In studies by Nandi et al., HA-coated substrates provide direct evidence that CD44 plays a major role in regulating cell activity. The molecules of HA in HA-coated dishes effectively may bind to CD44 and RHAMM as a widely expressed cell surface receptor for HA. <sup>19–21</sup> In spite of the inhibitory effects on the GJIC in HMW HA-added dishes, we have found that the functional gap junction is promoted by HMW HA coating. Consequently, these results give useful information on how to design biomaterials of polysaccharides such as HA when the GJIC function is used as a marker for evaluating biocompatibility. <sup>18</sup>

### CONCLUSIONS

In this study, the cell adhesion and cell function of GJIC were compared on dishes treated with various molecular weights of HA. The extent of attachment of NHDF cells on the HA-coated surfaces decreased linearly proportional to the MW size of HA at an early time point in the culture. Increasing HA MW suggests that HMW HA contributes to enhancing the hydrophilic property of its surface.

The SLDT method was used to study the effects of HA on the GJIC of NHDF cells. The results indicate that NHDF cells on dishes coated with HA in HMW (800 kDa) promote GJIC. However, the addition of HMW HA showed the opposite effect. Nutrients that promote the formation of the gap junction, such as bFGF,  $^8$  EGF,  $^{22}$  and TGF- $\beta$ ,  $^{23}$  could be enveloped in the molecule of the coated HMW HA. In the case of LMW HA, the inhibitory effect of gap formation was not observed. In conclusion, it is suggested that the selection of the MW of HA is an important factor in designing biocompatible artificial skins that retain and enhance the function of GJIC in NHDF cells.

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# Tumor-Promoting Activity of 48 kDa Molecular Mass Hyaluronic Acid

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Hyaluronic acid (HA), glycosaminoglycan, has long been implicated in malignant transformation and tumor-promoting activity. We found that 48 kDa molecular mass HA *in vitro* promotes tumor cell growth and tumorigenesis. The increase of cell growth rate in human hepatoma cells (HepG2 cells, cancer cells) and normal human dermal fibroblasts (NHDF cells, normal cells) treated with 48 kDa HA at  $2 \times 10^{-4}$  kg/L concentration were 110  $\pm$  0.9% and 103  $\pm$  0.5%, respectively. Colony formation activity of 4.8 kDa HA in cultured Balb/3T3 clone A3111 cells was higher than that of 48 kDa HA. However, transforming activity of HA was significantly showed in 48 kDa HA but not in 4.8 kDa HA. These findings suggest that 48 kDa HA has a tumor-promoting activity stronger than 4.8 kDa HA, because the former increase the cell growth of cancer cells than the latter. The increase of cell growth rate in HepG2 cells (cancer cells) and NHDF cells (normal cells) were compared among various molecular masses of HA.

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Keywords: hyaluronic acid, tumorigenesis, colony formation activity, cell transformation, normal human dermal fibroblasts, human hepatoma cells

### 1. Introduction

Hyaluronic acid (HA) is a non-sulfated glycosaminoglycan (GAG) that promotes motility, adhesion, and proliferation in mammalian cells, as mediated by cell-surface HA receptors. 1,2) Various tumors accumulate HA that suggested to facilitate tumor growth and invasion into the extracellular matrix (ECM) by a hydrodynamic effect, or by altering tumor cell behavior. Hyaluronidase (HAase) degrades HA into small fragments.3) Decomposing HA into small fragment may result in the release of some cytokines which may promote the tumor growth and angiogenesis. Lokeshwar et al. reported that small fragments HA (3-25 disaccharide units) levels increased in prostate cancer tissues when compared with normal tissues.4) Moreover, HA and its receptor, RHAMM (receptor for hyaluronic acid mediated motility) are important regulators of cell movement, adhesion and cytoskeletal organization. HA and RHAMM have been implicated in transformation and metastasis, in particular the processes of tumor cell motility and invasion.5-9)

In the present study, we survey the growth rate of human hepatoma cells (HepG2 cells) and normal human dermal fibroblasts (NHDF cells), and promoting activity of HA is also confirmed by the *in vitro* two-stage transformation assay. These results provide the important evidence for a direct relationship between HA and tumorigenesis in tumor cells.

# 2. Materials and Method

### 2.1 Materials

AlamarBlue<sup>TM</sup> agent was purchased from Biosource (Camarillo, CA). Giemsa's solution was obtained from Merck (Germany). Hyaluronic acids (Fig. 1) (HA: 48 kDa and 800 kDa) were kindly supplied by Seikagaku Industries, Ltd. (Tokyo, Japan). HA of 4.8 kDa was prepared using the method of Cramer and coworkers. <sup>10)</sup> All other chemicals of a special grade were used without further purification.

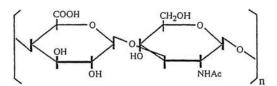


Fig. 1 Chemical structures of hyaluronic acid.

### 2.2 Cell cultures

Normal human dermal fibroblasts, NHDF cells (Asahi Techno Glass, Tokyo, Japan), and HepG2 cells (human hepatoma cell line, ATCC No.: HB-8065) were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM; GIBCO BRL) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal calf serum (FCS; GIBCO BRL) and antibiotics [penicillin (100 unit/ml)-streptomycin ( $1\times10^{-4}$  kg/L)]. Balb/3T3 clone A3111 cells (Dr. T. Kuroki, University of Tokyo) were cultured in MEM supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal calf serum (FCS; GIBCO BRL). The media were changed every two days until the cells became confluent. NHDF and A3111 cells cultured between 4th and 9th passage levels were used for all experiments. Cell cultures were maintained in a humidified 5% CO2 incubator at 37°C.

# 2.3 Cell proliferation assay

For measurement of cell proliferation,  $8 \times 10^4$  cells (NHDF and HepG2) were seeded into 12-well culture plates. Solutions of various molecular masses of HA then were added to each culture well. After 4 days of HA-treatment, the extent of cell growth was measured by alamarBlue<sup>TM</sup> assay. <sup>11)</sup> Control cells received fresh medium without any additions.

### 2.4 Transformation assay

For standard and two-stage cell transformation,  $1 \times 10^4$  cells were plated per 60-mm tissue culture dish; 15 dishes were used for each point in all cell transformation experiments. <sup>12,13)</sup> After 24 h,  $1 \times 10^{-7}$  kg/L 3-methylcholanthrene (MCA) was added to the MEM medium containing 10% FCS, and 72 h later the culture medium containing 4.8 kDa HA or

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48 kDa HA was changed. The medium was changed twice a week for 6 weeks. The cells were fixed with formaldehyde and stained with 5% Giemsa solution for 12 h. Types of transformed focus were determined under a phase-contrast photomicroscope.

