

All non-hydrogen atoms were located and refined anisotropically. Hydrogen atoms were located from different Fourier maps and refined with a riding mode. Crystallographic data (excluding structure factors) for the structures reported in this paper have been deposited with the Cambridge Crystallographic Data Center as supplementary publication no. CCDC-101917 and CCDC-101918. Copies of the data can be obtained free of charge on application to CCDC, 12 Union Road, Cambridge CB21 1EZ, UK (fax: (+44) 1223-336-033; e-mail: deposit@ccdc.cam.ac.uk).

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Directed Metalation Linked to Transition Metal Catalyzed Cascade Reactions: Two Total Syntheses of Plicadin, the Alleged Coumestan from *Psoralea plicata*^{*,*}

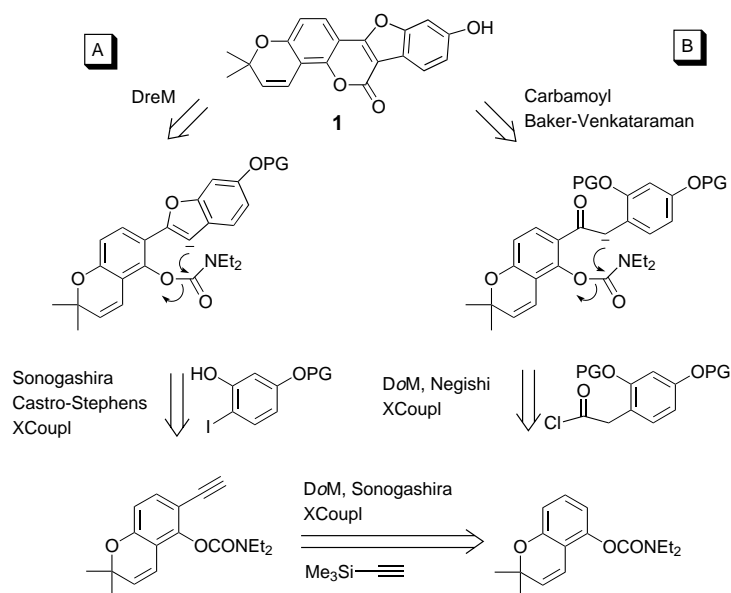
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Nicholas J. Taylor, and Victor Snieckus*

Plicadin, isolated in 1991 from the herb *Psoralea plicata*^[1] and assigned structure **1** (see Scheme 1),^[2] has a compact, oxygen-rich heterocyclic structure that poses a synthetic challenge from the perspective of combined directed *ortho* metalation/directed remote metalation (DoM/DreM) and transition metal catalyzed coupling strategies, a current theme in our laboratories.^[3] Herein we report two syntheses of plicadin (**1**) which incorporate effective use of the following sequences: a) DoM/DreM, Sonogashira, and Castro–Stevens reactions (Scheme 1, retrosynthesis A), and b) DoM, Negishi, and carbamoyl Baker–Venkataraman reactions^[4] (retrosynthesis B). We also demonstrate inconsistencies between physical and spectral data of the synthetic material and those reported for the natural product isolated from *Psoralea*

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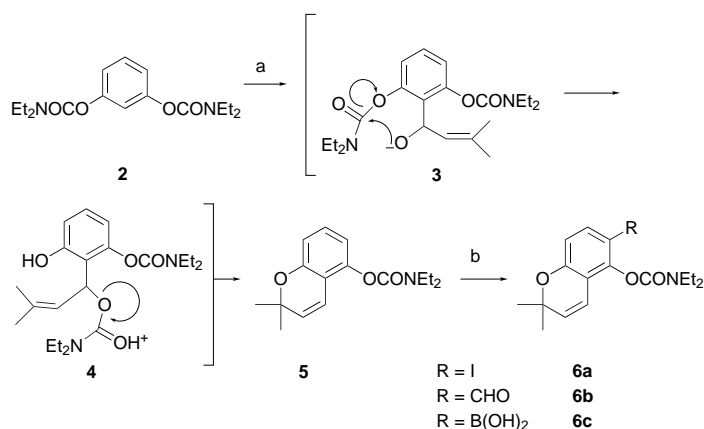
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Scheme 1. Retrosynthetic analysis and strategies for the total synthesis of plicadin (1). XCoupl = cross-coupling, PG = protecting group.

plicata and named plicadin. In addition to presenting short and didactic routes which diverge broadly from classical construction modes for coumestans,^[2] this work suggests new synthetic methodologies of potentially general value: a) a regioselective synthesis of chromenes not based on a Friedel–Crafts reaction (2→5); b) original carbamate metalation chemistry (5→6), and c) metalation, Sonogashira, and Castro–Stephens cascade reactions (Scheme 2).

