which in large measure are dictated by the size and shape of the sieves and their supporting network, i.e., HZSM5.38

Summary

Several tools have been developed which are useful in diagnosing the relative utility of very strong acids (often called superacids) as catalysts, as well as the relative ability of solid acids to support carbonium ion processes.

The ability of strong acids to stabilize carbonium ions which isomerize rather than deprotonate is one measure

(38) Argauer, R. J.; Landolt, R. G. U.S. Patent 3702886. Chang, C. D.; Lang, W. H.; Silvestri, A. J. U.S. Patent 3894106. Butter, S. A., Kaeding, W. W.; Jurewicz, A. T. U.S. Patent 3894107. Chang, C. D., Silvestri, A. J.; Smith R. U.S. Patent 3928483.

of their usefulness. Another lies in their capacity to stabilize relatively unsolvated carbonium ions. The latter can be assessed when hydride-transfer equilibria can be measured or estimated. This has been done for equilibria involving adamantyl and tert-butyl ions.

The freedom of intermediates participating in acid catalyzed reactions on solids can also be probed by determining the way by which they partition themselves into different reaction channels. Paths requiring the development of an increasing amount of carboniumion-like character appear to be preferentially aided as catalyst activity and probably acidity increase. These considerations have been used to establish the relative rates of converting an olefin into a methyl shifted and a double bond shifted product as an important characterizing selectivity parameter for solid acids.

Naturally Occurring Cyclohexene Oxides

CHACHANAT THEBTARANONTH and YODHATHAI THEBTARANONTH*

Department of Chemistry, Faculty of Science, Mahidol University, Rama 6 Road, Bangkok 10400, Thailand Received August 20, 1985 (Revised Manuscript Received January 8, 1986)

Cyclohexene oxides are a small group of natural products which have aroused widespread interest amongst natural product and synthetic chemists in the last 10 years owing to their unusual structures, biogenesis, and biological activity.

OCOPh OCOMe
$$\frac{6}{5}$$
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Crotepoxide 1, senepoxide 2, and pipoxide 3 were discovered during the period between 1968-1970 from Croton macrostachys, ^{1,2} Uvaria catocarpa, ³ and Piper hookeri, ⁴ respectively. Due to the report by the late Professor Kupchan that crotepoxide (1) has a significant inhibitory activity against Lewis lung carcinoma in mice, the compound has become very well-known and is thus responsible for generating interest in this field. Consequently, in the following years the chemical community saw several syntheses of crotepoxide⁵⁻⁷ and senepoxide, 8-11 including, also, the proposal of a biogenetic pathway to this family of compounds.¹² However, it was to be another decade before new members

Chachanat Thebtaranonth was born in 1945 in Bangkok and received her B.Sc. degree fro m the University of Medical Sciences, Bangkok. She joined Mahldol University in 1967 and later, in 1972, obtained her Ph.D. degree from Liverpool University where she worked under Dr. F. M. Dean. She is now Associate Professor at Mahidol University and her research concerns the structure elucidation and synthesis of natural products and the development of synthetic methods.

Yodhathai Thebtaranonth was born in 1943 in Bangkok, Thailand. received his B.Sc. and M.Sc. degrees from the University of Medical Sciences, Bangkok, and his Ph.D. degree from Sheffield University, where he worked under Professor W. D. Ollis, F.R.S. In 1975 he spent a year at Cornell University doing postdoctoral work with Professor M. F. Semmelhack. He is now Associate Professor at Mahidol University. His research interests lie mainly in natural products and synthetic chemistry.

of the family were discovered which clarified their biogenesis.

In the meantime the absolute stereostructures of crotepoxide (1), and subsequently of senepoxide (2), were conclusively established by X-ray crystallography.^{13,14} The stereostructure of pipoxide (3) was also proposed,4 albeit based on that of senepoxide (2), which was later proved to be incorrect.

(1) S. M. Kupchan, R. J. Hemingway, P. Coggon, A. T. McPhail, G. A. Sim, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1968, 90, 2982.
 (2) S. M. Kupchan, R. J. Hemingway, R. M. Smith, J. Org. Chem.