Colony-formation efficiency was tested in parallel with the transformation assay by seeding 100 cells/60-mm dish, and by treating the cells with the culture medium containing various molecular masses of HA and MCA for 72 h. The cultures were fixed and stained with 3% Giemsa solution, after 10–11 days from cell seeding, and colonies were counted. Each assay was repeated two times. Statistical analysis was carried out by the Wilcoxin Signed Rank Test. 14)

### 3. Results and Discussion

Results of the cell growth assays are given in Fig. 2. AlamaBlue<sup>TM</sup> assay indicated that cell proliferation capacities in the NHDF cells and HepG2 cells have different. The growth rate of HepG2 cells was accelerated after co-culture with 48 kDa HA at the concentration of  $2 \times 10^{-4}$  kg/L. However, 48 kDa HA had a low effect on growth rate of NHDF cells (Fig. 2(a)). These findings may related with reports that HA fragments by degrading enzyme HAase are intricately associated with cancer angiogenesis and metastasis. <sup>15,16)</sup>

We surveyed the promoting activity of HA using an *in vitro*, two-stage transformation assay. Morphology of A3111 cells treated with MCA, 4.8 kDa HA and 48 kDa HA were observed by phase contrast photomicroscope after culture for

6 weeks. Figure 3 shows a photograph of Giemsa staining plates tested by the cell transformation method. As shown in Figs. 3(b) and (c), transformed foci was observed in the dishes of  $4.8 \,\mathrm{kDa}$  HA (b) and  $48 \,\mathrm{kDa}$  HA (c) at MCA concentration of  $1 \times 10^{-7} \,\mathrm{kg/L}$ , respectively. When A3111 cells were treated with  $48 \,\mathrm{kDa}$  HA, the number of the transformed foci increased in comparison with  $4.8 \,\mathrm{kDa}$  HA as shown in

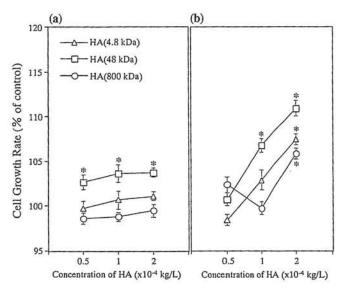


Fig. 2 Effect of various molecular weights of HA on NHDF cells or HepG2 cells growth. (\*p < 0.05, Wilcoxin Signed Rank Test): (a) NHDF cells, (b) HepG2 cells.

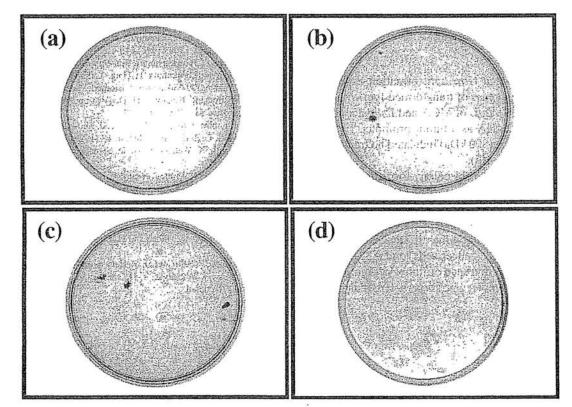
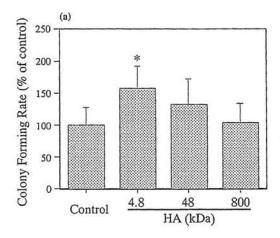


Fig. 3 Images of A3111 cells transformation on the 60-mm tissue culture dish initiated by MCA: (a) MCA of  $1\times10^{-4}$  kg/L from cell culture 1 day to 4 days, (b) MCA of  $0.1\,\mu$ g/mL from cell culture 1 day to 4 days and HA (4.8 kDa) of  $10\times10^{-4}$  kg/L from cell culture 7 days to 21 days, (c) MCA of  $1\times10^{-4}$  kg/L from cell culture 1 day to 4 days and HA (48 kDa) of  $10\times10^{-4}$  kg/L from cell culture 7 days to 21 days, (d) MCA of  $0.1\,\mu$ g/mL from cell culture 1 day to 4 days and HA (800 kDa) of  $10\times10^{-4}$  kg/L from cell culture 7 days to 21 days.



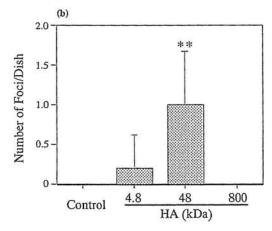


Fig. 4 Influence of HA on the colony formation activity and transformation of A3111 cells initiated by MCA (1  $\times$  10<sup>-4</sup> kg/L). A significant increase of transformed foci, in comparison with controls, is indicated (\*p < 0.05, \*\* p < 0.01, Wilcoxin Signed Rank Test): (a) colony forming rates after 2 weeks, (b) two-stage transformation assay.

Fig. 4(b). As a result, in vitro transformation experiments showed a significant increase of transformed foci with an initiating dose of  $1 \times 10^{-7}$  kg/L of MCA and indicated the possible activity of 48 kDa HA as a tumor promoter.4,17,18) The high molecular mass HA (800 kDa) indicated no transforming activity as shown in Fig. 4(b).

As shown in Fig. 4(a), A3111 colony formation activity of 4.8 kDa HA was higher than that of 48 kDa HA. However, Fig. 2 indicated a slightly higher cell growth in 48 kDa HA than 4.8 kDa HA, in the case of HepG2 cells. These results were considered to be caused by the differences of cell functions between HepG2 cells (cancer cells) and A3111 (normal cells). It seems that the difference of tumor-promoting activity among the different molecular sizes of HA must be considered for the protection of the tumorigenesis, especially at the doubtful site of tumors. 19-21)

In the future, studies to define functional relationship between various molecular masses of HA and tumor cell properties are needed in order to provide insights into regulatory mechanisms involved in cell transformation in the tumor progression.

### 4. Conclusion

The 48 kDa HA indicated stronger tumor-promoting activity in transformation assay than high molecular mass HA (800 kDa) or low molecular mass HA (4.8 kDa) in vitro. These findings suggest that transformation of A3111 cells can be induced by 48 kDa HA, thus, degradable HA is useful index for early diagnosis of various cancers.

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# Effects of 17β-Estradiol and Xenoestrogens on the Neuronal Survival in an Organotypic Hippocampal Culture

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# **Key Words**

Xenoestrogens · Hippocampus · Glutamate · Gonadal steroids · Gonadal steroid antagonists · Gonadal steroid receptors · Immunocytochemistry · Bisphenol · Apoptosis

## **Abstract**

Xenoestrogens are man-made compounds that mimic the actions of estrogens through interactions with estrogen receptors (ERs). Although xenoestrogens have received a great deal of attention as possible causes of brain disfunctions, little information concerning the effects of xenoestrogens on the central nervous system is available. In this study, we investigated the effects of 17β-estradiol ( $E_2$ ) and four xenoestrogens (17α-ethynylestradiol, diethylstilbestrol, p-nonylphenol and bisphenol A (BPA)) on the neuronal survival using organotypic hippocampal slice cultures. When the cultured hippocampal slices were exposed to glutamate (1 mM, 15 min), the CA1-selective neuronal damage was induced. Pretreatment with E2 and the xenoestrogens (24 h) selectively exacerbated the CA3 neuronal damage caused by glutamate. In spite of the marked difference of binding affinities to ERs, all compounds revealed maximal effects at 1 nM. ER antagonists, tamoxifen and ICI 182,780, did not affect responses to  $E_2$  and the xenoestrogens, indicating that these effects are mediated through mechanisms other than ERs. In spite of the fact that BPA has little interaction with ERs at 1 nM, E $_2$  and BPA equally increased the expression of N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor in CA3 and upregulated the spine density of the apical portion of CA3 dendrites at 1 nM. These compounds also enhanced the sprouting of mossy fibers to CA3 neurons. These results suggest that exposure to E $_2$  and xenoestrogens during the developmental stage results in a marked influence on synaptogenesis and neuronal vulnerability through mechanisms other than ERs.

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### Introduction

Xenoestrogens are nonsteroidal, man-made compounds that enter our body by ingestion or adsorption, and mimic the actions of estrogens through interactions with estrogen receptors (ERs). Xenoestrogens include a number of substances such as pesticides and industrial byproducts. Because it was reported that preschool children who had been exposed to pesticides demonstrated disadvantages in eye-hand coordination and 30-min memory [1], xenoestrogens have received a great deal of attention as possible causes of brain dysfunctions. However, little information concerning the effects of xenoestrogens on

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the central nervous system (CNS) is available. In the CNS, both ER $\alpha$  and ER $\beta$  are widely expressed and estrogens are thought to have diverse roles in regulating the structures and the functions of neuronal systems [2–5]. In addition to well-known ER-mediated genomic actions, recent reports show that estrogens have nongenomic effects on neuronal cells through mechanisms other than ERs [6–8]. It is possible that xenoestrogens also have similar diverse effects on the CNS neurons.

