

ANTIOXIDATIVE LONG CHAIN ALKYLRESORCINOLS. SYNTHESIS
AND DEUTERIUM LABELLING OF BIOACTIVE COMPOUNDS
PRESENT IN WHOLE GRAINS

Kirsti Parikka

University of Helsinki
Faculty of Science
Department of Chemistry
Laboratory of Organic Chemistry
Finland

ACADEMIC DISSERTATION

*To be presented with the permission of the Faculty of Science of the University of Helsinki for
public criticism in Auditorium A110, Department of Chemistry, on
December 1st, 2007, at 12 o'clock.*

Helsinki 2007

Supervisor

Professor Kristiina Wähälä
Laboratory of Organic Chemistry
Department of Chemistry
University of Helsinki
Finland

Reviewers

Docent Tuulikki Seppänen-Laakso
VTT Technical Research Centre of Finland
Finland

Professor Chris Willis
School of Chemistry
University of Bristol
United Kingdom

Opponent

Docent Afaf Kamal-Eldin
Department of Food Science
Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences
Sweden

ISBN 978-952-92-2961-1 (paperback)

ISBN 978-952-10-4346-8 (PDF)

Helsinki 2007

Valopaino Oy

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	3
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	4
LIST OF ORIGINAL PUBLICATIONS.....	6
ABBREVIATIONS.....	7
1. INTRODUCTION.....	8
1.1. ALKYLRESORCINOLS PRESENT IN VARIOUS PLANT FAMILIES.....	8
1.1.1. Structures and nomenclature.....	8
1.1.2. Biosynthetic pathway and location in the plants.....	10
1.1.3. Analysis of cereal grains.....	11
1.1.3.1. Extraction.....	12
1.1.3.2. Fluorometric determination.....	12
1.1.3.3. Thin layer and paper chromatography.....	12
1.1.3.4. HPLC.....	13
1.1.3.5. GC and GC-MS.....	13
1.1.3.6. FAB and ESI MS.....	14
1.1.3.7. NMR.....	14
1.1.4. Whole grain products as the dietary source of alkylresorcinols.....	15
1.2. BIOACTIVITY OF ALKYLRESORCINOLS.....	16
1.2.1. Antibacterial and antifungal activity.....	16
1.2.2. Effects on enzymes.....	17
1.2.3. Effects on DNA.....	17
1.2.4. Antioxidant activity.....	18
1.2.4.1. In vitro antioxidant activity assays.....	18
1.2.4.2. Activity of ARs.....	19
1.2.5. Interaction with membranes.....	19
1.2.5.1. Participation in transport systems.....	20
1.2.5.2. Stable bilayers.....	20
1.3. ABSORPTION AND METABOLISM OF ALKYLRESORCINOLS IN ANIMALS AND HUMANS.....	21
1.3.1. Gastro-intestinal absorption.....	21
1.3.2. Metabolism.....	21
1.4. PREPARATION OF ALKYLRESORCINOLS AND THEIR DERIVATIVES.....	22
1.4.1. Different strategies for synthesis of 5- <i>n</i> -alkylresorcinols.....	22
1.4.1.1. Grignard and related reactions.....	22
1.4.1.2. Suzuki coupling.....	23
1.4.1.3. Aromatization of cyclohexane derivatives.....	24
1.4.1.4. Arene-catalysed lithiation.....	24
1.4.1.5. Reductive alkylation and oxidative decarboxylation.....	25
1.4.1.6. Thiophene and β -keto sulfone intermediates.....	25
1.4.1.7. Wittig reaction.....	26
1.4.2. Enhancement of reactions with MW irradiation.....	27
1.4.3. Isotopically labelled alkylresorcinols.....	27
1.4.3.1. Isotopic labelling.....	27
1.4.3.2. Carbon isotopes.....	28
1.4.3.3. Deuterium labelled short alkyl chain ARs.....	29
1.5. FERULIC ACID.....	30
1.5.1. Ferulic acid in grains.....	30
1.5.2. Antioxidant activity.....	30

1.5.3. Synthetic approaches.....	31
1.5.3.1. Ferulic acid	31
1.5.3.2. Selective methylation of precursors	32
2. AIMS OF THE STUDY	33
3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	34
3.1. SYNTHESIS	34
3.1.1. Synthesis of 5- <i>n</i> -alkylresorcinols and their derivatives by the Wittig reaction.....	34
3.1.1.1. Conventional methods	35
3.1.1.2. Microwave assisted reactions	35
3.1.1.3 Haptens	36
3.2. DEUTERIUM LABELLING	37
3.2.1. H/D exchange of 5- <i>n</i> -alkylresorcinols	37
3.2.2. Total synthesis of deuterated 5- <i>n</i> -alkylresorcinols	38
3.2.2.1. Synthesis of D ₄ -nonadecylresorcinol	38
3.2.2.2. Deuteration of acetylenes	39
3.2.2.3. Synthesis of D ₃ -alkylresorcinols.....	41
3.2.3. Preparation of D ₃ -ferulic acid and related compounds	41
3.3. BIOACTIVITY	42
3.3.1. Antioxidant activity.....	42
3.3.1.1. FRAP assay.....	42
3.3.1.2. DPPH assay.....	43
3.3.1.3. Inhibition of LDL oxidation	44
3.3.2. Antigenotoxicity	44
3.3.2.1. Inhibition of H ₂ O ₂ induced damage	45
3.3.2.2. Inhibition of faecal water induced damage.....	46
4. CONCLUSIONS	48
5. EXPERIMENTAL.....	49
5.1. General	49
5.2. D ₃ -vanillin (58).....	49
5.3. D ₃ -isovanillin (59)	49
5.4. D ₃ -ferulic acid (60)	49
5.5. D ₃ -isoferulic acid (61).....	50
5.6. D ₃ -dihydroferulic acid (62)	50
5. REFERENCES.....	51

ABSTRACT

The first synthesis of long chain 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols (C₁₅-C₂₅) in whole grains and whole grain products by a novel modification of Wittig reaction is described. 5-*n*-Alkylresorcinols are phenolic lipids that have various effects on biological systems, such as antioxidant activity and interaction with biological membranes. These compounds are considered as biomarkers of whole grain intake, which is connected with reduced risk of cardiovascular diseases and certain cancers. Novel hapten derivatives of 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols, potential compounds for immunoanalytical techniques, are prepared by the same procedure utilizing microwave catalysed aqueous Wittig reaction as the key step. The synthesised analogues are required by various analytical, metabolism and bioactivity investigations.

Four alternative strategies for producing deuterium polylabelled 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols are explored. Ring-labelled D₃-alkylresorcinols were synthesized by acidic H/D exchange. Side chain -labelled D₄-derivative was prepared by a total synthesis approach utilizing D₂ deuterogenation of a D₂-alkene derivative, and deuterogenation of alkynes was investigated in another total synthesis approach. An ω-D₃-labelled alkylresorcinol is isotopically pure and completely stable under all relevant conditions encountered during analytical work. The labelling of another phenolic component of whole grains was explored. The preparation of D₃-ferulic acid and related compounds by way of selective methylation of the precursors is described. The deuterated compounds are useful as standards in the quantification of these natural products in various substances, such as food and human fluids.

The pure 5-*n*-alkylresorcinol analogues prepared were used in *in vitro* experiments on alkylresorcinol antioxidant activity and antigenotoxicity. The *in vitro* experiments show that alkylresorcinols act as antioxidants, especially when incorporated into biological systems, but possess lower activity in chemical tests (FRAP and DPPH assay). Whole grain alkylresorcinols are shown for the first time to have a protective effect against copper induced oxidation of LDL, and H₂O₂ or genotoxic faecal water induced damage on HT29 cells.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The experimental part of this work was done at the Laboratory of Organic Chemistry, at the University of Helsinki, and at the Northern Ireland Centre for Food and Health, at the University of Ulster. Several people have contributed time and expertise to this thesis and helped me during the years:

My supervisor Professor Kristiina Wähälä introduced me to polyphenol and alkylresorcinol research. I'm deeply grateful to her for advice and support, and for providing the facilities to do this work. Emeritus Professor Tapio Hase has given important criticism and lots of time to this project – I'm especially grateful for discussions concerning deuterium labelling. I thank Professor Ian Rowland and Dr. Rob Welch warmly for supervising me at the University of Ulster.

Every member of the Phyto-Syn research group is thanked for support. Thank you for the refreshing moments during coffee breaks! I owe warm thanks to Barbara, Eija and Paula, who always have been ready to help at any matter. Sampo and Antti have solved computer-related problems whenever asked. The most indebted I am to Ulla and Monika, for friendship and good company both at work and off duty.

I wish to thank Dr. Jorma Matikainen and Dr. Petri Heinonen for running the high resolution mass spectra, Dr. Sumanto Haldar for the statistical calculations, and Dr. Sami Heikkinen, Seppo Kaltia and Matti Keinänen for technical assistance with laboratory equipment. Professor Herman Adlercreutz, Dr. Anna-Maria Linko-Parvinen and Dr. Iris Erlund are thanked for collaboration.

Docent Tuulikki Seppänen-Laakso and Professor Chris Willis are warmly acknowledged for reviewing the manuscript of the thesis and Dr. Mary Metzler for revising language.

All my friends and relatives have supported me in their own ways. The long-term exchange of letters with Tiina has delighted me during the rainy days. I thank Kukka for taking me out to art galleries, and Salla for refreshing conversations. Susa I thank for long discussions on various matters and friendship from the very beginning of chemistry studies. Violetta, Ruth, Alison and Marta, and their hospitality, made studying and staying in a foreign country much more pleasant.

I thank my parents Anja and Olavi for being encouraging and understanding. Their versatile support at all times has made my path much lighter. Antti has supported me in every occasion

and I thank him especially for taking special care of the beloved dogs, Hugo and Kusti, during my long days in the laboratory or at the computer.

The Academy of Finland, the Jenny and Antti Wihuri Foundation, the Marie Curie Fellowship Association and the Graduate School of Bioorganic and Medicinal Chemistry are acknowledged for financial support.

Helsinki, October 2007

Kirsti Parikka

LIST OF ORIGINAL PUBLICATIONS

This thesis is based on the following original articles. They are referred to by their Roman numerals (I-V).

- I Linko, A.-M., Parikka, K., Wähälä, K. and Adlercreutz, H. Gas chromatographic–mass spectrometric method for the determination of alkylresorcinols in human plasma. *Anal. Biochem.* **2002**, *308*, 307-313.
- II Parikka, K., Rowland, I. R., Welch, R. W. and Wähälä, K. In vitro antioxidant activity and antigenotoxicity of 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **2006**, *54*, 1646-1650.
- III Parikka, K. and Wähälä, K. Expedient synthesis of 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols and their novel hapten derivatives. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **2007**, submitted.
- IV Parikka, K. and Wähälä, K. Synthesis of deuterated of 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols. *J. Label. Compd. Radiopharm.* **2007**, in press.
- V Parikka, K. and Wähälä, K. Deuteration of dietary antioxidants: ferulic acid derivatives and α -tocopherol. *J. Label. Compd. Radiopharm.* **2007**, *50*, 475-476.

ABBREVIATIONS

AR	5-alkylresorcinol
BBN	borabicyclononane
Bu	butyl
DPPH	2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl
DMSO	dimethylsulfoxide
EI	electron impact
ESI	electrospray ionisation
Et	ethyl
FA	ferulic acid
FAB	fast atom bombardment
FID	flame ionisation detector
FRAP	ferric reducing potential
GC	gas chromatography
HPLC	high performance liquid chromatography
ID	isotope dilution
LC	liquid chromatography
LDL	low density lipoprotein
Me	methyl
MS	mass spectrometry
MW	microwave
NMR	nuclear magnetic resonance
SC	supercritical
SIM	selected ion monitoring
Tf	triflate
THF	tetrahydrofuran
TLC	thin layer chromatography
TMS	trimethylsilyl

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Alkylresorcinols present in various plant families

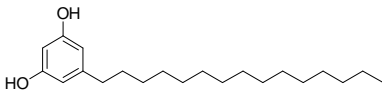
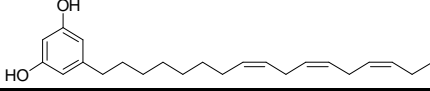
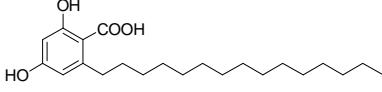
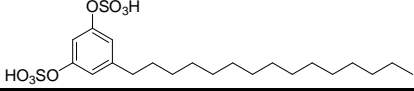
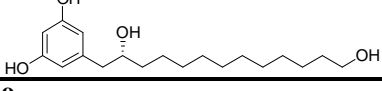
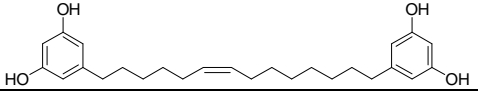
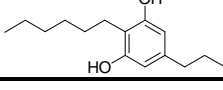
1.1.1. Structures and nomenclature

5-Alkylresorcinols and related compounds are non-isoprenoid phenolic lipids present in several families of higher plants (e.g. Anacardiaceae, Ginkgoaceae, Gramineae, Leguminosae) and in some families of algae, mosses, fungi, bacteria and even in a marine sponge.¹ Resorcinolic lipids were first found in maidenhair tree (*Ginkgo biloba*, Ginkgoaceae). Cashew nut (*Anacardium occidentale*, Anacardiaceae) soon became an important source of alkylresorcinols, in addition to other types of phenols, which were isolated for applications in chemical industry.¹ As the functional food movement and the positive health effects of whole grains have gained attention, the Gramineae family has become a focus of interest.

Alkylresorcinols with a wide structural variety are found in various plant families. The structure is dependent on the plant source. These compounds include 5-*n*-alkyl-, 5-alkenyl-, 5-oxoalkyl-, and 5-hydroxyalkylresorcinols, and alkylresorcinols with an alkyl chain at various positions on the benzene ring, often at either C-2 or C-4, or sometimes at both positions. In bisalkylresorcinols (or 5,5'-[alkanediyl]diresorcinols) there are two benzene rings connected via a saturated or unsaturated alkyl chain. Alkylresorcinol sulfates also occur in nature. The 5-alkylresorcinols found in rye and wheat are mainly mixtures of saturated carbon chain compounds, whereas other higher plants produce mixtures of analogues with double bonds or, for example, hydroxyl groups in the alkyl chain. The alkylresorcinol sulfates are produced by fungi and dialkylresorcinols by bacteria and mosses. Examples of the different structures are shown in Table 1.

The 5-alkylresorcinols (AR) are commonly given abbreviations which describe the alkyl chain length and its degree of unsaturation, for example C19:0, C19:1 and C19:2, indicating a saturated chain of 19 carbon atoms, an unsaturated chain of 19 carbons with one double bond and an unsaturated chain of 19 carbons with two double bonds, respectively (Figure 1, **1-3**). However, these symbols do not carry any indication of the location of the double bonds. Names based on the resorcinol structure (e.g. 5-nonadecylresorcinol, **1**) are more commonly used than IUPAC nomenclature (5-nonadecylbenzene-1,3-diol). Trivial names are also commonly used for particular compounds, which can cause confusion (Adipostatin A = Hydrobilobol = Cardol = 5-*n*-pentadecylresorcinol **4**, Table 1).

Table 1. Examples of 5-alkylresorcinol structures and examples of their plant origin.

Structure	Side chain Length	Source	Family
	C ₁₅	Rye (<i>Secale cereale</i>)	Gramineae
		Cashew nut (<i>Anacardium occidentale</i>) ²	Anacardiaceae
	C ₁₇	Heartleaf philodendron (<i>Philodendron scandens</i>) ³	Araceae
		Marine sponge (<i>Haliclona</i> sp.) ⁴	Haliclonidae
	C ₁₅	Maidenhairtree (<i>Ginkgo biloba</i>) ⁵	Ginkgoaceae
		Loosestrife (<i>Lysimachia Japonica</i>) ⁶	Primulaceae
		Cashew nut (<i>Anacardium occidentale</i>) ²	Anacardiaceae
	C ₁₅	<i>Streptomyces</i> (sp. OH-5186) ⁷	Basidiomycetes
	C ₁₃	Restharrow (<i>Ononis viscosa</i>) ⁸	Leguminoseae
	C ₁₄	Two-leaf hakea (<i>Hakea trifurcata</i>) ⁹	Proteaceae
	C ₃ , C ₆	<i>Pseudomonas</i> (sp. B-9004) ¹⁰	Pseudomonales

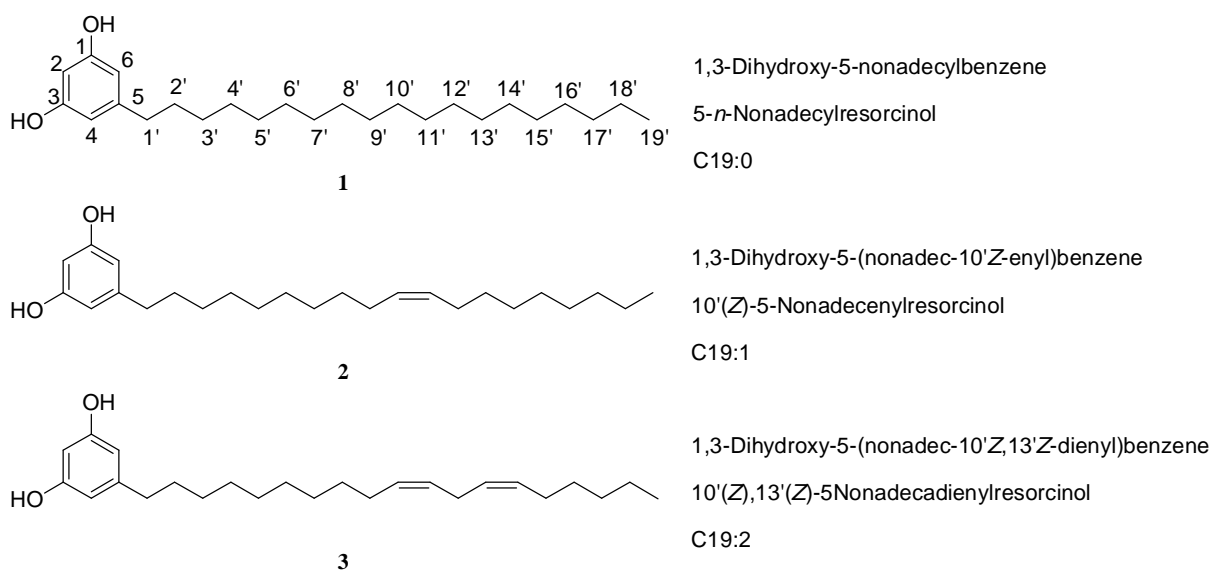
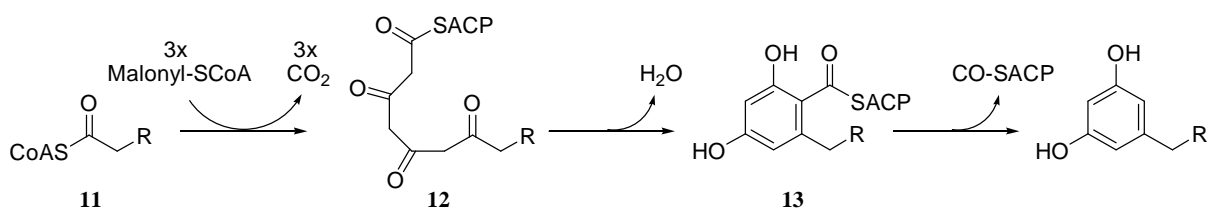


Figure 1. Nomenclature and numbering of 5-alk(en)ylresorcinols.

