Thioimidate N-Oxides: From Nature to Synthetic Pathways

Julie Schleiss,^a Deimante Cerniauskaite,^a David Gueyrard,^a Renato Iori,^b Patrick Rollin,^a Arnaud Tatibouët*^a

^a Institut de Chimie Organique et Analytique, UMR 6005, Associé au CNRS, Université d'Orléans, B.P. 6759, 45067 Orléans, France Fax +33(2)38417281; E-mail: arnaud.tatibouet@univ-orleans.fr

^b Consiglio per la Ricerca e la Sperimentazione in Agricoltura (C.R.A.-C.I.N.), Via di Corticella 133, 40129 Bologna, Italy *Received 23 October 2009*

Abstract: Inspired by the unexpected reactivity of desulfated naturally occurring glucoraphenin, methods to synthesize thioimidate *N*-oxides (TIO) have been devised on simple or carbohydrate templates. Either through halocyclization or under Mitsunobu conditions, the starting thiohydroximates cyclized to generate efficiently the corresponding TIO.

Key words: carbohydrates, cyclization, heterocycles, azasugars, thio function

Along our journey for studying sulfur-containing secondary metabolites, glucosinolates have been a cornerstone in the disclosure and development of original chemical moieties. Glucosinolates 1 (GL) are remarkable for their homogeneous structure: a hydrophilic β -D-glucopyrano framework bearing an O-sulfated anomeric (Z)-thiohydroximate moiety connected to a fairly hydrophobic aglycon side chain (Scheme 1).¹ Those molecules are heavily involved in human and animal nutrition, having shown impact on health status either as chemopreventive agents, antioxidant activities^{2a} or by inducing antinutritional effects on livestock.^{2b} This latter aspect has led to establishing standard procedures (EU official method ISO-9167-1) for determining the amount of GL in Brassicaceae, notably in rapeseed.³ This method is based on preliminary enzymatic desulfation of GL, followed by HPLC analysis of the resulting more stable desulfo-GL. We have recently reported the unique behavior of glucoraphenin (4-methylsulfinylbut-3-enyl GL) 2, whose desulfo-counterpart 3 is readily converted into an unprecedented cyclic thioimidate *N*-oxide **4** (Scheme 1).⁴

This can be explained by intramolecular concerted Michael addition of the thiohydroximate moiety of **3** onto the vinyl sulfoxide acceptor. The originality of this rare thioimidate *N*-oxide function prompted us to design preparative synthetic methods, as a prerequisite to evaluate the chemical potential and reactivity scope of thioimidate *N*-oxides.^{4b} The formation of a cyclic thioimidate *N*-oxide could be controlled by avoiding direct attack on an electrophilic carbon. We chose to introduce a thiohydroximate function at one end of the chain and an activable moiety at the other end. Two possibilities for the latter were first explored: using either an alkenyl group to perform halocy-

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Scheme 1 Structure of glucosinolates and unexpected desulfation of glucoraphenin 2 resulting in a cyclized TIO

clization or a hydroxyl group prior to nucleophilic substitution (Scheme 2).



Scheme 2 Two routes to prepare a thioimidate N-oxide

At first, we used natural alkenyl glucosinolates (Scheme 1), sinigrin (A = ethenyl), gluconapin (A = prop-2-enyl), and epiprogoitrin (A = 1-hydroxyprop-2-enyl) which fulfilled our requirements and gave us rapidly the opportunity to test the terminal alkene approach. To reach the desired thiohydroximate templates, standard enzymatic desulfation was performed,³ providing the corresponding desulfoglucosinolates **5a–c** in quantitative yield (Scheme 3). Prior to the halocyclization step, the OH groups of the sugar ring were masked in a two-step sequence: standard per-O-acetylation of **5a–c** followed by selective deprotection of the *N*-hydroxyimino group using hydrazinium acetate. All reactions proceeded smoothly,



Scheme 3 TIO derived from desulfoglucosinolates through halocyclization

giving (70–94% yield) thiohydroximates **6a–c**, which were further submitted to the halocyclization conditions previously established by Grigg⁵ and Jäger.⁶ On reaction with NBS in dichloromethane, protected desulfosinigrin **6a** only led to degradation products. In contrast, desulfo-GL **6b** and **6c** readily underwent *5-exo-trig* bromocyclization to give glucosyl thioimidate-*N*-oxides **7b** and **7c** in 57% and 43% yield, respectively. Those compounds appeared rather unstable and degradation occurred at room temperature.

Nevertheless, the above results strengthened our resolve to develop more accessible models based on carbohydrate frameworks.

With a view to improving the stability of our structures, we turned to a carbohydrate template (Scheme4). Starting with D-ribose, the acyclic aldoxime **8** could be obtained in four steps with a 34% overall yield.^{6b,7} The thiohydroximate function was more smoothly introduced, compound **9** being isolated in 71% yield.⁸ NBS-induced halocyclization afforded the ethyl thioimidate *N*-oxide **10** in 77% yield. After standing for a few days at room temperature, compound **10** also revealed some instability, whereas no major degradation was observed when kept at -18 °C: thus a carbohydrate template approach is favorable in the synthesis of TIO.