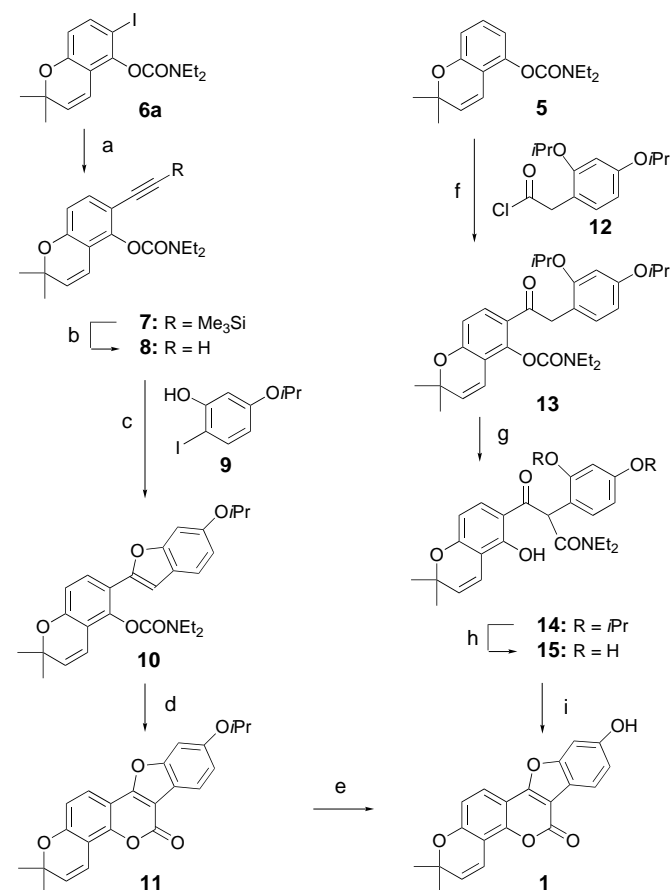


Scheme 2. Synthesis and metalation of chromene 5. a) *t*BuLi (1.1 equiv), THF (*c* = 0.5 M), −78 °C/30 min; then Me₂C=CHCHO (1.3 equiv), −78 °C/15 min → 25 °C/1 h; then HOAc (3 equiv), 0 → 25 °C/1 h, 58%; b) *s*BuLi (1.2 equiv), THF (*c* = 0.25–0.5 M), −78 °C/1 h, 82%; 6b: then DMF (4 equiv), −25 °C/1 h, 85%; 6c: then B(OMe)₃ (3 equiv), −25 °C/1 h, quantitative.

The chromene carbamate 5, which is common to both routes, was readily constructed in good yield from resorcinol dicarbamate 2 by a quench experiment with *t*BuLi and senecialdehyde followed by acetic acid catalyzed cyclization (Scheme 2). This one-pot sequence takes advantage of regioselective cooperative DoM^[3a] and intramolecular O-to-

O carbamoyl transfer (3) to facilitate formal S_N2' carbamate expulsion (4) and provide a substituted chromene (5), which cannot be obtained regioselectively by classical tactics based on electrophilic aromatic substitution.^[5]

A second DoM on 5 with *s*BuLi followed by an electrophilic quench furnished substituted derivatives 6a–c regioselectively and in high yields. Sonogashira coupling of 6a under conditions of [PdCl₂(PPh₃)₂]/CuI catalysis^[6] led to 7, which upon desilylation gave the acetylenic chromene 8 (Scheme 3).



Scheme 3. Syntheses of 1. a) Me₃SiC≡CH (2 equiv), [PdCl₂(PPh₃)₂] (0.05 equiv), CuI (0.05 equiv), NEt₃/MeCN (4/1), 50 °C, 2 h, 92%; b) K₂CO₃ (0.1 equiv), MeOH, 25 °C, 3 h, 86%; c) 9 (1.1 equiv), [Pd(OAc)₂(PPh₃)₂] (0.05 equiv), CuI (0.05 equiv), DMF/NEt₃ (1/1), 80 °C, 45 h, 44%; d) LDA (3.5 equiv), THF, 0 °C, 15 min, then HOAc, reflux, 10 min, 84%; e) BCl₃ (7.7 equiv), CH₂Cl₂ (*c* = 0.005 M), 25 °C, 10 h, 50%; f) *s*BuLi (1.2 equiv), THF, −78 °C, 1 h, then ZnCl₂ (1.2 equiv), −78 °C, 15 min, then 12 (1.4 equiv), [PdCl₂(PPh₃)₂] (0.05 equiv), DIBALH (0.1 equiv), toluene, 0 °C, 2 h, 25 °C, 1 h, 74% (85% based on recovered 5); g) NaH (2.5 equiv), toluene, reflux, 2 h, 88%; h) BCl₃ (5 equiv), CH₂Cl₂ (*c* = 0.05 M), −78 → −10 °C, 1 h, then MeOH quench at −78 °C, 25 °C, Rochell's salt workup, 99%; i) PTSA (2 equiv), MeOH, reflux, 6 h, 49%. LDA = lithium diisopropylamide, DIBALH = diisobutylaluminum hydride; PTSA = *p*-toluenesulfonic acid.

