REVIEW

Preparation of Isotope Labeled/Unlabeled Key Intermediates in 2-Methyl-Derythritol 4-Phosphate Terpenoid Biosynthetic Pathway

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Naturally occurring terpenes constitute one of the largest groups of natural products with complicated and variable structures, and a great number of important biological activities. The 2-methyld-erythritol 4-phosphate (MEP) pathway is a newly found and established biosynthetic route for terpenoids, and all the enzymes involved in this pathway can be used as targets for the screening of antibiotics. Progress in chemical and enzymatic preparation of the key intermediates in this pathway is reviewed with the emphasis on the synthesis of 1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate and 2-methyl-Derythritol 4-phosphate with isotope labels.

Introduction. – Naturally occurring terpenoids, containing more than 45,000 members, constitute one of the largest groups of secondary metabolites with complicated and different structures, and a great variety of important biological activities. Although the biological functions of the vast majority of the known terpenes still remain largely unknown, the scrutinized and clarified functions demonstrate the extreme significance of terpenoids. These include regulation of cell-wall and glycoprotein biosynthesis (dolichol diphosphates), transportation of electron in redox chemistry (plastoquinones and ubiquinones), photosynthetic light harvesting (carotenoids), contribution to lipid membrane structure (cholesterol in eukaryotes, archaebacterial lipids), modification of proteins involved in signal transduction (prenylated proteins), intercellular signaling and developmental control (estrogens), interspecies defence (microbe-microbe, plant-microbe, plant-insect), and as antibiotics and phytoalexins (trichochecin, capsidiol), to name a few. Furthermore, a large number of other terpenoids display potent, medicinally useful activities; for example, the widely used cardiovascular agents of the ginkgolide type, antitumor diterpene taxoids, and the antimalarial compound artemisinin. Thus, a lot of research on the biosynthesis of terpenoids has been performed, and two pathways have been established, i.e., the classic mevalonate (MVA) pathway and the newly established 2-methyl-p-erythritol 4phosphate (MEP) pathway.

Recent research on the terpenoid biosynthesis has revealed how widespread the recently discovered non-mevalonate pathway is. In fact, it indicates that the new pathway may be followed in nature much more frequently than the classic one. This pathway is largely operative in bacteria, and it is also significant in higher plants. In

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addition, the coexistence of both pathways in two different cell compartments of higher plant cells was demonstrated, with the MVA route in the cytosol and the MEP route confined to the plastids. Further experiments confirmed that, in higher plants, the MVA pathway affords sesquiterpenes, sterols, and triterpenes, whereas the alternative pathway leads to a wide variety of hemi-, mono-, di-, and tetraterpenes.

In the MEP terpenoid biosynthetic pathway (for recent reviews, see [1]), the key intermediate 1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate $(DXP; 1; *Scheme 1*)$, which is converted to MEP $(2; Scheme 1)$, the first accepted intermediate in this route, by a two-step process catalyzed by DXP reductoisomerase (DXR) in the presence of NADPH, is biosynthesized from pyruvate $(3; Scheme 1)$ and from D-glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate ($D-GAP$; 4; Scheme 1) by the catalytic action of DXP synthase (DXS), a thiamine diphosphate-dependant enzyme. Subsequently, MEP (2) is transformed by five consecutive enzyme reactions to isopentenyl diphosphate (IPP; 5) and dimethylallyl

diphosphate (DMAPP; 6), the two universal building blocks for all natural terpenes. In this reaction sequence, 2 is converted to 4-diphosphocytidyl-2-methyl-p-erythritol (CDPME; 7) by 4-diphosphocytidyl-2-methyl-D-erythritol synthase (IspD) in the presence of CTP. Then, 7 is phosphorylated in an ATP-dependent reaction mediated by CDPME kinase (IspE) to afford 4-diphosphocytidyl-2-methyl-D-erythritol 2-phosphate (CDPMEP; 8), which is cyclized to form 2-methyl-D-erythritol 2,4-cyclodiphosphate (cMEPP; 9) by catalytic action of cMEPP synthase (IspF). Subsequently, 9 is transformed to the acyclic compound (E) -4-hydroxy-3-methylbut-2-enyl diphosphate (HDMAPP; 10) with loss of two OH groups induced by the protein HDMAPP synthase (IspG). Finally, building blocks 5 and 6 are formed spontaneously from 10 in a reaction catalyzed by IPP/DMAPP synthase (IspH).

Although the alternative pathway for the biosynthesis of terpenoids has been wellestablished so far, the catalytic mechanism of some of the involved enzymes has not yet been fully elucidated. Thus, there is a high demand for all intermediates, especially isotope-labeled ones, to achieve further progress in understanding. Furthermore, research has shown that the non-mevalonate pathway serves as the unique source of terpenoids in numerous pathogenic eubacteria and in apicoplast-type protozoa, most notably Plasmodium, but it is absent in human beings who use the classic MVA pathway as one of the sources of terpenoids. All enzymes of the MEP route, most importantly the key proteins DXS, DXR, and IspH, therefore, represent attractive targets for the development of new biocides, which are of major interest in the present situation of bacterial resistance towards antibiotics being used clinically. As a consequence, there is also a demand for all of these compounds in large quantities.

Over the last three decades, general chemical and enzymatic methods have been established to prepare these intermediates by several research groups, due to the underlying biological importance. Here, we would like to review the published procedures for the preparation of the intermediates of the MEP pathway.

2. Synthesis of DX/DXP. – The synthesis of DXP $(1; Fig. 1)$ was carried out earlier, because it was already established as a precursor in the biosynthesis of vitamins B_1 and B_6 in some bacteria [2] [3], prior to the detection of its biological role in the MEP pathway. The dephosphorylated product of 1, namely 1-deoxy-D-xylulose $(DX; 11)$, is not a direct intermediate of the pathway, but it can be phosphorylated by Dxylulokinase in plants and microbes to form 1, and then effectively incorporated into final terpenoids by organisms [4], so it is regarded as a potential intermediate in the route.

Given to the biological significance of 1 and 11, some chemical and enzymatic methods for preparation of these two compounds, labeled with stable $(^{2}H, ^{13}C)$ or radioactive isotopes (³H, ¹⁴C), have been established by several groups. Generally, chemical routes are more suitable for the preparation of unlabeled or stable isotopelabeled compounds, whereas enzymatic ways are better for the synthesis of radioisotope-labeled precursors.

2.1. Chemical Preparation of 1 and 11. Around ten chemical methods have been established to furnish these two compounds by adopting two different synthetic strategies. One starts with chiral materials, for instance, D -tartrate and its derivatives that possess the same stereogenic centers as the target molecules, the other starts from achiral compounds, and the stereogenic centers are introduced at a later stage.

2.1.1. Strategy with Easily Available Chiral Compounds as Starting Materials. Making use of a chiral pool to prepare a target molecule is a common strategy in organic synthesis. D-Tartrate is a very useful chiral raw material possessing the same absolute configurations at $C(2)$ and $C(3)$ as $C(3)$ and $C(4)$ in $DX(P)$. Therefore, this compound and various derivatives thereof were invariably employed to prepare 1 and 11. Similarly, p-threitol, p-mannitol, and some carbohydrates have the same structural moiety as in the target molecules, and thus they were also quite frequently chosen as starting compounds to synthesize the two targets. Actually, a great majority of the published methods employed this strategy, and the common point was a C-methylation step, because the starting materials, e.g., D-tartrate or D-threitol, have one C-atom less than $DX(P)$. This strategy also allowed for a ready preparation of isotope labeled 1 and 11.

