

0040-4020(94)00829-9

# **TETRAHEDRON REPORT NUMBER 362**

# THE CHEMISTRY OF BORON ANALOGUES OF BIOMOLECULES

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# **Contents**



Boron not only appears to be an essential trace element in living systems <sup>1,2</sup> but has also been found as a constituent of some antibiotics such as boromycin<sup>3</sup> and asplamomycin<sup>4</sup>. However over the past 50 years, there have been other incentives to incorporate boron into biologically active molecules, particularly for applications such as the boroneutrotherapy treatments of certain cancers. Considering the increasing interest in the biological applications of such boron containing biomolecules, and hence in their syntheses, the time seems appropriate to review their chemistry  $5-7$ .

### 1 Introduction

Boron naturally exists as two isotopes  $^{11}B$  and  $^{10}B$  occuring in an 81.17 to 18.83 ratio. The latter, having a cross-section of 3850 barns, efficiently captures low energy neutrons to give the following nuclear reaction:

 $10R + 1n$   $\longrightarrow 7Li + 4He + v$ 

The high kinetic energy released in this transmutation (over 2.50 Mev) enables the resulting fragments to be quite destructive; the path-lengths of the emitted particles are equivalent to cell diameters (ca. 10  $\mu$ m) so if boron could somehow be introduced into malignant cells, selective destruction of unhealthy tissues could result This is the basic principle of Boron Neutron Capture Therapy (BNCT)  $7-16$ . Two features of this technique are noteworthy. Due to the fact that boron should be delivered to malignant cells in concentrations estimated at  $\alpha$ . 50  $\mu$ g <sup>10</sup>B / g tissue, the toxicity to healthy tissues of the boron compounds employed should be kept low, and, on the other hand, since hydrogen and nitrogen atoms in healthy tissues can also caphue neutrons, although to a much lower extent, it is obviously desirable to adjust the neutron flux used.

Interest in this bimodal therapy arose very shortly after the discovery of neutrons. Indeed the first rationale for using boron analogues for this purpose was put forward as soon as 1936 <sup>17</sup> and was rapidly followed by practical experiments 18-21.

These were first performed with inorganic borates  $22-24$ , the so-called "first generation" compounds. These water soluble salts were mainly deliveted through aqueous distribution in the body and hence could not sufficiently discriminate sick cells.

Phenylboronic acid derivatives  $25-27$  and dyes into which boron was incorporated  $28,29$  were then prepared but efforts to adjust the lipophilicity of these compounds and so enable them to cross the blood/brain barrier to cure cerebral tumors proved unsuccesfull  $30-32$ . However, the most important compounds from this "second generation" are boron clusters; for example **1** (BSH, Mercaptoborate, Bomcaptate) 33-38 was the first clinically useful compound and is currently under evaluation for BNCT. A convenient preparation of  $10B$ enriched BSH has been published <sup>39</sup> and the development of BSH derivatives along with other subtituted boron cages  $40-49$  is still a line of research being explored.

"Third generation" **compounds exploit biochemical pathways to accumulate boronated biomolecular**  analogues inside cells and is exemplified by the clinical application of L-4-borono-phenylalanine (BPA), 2, as a tyrosine analogue  $50$ . These molecules are the subject of intense research and their syntheses  $-$  one of the aspects of this Report - are reviewed in the pages that follow.



It is of interest to note that while BNCT depends on  $^{10}B$ , the other boron isotope,  $^{11}B$ , shows adequate NMR properties 51 and holds some promise for MRI (Magnetic Resonance Imaging). various NMR techniques having been proposed for *in vivo* localisation of boron analogues 52-55,342-345.

Another interesting application for biomolecular boron derivatives, stems from the observation <sup>56</sup> that substituted boronic acids bind chymotrypsine  $57-62$ . In fact, borates, being tetrahedral, may act as enzyme transition state inhibitors. Physical evidence  $63-68,311$  including X ray crystallography of a boronic acid adduct 69-74 support this theory. These studies have also been applied to other proteases such as lipase, peptidyl transferase, beta-lactamase and others  $75-105$ . The synthetic approaches to these boronated amino acid/peptide analogues are detailed later on.

Furthermore, the intermolecular interactions of boronates (in particular with hydroxyl groups such as those contained in carbohydrates or nucleic acids) enable chromatographic separation, chiral discrimination or temporary protection  $106-112$ ; examples of synthetic applications can be found in macrolide transformations  $113$ and peptide synthesis  $^{114}$ . Research into the catalytic  $^{115-117}$  and transport  $^{118-125}$  properties of organoboron compounds, and in particular the transport of water insoluble reagents through membranes (coined "boradeption"), also reflects the broad interest of the chemical and biochemical communities in these types of compounds.

# 2 Amino acids

Baron analogues of amino acids (AA) constitute a topic of major importance. They present a large army of structural diversity and ate of course the logical building blocks for boronated analogues of peptides. These analogues have found uses in biological and biomedical applications such as transition state inhibitors or agents for BNCT; it also turns out that some of these analogues possess biological activity in their own right. In developing amino acid analogues, boron has been introduced either as a constituent of the backbone or as a sidechain substituent.

