

Kinetic studies. All reactions were carried out with uniformly [α - 32 P]ATP-labelled ribozyme and excess AMP-aminoacyl-Bio substrate (≥ 100 -fold) in 50 mM HEPES (pH 7.4), 300 mM KCl and 50 mM MgCl₂ at 25 °C. The RNA was preincubated with buffer and Mg²⁺ for 10 min at 50 °C, and cooled to room temperature (~20 min). The reaction was initiated by addition of AMP-aminoacyl-Bio substrate. At each time point, 7 or 8 aliquots of 2 μ l were removed from 20 μ l reaction mixtures and quenched in dry ice with one volume of 'stop' buffer containing 100 mM HEPES (pH 7.4) and 100 mM EDTA. Samples were incubated with 10 μ g streptavidin in binding buffer at room temperature before mixing with 0.25 volumes of 90% formamide loading buffer. Biotinylated RNA products were separated by electrophoresis on 8% polyacrylamide/7 M urea gels (1,000 V at 4 °C for 2 h). The fraction of product formation relative to total substrate and product at each time point was quantified with a Molecular Dynamics PhosphorImager. Reactions reached 30–50% completion and rates were corrected for this end point.

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Supplementary information is available on Nature's World-Wide Web site (<http://www.nature.com>) or as paper copy from Mary Sheehan at the London editorial office of Nature.

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Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to T.R.C. (e-mail: thomas.cech@colorado.edu).

correction

Synthesis of epothilones A and B in solid and solution phase

K. C. Nicolaou, N. Winssinger, J. Pastor, S. Ninkovic, F. Sarabia, Y. He, D. Vourloumis, Z. Yang, T. Li, P. Giannakakou & E. Hamel

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We wish to add that, as well as a total synthesis of epothilone B, reference 19 includes biological data for compound 23 and other congeners similar to those reported in our Letter. □

retraction

High levels of genetic change in rodents of Chernobyl

Robert J. Baker, Ronald A. Van Den Bussche, Amanda J. Wright, Lara E. Wiggins, Meredith J. Hamilton, Erin P. Reat, Michael H. Smith, Michael D. Lomakin & Ronald K. Chesser

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We previously reported an elevated DNA substitution rate in the mitochondrial cytochrome *b* gene of voles from Chernobyl. Our conclusion was based on a higher level of variation in rodents living in the zone of radioactivity than in rodents from control regions. Those DNA sequences were obtained by manual sequencing of cloned PCR products. We have subsequently attempted to replicate these findings with direct, automated sequencing of PCR products from the same animals. We found discrepancies between these sequences generated by direct automated methods and those previously reported. Re-examination of the original autoradiograms revealed that the elevated levels of variation were largely a product of human error in scoring, aligning and recording the sequences. This error has been confirmed by automated sequencing of a selected sample of the original clones on which the manual sequences were based. There remains a higher rate of substitution in the nine animals from the radioactive zone than in the ten animals from the control population, but the difference is not statistically significant with this sample size. There is variation among the clones from the mice living in the radioactive regions, including clones from the embryos. The two mutations reported in the embryos do not qualify as substitutions based on the standard set forth in the methods and materials that changes be present in multiple clones. The significance (if any) of this variation remains to be determined. The data do not support a mutation rate as high as that reported, and we retract that conclusion. □

magnetoresistive component in CMR materials arising at grain boundaries at high temperatures.

Our highly symmetric Wheatstone-bridge structures afford new insight into the underlying mechanisms that contribute to CMR phenomena. The technique is able to isolate the specific contribution of a single grain boundary and quantify the role of the imposed magnetic substructure. In addition, the discovery of a positive magnetoresistance at higher temperatures underlines the significance of the cross-over between transport regimes near T_c . The dramatic effect induced by the introduction of a single grain boundary demonstrates the extreme sensitivity of the electrical conduction processes in CMR materials to microstructural defects, and the results should stimulate further experimental and theoretical study of these materials.

The potential applications of CMR materials have been limited up to now by the very high magnetic fields required to induce significant changes in resistance. Our findings immediately provide a method by which controllable low-field magnetoresistive devices may be simply fabricated from CMR materials. Moreover, such devices would have the potential to operate beyond the narrow range of operating temperatures of more simply configured CMR material systems and at lower absolute resistivities. The fields required to induce the low-field magnetoresistance in the grain boundary devices are comparable to those required for existing magnetoresistive structures such as spin valves. The use of high- T_c materials (such as $\text{La}_{0.7}\text{Sr}_{0.3}\text{MnO}_3$) should permit room-temperature operation, and a greater understanding of the basic physics and improvements in materials properties are likely to increase the magnetoresistance achievable. □

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Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to N.D.M. (e-mail: ndm12@cus.cam.ac.uk).

