymer-Supported Synthesis of Oligosaccharides	516
16.3.2	Tag-Assisted Synthesis of Oligosaccharides	517
16.3.3	Polymer-Supported Enzymatic Synthesis of Oligosaccharides	522
16.3.4	Microfluidic Methods for Oligosaccharide Synthesis	523
16.4	Conclusions	526
16.5	Acknowledgments	527
	References	527
	Index	531

Merrifield first introduced the concept of solid-phase peptide synthesis nearly half a century ago, and since then the use of heterogeneous materials to facilitate synthesis has evolved and become widespread in many contexts. For example, the automated solid-phase synthesis of oligomeric biomolecules, such as polypeptides and polynucleotides, has become the standard methodology for the production of such compounds.

The aim of this book is to highlight the state of the art regarding the use of a solid material to support and thereby facilitate organic synthesis. The book is divided into two parts: Part I introduces some general concepts and strategies, while Part II presents specific examples of the solid-phase synthesis of various classes of organic molecules. Since the field regarding solid-phase synthesis of polypeptides and polynucleotides is very mature and well understood, these topics are not included in this book. However, since the solid-phase synthesis of oligosaccharides is not yet routine and straightforward, a chapter on this subject is presented.

Part I includes chapters focusing on the linker groups used to attach the synthesis substrate to the solid support, colorimetric tests that identify the presence of functional groups, combinatorial synthesis (especially interesting due to its historical perspective), and diversity-oriented synthesis. These contributions showcase solid-phase synthesis that is currently used to facilitate the discovery of new molecular functionality. Finally, a chapter highlighting how using a support can change or increase reaction selectivity closes this part. Part II includes chapters on general asymmetric synthesis on a support, various strategies for heterocycle synthesis (including one focusing on the use of microwave heating), synthesis of radioactive organic molecules, dyes, dendrimers, and, last but not least, oligosaccharides.

It is hoped that this book will serve as an introduction and a starting point for those new to this field and interested in using concepts and techniques of solid-phase synthesis. As already mentioned, the application of this technology in the synthesis of small, nonoligomeric organic molecules is relatively underdeveloped compared to other applications, and thus new minds and different perspectives can help to advance this field.

