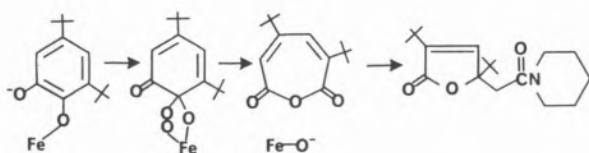


becomes monodentate during the reaction, as suggested by the structure of the  $[\text{Fe}(\text{NTA})\text{DBC}]^{2-}$  complex which shows an unsymmetrically chelated DBC ligand ( $\text{Fe}-\text{O}(\text{DBC})$ , 1.89 and 1.98 Å). The cleavage reaction is initiated by the breaking of the longer  $\text{Fe}-\text{O}(\text{DBC})$  bond. The time required for the reaction (4 days) probably reflects the energy necessary to break this bond. The activated complex then reacts with  $\text{O}_2$  to form a peroxide intermediate. It is proposed that the ferric center coordinates the peroxide and facilitates its decomposition to the desired cleavage product as illustrated below:



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MS5.10 — FR

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## STRUCTURE, RECOGNITION AND TRANSPORT OF FERRIC ENTEROBACTIN IN *E. COLI*

The transport and uptake of iron by microbes, a process which is essential for their growth, is mediated by low-molecular-weight complexing agents called siderophores [1,2]. A siderophore produced by *E. coli*, enterochelin [3] (here called enterobactin [4]), is the most powerful iron complexing agent known and has been among the most thoroughly studied of the siderophores [5]. Ferric enterobactin transport in *E. coli* has been studied with respect to the specificity of the outer membrane protein receptor and the mechanism of enterobactin-mediated transport of ferric ion across the outer membrane. Transport kinetic and inhibition studies were performed with ferric enterobactin and synthetic structural analogs (Fig. 1) to map the parts of the molecule important for receptor binding. The ferric complex of the synthetic structural analog of enterobactin, 1,3,5-N,N',N''-tris(2,3-dihydroxybenzoyl)-tri-*o*-methylbenzene (MECAM) is transported with the same maximum velocity as ferric enterobactin. A double label transport assay with  $^{59}\text{Fe}[^3\text{H}]\text{-MECAM}$  showed that the ligand and the metal are transported across the outer membrane when a large excess of extracellular complex was added to the cell suspension. At least 60% of internalized  $^{59}\text{Fe}$  enterobactin exchanged with extracellular  $^{55}\text{Fe}$  enterobactin (Fig. 2). Internalized  $^{59}\text{Fe}[^3\text{H}]\text{MECAM}$  was released from the cell as

