Total Synthesis of α -Pyrone Meroterpenoids, Novel Bioactive Microbial Metabolites

Toshiaki Sunazuka and Satoshi Ömura*

Kitasato Institute for Life Sciences, Kitasato University, and The Kitasato Institute, Shirokane, Minato-ku, Tokyo 108-8641, Japan

Received April 5, 2005

Contents

| 1. | 1. Introduction | | | | | |
|----------------|---|--|------|--|--|--|
| 2. | 2. Naturally Occurring α -Pyrone Meroterpenoids | | | | | |
| 3. | 3. Total Synthesis of Pyripyropenes | | | | | |
| 3.1. Isolation | | | | | | |
| 3 | 3.2. Structure Determination | | | | | |
| 3 | 3.3. Biosynthesis | | | | | |
| 3 | 3.4 | Total Synthesis of Pyripyropene A | 4563 | | | |
| | 3.4. | Retrosynthetic Analysis of Pyripyropene A (1) | 4564 | | | |
| | 3.4.2. Construction of a Sesquiterpene Moiety (AB-ring) | | | | | |
| | 3.4.3. Preparation of α -Pyrones | | | | | |
| | 3.4. | Preliminary Experiment for the Lewis Acid Promoted Coupling Reaction | 4566 | | | |
| | 3.4. | Completion of the Total Synthesis of Pyripyropene A | 4566 | | | |
| 3 | 3.5. E | Biomimetic Total Synthesis of Pyripyropene E | 4567 | | | |
| 3 | 3.6. \$ | Synthesis by Parker et al. | 4569 | | | |
| 3 | 3.7. S | Synthesis of Terpene Moiety by Aggarwal et al. | 4569 | | | |
| 3 | 3.8. 3 | Structure–Activity Relationships | 4569 | | | |
| 4. | Tota | I Synthesis of Arisugacins | 4571 | | | |
| 2 | 1.1. I | solation | 4571 | | | |
| 2 | 1.2. \$ | Structure Determination | 4571 | | | |
| | 4.2. | 1. Determination of Absolute Stereochemistries of Arisugacins | 4571 | | | |
| 2 | 1.3. I | Biosynthesis | 4572 | | | |
| 2 | 1.4. | Total Synthesis of Arisugacins A and B | 4572 | | | |
| | 4.4. | 1. Construction of Arisugacin Skeleton | 4572 | | | |
| | 4.4. | 2. Arisugacin A Final Stage | 4574 | | | |
| | 4.4. | Total Synthesis of Arisugacin B | 4576 | | | |
| Z | 4.5. I | Biomimetic Total Synthesis of Arisugacins F and G | 4576 | | | |
| 2 | 4.6. \$ | Structure–Activity Relationships | 4578 | | | |
| 5. | Con | cluding Remarks | 4579 | | | |
| 6. | Ackr | owledgments | 4579 | | | |
| 7. | Refe | rences and Notes | 4579 | | | |
| | | | | | | |

1. Introduction

Bioactive natural products produced by microbes have limitless potential in pharmaceutical applications, and the organic synthesis of such products as lead compounds will result in the creation of new and widely useful pharmaceutical products. With a focus on the drug discovery process, the Kitasato Institute is using cutting-edge, unique screening techniques to discover useful bioactive natural products from microbial metabolites. These novel natural products have distinctive structures and attractive bioactivities.^{1,2}

The key challenge in synthetic organic chemistry is how to more efficiently synthesize target compounds with unique, novel molecular skeletons using short process pathways. The construction of novel molecular skeletons necessitates the development of new synthetic strategies and key reactions, which leads to further progress in synthetic organic chemistry (Figure 1).

If efficient synthetic methods can be established, it will be possible to quantitatively supply natural products that are presently only naturally available in trace amounts, and this will contribute to a more thorough elucidation of their bioactivities. In addition, it will become possible to determine, using synthetic techniques, the relative and absolute configuration and structures of compounds for which only trace amounts can be extracted from natural sources. Furthermore, use of newly developed molecular skeleton construction methods will allow the creation of a wide range of analogues, thereby leading to the production of compounds with properties that surpass those found in nature and heralding the promise of bioactivity.

Hence, the discovery of bioactive natural products with novel molecular skeletons will lead to advances in synthetic organic chemistry that are dynamically related to the elucidation and development of bioactive materials (Figure 1).

Target compounds of new natural products may only be available from natural sources in trace amounts, so the Kitasato Institute has built on the above concepts to develop efficient, rational, and highly flexible construction methods for the production of compounds with novel molecular skeletons and useful bioactivities. To date, 20 types of bioactive natural products have been successfully synthesized. The research program also calls for the application of established methods to synthesize related compounds, elucidating their structure-activity relationships and contributing to the creation of improved bioactive compounds. In this article, which provides an overview of this research to date, the total synthesis of acyl-CoA/cholesterol acyltransferase (ACAT)-inhibiting pyripyropenes and acetylcholinest-

 $[\]ast$ Corresponding author. Tel: +81-3-5791-6101. Fax: +81-3-3444-8360. E-mail: omura-s@kitasato.or.jp.



Toshiaki Sunazuka is Professor of Kitasato Institute for Life Sciences and Graduate School of Infection Control Sciences at Kitasato University and Visiting Director at The Kitasato Institute. He was born in Chiba, Japan, in 1959, and received his Ph.D. under the supervision of Professor S. Omura at the School of Pharmaceutical Science at Kitasato University (1988). After working as a postdoctoral fellow (1988–1990) at University of Pennsylvania with Professor A. B. Smith, III, he joined The Kitasato Institute as a Senior Researcher. He was appointed Assistant Professor in 2002, and Professor in 2005. He received the Progress Award in Synthetic Organic Chemistry, Japan, and the Sumiki–Umezawa Award. His research interests are in the areas of synthetic organic chemistry and medicinal and bioorganic chemistry of bioactive natural products.



Satoshi Ōmura is Professor and President of The Kitasato Institute, Professor of Kitasato Institute for Life Sciences and Graduate School of Infection Control Sciences, Kitasato University. He was born in Yamanashi Prefecture, Japan, in 1935 and received his Ph.D. in Pharmaceutical Sciences from the University of Tokyo in 1968 and in Chemistry from Tokyo University of Science in 1970. He was appointed Professor of School of Pharmaceutical Sciences. Kitasato University, in 1975. He has been the President of The Kitasato Intitute since 1990. His research interests focus on chemistry and biology of microbial metabolites, including discovery, the biosynthesis and hybrid biosynthesis of new macrolide antibiotics, the breeding, genetic analysis, and mapping of Streptomyces avermectinius, the synthesis of novel semisynthetic macrolides, and the organic synthesis of new compounds. He was a recipient of the Japan Academy Prize (1990), ACS Nakanishi Prize (2000), ACS Ernest Guenther Award in the Chemistry of Natural Products (2005), and many other awards at home and abroad. He is a member of Deutsche Akademie der Naturforscher "Leopoldina" (Germany) (1992), National Academy of Sciences, U.S.A. (1999), the Japan Academy (2001), Institut de France, Academie des Sciences (2002), Russian Academy of Sciences (2004), and European Academy of Sciences (2005).

erase (AChE)-inhibiting arisugacins is discussed and a number of issues concerning their biosynthesis are addressed.

During the screening for bioactive compounds from microbial origin, pyripyropenes A–R as ACAT in-



Figure 1.

hibitors and arisugacins A and B as AChE inhibitors have been discovered. These are both fungal metabolites, biosynthesized from terpenoid and polyketide, and are called "meroterpenoids".

Meroterpenoids were initially proposed by Cornforth as "Compounds containing terpenoid elements along with structures of different biosynthetic origin".³ Recently, Simpson defined meroterpenoids as a more limited group: "Compounds of mixed polyketide-terpenoid origin".⁴

Furthermore, very unique structures of α -pyrone meroterpenoids have been discovered: pyripyropenes, phenylpyropenes, oxalicines, arisugacins, territrems, and terreulactones.

The biosynthetic scheme for α -pyrone meroterpenoids proposes that an aryl- α -pyrone moiety is produced via condensation of a primer aromatic acid with two acetates via a polyketide pathway and an all trans farnesyl pyrophosphate is produced via the mevalonate pathway. These two moieties are then linked and cyclized to form the core skeleton.

2. Naturally Occurring α -Pyrone Meroterpenoids

Naturally occurring α -pyrone meroterpenoids were discovered by different screening methods.

During the screening program of ACAT inhibitors, the potent inhibitors pyripyropenes A (1)–R (18) were obtained from a culture broth of *Asperigillus fumigatus* FO-1289.^{5–8} Pyripyropenes commonly consist of three parts, a pyridine ring, an α -pyrone, and a sesquiterpene motif, to form a steroid-like structure (Figure 2). Among these, pyripyropene A (1) was found to be the most potent ACAT inhibitor (IC₅₀ 16 nM).

GERI-BP001, a new ACAT inhibitor (IC₅₀ 50 μ M), was isolated from a culture broth of *Aspergillus fumigatus* F37, and the structure was elucidated on the basis of spectroscopic data. GERI-BP001 was identical to pyripyropene E (**5**) (Figure 2).^{9,10}

Two newly isolated potent compounds, phenylpyripenes A (**19**) and B (**20**), obtained from a fermentation broth of *Penicillum griseofulvum* F1959, are believed to be potential ACAT inhibitors.¹¹ Their structures share the α -pyrone and sesquiterpene moieties with pyripyripenes A (**1**) and E (**5**), and the pyridine ring of pyripyripenes A and E is replaced by a phenyl ring. Moreover, phenylpyropene C (**21**) was isolated from a fermentation broth of *Penicillium* griseofulvum F1959. Although the structure of this





Figure 2. Structures of pyripyropenes.

compound is similar to that of pyripyropene, the pyridine ring of pyripyropene E(5) was replaced by a benzene ring in phenylpyropene C (Figure 3).¹²



Figure 3. Structures of phenylpyropenes.