Synthesis of epothilones A and B in solid and solution phase

K. C. Nicolaou*, N. Winssinger*, J. Pastor*, S. Ninkovic*, F. Sarabia*, Y. He*, D. Vourloumis*, Z. Yang*, T. Li, P. Giannakakou† & E. Hamel‡

* Department of Chemistry and The Skaggs Institute for Chemical Biology, The Scripps Research Institute, 10550 North Torrey Pines Road, La Jolla, California 92037, USA, and Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, University of California San Diego, 9500 Gilman Drive, La Jolla, California 92093, USA

† Medicine Branch, DCS, NCI, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland 20892, USA

‡ Laboratory of Drug Discovery Research and Development, Developmental Therapeutics Program, DCTDC, NCI, Frederick Cancer Research and Development Center, Frederick, Maryland 21702, USA

Epothilones A and B, two compounds that have been recently isolated¹ from myxobacterium *Sorangium cellulosum* strain 90, have generated intense interest^{2–16} among chemists, biologists and clinicians owing to the structural complexity, unusual mechanism of interaction with microtubules and anticancer potential of these molecules. Like taxol* (refs 17, 18), they exhibit cytotoxicity against tumour cells by inducing microtubule assembly and stabilization^{3,4}, even in taxol-resistant cell lines. Following the structural elucidation of these molecules by X-ray crystallography in 1996¹, several syntheses of epothilones A (refs 12–16) and B (ref. 19) have been reported, indicative of the potential importance of these molecules in the cancer field. Here we report the first solid-phase synthesis of epothilone A, the total synthesis of epothilone B, and the generation of a small epothilone library. The solid-phase synthesis applied here to epothilone A could open up new possibilities in natural-product synthesis and, together with solution-phase synthesis of other epothilones, paves the way for the generation of large combinatorial libraries of these important molecules for biological screening.

The strategy for the solid-phase synthesis of epothilone A (1) was based on the retrosynthetic analysis indicated in Fig. 1 (refs 5, 13). Thus, it was anticipated that the three requisite fragments (5–7), one on a solid support (7), would be coupled together sequentially through an aldol reaction, an esterification reaction, and an olefin metathesis reaction^{20–25}, the latter simultaneously cyclizing and liberating the product from the solid support (6 + 7 + 5! 4! 3). A simple desilylation and epoxidation reaction would then complete the total synthesis of epothilone A (1) and analogues thereof (3! 1). The outlook for obtaining two products at each of the aldol, metathesis and epoxidation steps was considered advantageous for the purposes of library generation.

Merrifield resin (8, Fig. 2) was converted to phosphonium salt 9 in >90% yield by sequential reaction with: (1) 1,4-butanediol-NaH-*n*-Bu₄NI cat.; (2) Ph₃P-iodine-imidazole; and (3) Ph₃P (for abbreviations see figure legends). Ylide 10²⁶, generated from 9 by the action of NaHMDS in THF:DMSO at 25 °C, reacted with aldehyde 11 (K.C.N. *et al.*, unpublished results) at 0 °C to form olefinic compound 12 in >70% yield. The geometry of the double bond in 12 was tentatively¹⁴ assigned as *Z*, but its geometry was neither rigorously determined nor did it matter for our purposes. Desilylation of 12 with HF·pyridine, followed by Swern oxidation of the resulting primary alcohol furnished aldehyde 7 in high yield (>95%). The aldol condensation of the polymer-bound aldehyde 7 with the dianion derived from keto acid 6 in the presence of ZnCl₂ in tetrahydrofuran (THF) gave a mixture of diastereoisomers

* Bristol-Myers Squibb has registered Taxol as a trademark and wishes the scientific community to use the name paclitaxel.

Figure 1 Retrosynthetic analysis of epothilone A (**1**) by a solid-phase olefin metathesis strategy. TBS, *t*-BuMe₂Si; the shaded circle indicates polystyrene.