1969, 34, 3898

(3) R. Hollands, D. Becher, A. Gaudemer, J. Polonsky, Tetrahedron 1968, 24, 1633

At about this time Professor Ganem put forward an ingenious scheme to rationalize the biogenetic pathway to these cyclohexene oxides (Scheme I). 12 Starting from (-)-(2S,3S)-isochorismic acid (4)¹⁵ Ganem suggested that the arene oxide 5a is formed by an intramolecular S_N2 displacement of the enol pyruvate by the adjacent hydroxy group and then undergoes enzymatic reduction to an alcohol followed by acylation to give 6a. Subsequent photooxygenation of the diene 6a to the endoperoxide 7 was envisaged, followed by epoxide ring opening with anchimeric assistance from the neighboring benzoate carbonyl to yield 9 via the hemiorthoester 8. Acetylation and rearrangement of the endoperoxide function in 9 finally completed the biogenetic scheme to give rise to crotepoxide (1). The biogeneses of senepoxide (2) and pipoxide (3) were also conveniently explained via intermediate 6a (Scheme II). Thus, proposed epoxidation at the reactive 1.6-double bond of the arene oxide 6a to afford 10a, followed by selective epoxide ring opening and acylation of the resulting alcohol finally led to 2 and 3.

One drawback of this proposal, as pointed out by Ganem himself, was that the scheme resulted in 2 and 3 having the opposite configuration to that found in nature, unless, of course, the plant produced the antipodal (2R.3R)-isochorismate.

This led Ganem¹⁶ to consider the possibility of arene oxide isomerization ($5a \rightleftharpoons 5b$), a conversion that can be easily envisaged via the oxepin intermediate 12 (Scheme III). According to the scheme, senepoxide (2) and pipoxide (3) with the "correct" absolute configuration would result from the enantiomeric arene oxide 5b. Despite this problem the idea of the arene oxide 6 as the common precursor in the biogenesis of these natural products remained very attractive and viable.

- (4) J. Singh, K. L. Dhar, C. K. Atal, Tetrahedron, 1970, 26, 4403.
- (5) K. Oda, A. Ichihara, S. Sakamura, Tetrahedron Lett. 1975, 3187.
 (6) M. R. Demuth, P. E. Garrett, J. D. White, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1976, 98, 634
- (7) M. Matsumoto, S. Dobashi, K. Kuroda, Tetrahedron Lett. 1977, 3361.
- (8) A. Ichihara, K. Oda, M. Kobayashi, S. Sakamura, Tetrahedron Lett. 1974, 4235
- G. W. Holbert, B. Ganem, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1978, 100, 352.
 B. Ganem, G. W. Holbert, L. B. Weiss, K. Ishizumi, J. Am. Chem.
- Soc. 1978, 100, 6483.
- (11) A. Ishihara, K. Oda, M. Kobayashi, S. Sakamura, Tetrahedron
- (12) B. Ganem, G. W. Holbert, Bioorg. Chem. 1977, 6, 393.
 (13) P. Coggon, A. T. McPhail, G. A. Sim, J. Chem. Soc. B 1969, 534. (14) A. Ducruix, C. Pascard, J. Polonsky, Acta Crystallogr., Sect. B 1976, 32, 1589,
- (15) I. G. Young, T. J. Batterham, F. Gibson, Biochim. Biophys. Acta
 - (16) B. Ganem, Tetrahedron 1978, 34, 3353.

To support his proposal Ganem also performed various biomimetic transformations in his laboratory, including the total synthesis of (\pm) -senepoxide (2) from 6.9,10,17

Recent Developments

After a lapse of almost 10 years during which no new addition was made to the known family of three cyclohexene oxides, research in this area suddenly took a new leap not long after the discovery of the biologically active (o-hydroxybenzyl)dihydrochalcone (uvaretin) (13) in Uvaria acuminata¹⁸ and flavanones (chamanetin and isochamanetin) (14 and 15) in U. chamae¹⁹ by two independent groups in 1976, which triggered

intensive chemical investigation of plants in the Uvaria genus and led to the isolation of a large number of cyclohexene oxides and related metabolites, besides several other types of compounds (i.e., alkaloids, 20,21 aromatic compounds,22 and oxygen heterocycles23 including those derived from syncarpic acid²⁴). In retrospect it was no mere coincidence, therefore, that senepoxide (2) was isolated from U. catocarpa in the first systematic investigation of the Uvaria plant made in 1968.