Moreover, S14-95, a novel inhibitor of the Janus kinase (JAK)/signal transducer and activator of transcription (STAT) pathway, was isolated from a culture broth of *Penicillium* species. S14-95 was identical to phenylpyropene C (**21**).^{13,14}

Oxalicines A (22) and B (23) and 15-deoxyoxalicine B (24) were isolated from a fermentation broth of *Penicillium oxalicum*. These are alkaloidal meroterpenes with a new carbon skeleton, established from spectral data and single-crystal X-ray analysis. Oxalicine A (22) is biogenetically related to the pyripyropenes and appears to be derived from an unprecedented pathway involving nicotinic acid (ring A), polyketide (ring B), and diterpenoid (rings C, D, E, and F) moieties (Figure 4).^{15,16} They exhibited antiinsecticidal activity against the fall armyworm.

On the other hand, in the course of screening for selective acetylcholinesterase inhibitors from microbial metabolites, arisugacins A (25)-H (32), architecturally interesting inhibitors of AChE derived





from a culture broth of *Penicillium* sp. FO-4259,^{17–20} were isolated, together with a structurally related known compound, territrem B (**34**). The arisugacin structure is comprised of a highly oxygenated *trans*-decalin system and an α -pyrone moiety (Figure 5).



Figure 5. Structures of arisugacins and territrems.

The tremorgenic mycotoxins isolated from Aspergillus terreus were given the trivial names territrems A (**33**), B (**34**), and C (**35**). They were partially characterized by UV, IR, ¹H NMR, and mass spectroscopy. The spectroscopic evidence indicated that their chemical structures were very similar (Figure 5).^{21,22}

Yoo isolated a new meroterpenoid containing a unique bridged lactone named terreulactone A (**36**), along with terreulactones B (**37**), C (**38**), and D (**39**), from the solid-state fermentation of Aspergillus ter-



Figure 6. Structures of terreulactones.

reus Fb000501 (Figure 6).²³ Some derivatives of arisugacin B (**26**) were also detected in the same culture, so terreulactone A (**36**) seems to be biogenetically related to arisugacin isolated from *Penicillium* sp. Terreulactone A (**36**) is the first sesquiterpene lactone type meroterpenoid of microbial origin. It inhibited acetylcholinesterase in a dose-dependent manner with an IC₅₀ (μ M) value of 0.2, which showed higher activity than that (IC₅₀ (μ M) 0.42) of a methoxylated derivative of arisugacin B (**26**) (Figure 6).

In this review, the main focus is on the synthetic studies of α -pyrone meroterpenoids, pyripyronenes, selective ACAT inhibitors, and also arisugacins, selective AchE inhibitors, in addition to their isolation from nature, structure determination, biosynthesis, and structure-activity relationships.

3. Total Synthesis of Pyripyropenes

3.1. Isolation

The regulation of cholesterol (Ch) levels in humans remains a major focus of drug development. It is widely accepted that hypercholesterolemia is one of the major risk factors leading to coronary heart disease.²⁴ Interference either with the dietary absorption of cholesterol-containing foodstuffs or with the de novo biosynthesis of cholesterol has been used to lower plasma cholesterol content. Early strategies for containment of hypercholesterolemia involved the use of a bile acid sequestrant cholestyramine resin.²⁵ However, the difficulties associated with this form of medication prompted a search for other approaches. A milestone in the contemporary management of cholesterol levels arose from the discovery of lovastatin and sinvastatin, powerful inhibitors against β -hydroxy- β -methylglutaryl-CoA (HMG-CoA) reductase.^{26,27} This enzyme mediates the rate-limiting enzymatic step in cholesterol biosynthesis. Agents based on the concept of HMG-CoA inhibition have proven to be effective in the treatment of hypercholesterolemic patients. Furthermore, squalene synthase inhibitors, such as the zaragozic acids, have also been identified as possible therapeutic agents

but have not yet found clinical application because of their apparent toxicity and difficult availability.²⁸

It is believed that the progression from abnormally high cholesterol levels to myocardial infarction begins with the accumulation of intracellular esterified cholesterol in macrophages. This is followed by subsequent foam cell formation and ultimately by the appearance of atherosclerotic plaques in arteries. A promising and fundamentally new approach to the prevention and treatment of atherosclerosis is based upon inhibition of ACAT, the enzyme that catalyzes intracellular esterification of cholesterol. This strategy may permit suppression of three distinct ACATdependent steps in the pathology of atherosclerosis: absorption of dietary cholesterol in the gut, hepatic synthesis of lipoproteins, and deposition of oily cholesteryl esters (CE) within the developing arterial lesions. Therefore, inhibitors of ACAT may be promising new types of antiatherosclerotic agents.²⁹

Most ACAT inhibitors reported to date are synthetic compounds such as amide, urea, or imidazole derivatives.³⁰

To this end, approximately 20 000 soil isolates (containing predominantly actinomycetes and fungi) have been screened for the inhibition of mouse ACAT at the Kitasato Institute. During this process, pyripyropenes A–D (1–4) (Figure 2) were isolated from a culture broth of *Aspergillus fumigatus* FO-1289. These novel, polyoxygenated, and mixed polyketide– terpenoid (meroterpenoid) metabolites contain a fused pyridyl α -pyrone moiety and eight contiguous stereocenters.^{5–8}

The pyripyropenes A–D rank as the most effective naturally occurring in vitro ACAT inhibitors with IC₅₀ values of 58, 117, 53, and 268 nM, respectively. Importantly, pyripyropene A (1) proved to be orally active in hamsters, reducing cholesterol absorption by 32-46% after single doses of 25-75 mg/kg.⁵ Furthermore, pyripyropenes E–R (**5–18**, Figure 2) were also isolated from the same strain.⁸

ACAT inhibitory activities (IC₅₀) of pyripyropenes A (1) and C (3) were approximately 0.15 μ M, and they were the most potent ACAT inhibitors of natural origin. ACAT inhibitory activities of pyripyropenes A–R suggested that *O*-acyl residues of R₁ and R₂ were essential for ACAT inhibition, that *O*-acetyl residues of R₁ and R₃ were more effective than *O*-propionyl residues, and that a hydroxyl residue of R₄ was more effective for inhibition (Figure 2).

3.2. Structure Determination

Structures were elucidated using NMR, and the absolute stereochemistry was confirmed by X-ray crystallography and Mosher's method, using an α -methoxy- α -(trifluoromethyl)phenylacetic acid (MTPA) derivative of pyripyropene A. Pyripyropenes have a common structure consisting of naphtho[2,1-*b*]pyrano-[3,4-*e*]pyran and pyridine (Figure 2).³¹

The relative stereochemistry at C(4), C(6), C(7), and C(10) in **1** initially emerged from nuclear Overhauser effect (NOE) measurements, which established the syn dispositions of Me(12), Me(14), Me(15), and the OAc at C(7) (Figure 7a). Thus, irradiation of the Me(15) resonance at δ 0.89 led to a 3.0% enhance-



Figure 7. NOE enhancements for (a) pyripyropene A (250 MHz in $CDCl_3$) and (b) tris(desacetyl)pyripyorpene A (40) (500 MHz in CD_3OD).

ment of Me(12) (δ 1.44). Irradiation of Me(12) likewise gave NOE enhancements of 3.9% and 3.4% for Me(14) (δ 1.69) and Me(15), respectively, and irradiation of Me(14) enhanced both Me(12) (3.4%) and OAc(7) (δ 2.15 ppm, 1.6%). Unfortunately, irradiation at H(1) (δ 4.79) was inconclusive, and overlap of H(9) with H(8a), and of H(7) with H(13), precluded analysis of the relative configurations at C(1), C(9), and C(13).

The preparation of tris(desacetyl)pyripyropene A (40) by hydrolysis allowed the establishment of the syn relationships among H(1), H(7), and H(9) (Figure 7b). Irradiation of H(1) at δ 3.61 resulted in a NOE enhancement of H(9) (δ 1.46) of 3.8%. Irradiation at H(7) (δ 3.73), in turn, afforded a 4.7% enhancement of H(9), and irradiation at H(9) led to 6.4% and 6.7% enhancements for H(1) and H(7), respectively. All of these findings were ultimately verified, and the relative configurations at C(5) and C(13) were elucidated via single-crystal X-ray analysis of 1 (Figure 8).



Figure 8.

The complete relative stereochemistry of 1 having been defined, the determination of the absolute configuration via a modified the Mosher NMR method was sought next. The tris-Mosher ester derivatives **41** and **42** were prepared by treatment of **40** with (S)-(-)- and (R)-(+)- α -methoxy- α -(trifluoromethyl)phenylacetic (MTPA) acid in the presence of dicyclohexylcarbodiimide (DCC) and 4-dimethylaminopyri-



Figure 9. Absolute stereochemistry determination: $\Delta \delta$ values (ppm, 500 MHz, $\Delta \delta = \delta_S - \delta_R = \delta_{41} - \delta_{42}$) for the tris-Mosher ester derivatives **41** and **42**.

dine (DMAP) (tetrahydrofuran (THF), room temperature).³² The ¹H NMR spectra of **41** and **42** could be completely assigned via selective ¹H decoupling. Comparison of the ¹H chemical shifts in **41** and **42** (Figure 9) and application of the Kakisawa–Kashman test³³ revealed that the absolute configurations at C(1) and C(7) are *S* (Figure 9).

In view of the common biosynthetic origin of the pyripyropenes, we presume that congeners B-D (2-4) share the relative and absolute stereochemistry of 1; the structurally related territrems A-C may also embody the same absolute stereochemistry.

3.3. Biosynthesis

The biosynthesis of pyripyropene A (1) was studied using feeding experiments with $[1-^{13}C]$ -, $[2-^{13}C]$ -, and $[1,2-^{13}C_2]$ acetate, D,L- $[2-^{13}C]$ mevalonolactone, and [carboxyl- ^{14}C]nicotinic acid.³⁴ ^{13}C NMR and degradation experiments of ^{13}C - and ^{14}C -labeled 1 established that 1 is derived from three mevalonates, five acetates, and one nicotinic acid (Scheme 1).