Begley and co-workers [5] reported an eight-step, stereocontrolled synthesis of 11 from dimethyl-p-tartrate in an overall yield of ca. 20% (Scheme 2). Mono-Obenzylation, reduction of the ester, and protection of the 1,2-diol unit with a isopropylidene group afforded alcohol 12. Dess–Martin oxidation of the alcohol, followed by Grignard addition and reoxidation, gave ketone 13. Subsequent acid hydrolysis and hydrogenolysis of 13 produced pentulose 11 as a mixture of ketone 11, and hemiacetals $11a$ and $11b$ in a ratio of $1:1:1$.

With isopropylidene-protected dimethyl D-tartrate as starting material, Boland and co-workers [6] [7] prepared isotope labeled 11 in 31% overall yield. This protocol allows for a flexible adaptation to other labeling patterns and isotopes by exploiting different combinations of labeled and unlabeled alkylating and reducing reagents (Scheme 3).

An example of this approach is the synthesis of $[5,5^{-2}H_2]$ -DX (*Scheme 4*) [7]. Compound 14 was selectively hydrolyzed to its monomethyl ester 15 by pig liver esterase (PLE) under controlled conditions. Reduction of 15 with Li²HBEt₃ gave the lithio salt of the isopropylidene-protected dideutero-threonate 16. Treatment of 16 with excess MeLi, followed by a non-protic workup with $CO₂$, provided the protected dideuterated xylulose 17. Removal of the protecting group by acid hydrolysis furnished $[5,5^{-2}H_2]$ -DX in an overall yield of *ca*. 37%. It should be mentioned that the methylation of 16 with excess MeLi also produced the dimethylated by-product, but this difficulty was overcome by rapidly bubbling dry $CO₂$ into the mixture to consume excess MeLi at the final stage of this conversion.

In the above discussed approaches, acetone was selected to protect the 1,2 dihydroxy group, and the main problem of this strategy was that the isopropylidene protecting group had to be removed under strictly controlled conditions, otherwise the by-products, mainly hemiacetal 11 (Scheme 2) and its dimer, turned out to be the major reaction products [8]. To avoid multiple deprotection steps and side reactions, Giner [9] developed a route with benzyl ethers as the sole protecting groups. Complete

benzylation, $LiAlH₄$ reduction, and then monobenzylation of diisopropyl D-tartrate 18 gave 2,3,4-tribenzyl-p-threitol 19; Swern oxidation and methylation provided fully benzylated alcohol 20. Swern oxidation of 20, followed by hydrogenation, yielded the target 11 (Scheme 5). A similar route was followed by Begley and co-workers [10] to prepare 1 in an overall yield of 5%.

An improved short way for large-scale synthesis of enantiomerically pure 11/1 from commercially available benzylidene dimethyl-p-tartrate (=dimethyl $(4R,5R)$ -2-phenyl-1,3-dioxolane-4,5-dicarboxylate; 21; for ²H-labeled targets) or benzylidene-Dthreitol $(=[(4S,5S)-2-phenyl-1,3-dioxolane-4,5-diy1]dimethanol; 22)$, in high overall yields (ca. 60%) and the possibility of introducing ²H-labeling at $C(5)$, was described by Rohmer and co-workers (Scheme 6) [11]. LiAlH₄(D_4) reduction of 21 produced protected D-threitol 22, and benzyl protection of the OH group of 22 gave 23a. Swern

oxidation of the 23a and Grignard methylation of the resulting aldehyde led to the secondary alcohol 24a as a mixture of two diastereoisomers. Swern oxidation of 24a under mild conditions with tetrapropylammonium perruthenate (TPAP)/N-methylmorpholine N -oxide (NMO) furnished protected 1-deoxy-D-xylulose 25a. Hydrogenolysis of the benzylidene and benzyl (Bn) groups quantitatively afforded DX (11). Preparation of DXP (1) was achieved in a similar way, the difference being that compound 22 was monoprotected with *(tert-butyl)dimethylsilyl (TBDMS)* rather than with a Bn group to produce 26. The other OH group of 26 was subsequently protected with dibenzyl N,N-diethylphosphoramidite in the presence of *meta*-chloroperbenzoic acid ($mCPBA$) to afford 27. This step not only screened the free OH of 26, but introduced a potential phosphate group as well. Then, removal of TBDMS of 27 with $Bu₄NF$ resulted in compound 23b, which was consequently converted to 1 by the same reaction sequence as for 11.

Besides the above depicted approaches from D-tartrate and its derivatives, there are some other approaches with D-threitol $[8] [12] [13]$ and D-mannitol [14] as chiral sources to synthesize 1 and 11, among which the procedure of *Poulter* was chosen as a representative (*Scheme 7*). The 3,4-acetonide of D -threitol, **28**, was monoprotected with triisopropylsilyl chloride (TIPSCl) to give the primary alcohol 29, which was then converted to secondary alcohol 30 with one more C-atom by Swern oxidation and MeMgBr methylation. Further oxidation of 30 with TPAP/NMO afforded the protected deoxyxylulose 31, both protecting groups of which could be removed under acidic conditions to give deoxyxylulose 11 (overall yield was ca. 70%). Meanwhile, intermediate 31 could be converted to the sugar phosphate 1 in four additional steps. Glycol protection of the ketone group, followed by Bu_4NF treatment of 31, provided the protected primary alcohol 32; then, phosphorylation of 32 with $P(\text{OMe})$ $\sqrt{TeCl₄}$ and subsequent acidic deprotection gave the target molecule 1 in an overall yield of *ca*.

58%. The advantage of this route is that it is sufficiently versatile to permit one to incorporate isotopes of H or C in 11 and, in addition, phosphate in 1 for biosynthetic experiments.

Synthesis of 11 and its phosphate 1 from carbohydrate is also a promising option. Indeed, the first preparation of 11 was achieved by this strategy (*Schemes 8* and 9) [2]. Addition of the anion of acetaldehyde trimethylene dithioacetal 33 in the presence of BuLi to 2,3-isopropylidene-p-glyceraldehyde 34 gave practically pure p-*erythro*-isomer 35 in protected form. Oxidation of 35 to a ketone, followed by N aB H_4 reduction, provided a 1:1 mixture of 35 and D -threo-isomer 36. Treatment of the mixture with BF₃ and HgO generated ketone 37 and its epimer 38 that could be resolved by column chromatography. Final acidic hydrolysis of 38 gave 11. This method is also suitable for introduction of different isotopes at different positions of 11 when labeled starting

materials or $NABD_4$ are used. In the same study, also p-arabinose (39) was used to prepare 11. NaBH₄ Reduction of the raw material generated arabitol (40) , which was then protected with benzylidene group to form 41 . The protected D-threose 42 was subsequently prepared by oxidation of the stannylidene derivative of 41 with (diacetoxy)iodobenzene. Methylation of the aldehyde group of 42 gave 43, which was converted to protected target 44 by reacting first with Bu_2SnO then Br_2 in the presence of 4-Å molecular sieves. After final acidic hydrolysis, compound 11 was obtained. This route allows labeling with ² H at both ends of the target molecule.