A significant observation was made in 1979 when a collaborative program between American and Thai chemists resulted in the isolation of a large amount of a compound from *U. purpurea*, which was found to be identical with the known pipoxide (3) but with an NMR spectrum that was inconsistent with the relative stereochemistry and position of the secondary benzoate group as depicted in pipoxide (3). A comparison of the H₂-H₃ coupling constant in the NMR spectrum of pipoxide (8 Hz, diaxial hydrogens) with that of senepoxide (2) (2.5 Hz) suggested that the orientations of the C_2 , C₃ substituents were different in these two compounds, which would be the case if the stereochemistry of the epoxide rings were different in these two molecules (crotepoxide's H_2 – H_3 coupling constant is 9 Hz). Total synthesis and X-ray crystallography were finally employed to resolve the structure of pipoxide, 25 and the revised or correct structure of pipoxide is now established as 16.



(17) G. W. Holbert, L. B. Weiss, B. Ganem, Tetrahedron Lett. 1976, 4435

(18) J. R. Cole, S. J. Torrance, R. M. Wiedhopf, S. K. Arora, R. B.

Bates, J. Org. Chem. 1976, 41, 1852.
(19) C. D. Hufford, W. L. Lasswell, Jr., J. Org. Chem. 1976, 41, 1297.
(20) K. Panichpol, R. D. Waigh, P. G. Waterman, Phytochemistry 1977, 16, 621

(21) H. Achenbach, B. Raffelsberger, Tetrahedron Lett. 1979, 2571.
(22) W. L. Lasswell, Jr., C. D. Hufford, Phytochemistry 1977, 16, 1439.
(23) C. D. Hufford, B. O. Oguntimein, D. V. Engen, D. Muthard, J.

Clardy, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1980, 102, 7365. (24) C. D. Hufford, B. O. Oguntimein, J. K. Baker, J. Org. Chem. 1981,

(25) G. W. Holbert, B. Ganem, D. V. Engen, L. Borsub, K. Chantrapromma, C. Sadavongvivad, Y. Thebtaranonth, Tetrahedron Lett. 1979, 715.

Shortly afterwards pipoxide was also studied by an Indian–Swiss group²⁶ who employed high-resolution NMR techniques and eventually confirmed the revised structure 16.

In 1981 investigation of *U. zeylanica* by the Cole and Bates group resulted in the discovery of a new and very interesting compound, zeylena (17).27 A close examination of 17 pointed to its formation by an intramolecular Diels-Alder reaction from the diene precursor 18a, which, in turn, could have resulted from epoxide ring opening of the arene oxide 6b by cinnamic acid. The isolation of 17 stimulated Cole and Bates to map out a simple yet very attractive biogenetic pathway to the cyclohexene oxides (Scheme IV), via the same arene oxide precursor proposed by Ganem. 12 According to this scheme benzyl benzoate 19 is epoxidized to the arene oxide intermediate 6b which can then add cinnamic acid, acetic acid, or benzoic acid, to give, respectively, the dienes 18a, 18b, or 18c. Subsequent acetylation and further epoxidation of 18b would yield senepoxide (2). In the same way the formation of pipoxide 16 can be similarly explained. On the other hand, 18a can undergo an intramolecular cycloaddition reaction to give rise to 17. Cole and Bates not only used their biogenetic scheme to explain the biogenesis of cyclohexene oxides but also to explain the origin of the o-hydroxybenzyl group in uvaretin (13), chamanetin (14), and isochamanetin (15), all of which have been found in plants of the *Uvaria* genus. Here the arene oxide **6b** is perceived to easily rearrange to o-hydroxybenzyl benzoate 20, thus providing the plants with a pool of o-hydroxybenzyl groups.

Although the arene oxide 6 was postulated as the key metabolic intermediate in both the biogenetic routes that were proposed by Ganem¹² (Scheme I) and by Cole and Bates²⁷ (Scheme IV), the two schemes differed considerably in their concepts of formation and subsequent transformations of this key intermediate. Ganem speculated that the arene oxide 6 resulted from isochorismic acid (4) while Cole and Bates postulated direct epoxidation of benzyl benzoate 19 to give 6b. The latter then proposed direct epoxide ring opening to give the diene intermediate 18. In fact an alternative route to the diene involving conjugate addition to the

arene oxide 21 was also considered but thought to be less likely.²⁸ The isolation of zeylena (17) clearly indicated derivation from the diene 18a, hence it was only logical to propose that senepoxide (2) and pipoxide 16 should also arise from this same type of intermediate, the dienes 18b and 18c, respectively, and not from the diepoxide 10 as formerly proposed by Ganem (Schemes II and III).