1.1.2. Biosynthetic pathway and location in the plants

Alkylresorcinols are synthesized by the polyketide pathway in plants. The biosynthesis of long chain ARs (maximum length C₁₉, both even and odd chain) has been investigated in the 5-alk(en)ylresorcinol biosynthesis system of rice. The feeding of fatty acid substrates shows that they are so-called starter units in the system, since etiolated rice seedling will produce ARs when fed fatty acids, although the rice seeds from which they grow do not contain ARs. When the fatty acid provided is labelled with ¹³C, the AR produced is also ¹³C labelled, confirming that the fatty acid is the starter unit.¹¹ The study confirms the results of the earlier investigations on the biosynthetic route, which dealt with shorter alkyl chain ARs and their analogues¹²⁻¹³ as well as orsellinic acid derivatives (C₁₅:0) which have been prepared using potential biosynthetic precursors.¹⁴

Biosynthesis of AR starts by the condensation of malonyl coenzyme A (Malonyl-S-CoA) and the fatty acid unit **11** (Scheme 1). This reaction is repeated thrice. Ring closure and dehydration of product **12** gives the 6-alkylresorcinolic acid derivative **13**. 5-Alkylresorcinol is formed by decarboxylation of the acid. The fatty acid unit which starts the reaction is a product of fatty acid biosynthesis in the plant or can be added to the system as mentioned above.¹¹ Orsellinic acids (6-alkylresorcinolic acids, e.g. **6**, Table 1) are produced the same way except for the decarboxylation.



Scheme 1. Biosynthetic route to 5-alkylresorcinols starting from a fatty acid.

In cereal grains, alkylresorcinols can be found in the bran (outer layers) of the grains (Figure 2), which explains their presence in whole grains and whole grain products. It is possible that their amounts are the highest in young developing grains, and when the grains mature, the levels of alkylresorcinols decrease. In mango fruit and cashew nut alkylresorcinols are present in the peel¹⁵ and in the shell,² respectively. ARs are able to protect plants from mould and other harmful organisms, such as bacteria, attacking from outside, and the location of AR in the outer layers of plants enhances these protective effects.

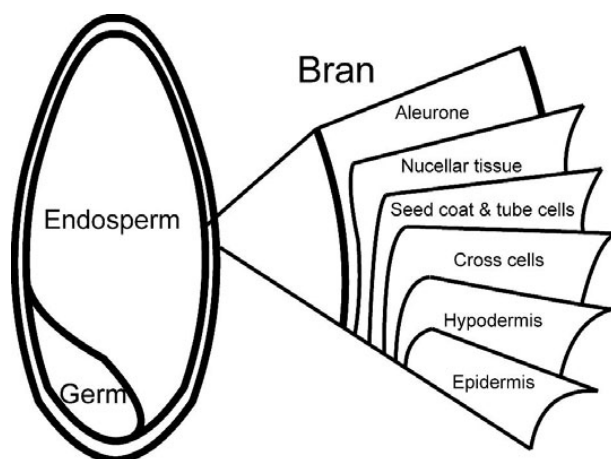


Figure 2. Cross-section of a grain.

1.1.3. Analysis of cereal grains

In the literature, several studies have described the isolation of alkylresorcinols from different plant matrices and the analysis of the extracts by various techniques. These studies were comprehensively reviewed in 1999.¹ The chromatographic techniques used in AR analysis were reviewed in 2004.¹⁶ This thesis is concerned with the 5-alkylresorcinols that are present in cereal grains and all the different techniques that have been used to analyse and characterise them.

Alkylresorcinols in rye were described in 1967 as a mixture of homologues with C₁₅-C₂₅ carbons in the aliphatic chain (Figure 3).¹⁷ Since then the analysis and isolation of AR of cereal grains has been performed using a variety of techniques. Unsaturated 5-alkylresorcinols, hydroxyalkylresorcinols, oxoalkylresorcinols and bisalkylresorcinols have also been identified from cereal grains, but in small concentrations compared to the saturated analogues. For example, the AR content of whole grain rye bread varies from 500 to 700 µg/g.¹⁸⁻¹⁹ The average of wheat and rye consumption in Finland is ca. 160 g/day based on a yearly estimation.²⁰ Thus the average daily intake of AR would be ca. 100 mg if only whole grain rye bread was consumed. A summary of the alkylresorcinol content of cereal grains is presented in Table 2 (page 15).

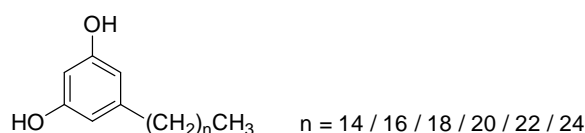


Figure 3. Major 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols found in rye.

1.1.3.1. Extraction

Extraction methods for alkylresorcinol isolation have been developed from the 1960's onward. Various organic solvents have been used to separate AR from grains, including, for example, acetone, 80% ethanol and diethyl ether.²¹ Soxhlet extraction with cyclohexane has also been shown to be suitable for AR isolation.²² Recently, the alkylresorcinol content of processed whole grain products has been found to be the same as in the raw unprocessed grain. This important observation was made after baked or processed products were extracted with hot 1-propanol.¹⁹ Other extraction methods have indicated considerably smaller amounts of AR in the processed products.

A new extraction method, which does not use organic solvents, was developed in 2005. Supercritical CO₂ (SC-CO₂) was found to extract ARs efficiently. When compared to acetone, SC-CO₂ used with co-solvents (ethanol and methanol) yielded 8-80% more alkylresorcinols.²³ The effects of temperature, flow rate, co-solvent percentage and extraction time were investigated, and long extraction times as well as high CO₂ flow rates were found to enhance the yields of ARs. This method also made it possible to separate low and high molecular weight alkylresorcinols from each other.²⁴

1.1.3.2. Fluorometric determination

Alkylresorcinols were previously considered to be growth inhibitors of livestock fed with rye, causing slower weight gain compared to animals fed with other cereals. A colorimetric method was developed for the screening of AR from rye aiming to find rye lines and cultivars with the lowest possible concentrations of AR.^{17,25} The method is based on measuring the fluorescence spectrum after the reaction of alkylresorcinols with KOH in CHCl₃ and EtOH. The amount of AR detected in rye by this method was found to vary from 0.036% to 0.322% (w/w) in a study comparing 397 different rye varieties.²⁵ Other fluorometric determinations of the AR content of rye have been approximately in the same range, indicating that ARs are present in higher amounts in rye than in other cereals.^{21,26-30} However, the possible presence of other co-extracted phenols might be responsible for the increase in the observed fluorescence.

1.1.3.3. Thin layer and paper chromatography

Cereal grains have been analysed by thin layer chromatography (TLC) using silica gel³¹⁻³⁵ and alumina.³⁶ After the chromatographic run, the TLC plate is stained with a staining reagent, for example Fast Blue B, which reliably indicates the presence of AR. The advantage of TLC

techniques is that they are relatively simple and easily performed without special instruments. Paper chromatography has also been used.³⁷ It is, however, clear that more accurate chromatographic methods have to be used for quantitative determinations.

1.1.3.4. HPLC

High performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) with reversed phase columns has been used in the quantitation and identification of alkylresorcinol homologues.^{18,28,32,34,38-41} The examples in Table 2 (page 15) show that HPLC has not been used as extensively for analytical work as GC. However, 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols in cereal grains have been identified by HPLC as C15:0, C17:0, C19:0, C21:0 C23:0 and C25:0. The quantities found in rye vary from 524 µg/g, found in whole grain bread, to 4108 µg/g, found in bran.¹⁸ A gradient elution system^{18,38,40} has been found to be faster and give better separation than an isocratic system.³⁸ Both a photodiode array detector^{28,34,41} and a UV detector set at 280 nm^{18,38,40} have been used for detection.

Unsaturated alkenylresorcinols can be separated from the saturated analogues based on small differences in the retention times.^{38,40-41} The major alkylresorcinol present in rye, triticale and millet has been found to be C19:0, whereas C21:0 is predominant in wheat.⁴⁰ Some previous results have been criticised because they lacked the validation needed for quantitative analysis.¹⁶ To address this issue, in a recent study 5-pentylresorcinol was used as a reference compound.¹⁸

1.1.3.5. GC and GC-MS

Gas chromatography (GC)^{28,42-45} or GC combined with mass spectrometry (GC-MS)^{19,34,38,46} seem to be efficient methods for the determination of AR content from different matrices. Even the earlier studies performed with packed column worked quite well, successfully separating the saturated ARs from each other,⁴³ and even separating to some extent saturated and unsaturated analogues.⁴⁴ Usually a non-polar stationary phase has been used in the GC column. A flame ionisation detector (FID) has been used as the detector in GC, and electron impact (EI) as the ionisation technique for the MS stage of the procedure.

If alkylresorcinols are analysed by GC without derivatisation, high oven temperatures are needed.^{28,38,45} Trimethylsilylated (TMS)⁴³ and ethyl ethers⁴⁶ of ARs, for example, have shorter retention times than underivatized analogues and lower temperatures are possible. Alkylresorcinols with different alkyl chain lengths respond similarly in GC-FID.¹⁹ In the GC-MS studies, the *m/z* 124 ion (Figure 4), or *m/z* 268 ion for di-TMS AR, have been used to aid

the identification of alkylresorcinol peaks. The amounts of ARs vary from 720-761 $\mu\text{g/g}$ (rye) to 489-1429 $\mu\text{g/g}$ (wheat) according to a recent GC-MS study.¹⁹ GC-MS has also been successfully used in the analysis of plasma, for example, as described for the first time in the study **I**, using a C20:0 analogue as an internal standard.

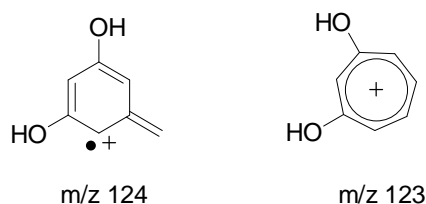


Figure 4. Typical MS fragments of ARs.

1.1.3.6. FAB and ESI MS

Mass spectrometry, including fast atom bombardment (FAB) and electrospray ionization (ESI) techniques, has been used to analyse ARs.⁴⁷⁻⁵⁰ For example, in the analysis of two different hydroxyalkylresorcinol analogues and 5-(2'-oxo)alkylresorcinol analogues, present in very small amounts in rye (2 $\mu\text{g/g}$ and 20.4 $\mu\text{g/g}$, respectively), their FAB-MS $[\text{M}-\text{H}]^-$ and $[\text{M}+\text{Li}]^+$ ions have been used in the calculation of the molecular formula, and CAD (collision-activated dissociation) spectra have been used to determine the position of the hydroxyl and carbonyl groups in the alkyl chain.⁴⁸ For example, the position of a hydroxyl group is determined by the size, as indicated by the ion peaks, of fragments cleaved off of either side of the OH group, which itself shows a “window” of 30 amu (CHOH).⁴⁸ The same technique has been utilized for determining the positions of the double bonds in rye and wheat 5-alkenylresorcinols (“window” of 54 amu, $\text{CH}_2\text{CH}=\text{CHCH}_2$).⁵⁰

1.1.3.7. NMR

Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) has been used in several studies to obtain information on alkylresorcinol structures.^{34,47-48,50} The proton NMR spectra of 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols are very simple. The advantage of NMR spectrometry in the analysis of compounds and mixtures extracted from plants has been the ability to observe characteristic peaks of different analogues in an unknown AR sample⁴⁸ or to check the purity of a particular AR fraction.⁵⁰ Proton NMR has provided evidence, for example, of the presence of 5-(2'-oxo)alkylresorcinols in wheat and rye extracts by way of the characteristic chemical shifts of the protons on both sides of the carbonyl group.^{34,48} We have characterised the synthesized AR derivatives by NMR in study **III**.

1.1.4. Whole grain products as the dietary source of alkylresorcinols

Whole grain products are the most important dietary source of 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols. Other edible plants or products that contain significant amounts of ARs are, for example, cashew nut² and mango,¹⁵ but alkylresorcinols are not present in their edible inner parts. Rice is one of the plants that contains a mixture of unsaturated and saturated homologues of alkylresorcinols (chain lengths C₁₃, C₁₅ and C₁₇).⁵¹⁻⁵² ARs have been isolated from etiolated rice seedlings⁵¹ and rice root exudates⁵² but it seems that the mature rice grains and processed rice do not contain alkylresorcinols.¹⁹ Thus, whole grain products from the family Gramineae might be considered to be the only significant dietary source of 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols, at least in a typical European or western diet.

Table 2. Examples of the measured amounts of 5-alk(en)ylresorcinols present in cereal grains of selected varieties and different whole grain products in µg/g.

	Total amount of AR (GC) ^a	Total amount of AR (HPLC) ^a	Predominant 5- <i>n</i> -AR, proportion	Proportion of 5-alkenylresorcinols
Rye grain	761 ¹⁹	900 ²⁸	C19:0, 31% ¹⁹	18.2% ⁴⁰
Wheat grain	642 ¹⁹	2290 ²⁸	C21:0, 51% ¹⁹	0.09% ⁴⁰
Barley grain	51 ¹⁹	-	C25:0, 37% ¹⁹ or 43% ⁴²	0.99% ⁴⁰
Triticale grain	647 ¹⁹	-	C21:0, 34% ¹⁹	9.5% ⁴⁰
Whole rye flour	865 ¹⁹	927 ¹⁸	C19:0, 28% ¹⁸ or 31% ¹⁹	-
Whole rye bread	707 ¹⁹	524 ¹⁸	C19:0, 28% ¹⁸ or 33% ¹⁹	-
Rye bran	2758 ⁴²	4108 ¹⁸	C19:0, 32% ^{18,42}	-
Rye bran pasta	262 ¹⁹	-	C19:0 & C21:0, 29% ¹⁹	-
Whole wheat flour	550 ¹⁹	759 ¹⁸	C21:0, 38% ¹⁸ or 44% ¹⁹	-
Wheat bran	2672 ¹⁹	3225 ¹⁸	C21:0, 46% ¹⁸ or 49% ¹⁹	-

a) including saturated and unsaturated analogues

Doughs and baked products have been investigated by the same analytical techniques as raw grains. Previously, alkylresorcinol concentrations were believed to decrease during processing.^{27,29-30} The recent analyses show this to be untrue. For example, the use of hot 1-propanol extraction of processed whole grain products has enhanced the yields.¹⁹ Baking

seems to affect the alkylresorcinol concentrations little, if at all, as the amounts remain approximately the same, in the fermented and baked products as in the raw grains, depending on the method of analysis (Table 2). It is obvious that the various bran based products would be richest in alkylresorcinols, as ARs are produced in the bran of grains.

Alkylresorcinols have recently been proposed for use as biomarkers of whole grain intake.⁵³⁻⁵⁴ The possibility to use biomarkers is important because an exact determination of the amounts of whole grains consumed can be problematic if only food diaries are used. Epidemiological and experimental studies suggest that whole grain products possess protective activity against cardiovascular diseases and some forms of cancer, especially colorectal and breast cancer.⁵⁵⁻⁵⁶ Determination of the possible role of alkylresorcinols in these protective effects will require, for example, *in vivo* studies; nonetheless ARs are already known to clearly possess some biological activities, which are discussed in the next section.

1.2. BIOACTIVITY OF ALKYLRESORCINOLS

Alk(en)ylresorcinols and related compounds have been reported to have various biological activities. This thesis emphasizes the investigation of biological effects of saturated alkyl chain 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols. Many of the activities or effects of ARs might be based on their ability to interact with biological membranes.

1.2.1. Antibacterial and antifungal activity

5-*n*-Alkylresorcinols can be considered antifungal and antibacterial agents, protecting plants from harmful diseases and damage. The 5-*n*-alkylresorcinol fraction of the epicuticular waxes of barley inhibits the growth of pathogenic fungi (e.g. *Aspergillus niger*).³⁵ Pentadecylresorcinol (C15:0, **4**, Table 1, page 9) is one of the antibacterial compounds present in cashew nut shell oil. Cashew nut shell oil also contains an orsellinic acid C₁₅ derivative (**6**, Table 1) which has a higher antibacterial activity for a broad selection of microbes than pentadecylresorcinol.⁵⁷ However, the study indicates that pentadecylresorcinol with two hydroxyl groups has higher antibacterial activity (for Gram-positive bacteria) than compounds with short alkyl chains and only one hydroxyl group. Nonetheless, a long alkyl chain is not always necessary – a short alkyl chain hexylresorcinol (C6:0) destroys dental plaque bacteria.⁵⁸

1.2.2. Effects on enzymes

The various structural analogues of 5-alkylresorcinols interact with several enzymes.¹ The interactions of 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols with enzymes are particularly interesting. Very short alkyl chain ARs (max. C₃) are potent inhibitors of prostaglandin-H₂-synthetase.⁵⁹ Long alkyl chain ARs present in whole grains prevent the accumulation of triacylglycerol and effectively inhibit glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase,⁶⁰⁻⁶¹ which synthesises triacylglycerol in adipocytes. Heneicosylresorcinol (C21:0) is the strongest inhibitor. Based on these observations, it is possible that ARs may have a role in the prevention of corpulence.