In the simplest amino acid, glycine, replacement of the central methylene by boron, as depicted in 3 would give an isoelectronic and isostructural analogue. Thus the reaction of sodium cvanoborohydride with trimethylammonium hydrochloride gave 4. Since direct hydrolysis of the nitrile group could not be achieved, its conversion to a carboxylic acid was performed in two steps: action of Meerwein's reagent, followed by alkaline hydrolysis of the intermediate nitrilium salt <sup>126-128</sup>. The metal complexing capabilities and basicity of this betaine 5 have been discussed previously  $129$ . Upon displacement of the trimethylamine with a large excess of liquid ammonia, the desired glycine analogue 3 was isolated and unambiguously characterized by X-ray crystallography  $130$ . Although readily hydrolysed under acidic conditions, 3 was reasonably stable to neutral or basic hydrolysis, and to thermal conditions. This molecule has also been the subject of a theoretical investigation  $131$ .

In connection with boroneutrotherapy, the above scheme has been carried out with  $^{10}$ B enriched sodium cvanoborohydride <sup>132</sup> and, in this context, amine exchange reactions with other aliphatic amines have also been described  $^{133}$ .



Some derivatives of 5 have been obtained; for example the methyl ester was formed in the presence of dicyclohexylcarbodiimide (DCC) which then was submitted to an amine exchange to give the glycine analogue 6 134. Reaction of the carboxylic group to give esters 7 can be accomplished in varying yields upon reaction of chloroformates in the presence of triethylamine and 4-dimethylaminopyridine (DMAP); these conditions were

found to be more advantageous than using DCC  $135$ . However it should be noted that DCC is recognised to be efficient in the formation of amide bonds in similar cases  $136$  and this process can be viewed as a first step towards peptide bond formation. Other derivatives have also been obtained from intermediate nitrilium salts 137-139. Conversion of  $\overline{5}$  into an alanine derivative has also been reported. Thus, lithium aluminum hydride reduction of 5 followed by quenching with trimethylamine hydrochloride afforded 8 which was subsequently iodinated and cyanated to give 9. Action of Meenvein's reagent followed by basic hydrolysis and amine exchange gave the desired amide 1 0<sup>140</sup>.

**When the carboxylic acid group of an amino acid is replaced by boron, a boronic acid derivative is created. These acids may act as transition-state inhibitors of various** hydrolytic enzymes *(vi& supm)* by resembling the postulated tetrahedral enzyme-substrate intermediate  $75-105$ .

The initial synthetic efforts to obtain such amino acid-based inhibitors used N-acylated analogues of glycine. Thus dibutyl iodomethaneboronate 11 was alkylated with the sodium salt of benzamide to afford 12 (obtained after hydrolysis of the boronate esters)  $141$  and was shown to be a potent inhibitor of  $\alpha$ -chymotrypsin. However the actual structure of this molecule has been subsequently questioned <sup>142</sup>. Modification of the reaction

to prepare the parent compound was made possible by the use of a seemingly improbable nucleophile - namely **the lithio derivative of hexamethyldisilazane ! Although the condensation was successful, the glycine analogue**  obtained after hydrolytic work-up was found to be unstable  $143,144$ .



The corresponding alanine analogue however, was found to be more stable. To obtain it, dichloromethyl lithium was first boronated with diisopropyl methylboronate to give 14 and this intermediate submitted to nucleophilic displacement of lithium hexamethyldisilazide. Upon hydrolytic deprotection, the alanine analogue 15, obtained ln racemic **form, was stable enough to be used for alanine racemase** and D-alanine-D-alanine ligase inhibition studies 145.

$$
\text{CHCl}_2\text{Li} \quad \xrightarrow{\text{CH}_3\text{B}\left(\text{O}-\bigvee\right)} \text{CH}_3-\underset{\text{Cl}}{\text{CH}_3}\left(\text{O}-\bigvee\right)_{2} \quad \xrightarrow{\text{l/LiN(SiMe}_3\text{)}} \text{CH}_3-\underset{\text{NH}_2}{\text{CH}_3}-\text{CH}-\text{B(OH)}_2
$$

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An optically active boron analogue of phenylalanine has been obtained using the  $\alpha$ -haloboronic ester methodology  $146$ . The use of (+)-pinanediol for boronic acid protection allowed the preparation of an optically pure material after the homologation reaction of 16. 17 was then reacted as above with lithium hexamethyldisilaxide but the pure desilylated material could not be obtained and so direct acetylation to 18 was required. The acetamido derivative of phenylalanine 19 thus obtained after deprotection of the boronate could be obtained as either epimer 142. Extension of this methodology to other boronated amino acid derivatives bssed on alanine, valine, leucine, isoleucine or methionine has also been reported  $147-150$ .



The proline derivative 2 0 is another example of a simple amino acid analogue which can be prepared in optically pure form - in this case after a resolution step. The protected pyrrole 2 1 could be lithiated then boronated to 22. Hydrogenation of the ring gave the pyrrolidine 20 in excellent overall yield. Resolution of this racemic boronic acid could be accomplished by formation of diastereoisomeric esters with optically active pinanediol. X-ray crystallography analysis of one diastereoisomer allowed determination of the absolute configuration of the parent boronated proline analogue  $151$ .



A fundamentally different approach to boronated amino acid analogues incorporates a boron moiety with an amino acid side-group and has the great advantage of retaining the chiral core intact.

The most important compound prepared using this approach is currently L-BPA 2, which has been clinically tested for BNCT  $50$ . It appears that 2 mimicks L-tyrosine in the early stage of melanin biosynthesis and, not being further metabolized, it accumulates in melanoma cells thus providing concentrations of boron high enough for effective treatment.