Cole and Bates' biogenetic route appeared attractive, simple, and highly feasible. However, up until that time there had been no report on the isolation of the key intermediate (the "missing link") diene 18 from nature, even though its stability was expected to be far greater than that of the arene oxide 6.

It was not until 1982 that further investigation of plants in the Uvaria genus finally provided convincing evidence for the Cole and Bates biogenetic pathway. The first missing link diene 18c [mp 90–91 °C; [$\alpha^{25}_{\rm D}$ –276° (c 0.145, CHCl₃)] was discovered in the roots of U. purpurea, ²⁹ whereas the dienes 22 and 23 together with their oxidized products senepoxide 2, ³⁰ β -senepoxide (24), and tingtanoxide (25) were isolated from the roots of U. ferruginea in the following year. ³¹ It should be noted that 24 is, in fact, the epoxide stereo-isomer of the well-known senepoxide 2, here arbitrarily assigned as α -senepoxide; hence 24 becomes β -senepoxide.

The absolute stereochemistry of these compounds was determined by chemical correlations with natural products of known absolute configurations as briefly outlined below.

The diene 18c was converted to pipoxide 16 by direct epoxidation (synthetic 16, $[\alpha^{20}_{\rm D}+36.3^\circ;$ natural, $[\alpha^{20}_{\rm D}+37.9^\circ).^{29}$ Acetylation of 18c afforded the diene 23 (synthetic 23, $[\alpha^{28}_{\rm D}-285^\circ;$ natural, $[\alpha]^{28}_{\rm D}-298^\circ).^{31}$ Epoxidation of the diene 22 isolated from U. ferruginea yielded α -senepoxide (2) (synthetic 2, $[\alpha]^{28}_{\rm D}-185^\circ;$ natural, $[\alpha]^2_{\rm D}-197^\circ)^{3,30}$ and β -senepoxide (24) (synthetic 24, $[\alpha]^{28}_{\rm D}+60^\circ;$ natural, $[\alpha]^{25}_{\rm D}+62^\circ).^{31,32}$ A similar reaction of the natural diene 23 gave tingtanoxide (25) (synthetic 25, $[\alpha]^{27}_{\rm D}-221^\circ;$ natural, $[\alpha]^{28}_{\rm D}-306^\circ)$ and pipoxide acetate 26 ($[\alpha]^{28}_{\rm D}+9^\circ).^{31,32}$

A close examination of the natural products from U. purpurea (16 and 18c) and from U. ferruginea (2 and 22–25) revealed that they all possessed the same absolute configuration at C_2 and C_3 , which is strongly indicative of a common origin, possibly the arene oxide 6b. However, the varying stereochemistry of the epoxide ring at C_1 – C_6 , and especially the cooccurrence of α - and β -senepoxide (2) and 24, indicates that at least the last epoxidation step (of the diene 18) in the biosynthesis of these compounds must be nonstereospe-

⁽²⁶⁾ B. S. Joshi, D. H. Gawad, H. Fuhrer, Tetrahedron Lett. 1979, 2427.

⁽²⁷⁾ S. D. Jolad, J. J. Hoffmann, K. H. Schram, J. R. Cole, M. S. Tempesta, R. B. Bates, J. Org. Chem. 1981, 46, 4267. Zeylena 17 has also been isolated from U. purpurea: M. Kodpinid, C. Thebtaranonth, Y. Thebtaranonth, unpublished results. We are grateful to Professor R. B. Bates for the comparison of zeylena samples.

⁽²⁸⁾ See ref 3 in 27.

⁽²⁹⁾ G. R. Schulte, M. Kodpinid, C. Thebtaranonth, Y. Thebtaranonth, Tetrahedron Lett. 1982, 23, 4303.

⁽³⁰⁾ α -Senepoxide from U. ferruginea ([$\alpha^{28}_{\rm D}$ -192.5°) is identical in all respects with that reported.³

⁽³¹⁾ M. Kodpinid, C. Sadawongvivad, C. Thebtaranonth, Y. Thebtaranonth, *Tetrahedron Lett.* 1983, 24, 2019.