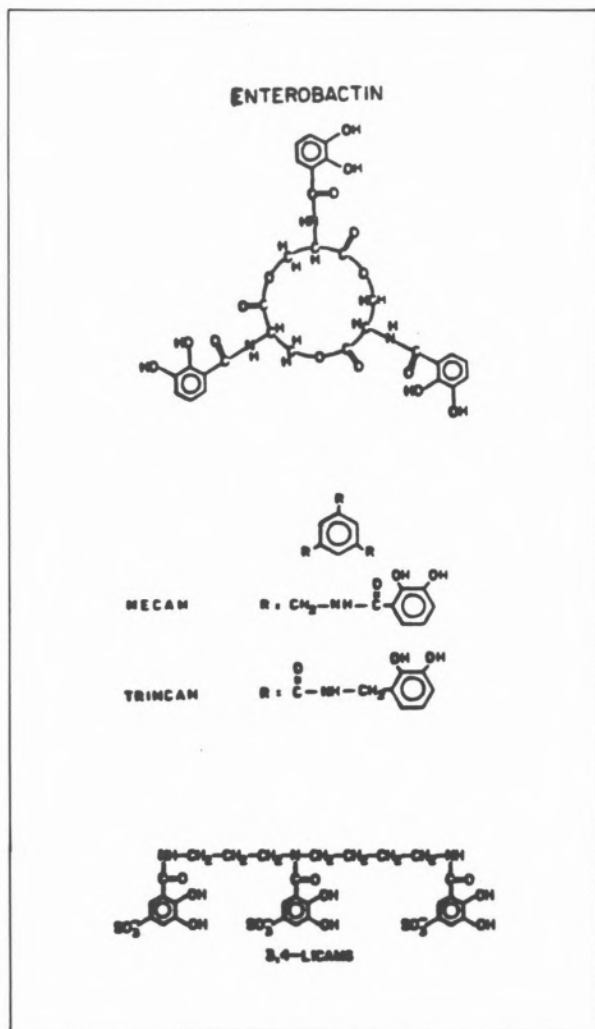


Fig. 1

The structure of enterobactin and several synthetic enterobactin analogs: MECAM[1,3,5-N,N',N''-tris(2,3-dihydroxybenzoyl)triaminomethylbenzene]; TRIMCAM[1,3,5-tris(2,3-dihydroxybenzoyl)carbamido]benzene]; and LICAMS[1,5,10-N,N',N''-tris(5-sulfo-2,3-dihydroxybenzoyl)triazadecane]

the intact complex when either unlabeled Fe MECAM or Fe enterobactin was added extracellularly. The results suggest a mechanism of active transport of unmodified coordination complex across the outer membrane with possible accumulation in the periplasm. Energy-dependent binding of  $^{67}\text{Ga}$  enterobactin was observed, but the rate was substantially lower than the rate of  $^{59}\text{Fe}$  enterobactin transport. The results establish important correlations between the coordination chemistry of the metal and the mechanism of receptor-mediated uptake.

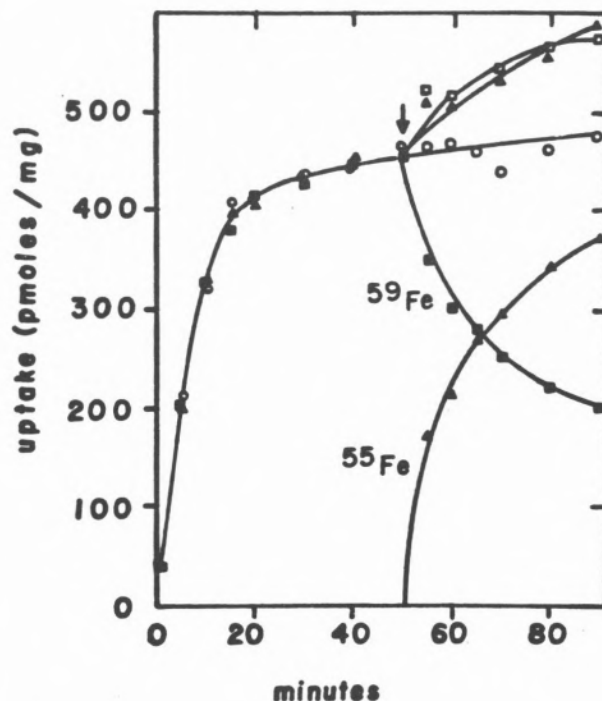


Fig. 2

Exchange of external and cellular ferric enterobactin. The cell concentration was 1.22 mg/mL and the pH was 7.4. In all experiments the initial concentration of  $^{59}\text{Fe}$  enterobactin was  $2\mu\text{M}$ ;  $\circ$ ,  $^{59}\text{Fe}$  enterobactin uptake with no additions;  $\Delta$ , (control)  $^{59}\text{Fe}$  enterobactin uptake with the addition (at 51 min, arrow) of the same substrate at  $30\mu\text{M}$  concentrations;  $\blacksquare$ ,  $^{55}\text{Fe}$  enterobactin uptake with addition (at 51 min, arrow) of  $^{55}\text{Fe}$  enterobactin at  $30\mu\text{M}$  concentrations;  $\blacktriangle$ ,  $^{55}\text{Fe}$  enterobactin accumulation in the same experiment;  $\square$ , numerical sum of  $^{55}\text{Fe}$  ( $\blacktriangle$ ) and  $^{59}\text{Fe}$  ( $\blacksquare$ ) in the same experiment

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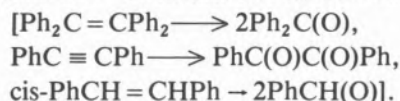