Starting from differently protected pentoses, Rohmer and co-workers [15] synthesized $[1,1,1$ - $^{2}H_{3}]$ -11 and $[4$ - $^{2}H]$ -11. Benzylation of the two OH groups of the commercial 1,2-O-isopropylidene- α -D-xylofuranose (45), which has the required configurations at the two stereogenic centers of 11 (Scheme 10), gave compound 46, acidic hydrolysis of which afforded 3,5-O-dibenzyl-D-xylofuranose (47). The free sugar was successively oxidized with $NaIO₄$ and $AgNO₃/KOH$ to give 2,4-O-dibenzyl-D*threo*-trihydroxybutanoic acid, which was subsequently esterified with CH_2N_2 to provide 48. Addition of MeLi to 48 gave compound 49, and, after catalytic hydrogenation, 11 was effectively obtained with an overall yield of 48%. The initial step of the synthesis of [4-2 H]-11 was the conversion of arabinose 50 to its thioacetal 51 (Scheme 11). Treatment of the thioacetal with *(tert-butyl)diphenylsilyl* chloride (TBDPSCl) resulted in a highly selective protection of the primary OH group to afford silyl ether 52. Deprotection of the thioacetal moiety in 52 by a Hg^{II} derivative, followed by protection with acetone, led to the arabinofuranose derivative 53. After Swern oxidation and then highly stereoselective reduction with N aBH₄(D₄), the configuration at $C(3)$ in 53 was inverted from (S) to (R) , and the xylofuranoside 54 was formed. The high stereoselectivity of this transformation is due to the presence of the 1.2-O-isopropylidene group on the β -face of the furanoside, directing the reduction of the oxo group by hydride (or deuteride) from the less-hindered α -face to afford 54 with the required configuration. Subsequent benzylation of the secondary OH group and removal of acetonide protection gave 55; NaIO₄ oxidation and immediate NaBH₄

reduction yielded 56. Benzylation of diol 56 and removal of the TBDPS groups provided 1,2,3-O-tribenzyl-D-threitol 57. One-pot Swern oxidation, nucleophilic addition of MeMgCl, and again Swern oxidation afforded 3,4,5-O-tribenzyl-1-deoxy-D-xylulose 58. Quantitative deprotection of 58 over 10% Pd/C gave 11 in 16% overall yield. This synthetic route allowed ²H-labeling at $C(1)$ and/or $C(4)$.

In the route developed by Serianni and co-workers [16], 11 was prepared in seven steps in a 21% overall yield from commercial $2,3$ - O -isopropylidene-D-erythrono-1,4lactone 59 (Scheme 12). NaBH₄ Reduction of 59 in H₂O gave sugar 60, which was successively alkylated with CH₂O to 61, and then methyl-glycosidated to afford β furanoside 62. Tosylation of 62 (\rightarrow 63), followed by LiAlH₄ reduction, gave 64, the deprotection of which yielded 2-methyl-D-erythrose (65) . The key transformation of 65 to the desired target 11 was mediated by $MoO₃$ in medium acidic solution.

2.1.2. Strategy with Achiral Compounds as Starting Materials. This strategy involved the synthesis of the C_5 chain from achiral precursors, and the stereogenic centers were introduced by Sharpless asymmetric dihydroxylation/epoxidation (Sharpless AD/AE) of achiral α , β -unsaturated aldehyde or ketone derivatives using a chiral OsO₄ complex. Often, the α , β -unsaturated C₅ compounds were prepared by Wittig reaction or by

reduction of substituted alkynes. The target molecules with different labels could be synthesized from labeled starting materials or by employing labeled reductants.

Besides the preparation of 11 from D-threitol, Spenser and co-workers [8] also accomplished the synthesis of $[2,3^{-13}C_2]$ -DX using this strategy with a 16% overall yield (Scheme 13). Condensation of O-benzylglycolaldehyde 66 with triethyl phosphono $[1,2-$ ¹³C₂]acetate (67) gave 68 ((E)-isomer exclusively). Diisobutylaluminium hydride (DIBALH) reduction of 68 afforded 69, which was converted to chiral compound 70 by using *Sharpless*'s AE procedure. After several more steps, **70** was transformed to the labeled key intermediate of this approach, *i.e.*, protected $[1,2^{-13}C_2]$ -D-threose 71. Grignard reaction of 71 with MeMgCl, then pyridinium dichromate (PDC) oxidation of the product 72 to give 73, followed by acidic hydrolysis, provided 13C-labeled 11.

The protocol developed by *Giner et al.* also involved this strategy (*Scheme 14*) [9] [17]. In the first route, raw material 66 with 74 in the presence of NaH produced enone 75 with a $12:1 (E)/(Z)$ ratio. Then, under modified *Sharpless* AD conditions, the enone was converted to benzylated 11, *i.e.*, compound 76, in high stereoselectivity and yield. Final debenzylation by catalytic hydrogenation afforded target 11. Only three

steps were involved in this synthesis, which represents the shortest one of all published procedures. Another advantage of this process is that $[3\text{-}^2\text{H}_1]\text{-}\mathbf{11}$ or $[4\text{-}^2\text{H}_1]\text{-}\mathbf{11}$ can also be obtained from deuterated 66 or 74. A second route started from propargyl alcohol 77, LiAlH₄ reduction of which gave the allylic alcohol 78 in (E) -configuration. Full deuteration at $C(3)$ was achieved by using $LiAlD₄$, while $C(4)$ was cleanly deuterated by quenching the reduction with D_2O . Swern oxidation of 78 generated 75, which could be transformed to the target 11 in two more steps.

Besides the Wittig reaction, Cox and Evitt [18] described a route to construct the enone 75. Benzyl propargyl ether (79) was reacted first with *Schwartz*'s reagent, then the mixture was treated with AcCl (80) and Pd(PPh₃)₂Cl₂ to yield the α , β -unsaturated ketone $75. \text{ OsO}_4$ Oxidation in the presence of hydroquinidine phthalizidine-1,4-diyl diether ((DHQD)₂PHAL), followed by catalytic hydrogenation, afforded 11 in 42% overall yield and 93% ee (Scheme 15). Meanwhile, the same authors prepared [3-²H]-1 and [4-²H]-1 from TBDMS-protected propargyl alcohol 81 (Scheme 16) [19][20]. In this reaction sequence, 81 was deprotonated with EtMgBr and then treated with MeCHO to prepare alcohol 82, which was subsequently treated with RedAl-D (Sodium bis(2-methoxyethoxy)aluminium deuteride), followed by a workup with H_2O , to afford the deuterated olefin 83, or with $LiAlH₄$ followed by $D₂O$ workup, to yield its isomer 84. Removal of TBDMS with Bu_iNF , selective phosphorylation of the resulting primary OH group, followed by *Dess–Martin* oxidation, gave the ketones 85 and 86, which were asymmetically dihydroxylated under the Sharpless AD conditions. The protected DXP isotopomers thus obtained were hydrogenolyzed to afford the differently deuterated 1 ($[3\text{-}^{2}H]$: yield 15.5%, er 92:8; $[4\text{-}^{2}H]$: yield 6.5%, er 92.5 : 7.5). Shortly after, Liu and co-workers [21] reported the synthesis of these two isotopomers by applying a similar strategy. The overall yields for both compounds were low ([3-²H]: 8.5%, [4-²H]: 7.0%), but the stereoselectivity in the *Sharpless* AD reaction was slightly higher than in the procedure of Cox and $Evitt$ (er > 20:1).