⁽³²⁾ The 4,5-epoxide has also been isolated.

cific, making possible at once the formation of both α and β -epoxides. The coisolation of these dienes and their oxidized products from the same plant is thus highly significant in providing the missing evidence for the proposed biogenetic pathway shown in Scheme IV.

Metabolites of Cyclohexene Oxides

In the initial investigation of the Uvaria genus, the French group³ not only isolated α -senepoxide (2) from U. catocarpa but also reported the identification of its metabolite, seneol (27). The structure of 27 infers methanolysis of the epoxide ring in α -senepoxide (2). Later work on other Uvaria plants has yielded several more such metabolites, viz: zeylenol (28) and epizeylenol (29) from the roots of *U. zeylanica*, ^{27,33,34} ferrudiol (30) from the leaves of *U. ferruginea*, 35 and metabolites of tingtanoxide and β -senepoxide and the alcohols 31-33, from the roots of *U. ferruginea*.³⁶

Although the identification of 28-30 rested mostly on NMR techniques, chemical correlations, on the other hand, played a major role in the determination of the stereochemical structures of 31-33. Thus it was shown that the diol 31 can be formed from acid hydrolysis of natural tingtanoxide (25), while the diol 32 can be obtained from the reaction of β -senepoxide (24) with sulfuric acid. Despite the fact that the diol 32 was not a known natural product prior to its isolation from U. ferruginea, it had been synthesized by Holland's group³ by a simple chemical transformation of its precursor. In their study it was shown that hydrolysis of α -sene-

(33) S. D. Jolad, J. J. Hoffmann, J. R. Cole, M. S. Tempesta, R. B. Bates, Phytochemistry 1984, 23, 935.

(34) 1-Epizeylenol is also found in the roots of U. purpurea: M. Kodpinid, C. Thebtaranonth, Y. Thebtaranonth, unpublished work. See

(35) G. R. Schulte, B. Ganem, K. Chantrapromma, M. Kodpinid, K.

Sudsuansri, Tetrahedron Lett. 1982, 23, 289.
(36) M. Kodpinid, Ph.D. Thesis, Mahidol University, Bangkok, Thailand, 1984.

poxide (2) with 4 N sulfuric acid yielded 34, but treatment of 2 with BF₃/Et₂O gave rise to the diol 32 as a result of a different mode of epoxide ring opening.³ Acetylation (MeCOCl/NEt₃) of 32 simply gave the triacetate 33.36

The results of these chemical transformations firmly established the structures and stereochemistry of the metabolites 31-33.

Certain conclusions that can be drawn from the work on the Uvaria metabolites deserve special mention. First of all, from specially controlled isolation procedures it can be concluded that diols 31-33 are not artifacts,³⁶ which is to say that opening of the epoxide rings to yield 27-33 occurred within the plants and not during the extraction and purification procedures. Second, as mentioned above, it can be concluded from the varying stereochemistry of the epoxide rings and from the cooccurrence of the α - and β -cyclohexene oxide isomers, that the biosynthetic oxidation of diene 18 to cyclohexene oxide is not stereospecific. Third, studies on in vitro cyclohexene oxide ring openings have shown that at this stage it is not yet possible to discern whether or not the related cyclohexene oxides (e.g., 16 and 35) are biogenetic precursors of the cis diols (epizeylenol (29) and ferrudiol (30)). More information will be required before the biogenetic process to give the 1,6-cis disubstitution pattern on the cyclohexene nucleus can be clearly understood.

Benzyl Benzoates and o-Hydroxybenzyl-Containing Compounds

The proposed biogenetic pathway to cyclohexene oxides as shown in Scheme IV postulates an enzymatic epoxidation of benzyl benzoate to the arene oxide 6b. which can then either undergo a nucleophilic epoxide ring opening to the diene 18 or rearrange to o-hydroxybenzyl benzoate 20.27 The scheme further extends to evoke 20 as the common source of the ohydroxybenzyl grouping(s) present in the various compounds found in plants of the *Uvaria* genus. Indeed, investigations of several such plants have provided valuable data in support of this biogenetic scheme. Altogether, nine benzyl benzoates, 19 and 36-43, have been isolated from *U. purpurea* and *U. ferruginea*, 37,38