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Part I

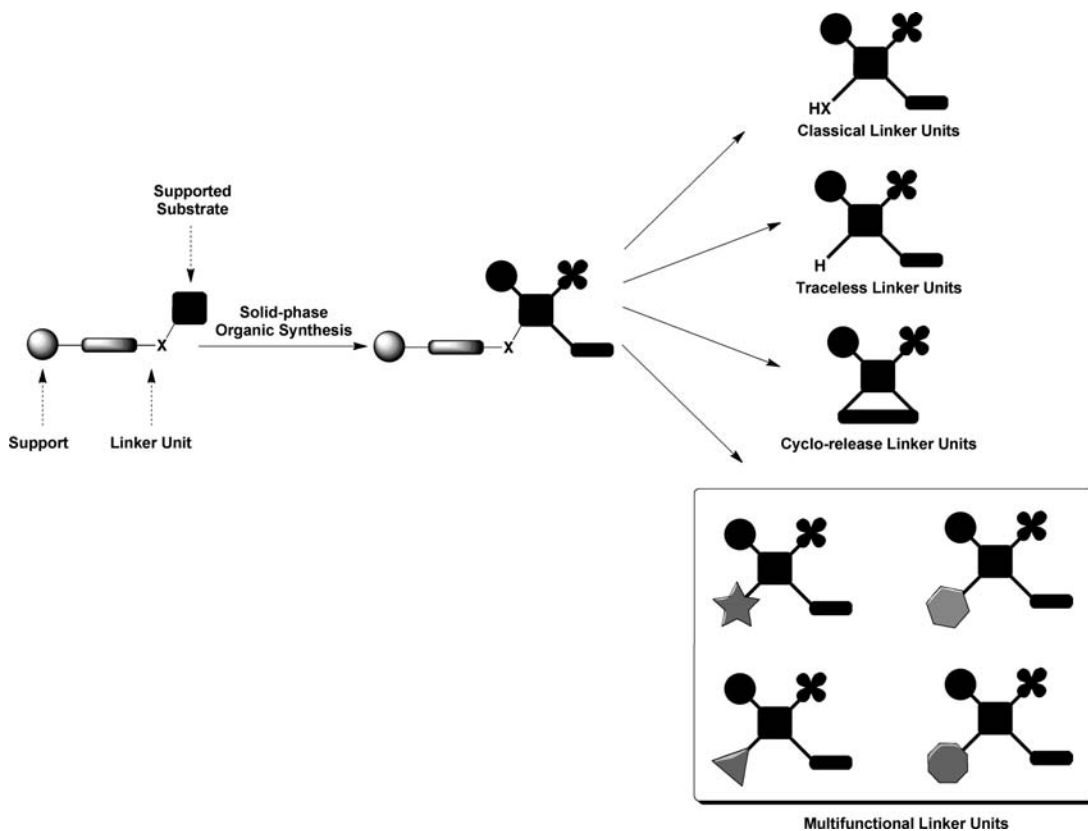
CONCEPTS AND STRATEGIES

LINKER STRATEGIES IN MODERN SOLID-PHASE ORGANIC SYNTHESIS

Peter J. H. Scott

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The vast array of linker units available to the modern solid-phase organic chemist is impressive and allows a lot of exciting chemistry to be carried out using solid-phase techniques.^{1–11} Linker units are molecules that possess a functional group that is used to attach substrates to a solid support and can release them at a later date upon treatment with the appropriate “cleavage cocktail.” With this in mind, linker units have long been regarded as solid-supported protecting groups. Moreover, linker units are frequently lengthy molecules, which improve reactivity by holding substrates away from the polymer matrix to create a pseudo-solution-phase environment. Typically, linker units are conveniently categorized by the functionality left at the “cleavage site” in the target molecule (Scheme 1.1). Initially, following the late Prof. Merrifield’s original investigations into preparing peptides on solid supports, solid-phase organic synthesis (SPOS) focused on strategies for preparing peptides and oligonucleotides. This focus was, in part, due to the relative simplicity of peptide chemistry that meant it could easily be adapted for use with solid-phase techniques. Moreover, the ease of automating peptide chemistry allowed straightforward preparation of multiple target peptides in parallel and signaled the beginning of combinatorial chemistry. Many of the classical linker units developed during this period (1960s–1990s) still represent some of the most widely used linker units in use today and an overview of these linker strategies is presented in Section 1.2. When employing a classical linker unit, a common (typically polar) functionality, that was the site of



Scheme 1.1. Classification of modern linker units.

attachment of the molecule to the solid support, remains following cleavage of the target molecule.

In the 1990s, the use of solid-phase organic synthesis experienced an explosion in popularity. This was driven by the advent of combinatorial chemistry, as well as strategies such as split-and-mix, which exploited techniques for automating thousands of reactions in a parallel fashion. A combination of the ability to (i) run many solid-phase reactions in parallel using fritted tubes and commercial shakers, (ii) drive reactions to completion using excess reagents, and (iii) easily purify reactions by simple washing and filtration made SPOS particularly attractive to the combinatorial chemists.

Out of the combinatorial chemistry boom came the framework for modern solid-phase organic synthesis. While a lot of the early work with SPOS focused on reliable and relatively straightforward peptide coupling reactions, the ambitious library syntheses of the 1990s required access to a much more extensive array of solid-phase reactions. That decade saw initial strides made in adapting many well-known solution-phase reactions for use in the solid-phase arena, development that continues to the present day,^{12–27} and a move beyond peptide and nucleotide chemistry toward preparation of small molecule libraries on solid phase.

In time, the vast libraries of combinatorial chemistry have given way to the smaller designed libraries of diversity-oriented synthesis (DOS). Rather than preparing multimillion compound libraries in the hope of finding new lead scaffolds, DOS concentrates on

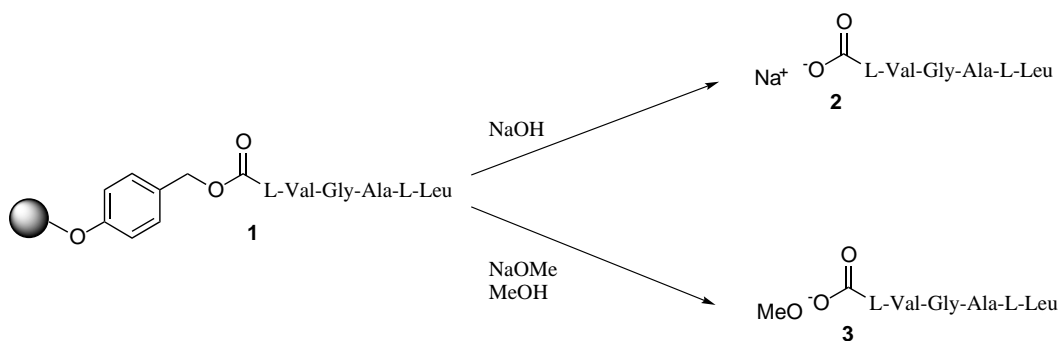
preparing smaller “focused” libraries for lead development.²⁸ Moreover, with the advent of chemical genetics, the interest in generating diverse compound libraries to explore chemical space has become a significant synthetic objective in its own right. These fields of research, in combination with related computational methods, are receiving much attention in the continuing quest to discover new biologically active compounds in chemical space. Reflecting these new challenges, the science of linker design in the last two decades has predominantly focused on the design and synthesis of new multifunctional linker units. Unlike the classical linker units described above that use a common cleavage cocktail for all members of a library, multifunctional linker units maximize diversity by using the cleavage step to incorporate additional structural variation into compound libraries. This final class of linker unit is discussed in Section 1.3.