Reaction with the *o*-iodophenol 9^[7] under [Pd(OAc)₂(PPh₃)₂]/CuI catalysis resulted in a sequential Sonogashira/Castro–Stephens process^[8] to give the benzofuran 10 in acceptable overall yield. Delightfully, the sequence of DreM, carbamoyl migration, and acid-catalyzed cyclization^[3] proceeded in 84% yield to give the coumestan 11. Deprotection of 11 with BCl₃^[9]

concluded the synthesis of plicadin (**1**) according to retrosynthesis A in seven steps from **2** in 6.8% overall yield.

Retrosynthesis B (Scheme 1) was commenced by Negishi acylative cross-coupling of chromene carbamate **5** with protected acid chloride **12**, prepared by Willgerodt–Kindler reaction from the corresponding acetophenone,^[10] to give the ketone **13**. Carbamoyl Baker–Venkataraman reaction under NaH conditions afforded the ketoamide **14**,^[4] which was effectively deprotected with BCl₃ to yield triphenol **15**. Acid-catalyzed cyclization of **15** concluded the second synthesis of plicadin (**1**) in five steps from **2** in 20.5% overall yield.

Examination of the reported data for plicadin^[1] showed several discrepancies with those obtained for the synthetic material. A melting point of 117 °C (EtOH/benzene) was reported for plicadin, whereas sublimation at 290 °C (EtOH/benzene) was observed for the synthetic material. With the exception of the splitting patterns for three signals in the ¹H NMR spectrum (see Table 1), which may be a result of

In summary, the purported plicadin (**1**) has been obtained by two efficient and comparable syntheses. The syntheses are showcases for directed *ortho* and remote metalation and transition metal catalyzed reactions (Negishi, Sonogashira, and Castro–Stephens) and demonstrate the tactical advantages of tandem sequencing.

Experimental Section

5: To a cooled (–78 °C) solution of **2** (14.92 g, 48.2 mmol) in THF (100 mL, *c* = 0.5 M) was added *t*BuLi (34 mL, 57.5 mmol, *c* = 1.71 M in pentane) over 1 h; the internal temperature was kept below –75 °C. The reaction mixture was stirred for 15 min, 3-methyl-2-butenal (6.3 mL, 65 mmol) was added over 30 min (internal temperature below –74 °C), and the mixture was stirred for 1 h at –78 °C. The reaction mixture was allowed to warm to room temperature, stirred for 1 h, cooled to 0 °C, sequentially treated with acetic acid (7.2 mL, 125 mmol) and brine solution (100 mL), and stirred for 1 h at room temperature. The organic phase was separated, the aqueous phase was extracted with Et₂O (3 × 50 mL), and the combined organic extracts were evaporated under vacuum. Excess aldehyde was removed under high vacuum, the residue was dissolved in Et₂O (150 mL), and the solution was dried (Na₂SO₄), passed through a plug of silica gel, and distilled to provide **5** as a thick yellow oil (7.16 g, 54%); b.p. (bath temp) 120–140 °C (0.1–0.25 Torr). IR (neat): $\tilde{\nu}$ = 2977, 1722, 1638, 1611, 1460, 1418, 1277, 1225, 1156, 1116, 1060, 758 cm^{–1}; ¹H NMR (250 MHz, CDCl₃): δ = 7.06 (t, *J* = 8.1 Hz, 1H), 6.64 (d, *J* = 8.1 Hz, 1H), 6.63 (d, *J* = 8.1 Hz, 1H), 6.38 (d, *J* = 10.0 Hz, 1H), 5.62 (d, *J* = 10.0 Hz, 1H), 3.47–3.37 (m, 4H), 1.43 (s, 6H), 1.29–1.17 (m, 6H); ¹³C NMR (50.3 MHz, CDCl₃): δ = 153.8, 153.6, 147.1, 130.8, 128.5, 116.4, 114.7, 114.4, 113.3, 75.9, 42.2, 41.8, 27.8, 14.3, 13.3; MS (EI): *m/z* (%): 275 (26) [*M*⁺], 261 (18), 260 (46), 161 (22), 160 (25), 101 (15), 100 (100), 72 (40); HR-MS (EI): calcd for C₁₆H₂₁NO₃: 275.1521, found: 275.1523. (Carrying out the same reaction on a 20-mmol scale and at a concentration of 0.2 M gave **5** in 58% yield.)