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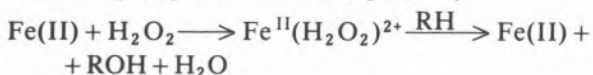
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**ACTIVATION OF HYDROPEROXIDES  
BY  $\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}(\text{MeCN})_4(\text{ClO}_4)_2$  AND  $\text{Fe}^{\text{III}}\text{Cl}_3$   
IN ACETONITRILE; MODEL SYSTEMS  
FOR THE ACTIVE SITES OF PEROXIDASES,  
CATALASE, AND MONOOXYGENASES**

Addition of  $\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}(\text{MeCN})_4(\text{ClO}_4)_2$  to solutions of hydrogen peroxide in dry acetonitrile catalyzes the rapid disproportionation of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  via initial formation of a  $\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}(\text{H}_2\text{O}_2)^{2+}$  adduct, which, in turn, oxidizes a second  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  to yield dioxygen. The intermediate of the latter step dioxygenates diphenylisobenzofuran, 9,10-diphenylanthracene, and rubrene, which are traps for singlet-state dioxygen. This intermediate also dioxygenates electron-rich unsaturated carbon-carbon bonds



In the presence of organic substrates such as 1,4-cyclohexadiene, 1,2-diphenylhydrazine, catechols, and thiols, the  $\text{Fe}(\text{II})\text{-H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{MeCN}$  system yields dehydrogenated products ( $\text{PhH}$ ,  $\text{PhN}=\text{NPh}$ , quinones, and  $\text{RSSR}$ ) with conversion efficiencies that range from 100% to 17%. Although the  $\text{Fe}(\text{II})$  catalyst does not promote the disproportionation of  $\text{Me}_3\text{COOH}$  or  $m\text{-ClPhC}(\text{O})\text{OOH}$ , these hydroperoxides are activated for the dehydrogenation of organic substrates. With substrates such as alcohols, aldehydes, methyl styrene, thioethers, sulfoxides, and phosphines, the  $\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}(\text{H}_2\text{O}_2)^{2+}$  adduct promotes their monooxygenation to aldehydes, carboxylic acids, epoxide, sulfoxides, sulfones, and phosphine oxides, respectively.



The reaction efficiencies for the group of substrates with the  $\text{Fe}(\text{II})$  adducts that are formed by  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ,  $\text{Me}_3\text{COOH}$ , and  $m\text{-ClPhC}(\text{O})\text{OOH}$  have been evaluated. Also, the reaction rates for the substrate- $[\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}(\text{H}_2\text{O}_2)^{2+}]$  dehydrogenations and monooxygenations relative to that for  $\text{Ph}_2\text{SO}$  have been determined, as have the substituent effects for the monooxygenation of 4-X- $\text{PhCH}_2\text{OH}$  and 4-X- $\text{PhCH}(\text{O})$ . The  $\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}(\text{H}_2\text{O}_2)^{2+}$  adduct is an efficient catalyst for the autooxygenation of  $\text{PhCH}(\text{O})$  to  $\text{PhC}(\text{O})\text{OOH}$ . In all of these processes the iron(II) catalyst remains in its reduced state.

Solutions of  $\text{Fe}^{\text{III}}\text{Cl}_3$  in dry acetonitrile also catalyze the rapid disproportionation of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  to  $\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , but the catalyst remains in the  $\text{Fe}(\text{III})$  state. In the presence of triphenylphosphine, dimethyl sulfoxide, and olefins the  $\text{Fe}^{\text{III}}\text{Cl}_3\text{-H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{MeCN}$  system yields monooxygenated substrates ( $\text{Ph}_3\text{PO}$ ,  $\text{Me}_2\text{SO}_2$ , and epoxides). The epoxidation of olefins is especially favored by the  $\text{Fe}^{\text{III}}\text{Cl}_3\text{-H}_2\text{O}_2$  adduct.

Both of these catalyst systems [ $\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}(\text{MeCN})_4(\text{ClO}_4)_2$  and  $\text{Fe}^{\text{III}}\text{Cl}_3$ ] in dry acetonitrile activate hydroperoxides for the dehydrogenation and monooxygenation of organic substrates, and do not promote radical processes (Fenton chemistry). Their ability to facilitate these reactions via the oxene chemistry of ferryl ( $\text{FeO}^{2+}$ ) and perferryl ( $\text{FeCl}_3\text{O}$ ) make them useful reaction mimics for the active sites of *peroxidases*, *catalase*, and *monooxygenases*.