The synthesis of racemic 23 was described in the late 50's. p-Toluene boronic acid was converted to 24 by radical bromination followed by alkylation with the sodium salt of diethylacetylaminomalonate. Decarboxylation and deprotection steps then gave  $2.3$  152. Resolution of this racemate could be performed by selective hydrolysis of the corresponding ethyl esters  $25$  with  $\alpha$ -chymotrypsin and optically pure 2 was thus obtained  $153$ . The extension of this scheme to the synthesis of  $10B$ -enriched BPA with improved deprotection yields has since been proposed <sup>154</sup>.

Currently though, work is under way towards the synthesis of the L-isomer thus avoiding the 50% loss in material inherent in a resolution step 155-157. In this context, asymmetric hydrogenation of a suitable dehydroalanine derivative using homogeneous catalysis has been considered.



For example,  $p$ - formylbenzeneboronic acid 26 was protected as an -ate complex and subsequently condensed with an active methylene compound to yield 27 or 28 respectively. Hydrogenation was carried out with a chiral phosphine rhodium catalyst and the desired L-enantiomer of BPA, 23, obtained in over 96 % enantiomeric excess 155.

The synthesis of the ortho-isomer of BPA required adjustment of the protecting groups to avoid hydrolytic deboronation upon alkaline hydrolysis of the intermediate amide. Thus o-bromomethylbenzeneboronic acid was conventionally converted to 29 and hydrogenolysis of the benzyl esters and of the benzyloxycarbonyl (Z) groups performed. The structure actually proposed after final decarboxylation is that of an internal anhydride  $30^{158}$ .



Attempts to increase the water solubility of BPA have investigated 31. The synthesis involves protection of the amino and boronic acid groups of BPA to yield 32 followed by a peptide-like coupling with a glycerolderived amine. Hydrogenolysis of 33 finally gives the desired BPA derivative 31 which is about  $10^3$  times more soluble in water than  $23^{159}$ .



Although efforts to achieve in vivo localization of boron by NMR are under way 52-55, positron emission tomography (PET) is another candidate for assessment of BPA concentrations in tumors. For this purpose electrophilic fluorination of BPA hydrochloride 34 with  $^{18}$  F -labelled acetyl hypofluorite in an acidic medium afforded 35 in over 99 % radiochemical yield. 35, which incorporates a β-emmitter for PET utilisation, has thus been proposed as a probe for BPA tumor localisation 160-163.



Other amino acids in which side-chain functional groups have served as a basis for boron introduction are aspartic acid, cysteine, methionine and glutamic acid.



In the case of aspartic acid, the synthesis started from pinacol chloromethylboronate 36 which was alkylated with the sodium salt of diethyl malonate to give 37. Saponification of a single ester group proceeded in excellent yield due to boron participation (through formation of an intermediate ate complex). Curtius rearrangement of 38 then afforded 39 after trapping of the intermediate isocyanate with benzyl alcohol. The deprotection of the three protecting groups was best achieved sequentially after a boron protecting group exchange as in 40. The aspartic acid analogue 41 was thus obtained and spectroscopic studies suggested that its solution structure was best depicted as either a zwitterion or a dimer 164.



The synthesis of the cysteine boron derivative was quite straightforward since it only required a single step. Indeed, radical addition of cysteine to dibutyl vinylboronate gave 42, the boronate esters being cleaved during recrystallisation from water 165.

With regard to methionine, displacement of the tosylate derived from homoserine derivative 43 allowed the introduction of a polyhedral boron cluster to give 44 which was stable to the basic conditions that were later needed to deprotect the ester group when synthesising  $45^{166}$ .



Stable boron derivatives are also available by placing boron at the centre of a cage resulting in the so called "triptych" derivatives. Thus the aminopolyol 46 reacts with tributyl borate to give stable 4 7. Condensation of this triptych compound with a N-protected glutamic acid anhydride, followed by hydrogenolysis of the protecting group afforded the ghuamic acid anslogue 48 16'.



Other approaches to amino acid analogues incorporating boron are based on the use of boron-rich cages called carboranes. Under this name lies a family of  $C_2B_{10}H_{12}$  icosahedra of general structure 49 (the more readily available ortho isomer being depicted). As the chemistry of carboranes has been extensively reviewed <sup>168-</sup>  $170$ , it is only necessary here to emphasise the advantage of attaching them to biomolecules.



 $(unmarked vertices = BH)$ 4 .

Carboranes are stable, lipophilic structures which resemble benzene in terms of reactivity and bulkiness 171-173. Since they contain ten boron atoms, a ten-fold increase in boron concentration is constitutively obtained whenever they can be linked to a biomolecule: theoretically at least, this may help deliver much higher concentrations of  $10_B$  atoms in malignant tissues, especially since  $10_B$  enriched orthocarborane is now commercially available.

It is not surprising therefore that carborane-based analogues of amino acids have been prepared and in particular analogues in which an aromatic group is replaced by the boron cage.

Several syntheses of racemic carboranyl alanine (which can also be viewed as an isosteric analogue of phenylalanine) have been described. A Strecker homologation of o-carboranylacetaldehyde 50 afforded an aminonitrile which was then hydrolysed to the racemic aminoacid 51. This compound could also be obtained independantly by reaction of the triple bond of 52 with bis(dimethylanilino)decaborane. This was followed by acid treatment to give 51. Although few details were provided, it is unfortunate that this Soviet work is rarely cited in the literature since it is the first reported example of a carboranyl aminoacid, and even of a carboranyl biomolecule  $^{174}$ .



A synthesis of optically active 53 has been described, starting from a chiral propargylic glycine derivative. Thus condensation of 54 with the bisacetonitrile adduct of decaborane afforded optically active 55, which was then deprotected to the desired 53. Substitution of the phthaloyl nitrogen protecting group for tbutyloxy-carbonyl (Boc) resulted in doubling the overall yield of the synthesis 171,175.