while C-benzylated flavanones 14, 15, and 44-47 and dihydrochalcones 13, 48, and 49 have been found as constituents of *U. chamae*, ^{19,39-42} *U. acuminata*, ¹⁸ *U.* ferruginea, 38 and U. Angolensis. 43 Interestingly, some

of these o-hydroxybenzyl flavanones and dihydrochalcones are not only active in vivo against P-388 lymphocytic leukemia but also display strong antimicrobial activity.44 Other compounds bearing the ohydroxybenzyl group which have also been isolated include the benzyl ethers 50 and 51 and the monoterpene, chamanen (52).22 The coisolation of several different types of o-hydroxybenzyl compounds from U. ferruginea certainly makes it seem highly probable that the o-hydroxybenzyl moiety in all the compounds mentioned here have their origin in the same precursor.

Synthesis of Cyclohexene Oxides

A brief review of earlier work on the synthesis of cyclohexene oxides has already appeared as part of a report on the development of natural products from the shikimate pathway. 16 This includes total syntheses of crotepoxide (1) by Ichihara, ⁵ White, ⁶ and Matsumoto, ⁷ those of α -senepoxide (2) by Ichihara, ^{8,11} and Ganem, ^{9,10} and, perhaps most adventurous of all, the preparation of the surprisingly stable arene oxide 6 by Ganem, who

also successfully converted 6 to α -senepoxide (2) and seneol (27).9,10

Later work has shown that the most convenient entry to cyclohexene oxides is by a biomimetic synthesis via the dienes, e.g., 18, 22, or 23. This approach was originally explored by White, 6 whose synthesis of crotepoxide (1) involved the preparation of dienes 55 and 56 as follows: monoepoxidation of the dihydrobenzene 53 followed by treatment of the resulting epoxide with acetic anhydride produced the trans diacetate 54 as a mixture of two diastereomers: bromination and subsequent dehydrohalogenation of 54 gave a single diene 55, which, upon epoxidation under forcing conditions vielded the cis and trans dioxides 57 and 58 in a ratio of 1:8; finally, hydrogenolysis and subsequent benzoylation of the cis dioxide 57 gave the required crotepoxide (1).

An alternative route to 57 involved singlet oxygen photooxygenation of the diol 56 (obtained from LAH reduction of 55), which yielded the endoperoxides 59 and 60 in a ratio of 1:1, the diacetate 55 being surprisingly unreactive under these conditions. Acetylation of 59 followed by thermal rearrangement of the resulting endoperoxide diacetate eventually furnished the crotepoxide precursor 57.

The timely synthesis of pipoxide 16 by Ganem in 1979 served to unambiguously confirm its newly revised structure.²⁵ Employing the epoxy diol 61⁹ as the starting material, it was first converted to the bromohydrin 62 and then treated with zinc in acetic acid to yield the diene 63. Regiospecific and stereospecific monoepoxidation of 63 at the trisubstituted double bond followed by monobenzoylation subsequently afforded pipoxide 16.

Diene diols 56 and 63 have recently been prepared by Schlessinger⁴⁵ who used the regiospecific Diels-Alder addition approach. The reaction of 1-(triethylsiloxy)buta-1,3-diene with ethyl propiolate gave a good yield

⁽³⁷⁾ M. Kodpinid, C. Sadavongvivad, C. Thebtaranonth, Y. Thebtaranonth, Phytochemistry 1984, 23, 199. (38) M. Kodpinid, C. Thebtaranonth, Y. Thebtaranonth, Phytochem-

<sup>istry 1985, 24, 3071.
(39) W. L. Lasswell, Jr., C. D. Hufford, J. Org. Chem. 1977, 42, 1295.</sup>

 ⁽⁴⁰⁾ C. D. Hufford, W. L. Lasswell, Jr., Lloydia 1978, 41, 151.
 (41) C. D. Hufford, W. L. Lasswell, Jr., K. Hirotsu, J. Clardy, J. Org.

Chem. 1979, 44, 4709.
(42) H. N. El-Sohly, W. L. Lasswell, Jr., C. D. Hufford, J. Nat. Prod.