As a result, a biosynthetic pathway was proposed for pyripyropenes A (1) and E (5) as shown in Scheme 1; (1) a pyridine- α -pyrone moiety (43) is produced via condensation of nicotinic acid with two acetates, (2) an all-trans farnesyl pyrophosphate (44) is produced via the mevalonate pathway, (3) the two parts are linked to form 45, followed by epoxidation, and then polyene cyclization of 46 to form the core skeleton 5, and (4) then the skeleton is oxidized and acetylated to yield pyripyropene A. Therefore, pyripyropenes belonging to the meroterpenoid group were derived via mevalonate and polyketide biosyntheses.³

3.4. Total Synthesis of Pyripyropene A

Continuing studies have focused on both the total synthesis and further biological analysis of pyripyropenes and analogues thereof. The intriguing structures and significant pharmacological potential of these substances have stimulated considerable interest.

The first total synthesis is described for the most active member of this family, (+)-pyripyropene A (1), via a flexible, concise, and highly efficient route³⁵ designed to afford easy access to the natural products and a variety of analogues; the biomimetic total synthesis of pyripyropene E (5) and structure– activity relationships are also described.³⁶





3.4.1. Retrosynthetic Analysis of Pyripyropene A (1)

A potentially serviceable disconnection of the pyripyropene A structure is shown in Scheme 2.

The convergent construction of advanced ketone **47** via O-acylation of the known hydroxy α -pyrone **48** (DE ring)³⁷ with α,β -unsaturated acid chloride **49** (AB ring) was envisioned in the presence of an acid catalyst; isomerization to the C-acylation and ring closure would then deliver **47** with the requisite anti geometry at the BC ring fusion derived from conjugate addition and enolate protonation trans to the C(12) angular methyl group shown in Scheme 3. The final stage would then entail stereoselective reduction of the ketone (**47**) at C(13) (Scheme 2).

3.4.2. Construction of a Sesquiterpene Moiety (AB-ring)

The sesquiterpene subunit **49** was anticipated to be derived from a known alcohol (**54**),³⁸ an intermediate, readily available from (+)-Wieland-Miescher ketone (WMK) via stereoselective reduction of **54**, palladium-associated carbonylation of **52**, and allylic oxidation of **50** (Scheme 4).

As the point of departure, stereoselective reduction of **54** with tetramethylammonium triacetoxyborohydride³⁹ in AcOH–CH₃CN furnished *trans*-diol **53** (95% yield, >95% de), which was treated with Ac₂O and DMAP in pyridine to yield a diacetate with identical ¹H NMR spectra as a minor material of an intermediate in the total synthesis of aphidicholine by Trost.⁴⁰ Dibenzylation and deketalization of **53** vielded **55** (85%).

An unanticipated difficulty was encountered at this stage. All attempts to alkylate **55**, by employing the standard lithium amide technology led to recovery of the starting material, and alkylation employing potassium diisopropylamide (KDA) led to a complex mixture of starting material and monoand dialkylated ketones. To circumvent this problem, Kuwajima's alkylation protocol was exploited.⁴¹ Treatment of the enol silyl ether, derived from **55** (KDA/Me₃SiCl), with methyl iodide and benzyltrim-



Scheme 4













(+)-Wieland-Miescher-ketone

Scheme 5



ethylammonium fluoride (BTAF) afforded the requisite monoalkylated ketone $\mathbf{52}$ as a 5:1 mixture of α and β diastereomers in 66% yield from 55. Conversion of the monoalkylated ketone into its enolate ion, followed by trapping [KDA/Tf₂NPh]⁴² to yield enol triflate failed, but treatment of 52 with triflic anhydride (Tf₂O) in the presence of 2,6-di-tert-butyl-4methylpyridine (CH₂Cl₂, reflux)⁴³ produced the enol

triflate 51 in 86% yield, which in turn underwent palladium-catalyzed carbonylation [CO atmosphere, Pd(OAc)₂, PPh₃, Et₃N, MeOH, DMF, reflux] as described by Cacchi^{44,45} to produce methyl ester **50** in 72% yield (Scheme 5).

Attempts at allylic oxidation of **50** with a variety of chromium reagents produced only traces of dibenzoyl ketone.



Installation of the C(7) β -hydroxyl group first entailed SeO₂ oxygenation (dioxane, reflux)⁴⁶ and oxidation of the resultant C(7) alcohol **56** to enone **57** (pyridinium chlorochromate (PCC), Celite, benzene (PhH), 3 Å molecular sieves) in 66% yield over two steps. Then a stereoselective Luche reduction⁴⁷ provided **58** quantitatively. Hydrogenolysis of the benzyl ether gave **59** in 100% yield, and the observed NOE in **59** clearly supported the assigned structure.

A number of unsuccessful methods (alkaline hydrolysis, halide (I⁻),⁴⁸ amine (DBU),⁴⁹ alkoxide $(tBuO^{-}))^{50}$ were investigated to effect the cleavage of ester **59** to acid **60**. Only cleavage of the methyl ester, using sodium thiopropoxide,⁵¹ afforded the acid **60** in 96% yield. Triacetylation of **60** (Ac₂O, DMAP, pyridine) afforded triAc-acid **61** in 100% yield (Scheme 6).

3.4.3. Preparation of α -Pyrones

6-Pyridyl-4-hydroxy-2-pyrone (**48**) and 6-phenyl-4hydroxy-2-pyrone (**67**) were synthesized in a two-step sequence analogous to a related procedure.³⁷ The diketo ester **64** was prepared by an addition of the dianion of ethyl acetoacetate **63**, generated with 2.5 equiv of lithium diisopropylamide (LDA), 1.0 equiv of **63**, and 1.0 equiv of tetramethylethylenediamine (TMEDA), to ethyl nicotinate **62** in diethyl ether at 0 °C. This Claisen condensation proceeded relatively slowly and required 18 h. The pyrone **48** was obtained by heating the oily diketoester **64** in a 150 °C oil bath at a pressure of 3.0 mmHg for 45 min. A brown solid was immediately formed along with a dark red oil, and the solid was isolated by vacuum filtration and rinsed with hexane. This simple filtration method provided spectroscopically pure α -pyrone **48**. Similarly, benzyl- α -pyrone **67** was synthesized from ethyl benzoate **65**. Hence, the diketo ester **66** was obtained from a Claisen condensation, followed by thermal cyclization of **66**, which produced **67** in moderate yield (Scheme 7).

3.4.4. Preliminary Experiment for the Lewis Acid Promoted Coupling Reaction

The effects of a Lewis acid and temperature on the coupling reaction were examined. The preliminary experiments performed using benzyl α -pyrone, which was afforded by the Narasinham protocol,³⁷ and commercially available crotonyl chloride, as a model system, are showen in Table 1. The best result was obtained when the reaction was performed in the presence of AlCl₃ at room temperature, and the reaction performed in the presence of TFA at 80 °C also produced a moderate yield.

3.4.5. Completion of the Total Synthesis of Pyripyropene A

The acid **61** was converted to the α,β -unsaturated acid chloride **49** [NaH (1.05 equiv), PhH, room temperature, (COCl)₂ (14 equiv)], which was subjected to the next reaction without purification.

The crucial sequence joining hydroxy pyrone **48** by the Douglas⁵² protocol with the AB subunit **49** Table 1.



| | | yield (%) | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----|-----------|-----------|----|----|-------|--|--|
| | -20 | -20 °C | | rt | | 80 °C | | |
| Lewis acid | 68 | 69 | 68 | 69 | 68 | 69 | | |
| CH ₃ AlCl ₂ | 7 | | 10 | | 35 | | | |
| $BF_3 \cdot OEt_2$ | 8 | | 52 | | 63 | | | |
| $TiCl_4$ | 46 | | | 44 | | 20 | | |
| $CF_{3}COOH$ | 100 | | 52 | 14 | | 51 | | |
| $AlCl_3$ | 41 | 33 | | 99 | | 80 | | |

Scheme 8



proceeded readily in trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) (80 °C, 4 h); O-acylation followed by in situ 1,3-migration and intramolecular Michael addition formed the pentacyclic ketone **47** predominantly in 47% yield for three steps. The treatment of $AlCl_3$ as a Lewis acid afforded **47** in 36% yield.

Stereoselective reduction of **47** (NaBH₄, CeCl₃, MeOH)⁴⁷ then furnished (+)-pyripyropene A (**1**) in 96% yield as colorless needle-like crystals (mp 152–153 °C) (Scheme 8). The synthetic material was identical in all respects with a sample of the natural product (400 MHz ¹H NMR and 100 MHz ¹³C NMR,

high-resolution mass spectrometry (HRMS), optical rotation, melting point, and mixed melting point).

The first total synthesis of (+)-pyripyropene A (1) has thus been achieved via a convergent and efficient strategy (16 steps, 9.3% overall yield).³⁵ Importantly, a successful approach is designed to provide flexibility in the construction of congeners B–D and I–L (2–4 and 9–12), in addition to a range of potentially bioactive analogues.

3.5. Biomimetic Total Synthesis of Pyripyropene E

Pyripyropene E (5), the simplest member of the family, was proved to be identical with GERI-BP00 M reported by Bok et al.^{9,10} Parker and Resnick have completed a biomimetic construction of racemic $5.^{53}$ Here we describe a similar biomimetic approach to the natural enantiomer of pyripyropene E [(+)-5]⁵⁴ via a cationic polyene cyclization.^{55–59}

From the retrosynthetic perspective (Scheme 9), it was envisioned that cyclization of epoxy diene **71**, initiated by a Lewis acid, would provide the requisite pyripyropene skeleton. The substrate **71** in turn would be derivable from the diketo ester **73** and the known epoxy bromide (-)-**72**.