Another approach to (racemic) carboranyl alanine has been reported starting from N-(diphenylmethylene)aminoacetonitrile. Thus 56 was reacted first with propargyl bromide and then with decaborane to give the condensation product 57. Regeneration of the amine followed by hydrolysis of the nitrile



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The former has also been obtained by the following route: addition of decaborane to methyl p-ethynyl benzoate gave 60 which was converted to the bromide 61. Condensation of the latter with diethyl formamimidomalonate followed by decarboxylation and acidic cleavage of the protecting groups then gave 58. Removal of a boron group from the cage to obtain the water soluble, charged nido carborane derivative was achieved with potassium hydroxide 177.



A carboranylated analogue of 3,4dihydroxyphenylalaninc has also been obtained using the same synthetic principles. Thus carboranylation of 6.2 occured with concomitant reduction to give the corresponding alcohol 63 instead of the expected aldehyde. Bromination followed by condensation with diethyl formamidomalonate and then decarboxylation gave the desired analogue  $64^{178}$ .

### 3 Pentides

Since a number of boron amino acid building blocks are now available, the preparation of boronatcd peptides is not surprising. Two main principles have guided development in this area: firstly, those cases in which a boronic acid replaces the amino acid carboxyl group --- used mainly for enzyme inhibition applications - and secondly, the use of carboranylated vectors to increase the boron content of peptides/antibodies in BNCT: this latter approach is becoming increasingly popular.

One of the simplest dipeptides 65 has been obtained by condensing ethyl L-phenylalaninate with 5<sup>179</sup>. Dipeptides and tripeptides involving glycine, alanine, isoleucine, serine or methionine residues have been prepared similarly 180.



Standard coupling procedures have also been used for alpha-amino boronic acid derivatives. Thus coupling of the carboxyl terminus of an amino acid (or peptide) with the free amino group of protected boronic ester 66 proceeded uneventfully to yield 67 after deprotection. This has also been performed with aminoacids such as alanine, valine, phenylalanine, proline and arginine <sup>148,181-186</sup> or with "higher peptides" such as angiotensin<sup>187</sup>. Improvements in the building block preparations have also been reported  $^{188}$ .

Peptides where boron is linked to the AA side chain have been obtained by standard methodology; for exampled BPA-based peptides  $153,189$  or carboranylalanine<sup>190</sup> and ultimately carboranylated analogues of enkephalin, angiotensin, and bradykinin have been prepared <sup>191-194</sup>.

Using antibodies is a conceptually appealing approach to selective boron delivery into tumors and is an active line of research <sup>195-198</sup>. Since the goal is to ensure high concentrations of boron in the cell, it is not surprising that the chemistry involved has dealt with boron clusters. Among these, dodecaboranes, carboranes, nido-undecaborates, and decaboranes have been proposed. The chemistry involved in modifying these boron cages to allow linking to antibody amino acid residues will be now described.

For example, phenyl o-carborane 68 has been nitrated and reduced to 69 prior to introduction of a diazonium leaving group using standard methodology. The resulting product 70 is stable enough to be coupled with human histocompatibility antibodies and the chemistry has been repeated to furnish the corresponding tritiated carborane 199-201



From amine  $69$  the corresponding isothiocyanate  $71$  has been prepared to allow coupling to antibodies. This methodology has not only been conducted with the tritium labelled compound, but also with a  $^{10}$ B emiched carborane. Base-degradation of the carborane cage afforded the water soluble nido derivative 72 which could be labelled with  $125$ -iodine  $202,203$ .

Aliphatic derivatives of carboranes have also been used to obtain a "normal reactivity" for derivatized carboranes. It was found advantageous to insert a carbon spacer between the carborane cage and the functional group which is to be reacted with the protein.

For example, the iodide 73 was reacted with p-dimethylaminomethylbenzonitrile to give 74 which can be coupled to immunoglobulin-binding material such as  $\gamma$ globulins after conversion to the activated imidate 75  $204,205$ . On the other hand, condensation of 73 with a protected glycine gave 76 which was then converted to 77. This AA analogue can be self-condensed to obtain a dipeptide using suitably protected derivatives and



standard peptide methodology. The process can be repeated to get 78 and obtain a tetrapeptide ( $n = 3$ ) which results in a segment synthesis towards boron-rich peptides 206. These peptides may also be tagged with a fluorescent dansyl moiety before their coupling to antibodies  $207-209$ . Degradation of the carborane cage to obtain nido-undecaborate 79 and the subsequent coupling of these water-soluble compounds with antibodies has also been demonstrated.

The B-decachloroderivative of o-carborane has also been employed. After reaction of its lithio derivative with haloalkanes, functionalised derivatives such as the isothiocyanate 80 could be then obtained which could subsequently be bonded to macromolecules such as poly-L-lysine, concanavalin A, or human  $IgG^{210}$ .



Other boron-rich cages have been attached to antibodies. For example, the caesium salt of <sup>10</sup>B enriched BSH was coupled to the heterobifunctional reagent 81. The new disulfide thus obtained 82 could then be conjugated either to an anti-thymocyte globulin or to a colorectal cancer-directed monoclonal antibody 211.

Similarly, the isocyanate 83 derived from polyhedralborane 84 has been coupled with polylysine. The boronated urea polymer thus formed was then converted to immunoconjugates through the use of a heterobifunctional reagent as described above 212.