To investigate the effects of  $17\beta$ -estradiol (E<sub>2</sub>) and xenoestrogens on CNS neurons during development, we employed organotypic hippocampal slice cultures. In contrast to dissociated neuron cultures, organotypic slice cultures maintain neuronal configurations and region-dependent cellular properties similar to those found in vivo [9, 10]. The most important example of such properties is that cultured hippocampal slices exhibit the selective vulnerability of CA1 neurons, i.e. CA1 neurons are selectively damaged by ischemic insults [11] and glutamate [12] in cultured hippocampal slices.

In this study, we investigated the effects of  $E_2$  and four xenoestrogens [17 $\alpha$ -ethynylestradiol (EE), an estrogen used for oral contraceptive pills; diethylstilbestrol (DES), a synthetic estrogen for preventing miscarriages; p-nonylphenol (PNP), the degradation product of surface active agents used as a supplement of resins; bisphenol (BPA), a content of canned food, dental sealants and composites] on neuronal survival in cultured hippocampal slices. We also investigated the effects of these compounds on the expression of N-methyl-p-aspartate (NMDA) receptors, spine density and mossy fiber sprouting, which may affect neuronal survival.

### **Materials and Methods**

### Organotypic Hippocampal Culture

Organotypic cultures of hippocampi were processed using the interface method [9] according to Sato and Matsuki [12]. Brains were rapidly removed from 8-day-old Wistar rat pups, and 200-µm-thick horizontal entorhino-hippocampal slices were made using a microslicer. The slices were maintained in cold Gey's balanced salt solution supplemented with 6.5 mg/ml glucose bubbled with 95% O<sub>2</sub> and 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. The medial entorhino-hippocampal slices were placed on transparent membranes (Millicell-CM, Millipore, Bedford, Mass., USA), and set in 6-well tissue culture plates containing 0.7 ml of the culture media consisting of 50% minimal essential medium, 25% Hanks' balanced salt solution (HBSS), and 25% donor horse serum supplemented with 6.5 mg/ml glucose, 50 U/ml penicillin G potassium, and 100 μg/ml streptomycin sulfate. The slices were cultured at 37°C in a moist 5% CO2 atmosphere and the culture media were changed every other day. All experiments were undertaken using hippocampal slices cultured for 10 days because we considered this the optimal time for using cultured hippocampal slices as mode. Is having similar properties to those observed in vivo. After slicing, hippocampal slices recover from the damage and complete the trisyna ptic neuronal circuitry (DG  $\rightarrow$  CA3  $\rightarrow$  CA1) by 10–14 days in vitro (DIV) [13]. Additional aberrant fiber projections from CA3 to DG are observed in the hippocampal slices cultured for >2 weeks [14].

# Drug Treatment

 $E_2$  and the xenoestrogens were dissolved at 10 mM in ethanol and added to the culture media to yield the final concentrations. The slices were incubated for 24 h with 1 ml of the media including these compounds. Tamoxifen (Sigma, St. Louis, Mo., USA) and ICI (Tocris, Ballwin, Mo., USA) were dissolved at 1 mM in ethanol and coapplied with  $E_2$  at the final concentrations. Glutamate was dissolved at 100 mM in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and added to the media to yield the final concentrations. The media including glutamate (1 ml) was added to both above and below the membrane. The cultures were then incubated at  $37 \,^{\circ}\text{C}$  for  $15 \,^{\circ}\text{min}$ , washed 3 times with HBSS and again incubated with fresh media for  $24 \,^{\circ}\text{h}$  for recovery. These procedures are based on the glutamate toxicity study by Sato and Matsuki [12].

### Propidium Iodide Uptake Assay

Neuronal viability was determined by the propidium iodide (PI) uptake assay [12]. PI was dissolved at  $500 \,\mu\text{g/ml}$  in PBS and added to the recovery media at 5  $\mu\text{g/ml}$ . After the 24-hour incubation, the slices were washed 3 times with HBSS and the fluorescent images were obtained by confocal microscopy using a  $4 \times$  objective.

### Immunohistochemistry

The slices were washed 3 times with 2 ml PBS for 5 min and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) (Wako Pure Chemical, Osaka, Japan) in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (BP) for 30 min. After washing with PBS, the slices were treated with 0.3% Triton X-100 in PBS for 60 min at room temperature, and blocked with PBS containing 10% Block Ace (Dainippon-Seiyaku, Osaka, Japan) at 4°C overnight. They were then incubated with rabbit polyclonal IgG to 23 residue-synthetic peptide corresponding to the C-terminus of the rat NR1 subunit of NMDA receptor (Upstate Biotechnology, Lake Placid, N.Y., USA) diluted at 1:100 in the vehicle (PBS containing 10% Block Ace) for 8 h at 4°C. After wash, they were incubated with Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-rabbit IgG (Molecular Probes, Eugene, Oreg., USA) diluted at 1:200 in the vehicle for 4 h at 4°C. After washing with PBS, fluorescent images were obtained by confocal microscopy using a 4× objective or a 60× oil immersion objective.

### DiI Staining

The slices were washed 3 times with 2 ml PBS for 5 min and fixed with 4% PFA in 0.1 M PB for 30 min. The fixative above the membrane was removed and 1,1'-dioctadecyl-3,3,3',3'-tetramethylindocarbocyanine perchlorate (DiI; Molecular Probes) crystals were embedded in CA1 and CA3 pyramidal cell layers under the microscope. After a 3-day incubation at room temperature, the morphology of the neurons was observed by confocal microscopy using a  $60 \times 0$  oil immersion objective.

### Confocal Microscopy

Fluorescent images were visualized by the μ-Radiance laser scanning confocal system (BioRad, Hercules, Calif., USA) equipped with an inverted microscope (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan). The slices were

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observed using a 4× objective or a 60× oil immersion objective. Data of each session were collected at the same gain and black level settings. When the 60× objective was used, horizontal optical sections were taken at 10  $\mu m$  steps and the resultant z-series were summed up to a flat image.

### TSQ Staining

Mossy fiber terminals were visualized by staining of Zn<sup>2+</sup> in the synaptic vesicles according to the modified protocol by Frederickson et al. [15]. A working solution of N-(6-methoxy-8-quinolyl)-p-toluenesulfonamide (TSQ) was prepared as follows. Sodium acetate (1.9 g) and sodium barbital (2.9 g) were dissolved in 100 ml of triple deionized water and 0.1 ml hot ethanol containing 1.5% TSQ was added. The working solution was made immediately before using and adjusted to pH 10.0. After wash with HBSS, the cultured slices were fixed with 8 ml of methanol for 10 min in Petri dishes. After treatment with 8 ml of acetone for 3 min, the slices were washed with PBS 3 times for 5 min and immersed in 8 ml of TSO working solution for 5 min. After wash with PBS, the slices were carefully removed from the membranes and placed on clean microscope slides. TSQ fluorescence (385 nm) emitted by excitation at 340 nm was digitally imaged by an inverted microscope equipped with an intensified charged-coupled device camera and a digital image processor (Argus 50/CA, Hamamatsu Photonics, Hamamatsu, Japan). Sixteen trial images obtained with a 4× objective were averaged to improve the signal-to-noise ratio.