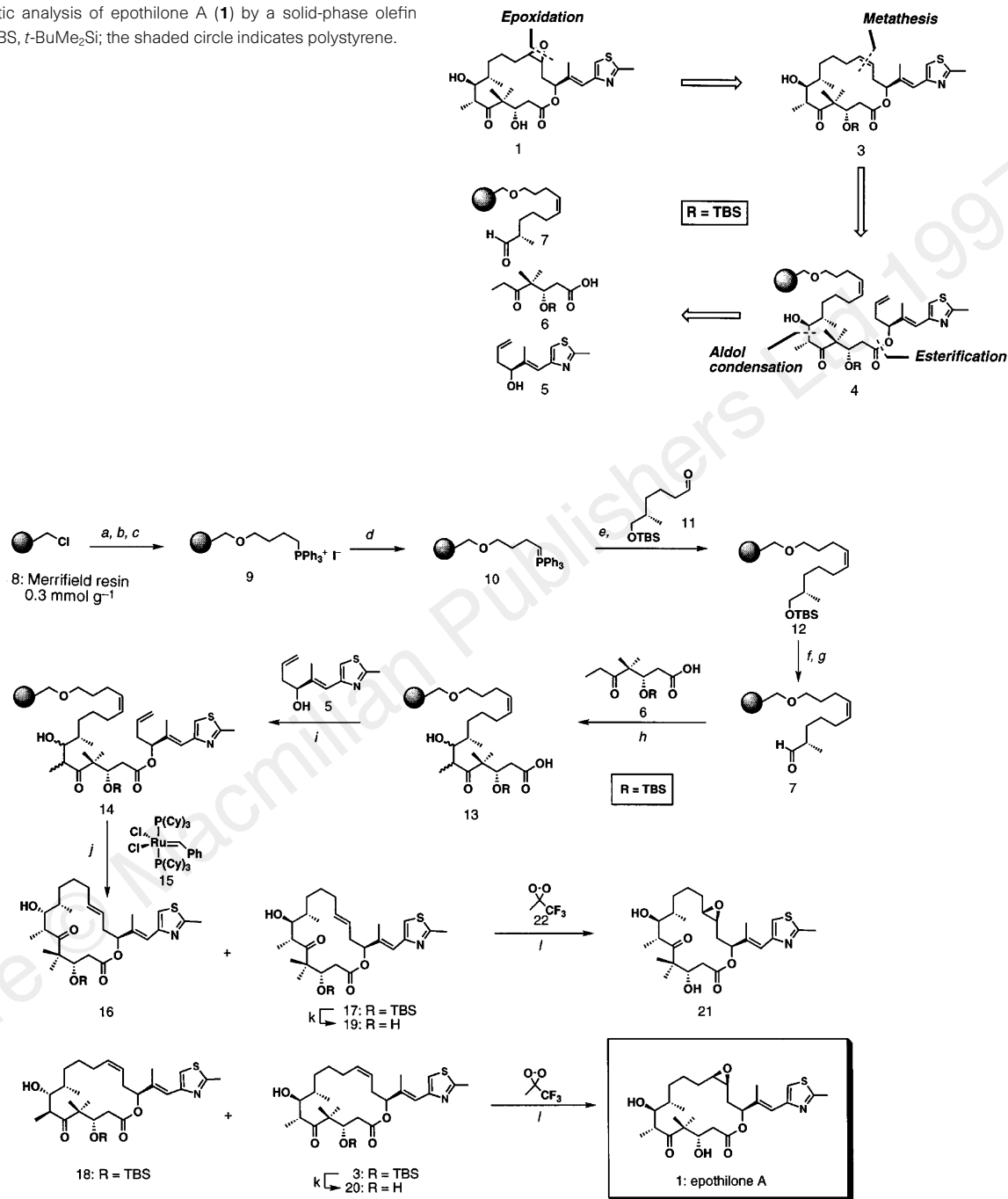
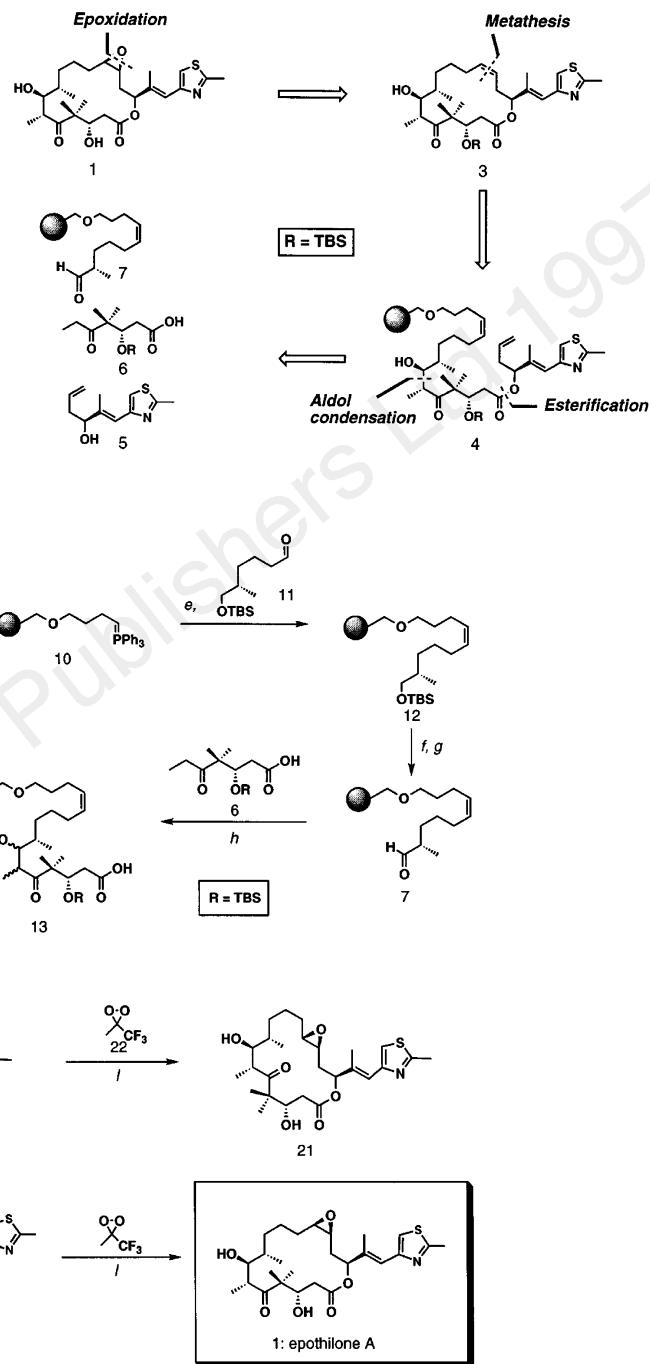