ARs from cereal grains are inhibitors of erythrocyte membrane acetylcholinesterase at 18-90 µM concentrations, the strength of the effect again depending on the alkyl chain length.⁶² Cereal ARs at 50 µM concentration have an opposite effect on another membrane enzyme, Ca²⁺-calmodulin-ATPase, which is stimulated. Only weak inhibition was detected at higher concentrations of ARs.⁶² In the literature, there are contradictory reports concerning inhibition of soybean lipoxygenase-1 by pentadecylresorcinol (C15:0). In contrast to the other cashew nut shell oil compounds, C15:0 was found not to be an inhibitor.⁶³ However, when the lipids of cereal origin were investigated, C15:0 showed inhibiting activity but the most efficient inhibitor was tricosylresorcinol C23:0.⁶⁴ The disulfate of C15:0 and its isopentadecyl derivative are components of a product of *Streptomyces*, the enzyme inhibitor panosialin, which inhibits enzymes such as acid phosphatase, polygalacturonase and sialidase (also called neuraminidase).^{7,65}

1.2.3. Effects on DNA

Cereal alkylresorcinols have been found to decrease the number of mutations induced in cultured lymphocytes with known mutagens (benzo[a]pyrene and mitomycin C), ARs protecting the lymphocytes more effectively than anthocyanins in the thioguanine-resistance test, cytokinesis-blocked micronucleus assay and sister chromatid exchange test.⁶⁶ The mutagenic activity of both direct and indirect acting mutagens is also reduced in the Ames test in the presence of ARs.⁶⁷ According to a study based on Comet assay analysis of DNA damage caused by H₂O₂ in lymphocytes, ARs seem to have some repair enhancing ability.⁶⁸ In an earlier study concerning DNA strand scission by two-leaf hakea, an Australian bush (*Hakea trifurcata*), extract, a mixture of 5-alkylresorcinols containing C13:0 was found to be responsible for the scission, but the mechanism was unclear. An oxidation product of AR was suggested to be the active component, and signs of a relationship between the alkyl chain length and activity were found.⁹

In our experiments concerning the antigenotoxic effect protecting HT29 cells against oxidative damage, the protective effect decreased along with the growing chain length (the shortest length tested was C15:0). However, we propose that the reason might be that solubility decreases as the chain length grows and therefore all the molecules in the mixture tested cannot participate in the system.^{II}

1.2.4. Antioxidant activity

An antioxidant is defined as any substance that prevents or delays oxidation when present in low concentrations compared to the oxidisable substrate.⁶⁹ Oxidative damage is caused by reactive oxygen species, “free radicals”, which are produced by aerobic metabolism.

1.2.4.1. In vitro antioxidant activity assays

In the so-called ferric reducing ability of plasma (FRAP) assay, ferric ions (Fe^{III}) are reduced to ferrous (Fe^{II}) ions by antioxidants.⁷⁰ In this context, antioxidants are considered as reductants and the oxidant is modelled by Fe^{III} . The oxidizing species reacts with the antioxidant instead of the possible substrate and is reduced to a harmless species. Different mixtures and solutions of antioxidants can be investigated (not necessarily solutions of plasma). In the reduction, an intensely coloured ferrous-tripyridyltriazine complex is formed and the absorbance of the solution is measured. The values of absorbance of the test mixtures are compared to the values of solutions of known concentrations of Fe^{II} in control samples.

2,2-Diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) is a stable free radical. Thus it is a practical reagent for investigating the free radical scavenging ability of antioxidants.⁷¹ Due to its stability, no radical generation under the experimental conditions is required. In the DPPH assay, the antioxidant being tested reduces the DPPH radical and a change in the absorption of the test solution is measured.

Oxidized low density lipoprotein (LDL) particles take part in the early stages of atherosclerosis.⁷²⁻⁷³ Thus, limiting the oxidation of LDL might prevent the development of the initial lesions in artery walls. LDL oxidation is studied *in vitro* by isolating LDL fraction from plasma and adding copper ions and the studied compounds to the solution. The copper ions induce oxidation of LDL, which can be followed by observing the formation of conjugated dienes in the solution.⁷⁴

1.2.4.2. Activity of ARs

In the 5-*n*-alkylresorcinol structure, there are two hydroxyl groups at positions C-1 and C-3 of the aromatic ring, and a lipophilic, saturated alkyl chain at the C-5 position. Thus the structure has a dual nature, one end being hydrophilic and the other end hydrophobic, which causes a variety of effects in different environments. The presence of the two hydroxyl groups suggests that ARs have radical scavenging and hydrogen donation abilities. Previous research on the antioxidant properties of ARs includes studies on pentadecylresorcinol (C15:0), which has been found to slow the rate of oil and lipid oxidation.⁷⁵ Lipids and phospholipid bilayers are protected from ferrous ions induced oxidation by a mixture of rye ARs.⁷⁶ Pentadecylresorcinol has been found to be a stronger inhibitor of H₂O₂-induced oxidation of erythrocyte membranes than nona- or tridecylresorcinols (C19:0 or C23:0, respectively), showing that the activity is dependent on the chain length, and all these long alkyl chain ARs were more active than olivetol (C5:0), which is essentially inactive.⁷⁷ This difference is explained by the ability of the long chain analogues to incorporate into membranes. We described the ability of ARs to inhibit the oxidation of LDL for the first time in study **II**.

However, the radical scavenging and hydrogen donation power of C15:0 is low according to the triacylglyceride oxidation model and the DPPH assay.⁷⁸ Our experiments agree with these results (DPPH and FRAP assays, study **II**). A known antioxidant, such as ferulic acid (FA) for example, is highly active in these assays. This may indicate that ARs participate in the prevention of oxidative damage only if there is a lipophilic interaction in the system.

1.2.5. Interaction with membranes

Lipophilicity and the ability to interact with biological membranes are probably the most important properties of ARs. The other properties, the antioxidant activity for example, are enhanced or enabled by the lipophilic properties. When the lipophilic alkyl chain can interact with the system, the antioxidant activity increases.⁷⁷ A biological membrane can be defined as a lipid bilayer that surrounds, for example, the cytoplasm of cells. It usually consists of a double phospholipid layer where the hydrophobic tails of the lipids face each other, forming the inside of the bilayer, and the hydrophilic heads of the lipids point toward either the outside or the inside of the cell. Proteins are embedded in or attached to the membranes of cells and act as, for example, transporters.

1.2.5.1. Participation in transport systems

Alkylresorcinols affect the transport systems of various bilayers. In relation to this, erythrocyte membranes have been the focus of various investigations. The effects of ARs were studied in the beginning of the 1980's when the permeability of erythrocytes and liposomes was found to change after incorporation of alk(en)ylresorcinols, enabling small molecules to pass through the membrane,⁷⁹⁻⁸⁰ and again very recently, when ARs were found to incorporate into human erythrocytes.⁸¹ ARs can take part in the red cell membrane-water transport system, increasing water permeability.⁸² In addition, the mobility of 5-doxy and 12-doxy stearate spin probes is increased in erythrocytes and liposomes in the presence of C19:0 (and C19:1).⁸³

1.2.5.2. Stable bilayers

5-*n*-Alkylresorcinols are present in the membranes of the cysts (specialized resting cells) of bacteria (e.g. *Azotobacter*), protecting the cysts more efficiently than plain phospholipid bilayers.⁸⁴ These effects have been investigated by modelling the bacterial membrane with planar bilayers synthesized from ARs and typical bacterial phospholipids (Figure 5).⁸⁵⁻⁸⁶ Various experiments on bilayer formation with different mixtures show that liposomes incorporating ARs are more stable and homogenous than liposomes formed from phospholipids only and the encapsulation of water-soluble solutes is enhanced.⁸⁷ In contrast to this, but in agreement with the observations discussed above, an increase in permeability is observed when ARs are present only in the medium outside these vesicles. The encapsulating effect appears when ARs are introduced into the medium before formation of the membrane.⁸⁷⁻⁸⁸ This enhancement of encapsulation has generated the idea of utilizing ARs in liposomal drug delivery.⁸⁸

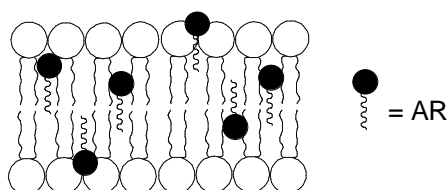


Figure 5. Hypothetical structure of membrane with AR incorporated into the bilayer.

1.3. ABSORPTION AND METABOLISM OF ALKYLRESORCINOLS IN ANIMALS AND HUMANS

1.3.1. Gastro-intestinal absorption

The first studies on the gastro-intestinal absorption of alkylresorcinols were published in recent years using pigs⁸⁹ and rats.⁸⁹⁻⁹⁰ The ileal effluents of pigs fed different rye fractions gave 21-40% recovery of ARs, containing the same ratios of AR analogues as in the rye samples.⁸⁹ The experiments with rats, in which they were fed with a ¹⁴C labelled C21:0, gave 34% recovery as measured from urine. The results show that ARs are absorbed in the small intestine and excreted in metabolised forms in the urine.⁸⁹ ARs have also been found in the perirenal tissue of rats fed an AR rich diet, which suggests that ARs might be stored in fat tissues in the body.⁹⁰

ARs were quantified from human plasma for the first time using a C20:0 analogue as an internal standard.¹ The amounts of AR analogues found in plasma seem to correlate with the AR in the whole grain products consumed,⁹¹ which might allow the use of ARs as biomarkers. Ileostomy samples obtained from patients who had undergone ileostomy were analysed and give similar information on absorption as the experiments on animals, indicating that ca. 60% of alkylresorcinols are absorbed or converted to metabolites.⁹²

As an analytical technique, GC-MS requires often time-consuming sample preparation such as derivatisation, extraction, chromatographic purification, and additionally special instrumentation. In comparison, immunochemical techniques would be relatively simple. They are rapid and suitable for screening purposes in large populations. In developing immunoanalytical methods, haptens that can form a peptide bond are needed for the preparation of immunogens capable of producing specific antisera. Immunoassays have not yet been used in the analysis of alkylresorcinols due to the lack of required haptens. We present here the preparation of novel AR haptens with varying alkyl chain lengths, which are ready for immunochemical experiments, in study **III**.

1.3.2. Metabolism

Little is currently known about the metabolism of ARs. The amount of intact ARs in the urine and ileostomy samples described in the absorption studies is approximately 30% of the amount consumed. The remaining ARs are apparently absorbed from the small intestine or converted to metabolites. So far, only two possible metabolites have been found from urine samples. They have been identified as 3-(3,5-dihydroxyphenyl)propanoic acid **14** and 3,5-

dihydroxybenzoic acid **15** (Figure 6).⁹³ It is suggested that these metabolites are formed by β -oxidation of the alkyl chain of AR.⁹³ These metabolites also might possess biological activity. According to a DPPH assay, the antioxidant activity of **15** is moderate, and between the activities of *ortho* dihydroxybenzoic acids (stronger effect) or monohydroxybenzoic acids (weaker effect).⁹⁴ Similar types of compounds, for example phenylpropanoic, phenylacetic and benzoic acids, are known metabolites of polyphenols such as flavonoids and anthocyanins.⁹⁵⁻⁹⁶

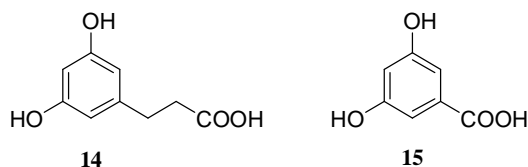


Figure 6. Proposed metabolites of 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols.⁹³

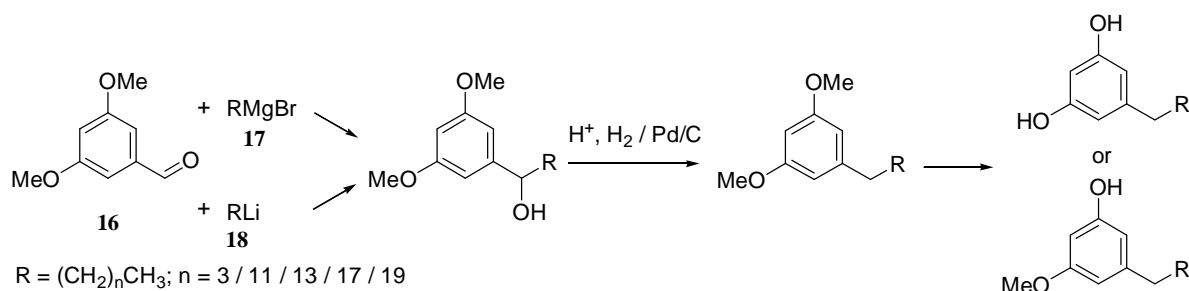
1.4. PREPARATION OF ALKYLRESORCINOLS AND THEIR DERIVATIVES

1.4.1. Different strategies for synthesis of 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols

The major part of the literature on 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols concerns their isolation from plants, identification of the extracted compounds, and their biological effects. However, some synthetic approaches have been published. The main issue for planning a synthesis of AR is how to form the carbon-carbon bond between the aromatic ring and the alkyl chain. This depends, for example, on the desired chain length in the product. In addition to the Grignard reaction, which has been used commonly to prepare long alkyl chain analogues, several other types of syntheses are described for one homologue only or very short alkyl chain ARs.

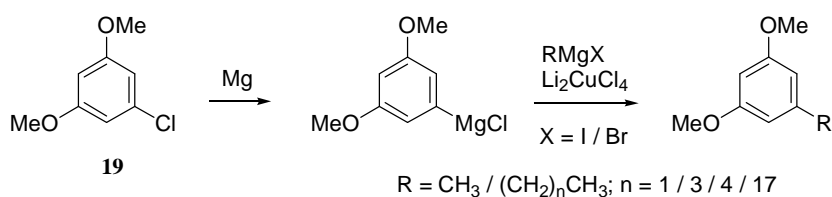
1.4.1.1. Grignard and related reactions

Grignard and related reactions used in the preparation of 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols and the subsequent reaction steps are presented in Scheme 2. The starting materials used in these reactions are 3,5-dimethoxybenzaldehyde **16** and alkylmagnesium bromides **17**⁹⁷⁻¹⁰² or alkyllithiums **18**¹⁰³ with various alkyl chain lengths. When it is reported, the overall yield of the Grignard approach is generally 18-48%⁹⁷⁻⁹⁹ and in one case 59% (C13:0).¹⁰⁰



Scheme 2. Grignard approaches in the synthesis of ARs.⁹⁷⁻¹⁰¹

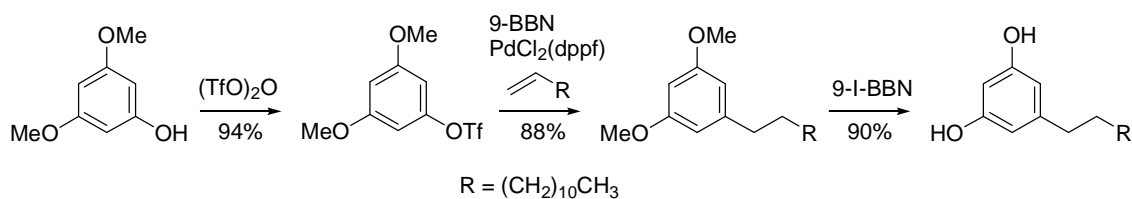
Variations on Grignard reactions have also been used to produce ARs. For example, alkyllithium reacts with 3,5-dimethoxyfluorobenzene to produce C15:0 and short chain length ARs (C3:0-C7:0), giving the short chain products in 52-64% yields in the Grignard step.¹⁰⁴ Another Grignard application uses dilithium tetrachlorocuprate catalysed coupling. Both short¹⁰⁵ and long alkyl chain⁸⁶ ARs have been prepared (Scheme 3) using this method. C19:0 and C21:0 were synthesized using 3,5-dimethoxybenzyl bromide as the starting material instead of the 3,5-dimethoxychlorobenzene **19** but the yield was not mentioned.⁸⁶ The yield of short chain C5:0 is 66%, which does not differ from the yields of the other reaction routes.¹⁰⁵



Scheme 3. Li₂CuCl₄-catalysed Grignard coupling.^{86,105}

1.4.1.2. Suzuki coupling

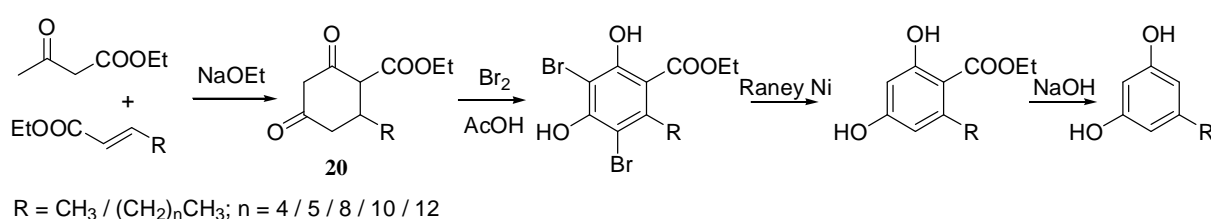
Grevillol (C13:0) has been prepared by a palladium-catalysed Suzuki coupling in a good yield (Scheme 4). The necessity for terminal alkene as the starting material for the reaction limits the number of compounds available for this kind of approach to AR synthesis in general. An unusual demethylation by 9-iodo-borabicyclononane (9-I-BBN) is reported in the same study.¹⁰⁶



Scheme 4. Suzuki type coupling as the key step in the synthesis of C13:0.¹⁰⁶

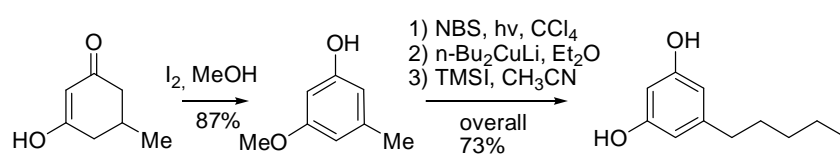
1.4.1.3. Aromatization of cyclohexane derivatives

6-Alkyl-2,4-dioxocyclohexanecarboxylates **20** have been obtained from the reaction of acetoacetic ester and α,β -unsaturated esters prepared from corresponding aldehydes. The products were aromatised by treatment with bromine, debrominated and finally decarboxylated, giving ARs (Scheme 5).¹⁰⁷⁻¹⁰⁸ The overall yields of C6:0 C11:0 were reported to be 61 and 66%, respectively.¹⁰⁸ When bromine in acetic acid failed to give a good yield for the intermediate of pentylresorcinol, monobromination with cupric bromide in 1,2-dimethoxyethane in the second step was also investigated.¹⁰⁸ The purpose of the preparation of short alkyl chain analogues was to use them as starting materials in cannabinol synthesis.¹⁰⁸