 <sup>1979, 42, 264.
 (43)</sup> C. D. Hufford, B. O. Oguntimein, *Phytochemistry* 1980, 19, 2036. (44) C. D. Hufford, W. L. Lasswell, Jr., Lloydia 1978, 41, 156.

of the hexa-1,4-diene 64, which upon monoepoxidation gave 65 together with a small amount of the corresponding β -isomer. Reduction of the ester side chain

and removal of the contaminating β -isomer led to pure 66, from which regiospecific ring opening of the epoxide residue by sodium phenyl selenide afforded 67. Subsequent benzoylation of 67 at the primary alcohol site followed by oxidative elimination of the phenyl selenide group and finally disilylation eventually furnished the diene diol 63. In an analogous manner diene 56 was prepared by first converting 66 into its benzyl ether 69 and then subjecting the ether to consecutive ring opening, elimination, and desilvlation reactions.

Having accomplished the formal synthesis of crotepoxide (1) and pipoxide 16 via the dienes 56 and 63, Schlessinger then proceeded to the total synthesis of racemic α -senepoxide (2). Here he took advantage of the bulky triethylsiloxy group to control the stereochemistry of the epoxidation reaction. Thus oxidation of the triethylsiloxy diene diol 71 with 95% m-CPBA in methylene chloride at -40 °C gave the α -epoxide 72 in 77% yield. Subsequent esterification of the primary alcohol function in 72 with benzoyl chloride yielded 73. which, after desilylation followed by exhaustive acetylation finally gave α -senepoxide 2.

OSIE
$$t_3$$
 OR OSIE t_3 OCOMe

71 72, R = H

73, R = COPh

The most recent cyclohexene oxide synthesis is the report by Ogawa who prepared optically active pipoxide 16, β -senepoxide 24, and dienes 18c, 22, and 23.46 As a result of extensive synthetic work on multisubstituted cyclohexane derivatives⁴⁷⁻⁵⁰ the Japanese group has developed an attractive method for the preparation of optically active diene 22 from optically active furanacrylic acid cycloadduct 74, as outlined below.

Bromolactonization of 74 gave the bromo lactone 75, which after reduction with LAH followed by acetylation afforded the bromo diacetate 76.47 Cleavage of the oxygen bridge in 76 with HBr in acetic acid gave the tribromide 77 which could be debrominated to 78 with zinc dust. Interestingly, treatment of this bromo

(50) S. Ogawa, Y. Iwasawa, T. Suami, Chem. Lett. 1984, 355.

acetate 78 with N-bromosuccinimide in carbon tetrachloride in the presence of $\alpha.\alpha$ -azobisisobutyronitrile vielded the tribromide 79, which the authors then converted to the benzoate 80 without further purification. The conversion of 78 to 79 is believed to proceed via initial allylic bromination to an intermediate diene. which subsequently reacted with the bromine generated in situ.⁴⁶ The required diene 22 was finally obtained by treatment of 80 with zinc dust.

Having prepared the optically active diene 22, Ogawa then subjected it to epoxidation with m-CPBA and obtained β -senepoxide (24) together with its isomers 81 and 82 in 19%, 24%, and 14% yields, respectively.

On the other hand, treatment of 22 with p-toluenesulfonic acid in methanol at room temperature effected deacetylation and gave the diol 63 together with the monoacetate 83, with only a trace amount of 84. Monobenzovlation of 63 yielded the optically active diene 18c, which could be converted to pipoxide 16.29 Moreover, benzoylation of 83 yielded the diene 23 which is the precursor of tingtanoxide (25).³¹

Conclusion

Although the first three cyclohexene oxides 1, 2, and 16 were found scattered in plants of different families, later work has discovered that a rich source of this class of compounds can be found in the Uvaria genus. Interestingly, although crotepoxide (1) is distributed in many plants, namely, Croton macrostachys, 12 Piper attenuatum, 26 Piper galeatum, 26 Piper hookeri, 26 and Piper futokadzura,⁵¹ and Boesenbergia sp. (Zingibera-

(51) S. Takahashi, Phytochemistry 1969, 8, 321.

⁽⁴⁶⁾ S. Ogawa, T. Takagaki, J. Org. Chem. 1985, 50, 2356.
(47) S. Ogawa, I. Kasahara, T. Suami, Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1979, 52,

^{118.}

⁽⁴⁸⁾ S. Ogawa, T. Toyokuni, M. Ara, M. Suetsugu, T. Suami, Chem. Lett. 1980, 379.