Figure 2 (a) 1,4-butanediol (5.0 equiv.), NaH (5.0 equiv.), *n*-Bu₄NI (0.1 equiv.), DMF, 25 °C, 12 h; (b) Ph₃P (4.0 equiv.), I₂ (4.0 equiv.), imidazole (4.0 equiv.), CH₂Cl₂, 25 °C, 3 h; (c) Ph₃P (10 equiv.), 90 °C, 12 h (>90% for 3 steps based on mass gain of polymer); (d) NaHMDS (3.0 equiv.), THF : DMSO (1 : 1), 25 °C, 12 h; (e) **11** (2.0 equiv.), THF, 0 °C, 3 h (>70% based on aldehyde recovered from ozonolysis); (f) 10% HF-pyridine in THF, 25 °C, 12 h; (g) (COCl)₂ (4.0 equiv.), DMSO (8.0 equiv.), Et₃N (12.5 equiv.), -78 ! -25 °C (estimated yield ~95% for 2 step; the reaction was monitored by IR analysis of polymer-bound material and by TLC analysis of the products obtained by ozonolysis); (h) **6** (2.0 equiv.), LDA (2.2 equiv.), THF, -78 ! -40 °C, 1 h; then add resulting enolate to the resin suspended in a ZnCl₂ (2.0 equiv.) solution in THF, -78 ! -40 °C, 2 h (~90%; estimated yield, as step g); (i) **5**, (5.0 equiv.), DCC (5.0 equiv.), 4-DMAP (5.0 equiv.), 25 °C, 15 h (80% yield as determined by recovered heterocycle fragments obtained by treatment with NaOMe); (j) **15** (0.75 equiv.), CH₂Cl₂, 25 °C, 48 h (52%); **16** : **17** : **18** : **3** = ~3 : 3 : 1 : 3; (k) 20% TFA in CH₂Cl₂ (v/v), 92% for **19** and 90% for **20**; (l) **22** [methyl(trifluoromethyl)dioxirane, acetonitrile], 0 °C, 2 h (70% for **1**, 45% for **21**; in addition to these products, the corresponding α-epoxides were



also obtained). NaHMDS, sodium bis(trimethylsilyl)amide; DMSO, dimethyl sulphoxide; LDA, lithium diisopropylamide; TBS, *t*-BuMe₂Si; 4-DMAP, 4-dimethylaminopyridine; TFA, trifluoroacetic acid. Selected physical data for compound **20**: ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 6.95 (s, 1 H, ArH), 6.59 (s, 1 H, ArCH = C(CH₃)), 5.44 (ddd, *J* = 10.5, 10.5, 4.5 Hz, 1 H, CH = CHCH₂), 5.36 (ddd, *J* = 10.5, 10.5, 5.0 Hz, 1 H, CH = CHCH₂), 5.28 (d, *J* = 9.4 Hz, 1 H, CO₂CH), 4.23 (d, *J* = 11.1 Hz, 1 H, (CH₃)₂CCl-H(OH)), 3.72 (m, CHOH(CHCH₃)), 3.43-3.37 (m, 1 H, OH), 3.14 (q, *J* = 6.7 Hz, 1 H, CH₂CH(C = O)), 3.05 (bs, 1 H, OH), 2.72-2.63 (m, 1 H), 2.69 (s, 3 H, CH₂Ar), 2.48 (dd, *J* = 14.8, 11.3 Hz, 1 H, CH₂COO), 2.33 (dd, *J* = 14.8, 2.0 Hz, 1 H, CH₂COO), 2.30-2.13 (m, 2 H) 2.07 (s, 3 H, ArCH = CCH₃), 2.07-1.98 (m, 1 H), 1.80-1.60 (m, 2 H), 1.32 (s, 3 H, C(CH₃)₂), 1.36-1.13 (m, 3 H), 1.17 (d, *J* = 6.8 Hz, 3 H, CH₃CH(C = O)), 1.06 (s, 3 H, C(CH₃)₂), 0.99 (d, *J* = 7.0 Hz, 3 H, CH₃CHCH₂); ¹³C NMR (150.9 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 220.6, 170.4, 165.0, 151.9, 138.7, 133.4, 125.0, 119.4, 115.8, 78.4, 74.1, 72.3, 53.3, 41.7, 39.2, 38.5, 32.4, 31.7, 27.6, 27.4, 22.7, 19.0, 18.6, 15.9, 15.5, 13.5; infrared (thin film) ν_{max} 3,453, 2,929, 1,733, 1,686, 1,506, 1,464, 1,250, 978 cm⁻¹; [α]_D²⁵ -80.2 (c 1.36, CHCl₃); HRMS (FAB), calc. for C₂₆H₃₉CsNO₅S (M + Cs⁺) 610.1603, found 610.1580.

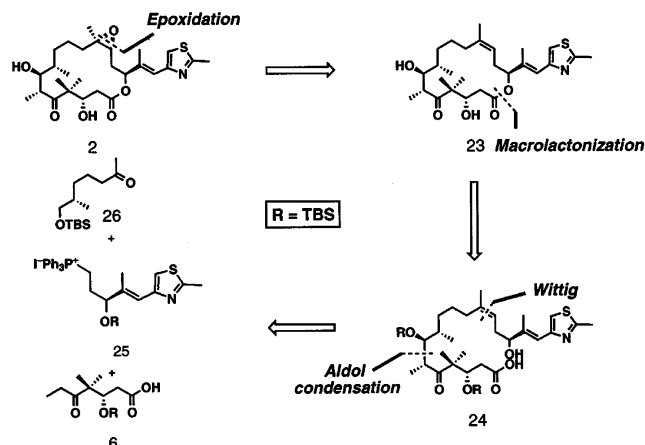


Figure 3 Retrosynthetic analysis of epothilone B (**2**) by a solution-phase strategy. TBS, *t*-BuMe₂Si.