### Image Analysis

Image analysis was performed using a graphic software (Photoshop ver. 5.5, Adobe Systems, Mountain View, Calif., USA). For measuring the fluorescence intensity, five square windows (10,000  $\mu m^2$  each) were placed on desired regions, and the fluorescence intensity was obtained by measuring averaged gray-scale values of the selected windows. The intensities of these five windows were averaged and the background intensity was subtracted. In PI uptake experiments, data were normalized to 100% cell damage measured from the slices which had been exposed to 0.3% Triton X-100 for 4 h. In immunohistochemical staining and TSQ staining, the data are shown as averaged pixel intensities. Spines on the proximal sites of apical and basal dendrites were counted and the numbers per 10  $\mu m$  are shown.

### Statistical Analysis

The data were obtained from 4-8 independent experiments (averaged values of 4 slices for each), expressed as means  $\pm$  SEM values. Tests of variance homogeneity, normality and distribution were performed to ensure that the assumptions required for standard parametric ANOVA were satisfied. Statistical analysis was performed by one-way repeated-measure ANOVA and post hoc Tukey's test for multiple pairwise comparisons.

### Results

When applied alone,  $E_2$  and the xenoestrogens (1 pM to 100  $\mu$ M, 24 h treatment) had no effect on neuronal viability in all regions of cultured hippocampal slices. However, these compounds markedly affected neuronal vulnerability to glutamate. Figure 1 shows the effect of  $E_2$  on

the glutamate toxicity in the cultured hippocampal slices. We visualized injured or dead cells by PI, which entered cells that had lost membrane integrity and emitted fluorescence when bound to nucleic acids. As shown in figure 1a (left) and 1b, glutamate (1 mM, 15 min) induced region-dependent neuronal damage (CA1 > CA3 > DG). Pretreatment with E<sub>2</sub> (24 h) markedly exacerbated the glutamate-induced neuronal damage in CA3 at 1 nM and higher concentrations [fig. 1a (right), b]. The maximal effect was observed at 1 nM (142.9% of the group exposed to glutamate alone) followed by a slight decline at higher concentrations. By contrast, E<sub>2</sub> attenuated the neuronal damage in CA1 at 1 pM and 1 nM (70.0 and 78.5% of the group exposed to glutamate alone, respectively).

The four xenoestrogens (EE, DES, PNP and BPA) also exacerbated the CA3 neuronal damage induced by glutamate (fig. 2). In contrast to their various binding affinities to ERs [16], all of these compounds produced maximal effects at 1 nM followed by declines at higher concentrations. DES (100 nM), PNP (1 nM to 100  $\mu$ M) and BPA (100  $\mu$ M) attenuated the neuronal damage in CA1. Although 1 nM DES and 1  $\mu$ M BPA exacerbated the CA1 and DG damage, these effects were weak compared with the effects stated above.

To examine the correlation between ERs and the exacerbation by  $E_2$  and the xenoestrogens of CA3 damage, an ER antagonist, tamoxifen (100 nM to 10  $\mu$ M) or ICI (10 nM to 1  $\mu$ M) was co-applied with these compounds (table 1). We confirmed that neither of these antagonists alone affected the glutamate-induced damage. Neither tamoxifen nor ICI inhibited the effects of  $E_2$  and the xenoestrogens, indicating that these compounds exacerbated CA3 neuronal damage through signaling pathways independent of ERs.

In ER-binding assays, the dissociation constants (Kd) of  $E_2$  for ER $\alpha$  and ER $\beta$  are 0.1 and 0.4 nM [17]. BPA is the weakest estrogen among the xenoestrogens used in this report and requires 300- and 2,000-fold higher concentrations than  $E_2$  for binding to ER $\alpha$  and ER $\beta$ , indicating that BPA has no interaction with ERs at 1 nM. Therefore, to clarify the cytoarchitectural changes underlying the increased vulnerability of CA3 neurons unrelated to ERs, we used 1 nM BPA as well as 1 nM  $E_2$  and compared their effects on the expression of NMDA receptor, spine density and mossy fiber sprouting, which may affect the neuronal survival.

Figure 3 shows the effect of  $E_2$  and BPA on expression of the NMDA receptor, identified by immunostaining of the NR1 subunit, which is indispensable for functional receptors [18, 19]. In control slices, the neuronal layers in

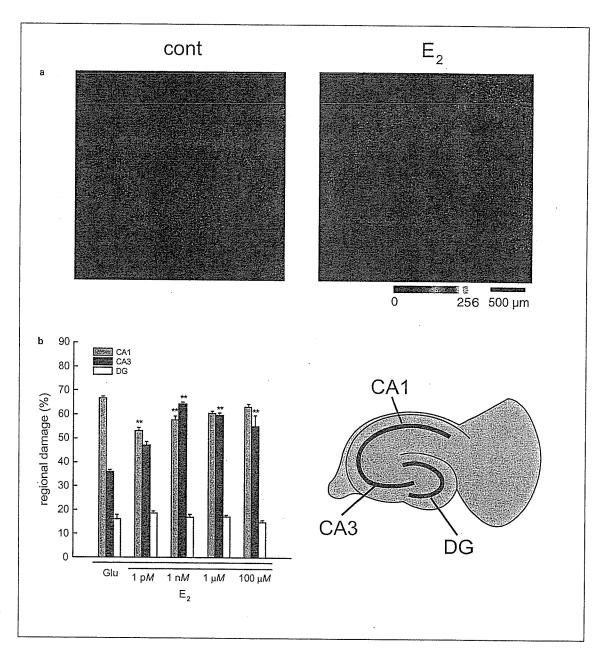


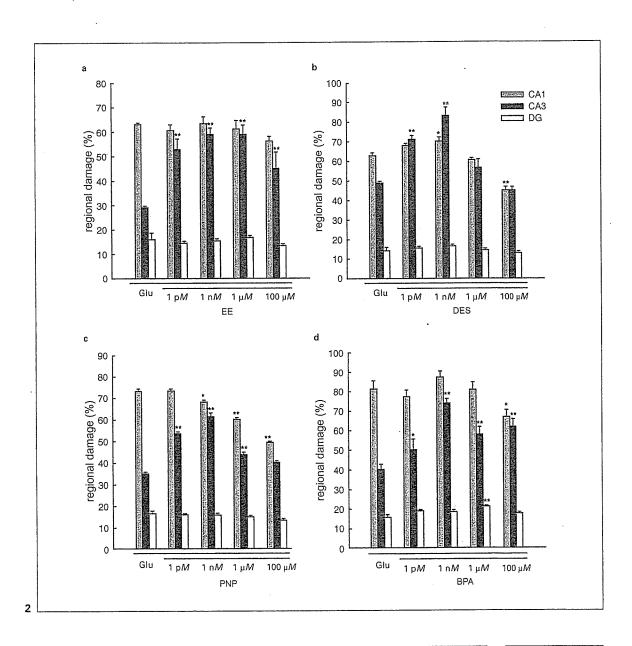
Fig. 1. The effect of  $E_2$  on the glutamate-induced neuronal damage in the cultured hippocampal slice. a Typical PI fluorescent images of the slice exposed to glutamate alone (1 mM, 15 min, left) and the slice pretreated with  $E_2$  (1 nM, 24 h) before the exposure to glutamate (right). b Normalized PI fluorescence intensities in CA1, CA3 and DG.  $E_2$  selectively exacerbated the CA3 neuronal damage caused by glutamate and the most pronounced effect was observed at 1 nM. Experiments were repeated with 8 different plates, producing the same results. \*\* p < 0.01 vs. the group exposed to glutamate alone; n = 8, Tukey's test following ANOVA.

Fig. 2. The effects of EE (a), DES (b), PNP (c) and BPA (d) on the glutamate-induced neuronal damage in the cultured hippocampal slices. Normalized PI fluorescence intensities in CA1, CA3 and DG are shown. All of these compounds exacerbated the CA3 neuronal damage caused by glutamate and the most pronounced effect was observed at 1 nM. Experiments were repeated with 8 different plates, producing the same results. \*p < 0.05; \*\*p < 0.01 vs. the group exposed to glutamate alone; n = 8, Tukey's test following ANOVA.

