

hexane gave pure **1** while the more polar fraction (containing **2-2f**) was subjected to preparative gas-liquid chromatography¹⁴ to give pure sample of the trichlorodibromomonomer **2**.

Results and discussion. Compound **1**, which accounts for ca. 80% of the total halogenated monoterpenes in *A. limacina* [α]_D + 4.8°C (Lit. + 5.1°C)¹¹, λ_{\max} 242 nm (ϵ , 14, 550 in cyclohexane), (Lit. 243 nm)¹¹, had a MS with M^+ 306, 308, 310, 312 and 314 corresponding to $C_{10}H_{11}Cl_5$ and major peaks at m/e 217, 219, 221, 223 ($C_6H_5Cl_4^+$) and 89, 91 (base peak, $C_4H_6Cl^+$). The 1H -NMR of this material also fully conforms with that of 3,4-erythro-7-dichloromethyl-3-methyl-3,4,8-trichloro-1,5(E),7-octatriene (**1**) previously isolated from the pacific red alga *Plocamium cartilagineum*¹¹.

Table 1. ^{13}C -NMR chemical shifts for **1** and **2**^a

	1	2
C-1	116.4	116.5
C-2 ^b	139.3	139.5
C-3	71.7	71.7
C-4 ^c	68.7	69.4
C-5 ^d	119.0	123.2
C-6 ^d	126.6	124.1
C-7	137.6	137.0
C-8 ^d	130.3	132.3
CHX ₂ ^e	65.5	36.8
CH ₃	25.1	25.1

^aSpectra were determined in [2H] chloroform at 25.20 MHz with a Varian XL-100 Fourier Transform spectrometer operating at both proton-noise decoupling and off-resonance modes; chemical shifts are given in ppm with respect to internal Me_4Si . ^bAssignment based on selective decoupling. ^cThe 2 carbons were differentiated by selective decoupling. ^dAssignments may be reversed.

Table 2. 100 MHz 1H -NMR (CCl_4) data for **2**

δ (ppm)/J (Hz)	HA	HB	HC	H-4	H-5	H-6	CHX ₂	H-8
1.78 (s)	5.37	5.24	6.02	4.48	6.54	6.58	6.76 (s)	6.30 (s)
	JAC = 16.5			J4,5 = 8*				
	JBC = 10.5			J5,6 = 16*				

^aCoupling constants as measured from the spectrum run in C_6D_6 , in which the AMX system formed by H-4, H-5 and H-6 was susceptible to first order analysis with signals at 4.14 (H-4), 6.02 (H-6) and 6.16 (H-5) ppm.

The ^{13}C -NMR-data of **1**, collected in table 1, well support this assignment. The second major halogenated monoterpene, **2**, [α]_D -9.7°C (c, 0.4 in $CHCl_3$), λ_{\max} 252 (ϵ , 0.040 in cyclohexane) did not show a molecular ion, but the presence of fragments at m/e 305, 307, 309 and 311 ($C_6H_5Br_2Cl_2^+$) and m/e 89, 91 (base peak) ($C_4H_6Cl^+$) suggested the molecular formula $C_{10}H_{11}Cl_3Br_2$ from analogy with the fragmentation of the related compound **1**. The 1H -NMR (table 2), also showed a striking resemblance to those of **1** and allowed only 2 gross structures, **2** or the alternative one having a bromochloromethyl group instead of the dibromomethyl group and the bromine instead of the chlorine at C-8, to be assigned to the new monoterpene. Specific location for the halogen atoms followed from ^{13}C -NMR-spectrum (table 1), which was very similar to that of **1** with the only notable exception that the chemical shift of the dihalomethyl carbon is upfield shifted by 28.7 ppm. This is only consistent with a dibromomethyl carbon¹⁵ and in addition replacement of the chlorine by a bromine at C-8 should produce a marked upfield shift (ca. 11–12 ppm) at the α -carbon and a downfield shift (4–5 ppm) at the β -carbon¹⁵. The stereochemistry of **2** was tentatively assigned by using the 1H -NMR empirical rules developed by Mynderse and Faulkner¹¹ for the assignments of stereochemistry for *Plocamium cartilagineum* metabolites. The chemical shift of the methyl signal suggested the threo configuration at carbons 3 and 4 and the chemical shift of proton H-6 (δ 6.58) indicated that the 7,8 double bond has the E geometry.