As the point of departure, dihydroxylation of E,Efarnesyl acetate (74) with the Sharpless AD-mix- β^{60} under standard conditions furnished diol 75 (22%) yield, 37% based on consumed 74 plus the internal diol and tetraol (1:1.5 ratio, 27%). The enantiomeric purity of 75 (ca. 93% ee) was determined by ¹H NMR analysis of the C(10) (+)-MTPA esters. As anticipated, Corey's cinchona alkaloid ligand⁶¹ provided distinctly superior results [54% based on consumed 74, 96% ee, plus 9% (1:2 mixture) of the internal diol and tetraol]. Treatment of diol (+)-75 with methanesulfonic anhydride $(Ms_2O)^{62}$ and then K_2CO_3 in MeOH afforded epoxy alcohol (-)-76 (85% yield), which was converted to bromide (-)-72 (MsCl, Et₃N, CH₂Cl₂, LiBr, DMF). After aqueous workup, the unstable bromide was immediately employed in the subsequent alkylation step. Generation of a yellow dienolate of nicotinovlacetone⁶³ (**77**) (3.3 equiv lithium diisopropylamide (LDA), 10:1, THF/hexamethylphosphoric triamide (HMPA), followed by the treatment with methyl cyanoformate⁶⁴ and deprotonation with excess LDA, produced the orange dianion of 73. Addition of this solution to the epoxy bromide 72 (10:1, THF/HMPA) furnished the substrate for cyclization (-)-**71** (50% from **76**, three steps) (Scheme 10).

The pyripyropene skeleton could be elaborated from **71** via two different sequences (Scheme 11). Exposure to BF₃·Et₂O (CH₂Cl₂, 0 °C, 2 h) effected cationic cyclization to give (+)-**78**. Chromatography on silica gel caused partial decomposition, and **78** was therefore carried forward without purification. Closure of the α -pyrone ring (1,8-diazabicyclo[5.4.0]undec-7-ene (DBU), toluene, reflux, 4 h) provided a mixture of the desired tetracycle (+)-**79** and the transsyn-trans isomer (-)-**80** (ca. 5:1) in 31% overall yield from **71**. Alternatively, initial formation of the α -pyrone (DBU, toluene) gave (+)-**81**; polyene cyclization induced by BF₃·Et₂O in CH₂Cl₂ then afforded a mixture of **79** and **80** with improved (>10:1) ratio, albeit



MeO₂C O



Scheme 10





Scheme 11



in lower yield (24% from **71**, two steps). Acetylation (Ac₂O, Et₃N, cat. DMAP, CH₂Cl₂, 100%) of the mixture furnished (+)-pyripyropene E (**5**) and (-)-**82** after separation by preparative TLC. Synthetic (+)-**5**

was identical in all respects (500 MHz ¹H NMR and 125 MHz ¹³C NMR, HRMS, optical rotation, melting point, and mixed melting point) with a sample of the natural product. The structure of (-)-**82**, initially





deduced via extensive NMR studies, was confirmed by single-crystal X-ray analysis (Figure 10). 54

3.6. Synthesis by Parker et al.

Parker described an efficient preparation of GERI-BP001^{9,10} by a scheme using Nishizawa's protocol,⁶⁵ which is envisioned as a prototype for the synthesis of the more highly oxygenated and more potent pyripyropenes.⁵³

The substrate for cyclization of 85 was prepared in two steps from *trans*, *trans*-farnesyl bromide (83). Methyl acetoacetate (84) was alkylated under standard conditions (NaH, DMF) to give keto ester 85. The polyolefin intermediate, methyl ester 85, was then subjected to Nishizawa's cyclization conditions. The tricyclic organomercurial 86, uncontaminated by isomers, was easily isolated in 45% yield using silica gel chromatography. This intermediate was converted to a mixture of the α - and β -hydroxylated stereoisomers 87 and 88 via the hydroxylation procedure by Hill and Whitesides⁶⁶ (O₂, NaBH₄, DMF). Separation by silica gel chromatography provided each alcohol in 35% yield, respectively. The undesired α -hydroxylated isomer 87 was oxidized to the ketone with Jones reagent and then reduced (NaBH₄, MeOH) stereoselectively to yield the desired β -isomer 88.

Completion of the synthesis requires pyrone annelation and acylation. The remaining two steps were accomplished in acceptable yields. Previous attempts to effect pyrone annulations, similar to the conversion desired here, proved to be problematic and required strategies with two or more steps.⁶⁷ Nevertheless, in

Scheme 12

this work, the direct annulation of intermediate **88** was accomplished in 40% yield by a procedure involving 3 equiv of LDA (THF, -78 °C), followed by addition of ethyl nicotinoate (Scheme 12). Acetylation (Ac₂O, Et₃N) of the intermediate **89** proceeded in quantitative yield. The ¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR spectra of pyripyropene E (**5**) were identical to those obtained by Bok and co-workers^{9,10} for the natural product.

3.7. Synthesis of Terpene Moiety by Aggarwal et al.

Aggarwal et al. described an efficient preparation of a decalin subunit, a key intermediate³⁵ in the first synthesis of (+)-pyripyropene A, which was synthesized from geraniol, utilizing an epoxy-olefin biomimetic cyclization of allylsilane⁶⁸ as the key step.⁶⁹

The known allylic alcohol **90**, derived from geraniol in five steps,⁷⁰ was converted to bromide **91**. The bromide was employed in the alkylation step with the dianion of methyl acetoacetate⁷¹ to afford the β -keto ester **92**. Conversion of β -keto ester to Z-enol phosphate **93**, followed by coupling with TMSCH₂-MgCl, furnished the cyclization substrate, Z-allysilane **94**.⁷² Treatment of the allylsilane with BF₃·OEt₂ produced the required decalin **95** in 54% yield. Finally, benzylation of alcohol, using an excess of NaH and BnBr, resulted in concomitant isomerization of the alkene to provide the desired decalin subunit, a key intermediate **96** (Scheme 13).

This result presents a formal synthesis of (+)-pyripyropene A using a biomimetic epoxy-olefin cyclization.

3.8. Structure–Activity Relationships

Modification and structure-activity relationships of ACAT inhibitor pyripyropenes were examined. Over 300 derivatives of pyripyropenes have been synthesized.⁷³⁻⁷⁶ The pyridine ring of 1 was replaced by the benzene ring (**PR-264**), which proved to be 100-fold less active than 1. This suggests that the pyridine moiety plays a significant role in binding to





the enzyme. Some of them, such as **PR-86**, **PR-45**, and **PR-109**, have shown inhibitions on the order of nanomolar (Table 2). **PR-109** showed the most potent (IC₅₀ 6 nM) in vitro inhibitory activity. **PR-86** also displayed strong ACAT inhibition (IC₅₀ 19 nM).

From in vivo experiments using hamsters, **PR-86** (ED₅₀, 10 mg/kg) was found to be approximately 10 times more effective than pyripyropene A (ED₅₀, ca. 100 mg/kg) in the inhibition of cholesterol absorption from intestines.³⁶

Based on the derived structure-activity relationships, a binding model to ACAT was proposed for the most potent derivative **PR-109** (Figure 11). The phenyl group of the **PR-109** 11-benzylidene acetal moiety is located in an equatorial position, suitably fitting a hydrophobic site of ACAT. Another hydrophobic pocket might exist for the 7-O-valeryl group. 7-O-Valeryl, including the carboxyl group, 13-hy-



Figure 11.



droxy, and pyridine moieties, appears to be very important for binding to ACAT. 36

4. Total Synthesis of Arisugacins

4.1. Isolation

As the elderly population increases, patients with senile dementia are expected to increase similarly if no countermeasures are provided. Alzheimer's disease (AD) is known to be associated with an anomaly in the neurotransmitter system, such as acetylcholinergic, catecholaminergic, and serotonergic neurons, the amino acid system, and the neuropeptide system. Since the acetylcholinergic neuron is closely involved in high-order brain functions such as memory, learning, and cognition, a number of groups have searched for potential substances that can normalize the disorder of the acetylcholinergic neuron.⁷⁷ In this context, synthetic inhibitors of acetylcholinesterase (AChE) have recently attracted particular attention, since a synthetic agent, 1-benzyl-4-[(5,6-dimethoxy-1-oxoindan-2-yl)methyl]piperidine (E2020), was approved by the United States Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for the treatment of AD.⁷⁸

The Kitasato Institute has screened approximately 10 000 soil isolates (containing predominantly actinomycetes and fungi) to find a new class of AChE inhibitor from microbial metabolites. During this process, (+)-arisugacins A and B (**25** and **26**), architecturally interesting inhibitors of AChE derived from a culture broth of *Penicillium* sp. FO-4259,^{17–20} were isolated, together with the structurally related known compound territrem B (**34**) (Figure 5). A mutant of *Penicillium* sp. FO-4259 was found to produce a series of metabolites, arisugacins C (**27**), D (**28**), E (**29**), F (**30**), G (**31**), and H (**32**).²⁰ The structures of **25** and **26** are comprised of a highly oxygenated *trans*-decalin system and an α -pyrone moiety.

Initial biological studies revealed that **25** and **26** possess in vitro inhibitory activity against AChE (from human erythrocyte) with IC_{50} values of 1 and 26 nM, respectively.¹⁷ And the activity against AChE was more than 20 000 times higher than that against

butyrylcholinesterase (BChE, from horse serum), inhibition of which is suspected to be a cause of liver disorder. Studies on the effects of **25** in an animal model of scopolamine-induced amnesia showed that **25** protected against amnesia and exhibited very weak effects on mouse salivation and hypothermia, a peripheral cholinergic response and central cholinergic response.⁷⁹ This strongly suggests that **25** and **26** could be potentially excellent drugs for the treatment of AD.¹

4.2. Structure Determination

Structure elucidation was performed by extensive spectroscopic studies, including a combination of 1-D and 2-D NMR techniques.¹⁸ Arisugacins and territrems have a common structure consisting of naph-tho[2,1-*b*]pyrano[3,4-*e*]pyran and benzene.