Scheme 15

In the method developed by Fechter et al. [22], commercial acrolein (87) was used as the α , β -unsaturated aldehyde to prepare 11 and, after a five-step conversion, the target molecule was obtained in a 47% overall yield and with 86% ee (Scheme 17). The biocatalytic transformation of 87 to cyanohydrin 88 by using the (S) -hydroxynitrile lyase, followed by TPS protection of the OH group to yield 89, and Grignard Celongation, gave ketone 90, asymmetric epoxidation of which with mCPBA provided 91/92 1:4 with the desired threo-epoxide 92 being the main product. Nucleophilic ringopening of 92 afforded 11.

2.2. Enzymatic Preparation of 1 and 11. In comparison to chemical syntheses, the enzymatic procedures always have the combined advantages of i) short reaction time,

 $ii)$ easy access to isotope-labeled products from commercially available precursors, $iii)$ virtually perfect stereochemical control, and iv) the simplicity of the one-pot reaction conditions in aqueous solution. Therefore, enzymatic synthesis of 1/11, especially multiple isotope labeled or radioactive isotope labeled 1/11 by using the recombinant 1 deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate synthase (DXS) from D-GAP 4 and pyruvate 3 represents an attractive alternative to chemical synthesis. However, the disadvantages of enzymatic procedures, $e.g., i$) the commercial unavailability of DXS, and ii) relative small preparation scale, are also obvious drawbacks.

Generally, DXS catalyzes the condensation reaction of 3 with 4 with the release of the carboxylic group of 3 as $CO₂$ in the presence of ThPP to produce 1. It can also mediate the reaction of D-glyceraldehyde ($D-GA$; 93) with 3 to form 11 under same conditions (*Scheme 18*). Although 4 is the natural substrate of DXS, it is seldom used to prepare 1, since commercially available preparations of 4 are either racemic, or enantiomerically impure and expensive. Therefore, the frequently employed enzymatic procedures for DXP synthesis usually involved the *in situ* generation of 4 from D fructose 1,6-biphosphate (94) in the mixture.

Rohmer and co-workers [23] applied the strategy outlined in Scheme 18 directly and prepared $[2^{-13}C]$ -1, $[2,3^{-13}C]$ -1, and $[2,4^{-13}C]$ -1 from $[2^{-13}C]$ -3, and unlabeled, as well as $[1^{-13}C]$ -4 or $[2^{-13}C]$ -4. The yield was ca. 30% after preparative TLC purification. In the approach developed by Begley and co-workers [10], 94 was employed to prepare compound 1 with a yield of 47% (*Scheme 19*). In this 'one-pot' reaction sequence, 94 was first split by aldolase to give the two triose phosphates, *i.e.*, 4 and its isomer 1,3dihydroxyacetone 3-phosphate (DHAP; 95). This in situ produced compound 4 immediately reacted with 3 to afford 1 in the presence of DXS and thiamine diphosphate (ThPP). The other in situ produced triose phosphate 95 was continuously interconverted to 4 by triose phosphate isomerase (TIM) until the end of the reaction. According to this scheme, differently labeled 1 can be easily synthesized, if isotopically labeled starting materials are used.

Kis, Eisenreich, and co-workers [24] subsequently established an improved 'onepot' synthesis of 1 from D-glucose (96) using the upstream enzymes of glycolysis pathway (Scheme 20). Phosphorylation of 96 with hexokinase under the assistance of ATP produced D -glucose 6-phosphate (97), which was transformed to D -fructose 6phosphate (98) by catalytic action of D-glucose 6-phosphate isomerase $(G6PI)$. Further ATP phosphorylation of 98 with fructose-6-phosphate kinase (F 6PK) gave 94. In the following steps, 94 was converted to 1 by combined actions of aldolase, triose-phoshate isomerase (TIM), and DXS in the presence of ThPP and 3 (*Scheme 19*). Compound 1 could be then purified through ion-exchange chromatography with a yield of ca. 50%. In the same way as outlined in *Scheme 19*, differently labeled 1 can also be easily synthesized starting from labeled materials. Preparations of some ¹³C-labeled 1 starting from D-glucose and pyruvate with distinct labels are compiled in the Table.

We assume that it should be the most straightforward way to prepare 1 enzymatically from 3 and 4, or its isomer DHAP (95), which can be synthesized chemically just prior to the enzymatic conversion. Based on this idea, we developed two methods $[25][26]$ to prepare the target compound 1. The first route used 4 as raw material, which was chemically prepared from $Pb(OAc)₄$ oxidation of 98 just before use. The second route started from 95 that could be obtained by the chemical procedure described by *Grosdemange–Billiard* and co-workers [27]. By both routes, 1 could be obtained in more than 80% yield and high purity ($> 95\%$) after purification by ionexchange chromatography.

3. Synthesis of 2-Methyl-D-erythritol (Me; 99)/2-Methyl-D-erythritol 4-Phosphate (MEP; 2). – As discussed above, sugar phosphate 1 is not only a precursor for the biosynthesis of terpenoids, but it is a precursor for the biosynthesis of vitamins B_1 and B_6 in some bacteria as well [2] [3]. Therefore, compound MEP (2) is regarded as the first committed intermediate of the non-mevalonate pathway, and several syntheses of 2 have been already reported. ME (99) is the dephosphorylated form of 2 (see Fig. 2). Different from compound 11 that can be phosphorylated by D -xylulokinase in plants and microbes to form 1 and then effectively incorporated into final terpenoids by organisms [4], 99 can not be converted to its phosphate 2 because no kinase that can phosphorylate 99 has been characterized in all the creatures investigated. Moreover, high concentration of compound 99 is even poisonous to hosts [28] [29]. The only exception is that the wild type E . *coli* can modestly incorporate 99 into the final terpenoids, but the mechanism of this incorporation still remains unknown [28]. There are also, however, some synthetic routes developed to prepare it.

$$
\sum_{1}^{QH} \sum_{3}^{QH} \sum_{A}^{A} \text{OR} \equiv \begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_2\text{OH} \\ \text{Me} \\ \text{H}-\text{OH} \\ \text{OH} \\ \text{OH} \\ \text{OH} \end{array} \equiv \begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_2\text{OH} \\ \text{OH} \\ \text{H}-\text{OH} \\ \text{H}_2\text{C}-\text{OR} \end{array}
$$
\n
$$
\sum_{H}^{QH} \sum_{B}^{A} \text{OR} \equiv \begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_2\text{OH} \\ \text{H}-\text{OH} \\ \text{H}_2\text{C}-\text{OR} \end{array}
$$
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$$
\text{Fig. 2. Structures of } MEP \text{ (2) and } ME \text{ (99)}
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A number of chemical syntheses of 2/99 were reported up to date, which adopted quite similar strategies as used in the preparation of DXP/DX. But the structural difference between $1/11$ and $2/99$ (1 and 11 have an unbranched C_5 -chain, whereas 2 and 99 possess a branced C_5 -skeleton), leads to different synthetic schemes and distinct ways for the introduction of isotope labels. Generally, two strategies were developed: 1) construction of substituted 2-methylbut-2-ene derivatives from achiral compounds, then to introduction of stereogenic centers by *Sharpless* AD or *Sharpless* AE reaction; 2) directly using chiral compounds as starting materials. A couple of enzymatic methods, which are used only for the preparation of 2, have been published, too.