(~90% yield, ~1:1 ratio). Finally, introduction of the heterocyclic segment **5**¹³ onto the growing substrate was achieved by esterification, leading to the required precursor **14** in ~80% yield. Exposure of **14** to RuCl₂(=CHPh)(PCy₃)₂, where Cy is cyclohexyl, catalyst (**15**) in CH₂Cl₂ at 25 °C released from the resin olefinic compounds **16–18** and **3** (52% total yield, **16**:**17**:**18**:**3** ≈ 3:3:1:3 as determined by high pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC)). Compounds **16–18** and **3** could be separated either by HPLC or by preparative layer silica gel chromatography, and the two with the correct C6-C7 stereochemistry (that is, **17** and **3**) were desilylated by exposure to TFA (see Fig. 2 legend) to afford epothilone precursors **19** (92%) and **20** (90%), respectively. Epoxidation of **19** and **20** with methyl(trifluoromethyl)dioxirane²⁷ then furnished epothilone A (**1**, 70%) and its diastereoisomer **21** (45%), respectively. The α-epoxy isomers of **1** and **21** were also obtained in these epoxidation reactions. Pure synthetic epothilone A (**1**) exhibited identical properties (as determined by thin layer chromatography, [α]_D (optical rotation), ¹H and ¹³C NMR, infrared and HRMS (high resolution mass spectrum)) to those of an authentic sample.

The total synthesis of epothilone B (**2**) followed a strategy derived from the retrosynthetic analysis shown in Fig. 3¹⁴. This strategy called for coupling of intermediates **6**, **25** and **26** via a Wittig olefination, an aldol reaction, and a macrolactonization, followed by epoxidation, and was expected to proceed via intermediates **24** and **23**. This plan was deliberately chosen for its potential to deliver

both diastereoisomers at C6-C7 (aldol reaction) and both geometrical isomers at C12-C13 (Wittig reaction) for molecular diversity and biological screening purposes.

The phosphonium salt **25** (K.C.N. *et al.*, unpublished results) was converted to the corresponding ylide by treatment with NaHMDS which reacted with ketone **26** (K.C.N. *et al.*, unpublished results) to afford a mixture of *Z*- and *E*-olefins **27** in 73% yield and ~1:1 ratio (by ¹H NMR) (Fig. 4). The primary hydroxyl group in **27** was selectively liberated by exposure to CSA (97% yield) and oxidized with SO₃·pyridine–Et₃N–DMSO to afford aldehyde **28** in 95% yield. Treatment of keto acid **6**¹³ with excess LDA in THF, followed by reaction with aldehyde **28**, furnished a mixture of four compounds corresponding to the two geometrical isomers of the C12-C13 double bond and the two diastereomeric isomers at C6-C7 in high yield. This mixture was persilylated by exposure to excess TBSOTf and 2,6-lutidine, and then selectively deprotected at the carboxylic acid site (K₂CO₃–MeOH) to afford chromatographically separable (silica gel) carboxylic acids **29** (31% yield from **28**) and its 6*S*,7*R*-diastereoisomer **29a** (30% yield from **28**).

The tris(silylether) **29** was then selectively desilylated at C15 (TBAF, 75% yield) to produce hydroxy acid **24** as a mixture of 12*Z*- and 12*E*-isomers. Macrolactonization¹⁴ of **24** by the Yamaguchi method (2,4,6-trichlorobenzoylchloride, Et₃N, 4-DMAP) resulted in the formation of macrocyclic olefins **30** (40%) and **31** (37%), which were chromatographically separated (silica gel). Exposure of **30** and **31** to TFA led to dihydroxy lactones **32** (89%) and **23** (91%), respectively. Finally, epoxidation of **23** with methyl(trifluoromethyl)dioxirane²⁷ furnished epothilone B (**2**) together with its α-epoxide epimer **35** in 85% yield and ~5:1 ratio in favour of **2**. Pure synthetic epothilone B (**2**) was obtained by preparative layer silica gel chromatography (*R*_f = 0.24, 4% MeOH in CH₂Cl₂) and exhibited identical properties (thin layer chromatography, [α]_D, ¹H and ¹³C NMR, infrared and HRMS) to those of an authentic sample of epothilone B (**2**). Similar treatment of **32** resulted in the formation of epothilones **33** and **34** in 86% yield and ~4:1 ratio. The use of *m*CPBA for these epoxidations gave slightly different results leading to **2** and **35** in 66% total yield and ~5:1 ratio, and **33** and **34** in 73% total yield and ~4:1 ratio.