4.2.1. Determination of Absolute Stereochemistries of Arisugacins

A modified Mosher method^{32,33} was used to elucidate the absolute configuration at C(3) of arisugacin F (30). Arisugacin F (30) was treated with (R)-(+)and (S)-(-)-2-methoxy-2-trifluoromethyl-2-phenylacetic (MTPA) acid in the presence of DCC and DMAP to afford the (R)-(+)- and (S)-(-)-MTPA esters (97) and **98**, Scheme 14). The $\Delta\delta$ values $(\delta_S - \delta_R)$ obtained from ¹H NMR data of **97** and **98** are shown in Figure 12. The $\Delta\delta$ values for H₂(1), H₂(2), H(3), H₂(12), and H₃(12b)-OMe are negative, while positive $\Delta \delta$ values are observed for $H_6(4\alpha)$, β -Me, and H(5) thus indicating a 3S configuration. Therefore, the absolute configurations at C(3), C(4a), C(6a), C(12a), and C(12b)of **30** were assigned as S, R, R, R, and S, respectively, on the basis of the relative stereochemistry elucidated previously.⁸⁰

On the other hand, to elucidate the absolute configuration of territrem B (34), its MTPA esters were prepared as follows. Territrem B (34) was subjected to hydrogenation of the enone moiety, followed by NaBH₄ reduction to yield **99**. NOE correlations from H(12a)-OH to H(1)-OH and from



MTPA plane

MTPA ester of 2,3-dihydro-1-ol territrem B



H(1) to H(12) in **99** indicated that the 1-hydroxyl group was oriented to the α -side (Scheme 14). The calculated $\Delta\delta$ values ($\delta_S - \delta_R$) of the (R)-(+)- and (S)-(-)-MTPA esters (**100** and **101**) are indicated in Figure 12, and the absolute stereochemistry of **99** was determined as 1-(S), 4a-(R), 6a-(R), 12a-(R), and 12b-(S). The absolute stereochemistry of **34** was the same as that of **30**. In view of the biosynthetic pathway common to arisugacins and territrems, it was presumed that the relative and absolute stereochemistries of **25** and **26** should also be common to those of **30** and **34**.⁸⁰

4.3. Biosynthesis

Arisugacins biogenetically belong to the mixed polyketide-terpenoid group (meroterpenoid).^{2,3} Their biosynthetic pathways via arisugacin F (**30**) as the

Scheme 15

key intermediate were proposed (Scheme 15): (1) condensation of an acetoacetate with a benzoic acid analogue derived from shikimate, to give a phenyl- α -pyrone moiety, (2) substitution of an all-trans farnesyl group to the α -pyrone moiety, (3) epoxidation of the terminal olefin of the farnesyl group followed by cyclization to give the core skeleton, arisugacin F, and (4) oxidation and further transformation leading to arisugacins A and B and territrem B.⁸⁰

Described herein, is the first total synthesis of (+)-**25** and (+)-**26**, the most active member of this family, via a flexible, concise, and highly efficient route to provide the natural arisugacins, the biomimetic total synthesis of (\pm) -**30** and (\pm) -**31**, and the structure-activity relationships. R. P. Hsung et al. reported the total synthesis of this interesting natural product⁸¹⁻⁸⁷ using a similar strategy to that we had reported. ⁸⁸⁻⁹¹

4.4. Total Synthesis of Arisugacins A and B

According to retrosynthetic analyses (Scheme 16), arisugacin A could be accessed by several steps of oxidation reactions from the pentacycle **102**, which would be derived from α,β -unsaturated lactol **105** and the known 4-hydroxy-2-pyrone **104**³⁷ via a Knoevenagel-type reaction in the presence of L-proline. In this process, condensation of α -pyrone with a Shiffbase formed by lactol and amino acid and subsequent amine elimination followed by 6π -electron electrocyclic ring closure⁹² would be performed. The cyclization step should proceed with the requisite geometry at the BC ring fusion, controlled by the steric effect of the C(12b) angular methyl group. The known lactone **106**, an intermediate for the synthesis of forskolin,⁹³ would then lead to lactol **105**.

4.4.1. Construction of Arisugacin Skeleton

To synthesize (+)-arisugacin A, the chiral building block **108** was prepared from **107**, which was syn-





thesized from the commercially available α -ionone by a known procedure.94 The known CBS reduction procedure was not feasible in this case because of poor reproducibility and the requirement of a large amount of expensive catalyst.^{95,96} On the other hand, asymmetric hydrogenation using a ruthenium catalyst can be conducted easily on a preparative scale with a S/C ratio of up to 500 and a substrate concentration as high as 2.5 M in 2-propanol.⁹⁷ When the achiral cyclic enone 107 was hydrogenated with a catalyst system containing $\operatorname{RuCl}_2[(R)-\operatorname{binap}_{(S,S)}-\operatorname{DPEN}]$ (binap = [2,2'-bis(diphenylphosphino)-1,1'-binaphthyl]; DPEN = diphenylethylenediamine in 2-propanol containing KOH (107/Ru/KOH = 500:1:40, 8 atm, room temperature, 24 h), the allylic alcohol 108 was obtained in 90% ee and 97% yield. The enantiomeric mixture of 108 was converted to the 3,5-dinitrobenzoate 109, which was purified by recrystallization. Pure 109 was reconverted into 108 (98% e.e.) upon treatment with potassium carbonate in methanol. The enantiomeric purities were determined by NMR analysis of the corresponding MTPA esters. The absolute configuration of (-)-108 was determined to be the S configuration by optical rotation described in the literature (Scheme 17).95

The lactol **105**, a coupling unit, was prepared in four steps starting from the chiral building block **108**. Esterification of **108** with 2-butynoic acid, followed by an intramolecular Diels-Alder reaction, afforded **106**, which was treated with *m*-chloroperbenzoic acid (*m*-CPBA) to afford epoxide **111** stereoselectively, and the resulting epoxide **111** was converted into lactol with diisobutylaluminum hydride (DIBAL). Subsequently, the condensation with α -pyrone **104**, using L-proline as a catalyst, was examined to construct the pentacycle 102. By treatment of lactol with α -pyrone 104 in the presence of a catalytic amount of Lproline⁸¹ in EtOAc at 80 °C, the coupling reaction proceeded smoothly to provide the desired pentacyclic skeleton 102 in 50% yield (two steps). Subsequently, the introduction of a hydroxy group at the 12a position was studied via epoxidation. Epoxidation of **102** with *m*-CPBA or dimethyldioxirane (DMDO) was inefficient, and from the efforts of this work, oxidation with *t*-BuOOH in the presence of $Mo(CO)_6^{98}$ gave the best result but only in 29% yield. For the following epoxide-opening reaction, various conditions were attempted, such as LiAlH₄, Super-H, or Birch reduction, but all of them were unsuccessful (Scheme 18); therefore, the introduction of two hydroxy groups by this strategy was abandoned.

Opening of the epoxide on the B ring of 111 was therefore planned prior to the coupling. Reduction with LiAlH₄ afforded a diol, together with the unreacted epoxide. Attempts to reduce using DIBAL or Super-H also failed. Fortunately, LiAlH₄ in an addition of AlCl₃ furnished the desired triol 114 (Scheme 19). Selective oxidation of the primary alcohol 114 with tetrapropylammonium perrhuthenate (TPAP) (0.02 equiv) and 4-methylmorpholine N-oxide (NMO) (1.5 equiv) afforded 115 in 73% yield. Initially, coupling of aldehyde 115 with α -pyrone 104 was attempted under previously used conditions for the formation of 102 and gave the corresponding pentacycle 116 in only a 17% yield. In an effort to improve the step, the reaction conditions were precisely examined. Table 3 summarizes the results obtained by varying the catalyst loading, concentration, and



OH он сно LiAIH₄, AICI₃ THF, 0 °C он TPAP, NMO 104, L-proline n OMe CH₂Cl₂, r.t. THF, 65 °C OH (98%) (61%) (73%) ŌΗ ŌΗ . 12h 111 114 115 ŌΗ 116

Table 3

| entry | L-proline (equiv) | MS 3 Å | solvent | temp (°C) | yield (%) |
|-------|----------------------|-----------|--------------------|--------------|--------------|
| 1 | 0.5 | + | benzene | 70 | 26 |
| 2 | 3.0 | + | benzene | 80 | 31 |
| 3 | 3.0 | - | benzene | 80 | 29 |
| 4 | 2.0 | - | benzene | 80 | 32 |
| 5 | 2.0 | — | 1,2-dichloroethane | 80 | 16 |
| 6 | 2.0 | - | 2-propanol | 80 | 20 |
| 7 | 2.0 | - | THF | 65 | 61 |
| 8 | 2.0 | - | \mathbf{DMF} | 80 | 14 |

solvent. The data indicated that high loading of L-proline and the use of THF as solvent are essential for efficient formation of **116**. The reaction condition using 2.0 equiv of L-proline in THF at 65 °C gave the best result, affording the desired pentacycle **116** in 61% yield.

4.4.2. Arisugacin A Final Stage

Introduction of a hydroxy group at the 12a position in **116**, via epoxidation and epoxide opening, was planned as applied for the preceding case, **102**. Unexpectedly, oxidation of **116** with *t*-BuOOH did not yield the desired epoxide **117**. A series of epoxidation conditions attempted (*m*-CPBA, DMDO, AcOOH, or CF₃COOOH) were all unsuccessful and gave complex mixtures. Dihydroxylation of 12-ene with OsO₄ also failed.⁸⁵ These results were surprising because the structural difference between **102** and **116** lies only in the presence of either an epoxy group or a hydroxyl group at the 4a-position. It was presumed that the difficulty may be due to hydrogen bonding between the 1-OH and 4a-OH, which prevents hydrogen bond formation between 1 α -OH and peracids. Therefore, inversion of 1α -OH to form 1β -OH was attempted (Figure 13). Treatment of **116** with TPAP and NMO, followed by stereoselective reduction involving 4a-OH, furnished β -alcohol **118** in 71% yield (two steps).