3.1. Chemical Preparation of 2 and 99. 3.1.1. From Easily Available Achiral Compounds. Generally, a substituted 2-methylbut-2-ene needs to be constructed in this method before incorporation of stereogenic centers. The alkene is usually generated by a Wittig or modified Wittig reaction. It can also be obtained from reduction of proper but-2-yne derivatives or from butene derivatives that are available. The introduction of the two stereogenic centers is mostly accomplished by Sharpless asymmetric oxidation, except in the procedure developed by Raghavan and Sreekanth [30], in which the target 2 was acquired in ca. 4% overall yield after a twelve-step process.

In the method depicted by *Rohmer* and co-workers [28], 3-methylfuran-2(5 H)-one (100) was the starting material, and, after three steps, deuterated target molecule $[1,1^{-2}H_2]$ -2 was obtained in a high overall yield of 82% and an ee value of 80% (Scheme 21). LiAlD₄ Reduction of 100, followed by acetylation, gave 101. Subsequent Sharpless AD reaction yielded 102 , deacetylation of which afforded 99 with $C(1)$ labeled with ²H. Meanwhile, the authors prepared [1,1,4,4-²H₄]-99 from citraconic anhydride (103) employing the same process. But the 25% yield of $LiAlD₄$ reduction step rendered the preparation not practical. In another report [31], they described the synthesis of [3,5,5,5-2 H4]-99 from butyne-1,4-diol (104) in an eight-step procedure with a 64% overall yield and an 80% ee value (Scheme 22). TBDPS Protection of the OH groups of 104, followed by a Pd^{II}-catalyzed hydrostannation of the resulting symmetric

acetylenic derivative by using Bu₃SnD gave the monodeuterated compound 105 with (E) -configuration with up to 98% selectivity. Treatment of 105 with I_2 quantitatively led to the iodo derivative 106. The introduction of the $CD₃$ group was achieved by exposing 106 to cyanocuprate coupling conditions. Bu₄NF Deprotection and acetylation gave the deuterated diacetate 107 with the required (Z)-configuration. Enantioselective Sharpless dihydroxylation of this compound, followed by acetylation, provided the ME tetraacetate 108. Subsequent removal of the Ac groups under basic condition yielded the desired compound 99.

The two routes dicussed above afford deuterated 99 from simple and readily available raw materials with high yields and acceptable ee values. They would be more practical methods if they can be improved for the preparation of labeled 2, because the phosphate 2 serves more extensive purposes in the studies on the enzyme mechanisms, such as transformation of intermediates etc. of the MEP pathway.

Poulter and co-workers [32] [33] developed a method starting with the construction of the α , β -unsaturated ester derivatives 109, and 2 was obtained in an overall yield of ca. 30% and acceptable ee value (78%) (Scheme 23). Two distinct ways were attempted to furnish the key 109. In the first one, propane-1,2-diol 110 was treated with TBDMSCl or BnBr to afford the monoprotected alcohol, which was subsequently oxidized with TPAP/NMO to give the protected ketone 111. Still modifications of the

Horner–Emmons reaction were appield to convert 111 to the protected olefin, which was a mixture with the (Z) -isomer being the main component. Flash silica-gel column chromatography gave the (Z) -isomer 109 in an acceptable yield. The second synthesis of 109 started from compound 112, which was obtained from methyl ClCOOMe and the TBDMS-protected propargyl alcohol 113. This reaction gave the (Z) -isomer exclusively with a relatively low yield (34%). Then, reduction of 109 with DIBAlH or LiAlH4 , followed by phosphorylation with dimethyl chlorophosphate or with tribenzyl phosphite in the presence of I_2 , gave substituted 2-methylbut-2-enyl phosphate 114. AD-mix- β Oxidation of 114, followed by deprotection with TMSBr (removal of TBDMS or Me) or catalytic hydrogenation (removal of Bn) afforded target compound 2.

Starting from dimethyl fumarate 115, *Fontana et al.* [34] [35] completed the syntheses of 2 and 99 by applying the same strategy used before by *Poulter* and coworkers (Scheme 24). The difference is that the key precursor, α , β -unsaturated ester derivative 109, in *Scheme 23* has a (Z) -configuration, whereas the key precursor monobenzylated methylbut-2-enol **118** in this route possesses an (E) -configuration. In this synthesis, ozonolysis of 115, followed by Wittig reaction with the commercial triphenylphosphoranylidene compound gave the (E) -isomer of the formyl derivative 116 with 99% selectivity. Direct NaBH₄ reduction and subsequent benzylation of 116 yielded ester 117. Reduction of 117 with DIBAlH led to desired substrate 118 required for the Sharpless epoxidation. A Payne rearrangement was used to open the epoxide 119 with very high stereoselectivity. Hydrogenolysis of the triol 120 gave 99 in 84% ee and 31% overall yield. To obtain 2, compound 118 was converted to threo-epoxide 121 by *Sharpless* epoxidation with Ti(i-PrO)₄ and (–)-diethyl tartrate ((–)-DET), which was easily phosphorylated by using freshly prepared (BrO) ₃P and I₂ to result in dibenzyl phosphate 122 . Acidic ring opening of 122 in DMSO/H₂O inverted the configuration at the quaternary C-atom to give the desired erythro-derivative 123. Final removal of the Bn groups by catalytic hydrogenation gave 2 with an overall yield of 51% and an ee value of 72%.

Giner et al. [36] constructed monobenzylated methylbutenol 124 in the same way as described above (Scheme 25). Sharpless AE reaction, followed by acetylation, led to the epoxy ester 125 , which was then converted to a 1:1 mixture of primary and secondary acetates 126 in epoxy ester/orthoester rearrangement under acidic conditions via intermediates 127 and 128. Successive removal of the protecting groups furnished, via 129, compound 99 with an 86% ee value.

Scheme 25

3.1.2. From Easily Available Chiral Compounds. Same of the strategies utilized for the preparation of DX/DXP started from readily available chiral compounds, such as carbohydrates and sugar alcohols, which are choices with highest priority for the synthesis of ME/MEP (99/2).

The first synthesis of 99, published in 1980, commenced from 1-deoxy-Derythrulose acetonide $(130; Scheme 26)$ [37]. Compound 130 was converted to a epoxide mixture 131/132 by the *Johnson–Corey–Chaykovsky* reaction or by reaction with CH_2N_2 . Base hydrolysis of the epoxides provided a mixture of diols, 133/134, from which the dominating 133 crystallized, leaving an oil that was fairly pure 134. Acid hydrolysis of 133 afforded the target 99 in an overall yield of ca. 40%.

In the protocol developed by Rohmer and co-workers [38] [39], 1,2-O-isopropylidene- α -p-xylofuranose (45) was the chiral source, and, after eight steps, the target molecules 2 and 99 were obtained in overall yields of 31 and 41%, respectively, by employing different protection strategies (Scheme 27). Selective protection of primary alcohol 45 with TBDPSCl or (BnO) ₂POCl afforded compound 135. The (BnO) ₂PO protecting group introduced in 135b is also a potential phosphate moiety in target 2. Swern (\rightarrow 135a) or PDC (\rightarrow 135b) oxidation, followed by stereoselective methylation, furnished compound 136 with the desired configuration at $C(3)$. The high stereoselectivity of the methylation step was due to the higher hindrance of the α -face of 136, which resulted in the addition of the Me group from the less-hindered β -face. Subsequent removal of TBDPS protecting group of $136a$ with Bu₄NF and then benzylation led to compound 137. Acid hydrolysis cleaved the acetonide group to give compound 138 , which was oxidized with NaIO₄ to aldehyde 139. Reduction of the aldehyde group with N a BH ₄ yielded compound 140, and debenzylation by standard hydrogenation afforded 2-methyl-p-erythritol (99) or its phosphate 2.