An examination of the gut contents of *A. limacina* revealed that it had been eating mainly the red alga *Gracilaria verrucosa*. Examination of hexane extracts of sun-dried *Gracilaria verrucosa* and *G. compressa* did not reveal the presence of halogenated monoterpenes, but **1** accompanied by **1a** has been detected by GC-MS in 2 different specimens of *Plocamium coccineum* collected from different habitats (Naples and Catania). This may indicate that the animals have stored in the digestive gland the metabolites from *Plocamium*, probably an occasional component of the sea hare's diet, and confirms the endearing ability of the sea hares to concentrate the more interesting compounds from their diet¹⁶. The algal source of the minor halogenated monoterpenes remain to be discovered, although the failure to locate them in 2 *Plocamium* specimens might indicate transformations within the digestive gland.

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Anticoccidial riboflavine antagonists

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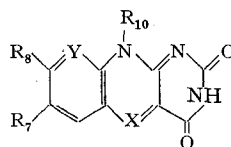
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Summary. 4 types of riboflavine antagonists have broad-spectrum activity in poultry coccidiosis. 5-Deazariboflavine is most effective. 10-Benzyl analogs of riboflavine control intestinal species of coccidia.

Many B-complex vitamin antagonists are effective for the prevention of coccidiosis in poultry and other species. Sulfa-antifol combinations¹, a non-sulfa PABA antagonist² and anti-thiamines³ are used as feed additives for

this purpose. Likewise, anticoccidial action has been observed with antagonists of nicotinic acid⁴, choline⁵ and pyridoxine⁶.

Structures and anticoccidial activities



No.	X	Y	R ₇	R ₈	R ₁₀	MED ^a feed level in ppm	
						<i>E. tenella</i>	<i>E. acervulina</i>
1	N	CH	CH ₃	CH ₃	1-D-ribityl		
2	N	CH	CH ₃	CH ₃	C ₆ H ₅	-----	^b -----
3	N	CH	CH ₃	CH ₃	n-C ₆ H ₁₁	-----	^b -----
4	N	CH	Cl	Cl	CH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₂ N(C ₂ H ₅) ₂	-----	^c -----
5	N	CH	Cl	H	1-D-ribityl	250	250
6	N	CH	CH ₃	CH ₃ NH	1-D-ribityl	60	125
7	N	CH	CH ₃	NH ₂	1-D-ribityl	60	125
8	N	CH	CH ₃	(CH ₃) ₂ N	1-D-ribityl	> 125 ^a	> 250 ^a
9	N	N	CH ₃	CH ₃	1-D-ribityl	125	125
10	CH	CH	CH ₃	CH ₃	1-D-ribityl	5	50
11	CH	CH	CH ₃	CH ₃	1-D-ribityl-5-phosphate	10	50
12	N	CH	CH ₃	CH ₃	3-ClC ₆ H ₄ CH ₂	> 500	125
13	Pargyline					1000	> 1000

^aThe test method employed is described by E. C. McManus, W. C. Campbell and A. C. Cuckler, *J. Parasit.* 54, 1190 (1968). ^bSee Ball et al.⁸.

^cSee Ryley et al.⁹. ^dCompound toxic at this level.

10 years ago E. W. Warren demonstrated that dietary riboflavin (**1**) is required for the normal development of the parasitic coccidia *Eimeria acervulina* and *E. tenella* in the chicken⁷. This conclusion was supported by the observation that partial control of an *E. acervulina* challenge is achieved on administration of the riboflavin analogs 10-ethyl- and 10-n-pentyl-7,8-dimethylisoalloxazines (**2**, **3**). The activity and accompanying host toxicity of these compounds are reversed with riboflavin⁸. Later 7,8-dichloro-10-(3-diethylaminopropyl)isoalloxazine (**4**) was found effective against *E. brunetti* both in tissue culture and bird experiments⁹, but since reversal with riboflavin was unsuccessful, the status of **4** as a vitamin antagonist is uncertain. While there has been continued general interest in riboflavin antagonists¹⁰, no further reports have appeared concerning their use in coccidiosis or other protozoan diseases.

During an extended study of this area, we have discovered 4 distinct types of riboflavin antagonists which have substantial broad-spectrum anticoccidial activity, notably 7-chloro-10-D-ribitylisoalloxazine (**5**)¹¹, 8-methylamino-8-norriboflavine (**6**), 9-azariboflavin (**9**) and 5-deazariboflavin (**10**)¹². The results of coccidiosis assays on chicks are given in the table¹³. Data are presented as minimum effective feed levels required to control *E. tenella*, the major cecal species, and *E. acervulina*, a representative intestinal species. Most remarkable is the finding that 5-deazariboflavin protects birds against *E. tenella* infection when administered at a feed level of only 5 ppm. Since the riboflavin content of the feed used is 4.8 ppm, the inhibition index of 5-deazariboflavin in this assay is near unity! In a reversal experiment, it was found that, while 10 ppm of the coccidiostat affords protection against an *E. tenella* challenge when the riboflavin feed level is 9.6 ppm, the effect of 10 ppm of drug is abolished when the vitamin intake is increased to 16.8 ppm. The singular properties of 5-deazariboflavin in flavine enzyme systems have attracted much attention already¹⁴, but these are the first interesting in vivo results on the compound. Its 5'-phosphate derivative (5-deazaFMN, **11**)^{14a,1} is a potent coccidiostat also.