Scheme 5. Synthesis of ARs by way of aromatisation of cyclohexanes.¹⁰⁷

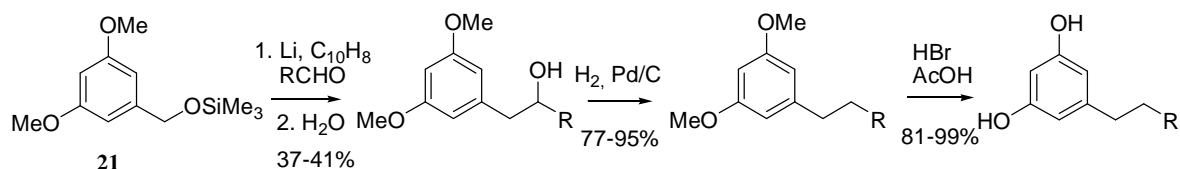
The proposed precursors of AR biosynthesis in plants are similar to the intermediates of the reaction in Scheme 5. The synthesis of orsellinic acid derivatives (for example **6**, Table 1, page 9), which are thought to be of similar origin to ARs, has been studied using the same intermediates.¹⁴ Olivetol (C5:0) has been prepared by another approach utilizing 1,3-cyclohexanedione as shown in Scheme 6.¹⁰⁹ Olivetol dimethyl ether has been prepared in a similar way from the corresponding benzyl tosylate and lithium di-*n*-butyl cuprate.¹¹⁰



Scheme 6. Preparation of olivetol.¹⁰⁹

1.4.1.4. Arene-catalysed lithiation

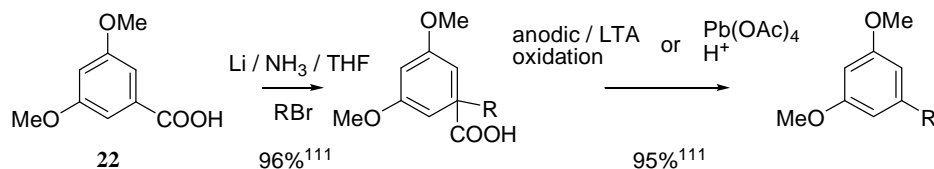
The reaction of 3,5-dimethoxybenzyl trimethylsilyl ether **21** and aldehydes, in the presence of Li powder and catalytic amounts of naphthalene, has been reported to give grevillol (C13:0) and olivetol (C5:0) in moderate overall yield after hydrolysis, catalytic hydrogenation and demethylation (Scheme 7).¹¹¹



Scheme 7. Arene-catalysed lithiation.¹¹¹

1.4.1.5. Reductive alkylation and oxidative decarboxylation

Short alkyl chain derivatives of AR have been prepared by the reductive alkylation of 3,5-dimethoxybenzoic acid **22** followed by oxidative decarboxylation (Scheme 8).¹¹²⁻¹¹³ These short chain analogues (C₂ or C₄) with different functional groups in the chain have been used as starting materials for A-ring aromatic steroids¹¹² or the phytoalexin orcinol.¹¹³

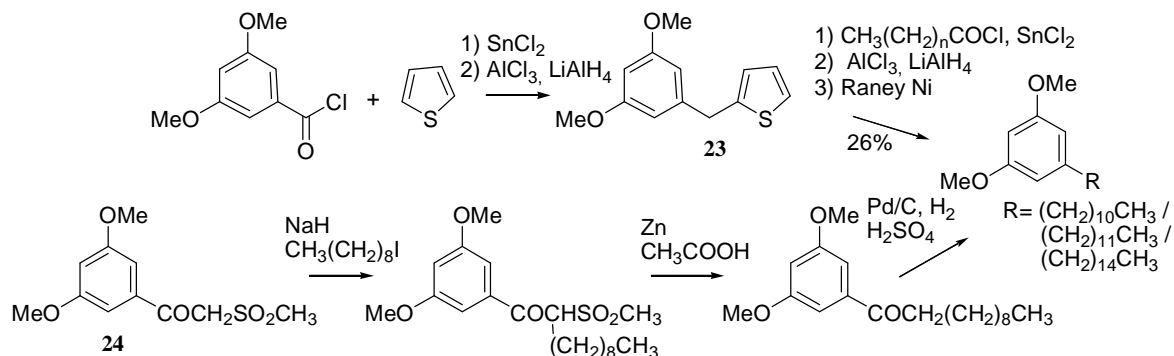


Scheme 8. Reductive alkylation-oxidative decarboxylation.¹¹²⁻¹¹³

Reductive alkylation-oxidative decarboxylation is claimed to be superior, in terms of yield and reliability, to the Grignard reaction with corresponding starting materials.¹¹²⁻¹¹³ Thus this process could also be an option for the preparation of long alkyl chain ARs, but the required odd carbon chain bromides are not commercially available.

1.4.1.6. Thiophene and β -keto sulfone intermediates

Along with the early attempts to prepare 1,14-bis(3,5-dimethoxyphenyl)tetradecane, two methods to prepare AR dimethyl ethers were found. Desulfurisation of **23**¹¹⁴ or alkylation of **24**¹¹⁵ followed by reduction gives AR derivatives with a C₁₅ maximum chain length (Scheme 9).



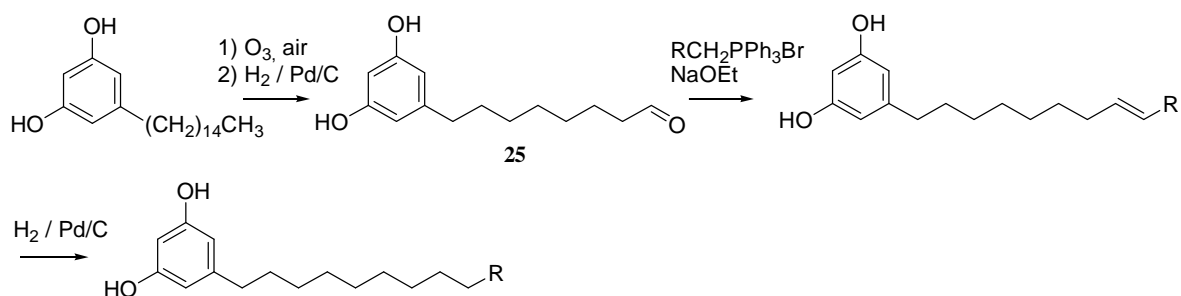
Scheme 9. Thiophene and β -keto sulfone intermediates in the preparation of ARs.¹¹⁴⁻¹¹⁵

1.4.1.7. Wittig reaction

The Wittig reaction¹¹⁶ is one of the most important reactions in the preparation of alkenes. In a typical Wittig reaction, a phosphonium ylide reacts with an aldehyde or ketone, giving *Z* and/or *E* alkenes and phosphine oxide as the products. The reaction conditions, the type of ylide and the carbonyl compound affect the stereoselectivity for *Z* or *E* alkenes.¹¹⁷ The Wittig reaction might also be considered an important C-C bond formation reaction, giving alkanes after reduction of the double bond.

We have investigated the Wittig reaction in an aqueous media as the key step in preparation of ARs.^{III} In the literature, the use of a mixture of organic solvent and water in the Wittig reaction has been described in the reactions of unstabilized short alkyl chain triphenylphosphoranes, for example.¹¹⁸⁻¹¹⁹ Water as a solvent has been described only a few times. The existing examples include the reactions of stabilized ylides with aryl aldehydes or short alkyl chain alkanals.¹²⁰⁻¹²² A benzylic semi-stabilized ylide has been used in the preparation of *o*- and *p*-nitrostyrenes from formaldehyde, which is highly reactive.¹²³ Reactions with aryl or short alkyl chain alkanals in the presence of LiCl have also been reported and give good yields.¹²⁴⁻¹²⁵ It has been thought that the reagents of the Wittig reaction need to be more water soluble, and to provide solubility, aryl modified phosphonium salts carrying a COOH group¹²⁶ or PEG attachments¹²⁷ have been developed.

Recently, the Wittig reaction has been found promising in the preparation of ARs starting from an ozonolysis product **25** of C15:0 isolated from cashew shell nut liquid (CSNL).¹²⁸ CNSL is produced in large amounts in the processing of cashew nuts for the food industry. It contains a mixture of C15:0 and alkylresorcinol type compounds (e.g. anacardic acid).² The reaction of the ozonolysis product **25** with different alkylphosphoranes gives unsaturated analogues of ARs (Scheme 10).¹²⁸ However, once again the lack of availability of the odd alkyl chain bromides is problematic and limits the use of this reaction in the production of ARs. In our Wittig strategy, we have utilized the commercially available even chain alkyl bromides.^{III}



Scheme 10. Preparation of ARs starting from ozonolysis of C15:0.¹²⁸

To sum up, some of the reactions giving short chain analogues might be suitable for the production of long chain ARs, however, the lack of availability of all the starting materials might cause problems. The Grignard reaction seems to give moderate overall yields but requires moisture-free conditions and possibly suffers from the formation of side products. We have found the Wittig reaction described in study **III** to be the most practical strategy to produce ARs with either a short or long alkyl chain.

1.4.2. Enhancement of reactions with MW irradiation

The utilization of microwave (MW) irradiation (0.3-300GHz) in heating and catalysis of organic reactions is based on the ability of molecules present in the reaction mixture to absorb MW energy and convert it to heat by dipole rotation. Very efficient heating is thus achieved compared to conventional heating where the heat is conducted to the reaction from outside by way of baths or electric mantles. The ability of substances to absorb MW depends on their dielectric properties. Polar molecules such as H₂O and DMSO absorb MW energy and convert it to heat efficiently. Solvents with less dipolar character or solvent-free conditions can also be used in the reactions, depending on the conditions in question.¹²⁹

The first applications of MW in organic synthesis are from the 1980's.¹³⁰⁻¹³¹ Since then, MW equipment has developed from ordinary kitchen ovens to laboratory instruments and several reviews describe the use of MW catalysis in various reactions.^{129,132-133} The advantages of MW heating are dramatically shortened reaction times and increased yields. Sometimes a decrease in the formation of side products or new selectivity has been described. At the moment it is generally accepted that the enhancement of the reaction is based only on thermal and kinetic effects.¹³⁴⁻¹³⁵ However, the possibility of the existence of a so-called microwave effect catalysing the reactions by some other, special mechanism has been investigated.¹³⁶

Previously, MW techniques have not been applied in the preparation of ARs. We have shown MW catalysis to be very useful in the key step of AR preparation.^{III}

1.4.3. Isotopically labelled alkylresorcinols

1.4.3.1. Isotopic labelling

Metabolic and analytical studies often require isotopically labelled analogues of the compounds that are being investigated. Using these internal standards all the losses during sample preparation can be corrected and the analytes reliably identified and quantified. For example, deuterium labelled internal standards of isoflavonoids, lignans and estrogens have

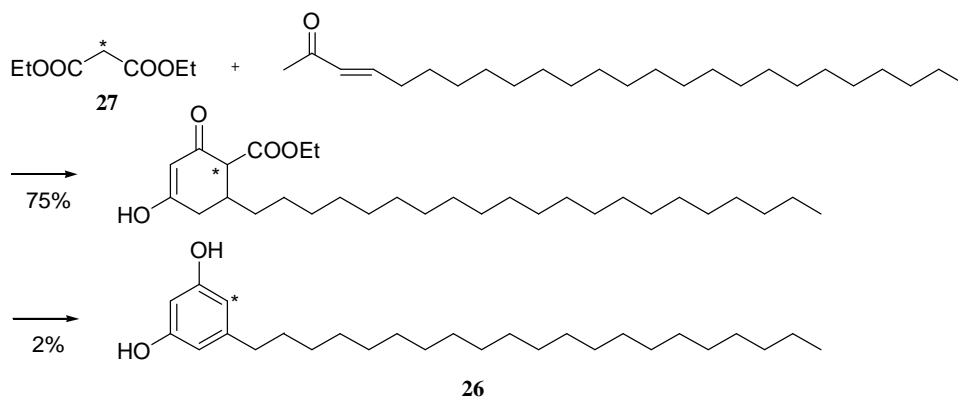
been used successfully in isotope dilution GC-MS selected ion monitoring (ID-GC-MS-SIM) measurements.¹³⁷⁻¹³⁸ In the ion chromatogram, the compound to be analysed and its deuterium labelled analogue usually have the same retention time. The difference in the molecular weight of the analyte and the internal standard should be at least 3 amu to avoid overlap of their mass spectra peaks.

Early investigations on hydrogen/deuterium exchange of aromatic protons showed that the reaction mechanism is electrophilic aromatic substitution.¹³⁹ Mineral acids such as DCl and D₂SO₄ are commonly used as reagents in the exchange as well as NaOD in base catalysed deuterations. Labelling with the non-radioactive isotope of carbon, ¹³C, is very expensive compared to deuterium labelling due to the high price of ¹³C-labelled starting materials. The various deuteration reagents and solvents such as D₂O, MeOD, DCl, D₂SO₄ and NaOD for deuterium exchange and e.g. the reducing agents LiAlD₄ and NaBD₄, used in total synthetic approaches, are readily available and much less costly.

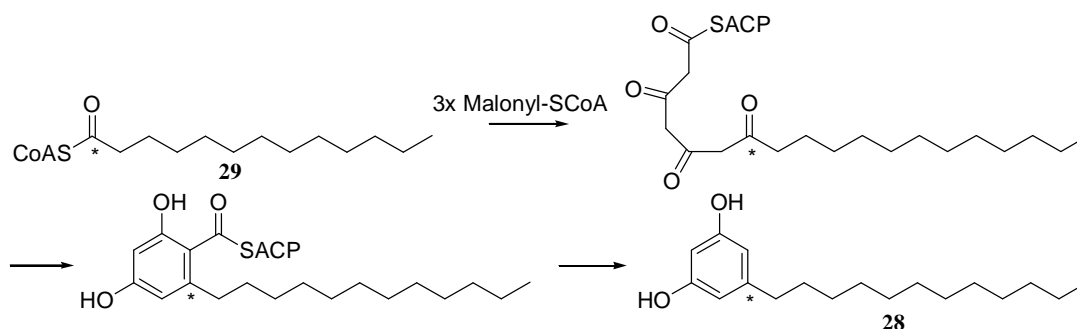
The quantitative and qualitative measurement of 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols from biological fluids has been performed using an even-chain analogue of AR as an internal standard,^I even though such even-chain ARs have been detected from grains.^{40,47} Labelled 5-*n*-alkylresorcinol analogues with varying alkyl chain lengths would allow a more reliable estimation of losses during sample preparation in various quantitative measurement procedures. In the literature, the preparation of labelled alkylresorcinols has been reported only a few times. We discuss the preparation of new deuterium labelled long alkyl chain 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols in study **IV**.

1.4.3.2. Carbon isotopes

Preparation of an isotopically labelled long chain 5-*n*-alkylresorcinol has been described only twice. ¹⁴C-Heneicosylresorcinol **26** (C21:0) was synthesized for a metabolism study. Rats were fed with the labelled C21:0 whose absorption and metabolism were followed. The isotopically pure compound was prepared using a ¹⁴C-labelled diethylmalonate **27** (Scheme 11).⁸⁹ A ¹³C-dodecylresorcinol (C12:0) **28** has been obtained by biosynthesis starting from a ¹³C-labelled tridecanoate substrate **29** by a special AR production system in etiolated rice seedlings (Scheme 12). The isotopic purity and the localisation of the label were determined by MS and NMR. Several even and odd chain ARs are produced by the system.¹¹



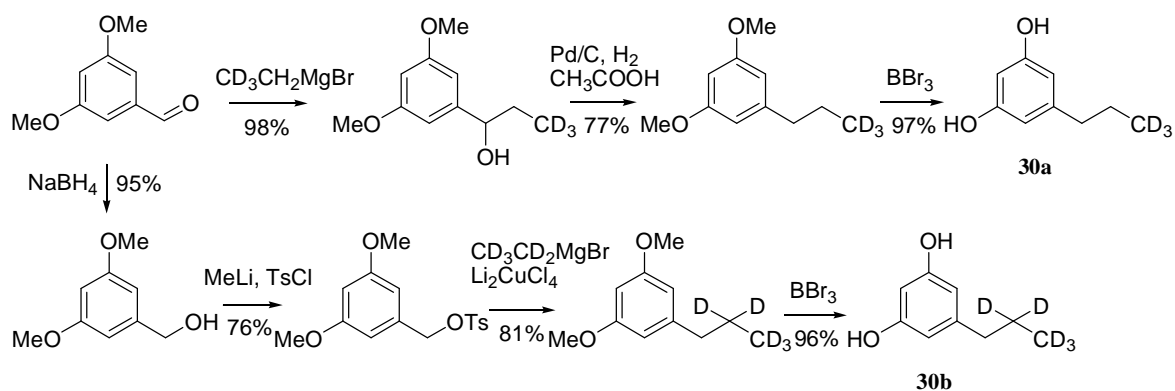
Scheme 11. Preparation of ^{14}C -5-heneicosylresorcinol.⁸⁹



Scheme 12. Biosynthesis of ^{13}C -5-dodecylresorcinol.¹¹

1.4.3.3. Deuterium labelled short alkyl chain ARs

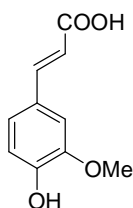
Deuterium labelling of short saturated alkyl chain AR analogues has been reported twice. The compounds such as **30a-b** are substructures of tetrahydrocannabinols and their metabolites, and have been used as starting materials in the preparation of labelled cannabivarin and cannabinoids. The D labels have been introduced into the alkyl chain by way of Grignard reactions (Scheme 13).¹⁴⁰ Labelled C5:0 (D₃, D₅) has been prepared by the same strategy starting from 3-(3,5-dimethoxyphenyl)propanal.¹⁴¹ The products are isotopically pure and overall yields are good.



Scheme 13. Deuterium labelled substructures of tetrahydrocannabinols.¹⁴⁰

1.5. FERULIC ACID

Ferulic acid **31** (FA) is the major phenolic acid present in rye and wheat bran.¹⁴² As FA is a well-known antioxidant, we have used it for comparison in measurements of the antioxidant activity of ARs.^{II} We have investigated the selective methylation of the benzaldehyde precursor of FA, resulting in selectively deuterated and stable D₃-FA and its derivatives.^V The compounds have been prepared for use as standards in epidemiological studies on polyphenols as biomarkers for the risk of chronic diseases.