Preparation of compound 2 from D-arabinose also has been reported. Koumbis et al. [40] synthesized lactol 61 easily from D-arabinose acetonide. Tosylation of the Chydroxymethyl derivative 61 gave tosylate 141. LiAlH₄ Reduction of 141 afforded methyl-D-erythritol acetonide 142, which was then treated with TBDPSCl to provide alcohol 143. Benzylation of the OH group of 143 gave compound 144, and by removal of the TBDPS protecting group with Bu_4NF , 145 was obtained with its free OH group at $C(4)$. Subsequent phosphorylation of the OH with $(BnO)3P/I_2$ gave 146. After catalytic

hydrogenation, 146 was converted to the target molecule 2. The reaction sequence involved seven steps with an overall yield of 37% (Scheme 28).

In the method developed by *Coates* and co-workers $[41][42]$, D-arabitol was used for the synthesis of the compounds 2 and 99, and their derivatives (Scheme 29). Acetylation of D-arabitol with benzaldehyde gave the 1,3-benzylidene derivative 147. Oxidative cleavage of the vicinal diol with $NaIO₄$ and immediate reduction of the resulting unstable aldehyde with N a BH ₄ afforded 1,3-O-benzylidene-D-threitol (148).

Selective protection of the primary OH group with tert-butyldimethylsilyl chloride (TBDMSCl) produced dioxanol 149, which was then oxidized with TPAP in the presence of NMO to give dioxanone 150. Attempts to convert 149 to 150 by the Swern procedure, and with PCC and PDC oxidants either failed completely or afforded unacceptably low yields. Methylation of 150 with MeMgBr gave rise to compound 151 with high stereoselectivity (ee $> 90\%$) due to the presence of Bn and TBDMS directing groups. Cleavage of the TBDMS group in 151 with Bu₄NF afforded 1,3-benzylidene-2methylerythritol (152). Subsequent catalytic hydrogenation provided the desired tetrol 99 (seven steps, 33% overall yield). Regioselective monophosphorylation of 152 with (BnO) ₂POCl resulted in phosphorylated alcohol 153. Simultaneous hydrogenolysis of the primary dibenzyl phosphate and the benzylidene ring of 153 generated 2 (eight steps, 30% overall yield).

Bacher, Zenk, and co-workers $[43]$ prepared 2 from p-mannitol as a chiral source. But the long route (14 steps) and the low overall yield $(ca. 9\%)$ rendered it impractical.

3.2. Enzymatic Preparation of 2. DXP (1) and MEP (2) can also be prepared by an enzymatic method. But, because MEP synthase DXR is yet not commercialized, and its substrate 1 is expensive, it is not economically favorable to synthesize 2 by the direct enzymatic conversion. Rohdich and co-workers reported the enzymatic preparation of 2 from D-glucose in a quite similar manner as the enzymatic synthesis of 1 by the same authors [44]. The only difference is that DXR and coenzyme NADPH need to be supplemented to the mixture (Scheme 20).

4. Synthesis of CDPME (7), CDPMEP (8), and cMEPP (9). – 4-Diphosphocytidyl-2-methyl-D-erythritol (CDPME; 7; Scheme 1), 4-diphosphocytidyl-2-methyl-Derythritol 2-phosphate (CDPMEP; $\mathbf{8}$; Scheme 1), and 2-methyl-D-erythritol 2,4-cyclodiphosphate (cMEPP; 9; Scheme 1) are three other important intermediates in the MEP pathway. The biological significance of these three intermediates is that, through them, the mono-phosphate moiety of MEP (2) is converted to pyrophosphate group which is essential for the biological activities of the downstream intermediates IPP (5) and DMAPP (6), and OH groups at $C(2)$ and $C(3)$ of 2 are eliminated. Compound 9 has been isolated earlier from cultures of *Desulfovibrio desulfuricans* and *Corynebac*terium ammoniagenes bacteria, and its biological role was assigned in terms of a protective function due to its accumulation in bacteria, exposed to oxidative stress [45] [46]. It had been determined tentatively as a dead-end product derived from 2, before it was established as a genuine intermediate of MEP pathway [47]. From the viewpoint of chemical structure, these three compounds can be considered as the derivatives of 2, and thus the synthetic methods for them could be an extension of or related to the methods for the preparation of 2 or 99.

4.1. Synthesis of CDPME (7). Koppisch and Poulter [33] developed a five-step method to synthesize MEP (2) from (benzyloxy) acetone 111 (*Scheme 23*) and extended it to the preparation of 7. Cytidine monophosphate (CMP; 154) was first converted to its triethylammonium salt 155 by titration with Et_3N . The nucleoside phosphate 155 thus obtained was activated by successive treatment with trifluoroacetic anhydride (TFAA) and 1-methyl-1H-imidazole (MeIu) and then coupled with the tributylammonium salt of 2 to give compound 7 in a yield of 40% (Scheme 30).

Bacher and co-workers [48] reported the enzymatic preparation of 7 from Dglucose using by strategies similar to those for the syntheses of 1 (Scheme 20) [24] and 2 [44], which were developed by the same group. By employing this protocol, different ¹³C-labeled compounds 7 were prepared. *Crick* and co-workers [49] set up a chemoenzymatic procedure to obtain 7, by which MEP (2) was synthesized chemically almost in the same way as published by *Rohmer* and co-workers (*Scheme 27*) [38], and 7 was subsequently obtained enzymatically by coupling of 2 and cytidine triphosphate in the presence of enzyme IspD.

4.2. Synthesis of CDPMEP (8). Crick and co-workers [50] tried two different ways to synthesize 8 in which compounds 151 and 153 (*Scheme 29*) were prepared from Darabitol by using the alike pathway set up by Coates and co-workers [41] [42] for MEP (2). In one way (*Scheme 31, Path a*), the tertiary OH group of **151** was phosphorylated by PCl₃, followed by benzylation with BnOH and subsequent oxidation with a H_2O_2 solution to yield dibenzyl phosphate 156. Removal of the TBDMS group in 156 by $Et₃N·HF$ and phosphorylation of the primary OH group thus produced using $(MeO)₂POCl$ and deprotection of the Me group in the dimethyl phosphate moiety by iodotrimethylsilane (TMSI) gave 157. Then, coupling the Bn-protected methylerythritol 157 with cytidine monophosphate (CMP), followed by hydrogenolysis of 158, afforded the final product 8 in an overall yield of only 3%. The very low yield of this pathway was due to the 8% yield of the step from 157 to 158, which might be largely improved by activating CMP beforehand by the method developed by Marlow and Kiessling [51]. The alternative way (Scheme 31, Path b) gave the target compound $\boldsymbol{8}$ in an acceptable overall yield (26%). The tertiary OH group of 153 was phosphorylated by PCl₃, followed by ethylation and subsequent oxidation with H_2O_2 , to yield biphosphate 159. Debenzylation resulted in phosphorylated 2-hydroxy-MEP 160. Coupling 160 with CMP afforded compound 161; after removal of the ethyl in diethyl phosphate moiety with TMSI, 8 was obtained.