Effective control of intestinal coccidia is obtained with vitamin analogs in which the 10-ribityl group is replaced by benzyl or substituted benzyl. The table gives data on 10-(3-chlorobenzyl)-7,8-dimethylisoalloxazine (**12**), an ef-

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fective agent of this type. While 5'-deoxyriboflavine¹⁵ and riboflavine-5'-sulfate¹⁶ have marginal anticoccidial activity, in general, with the exception of the benzyl compounds, variations from the ribityl group appear unprofitable. Modest activity against *E. tenella* is observed in tests of N-methyl-N-2-propynylbenzylamine, or pargyline (13), a compound which functions by k_{cat} inhibition of flavine-mediated monoamine oxidase¹⁷.

While 8-amino- and 8-dimethylamino-8-norriboflavines (7, 8) were known previously^{18,19}, the latter as the antibiotic roseoflavine, the 8-methylamino analog (6) had not been described when we completed its synthesis, but the compound was reported subsequently as a photolysis product of roseoflavine²⁰. Of the 3 amines, 6 is the best coccidiostat, since it is better tolerated than the equipotent 8-amino compound (7). Compound 6 [m.p. 307–310°C; UV_{max} (pH 7) 487 nm (ϵ 40,500), 306 (8900), 254 (49,900)] and 8 [m.p. 273–277°C; UV_{max} (pH 7) 506 nm (ϵ 31,800), 314 (7600), 258 (39,000)]²¹ were obtained by amination (150fold excess of amine, DMF, 100°C, 1 h) of 8-chloro-8-norriboflavine²².

9-Azariboflavine (9) [m.p. 255–258°C; UV_{max} (pH 7) 436 nm (ϵ 16,700), 312 (4900), 265 (32,500)] was prepared by reacting 2-chloro-5,6-dimethyl-3-nitropyridine²³ with D-ribitylamine, according to the procedure of Israel²⁴, to give 5,6-dimethyl-3-nitro-2-D-ribitylaminopyridine, m.p. 140–142.5°C, followed by hydrogenation (Pt, MeOH) of

the nitro group and condensation (C_6H_5N , 55°C, 2 h) of the diamine with 5,5-dichlorobarbituric acid²⁵.

The 10-(3-chlorobenzyl) analog (12) [m.p. 302–305°C; UV_{max} (MeOH) 440 nm (ϵ 9800), 347 (8000), 265 (28,200)] was prepared from 4,5-dinitro-o-xylene, 3-chlorobenzylamine and alloxan by a standard three-step procedure^{26,27}.

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Aniline hydroxylation in the human red cells

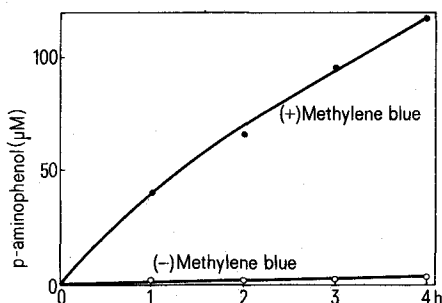
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Summary. The aniline hydroxylation in human red cells was studied and the hydroxylating activity was much accelerated in the presence of methylene blue.

The hydroxylation of such drugs as aniline has been shown to be catalyzed by microsomal cytochrome P-450 systems in a variety of mammalian tissues since the discovery by Estabrook et al.¹. However, the contribution of the red cells to this drug hydroxylation has been considered to be negligible because of the deficit of microsome.

Recently Juchau and Symms showed the aniline hydroxylating activity of human hemoglobin². Furthermore Mieyal et al. indicated that hemoglobin can be substituted for P-450 in aniline hydroxylation by microsomal monooxygenase systems³.



Aniline hydroxylation by red cells in the absence and presence of methylene blue.

On the other hand, human red cells seem to have an intracellular circumstance similar to microsome. The NADH- and NADPH-dependent diaphorases and cytochrome b_5 , which are comparable to those of microsome with regard to function and structure, have been recognized in human red cells by many authors^{4–6}, though it is unclear whether these proteins are derived from the microsome in the stages of the erythroblasts. These results suggest the possibility that red cells are capable of hydroxylating drugs such as aniline.

In spite of these possibilities, the detailed study for aniline hydroxylation by intact red cells has not been reported. This paper deals with the aniline hydroxylation in human red cells and the effect of methylene blue as an activator for the pentose phosphate shunt, which is

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