The synthesized epothilones were tested for their action on tubulin assembly using purified tubulin with an assay²⁸ developed to amplify differences between compounds more active than taxol. As demonstrated in Fig. 5, both epothilone B (**2**) (EC₅₀ = 4.0 ± 1 μM; defined in Fig. 5 legend) and its progenitor **23** (EC₅₀ = 3.3 ± 0.2 μM) were significantly more active than taxol (EC₅₀ = 15.0 ± 2 μM) and epothilone A (**1**) (EC₅₀ =

Table 1 Relative activities of epothilones A (**1**) and B (**2**) as compared with synthetic analogues **23**, **20**, **32**, **34** and taxol

Compound	Induction of tubulin assembly*	Parental	Inhibition of human ovarian carcinoma cell growth†		
			Taxol-resistant		
			β-tubulin mutants		MDR-line
		1A9	1A9PTX10	1A9PTX22	A2780AD
	EC ₅₀ (μM) + s.d.			IC ₅₀ nM (relative resistance)	
1	14 ± 0.4	2.0	19 (9.5)	4.2 (2.1)	2.4 (1.2)
2	4.0 ± 0.1	0.040	0.035 (0.88)	0.045 (1.1)	0.040 (1.0)
23	3.3 ± 0.2	2.0	33 (17)	3.5 (1.8)	1.5 (0.80)
20	25 ± 1	25	>100 (>4)	75 (3.0)	22 (0.88)
32	39 ± 2	48	>100 (>2)	75 (1.6)	24 (0.50)
34	22 ± 0.9	3.5	30 (8.6)	5.5 (1.6)	3.0 (0.86)
Taxol	15 ± 2	2.0	50 (25)	43 (22)	> 100 (>50)

* See Fig. 5.

† The growth of all cell lines was evaluated by quantitation of the protein in microtitre plates⁴. The parental cell line 1A9, a clone of the A2780 cell line, was used to select two taxol resistant sublines (1A9PTX10 and 1A9PTX22)²⁹. These sublines were selected by growth in the presence of taxol and verapamil, a P-glycoprotein modulator. Two distinct point mutations in the β-tubulin isotype M40 gene were identified. In 1A9PTX10 amino acid residue 270 was changed from Phe (TTT) to Val (GTT), and in 1A9PTX22 residue 364 was changed from Ala (GCA) to Thr (ACA). The A2780AD line is a multi-drug resistant (MDR) line expressing high levels of P-glycoprotein³⁰. Relative resistance refers to the ratio of the IC₅₀ value obtained with a resistant cell line to that obtained with the parental cell line.

14.0 ± 0.4 μM), whereas compounds **34**, **20** and **32** were less effective than taxol.

Preliminary cytotoxicity experiments with 1A9, 1A9PTX10 (β-tubulin mutant)²⁹, 1A9PTX22 (β-tubulin mutant)²⁹ and A2780AD cell lines revealed a number of interesting results (Table 1). Despite its high potency in the tubulin assembly assay, compound **23** did not display the potent cytotoxicity of **2** against 1A9 cells, being similar to **1** and taxol. These data suggest that whereas the C12–C13 epoxide is

not required for the epothilone–tubulin interaction, it may play an important role in localizing the agent to its target within the cell. Like the naturally occurring epothilones **1** and **2**, analogue **23** showed significant activity against the MDR line A2780AD and the altered β-tubulin-expressing cell lines 1A9PTX10 and 1A9PTX22, suggesting, perhaps, different contact points for the epothilones and taxol with tubulin (that is, stronger binding of epothilones around residue 364 than around 270 relative to taxoids).