**Table 1.** Effects of ER antagonists on the exacerbation of the CA3 damage by  $E_2$  and the xenoestrogens

	Exacerbation rate, %	Exacerbation rate, %				
	– antagonists	+ antagonists				
		tamoxifen	ICI			
Glutamate alone	100±7.28	110.24±8.99	118.888±8.95			
+ E <sub>2</sub>	227.68 ± 15.42**	$214.40 \pm 22.71$	$188.55 \pm 28.63$			
+ EE	195.22 ± 9.13**	$194.21 \pm 15.04$	$185.94 \pm 12.19$			
+ DES	177.05 ± 14.74**	$199.77 \pm 18.93$	$182.70 \pm 8.31$			
+ PNP	166.39 ± 11.86**	$196.75 \pm 18.93$	$171.58 \pm 18.15$			
+ BPA	179.84±14.39**	$205.00 \pm 21.26$	$198.55 \pm 10.91$			

Tamoxifen (10  $\mu$ M) and ICI (1  $\mu$ M) did not affect the exacerbation of the CA3 damage by 1 nM of E2 and xenoestrogens. \*\* p < 0.01 vs. the group exposed to glutamate alone; n = 4, Tukey's test following ANOVA.



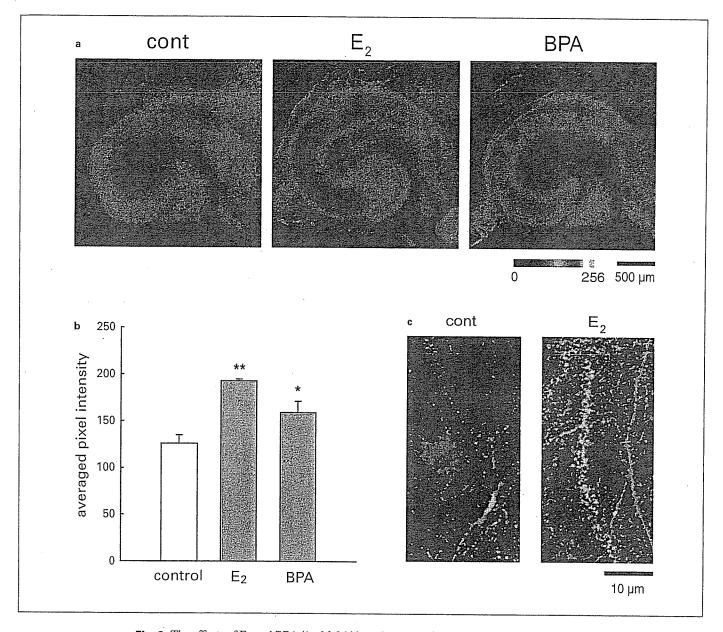


Fig. 3. The effects of  $E_2$  and BPA (1 nM, 24 h) on the expression of NR1 subunit of NMDA receptor. a Typical NR1 immunofluorescence in the control slice (left), the slice treated with  $E_2$  (middle) and the slice treated with BPA (right). b Normalized fluorescence intensity in CA3.  $E_2$  and BPA significantly increased the expression of NR1. \* p < 0.05; \*\* p < 0.01 vs. control group; n = 4, Tukey's test following ANOVA. c Typical fluorescent images of CA3 apical dendrites of the control slice (left) and the slice treated with  $E_2$  (right), double-stained with DiI (red) and NR1 immunostaining (green). The induction of NR1 by  $E_2$  on the CA3 apical dendrites was identified as yellow patches.

CA1, CA3 and DG were NR1 immunopositive, and the strongest signal was observed in CA1 (fig. 3a, left). After the exposure to  $E_2$  and BPA (1 nM, 24 h), the CA3 signal was largely increased (152 and 133% of the control group, respectively; fig. 3a, b). Although increases were also observed in CA1 and DG, these changes were weak com-

pared with that in CA3. A recent report has shown that the apical dendrites of CA3 neurons (stratum lucidum) scarcely express NR1 [20]. Thus, we confirmed the induction by  $E_2$  of NR1 on the CA3 apical dendrites by double-staining with DiI (fig. 3c, red) and NR1 antibody (fig. 3c, green). Although NR1 signals were weak on the CA3 api-

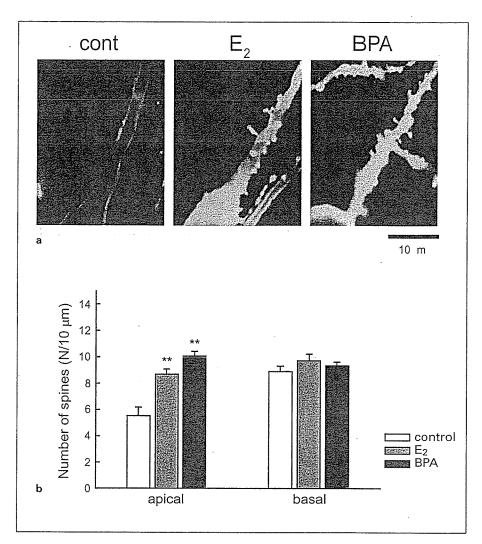


Fig. 4. Effects of  $E_2$  and BPA (1 nM, 24 h) on spine density. a Typical fluorescent images of DiI-stained CA3 apical dendrites of the control slice (left), the slice treated with  $E_2$  (middle) and the slice treated with BPA (right). b Spine density of the apical and basal dendrites of CA3 neurons.  $E_2$  and BPA significantly increased the spine density of the apical dendrites. \*\* p < 0.01 vs. control group; n = 4, Tukey's test following ANOVA.

cal dendrites in the control slices (fig. 3c, left), the patchy yellow signals were found on CA3 apical dendrites in the  $E_2$ -treated slices (fig. 3c, right), indicating that these compounds promote the expression of NMDA receptor.

Spines were visualized by staining with DiI.  $E_2$  and BPA (1 nM, 24 h) significantly increased the spine density of the apical portion of CA3 dendrites (158 and 187% of the control group, respectively), whereas they had no effect on that of the basal portion (fig. 4b). Typical morphologies of CA3 apical dendrites are shown in figure 4a. In CA1, these compounds had no effect on spine densities.

Mossy fiber terminals were visualized by using TSQ, a quinoline that emits strong fluorescence when it chelates to  $Zn^{2+}$  in synaptic vesicles. At first, we confirmed the specificity of TSQ to mossy fiber terminals (fig. 5). When

the slices were stained with TSQ, the fluorescence was observed in the stratum lucidum of CA3 and in the hylus of DG (fig. 5a). When the slices were pretreated with dithizone, a nonfluorescent Zn<sup>2+</sup> chelator, the TSQ fluorescence almost disappeared, indicating that TSO emits fluorescence when it binds to endogenous Zn<sup>2+</sup> (fig. 5b). When the slices whose DG region had been dissociated on DIV 1 were stained (fig. 5c), TSQ fluorescence in the stratum lucidum also disappeared (fig. 5b), indicating that this fluorescence is localized in the mossy fiber terminals. As shown in figures 6a and 6b, both E2 and BPA increased the TSO fluorescence in the stratum lucidum at 1 nM (161 and 131% of the control group, respectively), suggesting that these compounds enhance the sprouting of mossy fiber terminals. In addition, these compounds also enhanced the signal in the DG hilus.