⁽⁴⁹⁾ S. Ogawa, T. Toyokuni, M. Ara, M. Suetsugu, T. Suami, Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1983, 56, 1710.

ceae).⁵² neither this compound nor any of its relatives (bearing the cis diepoxide structure) has been found in the Uvaria plant. This has raised the suspicion that despite their rich pool of benzyl benzoates (e.g., 36-43) and dienes (e.g. 18), the *Uvaria* plants probably lack the biological means to synthesize the cis diepoxides. The possibility that these mono- and diepoxides should arise from different biogenetic pathways is considered unlikely since it has been established that crotepoxide (1), α -senepoxide (2), pipoxide 16, zeylenol (28), and ferrudiol (30) all have identical 2S,3R absolute configurations, a fact highly suggestive of a unified biosynthesis via a common key intermediate, the diene 18.53 Results from the study of Piper hookeri, from which crotepoxide (1), pipoxide 16, and pipoxide chlorohydrin 85 have been isolated, 26 lend further support to these deductions.

Deserving special mention among the Uvaria species is Uvaria ferruginea which was collected from north-

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eastern Thailand. With the exception of the arene oxide 6b, all of the compounds postulated in Scheme IV²⁷ have been isolated from this plant. These are the benzyl benzoates (19 and 37),³⁸ the o-(hydroxy-benzyl)flavanones (14 and 46),³⁸ the missing link dienes (22 and 23),31 and the cyclohexene oxides (2, 24, and 25)31 as well as their various metabolites (30-33).35,36 These findings have put the Cole and Bates biogenetic pathway (Scheme IV) on firm ground.

Last of all it might be mentioned that the latest addition (unpublished) to the family of naturally occurring cyclohexene oxides is a new cyclohexene diepoxide, boesenoxide 86, from Boesenbergia sp. (Zingibereceae) from Thailand.54

(54) Personal communication with Dr. P. Tuntiwachwuttikul of the Department of Medical Science, Ministry of Public Health, Bangkok,

Cooperative Binding to Macromolecules. A Formal Approach

BERTA PERLMUTTER-HAYMAN

Department of Physical Chemistry, The Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Jerusalem 91904, Israel Received July 22, 1985 (Revised Manuscript Received January 9, 1986)

Many macromolecules are able to bind a variety of ligand molecules to one or more specific sites. The importance of this phenomenon lies in the fact that the binding of one ligand often influences the binding strength of the macromolecule toward a subsequent ligand (or ligands). When this happens, one speaks of cooperative binding. This effect is the basis of enzyme control and many other vital biological processes. If we were to elaborate on this theme, we could only repeat what has been ably presented elsewhere. 1-5

In view of the importance of cooperative binding, it is not surprising that much effort should have been devoted not only to the elucidation of the mechanism by which the phenomenon might arise in a specific case¹ but also to the development of general methods by which cooperative binding can be recognized and subjected to mathematical or graphical representation. What is surprising is the seeming lack of coordination between papers dealing with different aspects of the topic, so that there is even some confusion about the very definition of the term "cooperativity". Wrong, or, at least, misleading statements seem never to have been challenged, and the interesting results of some theo-

Berta Perlmutter-Hayman is Professor Emerita of Physical Chemistry at the Hebrew University of Jerusalem. Born and raised in Munich, Germany, she started her studies at the Hebrew University in 1939, where she received both her M.Sc. and Ph.D. degrees. Her research interests are centered on the kinetics of reactions in aqueous solution including linear free energy relationships, slow proton transfer, and the theory and practice of chemical relaxation. Her interest in cooperative binding was stimulated by her work on complex formation involving serum albumin and small molecules.

retical treatments⁶⁻⁸ have not yet found their way into the literature which deals with more practical aspects.

In this Account, we present a short review of the formal aspects of cooperative binding as we see them, confining ourselves to homotropic binding, i.e., the multiple binding of like molecules. We shall employ a consistent nomenclature and point out some of the various pitfalls presented by this subject. We also believe to have some original contributions to make to various aspects of the topic.

Stoichiometric Binding Constants and Binding **Equations**

We shall use the following definitions for the stoichiometric binding constants^{3,5,9}

$$K_{1} = \frac{[PX]}{[P][X]}, K_{2} = \frac{[PX_{2}]}{[PX][X]}, ...,$$

$$K_{n} = \frac{[PX_{n}]}{[PX_{n-1}][X]}, ..., K_{t} = \frac{[PX_{t}]}{[PX_{t-1}][X]}$$
(1)

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