Our second path to generate TIO involved nucleophilic substitution of an activated terminal alcohol. Mono-O-silylation of butane-1,4-diol (11) followed by Swern oxidation then aldoxime formation afforded in 42% yield precursor 12,⁹ which could be converted into the ethyl



Scheme 4 Halocyclization on more simple thiohydroximate templates

thiohydroximate **13a** albeit in relatively poor yield (Scheme 5).¹⁰

We thus moved to a new sequence in order to shorten the process. A range of four lactones, γ -butyrolactone (14a), γ -valerolactone (14b), δ -valerolactone (14c), and ε -caprolactone (14d), was selected for conversion into hydroxamic acids, which were readily protected in the form of bis-O-silylated derivatives 15 (Scheme 6). The overall yields (44–57%, Table 1) are in a reasonable range, taking into



Scheme 5 The nucleophilic displacement approach (pathway 1)

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account the sensitivity of *O*-TBDMS-protected hydroxamic acids to silica gel chromatography. The following critical synthetic step to deliver ethyl thiohydroximates **13** was performed using a protocol developed by Carreira et al.¹¹ to generate nitrile oxides. Condensation was effected in a two-step sequence: formation of the triflated hydroximates, then condensation with ethanethiol under basic conditions. Obtained in ca. 80% yield, the intermediate Osilylated thiohydroximates were then deprotected using standard TBAF conditions, and the thiohydroximate precursors **13** were obtained in 65–75% yields. It can be noted from example **13a** how much shorter and more efficient this last sequence is.



Scheme 6 The nucleophilic displacement approach (pathway 2)

 Table 1
 From Lactone Opening to Thiohydroximates and TIO

Lactone	Hydroxamic acid (yield, %)	Thiohy- droximate (yield, %)	TIO (yield, %	Overall) yield (%)
14a n = 1, R = H	15a 45	13a 65	16a 35	10
14b n = 1, R = Me	15b 57	13b 74	16b 79	33
14c n = 2, R = H	15c 51	13c 75	16c	_
14d n = 3, R = H	15d 44	13d 71	16d	_

Our major concern being to prevent hydrolysis of the cyclic TIO into an *N*-hydroxylactam, we postulated that a mild neutral reaction protocol might be appropriate. Mitsunobu conditions were thus applied to thiohydroximates **13** and the internal nucleophilic displacement produced interesting results. While six- or seven-membered rings did not form (neither **16c** nor **16d** were detected in the reaction medium), the five-membered ring TIO **16a** and **16b** were obtained in 35% and 79% yield, respectively. This dramatic improvement in reactivity might be attributed to a stabilization effect related to the ring size; in addition, the considerable yield increase observed from **16a** to **16b** is likely to derive from some transition-state stabilization effect in the methyl-branched precursor **13b**.¹²

The above synthetic approach to TIO was further extended to carbohydrate-type templates, to increase the ringclosure yield and stability of the TIO. We have explored in parallel both synthetic sequences previously examined to access a suitable template, carrying a thiohydroximate at one end and a free alcohol at the other end. The lactone approach starting with 2,3-O-isopropylidene-D-erythronolactone proved unsuccessful, as we were unable to isolate the hydroxamic acid whatever the conditions used. On the contrary, easy one-pot conversion of 2,3-O-isopropylidene-L-erythrose $(17)^{13}$ into the aldoxime $18^{6b,14}$ allowed a four-step, efficient access (67% overall yield) to the thiohydroximate 19 (Scheme7).¹⁵ Final de-O-silylation proved more efficient using tetrabutylammonium tetrafluoroborate (TBAT) instead of standard TBAF. Two different ring-closing procedures were then applied. Method A involved mesyl activation of the primary alcohol prior to application of basic conditions to induce intramolecular cyclization. Sodium hydrogencarbonate proved inefficient, leading to rapid hydrolysis to afford the hydroxylactam 20 in 70% yield. Sodium hydroxide allowed formation of TIO 21 as the minor product (20% yield) together with 20 (50% yield). Method B used the Mitsunobu procedure: under those conditions, the expected TIO 21 was obtained in nearly quantitative yield.¹⁶



Scheme 7 The nucleophilic displacement approach (pathway 3)

In conclusion, initially inspired by a standard analytical protocol used for determining the glucosinolate content in plants, we have explored two approaches for the synthesis of thioimidate *N*-oxides. The halocyclization studied revealed some stability problems, when using complex (glucosyl **6b**, **6c**) precursors. This could be overcome by using a D-ribose-derived template, from which a fairly stable TIO **10** could be readily prepared.