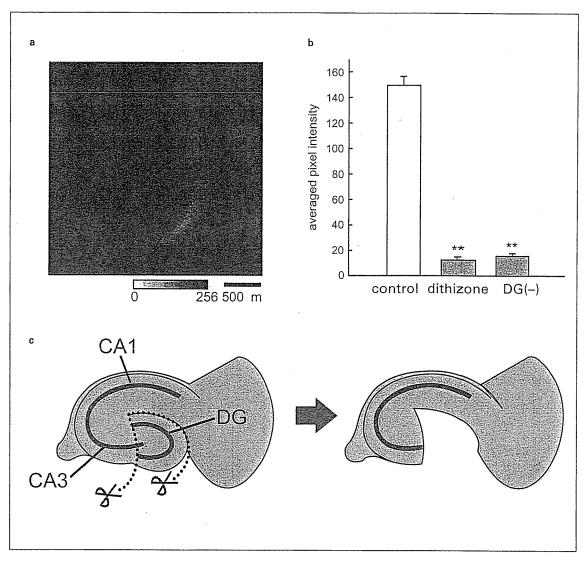


Fig. 5. TSQ emitted fluorescence in the stratum lucidum by binding to  $Zn^{2+}$  in the synaptic vesicles of mossy fiber terminals. a Typical TSQ fluorescence in the control slice. b Normalized TSQ fluorescence intensities of the slices pretreated with dithizone (1 mM) and the slices cultured without DG region. TSQ fluorescence disappeared by these treatments. \*\* p < 0.01 vs. control group; n = 6, Tukey's test following ANOVA. c The slice whose DG region was dissociated on DIV 1.

### Discussion

We investigated the effects of  $E_2$  and xenoestrogens on CNS neurons using organotypic hippocampal slice cultures. Our results are summarized as follows: (1)  $E_2$  and xenoestrogens selectively exacerbated the CA3 neuronal damage caused by glutamate, (2) the effects were mediated through mechanisms other than ERs, (3) both  $E_2$  and BPA increased the expression of NMDA receptor and the spine density of apical dendrites in CA3, and

(4)  $E_2$  and BPA enhanced the sprouting of mossy fiber terminals to CA3 neurons.

Little information is available concerning the effects of  $E_2$  and xenoestrogens on CNS neurons during the postnatal developmental stage. Hippocampal slices were made from 8-day-old postnatal rats and cultured for 10 days with medium containing gelding horse serum, in which levels of estrogens were under the detection limit. It has been reported that during postnatal development, the capability of the estrogen-binding protein is high enough

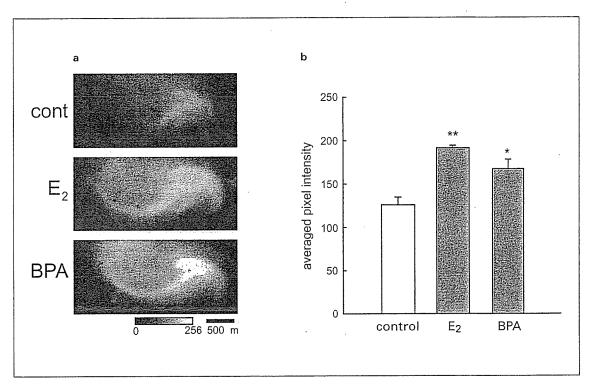


Fig. 6. The effects of  $E_2$  and BPA (1 nM, 24 h) on the mossy fiber sprouting. a Typical TSQ fluorescence in the control slice (upper), the slice treated with  $E_2$  (middle) and the slice treated with BPA (bottom). b Normalized TSQ fluorescence intensities in the stratum lucidum of CA3.  $E_2$  and BPA significantly enhanced the mossy fiber sprouting. \* p < 0.05; \*\* p < 0.01 vs. control group; n = 6, Tukey's test following ANOVA.

and the concentration of serum estrogens is lowered to nonphysiological levels [21]. Thus, our results can be regarded as the acute effects of xenoestrogens on the hippocampal neurons during postnatal development if these compounds can escape from the protein binding.

Although the four xenoestrogens used here have various binding affinities to ERs ( $E_2 = EE = DES > PNP >$ BPA) [16], they similarly exacerbated the glutamateinduced CA3 damage with maximal effects observed at 1 nM. Saturation ligand binding analysis has revealed that the dissociation constants (Kd) of ERα and ERβ for E2 are 0.1 and 0.4 nM, respectively [17]. BPA has the lowest binding affinities to ERs among the four xenoestrogens and its affinities to ERa and ERB are 2,000 and 300 times lower than E<sub>2</sub> [17]. Thus, BPA has little interaction with ER $\alpha$  and ER $\beta$  at 1 nM, suggesting that these effects of E<sub>2</sub> and the xenoestrogens are independent of ERs. We confirmed this hypothesis using two ER antagonists of distinct classes, tamoxifen and ICI. Although tamoxifen is a partial agonist of ERs and mimics the agonistic effect of E<sub>2</sub> in some tissues [22], it has been reported that this compound completely antagonizes E2 in the CNS neuron culture [23]. ICI is a pure antiestrogen and binds to ligand-binding domains of both ER $\alpha$  and ER $\beta$  [24]. Neither of these compounds affected the exacerbation by E<sub>2</sub> and the xenoestrogens of the CA3 damage, indicating that the effects were mediated through mechanisms other than ERs.

In contrast to CA3, CA1 damage was attenuated by E2 and the xenoestrogens. Females are known to be less vulnerable to acute insults associated with cerebral ischemia, neurotrauma, hypoxia, and drug-induced toxicity [25]. In vitro studies also demonstrated that estrogens were protective against neuronal injury induced by excitatory amino acids, β-amyloid peptide or oxidative stress [26]. Optimal concentrations of E2 for these protective effects vary from one report to the other suggesting that multiple mechanisms underlie them. The effects observed at low concentrations (pM to nM) are ER dependent [25], and relate to extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK) activation [27] and/or brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) induction [28]. On the other hand, the effects observed at concentrations higher than 1  $\mu M$  depend on the antioxidant activities and the hydrophobic phenolic molecules that

have the same chemical properties as  $E_2$  and are also neuroprotective at this concentration [29]. In this study, only  $E_2$  showed a protective effect at 1 pM and 1 nM, suggesting that this may have been mediated by ERs. Because part of glutamate neurotoxicity is caused by reactive oxygen species [30], neuroprotection by the xenoestrogens at higher concentrations than 1  $\mu$ M may have been due to their antioxidant activities. The antioxidant property of  $E_2$  may have been masked by its ER-mediated effect. In addition, in CA3, the region-specific exacerbation may have prevailed over neuroprotective effects of these compounds.

As described above, E2 and the xenoestrogens exacerbated the CA3 damage induced by glutamate without interaction with ERs. Because BPA has little interaction with ER $\alpha$  and ER $\beta$  at 1 nM owing to its low binding affinity [17], the common cytoarchitectural changes induced by E2 and BPA in CA3 may correlate with this ER-unrelated increased vulnerability of CA3 neurons. Although various glutamate receptor subtypes are implicated in excitotoxic cell death, it is generally accepted that NMDA receptor plays a major role, mainly owing to its high Ca<sup>2+</sup> permeability [31]. Thus, we examined the effects of E<sub>2</sub> and BPA on the expression of NR1, the obligatory subunit of the NMDA receptor function [18, 19]. Both compounds equally increased the expression of NR1 in CA3. In ovariectomized (OVX) adult rats, E2 increases the expression of NMDA receptor in CA1 by posttranscriptional regulation [32]. In our study, E2 and BPA had no effect on the NR1 expression in CA1, suggesting that the regulation by estrogens of the expression of NMDA receptor during the developmental stage is different from that in the adult period. Whether or not the effect during the developmental stage is also mediated by posttranscriptional regulation needs to be evaluated.