Epoxidation of **118** with *m*-CPBA provided only β -epoxide **120**. During the careful NMR analysis of 120 and its acetate 121, it was noted that the hexacycle, reported by R. P. Hsung et al.,85,86 must be revised to **120** (Scheme 21). Treatment of **118** with AcOOH produced a mixture of triol **119** and β -epoxide 120, and treatment with performic acid or trifluoroperacetic acid furnished α -epoxide as the other product. Since the desired α -epoxide could not be obtained as the major product under the condition examined, an attempt to increase the yield of triol was made. The optimum condition was gained by treatment with AcOOH in a CH₂Cl₂-phosphate buffer system to keep lower acidity at room temperature (Scheme 20). The stereochemistry of the introduced hydroxy groups in **119** was confirmed by NOE experiments as shown in Figure 14.

For the mechanism of this dihydroxylation reaction, a process involving acyl migration was assumed, as shown in Scheme 22. The endocyclic olefin in 2*H*pyran fused to 2-pyrone has unique reactivity, owing to activation from the pyranyl oxygen. The electronrich C(12a) would attack AcOOH selectively to afford the oxocarbenium intermediate. Stereoselective addition of the AcO⁻ anion to the initially formed oxocarbenium intermediate occurs exclusively from the bottom face, because the two angular methyl groups shield the top face of the olefin. The acetyl group migrates from the C(12) hydroxy to the C(1) hydroxy,



Figure 13. Heat of conformation for 116 and 118.



Scheme 21



located at a conformationally close position (Scheme 22).

The next step is the reductive elimination of 12-OH in 119. Since the formation of xantate and mesylate failed, probably due to the steric hindrance



Figure 14. NOE results for 119.

around this functionality, direct reduction of the hydroxy group was attempted. Reaction with BH₃-THF/ BF₃-OEt₂, Et₃SiH/BF₃-OEt₂, or NaBH₃CN/TFA gave unsatisfactory results. While the adaptation of NaBH₃CN/ZnI₂ furnished **122** in low yield, this procedure was not satisfactory in that the starting material remained. Finally, successful results were obtained by the treatment of 119 with Et₃SiH and TFA,⁹⁹ affording the desired product in good yield. Successive methanolysis of the C(1) acetate furnished triol 122 in 82% yield (two steps).

In the final step, triol 122 was readily oxidized to ketone 123 in quantitative yield by treatment with TPAP and NMO. To examine the conversion of ketone to enone, 2,3-dihydroterritrem B was used as a model compound. The procedure, via bromina-

Scheme 23



tion,¹⁰⁰ failed due to attack of α -bromoketone by the 4a-hydroxy group, to form an ether ring. o-Iodoxybenzoic acid (IBX)¹⁰¹ and the Saegusa method¹⁰² were also unsuccessful. Fortunately, the phenylselenenylation-oxidation method, enolization with Schlosser's base,¹⁰³ followed by phenylselenenylation, was found to be effective. The phenylselenide was treated with H_2O_2 to give territrem B, although the yield was low. Therefore, several reaction conditions were examined with compound **123** to optimize the yield. As a result, the best condition was found to be enolization at -20°C and phenylselenenylation at room temperature. Without any retro-aldol-aldol reaction, this protocol furnished arisugacin A (25) in 47% yield (Scheme 23). The IR, HRMS, and ¹H/¹³C NMR spectra of this synthetic 25 were in solid agreement with the corresponding data reported for natural **25**. An $[\alpha]_D^{25}$ value of $+144.0^{\circ}$ (c 0.10, CHCl₃) was determined for the synthetic sample. Although the reported value for the natural product was $[\alpha]_D^{23} + 72^\circ$ (c 0.10, CHCl₃), the optical rotation was shown to be $[\alpha]_D^{25}$ $+150.0^{\circ}$ (c 0.10, CHCl₃) when the natural product sample was reexamined. Therefore, the absolute configurations at C(4a), C(6a), C(12a), and C(12b)were assigned as R, R, R, and S, respectively.¹⁰⁴

4.4.3. Total Synthesis of Arisugacin B

To demonstrate the applicability of our strategy, an analogue, (+)-arisugacin B (**26**), was prepared. The intermediate in the analogous skeleton was obtained in 62% yield by the method described in Scheme 24, using 4-methoxy- α -pyrone **124**³⁷ instead of 3,4-dimethoxy- α -pyrone **104**. Synthetic procedures from **114** to **26** were performed similarly as those for (+)-arisugacin A (**25**). Spectroscopic data obtained for (+)-arisugacin B (**26**) were in agreement with those published for the natural product, except for the optical rotation. An $[\alpha]_D^{24}$ value of +168.5° (c 0.10, CHCl₃/MeOH 10/1) was determined for the synthetic isolate. The reported $[\alpha]_D^{23}$ rotation for the natural substance was +26° (c 0.10, CHCl₃). However, after reexamination, the optical rotation, $[\alpha]_D^{25}$, for the natural product was determined as +139.8° (c 0.10, CHCl₃/MeOH 10/1). Therefore, the absolute configurations at C(4a), C(6a), C(12a), and C(12b) were assigned as R, R, R, and S, respectively.¹⁰⁴

The first total syntheses of arisugacin A (25) and arisugacin B (26) have been achieved via an efficient and convergent strategy through 22 steps, starting from α -ionone (total yield 0.9% and 1.1% for arisugacin A and arisugacin B, respectively). The absolute stereochemistry of arisugacin A and arisugacin B was thus determined. This successful synthetic approach provides prospects for further supply of arisugacin derivatives and potentially bioactive analogues.

4.5. Biomimetic Total Synthesis of Arisugacins F and G

Arisugacins F (**30**) and G (**31**), the simplest members of the family, are supposed to be the biosynthetic intermediates. The stereoselective and efficient total syntheses of arisugacins F (**30**) and G (**31**) are described here.¹⁰⁵

The ring system of arisugacin suggests that a synthetic strategy through biomimetic cyclization is possible. From a retrosynthetic perspective (Scheme 25), it was envisioned that the mercuric ion-induced cyclization⁶⁵ of a polyolefin substrate **132** would provide the requisite ABC-ring system of the arisugacin skeleton **131**. The tricyclic ester **131** would then be converted to **30** via pyrone annulation. The substrate **132**, in turn, could be derived from *trans*, *trans*-farnesyl bromide (**133**) and β -keto ester (**134**).





HO

Ĥ

HO

Ethyl acetoacetate (134) was alkylated with trans, trans-farnesyl bromide (133) under a standard condition (NaH, DMF, room temperature) to give keto ester 132 in 70% yield. The keto ester 132 was then treated with mercury(II) trifluoromethanesulfonate (Hg(OTf)₂) and tetramethylurea (TMU) in CH₃CN, followed by saturated aqueous NaCl, to afford the desired tricyclic organomercurial 135 as a single isomer.65,106 This intermediate was converted to a mixture of the α - and β -hydroxylated stereoisomers 136 (32% yield) and 131 (18% yield) by means of the hydroxylation procedure (NaBH₄, O₂, DMF).⁶⁶ The undesired α -hydroxylated isomer **136** was oxidized to a ketone (TPAP, NMO, CH₂Cl₂), followed by the stereoselective reduction of the ketone to give the desired β -isomer **131**. Next, dienolate γ -acylation and

in situ cyclization^{53,107} of **131** by treatment with 3 equiv of LDA and TMEDA, followed by addition of methyl *p*-methoxybenzoate (**137**), afforded the desired (±)-arisugacin F (**30**) in 37% yield. Finally, oxidation of **30** (TPAP, NMO, CH₂Cl₂) afforded the desired (±)-arisugacin G (**31**) in 98% yield (Scheme 26). These synthetic arisugacins F and G were identical in all respects with natural **30** and **31** (400 MHz ¹H NMR and 100 MHz ¹³C NMR, HRMS).

In conclusion, the highly convergent, first total syntheses of the AChE inhibitors (\pm) -arisugacins F (**30**) and G (**31**) were completed by a very short sequence from commercially available starting materials, ethyl acetoacetate (**134**), trans,trans-farnesyl bromide (**133**), and methyl *p*-methoxybenzoate (**137**). The key transformation, a polyolefin cyclization,



provides rapid access to the vinylogous ester (135), establishing the ABC-ring system, which includes all five stereocenters of the target. Annulation of the α -pyrone ring in one step provided the natural product 30, and then oxidation afforded another natural product 31. The efficiency of this general approach suggests its exploitation in the synthesis of other members of the arisugacin class.

4.6. Structure–Activity Relationships

Due to the interest in bioactivities of the synthetic intermediates, the activities of 1-keto-116, 118, 119, 120, 122, 123, 125, 126, 127, 128, 129, and 130 against AChE were tested using our previously published method.¹⁸ It was found that only **123** showed activity, and this was 80-fold lower than that for 25. It was also found that 1-keto-116, lacking both an enone moiety on the A ring and a $12a-\alpha$ hydroxy group, and 129 and 130, lacking the enone moiety, no longer inhibited AChE. This suggests that these functionalities are essential for the inhibition of AChE by arisugacins. In addition, Peng reported that 1β -hydroxy-territrem B was 300-fold less potent than territrem B for inhibition of AChE.¹⁰⁸ Furthermore, it was found that 25 was 25-fold more potent than $26.^{17}$ Consequently, it is suggested that the enone moiety in ring A, the hydroxy group at position 12a, and the E ring substituents play important roles in the inhibition of AChE by arisugacins.

Considering the structure-function relationship between arisugacins A and B, territrem B, and territrem C, they have different ring E structures (Figure 5). The compounds can be arranged in descending order of selectivity for AChE, that is, arisugacin A, territrem C, territrem B, and arisugacin B. For the arisugacins, it may be argued that the presence of the R_1 or the R_3 methoxy group in ring E is at least associated with the selective inhibition of AChE. Regarding territrem B, Peng suggested the importance of the double bond, the enone group in ring A, and the pyrone group in ring D, for expressing selectivity for AchE, as judged by comparison between several synthetic derivatives of territrem B.¹⁰⁸



Figure 15. Computer simulation of arisugacin A docking with AchE.