The intramolecular nucleophilic substitution approach also proved inadequate when applied to simple frameworks, whereas the use of a carbohydrate scaffold combined with an application of the Mitsunobu methodology proved most efficient in yielding TIO **21**. We have thus disclosed two original approaches to introduce the rare thioimidate *N*-oxide function, which is under current study in our laboratory.¹⁷

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- (15) Preparation of the Thiohydroximate 19
 NCS (0.88 g, 6.6 mmol) was added to a solution of aldoxime 18 (1.75 g, 6 mmol) in DMF (5 mL), and the mixture was left

at r.t. for 4 h. After cooling to -78 °C, ethanethiol (1.33 mL, 18 mmol) then Et₃N (2.5 mL, 18 mmol) were added dropwise. The reaction mixture was slowly allowed to reach r.t. and stirred for a further 12 h. After hydrolysis (H₂O, 100 mL) and extraction with CH_2Cl_2 (3 × 100 mL), the combined organic phases were washed with brine $(3 \times 50 \text{ mL})$, dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and then evaporated. Purification of the residue over silica gel (PE-EtOAc, 7:3) afforded the 4-O-silvlated derivative of 24 as an oil. This intermediate was dissolved in THF (20 mL) and reacted with TBAT (1.2 equiv) at r.t. for 14 h. H₂O (20 mL) was then added and the mixture was extracted with CH_2Cl_2 (3 × 30 mL). The combined organic phases were washed with brine, dried over MgSO₄, then evaporated under reduced pressure. S-Ethyl 2,3-O-isopropylidene-L-erythronimidothioate (19) was isolated as a colorless solid (1.2 g, 84% yield) by silica gel flash chromatography (PE-EtOAc, 1:1). Mp 40-41 °C; $R_f = 0.18$ (PE–EtOAc, 1:1); $[\alpha]_D^{20}$ –54 (c 1.0, CHCl₃). IR (KBr): 3356, 2992, 1688, 1451, 1375, 1269, 1223, 1208, 1056, 998, 895, 859, 806, 740 cm⁻¹. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, $CDCl_3$): $\delta = 1.33$ (t, 3 H, J = 7.6 Hz, CH_3CH_2), 1.40 and 1.53 [2 s, 6 H, C(CH₃)₂], 3.11 (m, 2 H, CH₃CH₂), 3.68 (m, 1 H, H-4b), 3.79 (m, 1 H, H-4a), 4.40 (dd, 1 H, $J_{2,3} = 6.0$ Hz, $J_{34} = 4.4$ Hz, H-3), 4.89 (d, 1 H, $J_{23} = 6.0$ Hz, H-2), 9.40 (s, 1 H, NOH). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, $CDCl_3$) : $\delta = 15.1$ (CH₃CH₂), 25.6 (CH₃CH₂), 25.4, 27.3 [C(CH₃)₂], 61.7 (C-4), 76.9 (C-2), 78.6 (C-3), 109.5 (C(CH₃)₂), 150.8 (C=N). MS (IS): $m/z = 236.0 [M + H]^+$. ESI-HRMS: $m/z [M + H]^+$ calcd for C₉H₁₈NO₄S: 236.0957; found: 236.0968

- (16) Preparation of the Thioimidate N-Oxide 21 Ph₃P (55 mg, 0.21 mmol) was added to a solution of DEAD (40% in toluene, 95 µL, 0.21 mmol) in THF (10 mL). After 10 min of stirring, the thiohydroximate 19 (50 mg, 0.21 mmol) was added, and the reaction mixture was kept at reflux overnight. After hydrolysis (H₂O, 20 mL) and extraction with CH_2Cl_2 (3 × 30 mL), the combined organic phases were dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and then evaporated. (3S,4S)-2-Ethylsulfanyl-3,4-isopropylidenedioxy-3,4-dihydro-5H-pyrrole-1-oxide (21) was isolated as a colorless solid (45 mg, 98% yield) after silica gel flash chromatography (EtOAc). Mp 145–150 °C; $R_f = 0.5$ (EtOAc); $[\alpha]_{D}^{20}$ –136.5 (c 1.0, MeOH). IR (neat): 1570, 1422, 1383, 1261, 1234, 1204, 1154, 1076, 1021, 864, 836, 706, 663 cm⁻¹. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃): $\delta = 1.37$ (t, 3 H, J = 7.6 Hz, CH₃CH₂), 1.39 and 1.44 [2 s, 6 H, C(CH₃)₂], 3.13 $(q, 2 H, J = 7.6 Hz, CH_3CH_2), 4.06 (dt, 1 H, {}^2J_{5b,5a} = 14.7 Hz,$ $J_{5b,4} = {}^{5}J_{5b,3} = 1.2 \text{ Hz}, \text{H-5b}, 4.13 \text{ (dd, 1 H, }{}^{2}J_{5b,5a} = 14.7 \text{ Hz},$ $J_{5a,4} = 5.3$ Hz, H-5a), 4.90 (ddd, 1 H, $J_{4,3} = 6.5$ Hz, $J_{4,5a} = 5.3$ Hz, $J_{4,5b} = 1.4$ Hz, H-4), 5.34 (d, 1 H, $J_{4,3} = 6.5$ Hz, H-3). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃): δ = 15.6 (CH₃CH₂), 23.4 (CH₃CH₂), 26.0, 27.2 [C(CH₃)₂], 66.4 (C-5), 73,1 (C-4), 81.7 (C-3); 112.8 [C(CH₃)₂], 144.0 (C-2). MS (IS): m/z = 218.0 $[M + H]^+$. ESI-HRMS: m/z $[M + H]^+$ calcd for C₉H₁₆NO₃S: 218.0851; found: 218.0841.
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