

Rapid Synthesis of a Glycosylphosphatidylinositol-Based Malaria Vaccine Using Automated Solid-Phase Oligosaccharide Synthesis

Michael C. Hewitt, Daniel A. Snyder, and Peter H. Seeberger*

Contribution from the Department of Chemistry, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139

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Abstract: Described is an automated synthesis of hexasaccharide malarial toxin **1**, currently under development as a malaria vaccine candidate. Using a combination of automated solid-phase methods and solution-phase fragment coupling, the target glycosylphosphatidylinositol was assembled in a matter of days, compared with several weeks for a comparable solution-phase synthesis.

Introduction

Malaria infects 5–10% of humanity each year, killing over 2 million people. Much of the mortality is due to an inflammatory cascade initiated by a malarial toxin, released when parasites rupture the host's red blood cells. Glycosylphosphatidylinositols (GPI) function as a malarial toxin, inducing the inflammatory cytokines TNF- α and IL-1 thought to underlie malarial pathology.¹ We recently demonstrated that anti-GPI vaccination can prevent malarial pathology in an animal model.² Mice immunized with chemically synthesized GPI **1** (Figure 1) bound to a carrier protein were substantially protected from death caused by malaria parasites. Between 60 and 75% of vaccinated mice survived, compared to a 0–9% survival rate for unvaccinated mice. While the solution-phase synthesis of **1** allowed us to procure the target significantly faster than through isolation of natural GPI, more-rapid access to **1** is important for the further development of antitoxin malaria vaccines.

The structural complexity of GPIs has attracted the attention of synthetic organic chemists for some time, resulting in a number of elegant total syntheses. The acylglycerol-containing GPI of *Trypanosoma brucei*,³ ceramide-containing GPI of yeast,⁴ and rat brain Thy-1⁵ have all been completed using a variety of methodologies and protecting group combinations. Despite the

tremendous efforts toward GPI synthesis, no solid-phase or automated syntheses have been reported. Herein, we report a synthesis of malarial toxin **1**, employing our automated solid-phase oligosaccharide synthesizer.⁶

Retrosynthesis

Using our solution phase synthesis as a guide, we contemplated the automated synthesis of **1**.² While it would be ideal to prepare the entire carbohydrate skeleton on solid phase, the α linkage between inositol and glucosamine presented a serious impediment to a fully automated approach. Previous GPI syntheses addressed this problem by either separating mixtures of isomers or utilizing α -selective coupling methods followed by protecting group manipulations.⁷ Neither of these solutions was amenable to solid phase, which led us to dissect GPI **1** into two fragments: disaccharide **3** not readily accessible on solid phase and tetra-mannosyl fragment **4** rapidly prepared using automated solid-phase methodology (Figure 1). The two fragments could be joined using *n*-pentenyl glycoside coupling⁸ or use of trichloroacetimidate **4b**, available by hydrolysis from **4a**.

Results and Discussion

Tetrasaccharide **4a** was accessed on solid phase using four readily available trichloroacetimidate⁹ mannose building blocks, **5–8** (Scheme 1). The automated synthesis was carried out on our automated oligosaccharide synthesizer using octenediol-functionalized Merrifield resin **9**.¹⁰ Each coupling cycle (Table 1) relied on double glycosylations to ensure high coupling efficiencies and a single deprotection event. Coupling of **5**² to

* To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: seeberg@mit.edu.