6a: To a cooled (–78 °C) solution of **5** (3.79 g, 13.73 mmol) in THF (30 mL, *c* = 0.46 M) was added *s*BuLi (12.9 mL, 16.48 mmol, 1.28 M in cyclohexane) over 1 h; the internal temperature was kept below –75 °C. After stirring the mixture for 1 h at –78 °C, a solution of I₂ (4.53 g, 17.85 mmol) in THF (20 mL) was added and the reaction mixture was warmed to room temperature (6 h) and treated with saturated NH₄Cl solution (5 mL). THF was removed under vacuum, Et₂O (50 mL) and H₂O (20 mL) were added, and the organic layer was separated, dried (Na₂SO₄), and concentrated under vacuum. The residue was purified by flash column chromatography (EtOAc/hexanes 3/17) to afford **6a** as a yellow oil (4.50 g, 82%). IR (neat): $\tilde{\nu}$ = 2947, 1726, 1415, 1270, 1051 cm^{–1}; ¹H NMR (200 MHz, CDCl₃): δ = 1.17–1.35 (m, 6H), 1.40 (s, 6H), 3.36–3.49 (m, 4H), 5.62 (d, *J* = 10.0 Hz, 1H), 6.30 (d, *J* = 10.0 Hz, 1H), 6.47 (d, *J* = 8.6 Hz, 1H), 7.44 (d, *J* = 8.6 Hz, 1H); ¹³C NMR (62.9 MHz, CDCl₃): δ = 153.7, 152.1, 147.0, 137.2, 131.4, 116.6, 116.5, 115.7, 80.1, 76.1, 42.1, 41.9, 27.6, 14.3, 13.1; MS (EI): *m/z* (%): 401 (75) [*M*⁺], 386 (70), 274 (75), 100 (100), 72 (97); HR-MS (EI): calcd for C₁₆H₂₀INO₃: 401.0489, found: 401.0494.

1: A solution of triphenol **15** (350 mg, 0.82 mmol) and *p*-toluenesulfonic acid monohydrate (313 mg, 1.65 mmol) in MeOH (30 mL) was heated under reflux for 6 h and concentrated under vacuum to about 10 mL. The resulting precipitate was collected by filtration, washed with cold MeOH (2 × 5 mL), and dried under vacuum to provide **1** as a yellow-green solid (136 mg, 0.41 mmol, 49%). Recrystallization gave yellow crystals; m.p. 289–290 °C (sublim, EtOH); m.p. 290 °C (sublim, EtOH/benzene). IR (KBr): $\tilde{\nu}$ = 3379 (br), 1717, 1645, 1628, 1601 cm^{–1}; ¹³C NMR (62.9 MHz, [D₆]DMSO): δ = 159.0, 157.2, 156.9, 156.0, 155.1, 148.4, 131.8, 121.2, 120.6, 114.3, 114.2, 114.0, 113.5, 109.1, 105.5, 102.5, 98.6, 77.4, 27.6; MS (EI): *m/z* (%): 334 (29) [*M*⁺], 320 (22), 319 (100), 318 (7), 160 (8); HR-MS (EI): calcd for C₂₀H₁₄O₅: 334.0841, found: 334.0854.

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Table 1. ¹H NMR data observed for synthetic **1** and reported for plicadin.^[a]

δ (1) ^[b]	δ (plicadin) ^[c]
10.04 (s, 1H)	— ^[d]
7.71 (d, <i>J</i> = 8.5 Hz, 1H)	7.76 (d, <i>J</i> = 8.5 Hz, 1H)
7.68 (d, <i>J</i> = 8.4 Hz, 1H)	7.70 (d, <i>J</i> = 8.4 Hz, 1H)
7.14 (d, <i>J</i> = 2.0 Hz, 1H)	7.12 (d, <i>J</i> = 1.8 Hz, 1H)
6.93 (dd, <i>J</i> = 8.4, 2.0 Hz, 1H)*	7.00 (d, <i>J</i> = 10 Hz, 1H)***
6.87 (d, <i>J</i> = 8.5 Hz, 1H)**	6.88 (dd, <i>J</i> = 8.5, 1.8 Hz, 1H)*
6.78 (d, <i>J</i> = 10 Hz, 1H)***	6.80 (d, <i>J</i> = 8.5 Hz, 1H)**
5.94 (d, <i>J</i> = 10 Hz, 1H)	5.81 (d, <i>J</i> = 10 Hz, 1H)
1.44 (s, 6H)	1.49 (s, 6H)