Recently, in collaboration with Dr. Itai of the Institute of Medicinal Molecular Design, a threedimensional view of arisugacin A docking with AChE could be simulated using an automated computer docking program, ADAM (Figure 15, Mizutani et al., 1994), in which a basket-like structure in blue represents the putative cavity in the AChE protein, to which the substrate or inhibitory molecule binds. As is evident in Figure 15, the long stretched arisugacin A molecule is well buried along the long and narrow cavity of the enzyme, and hydrogen bondings are also apparent.

5. Concluding Remarks

A collection of microorganisms has been screened for metabolites that selectively inhibit ACAT and AChE, which has led to the isolation and identification of novel α -pyrone meroterpenoids, designated as pyripyropenes and arisugacins, from strains of Aspergillus fumigatus FO-1289 and Penicillium sp. FO-4259, respectively.

The efficient and concise total synthesis of bioactive α -pyrone meroterpenoids, pyripyropenes A and E and arisugacins A, B, F, and G, has been successfully performed and their structure-activity relationships qualified. It is believed that further studies would enable the development of novel therapeutic drugs for life-style related diseases, such as hypercholesterolemia, and Alzheimer's disease.

6. Acknowledgments

We are grateful to Professors Hiroshi Tomoda and Kazuhiko Otoguro for their great contribution to the discovery of interesting bioactive natural products and also Professors Amos B. Smith, III, and Isao Kuwajima for their helpful suggestions. We would also like to thank Drs. Takeshi Kinsho, Tohru Nagamitsu, Rika Obata, Masaki Handa, Tatsuya Shirahata, and Tomoyasu Hirose and Mr. and Ms. Kenichiro Nagai, Ryoko Kimura, Ayako Endo, and Noriko Chikaraishi for their admirable experimental efforts. We are also grateful to Dr. Akiko Itai, Institute of Medicinal Molecular Design, for theoretically modeling the docking of arisugacin A onto AChE. This work was supported in part by the Grant of the 21st Century COE Program, Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), The Japan Science and Technology Corporation (JST), a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research from the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture, Japan, and the Japan Keirin Association.

7. References and Notes

- (1) Ōmura, S. The Search for Bioactive Compounds from Microorganisms; Brock/Springer Series in Contemporary Biosciences; Springer-Verlag: New York, 1992.
- (2) Ōmura, S. Splendid Gifts from Microoraganisms, 3rd ed.; The Kitasato Inst. and Kitasato Inst. for Life Sciences, Kitasato University: Tokyo, 2003.
- (3) Cornforth, J. W. Chem. Ber. 1968, 4, 102.
- (4) Simpson, T. J. Chem. Soc. Rev. 1987, 16, 123.
- Ōmura, S.; Tomoda, H.; Kim, Y. K.; Nishida, H. J. Antibiot. 1993. 46.1168.
- Tomoda, H.; Kim, Y. K.; Nishida, H.; Masuma, R.; Ōmura, S. J. Antibiot. 1994, 47, 148.

- (7) Kim, Y. K.; Tomoda, H.; Nishida, H.; Sunazuka, T.; Obata, R.;
- T. K., T. R., Tomoda, H., Nishida, H.; Sunazuka, I.; Obata, K.;
 Ömura, S. J. Antibiot. 1994, 47, 154.
 Tomoda, H.; Tabata, N.; Yang, D.-J.; Takayanagi, H.; Nishida,
 H.; Õmura, S.; Kaneko, T. J. Antibiot. 1995, 48, 495.
 Jeong, T.-S.; Kim, S.-U.; Kwon, B.-M.; Son, K.-H.; Kim, Y.-K.;
 Choi M. Li, Bek, S. H. Tatrahadana, J. et al. 1994, 32, 5260. (8)
- (9)
- (9) Jeong, T.-S.; Kum, S.-U.; Kwon, B.-M.; Son, K.-H.; Kim, Y.-K.; Choi, M.-U.; Bok, S.-H. *Tetrahedron. Lett.* **1994**, *35*, 3569.
 (10) Jeong, T.-S.; Kim, S.-U.; Son, K.-H.; Kwon, B.-M.; Kim, Y.-K.; Choi, M.-U.; Bok, S.-H. *J. Antibiot.* **1995**, *48*, 751.
 (11) Kwon, O. E.; Rho, M.-C.; Song, H. Y.; Lee, S. W.; Chung, M. Y.; Lee, J. H.; Kim, Y. H.; Lee, H. S.; Kim, Y.-K. *J. Antibiot.* **2002**, *55*, 1004. 55, 1004.
- (12) Rho, M.-C.; Lee, H. S.; Chang, K.-T.; Song, H. Y.; Kwon, O. E.; Lee, S. W.; Ko, J. S.; Hong, S. G.; Kim, Y.-K. J. Antibiot. 2002, 55, 211.
- (13) Erkel, G.; Rether, J.; Anke, T.; Sterner, O. J. Antibiot. 2003, 56, 337.
- Yao, Y.; Hausding, M.; Erkel, G.; Anke, T.; Forstermann, U.; Kleinert, H. Mol. Pharmacol. **2003**, 63, 383. (14)
- (15)
- Itemere, H. Indi Tuttmatte, 2006, 550.
 Ubillas, R.; Barnes, C. L.; Gracz, H.; Rottinghaus, G. E.;
 Tempesta, M. S. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1989, 1618.
 Zhang, Y.; Li, C.; Swenson, D. C.; Gloer, J. B.; Wicklow, D. T.;
 Dowd, P. F. Org. Lett. 2003, 5, 773. (16)
- Ōmura, S.; Kuno, F.; Otoguro, K.; Sunazuka, T.; Shiomi, K.; Masuma, R.; Iwai, Y. J. Antibiot. **1995**, 48, 745. (17)
- (18)Kuno, F.; Otoguro, K.; Shiomi, K.; Iwai Y.; Omura, S. J. Antibiot. **1996**, 49, 742.
- (19) Kuno, F.; Shiomi, K.; Otoguro, K.; Sunazuka, T.; Ōmura, S. J. Antibiot. 1996, 49, 748.
- Otoguro. K.; Shiomi, K.; Yamaguchi, Y.; Arai, N.; Sunazuka, T.; Masuma, R.; Iwai, Y.; Omura, S. J. Antibiot. **2000**, 53, 50. Ling, K.-H.; Yang, C.-K.; Peng, F. T. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. (20)
- (21)1979, 37, 355.
- (22) Dowd, P. F.; Peng, F. C.; Chen J. W.; Ling, K. H. Entomol. Exp. Appl. 1992, 65, 57.
- (23) Cho, K.-M.; Kim, W.-G.; Lee, C.-K.; Yoo, I.-D. J. Antibiot. 2003, 56, 344.
- (24) Bell, F. P. In Pharmacological Control of Hyperlipidaemia; Fears, R., Ed.; J. R. Prous Science Publishers: Barcelona, Spain, 1986; n 409
- (25) Heider, J. G. In Pharmacological Control of Hyperlipidaemia; Fears, R., Ed.; J. R. Prous Science Publishers: Barcelona, Spain, 1986; p 423.
- (26) Endo, A. J. Lipid. Res. 1992, 33, 1569.
- (27) Shepherd, J.; Cobbe, S. M.; Ford, I.; Isles, C. G.; Lorimer, A. R.; MacFarlane, P. W.; McKillop, J. H.; Packard, C. N. Engl. J. Med. 1995, 333, 1301.
- (28) Sliskovic, D. R.; Trivedi, B. K. Curr. Med. Chem. 1994, 1, 204.
 (29) Sliskovic, D. R.; White, A. D. Trends Pharmacol. Sci. 1991, 12, 194
- The best synthetic inhibitors, with IC_{50} values of 18 and 22 nM, (30) respectively, are DuP-128 [Bilheimer, J. T.; Cromley, D. A.; Higley, C. A.; Wexler, R. R.; Robinson, C. S.; Gillies, P. J. Abstracts of 9th International Symposium on Atherosclerosis, Rosemont, IL; International Atherosclerosis Society: Dallas, TX, Rosemont, IL; International Atheroscierosis Society: Dallas, LA, 1991; p 94] and CP-113,818 [Chang, G.; Hamanaka, E. S.;
 McCarthy, P. A.; Walker, F. J.; Diaz, T. L.; Johnson, D. A.;
 Kraus, K. G.; Maloney, M. E.; Martingano, R. J.; Wint, L. T.;
 Marzetta, C. A.; Goldberg, D. L.; Freeman, A. M.; Long, C. A.;
 Pettini, J. L.; Savoy, Y. E. Abstracts of Papers, 206th National Meeting of the American Chemical Society, Chicago, IL; Americal Society, Chicag
- can Chemical Society: Washington, DC, 1993; MEDI 46]. (31) Tomoda, H.; Nishida, H.; Kim, Y. K.; Obata, R.; Sunazuka, T.; Omura, S.; Bordner, J.; Guadliana, M.; Dormer, P. G.; Smith, A. B., III J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1994, 116, 12097.
- (32) Dale, J. A.; Dull, D. L.; Mosher, H. S. J. Org. Chem. 1969, 34, 2543
- (33) Ohtani, I.; Kusumi, T.; Kashman, Y.; Kakisawa, H. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1991, 113, 4092.
- (34)Tomoda, H.; Tabata, N.; Nakata, Y.; Nishida, H.; Kaneko, T.; Obata, R.; Sunazuka, T.; Ōmura, S. J. Org. Chem. 1996, 61, 882.
- Nagamitsu, T.; Sunazuka, T.; Obata, R.; Tomoda, H.; Tanaka, (35)H.; Harigaya, Y.; Ōmura, S.; Smith, A. B., III J. Org. Chem. **1995**, *60*, 8126.
- Obata, R.; Sunazuka, T.; Li, Z.; Tian, Z.; Harigaya, Y.; Tabata, H.; Tomoda, H.; Ōmura, S. Bioorg. Med. Chem. Lett. 1995, 5, 2683
- (37)Narasimhan, N. S.; Ammanamanchi, R. J. Org. Chem. 1983, 48, 3945
- (38) Smith, A. B., III; Mewshaw, R. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1985, 107, 1769.
- (39) Evans, D. A.; Chapman, K. Tetrahedron Lett. 1986, 27, 5939. (40)
- Trost, B. M.; Nishimura, Y.; Yamamoto, K.; McElvain, S. S. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1979, 101, 1330. (41) Kuwajima, I.; Nakamura, E. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1975, 97, 3257.
- (42) Ritter, K. Synthesis 1993, 735.
- (43) Stang, P. J.; Treptow, W. Synthesis 1980, 283.
- (44) Scott, W. J.; Crisp, G. T.; Stille, J. K. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1984, 106, 4630.