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}\n\text{B}_{10}\text{H}_{9}\text{NMe}_{3} & \text{1/CICOCOC} \\
\hline\n\text{M} & \text{2/NaN}_{3}\n\end{array}\n\text{Me}_{3}\text{NB}_{10}\text{H}_{8}\text{N} = \text{C} = \text{O Na}^+ & \text{H}_{2}\text{N}-\text{polylysine} \\
\text{M} & \text{2/NaN}_{3}\n\end{array}\n\text{Me}_{3}\text{NB}_{10}\text{H}_{8}\text{NH} - \text{NH}-\text{polylysine}
$$

Another sulfur bearing boron polyhedron has been used.  $85$  was condensed with p-bromotoluidine derivative 86 to obtain 87. Acidic deblocking of the trifluoracetamide afforded an amine which was then linked to bovine serum albumin after diazotation to 88  $213$ .





Efforts to put a more water soluble linker have also been attempted. Thus 4-nitro o-toluidine 89 was

acylated with a carbohydrate derivative 90 to give 91. Conversion of the nitro group to an isothiocyanate followed by radical bromination was carried out conventionally, which yielded 92, before its reaction with the sulfur anion of of a polyhedral borane. Finally the ester groups of the carbohydrate were deprotected to 93 before coupling with immunoglobulin G  $^{214}$ . The preservation of the isothiocyanate during the deprotection sequence is noteworthy.

#### **Carbohydrates** 4

Carbohydrates have been used as hydrophilicity-conferring vectors, which can be of importance in the case of carboranes derivatives which by themselves are very lipophilic species.

The first reported synthesis of such water-soluble carborane derivatives was the Lewis acid catalysed glycosidation of glycal94 with carboranyl alcohols to obtain the glycosidcs 95 in good yield. The neutral  $\dot{c}$ loso 96 or the charged nido 97 derivatives could be obtained depending on the conditions chosen for ester deprotection thus providing flexibility in this straightforward synthesis  $215$ .





Carboranes linked to a carbohydrate moiety via a carbon-carbon bond have also been obtained by the direct reaction of 2-phenyl-o-carboranyllithium with carbohydrates possessing an aldehyde group such as 98.



Thus 99 was obtained as a 2:1 mixture of epimers. The procedure was extended to other open-chain aldehydo A similar approach was proposed for the mannonolactone derivative 100. Reaction with metasugars 216.

carboranyl lithium afforded the condensation product in very high yield. In addition, when the anomeric mixture was left to stand the more stable beta anomer 101 (structure proven by X-ray crystallography) was formed almost exclusively. Deprotection then vielded 102. Advantageous to this approach is the fact that a pentahydroxylated compound can be obtained in excellent overall vield <sup>217</sup>.

Another approach to carboranated carbohydrates has been to consider the reaction of decaborane with the triple bond of a suitable acetylene derivative.



For example, propargylation of readily available diacetone-D-glucose 103 afforded 104 with carborane cage formation proceeding in good yield. 105 was then deprotected conventionally to furnish  $106^{218}$ .

A related analogue of 106 has also been prepared. After conversion of 103 to the corresponding ynol ether 107, addition to decaborane afforded 108. Acidic deprotection then provided 109, a D-glucose ocarboranyl ether. This scheme has been shown to accomodate protecting groups other than acetals  $219$ .

#### **Nucleic bases** 5

If boron could be attached to pyrimidines or purines in such a way that the resulting boronated nucleicbase could be incorporated into growing neoplasmas, significant concentrations of boron in cancerous tissues might be achieved. Various approaches to boronated nucleic bases have been proposed with this in mind.



Attempts to obtain 110 a compound in which boron replaces a ring carbon of uracil were hampered by the inability to cyclize  $111$ , itself readily obtained from N-vinylurea 11 2  $^{220}$ .

Borazauracil 113 is an isoelectronic and isosteric analogue of uracil. Its synthesis was claimed in a report  $221$  describing the reaction of biuret with sodium borohydride in the presence of iodine, however these results could not be subsequently reproduced by other workers <sup>222,223</sup>. These difficulties were attributed to the presence of labile amide hydrogen atoms so attention turned to preparing the corresponding N-methyl analogues. Although evidence for the formation of 114 was obtained, it proved necessary to form an ate complex with Nmethylethanolamine to isolate a pure compound 115.



The hydroxylated analogue 116 however was shown to be thermally stable and could be obtained at high temperature by the action of tetramethylurea on 117  $224$ . Such syntheses have also been effected with thiocarbonyl derivatives 225,226.



Other boron analogues of uracil have been obtained which contain a complete uracil skeleton. i.e. with a dihydroxyboryl group as a substituent group. When substitution is effected at position -5, the compound obtained can also be considered as an analogue of thymine.

This synthesis proceeds conventionally, with the metallation of the bromopyrimidine 118 followed by reaction with an alkyl borate. Removal of the protecting groups afforded 119 $227$ . In a similar way 120 could be obtained from  $121$   $228,229$ 



Another approach has been to construct the pyrimidine ring from an acyclic boronated precursor. Thus, radical-initiated addition of 122 with vinyl boronate 123 followed by reduction gave 124. This was then condensed with thiourea to afford a boron-substituted thiopyrimidine 125 230.



Among nucleic bases, thiouracil holds a special position since its action as a "false" precursor occurs in melanin biosynthesis. This behaviour is the reason why thiouracil boron analogues have received particular attention as synthetic targets.