31

1.5.1. Ferulic acid in grains

Whole grain products are an important source of FA;^{18,142-143} however, FA is also present in other plants and plant derived products such as berries (e.g. FA glucose ester, 11-15 mg/kg), vegetables (e.g. FA glucose ester, 42-64 mg/kg) and coffee (feruloylquinic acids, 0.36-1.175% of dry beans).¹⁴⁴ FA is located in bran of the grains, which limits its availability to whole grain products. The amount of FA in grains depends on the variety. A large proportion of FA is in an esterified form, bonded to the arabinopyranose C-5 hydroxyl group of arabinoxylans.¹⁴³ The concentration of the ester measured from crude extracts of wheat varies from 1.56 µg/g in wheat flour to 34.2 µg/g in wheat bran.¹⁴⁵ In rye, the concentration of FA ranges from 900 µg/g to 1170 µg/g of dry matter depending on the variety.¹⁴⁶ Other phenolic acids such as isoferulic acid (3-hydroxy-4-methoxycinnamic acid) have been detected in minor amounts in grains.¹⁴²

1.5.2. Antioxidant activity

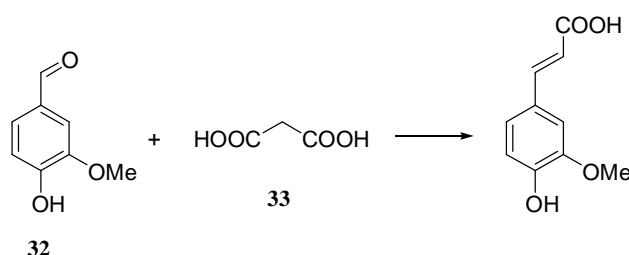
The antioxidant activity of phenolic acids depends on their structure. Due to the double bond and the methoxy group in their structures, ferulic acid and other cinnamic acids are stronger antioxidants than related compounds with simpler structures (e.g. benzoic acids).¹⁴⁷ Ferulic acid and its esters have various antioxidative effects.¹⁴⁸ FA prevents lipid oxidation and autoxidation, and when compared to related compounds such as coumaric, sinapic and caffeic acids, FA has the strongest protective effect.¹⁴⁹ When the oxidation level of synaptosomal membrane systems is measured in terms of protein oxidation, lipid peroxidation and reactive

oxygen species, FA is found to protect the neuronal system from all these kinds of oxidative stress. Thus FA might provide protection from neurodegenerative disorders such as Alzheimer's disease.¹⁵⁰ The antioxidant capacity of processed and unprocessed wheat samples has been evaluated by measuring oxygen radical absorbance capacity, inhibition of photochemiluminescence, inhibition of oxidation of low density lipoprotein (LDL) and deoxyribonucleic acid, or by using a Rancimat method (apparatus for determining oxidative stability at elevated temperature), giving high levels of antioxidant capacity by the most unprocessed samples.¹⁴⁵ FA is one the major phenolic acids present in these samples, and thus is presumably a potent factor in their antioxidative effects.

1.5.3. Synthetic approaches

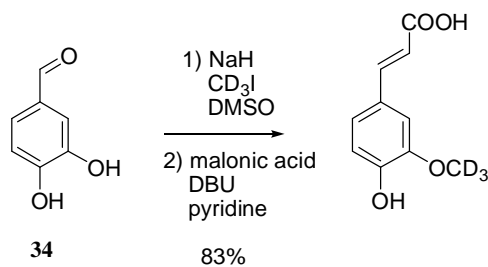
1.5.3.1. Ferulic acid

Knoevenagel condensation and its modifications, with vanillin **32** and malonic acid **33** as starting materials, has been commonly used in the preparation of FA (Scheme 14).



Scheme 14. Knoevenagel condensation.

MW irradiation has been used in a so-called Doebner modification of Knoevenagel condensation¹⁵¹ and in solvent-free experiments using KF-Al₂O₃ as a catalyst,¹⁵² which give FA and other cinnamic acids in good yields. Isotopic labelling of FA has been reported previously. These studies include, for example, the preparation of a ¹³C-labelled¹⁵³ and a ¹⁴C-labelled¹⁵⁴ FA. A D₁-labelled FA has been prepared by using deuterated malonic acid as the starting material.¹⁵⁵ The preparation of a D₃-FA with the labels in the methoxy group has been reported only once in the preparation of a precursor for a labelled coniferyl alcohol (Scheme 15).¹⁵⁶



Scheme 15. Preparation of D₃-FA.¹⁵⁶

1.5.3.2. Selective methylation of precursors

The selective methylation of 3,4-dihydroxybenzaldehyde **34** makes available practical starting materials for synthesis of either ferulic or isoferulic acid. In addition to the reaction shown in Scheme 15, selective methylation of **34** has been described in the literature. Vanillin or D₃-vanillin has been prepared selectively by using NaOH in ethanol with CD₃I.¹⁵⁷ Protection of the 4-hydroxy group following the methylation and deprotection has also been described.¹⁵⁸ The reaction of **34** with CH₃I in NaH/DMSO gives vanillin in 52% yield.¹⁵⁹ The difference between the yields of combinations of KOH, KHCO₃, or K₂CO₃ with CH₃I has been investigated in the preparation of isovanillin (3-hydroxy-4-methoxybenzaldehyde).¹⁶⁰ Dimethyl sulfate has been used instead of CD₃I in the selective preparation of unlabelled isovanillin.¹⁶¹⁻¹⁶² We describe the use of a new combination of base/solvent (*t*-BuOK/DMSO) in study **V** and present the preparation of D₃-FA and related compounds.

2. AIMS OF THE STUDY

The aim of the present study was to promote further investigations of 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols from whole grains due to their importance in nutrition and health. Synthetic organic chemistry was the primary method used to develop a number of tools for facilitating studies in this area. An important objective was to synthesise 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols present in whole grains and 5-*n*-alkylresorcinol derivatives, such as haptens, for *in vitro* and *in vivo* investigations. Similarly, analytical and metabolic studies require deuterium labelled standards. Particularly, isomerically and isotopically pure, stable polydeuterated 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols are required in development of quantitative analysis. To meet these overall goals, the specific aims of this study were as follows:

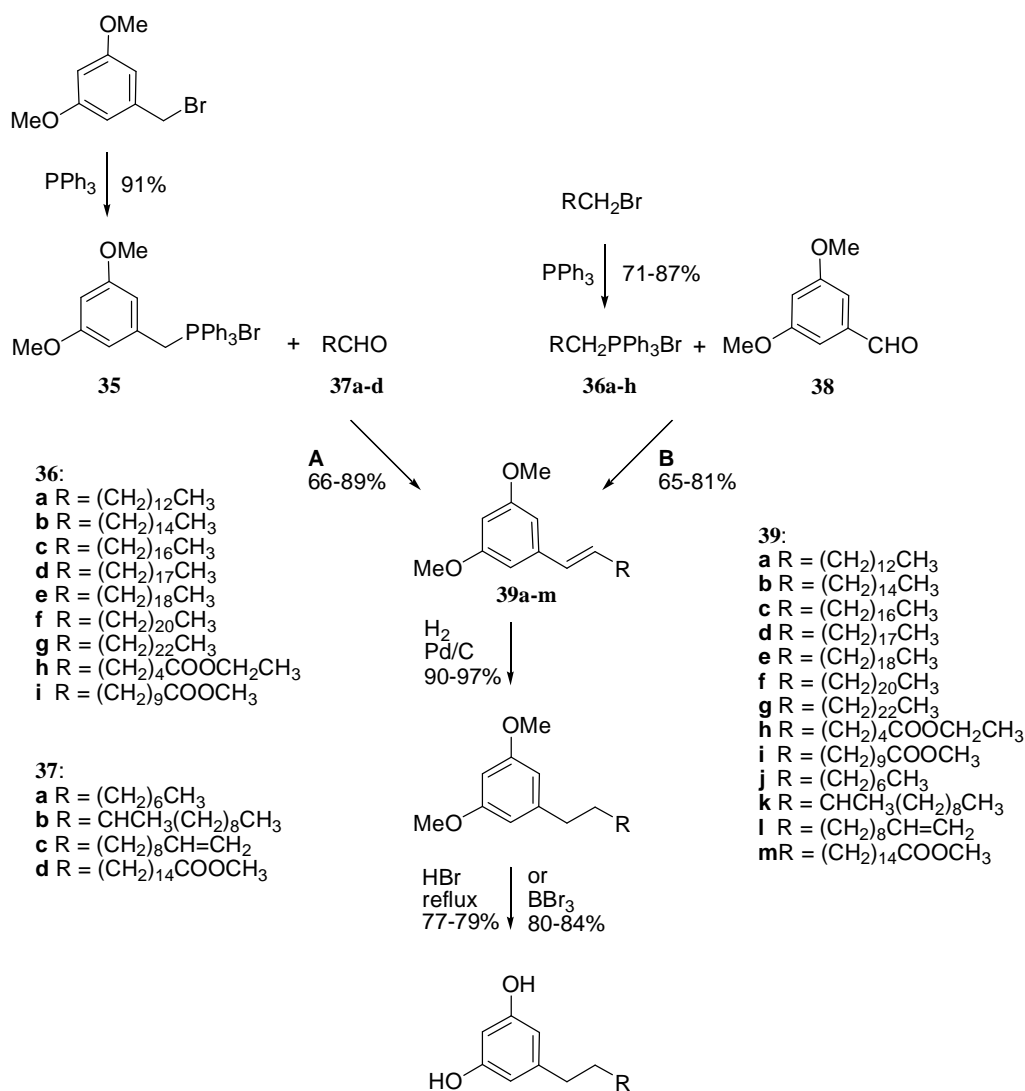
1. To develop an efficient synthesis for 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols. (III)
2. To develop a synthesis method for alkylresorcinol haptens, which could be used in immunoanalytical experiments. (III)
3. To develop deuteration methods for 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols and prepare deuterium labelled and cold standards suitable for analytical and metabolic studies. (I, IV)
4. To investigate biological properties, such as antioxidant activity and antigenotoxicity, of 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols utilizing the synthesized pure homologues with different alkyl chain lengths. (II, III)
5. To study the preparation of deuterium labelled ferulic acid and related compounds. (V)

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. SYNTHESIS

3.1.1. Synthesis of 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols and their derivatives by the Wittig reaction

We have studied the Wittig reaction as the key step in the preparation of AR and their derivatives.^{III} Following the Wittig reaction, reduction of the double bond and demethylation are performed (Scheme 16) giving ARs and AR haptens in c.a. 40% overall yield.



Scheme 16. Preparation of ARs by the Wittig reaction.

3.1.1.1. Conventional methods

The conventional Wittig reaction methods include the use of strong bases such as *n*-BuLi in THF under an inert atmosphere. In the so-called salt-free conditions there is no lithium present and NaH or sodium alkoxides are commonly used as bases. We chose the salt-free system to prepare ARs, as it is a more environmentally friendly strategy than the methods utilizing lithium bases. In our approach, K₂CO₃ was found to work well in a dioxane/water mixture. The reactions required refluxing several hours to run to completion and the yields were ca. 60-75%.

3.1.1.2. Microwave assisted reactions

The use of MW heating in the Wittig reaction was found to cut down the reaction time dramatically. The MW catalysed reactions were complete in 3-10 minutes. A yield increase was obtained in the case of the C23:0 precursor, for example. Two different approaches towards AR synthesis were studied, using either a semi-stabilised benzylphosphonium ylide **35** or unstabilized alkylphosphonium ylides **36** (Scheme 16, routes A and B).

We found that an organic solvent was not necessary in the reactions of **35** and **37** (route A) even if they are not soluble in water. Different concentrations of aqueous K₂CO₃ as a solvent were examined (0.1 M/1 M/5 M/saturated) and the most dilute of them, 0.1 M, was found to be optimal. These reactions gave a good yield under the pressurized conditions, as well as in an open vessel. The pressure in the sealed vessel was usually about 9 bar during the reactions. The use of NaOH as the base was also investigated but resulted in vigorous reactions and even broken reaction vessels.

The very long alkyl chain alkanals are not commercially available but the corresponding bromides are, being thus excellent precursors for ARs (route B). The reactions of **36** and **38** required the presence of an organic solvent, as the yield was not satisfactory in the various aqueous K₂CO₃ solutions tested (0.1 M/1 M/5 M/saturated), of which the saturated solution gave less than 50% yield at best (in contrast to route A). A DMSO/H₂O mixture was found to be an optimal solvent for these reactions, giving products **39a-i** in 65-81% yield. Other solvent mixtures tested (e.g. dioxane/H₂O) gave poor yields. The reactions of route B were performed in an open flask, as the yields of the reactions in sealed vessels were not good due to instability or degradation of the ylides under pressure.

Mixtures of *cis* and *trans* isomers of **39** were obtained in the reactions with *Z/E* ratios varying from ca. 40:60 (route B) to ca. 80:20 (route A, product **39m**) according to ¹H NMR and GC-

MS. Although stereochemical control is thus lacking, it is of no consequence as the ultimate targets of the reactions are the C=C reduced, saturated alkyl chain ARs.

The preparation of phosphoranones under MW irradiation has been described in the literature.¹⁶³⁻¹⁶⁴ However, we have not succeeded with an MW catalysed one-pot technique where the triphenyl phosphonium salt **36** would be formed from the bromide and then react with the aldehyde. Preparation of the phosphoranones was investigated in various solvents (e.g. xylene, toluene) giving ca. 5% yields at best.

3.1.1.3 Haptens

We chose four different alkyl chain lengths for the haptens **40** to represent alkylresorcinols with very short, medium and long alkyl chains, of which C₁₇ (**40c**) and C₂₃ (**40d**) are equivalent to the alkylresorcinols present in whole grain products (Figure 7). The nonpolar and hydrophobic character of alkylresorcinols increases as the alkyl chain length becomes longer, which may lead to differences in reactivity in immunochemical experiments even if the compounds are otherwise very similar to each other.

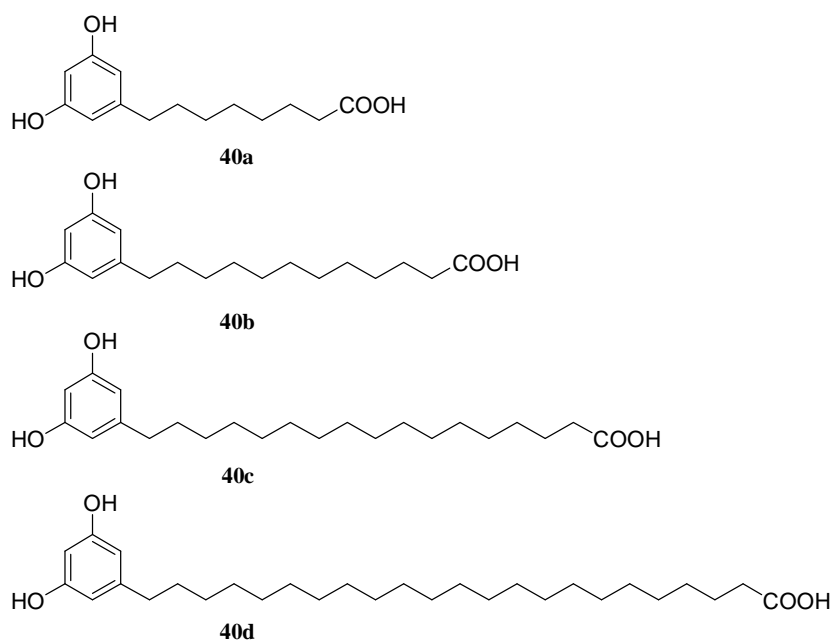
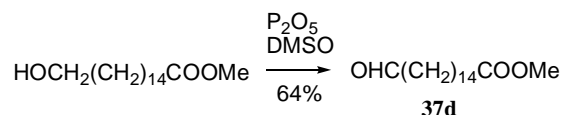


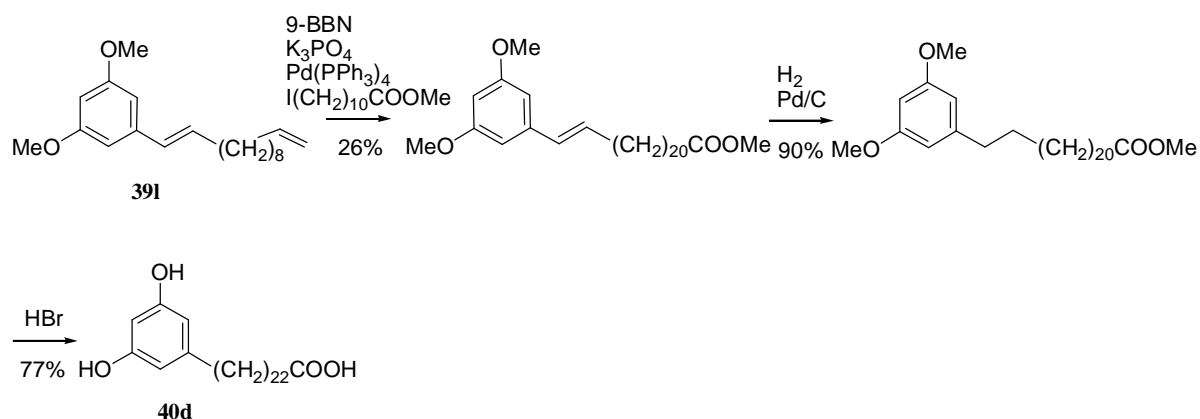
Figure 7. Novel AR haptens.

Haptens can be prepared by way of both routes A and B (Scheme 16). The best yield in the Wittig step was afforded by route A, utilizing the benzylic phosphonium salt **35** with the alkanal starting material **37d** (C₁₆) which was prepared by a Swern-type oxidation¹⁶⁵ (Scheme 17). Some of the alkanal precursor analogues with varying chain lengths are commercially available.



Scheme 17. Swern-type oxidation.

The Wittig product **39i** was a starting material for the C₂₃ hapten **40d**, for which commercial alkanal or alkyl bromide precursors are not available (Scheme 18).

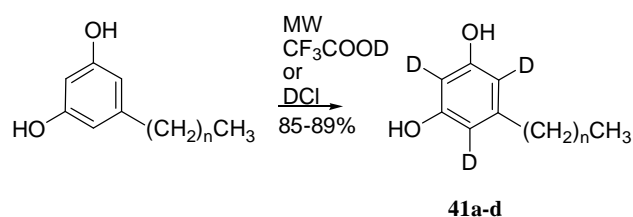


Scheme 18. The preparation of a C_{23:0} hapten derivative.

3.2. DEUTERIUM LABELLING

3.2.1. H/D exchange of 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols

Deuteration reagents such as DCl, CF₃COOD and D₃PO₄*BF₃ were explored in the acid catalysed H/D exchange experiments.^{IV} The deuteration of the ARs was not complete when the reactions were done at room temperature (D₃PO₄*BF₃), under reflux (DCl, CF₃COOD) or under pressure (D₃PO₄*BF₃). Prolonged reaction times and experiments with strong acid (D₃PO₄*BF₃) lead to the decomposition of ARs. These problems were avoided by using MW heating. The fast MW catalysed reactions with DCl or CF₃COOD gave the D₃-alkylresorcinols **41a-d** in good yields and isotopic purity (Scheme 19).