1.2 CLASSICAL LINKER STRATEGIES

1.2.1 Acid and Base Cleavable Linker Units

In 1963, Merrifield reported the first example of a synthesis carried out using substrates immobilized on an insoluble polymer support.²⁹ In this work, the polymer Merrifield used was a chloromethylated copolymer of styrene and divinylbenzene, a polymer support that now bears his name. This polymer was functionalized with a benzyloxy group and then Merrifield was able to construct the L-Leu-L-Ala-Gly-Val tetrapeptide **1** by exploiting the Cbz protecting group strategy (Scheme 1.2). Cleavage from the ester linker unit was achieved using sodium hydroxide or a methanolic solution of sodium methoxide to generate the salt of the carboxylic acid **2** or methyl ester **3**, respectively. This work in itself represents a simple and straightforward example of multifunctional cleavage that will be discussed further later.

Reflecting this genesis in solid-phase peptide and oligonucleotide synthesis, many early linker units typically possessed a polar functional group (e.g., OH, CO₂H, NH₂, SH) that was used to attach substrates to a solid support. These linker units can be classified according to whether acidic or basic conditions are required for cleavage of target molecules, and many of them are still employed routinely in twenty-first century solid-phase organic synthesis. The main advantage is that cleavage of substrates from acid and base labile linker units can be readily achieved using mild conditions. Moreover, target molecules can frequently be isolated in sufficient purity by simple evaporation of volatile cleavage reagents.



Scheme 1.2. Merrifield's original solid-phase synthesis of a tetrapeptide.

Two of the most used acid labile linker units, illustrated in Table 1.1, are the hydroxymethylphenyl linker unit reported by Wang (Table 1.1, Entry 1)³⁰ and the aminomethylphenyl linker (Table 1.1, Entries 2 and 3), stabilized by an additional anisole unit, developed by Rink.³¹ The *para*-oxygen atom in the Wang linker has a stabilizing effect on the cation generated upon treatment with acid, allowing cleavage to be achieved using 50% trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) in dichloromethane (DCM). As a comparison, greater stabilization of the intermediate carbocation occurs in the presence of the *ortho*- and *para*-methoxy groups of the Rink linker. This enhanced stability allows cleavage to be realized under comparatively milder conditions (e.g., 0.1–50% TFA/DCM). For example, trichloroacetylurea was cleaved from the Rink linker using 5% TFA in DCM (Table 1.1, Entry 2).³² The use of methoxy groups to afford greater stability to the intermediate carbocation has also been exploited in development of the hyperlabile SASRIN (or HMPB) linker (Table 1.1, Entry 4).^{33–36} Similar to the Rink linker, cleavage of substrates from the SASRIN linker can be achieved using mild conditions such as 0.1–1% TFA.³⁶

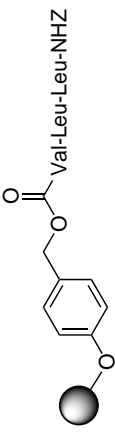
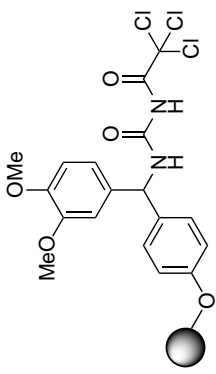
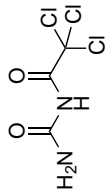
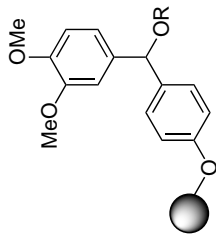

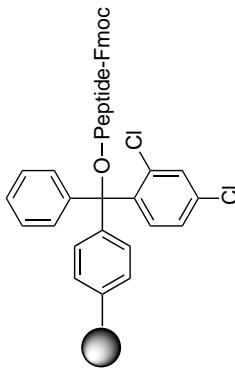
Other acid labile linker units from which substrates can be cleaved by treatment with TFA include the trityl linker units. Typically, the chlorotriyl linker unit is employed (Table 1.1, Entries 5 and 6) because it is more stable than the parent trityl linker unit, although cleavage can still be achieved using 1% TFA or acetic acid.^{38,55} One advantage of using trityl linker units over, for example, the benzyl linker units discussed above is that the steric bulkiness of the trityl group makes the linkage more stable against nucleophilic bases. On the other hand, however, this steric bulkiness can cause problems if the substrate to be attached is itself a large molecule. In such situations, steric interference can reduce loading efficiency and should be taken into account before employing the trityl linker unit.