[a] The asterisks indicate the shifts for which there are discrepancies between the data reported for plicadin and those obtained for the synthetic material. [b] Measured at 500 MHz in [D₆]DMSO. [c] Measured at 400 MHz in [D₆]DMSO. [d] Not reported.

inadvertent inversion in the assignment, all signals and coupling constants are in agreement within experimental error with those reported (Table 1).^[1] The structure of the synthetic material was fully confirmed by an X-ray crystallographic analysis (Figure 1).^[11]

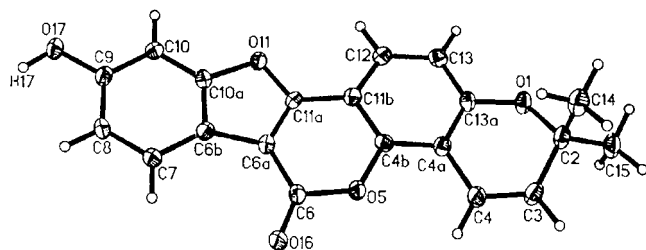


Figure 1. Crystal structure of **1**.

The discrepancy in the melting points cannot be explained and requires clarification by Amad, Malik, and co-workers. Additional comparison by ¹³C NMR spectroscopy was not feasible owing to the absence of this data in the original report.^[1, 12] Therefore, the structure of the compound isolated from *Psoralea plicata* and named plicadin remains uncertain.

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- [9] Upon treatment with BCl₃, Et₃SnNa, or LiCl, the corresponding methyl ether of **11** did not afford plicadin but gave product mixtures, indicating chromene and lactone ring opening.
- [10] Prepared according to F. E. King, K. G. Neill, *J. Chem. Soc.* **1952**, 4752–4756; also see J. O. Amupitan, *Synthesis* **1983**, 730, and references therein.
- [11] Crystallographic data (excluding structure factors) for the structure reported in this paper have been deposited with the Cambridge Crystallographic Data Center as supplementary publication no. CCDC-101777. Copies of the data can be obtained free of charge on application to CCDC, 12 Union Road, Cambridge CB2 1EZ, UK (fax: (+44) 1223-336-033; e-mail: deposit@ccdc.cam.ac.uk).
- [12] Despite numerous attempts, we were unable to obtain an authentic sample, a copy of the original ¹H NMR spectrum, and ¹³C NMR data from the authors.

Biodegradable Polymeric Materials—Not the Origin but the Chemical Structure Determines Biodegradability

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Dedicated to Professor Hans-Jürgen Quadbeck-Seeger on the occasion of his 60th birthday

Biodegradable polymeric materials (BPMs) are of ever increasing interest because of the many problems associated with solid wastes. As early as the end of the 1970s first attempts had been made to develop polymeric materials that combine good usage properties (such as thermoplastic processing ability for films, fibers and moulding) of conventional plastics and biodegradability by microorganisms.^[1] In the meantime, such “bio-plastics” have become commercially available or are in the pre-marketing phase.^[2] It is in principal possible to fall back on different sources of raw materials to produce such polymers. Thus, it is possible to distinguish between BPMs based on renewable or on petrochemical sources. Examples of such renewable sources are starch derivatives and starch blends, polyhydroxybutyrates, polylactic acid, cellophane, cellulose derivatives, caseine, and chitin polymers. BPMs produced from petrochemical resources are, for example, aliphatic polyesters such as polycaprolactone and polybutylene succinate, aromatic–aliphatic copolyesters, and polyester amides.

Whereas the biodegradability of BPMs based on renewable resources is plausible, there were doubts as to whether polymers based on petrochemical sources could also be mineralized by a natural process caused by microorganisms such as bacteria or fungi.

Aliphatic polyesters were extensively investigated as to their biodegradability.^[3–5] The primary cleavage of the usually insoluble polymer chain takes place outside of the microorganisms and is catalyzed by specific enzymes that are produced in the cell and excreted by microorganisms such as bacteria or fungi. The microorganisms are then able to take up the fragments in their cells and utilize them as food.

Examinations of the biodegradability of aliphatic–aromatic copolyesters have only been known for a few years.^[6–8] The chemical structure of such copolyesters examined in the literature is shown in Scheme 1. Such copolyesters are a very interesting class of substances in reference to the assessment of their biodegradation behavior because of their high aromatic component content. The introduction of the aromatic component is useful for improving physical and

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