The enzymatic route for preparation of compound 8 was also reported by Illarionova et al. [52], as an extension of the procedures developed for the synthesis of its precursors 1 (Scheme 20) [24], 2 [44], and 7 [48].

4.3. Synthesis of cMEPP (9). The first preparation of 9 was published by *Giner* and Ferris [53], which was based on their approach for ME (99) from monobenzylated methylbutenol 124 via biomimetic epoxy ester/ortho ester rearrangement [36]. 1,3- Diacetylated ME 162 was bisphosphorylated by the phosphoramidite method to provide Bn-protected diphosphate 163, which, upon hydrogenolysis gave 2-methyl-Derythritol 1,3-diacetate 2,4-diphosphate (164). Carbodiimide coupling of 164 with 1 ethyl-3-[3-(dimethylamino)propyl]carbodiimide (EDC) smoothly resulted in the formation of the protected cyclic pyrophosphate 165 that could be converted to 9 by saponification of the acetates with $NH₄OH$. The overall yield of this route was ca. 42% from compound 162 (Scheme 32).

When preparing 2, Coates and co-workers [41] [42] prepared compound 152 (Scheme 29), from which they also achieved the synthesis of 9. Double phosphorylation of 152 by the phosphoramidite method furnished Bn-protected bisphosphate 166 (Scheme 33). Selective removal of the Bn groups produced bisphosphate 167 as its tetraammonium salt, which was readily transformed to cyclic diphosphate 168 in the presence of 1,1-carbonyldiimidazole in anhydrous DMSO. Further hydrogenolysis provided the target compound 9 with an overall yield of little less than 50% calculated from 150.

The most recent chemical synthesis of 9 was reported by Narayanasamy and Crick [54]. 1,2-O-Isopropylidene- α -D-xylofuranose (45; Scheme 27) was taken as the chiral source, and after ten steps, 9 was obtained in an overall yield of less than 10%.

Compound 45 was first converted to 136b by the same strategy reported by Rohmer and co-workers [38] [39]. Phosphorylation of the tertiary OH group with dibenzyl diisopropyl phosphoramidite and then oxidation gave bisphosphate 169, which was further transformed to formyl-bisphosphate 170 by acid hydrolysis and subsequent $NaIO₄$ oxidation. Reduction of 170 with $NaBH₄$, followed by hydrogenolysis afforded 171 with phosphorylated OH groups at $C(2)$ and $C(4)$ (*Scheme 34*). Subsequent cyclization using 1,1'-carbonyldiimidazole (CDI) provided 9 in only 20% yield due to the presence of the free OH groups in 171. So, a different route that was similar to the published process [38] [39] was utilized to prepare the cyclic diphosphate from 171 by protecting its free OH groups with Ac_2O leading to 163 (Scheme 27), which further underwent hydrogenolysis, cyclization, and deprotection to give 9 (Scheme 34).

The first enzymatic preparation of 9 was established by *Rohdich* and co-workers [55]. This rapid one-pot strategy developed from the enzymatic synthesis of isotopelabeled DXP (1; Scheme 20) [24] afforded a wide variety of isotopomers of 9 in relatively high quantity. The reaction sequences involving up to ten forward reaction steps and up to 15 enzymes led to a $50 - 80\%$ overall yield of purified product. Zenk and co-workers [56] developed a facile enzymatic preparation of 9 in highly radioactive form by using spinach (Spinacea oleracea) chloroplast stroma that contained all the MEP-pathway enzymes from highly radioactive 1. Incubation of $[$ ¹⁴C $]$ -1 with NADPH, CTP, ATP, Mg^{2+} , Mn^{2+} , as cofactors necessary for the pathway enzymes DXR, ispD, ispE, and ispF, as well as NaF, an inhibitor of phosphatases, led to the formation of the desired cyclic diphosphate 9 in a yield of more than 80% after purification. Meanwhile, this method could also be adapted to prepare ¹³C-labeled **9**, when $[$ ¹³C $]$ -**1** was taken as starting material. Recently, Oldfield and co-workers [57] published an enzymatic synthesis of [U-13C]-9 utilizing the phenomenon that some kind of bacterium, for example, C. ammoniagenes, can accumulate 9 when it was exposed to oxidative stress. Growth of the bacterium on $[U^{-13}C]$ -D-Glucose under oxidative stress condition afforded $[U^{-13}C]$ -9, but the yield was not reported.

5. Synthesis of HDMAPP (10). – By using the NMR technology, Rohdich, Eisenreich, and co-workers [58] determined that the cyclic diphosphate 9 was converted to IPP/DMAPP (5/6) through (E) -4-hydroxy-3-methylbut-2-enyl diphosphate (HDMAPP; 10; Scheme 1). Almost at same time, Zenk and co-workers [59] completed the synthesis of isotope-labeled 10 and verified its intermediacy in the MEP pathway by incorporating tritiated 10 into phytoene. From then on, compound 10 has drawn a lot of attention as the last MEP pathway-specific intermediate, and several chemical and enzymatic syntheses of this compound have been published.

Ward and Beale [60] accomplished the first total synthesis of unlabeled 10 starting from 3-methylbut-2-enol (172) with low yield, because the pyrophosphorylation step gave only a 14% yield of purified product (Scheme 35). Acetylation of alcohol 172 with Ac₂O almost quantitatively afforded 173. Regioselective allylic hydroxylation at the (E) -methyl group of 173 using SeO₂ and 'BuOOH, followed by protection of the resulted primary OH group with dihydropyran, led to the ester 174. Base hydrolysis of 174 and subsequent treatment of the product with N-chlorosuccinimide (NCS) furnished the chloro derivative 175. Then, after reaction with tris(tetrabutylammonium) hydrogen diphosphate to yield compound 176 and removal of the THP group with aqueous acid, the target compound 10 was obtained.

Shortly after, Rohmer and co-workers [61] described a four-step process for unlabeled 10 starting from commercial methyl 2-bromopropionate (177) in a 24% overall yield (Scheme 36). The C-atom framework of the target molecule was constructed by a Wittig reaction. The Wittig reagent derived from 177 was condensed with glyoxylic acid monohydrate to produce only acid 178 with the desired configuration. Selective $BH₃/THF$ reduction of 178 yielded 179, which was brominated

with PB r_3 to afford bromido ester 180. Reduction of 180 with DIBAlH, followed by pyrophosphorylation, resulted in the diphosphate 10.

Chemical preparation of labeled 10 was first completed by Zenk and co-workers [59] from commercial 2-ethenyl-2-methyloxirane (181; Scheme 37). Treatment of 181 with CuBr₂ in the presence of $Li₂CO₃$ gave bromoaldehyde 182, which was subsequently pyrophosphorylated with bis(tetrabutylammonium) dihydrogen pyrophosphate to afford formyl-pyrophosphate 183, the key intermediate of the route. Reduction of the CHO group of 183 with NaB²H₄ provided 10 with its $C(4)$ being deuterated. Tritiation at the same location was achieved by reduction with $NaB^{3}H_{4}$. The reported overall yield of this method was only ca. 7%, which could be highly improved by purifying compound 183 before the reduction. Actually, the best overall yield we have ever achieved was ca. 30%. The advantage of this procedure is that one can introduce the isotope at the very last step of the synthesis, which can i) lower isotope loss during preparation; ii) reduce the possibility of radioactive contamination; and *iii*) ease the synthetic operation, although the overall yield is only medium.