All these TFA labile linker units are well suited to SPOS using the Fmoc protective group strategy. Thus, Fmoc protecting group manipulations can be achieved using piperidine without risk of cleaving the acid labile substrate. However, if a SPOS design plans to use the Boc peptide strategy (i.e., TFA deprotection of Boc groups throughout the synthesis), then a linker unit from which substrates are cleavable with TFA is clearly not suitable. Apart from the TFA labile linkers previously discussed, a number of other acid labile linker units have been reported, allowing the ability to tailor the choice of linker unit to a given synthetic application. If it is necessary to employ the Boc protective group strategy throughout SPOS, one might select the phenylacetamide (PAM) linker (Table 1.1, Entry 7). Substrates are attached to the PAM linker through an ester linkage that is reasonably stable toward TFA. After completion of SPOS, the target molecule can then be cleaved using a stronger acid such as HF or HBr.⁴⁰

Note that many of the linker units described above are available in multiple forms, allowing a range of substrates to be attached and cleaved. A discussion of all these related linker units is outside the scope of this chapter, but Kurosu has written a comprehensive review.⁵⁶ By way of example, multiple versions of the Rink (Table 1.1, Entries 2 and 3) and trityl linker units (Table 1.1, Entries 5 and 6)³⁹ are commercially available and can be selected according to the desired substrate. However, beyond these general linker units, there are also examples of substrate-specific linker units. For example, the benzhydrylamine (BHA, Table 1.1, Entry 8)⁵⁷ and Sieber (Table 1.1, Entry 9)^{42–44} linkers find widespread use as acid labile carboxamide linker units, while the DHP (Table 1.1, Entry 10)^{45–48} and silyl linker units (e.g., Table 1.1, Entry 11) can be used to attach alcohols to polymer supports.⁵⁸

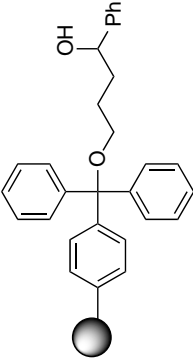
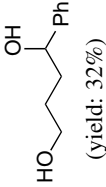
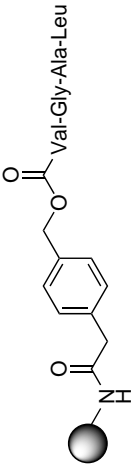
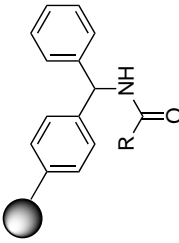
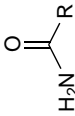
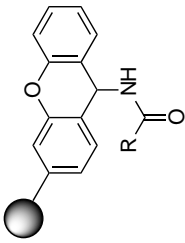
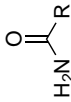
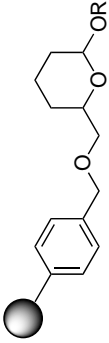
A number of linker units designed specifically for immobilization of amines have also been developed. One noticeable example exploits the versatility of the 9-phenylfluorenyl-9-yl group (PHFI). The PHFI group has previously been used as a protecting group for amines and was adapted into a linker unit by Bleicher (Table 1.1, Entry 12).⁵¹ Cleavage from this

TABLE 1.1. Common Acid Cleavable Linker Units

Linker	Cleavage Conditions	Product	References
1 	50% TFA/ DCM	HO ₂ C-Val-Leu-Leu-NHZ (yield: 69%)	30
2 	5% TFA/ DCM	 (yield: 72%)	32
3 	5% TFA	ROH	37
4 	1% TFA/ DCM	Boc-Asp(OrBu)-Val-Pro-Lys (Boc)-Ser(tBu)-OH (crude yield: 90%, purity: 78%)	36
5 	2:2:6 AcOH: TFE:DCM	Peptide (seven examples, 86–100% yield, 69–89% purity)	38

(Continued)

TABLE 1.1. (Continued)

Linker	Cleavage Conditions	Product	References
<p>6</p> 	1 M HCl	 (yield: 32%)	39
<p>7</p> 	(a) 16% HBR in 1:1 AcOH; TFA; (b) 9:1 HF:anisole	Leu-Ala-Gly-Val (a: 35% yield, b: 87% yield)	40
<p>8</p> 	HF, 0°C		41
<p>9</p> 	2% TFA		42–44
<p>10</p> 	TFA–water (95:5)	ROH	45–48