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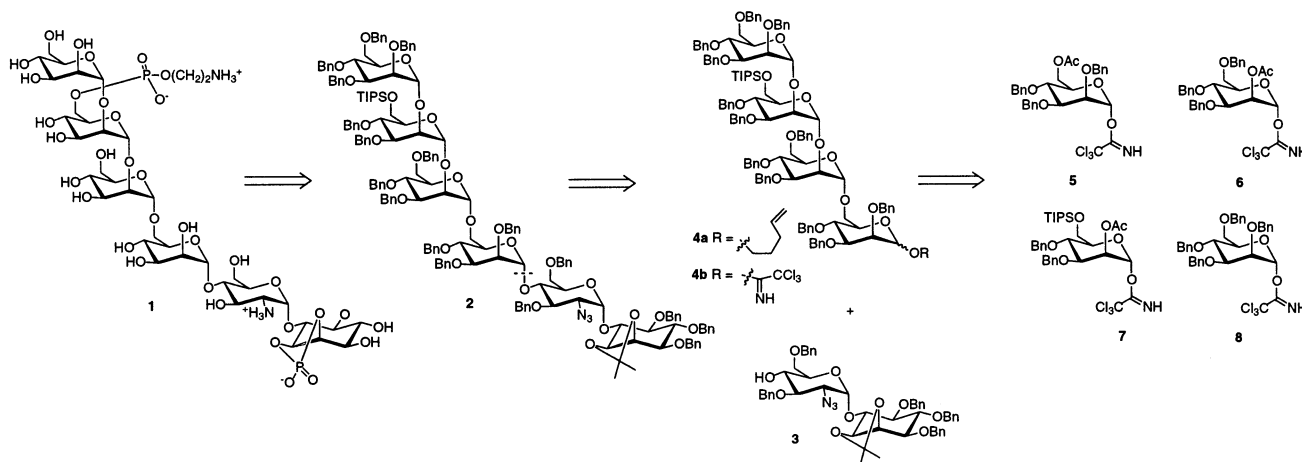


Figure 1. Retrosynthesis of GPI malarial toxin **1**.

Scheme 1

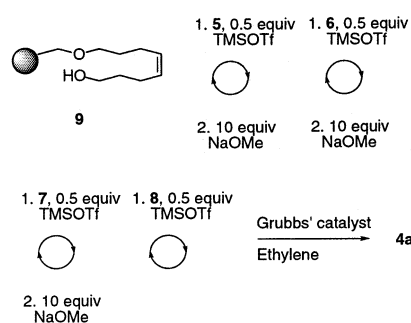


Table 1. Conditions and Reagents for the Automated Synthesis of **4a**

function	reagent	time (min)
glycosylation	5 equiv 5 , 6 , 7 , or 8 and 0.5 equiv TMSOTf	20
wash	CH ₂ Cl ₂	9
glycosylation	5 equiv 5 , 6 , 7 , or 8 and 0.5 equiv TMSOTf	20
wash	CH ₂ Cl ₂	9
deprotection	2 × 10 equiv NaOMe	60
wash	0.2M AcOH/0.2M MeOH/THF	9
wash	THF	9
wash	CH ₂ Cl ₂	9

resin **9** using catalytic TMSOTf was followed by removal of the acetate ester with NaOMe. The lack of stereoselectivity in the coupling of donor **5** and the linker was inconsequential, since the *n*-pentenyl glycoside resulting from the automated synthesis was to serve later as a leaving group during glycosylation.

Elongation of the oligosaccharide chain was achieved using monosaccharide **6**,^{4a} followed by deprotection of the 2-acetate by treatment with NaOMe. The coupling of building-block **7**² employing catalytic TMSOTf and deprotection with NaOMe proceeded smoothly to create a resin-bound trisaccharide, before the final coupling with **8**.^{4a} Cleavage of the octenediol linker using Grubbs' catalyst¹¹ in an atmosphere of ethylene provided *n*-pentenyl tetrasaccharide **4a**. HPLC analysis of the crude reaction products revealed two major peaks (Figure 2): the desired tetrasaccharide **4a** (44% relative area) and deletion sequences (15% relative area). Purification by HPLC afforded **4a** as the expected α/β mixture at the reducing-end mannose.