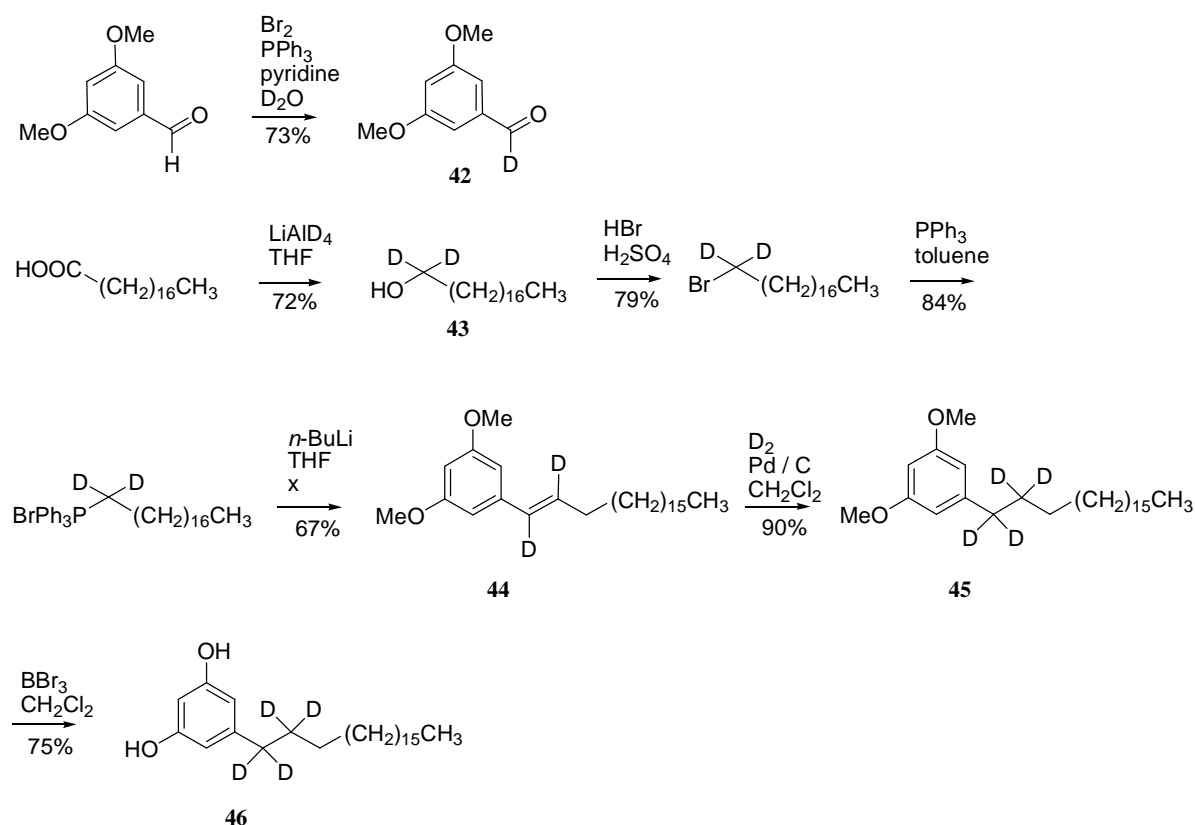
Scheme 19. H/D exchange. **a**, n=14; **b**, n=16; **c**, n=18; **d**, n=20

Scrambling problems¹⁶⁶ were observed when the mass spectra of the products **41** were run using EI (direct inlet). When an ESI technique (direct inlet) was used, no scrambling occurred and the mass spectra agreed with the NMR data for the products, in which no aromatic protons were seen. We suggest that these compounds should be useful as standards in LC-MS based analytical studies.

3.2.2. Total synthesis of deuterated 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols

3.2.2.1. Synthesis of *D*₄-nonadecylresorcinol

To avoid scrambling problems and ensure the stability of the labels in the various analytical and pretreatment operations that sample preparation may require, for example incubation under acidic conditions or derivatization, we studied the incorporation of four deuterium labels into the alkyl chain at the benzylic (α) position and the β site as shown in Scheme 20.^{IV}

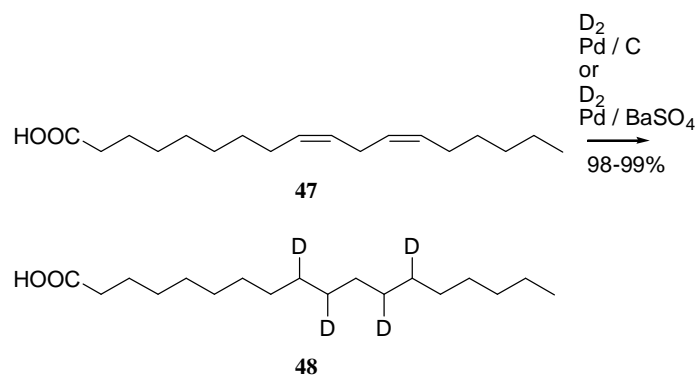


Scheme 20. Preparation of *D*₄-C19:0.

The labelling was done in a stepwise manner, involving the use of a C-1 deuterated aldehyde **42** (ArCDO) and a C-1 dideuterated primary alcohol **43** (RCD₂OH) as starting materials and catalytic C=C reduction using D₂ gas. The D₂-species **44** was homogenous by as determined MS (direct inlet) and NMR, but the reduced product **45** (and **46**) was contaminated by some

D₃-nonadecylresorcinol (up to 30%) and a lesser amount of D₂-nonadecylresorcinol (up to 10%). Thus it appeared that D/H scrambling occurred in the C=C reduction. The exchange and redistribution of hydrogen and deuterium has been observed previously in the deuterogenation of simple alkenes over a nickel catalyst, which gave a mixture of alkanes with varying deuterium content, however the D₄-derivative as the main product.¹⁶⁷⁻¹⁶⁸

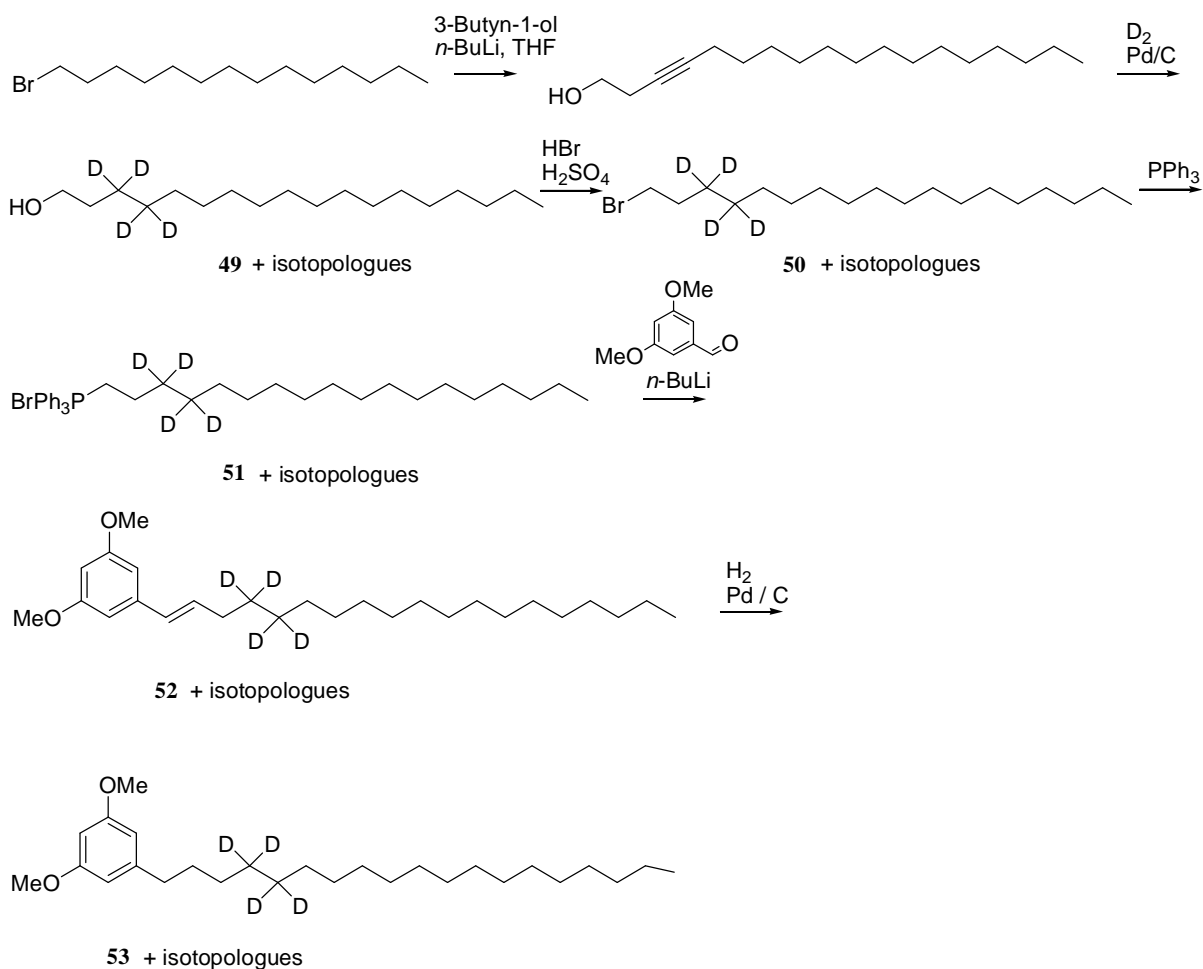
Another alkene reduction strategy was investigated.^{IV} The deuterogenation of linoleic acid **47**, which is a potential starting material for alkylresorcinols, did not furnish the D₄-stearic acid **48** but gave instead a mixture of D₀ up to D₁₅ isotopologues, D₄- and D₅-derivatives being the main products according to MS (Scheme 21). There were no differences between the products produced by the two catalysts used in the reaction (Pd/C or Pd/BaSO₄). Apparently, linoleic acid, with its methylene skipped diene structure, is much more prone to scrambling and redistribution reactions than the styrene derivative **44**.



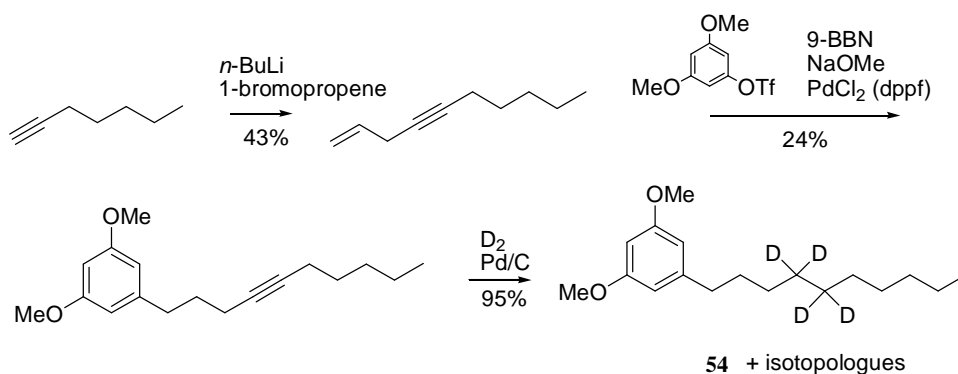
Scheme 21. Deuteration of linoleic acid and the expected D₄-stearic acid as the product.

3.2.2.2. Deuterogenation of acetylenes

D/H scrambling occurred in the reduction of the acetylenic starting materials by D₂ gas when two variations on another strategy based on the deuterogenation of an alkyne to alkane were studied (Schemes 22 and 23).^{IV} Deuterium atoms were introduced not only to the acetylenic carbons but also elsewhere in the alkyl chain, resulting in a mixture of isotopologues (of **49** and the intermediates **50-52**) according to MS (direct inlet) and NMR. In the final alkylresorcinol derivative **53**, the D₄ species was the main product (ca. 29%) but D₂-, D₃- and at least D₅- and D₇-derivatives were present (approximately 11%, 20%, 20%, 12% and 7%, respectively). In the case of **54** the distribution of the products was different and the heavier species were more abundant compared with **53**. The D₃-, D₄-, D₅- and D₆-derivatives were the main constituents in **54** (18%, 20%, 20% and 19%, respectively).



Scheme 22. D₂ deuteration and the isotopologous products.



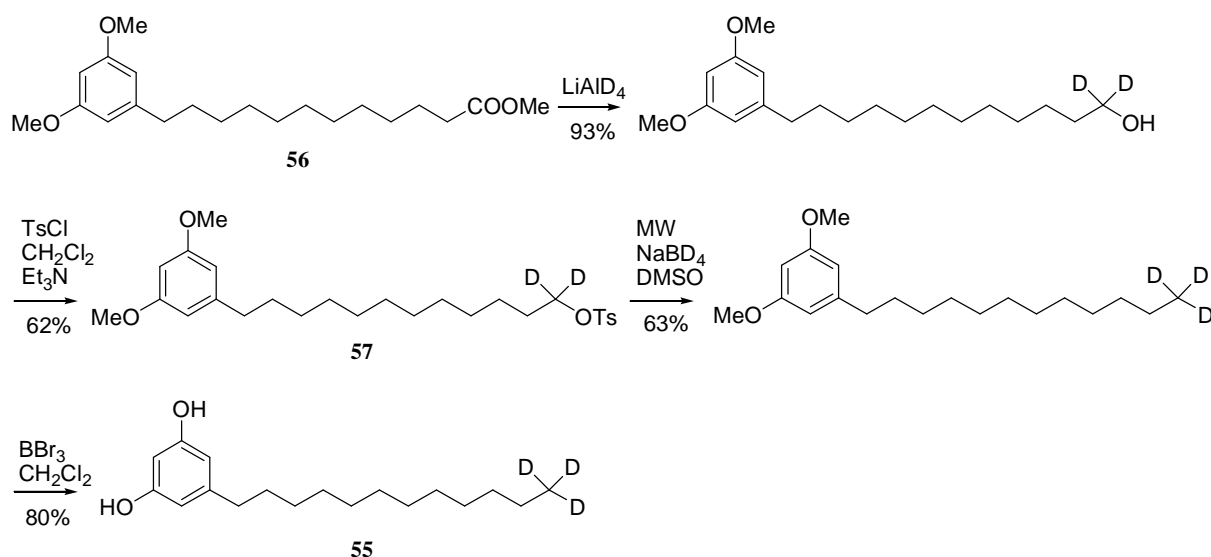
Scheme 23. D₂ deuteration of an alkyne resorcinol dimethyl ether.

H/D exchange and redistribution has not been reported to occur to a significant degree when alkynes are reduced selectively to alkenes¹⁶⁹ suggesting that in our case the scrambling occurs at the subsequent alkene reduction stage. However, in our experiments there was a difference between the products of the deuteration of either alkenes or alkynes. In contrast to the product **45** (and **46**), in which only D₂- and D₃-derivatives was present in addition to D₄, in

products **53** (and **49-52**) and **54** there were clearly significant amounts of D₅- and D₆-derivatives in the mixture. It seems that controlling the heterogeneous catalytic D₂ reduction of any olefinic or acetylenic starting material is problematic and specifically deuterated alkylresorcinols cannot be prepared in this way.

3.2.2.3. Synthesis of D₃-alkylresorcinols

Placing the D atoms at the far end of the alkyl chain in completely unactivating surroundings made available derivatives (for example, **55**) that are not vulnerable to any kind of D/H exchanges whatsoever, either in solution or in the mass spectrometer.^{IV} A 5-(ω -methoxycarbonylalkyl)resorcinol dimethyl ether **56** may be converted in four steps to ω -D₃-alkylresorcinol with an isotopic purity in excess of 95% (Scheme 24). In the first step, two D atoms were introduced by LiAlD₄ reduction of the ester. The tosylate **57** was conveniently reduced by NaBD₄ in DMSO in 8 minutes under MW irradiation.

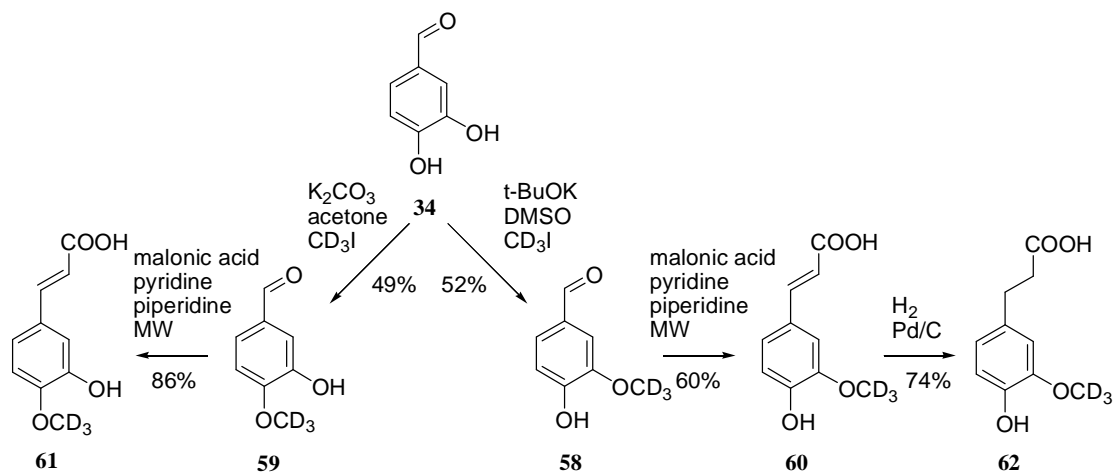


Scheme 24. Synthesis of pure and stable D₃-AR.

3.2.3. Preparation of D₃-ferulic acid and related compounds

We investigated the selective methylation of 3,4-dihydroxybenzaldehyde **34** with CD₃I.^V The methylation of the 4-hydroxy or the 3-hydroxy group of **34** gave D₃-vanillin **58** or D₃-isovanillin **59**, respectively. Several combinations of bases and solvents were tested and both K₂CO₃/acetone and a new combination of a base and solvent, *t*-BuOK/DMSO, were found to selectively give the product (Scheme 25). Under these conditions, only one monomethylated product was formed, and the formation of minor amounts of di-*O*-methylated product (D₆-3,4-dimethoxybenzaldehyde) was not of a consequence as it was easily separated from the products by flash chromatography. The reaction of **58** or **59** with malonic acid catalysed by

MW irradiation gave D₃-ferulic acid **60** or D₃-isoferulic acid **61**, respectively. The previously described preparation of unlabelled FA catalysed by MW irradiation in a domestic MW oven¹⁵¹ was not reproducible in the CEM Discover system as the yield of **60** we obtained was, at best, 60%. However, we found that the MW catalysed reaction worked very well in the preparation of **61**. Hydrogenation of **60** by H₂ gave D₃-dihydroferulic acid¹⁷⁰ **62** (Scheme 25).