Using the same process described above for uridine derivatives, metallation of a suitably protected thiopyrimidine 126 followed by boronation afforded the desired carbon-boron bond at position -5. The compound thus obtained was best isolated as its diethanolamine adduct 127. It is of interest to note that in this case, the boronation step needed to be carried out between -85  $^{\circ}$ C and -100  $^{\circ}$ C to achieve satisfactory results. The simultaneous deprotection of all protecting groups to 128, was carried out with aluminium tribromide and occured without cleavage of the B-C bond <sup>231</sup>.



Since the reason for preparing thiouracil boron analogues was to use them as vectors for achieving high boron concentrations in cancerous cells, linking boron-rich systems such as carboranes was a logical progression.

130. a decaborane salt of the amino derivative of thiouracil 129, in which the basic nitrogen atom acts as a ligand to the decaborane ring system, has thus been synthesised $^{232}$ .



S-Alkylation of 4-thiouracil 131 with 3'-iodopropyl-o-carborane in the presence of a base has been shown to afford 132 without degradation of the carborane cage. Introduction of sulfur at position -2 and a final conversion to the nido derivative  $133$  gives a water soluble compound  $233$ .



Another effective way to link a carborane moiety is to condense a carboxy functionalised thiouracil derivative such as 134 with an aminoalkylcarborane to give amide  $135^{234}$ .



If the carborane cage is to be obtained by cycloaddition of decaborane, then an acetylenic derivative of thiourea is needed. Since the acetylenic side chain could not be introduced selectively onto the nitrogen or sulfur of a thiouracil, the derivative 136, with pendant acetylenic groups at position -5 was obtained by total synthesis 235. This was condensed with decaborane to give the desired carborane 137. A carboranylated precursor in the pyrimidine series has also been described <sup>236</sup>.



Barbituric 138 and thiobarbituric 139 acids have been shown to undergo a Knoevenagel condensation with carborane 140 or carborane acetaldehyde 50 to yield the products 141 or 142  $^{237}$ .



With regard to purine analogues, the introduction of boron to the ring system was first accomplished with appropriately subtituted imidazoles. Thus condensation of 143 with dibutyl phenylboronate afforded 144 <sup>238</sup>.





A stable derivative has nevertheless been obtained for the deaxapurine series. Condensation of dibutyl iodomethylboronate 11 with methylcyanoacetate 147 afforded 148 which was then condensed with thiourea to give the stable purine 149. It is of interest to note that this condensation was unsuccessful when guamdine replaced thiourea 246.

Boron has also been introduced as a substituent of the ring system and this approach has been malised by the successful S-alkylation of thiopurine 150 with dibutyl iodomethyl boronate 11. This condensation took place in refluxing acetonitrile thus allowing the use of neutral conditions to give the stable purine analogue  $151$ 246



### 6 Nucleosides

Nucleosides represent an additional way to selectively incorporate compounds into cancerous cells 247. Given the development of techniques for linking boron to either a carbohydrate or a nucleic base, it is not surprising that both types of chemistry have been exploited in the synthetic approaches to boron-bearing nucleosides.

At first, efforts were directed to prepare boronic esters with hydroxyl groups at positions -2' and -3' of a ribonucleoside. Phenylboronic acid could thus be reacted with 152 to give crystalline derivatives 153 quite efficiently. However, these esters were found to be readily hydrolysed (complete in 10-15 min. at pH 6.5) and



therefore impossible to use in physiological media <sup>248</sup>. Attempts to stabilise the boronate against hydrolysis have succeeded with the preparation of 154 in which anchimeric participation of the acetamido substituent acts effectively as an electron donor to the boron centre <sup>249</sup>.

Boron has also been directly attached to th nucleic base. Thus 5-bromo-2'-deoxy-uridine 155 was converted to its O-trimethylsilyl (TMS) derivative 156 which was submitted to halogen-lithium exchange and then reacted with butyl borate to afford 157, albeit in low yield <sup>228,229</sup>.



Another approach has been used for the ribonucleotide series through the condensation of the bislithio derivative 158 with a protected boronobenzaldehyde such as 159. This type of boron protection was crucial for condensation to occur; 160 was isolated as a mixture of diastereoisomers and the reaction was applied to several nucleosides <sup>250</sup>.



The formation of cyanoborane adducts of nucleosides represents another type of boron incorporation. These derivatives are readily obtained by the reaction of nucleosides, such a 161, with triphenylphosphine cyanoborane to give  $162^{251}$ . The reaction has been applied to various deoxyribonucleosides  $252-255$ .



Carboranes have also been linked to nucleosides. For example regioselective alkylation of the stannylidene derivative 163 of uridine, followed by acylation afforded the propargyl ether 164. The addition of decaborane to the triple bond under the usual conditions, followed by deprotection of the hydroxyl groups then gave 165 218,256,257

An amplification of this approach, which could allow the introduction of any desired nucleic base has also been described. For this purpose a common carboranylated ribose precursor was employed.



It was obtained by propargylation of the allofuranose derivative 166 followed by condensation with decaborane in the manner just described above. Selective hydrolysis of the 5,6-ethylidene acetal of 167 followed by blocking of the terminal hydroxyl group then gave 168. After removal of the acetal, periodate cleavage, and acetylation, 169 could be isolated. This synthon was submitted to condensation with a N-trimethylsilyl derivative of uracil under standard conditions to afforded the desired nucleoside 170. The versatility of this approach is to be underlined since in principle this condensation can be undertaken with other nucleic bases 258.



Other efforts to attach a carborane to nucleosides are based on derivatizing the uridine moiety. After conversion of 6-iodouridine 171 to the protected acetylenic derivative 172, the cycloaddition of decaborane could be satisfactorily achieved, best results being obtained using propionitrile as the Lewis acid ligand donor.