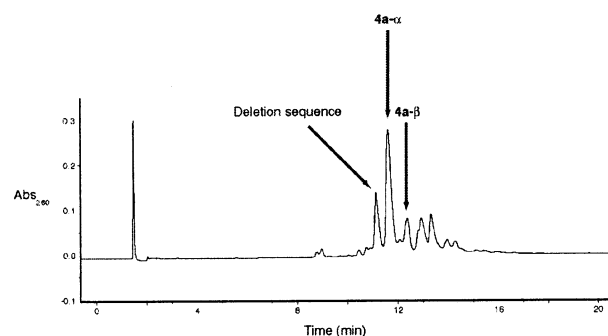
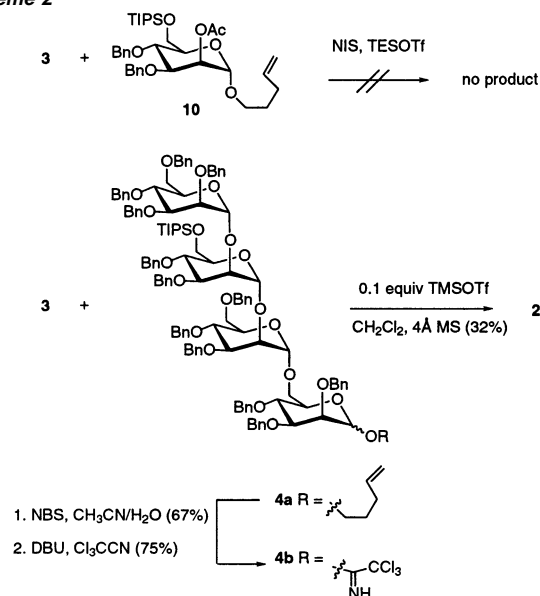


Figure 2. HPLC analysis of automated synthesis of **4a**. Flow rate 1 mL/min, 5→20% EtOAc/hexanes (20 min).

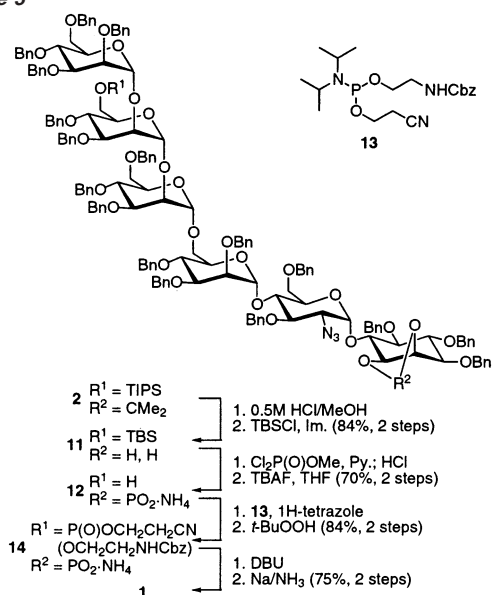
Scheme 2



Prior to attempting the 4+2 coupling, a model coupling between *n*-pentenyl monosaccharide **10** and disaccharide **3** was carried out but failed to produce the desired product (Scheme 2). This led us to examine glycosyl trichloroacetimidate **4b** as a coupling partner. Conversion of **4a** into glycosyl donor **4b** proceeded smoothly over two steps. Reaction of trichloroacetimidate **4b** with disaccharide **3** afforded the desired hexasaccharide **2** in modest yield.

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Scheme 3



Hexasaccharide **2** was converted into malarial toxin **1** in the manner previously outlined (Scheme 3).² Deprotection of both acid-labile groups and selective silylation of the resultant primary hydroxyl afforded **11**.¹² Treatment with methyldichlorophosphate in pyridine, acidic workup, and exposure to TBAF furnished cyclic phosphate **12**. Reaction with phosphoramidite

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13^{4b} and oxidation provided bis-phosphate **14** as a mixture of diastereomers. DBU removed the β -cyanoethoxy group, and global deprotection of the 17 benzyl ethers, the carbamate, and the azide was accomplished simultaneously with Na in NH₃ to afford desired toxin **1**.

Conclusion

We have demonstrated a new method for rapid access to malarial toxin **1**. The minimal structure required for efficacy as an antitoxin vaccine should be easily probed using the techniques disclosed here. Different mannose units can be rapidly synthesized and coupled to disaccharide **3** to generate vaccine precursors for structure/activity-relationship studies. The modular approach used to synthesize **1** can also be applied to other complex GPIs, such as the prion protein GPI.¹³ These improvements in the synthesis of GPIs are expected to facilitate studies into the role of these molecules in other biological systems.

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Supporting Information Available: Experimental procedures and NMR spectra for all new compounds. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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