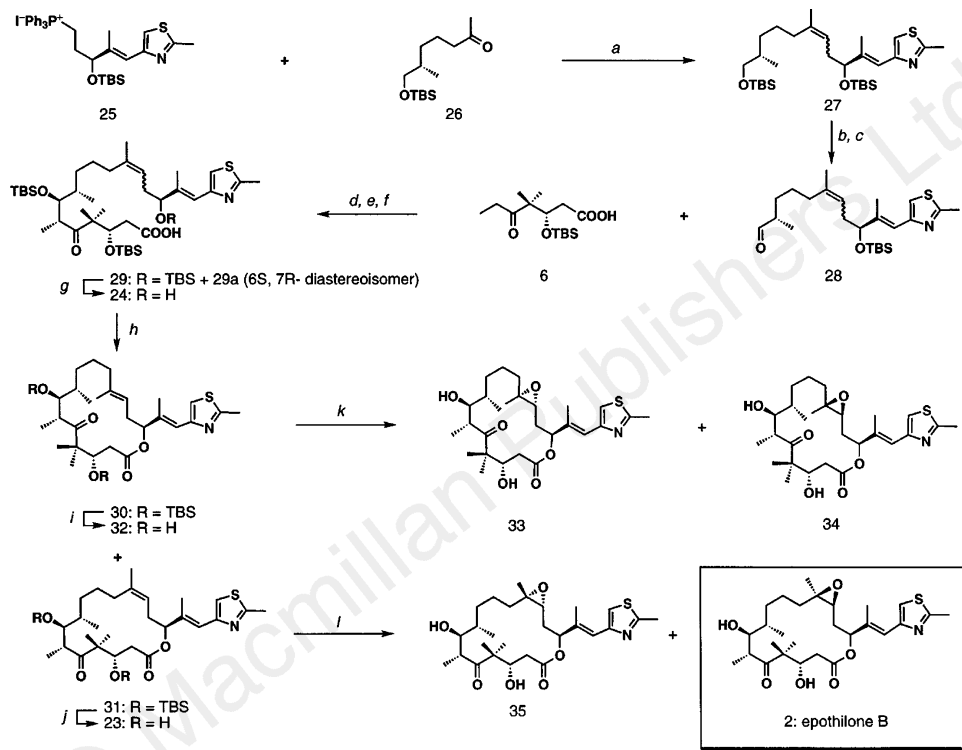


Figure 4 (a) **25** (1.5 equiv.), NaHMDS (1.5 equiv.), THF, 0 °C, 15 min; then add **26** (1.0 equiv.), –20 °C, 12 h, 73% (*Z*:*E* ~ 1:1); (b) CSA (1.0 equiv.), CH₂Cl₂:MeOH (1:1), 0 °C, 1 h; then 25 °C, 0.5 h, 97%; (c) SO₃·pyr. (2.0 equiv.), DMSO (10 equiv.), Et₃N (5 equiv.), CH₂Cl₂, 25 °C, 0.5 h, 95%; (d) LDA (3.0 equiv.), THF, 0 °C, 15 min; then **6** (1.2 equiv. in THF), –78 ! –40 °C, 0.5 h; then **28** (1.0 equiv. in THF), –78 °C; (e) TBSOTf (3.0 equiv.), 2,6-lutidine (5.0 equiv.), CH₂Cl₂, 0 °C, 2 h; (f) K₂CO₃ (2.0 equiv.), MeOH, 25 °C, 15 min, 31% of **29** from **28** and 30% of **29a** from **28**; (g) TBAF (6.0 equiv.), THF, 25 °C, 8 h, 75%; (h) 2,4,6-trichlorobenzoylchloride (2.0 equiv.), Et₃N (2.0 equiv.), THF, 0 °C, 1 h; then add to a solution of 4-DMAP (10.0 equiv. in toluene, 0.002 M), 25 °C, 12 h, 40% of **30** and 37% of **31**; (i) 20% TFA (by volume) in CH₂Cl₂, –10 ! –0 °C, 1 h, 89%; (j) same as *i*, 91%; (k) methyl(trifluoromethyl) dioxirane, acetonitrile, 0 °C, 86% (**33**:**34** ~1:1 diastereoisomers) or *m*CPBA (1.5 equiv.), benzene, 3 °C, 2 h, 73% (**33**:**34** ~4:1 ratio of stereoisomers); (l) methyl(trifluoromethyl)dioxirane, acetonitrile, 0 °C, 85% (**2**:**35** ~5:1 ratio of diastereoisomers) or *m*CPBA (1.5 equiv.), benzene, 3 °C, 2 h, 66% (**2**:**35** ~5:1 ratio of diastereoisomers); NaHMDS, sodium bis(trimethylsilyl)amide; CSA, camphorsulphonic acid; DMSO, dimethyl sulphoxide; LDA, lithium diisopropylamide; TBS-*t*

BuMe₂Si; TBSOTf, *t*-BuMe₂SiOSO₂CF₃; TBAF, tetra-*n*-butylammonium fluoride; 4-DMAP, 4-dimethylaminopyridine; *m*CPBA, 3-chloroperoxybenzoic acid; TFA, trifluoroacetic acid. Selected physical data for compound **23**: ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 6.94 (s, 1 H, SCH = C), 6.57 (s, 1 H, CH = CCH₃), 5.20 (d, *J* = 9.7 Hz, 1 H, CH₂COOCH), 5.13 (dd, *J* = 9.6, 4.6 Hz, 1 H, CH₂C = CHCH₂), 4.28 (d, *J* = 9.7 Hz, 1 H, (CH₃)₂CCHOH), 3.71 (s, 1 H, CHOH), 3.47 (bs, 1 H, OH), 3.15 (q, *J* = 6.8 Hz, 1 H, C(O)CHCH₃), 3.04 (bs, 1 H, OH), 2.68 (s, 3 H, N = C(CH₃)S), 2.62 (ddd, *J* = 15.0, 10.2, 10.1 Hz, 1 H, CH₂CH = CCH₃), 2.45 (dd, *J* = 14.7, 11.1 Hz, 1 H, CH₂COOCH), 2.38–2.24 (m, 1 H), 2.28 (dd, *J* = 14.8, 2.2 Hz, CH₂COOCH), 2.22 (d, *J* = 14.9 Hz, 1 H, CH₂C(CH₃) = CHCH₂), 2.06 (s, 3 H, CH = CCH₃), 1.90–1.84 (m, 1 H), 1.76–1.69 (m, 1 H), 1.65 (s, 3 H, CH₂C(CH₃) = CH), 1.33 (s, 3 H, C(CH₃)₂), 1.32–1.22 (m, 4 H), 1.19 (d, *J* = 6.8 Hz, 3 H, CH(CH₃)), 1.06 (s, 3 H, C(CH₃)₂), 1.00 (d, *J* = 7.0 Hz, 3 H, CH(CH₃)); ¹³C NMR (150.9 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 220.4, 170.2, 164.9, 151.8, 139.1, 138.3, 120.8, 119.1, 115.5, 78.9, 74.1, 72.3, 53.6, 41.7, 39.7, 32.6, 31.8, 31.7, 25.4, 23.0, 19.1, 18.1, 16.0, 15.8, 13.5; infrared (thin film) ν_{max} 3,460, 2,954, 2,919, 1,725, 1,684, 1,455, 1,379, 1,290, 1,249, 1,184, 1,143, 1,043, 1,008, 973, 750 cm⁻¹; [α]_D²⁵ –91.5 s, (c 0.3, CHCl₃); HRMS (FAB) *m/e* 492.2795, (M + H⁺) calc. for C₂₇H₄₁NO₅S 492.2784.