The increased level of NMDA receptor protein suggests that E<sub>2</sub> and BPA increase the number of synapses. Because dendritic spines are the major postsynaptic targets for excitatory synaptic inputs [33], we investigated the effect of E<sub>2</sub> and BPA on the spine density. The apical dendrites of CA3 pyramidal neurons receive mossy fibers at the proximal segment (stratum lucidum), entorhinal fibers at stratum moleculare, septohippocampal fibers at the middle and terminal dendritic regions (stratum radiatum) and other associational, commissural and collateral inputs in the middle segments. The basal dendrites receive mossy fiber collaterals, commissural and septal inputs at the proximal regions (stratum oriens) [34]. E<sub>2</sub> and BPA specifically increased the spine density at the proximal site of CA3 apical dendrite, suggesting that these compounds induced the synaptogenesis between CA3

neurons and mossy fibers. In OVX adult rats, E<sub>2</sub> upregulates the spine density of CA1 neurons via ERs [35] in an NMDA receptor-dependent manner [2]. It is possible that the increase in spine density in our study is also dependent on the NMDA receptor activity. However, the trigger causing the increase in CA3 spine density during the postnatal period are different from that in CA1 of adult rats because the effect was ER independent in our study. It is reported that cAMP response element binding protein (CREB) phosphorylation [36] and the decrease in GABAergic input [37] relate to the generation of new dendritic spines by E<sub>2</sub> in cultured hippocampal neurons. These steps may also correlate with the effects observed in our study.

Because increased spine density was observed specifically in the proximal site of CA3 apical dendrite corresponding to the postsynaptic site of mossy fiber-CA3 synapse, we next investigated the effects of E2 and BPA on the presynaptic terminal density of mossy fibers by TSQ staining. In mossy fiber terminals, abundant Zn<sup>2+</sup> is localized in the synaptic vesicles [38, 39]. Although the silveramplification method (Timm-Danscher staining) has been widely used to stain Zn<sup>2+</sup> in mossy fiber terminals, the possibility of labeling other heavy metals with this method has not been definitively excluded [15]. In the present study, we visualized Zn<sup>2+</sup> with TSQ, a quinoline that forms Zn<sup>2+</sup>, i.e. quinoline fluorescent chelates. Although Ca<sup>2+</sup> and Mg<sup>2+</sup> are also biologically relevant cations that form fluorescent complexes with TSQ [40], the binding constant of TSQ for Zn<sup>2+</sup> is >1,000-fold higher than that for  $Ca^{2+}$  or  $Mg^{2+}$  [41]. We confirmed that the TSQ fluorescence completely disappeared when the slices had been pretreated with another nonfluorescent Zn2+ chelator, dithizone or TPEN. In addition, TSQ fluorescence in the stratum lucidum of the slice completely disappeared when the DG region had been dissociated on DIV 1. Based on these data, we supposed that the TSQ signals observed in this study represent Zn<sup>2+</sup> in synaptic boutons of mossy fibers as has been reported [15]. Pretreatment with E2 or BPA increased TSQ fluorescence in the stratum lucidum, indicating that sprouting or branching of mossy fiber terminals were induced by these compounds.

The upregulation of NMDA receptor, spine density and mossy fiber sprouting by  $E_2$  and BPA suggest that these compounds enhance the synaptic reorganization of mossy fibers with CA3 neurons through mechanisms other than ERs. A series of changes observed in our study have much in common with those of epileptic hippocampus. Selective neuronal death in CA3 [42] and aberrant

sprouting of mossy fibers [43-45] have been described in the epileptic hippocampus. Afferent inputs strongly influence the shape and the number of dendritic spines [46– 48]. The elevation of neuronal activity, like epilepsy, is generally thought to result in the upregulation of spines. Therefore, the synaptic reorganization in CA3 induced by  $E_2$  and the xenoestrogens may contribute as key steps to increased vulnerability of CA3 neurons. Mossy fibers also establish synaptic contacts with polymorphic neurons in the DG hilus. The TSQ fluorescence observed in DG may represent a small population of recurrent axon collaterals branching from parent mossy fibers. Interestingly, E<sub>2</sub> and BPA increased the TSQ fluorescence in the hilus as well as that in the stratum lucidum of CA3, suggesting that these compounds directly enhance mossy fiber sprouting. There may be some additional factors that cause increased vulnerability of CA3, and the increased level of NMDA receptor may be one of such factors.

Recent studies have provided a large body of evidence that estrogens interact with plasma membrane binding sites/receptors, which are hypothesized to be of G-protein-coupled type and reveal the effects via cAMP/protein kinase A (PKA) signaling pathway [49]. Although the target site(s) of E<sub>2</sub> and the xenoestrogens still remain to be

determined, the responses observed in the present study may be mediated through membrane binding sites/receptors coupled to intracellular transduction pathways. This is consistent with a report indicating that the generation of new dendritic spines requires phosphorylation of CREB [36].

Our results raise the possibility that exposure to  $E_2$  and xenoestrogens during the developmental stage results in a marked influence on the generation of neuronal circuitry and vulnerability through unidentified mechanisms other than ERs. Although this influence can occur at very low concentrations (1 pM to 1 nM), its impact on the nervous systems of humans and animals cannot be elucidated at present. Risk assessment and, if applicable, development of procedures to overcome it may be necessary.

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HIGH-PRESSURE MEDIATED ASYMMETRIC DIELS-ALDER REACTION OF CHIRAL SULFINYLACRYLATE DERIVATIVES AND ITS APPLICATION TO CHIRAL SYNTHESIS OF (–)-COTC AND (–)-GABOSINE  $\mathbf{C}^{\dagger}$ 

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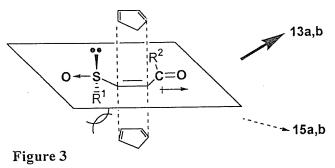
Abstract – The asymmetric Diels-Alder reactions of chiral sulfinylacrylate derivatives (1 and 2) with dienes (3–12) were examined under high-pressure (1.2 GPa) conditions. The *endo* cycloadduct (13e) obtained from sulfinyl acrylate (1) and 2-methoxyfuran (5) was converted to (–)-COTC (25) and (–)-gabosine C (26).

The asymmetric Diels-Alder (D-A) reaction is one of the most efficient tools for constructing optically active cyclic compounds bearing up to four stereogenic centers in a single operation. In a large number of highly asymmetric D-A reactions, there are numerous examples of cycloadditions of chiral dienophiles with active dienes such as cyclopentadiene. Although considerable effort has been devoted to designing powerful chiral dienophiles which react with less active dienes such as furans, there are few successful examples of such cycloadditions. Having negative volume of activation, D-A reaction is amenable to high-pressure conditions. Moreover, high-pressure techniques have been known to be an efficient method not only for the synthesis of molecules sensitive to Lewis acid catalysis but also for enhancement of asymmetric induction. Applying this technique, asymmetric D-A reactions would proceed without a Lewis acid between unactivated dienophiles and less active dienes, and this strategy could have wide application. In a previous report, we demonstrated high-pressure mediated asymmetric D-A reaction of chiral sulfinylacrylate derivatives (18 and 2) with furan (4) or 2-methoxyfuran (5). We wish to report here the scope and limitations of this method and the application of the cycloadduct (13e) to the chiral synthesis of a glyoxalase I inhibitor, (-)-COTC (25)3c,9 and (-)-gabosine C (antibiotic KD16-U1) (26)10 in detail.

(+)-Z-3-(2-exo-Hydroxy-10-bornyl) propenamide (2) was prepared in two steps from 10-mercapto-2-exo-borneol<sup>8</sup> by successive Michael addition to propiolamide<sup>11</sup> and selective mCPBA oxidation in 43% overall yield. In order to establish the scope and limitations of high-pressure mediated asymmetric D-A reaction of the dienophiles (1 and 2), we investigated this reaction with various non-activated dienes (4–7, 9–12) and with Danishefsky's diene (8) (Figure 1).