- (45) Cacchi, S.; Morera, E.; Ortar, G. Tetrahedron Lett. 1985, 26, 1109
- (46) Furlenmeier, A.; Furst, A.; Langemann, A.; Waldvogel, G.; Kerg, U.; Hocks, P.; Weichert, R. Helv. Chim. Acta **1966**, 49, 1591. Luche, J.-L. J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1978**, 100, 2226.
- (47)(48) Magnus, P.; Gallagher, T. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1984,
- 389
- (49) Parish, E. J.; Miles, D. H. J. Org. Chem. 1973, 38, 1223.
 (50) Gasman, P. G.; Schenk, W. N. J. Org. Chem. 1977, 42, 918.
 (51) Huffman, J. W.; Zhang, X.; Wu, M.-J.; Joyner, H. H.; Pennington, W. T. J. Org. Chem. 1991, 56, 1481.
- (52) Douglas, J. L.; Money, T. Can. J. Chem. 1968, 46, 695.
- (53) Parker, K. A.; Resnick, L. J. Org. Chem. 1995, 60, 5726.
 (54) Smith, A. B., III; Kinsho, T.; Sunazuka, T.; Ōmura, S. Tetrahe-dron Lett. 1996, 37, 6461.
- Sutherland, J. K. In Comprehensive Organic Synthesis; Trost, B. M., Ed.; Pergamon: New York, 1991; Vol. 3, p 341. (55)
- (56)Bartlett, P. A. In Asymmetric Synthesis; Morrison, J. D., Ed.; Academic: New York, 1984; Vol. 3, p 341. (57) Johnson, W. S. *Bioorg. Chem.* **1976**, *5*, 51. (58) Harding, K. E. *Bioorg. Chem.* **1973**, *2*, 248.

- (59) van Tamelen, E. E. Acc. Chem. Res. 1968, 1, 111.
- (60) Vidari, G.; Dapiaggi, A.; Zanoni, G.; Garlaschelli, L. Tetrahedron Lett. 1993, 34, 6485
- (61) Corey, E. J.; Noe, M. C.; Lin, S. Tetrahedron Lett. 1995, 36, 8741.
- (62) Mori, K.; Mori, H. Tetrahedron 1987, 43, 4097.
- (63) Ohta, S.; Tsujimura, A.; Okamoto, M. Chem. Pharm. Bull. 1981, 29, 2762.
- (64) Mander, L. N.; Sethi, S. P. Tetrahedron Lett. 1983, 48, 5425.
- Nishizawa, M.; Takenaka, H.; Hayashi, Y. J. Am. Chem. Soc. (65)1986, 103, 522
- (66) Hill, C. L.; Whitesides, G. M. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1974, 96, 870.
- (67) Lewis, C. N.; Spargo, P. L.; Staunton, J. Synthesis 1986, 944.
- (68) Taylor, S. K. Org. Proc. Int. 1992, 24, 247.
 (69) Aggarwal, V. K.; Bethel, P. A.; Giles, R. J. Chem. Soc., Perkin
- Trans. 1 1999, 3315.
- Tanis, S. P.; Chuang, Y.-H.; Head, D. B. J. Org. Chem. 1988, (70)53, 4929.
- (71) Weiler, L.; Huckin, S. N. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1974, 96, 1082.
- (72) Weiler, L.; Armstrong, R. J. Can. J. Chem. **1986**, 64, 584.
 (73) Obata, R.; Sunazuka, T.; Li, Z.; Tomoda, H.; Omura, S. J. Antibiot. 1995, 48, 749.
- Obata, R.; Sunazuka, T.; Li, Z.; Harigaya, Y.; Tabata, N.;
- Obata, R., Sunazuka, T., Li, Z., Hangaya, T., Habata, N.,
 Tomoda, H.; Omura, S. J. Antibiot. 1996, 49, 1133.
 Obata, R.; Sunazuka, T.; Kato, Y.; Tomoda, H.; Harigaya, Y.;
 Omura, S. J. Antibiot. 1996, 49, 1149.
 Obata, R.; Sunazuka, T.; Tian, Z.; Tomoda, H.; Harigaya, Y.;
 Omura, S. J. Antibiot. 1997, 50, 229. (75)
- (76)
- (77)Otoguro, K.; Kuno, F.; Ōmura, S. Pharmacol. Ther. 1997, 76, 45
- (78) Sugimoto, H.; Iimura, Y.; Yamanishi, Y.; Yamatsu, K. J. Med. Chem. 1995, 38, 4821.
 (79) Otoguro, K. The Kitasato Institute, unpublished results.
- (80) Handa, M.; Sunazuka, T.; Nagai, K.; Kimura, R.; Otoguro, K.; Harigaya, Y.; Omura, S. J. Antibiot. 2001, 54, 386.
 (81) Hua, D. H.; Chen, Y.; Sin, H.-S.; Maroto, M. J.; Robinson, P. D.;
- Newell, S. W.; Perchellet, E. M.; Ladesich, J. B.; Freeman, J.

A.; Perchellet, J.-P.; Chiang, P. K. J. Org. Chem. 1997, 62, 6888. (82) Zehnder, L. R.; Hsung, R. P.; Wang, J.; Golding, G. M. Angew.

- Chem., Int. Ed. 2000, 39, 3876. (83)Zehnder, L. R.; Wei, L.-L.; Hsung, R. P.; Cole, K. P.; McLaughlin, M. J.; Shen, H. C.; Sklenicka, H. M.; Wang, J.; Zificsak, C. A. Org. Lett. 2001, 3, 2141.
- (84) Cole, K. P.; Hsung, R. P.; Yang, X.-F. Tetrahedron Lett. 2002, 43.3341.
- (85) Cole, K. P.; Hsung, R. P. Tetrahedron Lett. 2002, 43, 8791.
- (86) Hsung, R. P.; Cole, K. P.; Zehnder, L. R.; Wang, J.; Wei, L.-L.; Yang, X.-F.; Coverdale, H. A. Tetrahedron 2003, 59, 311.
- (87) Hsung, R. P.; Kurdyumov, A. V.; Sydorenko, N. Eur. J. Org. Chem. 2005. 23
- Sunazuka, T.; Nagai, K.; Kimura, R.; Harigaya, Y.; Otoguro, K.; (88)Ōmura, S. Abstr. Pap. 119th Conf. Pharm. Soc., Jpn. (Tokushima, Jpn.) 1999, 2, 62.
- (89) Sunazuka, T. J. Synth. Org. Chem. Jpn. 2000, 58, 828.
- (90) Handa, M.; Sunazuka, T.; Nagai, K.; Kimura, R.; Shirahata, T.; Tian, Z.-M. Otoguro, K.; Harigaya, Y.; Ōmura, S. J. Antibiot. 2001, 54, 382.
- Sunazuka, T.; Handa, M.; Nagai, K.; Shirahata, T.; Harigaya, Y.; Otoguro, K.; Kuwajima, I.; Omura, S. Org. Lett. 2002, 4, 367.
- (92) Shamma, M.; Hwang, D. Tetrahedron 1974, 30, 2279.
- (93) Delpech, B.; Calvo, D.; Lett, R. Tetrahedron Lett. 1996, 37, 1015. (94) Nicolaou, K. C.; Li, W. S. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1985,
- 421 (95) Corey, E. J.; Jardine, P. D. S.; Mohri, T. Tetrahedron Lett. 1988, 29, 6409.
- (96) Calvo, D.; Port, M.; Delpech, B.; Lett, R. Tetrahedron Lett. 1996, 37.1023
- Ohkuma, T.; Doucet, H.; Pham, T.; Mikami, K.; Korenaga, T.; (97)Terada, M.; Noyori, R. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1998, 120, 1086
- (98)Michaelson, R. C.; Sharpless, K. B. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1973, 95, 6136.
- (99)West, C. T.; Donnelly, S. J.; Kooistra, D. A.; Doyle, M. P. J. Org. Chem. 1973, 38, 2675.
- (100)Meyer, W. L.; Clemans, G. B.; Manning, R. A. J. Org. Chem. 1975, 40, 3686.
- Nicolaou, K. C.; Zhong, Y.-L.; Baran, P. S. J. Am. Chem. Soc. (101)2000, 122, 7596.
- (102) Ito, Y.; Hirao, T.; Saegusa, T. J. Org. Chem. 1978, 43, 1011.
- (103) Raucher, S.; Koolpe, G. A. J. Org. Chem. 1978, 43, 3794.
- Sunazuka, T.; Handa, M.; Nagai, K.; Shirahata, T.; Harigaya, Y.; Otoguro, K.; Kuwajima, I.; Omura, S. *Tetrahedron* **2004**, *60*, (104)7845.
- (105) Handa, M.; Sunazuka, T.; Sugawara, A.; Harigaya, Y.; Otoguro, K.; Ōmura, S. J. Antibiot. 2003, 56, 730.
- (106) Gopalan, A. S.; Prieto, R.; Muller, B.; Paters, D. Tetrahedron Lett. 1992, 33, 1679.
- Obata, R.; Sunazuka, T.; Tian, Z.; Tomoda, H.; Harigaya, Y.; Omura, S.; Smith, A. B. *Chem. Lett.* **1997**, 935. (107)
- (108) Peng, F.-C. J. Nat. Prod. 1995, 58, 857.

CR040628I