Unblocking then afforded  $173$  <sup>259-261</sup>. Enhancing the water solubility by linking the carborane to a glycerolderived dendrimer has also been achieved <sup>262</sup>.



### 7 Nucleotides

When considering the possible action of boronated nucleotides in antisense and blocking gene expression, it is desirable to possess analogues with boron present on the phosphate internucleotide bond, thus lowering the chances of altering base pairing.

For example, 3'-O-acetyl thymidine 174 was condensed with diethylphosphitecyanoborane in the presence of DCC to yield  $175~^{263}$ .

On phosphitylation of 174 , followed by reaction with a borane-amine complex, 176 was obtained. Removal of protecting groups then gave 177 which displayed an increased hydrolytic stability due to the presence of the P-B bond <sup>264</sup>. The boranophosphates thus obtained are isoelectronic and isostructural with methylphosphonates which are stable to the action of nucleases.

The preparation of boranophosphate analogues of di and tri nucleotides are a first step towatds boronated oligonucleotides. To achieve these compounds the dinucleotide phosphite intermediate 178, obtained using standard oligonucleotide chemistry, was boronated with excess borane dimethylsufide. The reaction occured with concomitant deprotection of the 5'-OH group and yielded 17% repetition of this assembly process with another mononucleotide gives a trinucleotide 265,266.



 $DMT = 4.4'$ -dimethoxytrityl

A carboranyl dinucleotide is also known and its synthesis was made possible by the preparation of a carboranyl phosphonate. Trimethylphosphite. submitted to an Arbuzov-like condensation with propargyl bromide affords  $180$ . When reacted with decaborane, an  $o$ - carborane was formed in which selective liberation

12553

of one phosphorus protecting group to give 181 has occured. The subsequent condensation of this compound with a 5'-OH blocked thymidine 182 led to formation of the mononucleotide 183. Hence a dinucleotide 184 could subsequently be obtained using classical oligonucleotide assembly methodology 267.



### **8 Porphyrins**

Porphyrins are known to concentrate in tumor tissues and if enriched in boron they could provide a suitable way to achieve high boron concentration in cancerous cells (it is worth noting here that porphyrins themselves, are actively involved in another type of bimodal treatment - namely photodynamic therapy -- in which, acting as photosensitizers, they produce singlet oxygen upon their exposure to (red) light). Enrichening porphyrins with boron, mostly through attachments to carboranes, has thus received attention from several groups.

In this respect, one straightforward method is to prepare a boronated porphyrin by condensing several boronated sub-units (as opposed to derivatisation of non-boronated porphyrins).

Thus, the boron trifluoride etherate catalysed condensation of pyrrole with a protected boronic benzaldehyde 185 afforded 186. The octaethyl derivative 187 was similarly obtained by the condensation of tetraethyldipyrrolomethane with the same aldehyde. Both 186 and 187 have been designed so as to subsequently confer water solubility via interaction of the boronic acid moiety with carbohydrate derivatives 268.



Considering carborane derivatives, a Rothemund condensation of aldehyde 188 with pyrrole afforded porphyrin 189. The presence of a methyl group on the carborane was believed to lower the solubility in the reaction media thus facilitating product isolation; indeed, in the absence of a methyl group, the isolated yield of the corresponding porphyrin was 10 times lower  $269,270$ .



When pyrrole was condensed with aldehyde 190 under mild conditions 191 was obtained in excellent yield. This was followed by carborane degradation to the nido compound  $192^{271}$ . With regard to derivatisation of non-boronated porphyrins (the second approach to boron analogues) quaternization of the pyridine rings of 193 with 3'-iodopropyl-carborane afforded 194. This was subsequently



sulfonated to 195 in order to improve its solubility in water and hence its cellular uptake <sup>272</sup>. 196 was obtained through formation of an amide bond between a polyamino porphyrin 197 and 198. Degradation of this carborane afforded the charged nido species 199 273,274.



Similarly, esterification of 200 with carboranecarboxylic acid afforded 201 $275$ .

The attachment of carboranes to porphyrins has also been achieved using hydrocarbon chains. Reacting the lithio derivative of 2-methyl carborane with the diiodide 202 following zinc removal gave 203. This was then degraded to amphiphilic  $204^{276}$ .

**Service** 



The mercuric derivative 205 has been used to attach vinyl carboranes. This was achieved with a very large excess of the carborane under Pd catalysis to give 206 after the zinc had been removed. Degradation to the nido derivative  $207$  in order to confer water solubility was subsequently performed  $271,277$ .



A family of boronated porphyrins have been prepared which are designed to recognise various

monosaccharides and signal their presence by colour changes. i.e. interactive recognition. 208 was prepared merely by creation of an amide bond between 209 and  $m$ -aminophenylboronic acid  $^{278}$ .



# 9 Miscellaneous

Boronated analogues of hormones, neurotransmitters and of other pharmacologically active agents are collected in this paragraph.

Steroids have also been considered worthwhile vectors for incorporating boron into cancerous cells, and conceptually, such carboranated derivatives 210 can be obtained by the reaction of acetylenic steroids with decaborane.



This has been effected in the estrone series for 211 and 212  $279.280$ . X-ray crystallography of the cholesterol derivative 213 has been reported <sup>281,282</sup>.

 $\mathbf{r} \in \mathcal{E}$ 



Another type of boron containing steroid has been described; 214 was obtained by oxirane cleavage of 215 using a thiophenylborazine-derived anion 216, however it was found to decompose with time <sup>283</sup>.