Almost at same time, Eisenreich and co-workers [62] reported their six-step synthesis of 10 from hydroxy-acetone 184 and (ethoxycarbonylmethenyl)(triphenyl)phosphorane (185) with an overall yield of 38% (Scheme 38). Protection of the primary OH group of 184 with dihydropyran gave tetrahydropyranyl (THP) derivative 186. Wittig reaction of 186 with 185 led to a 6:1 mixture of (E) - and (Z) -187, from which the pure (E) -isomer was separated by preparative HPLC. DIBAlH Reduction of (E) -187, followed by treatment with TsCl in the presence of 4-(dimethylamino)pyridine (DMAP), provided the chloro derivative 188, which was subsequently converted to 10 first by pyrophosphorylation and then acid deprotection of the THP group.

Fox and Poulter [63] constructed chloro aldehyde 189, an analog of compound 182 (Scheme 37), and, from 189, target 10 was obtained after reduction of the aldehyde group with NaBH₄ (or NaB²H₄) and pyrophosphorylation with a yield of *ca*. 65%

(Scheme 39). Compound 189 was obtained from compound 190 via compound 191. The yield of the two steps from 189 to 10 was much higher than that of the steps from 182 to 10 in Scheme 37. So, reduction of the halo aldehyde prior to the introduction of pyrophosphate group should be a good choice for the preparation of unlabeled and ² Hlabeled 10, but it is better to apply *Scheme 37* when preparing tritiated compound 10.

Taking the advantages of the processes of Zenk and Poulter together, Rohdich and co-workers [64] synthesized 10 from compound 181 (Scheme 37). Unlabeled 10 was prepared in a two-step procedure, in which 181 was first converted into 192 (Scheme 39), then pyrophosphorylation of the chloro alcohol afforded 10 in an overall yield of 72%. For tritiated 10, chloro aldehyde 189 obtained from 181 without any detectable (Z) -isomer was protected by conversion to acetal 193, which was then reacted with tris(tetrabutylammonium) pyrophosphate to afford acetal pyrophosphate **194**. Acid hydrolysis of **194**, followed by reduction with NaB^3H_4 , gave $[4\text{-}{}^3\text{H}]$ -**10** in an overall yield of 15% (Scheme 40).

Methyl group-deuterated 10 ($[5,5,5^{-2}H_3]$ -10) was prepared by *Oldfield* and coworkers [57] by a nine-step procedure with a low overall yield (Scheme 41). Compound 195 (C₅ skeleton with (E) -configration) was built up by Wittig reaction of bromo ester 196 that was transformed from (D_6) propanoic acid (197), by three consecutive conversions, and glyoxylic acid monohydrate. Borane reduction of 195, followed by bromination with $PBr₃$ gave deuterated bromo ester 198. Further reduction of the ester group with DIBAlH produced bromo alcohol 199 that was subsequently pyrophosphorylated to afford the deuterated 10. In addition, the authors also prepared $[U^{-13}C]$ -10 from $[U^{-13}C]$ -9 by using A. aeolicus IspH protein as catalyst.

Zenk and co-workers [65] found that the chromoplasts from Capsium annuum, the enzyme activity of which was impaired by freeze-thawing, accumulate this intermediate. Based on this observation, they developed a cell-free system allowing the synthesis of 10 with labels in various positions from upstream intermediates. With the cyclic diphosphate 9 as substrate, 10 could be obtained with yields of ca. 50%.

6. Openings and Further Direction. – It has been more than two decades since the MEP terpenoid biosynthetic pathway was found. Although several aspects of the pathway, for example, genes, enzymes, intermediates etc., have been characterized up

to date, there are still unclear issues that deserve further investigation. The main problems lie in two aspects:

1) The mechanical insights into the MEP pathway enzymes;

2) Screening of antimicrobial drugs using the MEP pathway as a target.

So far, several mechanical studies of the MEP pathway enzymes have been carried out, and their catalytic mechanisms have been basically elucidated. However, the details of catalysis of the enzymes still need to be complemented. DXS is one of the key enzymes of this pathway which is responsible for the formation of the key intermediate DXP (1) that is also a precursor for the biosynthesis of vitamins B_1 and B_6 in some bacteria [2] [3]. However, little research on its catalytic function has been carried out. Rohmer et al. [66] proposed a biogenetic process of DXS according to the catalytic action of known ThPP-dependent enzymes (Scheme 42). Eubanks and Poulter [67] found out that DXS follows an ordered kinetic mechanism which is in contrast to the classical ping-pong kinetic mechanism of DXS homolog including transketolase and acetolactate synthase. Crystal structures of E. coli and Deinococcus radiodurans DXS showed that the subunit of the enzyme is formed by three domains with its active site being located between domains I and II of the same monomer of the homodimer,

whereas that of transketolase is located at the interface of the dimer [68]. A more recent study of DXS uncovered flexibility in the acceptor substrate binding pocket for nonpolar substrates and disclosed that pyruvate 3 can act as both donor and acceptor substrate [69]. No more details of this protein is available up to date, and the lack of information not only hampers further understanding of its catalytic mechanism, but also hinders the search for its inhibitors.

Although the catalytic mechanisms of DXR has been intensively investigated, and a retro-aldol/aldol mechanism has been accepted (Scheme 43, Path b) [19] [21], some discrepancies need further interpretation. Rohmer and co-workers [70] incubated hydroxy-acetone 200 and glycolaldehyde phosphate 201, the two putative fragments expected from the retro-aldol cleavage, with DXR and all the cofactors, and found that no MEP was formed. Furthermore, they observed that the two compounds, either alone or together at concentrations of up to 1 mm, did not inhibit the production of MEP (2) from DXP (1). Based on this observation, they concluded that these two compounds seemingly are not recognized by DXR. *Rohdich*, *Eisenreich*, and co-workers [71] found that, when a mixture of $[1¹³C₁]²$ and $[3¹³C₁]²$ was used as substrate, no fragment exchange could be detected by ¹³C-NMR spectroscopy in the reverse reaction. In addition, they also found that exogenous 200 was not incorporated in the enzyme product. These two results seem more likely to support the α -ketol mechanism (Scheme 43, Path a), and their explanation in the framework of the retro-aldol/aldol mechanism remains unsolved.

As for the screening of antimicrobial drugs, a number of studies have been performed, mainly taking DXR as a target, and a long-known antibiotic fosmidomycin and its acetyl congener FR900098 have been established as its inhibitors, which are also active against bacteria as well as the malaria parasite. But, unfortunately, no MEPpathway inhibitor is presently in clinical use despite large screening programs and many attempts to set up fast enzymatic tests designed for high-throughput screening. Currently, only one report from the screening of natural-product libraries was found [72]. Therefore, seeking MEP pathway inhibitors from natural sources represents an unexplored field.

Based on the above discussion, it is quite clear that the substrates of the MEPpathway enzymes, particularly the isotope labeled ones, are absolutely indispensable for the complete interpretation of the enzyme mechanisms and for the screening of the MEP-pathway inhibitors. Thus, establishing more practical methods for the preparation of all the intermediates of the pathway with higher efficiency is a future direction.

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