Scheme 25. Preparation of D₃-FA and related D₃-labelled compounds.

3.3. BIOACTIVITY

We used the prepared ARs (C15:0, C17:0, C19:0, C21:0 and C23:0) to investigate bioactivity. The derivatives tested are those present in whole grain products, and the experiments in our study model some actions that these ARs might have in the human body.

3.3.1. Antioxidant activity

3.3.1.1. FRAP assay

We compared the antioxidant power of ARs to the activity of FA.^{II} Alkylresorcinols gave a linear, dose-related response, but their activity was only approximately 10% of the activity of FA (Figure 8).

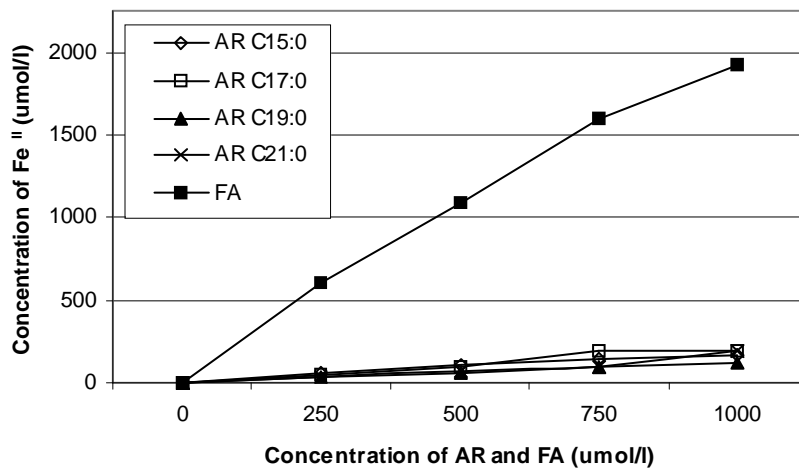


Figure 8. FRAP assay.

3.3.1.2. DPPH assay

We again compared the radical scavenging abilities of ARs and FA in the DPPH assay.¹¹ The results were similar to those obtained from the FRAP assay; the antioxidant power of ARs once again was lower than that of FA (Figure 9). A small difference in the activity of C15:0 and C21:0 might suggest that the alkyl chain length affects the system.

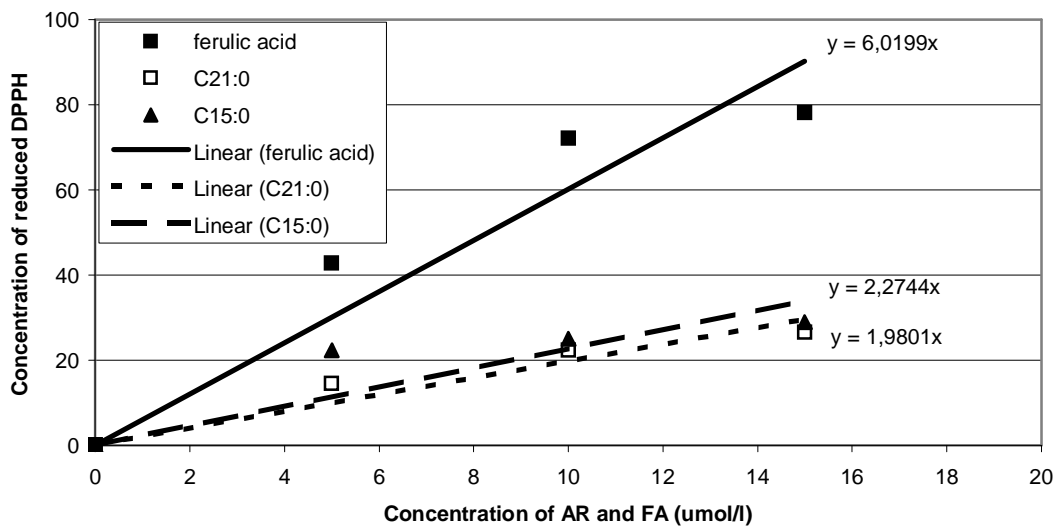


Figure 9. DPPH assay. C17:0 and C19:0 are not included in the chart but give approximately same response as C15:0 and C21:0.

3.3.1.3. Inhibition of LDL oxidation

The Cu(II)-induced oxidation of LDL was delayed by adding ARs to the LDL solutions.¹¹ Of the concentrations of ARs tested, the 25 μM solutions of C15:0 and C17:0 gave the best protection from oxidation, increasing the lag time by 65 min and 40 min, respectively. However, an AR concentration as low as 2.5 μM also had a protective effect, but the increase in the observed lag time was only approximately 15 min (Figure 10). The solubility of the longer alkyl chain ARs (C19:0, C21:0 and C23:0) in the test medium, 5% MeOH in H_2O , was problematic and they had to be excluded from the study. A 5% MeOH solution had to be used instead of water to enhance the solubility of the ARs tested. Since the human body is a purely aqueous environment, the lowest possible concentration of MeOH was used so that conditions would closely resemble those *in vivo*. The absorbance of a sample containing 5% MeOH only was measured and it did not differ from the control sample.

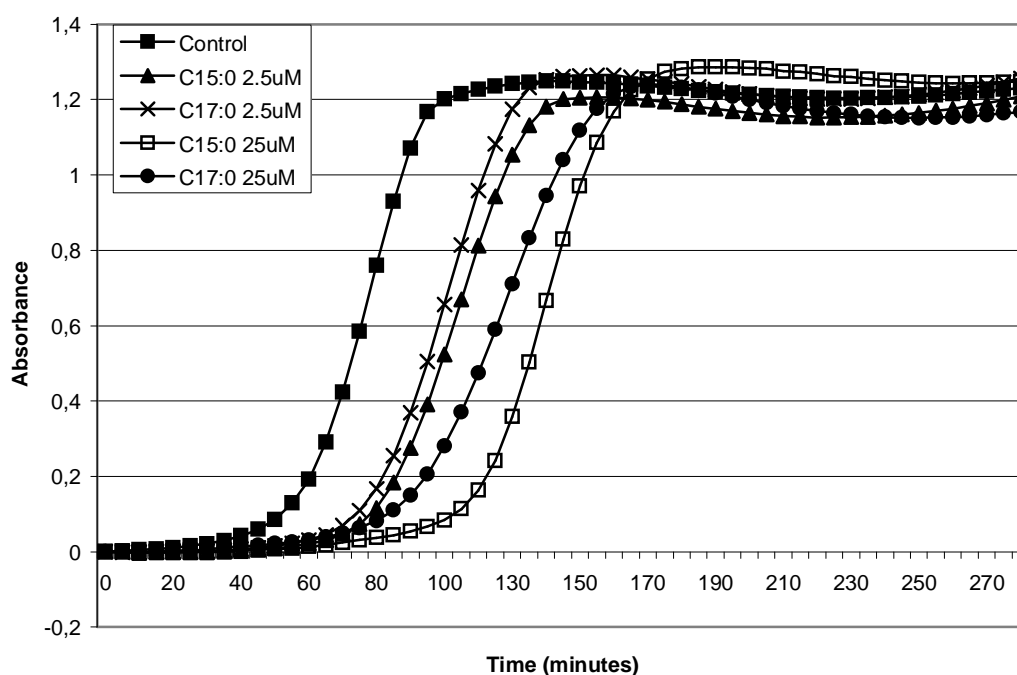


Figure 10. The effect of AR on Cu(II) induced oxidation of LDL. Absorbance of conjugated dienes as a function of time.

3.3.2. Antigenotoxicity

We chose the colorectal cell line HT29 for the antigenotoxicity tests.¹¹ Colorectal cancer is the most common cancer in western countries after lung and breast cancers.¹⁷¹ Oxidative DNA damage is an important mutagenic and apparently carcinogenic factor.¹⁷² The HT29 cell line has been widely used as a model for studying colon carcinogenesis in combination with the

single cell gel electrophoresis (comet) assay which measures single strand DNA damage.¹⁷³⁻¹⁷⁵ We quantified the damage by measuring the length of the tail of the so-called comets, which were formed from the damaged DNA in electrophoresis. H_2O_2 ¹⁷⁶⁻¹⁷⁷ and faecal water¹⁷⁴ have been commonly used as the DNA damaging agents.

3.3.2.1. Inhibition of H_2O_2 induced damage

In the experiments, the HT29 cells were incubated with ARs, then ARs were removed and H_2O_2 added to the cells. The protective effects were investigated using various incubation times and concentrations of ARs. A 24h incubation with a 100 μM concentration of AR (C15:0, C17:0, C19:0, C21:0 or C23:0) gave the most significant results. The protective effects of C15:0 and C17:0 were almost the same. The protective effects of C19:0 and C21:0 were also statistically significant. The inhibition of DNA damage was much lower with shorter incubation times, e.g. 1h (Figure 11).

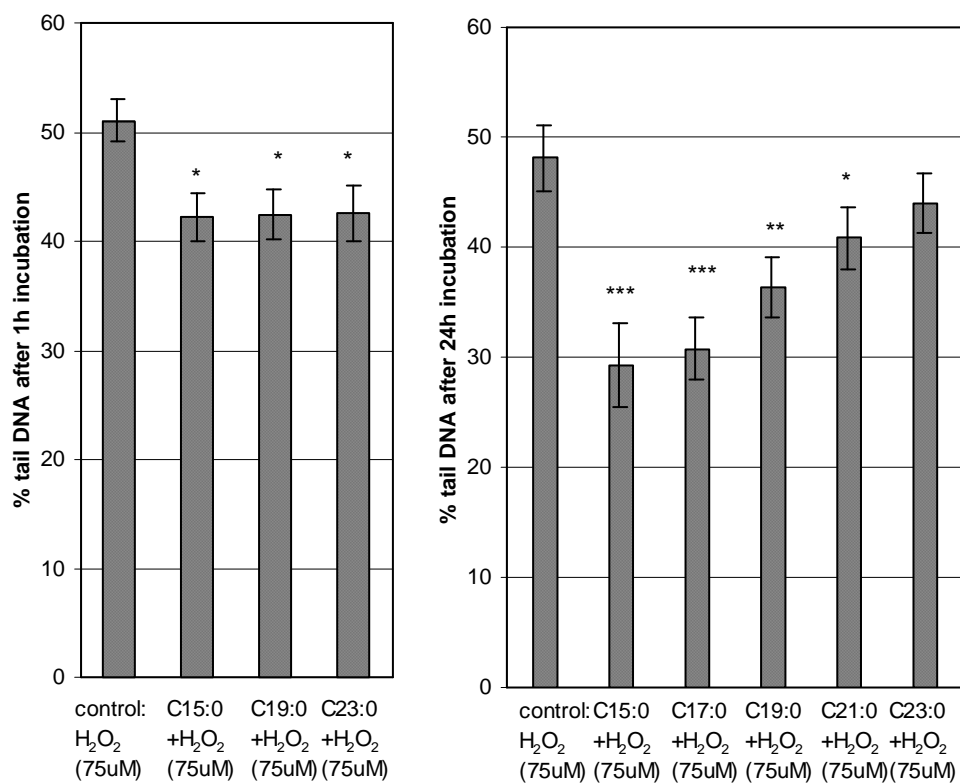


Figure 11. Inhibition of H_2O_2 induced damage at a 100 μM concentration of AR. The asterisks represent the significance of the results (*, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.005$) compared with the control.

3.3.2.2. Inhibition of faecal water induced damage

Approximately 30% of all faecal water samples from human volunteers are highly genotoxic towards human colon cells.¹⁷⁴ Thus faecal water is highly useful in *in vitro* experiments on anticancer activity in the colon and the results should be relevant.

We investigated the antigenotoxic effect of selected ARs (C15:0, C19:0 and C23:0) on faecal water induced damage (Figure 12). The protective effect of C15:0 at a 50 μ M concentration was clear and approximately the same as in the experiments with H₂O₂. The result of C15:0 was also, according to statistical calculations, the only significant result, however, C19:0 seemed to possess some activity. In this case the 100 μ M concentration of AR, which was the most effective in the H₂O₂ experiments, gave very similar results to the 50 μ M incubation, but the results had lower significance ($P < 0.05$). The result of the experiment with the lowest concentration of ARs tested (10 μ M) was not statistically significant but indicated that also the longer alkyl chain ARs (C19:0 and C23:0) might have some protective effect toward the cells.

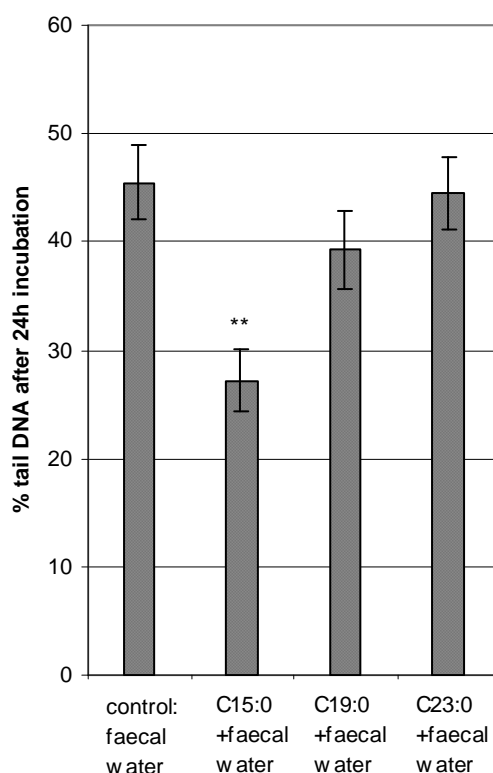


Figure 12. Inhibition of faecal water induced damage at a 50 μ M concentration of AR. The asterisks represent the significance of the results (**; $P < 0.01$) compared with the control.

To summarize the antigenotoxicity results, AR seem to be incorporated into cell walls because they are able to protect the cells against oxidative damage after the incubating medium, and AR in it, has been removed. The 100 μ M concentrations of ARs, which were most effective in decreasing the oxidative DNA damage, are ca. 30 times higher than the concentration found in plasma.¹ It should be noted, however, that tissue concentrations might be higher than those in plasma. In the case of isoflavones, for example, the concentration in prostate tissue has been shown to be as much as 10 times higher than the plasma level.¹⁷⁸ The biological activity of ARs in these assays appears to be dependent on their chain length. Based on the results, the dependence may be a consequence of solubility, which is limited because of the extended nonpolar alkyl chain and decreases with increasing chain length.

4. CONCLUSIONS

5-*n*-Alkylresorcinols and their hapten derivatives were prepared by methods that utilized the microwave catalysed Wittig reaction as a key step. The reactions of a semi-stabilized ylide and alkanals gave good yields in pressurized or open systems in water without an organic solvent. Alternative microwave catalysed reactions of 3,5-dimethoxybenzaldehyde and non-stabilised alkyltriphenylphosphonium salts in DMSO/H₂O were also successful. Thus the methods are suitable for various alkylresorcinol and related compound precursors without need for solubility enhancing groups in their structure.

Various labelling techniques were investigated, including H/D exchange and total synthesis approaches. The ring-labelled D₃-ARs were obtained in approximately 90% isotopic purity. This type of compound would be practical in analytical studies that are based on electrospray ionisation MS. The D₄-AR derivative labelled at the benzylic α -site and at the β -site might be utilized as a standard, since the M⁺ of the D₂-species does not overlap with any peak of the unlabelled analogue. The alkyne deuteration strategies investigated lead to extensive H/D scrambling along the alkyl chain. These studies on various deuteration strategies showed that the deuteration method giving the D₃-AR with the labels at the end of the alkyl chain was the most reliable. The product was obtained in good yield and its isotopic purity exceeded 95%. No H/D scrambling is expected under any conditions. Deuterated alkylresorcinols prepared by this synthesis route would constitute highly suitable standards for metabolic and analytical studies. The labelled D₃-ferulic acid and related D₃-labelled compounds were obtained in good yield. The products were pure and isotopically stable and thus suitable for analytical work.

The *in vitro* experiments on the biological activity of ARs agreed with some of the previous results, showing that ARs possess biological activity, and especially antioxidant activity, which is strengthened when ARs are incorporated into a biological system. However, substantial investigation and *in vivo* experiments still need to be done to establish how ARs behave in the human body.

5. EXPERIMENTAL

The experimental part of the work that has not been included in the studies (I-V) is described in this section.

5.1. General

MW catalysed reactions were performed in a CEM Discover system. NMR spectra were obtained with a Varian 300 MHz spectrometer using tetramethylsilane as an internal standard. MS spectra were obtained with a JEOL JMS SX102 mass spectrometer operating at 70 eV or with a Varian Saturn 2000 instrument.

5.2. D₃-vanillin (58)

3,4-Dihydroxybenzaldehyde **34** (14.5 mmol) and *t*-BuOK (30 mmol) were stirred in DMSO (10 ml) for 1.5h. CD₃I (14.5 mmol) was added and the stirring continued overnight. Water was added and the solution acidified with dilute HCl. The product was extracted with EtOAc. The combined extracts were washed with water and dried over MgSO₄. Purification by flash chromatography eluting with hexane/acetone 1:1 gave **58** in 52% yield. ¹H NMR (D₆-acetone): δ 7.12 (1H, d, *J* = 8.4 Hz), 7.44 (2H, m), 8.58 (1H, s), 9.82, (1H, s). MS (EI): *m/z* (%) 81 (20), 109 (12), 126 (10), 154 (100, M⁺), 155 (60).

5.3. D₃-isovanillin (59)

3,4-Dihydroxybenzaldehyde **34** (14.5 mmol), K₂CO₃ (29 mmol) and CD₃I (14.5 mmol) were refluxed in acetone (15 ml) for 2h. Water was added and the solution acidified with dilute HCl. The product was extracted with EtOAc. The combined extracts were washed with water and dried over MgSO₄. Purification by flash chromatography eluting with hexane/acetone 1:1 gave **59** in 49% yield. ¹H NMR (D₆-acetone): δ 7.01 (1H, d, *J* = 7.8 Hz), 7.35 (1H, d, *J* = 2.1 Hz), 7.43 (1H, dd, *J* = 7.8 Hz and *J* = 2.1 Hz), 8.04 (1H, s), 9.83, (1H, s). MS (EI): *m/z* (%) 81 (18), 109 (14), 126 (11), 154 (100, M⁺), 155 (61).