Related to steroids are the bioactive antioestrogens; carborane-labelling of 217 has been made possible by epoxide cleavage with decachlorocarboranyllithium to obtain 2 18. It is of interest to note that the methyl ether could subsequently be selectively deprotected with boron tribromide  $284$ .



Boron analogues of neurotransmitters have also been considered. Thus a boronic analogue of choline has been obtained by condensing dibutyl methylboronate with the Grignard reagent derived from 219. Quaternization of the nitrogen then afforded  $220$  in which the ionisable borinic acid group was shown to interact with acetylcholinesterase  $^{285}$ .

$$
(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{N} - (\text{CH}_2)_3 - \text{Cl} \underbrace{\overset{1/\text{Mg}}{2l \text{ CH}_3\text{B}(\text{OBu})_2}}_{219} \quad (\text{CH}_3)_3\text{N} - (\text{CH}_2)_3 \text{BCH}_3
$$

Whilst the borane adduct of 2-dimethylaminoetbanol has been prepared, the boro analogue of choline has not been considered <sup>286,287</sup>. Using all possible structures of monoboronated analogs of acetylcholine, computational methods proposed that  $221$  should be the most stable  $288$ . Although  $221$  has not yet been prepared, a stable isomer has been characterised. Thus the isostructural and isoelectronic 222 was obtained from boronation of 223<sup>289</sup>. The same methodology has also been applied to acetylthiocholine <sup>290</sup>.

$$
{}_{(CH_3)_3}NBH_2CH_2O- CCH_3
$$
\n
$$
{}_{221}\n \begin{array}{c}\n \text{(CH_3)}_2NCH_2CH_2OCOCH_3 \longrightarrow\\ \n 223 \longrightarrow E_{t_4}N BH_4\n \end{array} H_2B-N(CH_3)_2CH_2CH_2O- CCH_3\n \begin{array}{c}\n \text{H}_2B-N(CH_3)_2CH_2CH_2O- CCH_3\n \end{array}
$$

An acetylcholine derivative 224 in which two boron atoms have been incorporated has been prepared by means of an ester linkage between 225 and 226<sup>291</sup>.

$$
H_3BN(CH_3)_2CH_2CH_2OH + HOC^2BH_2N(CH_3)_2 \xrightarrow{DCC} H_3BN(CH_3)_2CH_2CH_2O-C^2BH_2N(CH_3)_2
$$
  
225 224 224

A phosphocholine glycerolipid carborane analogue has also been prepared. Reacting decaborane with the acetylenic bond of 227 afforded 228, which was conventionally transformed into 229  $292$ . The anticholinesterase activity of carboranylated thiophosphates has also been presented <sup>293,294</sup>.



The possibility of attaching a carborane to a fatty acid has been examined. Condensing a carborane carboxylic acid (or an equivalent such as 230) with a fatty-acid derived alcohol allowed the obtention of such analogues. By taking into account the base-sensitivity and thermal stability of the reactants, a comparison of different esterification methods enabled the development of an esterification process applicable to polyunsaturated fatty alcohols such as arachidonyl alcohol  $231$  to finally give  $232^{295}$ .

C1—C—  
\n
$$
113C
$$
— $CH_2$ )<sub>4</sub>— $CH=CH$ — $CH_2$ )<sub>4</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>OH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>OH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>OH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>OH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>OH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>OH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>OH<sub>2</sub>OH<sub>2</sub>OH<sub>2</sub>OH<sub>2</sub>OH<sub>2</sub>OH<sub>2</sub>OH<sub>2</sub>

Although it may become difficult to delineate the boundary between biomolecules and others, it seems appropriate to mention here that boron analogues of tetracyclines  $296,297$  and chlorpromazin  $298-301$  as well as other tumor-targeted molecules such as alkylating agents or nitro-imidazoles have also been prepared  $302-307$ . Other approaches for selective delivery of boron to cancerous cells involve the use of boronated liposomes 30& **310.** 

### **10 Conclusion**

As outlined in this report, the progress of synthetic chemistry has allowed a large number of boronated biomolecular analogues to be prepared. Their number is rapidly increasing though and the rate at which the field is expanding makes it quite likely that an update of the present review will be needed in coming years.

Indeed a 4th generation of boronated analogues, that is to say compounds which present a bioactivity of their own, is rapidly developing  $312-326$ ; this is already the case for quite a few of the analogues presented above . Although predicting those boronated molecules which will be of future interest remains a difficult task, it can be confidently stated that the future research can only benefit from the crosslinking of multidisciplinary fiekls. Indeed, other areas currently enjoying attention, which are outside the scope of this review, but which could play a major role in developing boronated biomolecules include supramolecular boron chemistry 327-333, the use of boron polymers and/or their automatic synthesis <sup>334-336</sup> and boron-based imaging agents <sup>337-341</sup>.

Whatever the future, it is clear that synthetic chemistry  $\frac{7}{1}$  can only play a major role and "non-boronated" chemists" are highly welcome to participate. Or, to put it in another way :

"Boron is not boring"!

**Acknowledgements** : L. Pannier is gratefully thanked for providing copies of > 10 articles not available in any French public libraries. M.J. Dickens and H. Mollier are warmly thanked for cmrecting the English version of the manuscript and setting the drawings respectively. Sophie-Liesse and J.-S. Bach are thanked for continuous support.

*I apologize in advance for any omission of relevant information - contained in scientific journals - in a report which I have tried to make as comprehensive as possible.* 

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*(Received 25 July 1994)*