In our preliminary experiments, the steric course of the cycloaddition of 1 and 2 with cyclopentadiene (3) under high-pressure conditions was compared with that under atmospheric pressure conditions (Figures 1

and 2). Reactions of 1 with 3 in CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> proceeded readily at rt under both atmospheric and high-pressure (1.2 GPa) conditions to give the same *endo* cycloadduct (13a) as a single diastereomer in 92 and 88% yields, respectively. Similar reactions of 2 with 3 in CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>/MeOH (1:1) under atmospheric or high-pressure conditions gave *endo* cycloadduct (13b) and *exo* cycloadduct (14b) in 87 and 5% yields or 81



and 9% yields, respectively. All of these reactions proceeded with high diastereoselectivity and regioselectivity. The structure of 13a was confirmed by comparison of its spectral data with those in the literature<sup>8</sup> and the absolute configuration of product (13b) was determined by X-Ray diffraction analysis. From these results, the same steric course was suggested for the reaction of 1 or 2 with 3 under both

atmospheric and high-pressure conditions.<sup>3b-e</sup> The conformation for C=C-S=O of 1 and 2 should be oriented *s-trans* due to strong dipole-dipole repulsion between sulfinyl and carbonyl groups. An attack of 3 from the less hindered face (lone pair-side) is favored to give adducts (13a,b) (Figure 3).

Most of the attempts to achieve the D-A reactions of dienophiles (1 and 2) with dienes (4–12) under thermal conditions (50–100 °C) were unsuccessful and the starting dienophiles were recovered. Reactions

of 1 with 6 and 8 in CH2Cl2 at 50 °C for 3 days in a sealed tube gave cycloadduct (16a) (9% yield) and methyl 4-hydroxybenzoate (18)12 (8% yield), respectively. The adduct of 1 with 8 was not stable under the reaction conditions, and decomposed by spontaneous elimination of sulfenic acid and methanol as well as desilylation to afford 18. In the presence of ZnCl2, a sluggish reaction was observed between 1 and 6 to give 16a (33% yield) at 70 °C after 4 days, whereas no reaction proceeded at all in the cases of 1 with 7 and 9-12. In contrast, D-A reaction took place under high-pressure (1.2 GPa) conditions. The most significant results are summarized in Table 1. The high-pressure reaction conditions proved to be very effective for asymmetric D-A reactions of 1 and 2 with dienes (4-7) in respect of diastereoselectivity (from 95:5 to 100:0) and regioselectivity (from 71:29 to 100:0) giving the cycloadducts (13-17) (entries 1-7). Due to lower reactivity of the amide 2, the diastereoselectivity of the reactions of 2 may be higher than that of the ester 1. The configuration of endo and exo cycloadducts (13-16) was deduced by 1H-NMR spectra and mechanistic consideration.3b-e Reaction of 1 with 8 gave 18 in low yield (entry 8). In the reaction of 1 with 9, only isomerized dienophiles 1913 and 2013 were obtained (entry 9). All reactions of 2 with 7-12 as well as of 1 with 10-12 did not occur at all. From these results, high-pressure mediated conditions are proved to be especially suited for the asymmetric D-A reaction of the dienophiles (1 and 2) with furans (4 and 5).

Table 1. High-Pressure (1.2 GPa) Mediated Asymmetric D-A Reactions of Chiral Sulfinylacrylate Derivatives (1 and 2) with Dienes (4–9)

			reaction conditions				
entry	dienophile	diene	temp.	solv.a	time (days)	products (ratio)b	yield (%)
1	. 1	4	rt <sup>c</sup>	Α	3	13c/14c/15c (82:14:4)	94
2	2	4	rt <sup>c</sup>	В	3	13d (100)	81
3	1	5	rt <sup>c</sup>	Α	3	13e/14e (71:29)	d
4	2	5	rt <sup>c</sup>	В	3	13f/14f (92:8)	е
5	1	6	50 °C	A	3	16a	32
6	2	6	50 °C	В	7	16b	28
7	1	7.	80 °C	Α	7	17	13
8	1	8	80 °C	Α	3	18	18
9	1	9	50 °C	A	7	19/20 (85:15)	26

a) A: CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>; B: CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>/MeOH (1:1). b) Ratios were determined by <sup>1</sup>H-NMR spectroscopy. c) Rt. d) Because of its instability, **13e** was isolated as diol **(21e)** after dihydroxylation (53% yield from 1). e) Because of its instability, **13f** was isolated as diol **(21f)** after dihydroxylation (63% yield from 2).

In order to confirm the absolute configuration of major *endo* adduct (13), 13e was converted to (-)-COTC (25) and gabosine C (26) (Scheme 1). Dihydroxylation of 13e afforded diol (21e) (53% yield from 1). Acetonide formation of 21e gave 22 (64% yield). Reaction of 22 with LiAlH<sub>4</sub> afforded alcohol (23) which was esterified with crotonic anhydride to give 24 (43% yield from 22). Treatment of 24 with trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) afforded (-)-COTC (25) (29% yield). Likewise, treatment of 23 with TFA gave

(-)-gabosine C (26) (51% yield from 22). <sup>1</sup>H-NMR and IR spectra of 25 and 26 were identical with those reported. <sup>3c,9,10</sup> From these results, the absolute configuration of 13e was determined as shown in Figure 2

i) cat. OsO<sub>4</sub>, Me<sub>3</sub>NO, acetone, 0 °C then rt, 21e: 53% from 1, 21f: 63% from 2; ii) 2,2-dimethoxypropane, cat. p-TsOH, acetone, reflux, 64%; iii) LiAlH<sub>4</sub>, THF, rt; iv) crotonic anhydride, pyridine, DMAP, benzene, rt, 43% from 22; v) 80% aqueous TFA, -20 °C, 25: 29%, 26: 51% from 22.

### Scheme 1

and Scheme 1. Accordingly, the steric course of the reaction was confirmed to be the same in these asymmetric cycloadditions under both atmospheric and high-pressure conditions.

In conclusion, we have successfully developed high-pressure mediated asymmetric D-A reaction of unactivated dienophiles, sulfinylacrylate derivatives (1 and 2), with less active dienes. This technique proved to be very effective for combination of 1 and 2 with the dienes (4–7) in respect of diastereoselectivity and regioselectivity. However, the dienes (8–12) were not suited for this reaction. Transformation of the major *endo* adduct (13e) to (–)-COTC (25) and (–)-gabosine C (26) provided not only determination of the absolute configuration of 13e but also a new strategy for a chiral synthesis of natural polyoxygenated cyclohexane derivatives.

# **EXPERIMENTAL**

Melting points were measured with a Yanaco micro melting point apparatus and are uncorrected. Microanalyses were performed by Microanalysis Center of Toyama Medical & Pharmaceutical University. Spectroscopic measurements were carried out with the following instruments: optical rotations, JASCO DIP-1000 digital polarimeter; IR, Perkin-Elmer 1600 Series FTIR; <sup>1</sup>H-NMR, Varian Gemini 300 (300 MHz) and Varian Unity 500 (500 MHz) for solutions in CDCl<sub>3</sub>, CDCl<sub>3</sub>/CD<sub>3</sub>OD or CD<sub>3</sub>OD with Me<sub>4</sub>Si as internal standard; <sup>13</sup>C-NMR, Varian Gemini 300 (75 MHz) for solutions in CD<sub>3</sub>OD with Me<sub>4</sub>Si as internal standard; MS and HRMS spectra, JEOL JMS D-200 and JEOL JMS AX-505H. High-pressure reactions were carried out by using an ordinary high-pressure apparatus. Column chromatography, flash column chromatography, and preparative TLC (PLC) were performed on Kieselgel 60 (Merck, Art. 7734, Art. 9385 and Art. 7748, respectively) and cellulose (Merck, Art. 15275).