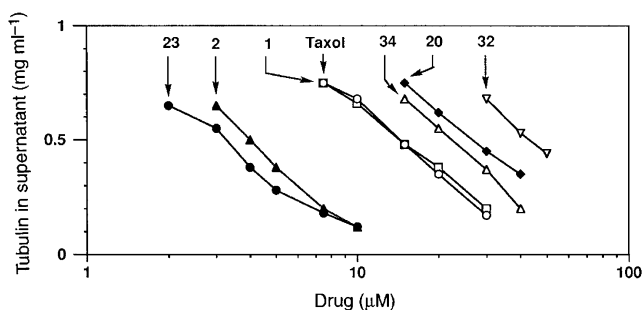


Figure 5 The tubulin assembly assay was performed essentially as described previously²⁸. Reaction mixtures contained purified tubulin at 1.0 mg ml⁻¹, 0.4 M monosodium glutamate, 5% dimethyl sulphoxide, and varying drug concentrations. Each compound was evaluated in three different experiments and average values are shown. The EC₅₀ is defined as the drug concentration that causes 50% of the tubulin to assemble into polymer. In the absence of drug, <5% of the tubulin was removed by centrifugation, while with high concentrations of the most active drugs, >95% of the protein formed polymer. This suggests that at least 90% of the tubulin had the potential to interact with epothilones and taxoids. Although the EC₅₀ value obtained for taxol was higher than that obtained in an alternate assay², the agent's role in these experiments was only as a control. The numbers on the curves correspond to compound numbers in the text.

The solid-phase synthesis of epothilone A (**1**) described here represents a new concept for the total synthesis of natural products, traces a highly efficient pathway to the naturally occurring epothilones, and opens the way for the generation of large combinatorial epothilone libraries. The biological results demonstrate that more potent microtubule binding analogues than the parent epothilones can be obtained (for example, compound **23**) by chemical synthesis. Furthermore, our findings point to lipophilic substituents rather than the epoxide moiety as important elements for binding activity. The role of the epoxide in the cytotoxicity of epothilones, however, still remains to be elucidated. □

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Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to K.C.N. at Scripps Research Institute.

Evolution of the nitrogen cycle and its influence on the biological sequestration of CO₂ in the ocean

Paul G. Falkowski

Oceanographic and Atmospheric Sciences Division, Brookhaven National Laboratory, Upton, New York 11973, USA

Over geological time, photosynthetic carbon fixation in the oceans has exceeded respiratory oxidation of organic carbon. The imbalance between the two processes has resulted in the simultaneous accumulation of oxygen in, and drawdown of carbon dioxide from, the Earth's atmosphere, and the burial of organic carbon in marine sediments^{1–3}. It is generally assumed that these processes are limited by the availability of phosphorus^{4,5}, which is supplied by continental weathering and fluvial discharge^{5–7}. Over the past two million years, decreases in atmospheric carbon dioxide concentrations during glacial periods correlate with increases in the export of organic carbon from surface waters to the marine sediments^{8–11}, but variations in phosphorus fluxes appear to have been too small to account for these changes^{12,13}. Consequently, it has been assumed that total oceanic primary productivity remained relatively constant during glacial-to-interglacial transitions, although the fraction of this productivity exported to the sediments somehow increased during glacial periods^{12,14}. Here I present an analysis of the evolution of biogeochemical cycles which suggests that fixed nitrogen, not phosphorus, limits primary productivity on geological timescales. Small variations in the ratio of nitrogen fixation to denitrification can significantly change atmospheric carbon dioxide concentrations on glacial-to-interglacial timescales. The ratio of these two processes appears to be determined by the oxidation state of the ocean and the supply of trace elements, especially iron.

Globally, nitrogen and phosphorus are the two elements that potentially limit the biologically mediated carbon assimilation in the oceans by photoautotrophs. It is frequently argued that, as N₂ is abundant in both the ocean and atmosphere, and, in principle, can be biologically reduced to the equivalent of NH₃ by N₂-fixing cyanobacteria (that is, diazotrophs), nitrogen cannot be limiting on geological timescales^{4,15,16}. It then follows that phosphorus, which has no significant atmospheric source, must ultimately limit biological productivity. The underlying assumptions of these tenets should, however, be considered within the context of the evolution of biogeochemical cycles and the manifestations of those cycles in the contemporary ocean.

Virtually all fixed inorganic nitrogen in the contemporary ocean is oxidized to nitrate. Where did the nitrate come from? Although, in the Archaean atmosphere, electrical discharge or bolide impacts might have promoted NO formation from reaction between N₂ and CO₂, the yield for the reaction is low¹⁷. NH₃ in the Archaean atmosphere would have photodissociated, driven by ultraviolet radiation¹⁷; however, N₂ would have been stable and abundant^{17,18}. N₂ can be biologically reduced to NH₃ via the enzyme nitrogenase. Biological N₂ fixation is a strictly anaerobic process¹⁹, and the sequence of the genes encoding the catalytic subunits for nitrogenase is highly conserved in cyanobacteria and other eubacteria, strongly suggesting an ancient, common ancestral origin²⁰. The antiquity and homology of nitrogen fixation capacity also implies that fixed inorganic nitrogen in the Archaean and early Protozoic oceans was scarce before the evolution of diazotrophic organisms; that is, there was strong evolutionary selection for N₂ fixation.