5.4. D₃-ferulic acid (60)

The benzaldehyde **58** (1.35 mmol), malonic acid (2.7 mmol), pyridine (0.5 ml) and piperidine (0.01 ml) were MW irradiated at 90°C for 10 minutes in an open flask. Water and dilute H₂SO₄ were added and the product extracted with Et₂O. Combined extracts were dried over MgSO₄. Purification by flash chromatography eluting with MeOH/CH₂Cl₂ 1:4 gave **60** in

60% yield. ^1H NMR (D_6 -acetone): δ 6.36 (1H, d, $J = 15.9$ Hz), 6.87 (1H, d, $J = 8.4$ Hz), 7.11 (1H, dd, $J = 8.4$ Hz and $J = 2.1$ Hz), 7.28 (1H, d, $J = 2.1$ Hz), 7.60 (1H, d, $J = 15.6$ Hz), 7.99 (1H, s). MS (EI): m/z (%) 133 (10), 179 (13), 197 (100, M^+), 198 (17).

5.5. D_3 -isoferulic acid (**61**)

The benzaldehyde **59** (1.87 mmol), malonic acid (3.74 mmol), pyridine (1 ml) and piperidine (0.01 ml) were MW irradiated at 90°C for 15 minutes in an open flask. Addition of water and dilute H_2SO_4 crystallized the product. A wash with water gave pure **61** in 86% yield. ^1H NMR (D_6 -acetone): δ 6.30 (1H, d, $J = 15.9$ Hz), 6.95 (1H, d, $J = 8.4$ Hz), 7.10 (2H, m), 7.56 (1H, d, $J = 15.6$ Hz), 7.71 (1H, s). MS (EI): m/z (%) 133 (25), 151 (15), 180 (35), 197 (100, M^+), 198 (15).

5.6. D_3 -dihydroferulic acid (**62**)

D_3 -Ferulic acid **60** (0.28 mmol) was stirred in EtOH (20 ml) with Pd/C (6 mg, 10% w/w). H_2 gas was introduced to the reaction mixture at atmospheric pressure and room temperature. Filtration of the reaction mixture through Celite® and flash chromatography eluting with MeOH/ CH_2Cl_2 1:4 gave pure **62** in 74% yield. ^1H NMR (D_6 -acetone): δ 2.55 (2H, t, $J = 7.8$ Hz), 2.82 (2H, t, $J = 7.8$ Hz), 6.70 (2H, m), 6.84 (1H, m), 7.87 (2H, br s). MS (EI): m/z (%) 83 (12), 97 (10), 122 (10), 140 (100), 199 (93, M^+), 200 (10).

5. REFERENCES

1. Kozubek, A. and Tyman, J. H. P. Resorcinolic lipids, the natural non-isoprenoid phenolic amphiphiles and their biological activity. *Chem. Rev.* **1999**, *99*, 1-25.
2. Tyman, J. H. P. Determination of the component phenols in natural and technical cashew nut-shell liquid by gas-liquid chromatography. *Anal. Chem.* **1976**, *48*, 30-34.
3. Refstrup, T. and Boll, P. M. Allergenic 5-alkyl- and 5-alkenylresorcinols from *Philodendron* species. *Phytochemistry* **1985**, *24*, 2563-2565.
4. Barrow, R. A. and Capon, R. J. Alkyl and alkenyl resorcinols from an Australian marine sponge, *Haliclona* sp. (Haplosclerida: Haliclonidae) *Aust. J. Chem.* **1991**, *44*, 1393-1405.
5. Gellerman, J. L., Anderson, W. H. and Schlenk, H. Synthesis of anacardic acids in seeds of *Ginkgo biloba*. *Phytochemistry* **1976**, *15*, 1959-1961.
6. Shoji, N., Umeyama, A. and Takemoto, T. Na⁺-K⁺-inhibitors from *Lysimachia Japonica*. *J. Nat. Prod.* **1984**, *47*, 530-532.
7. Yamada, H., Shiomi, K., Xu, Q., Nagai, T., Shibata, M., Oya, I., Takahashi, Y. and Omura, S. New glycosidases inhibitors, panosialins D and wD produced by *Streptomyces* sp. OH-5186. *J. Antibiot.* **1995**, *48*, 205-210.
8. Barrero, A. F., Cabrera, E., Rodríguez, I. and Fernández-Gallego, E. M. Resorcinol derivatives and other components from *Ononis viscosa* subsp. *breviflora*. *Phytochemistry* **1994**, *36*, 189-194.
9. Scannell, R. T., Barr, J. R., Murty, V. S., Reddy, K. S. and Hecht, S. M. DNA strand scissions by naturally occurring 5-alkylresorcinols. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1988**, *110*, 3650-3651.
10. Kitahara, T. and Kanda, N. DB-2073, a new alkylresorcinol antibiotic II. The chemical structure of DB-2073. *J. Antibiot.* **1975**, *28*, 943-946.
11. Suzuki, Y., Kurano, M., Esumi, Y., Yamaguchi, I. and Doi, Y. Biosynthesis of 5-alkylresorcinol in rice: incorporation of a putative fatty acid unit in the 5-alkylresorcinol carbon chain. *Bioorg. Chem.* **2003**, *31*, 437-452.
12. Birch, A. J., Massy-Westropp, R. A. and Moye, C.J. Studies in relation to biosynthesis. VII. 2-Hydroxy-6-methylbenzoic acid in *Penicillium griseofulvum* Dierckx. *Aust. J. Chem.* **1955**, *8*, 539-544.
13. Spencer, J. B. and Jordan, P. M. Stereospecific elimination of hydrogen atoms with opposite absolute orientations during the biosynthesis of orsellinic acid from chiral malonates in *Penicillium cyclopium*. *J. Chem. Soc. Chem. Commun.* **1992**, 646-648.
14. Bruce, I., Spencer, R. and Tyman, J. Long chain phenols. Part 31. Synthesis of biogenetic precursors of the phenolic lipids from the Anacardiaceae. *J. Chem. Res. (S)* **1992**, 224-225.

15. Cojocar, M., Droby, S., Glotter, E., Goldman, A., Gottlieb, H. E., Jacoby, B. and Prusky, D. 5-(12-Heptadecenyl)-resorcinol, the major component of the antifungal activity in the peel of mango fruit. *Phytochemistry* **1986**, *25*, 1093-1095.
16. Ross, A. B., Åman, P., Andersson, R. and Kamal-Eldin, A. Chromatographic analysis of alkylresorcinols and their metabolites. *J. Chrom. A.* **2004**, *1054*, 157-164.
17. Wieringa, G. W. On the occurrence of growth inhibiting substances in rye. **1967**. Publ. No. 156, Institution of Storage and Processing of Agricultural Produce. Wageningen, Netherlands.
18. Mattila, P., Pihlava, J.-M. and Hellström, J. Contents of phenolic acids, alkyl- and alkenylresorcinols, and avenanthramides in commercial grain products. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **2005**, *53*, 8290-8295.
19. Ross, A. B., Shepherd, M. J., Schüppaus, M., Sinclair, V., Alfaro, B., Kamal-Eldin, A. and Åman, P. Alkylresorcinols in cereals and cereal products. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **2003**, *51*, 4111-4118.
20. Valtion ravitsemusneuvottelukunta. Suomalaiset ravitsemussuositukset – ravinto ja liikunta tasapainoon. **2005**. Edita Publishing Oy. Helsinki, Finland.
21. Verdeal, K. and Lorenz, K. Alkylresorcinols in wheat, rye, and triticale. *Cereal Chem.* **1977**, *54*, 475-483.
22. Zarnowski, R. and Suzuki, Y. Expedient soxhlet extraction of resorcinolic lipids from wheat grains. *J. Food Comp. Anal.* **2004**, *17*, 649-663.
23. da Cruz Francisco, J., Danielsson, B., Kozubek, A. and Dey, E. S. Application of supercritical carbon dioxide for the extraction of alkylresorcinols from rye bran. *J. Supercritical F.* **2005**, *35*, 220-226.
24. da Cruz Francisco, J., Danielsson, B., Kozubek, A. and Dey, E. S. Extraction of rye bran by supercritical carbon dioxide: influence of temperature, CO₂, and cosolvent flow rates. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **2005**, *53*, 7432-7437.
25. Evans, L. E., Dedio, W. and Hill, R. D. Variability in the alkylresorcinol content of rye grain. *Can. J. Plant Sci.* **1973**, *53*, 485-488.
26. Hengtrakul, P., Lorenz, K. and Mathias, M. Alkylresorcinols in U.S. and Canadian wheats and flours. *Cereal Chem.* **1990**, *67*, 413-417.
27. Al-Ruqaie, I. And Lorenz, K. Alkylresorcinols in extruded cereal brans. *Cereal Chem.* **1992**, *69*, 472-475.
28. Mullin, W. J., Wolynetz, M. S. and Emery, J. P. A comparison of methods for the extraction and quantification of alk(en)ylresorcinols. *J. Food Comp. Anal.* **1992**, *5*, 216-223.
29. Lorenz, K. and Al-Ruqaie, I. Alkylresorcinols in commercial and experimental extruded high fiber breakfast cereals. *Lebensm. –Wiss. U. –Technol.* **1992**, *25*, 248-252.

30. Winata, A. and Lorenz, K. Effects of fermentation and baking of whole wheat and whole rye sourdough breads on cereal alkylresorcinols. *Cereal Chem.* **1997**, *74*, 284-287.
31. Tluscik, F. Localization of the alkylresorcinols in rye and wheat caryopses. *Acta Soc. Bot. Pol.* **1978**, *47*, 211-218.
32. Kozubek, A. Isolation of 5-alkyl, 5-alkenyl- and 5-n-alkdienyl-resorcinol homologs from rye grains. *Acta Aliment. Pol.* **1985**, *9*, 185-198.
33. Kozubek, A. Thin-layer chromatographic mapping of 5-n-alk(en)ylresorcinol homologues from cereal grains. *J. Chrom.* **1984**, *295*, 304-307.
34. Seitz, L. M. Identification of 5-(2-oxoalkyl)resorcinols and 5-(2-oxoalkenyl)resorcinols in wheat and rye grains. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **1992**, *40*, 1541-1546.
35. García, S., García, C., Heinzen, H. and Moyna, P. Chemical basis of the resistance of barley seeds to pathogenic fungi. *Phytochemistry* **1997**, *44*, 415-418.
36. Tluscik, F. and Kozubek, A. Determination of cereal 5-n-alkylresorcinol homologues by thin layer chromatography on aluminium oxide. *Chem. Anal.* **1984**, *29*, 79-84.
37. Salek, M. and Brudzynski, A. Composition of alkylresorcinols in grains of various species and varieties of cereals. *Acta Aliment. Pol.* **1981**, *7*, 119-126.
38. Kozubek, A., Geurts Van Kessel, W. S. M. and Demel, R. A. Separation of 5-n-alkylresorcinols by reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography. *J. Chrom.* **1979**, *169*, 422-425.
39. Mullin, W. J. and Collins, F. W. Purification and identification of alk(en)ylresorcinols. *J. Food Comp. Anal.* **1991**, *4*, 270-275.
40. Hengtrakul, P., Lorenz, K. and Mathias, M. Alkylresorcinol homologs in cereal grains. *J. Food Comp. Anal.* **1991**, *4*, 52-57.
41. Mullin, W. J. and Emery, J. P. H. Determination of alkylresorcinols in cereal-based foods. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **1992**, *40*, 2127-2130.
42. Chen, Y., Ross, A. B., Åman, P. and Kamal-Eldin A. Alkylresorcinols as markers of whole grain wheat and rye in cereal products. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **2004**, *52*, 8242-8246.
43. Kubus, G. and Tluscik, F. Alkylresorcinols in grains from plants from the family Gramineae. *Acta Soc. Bot. Pol.* **1983**, *52*, 223-230.
44. Kozubek, A., Tluscik, F. and Mejbaum-Katzenellenbogen, W. Alkylresorcinols in rye (*Secale cereale* L.) grains. V. Chromatographic analysis of 5-n-alk(en)ylresorcinols during their preparation. *Acta Soc. Bot. Pol.* **1981**, *50*, 637-643.
45. Ross, A. B., Kamal-Eldin A., Jung, C., Shepherd, M. J. and Åman, P. Gas chromatographic analysis of alkylresorcinols in rye (*Secale cereale* L.) grains. *J. Sci. Food Agric.* **2001**, *81*, 1405-1411.

46. Gohil, S., Pettersson, D., Salomonsson, A.-C. and Åman, P. Analysis of alkyl- and alkenylresorcinols in triticale, wheat and rye. *J. Sci. Food Agric.* **1988**, *45*, 43-52.
47. Briggs, D. E. Hydrocarbons, phenols and sterols of the testa and pigment strand in the grain of *Hordeum distichon*. *Phytochemistry* **1974**, *13*, 987-996.
48. Suzuki, Y., Esumi, Y. and Yamaguchi, I. Structures of 5-alkylresorcinol-related analogues in rye. *Phytochemistry* **1999**, *52*, 281-289.
49. Deszcz, L. and Kozubek, A. Higher cardol homologs (5-alkylresorcinols) in rye seedlings. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* **2000**, *1483*, 241-250.
50. Suzuki, Y., Esumi, S., Uramoto, M., Kono, Y. and Sakurai, A. Structural analyses of carbon chains in 5-alk(en)ylresorcinols of rye and wheat whole flour by tandem mass spectrometry. *Biosci. Biotech. Biochem.* **1997**, *61*, 480-486.
51. Suzuki, Y., Esumi, Y., Hyakutake, H., Kono, Y. and Sakurai, A. Isolation of 5-(8' Z-heptadecenyl)-resorcinol from etiolated rice seedlings as an antifungal agent. *Phytochemistry* **1996**, *41*, 1485-1489.
52. Bouillant, M. L., Jacoud, C., Zanella, I., Favre-Bonvin, J. and Bally, R. Identification of 5-(12-heptadecenyl)-resorcinol in rice root exudates. *Phytochemistry* **1994**, *35*, 769-771.
53. Linko, A.-M. Cereal alkylresorcinols as dietary biomarkers – absorption and occurrence in biological membranes. Ph.D. Thesis, University of Helsinki, **2006**.
54. Ross, A. B., Becker, W., Chen, Y., Kamal-Eldin, A. and Åman, P. Intake of alkylresorcinols from wheat and rye in the United Kingdom and Sweden. *Br. J. Nutr.* **2005**, *94*, 496-499.
55. Pietinen, P., Rimm, E. B., Korhonen, P., Hartman, A. M., Willett, W. C., Albanes, D. and Virtamo, J. Intake of dietary fiber and risk of coronary heart disease in a cohort of Finnish men: The alphas-tocopherol, beta-carotene cancer prevention study. *Circulation* **1996**, *94*, 2720-2727.
56. Adlercreutz, H. and Mazur, W. Phyto-oestrogens and Western diseases. *Ann. Med.* **1997**, *29*, 95-120.
57. Himejima, M. and Kubo, I. Antibacterial agents from the cashew *Anacardium occidentale* (Anacardiaceae) nut shell oil. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **1991**, *39*, 418-421.
58. Kraal, J. H., Hussain, A. A., Gregorio, S. B. and Akaho, E. Exposure time and the effect of hexylresorcinols on bacterial aggregates. *J. Dent. Res.* **1979**, *58*, 2125-2131.
59. Käämbre, P., Samel, N. and Lille, U. Inhibitory effect of alkylresorcinols on prostaglandin-H₂-synthetase. *Proc. Estonian Acad. Sci. Chem.* **1992**, *41*, 1-5.
60. Rejman, J. and Kozubek, A. Long-chain orcinol homologs from cereal bran are effective inhibitors of glycerophosphate dehydrogenase. *Cell. Mol. Biol. Lett.* **1997**, *2*, 411-419.

61. Rejman, J. and Kozubek, A. Inhibitory effect of natural phenolic lipids upon NAD-dependent dehydrogenases and on triglyceride accumulation in 3T3-L-1 cells in culture. *J. Agric. Food. Chem.* **2004**, *52*, 246-250.
62. Kozubek, A., Nietubyc, M. and Sikorski, A. F. Modulation of the activities of membrane enzymes by cereal grain resorcinolic lipids. *Z. Naturforsch.* **1992**, *47c*, 41-46.
63. Shobha, S. V., Ramadoss, C. S. and Ravindranath, B. Inhibition of soybean lipoxygenase-1 by anacardic acids, cardols, and cardanols. *J. Nat. Prod.* **1994**, *57*, 1755-1757.
64. Deszcz, L. and Kozubek, A. Inhibition of soybean lipoxygenases by resorcinolic lipids from cereal bran. *Cell. Mol. Biol. Lett.* **1997**, *2*, 213-222.
65. Kumagai, M., Suhara, Y., Aoyagi, T. and Umezawa, H. An enzyme inhibitor, panosialin, produced by *Streptomyces*. *J. Antibiot.* **1971**, *24*, 870-875.
66. Gasiorowski, K., Brokos, B., Kozubek, A. and Oszmianski, J. The antimutagenic activity of two plant-derived compounds. A comparative cytogenetic study. *Cell. Mol. Biol. Lett.* **2000**, *5*, 171-190.
67. Gasiorowski, K., Szyba, K., Brokos, B. and Kozubek, A. Antimutagenic activity of alkylresorcinols from cereal grains. *Cancer Lett.* **1996**, *106*, 109-115.
68. Gasiorowski, K. and Brokos, B. J. DNA repair of hydrogen peroxide-induced damage in human lymphocytes in the presence of four antimutagens. *Cell. Mol. Biol. Lett.* **2001**, *6*, 897-911.
69. Halliwell, B. and Gutteridge, J. M. C. The definition and measurement of antioxidants in biological systems. *Free Rad. Biol. Med.* **1995**, *18*, 125-126.
70. Benzie, I. and Strain, J. J. The ferric reducing ability of plasma (FRAP) as a measure of "antioxidant power": The FRAP assay. *Anal. Biochem.* **1996**, *239*, 70-76.
71. Brand-Williams, W., Cuvelier, M. E. and Berset, C. Use of a free radical method to evaluate antioxidant activity. *Food Sci. Technol.* **1995**, *28*, 25-30.
72. Steinberg, D. Low density lipoprotein and its pathobiological significance. *J. Biol. Chem.* **1997**, *16*, 831-842.
73. Steinberg, D. Lewis A. Conner memorial lecture. Oxidative modification of LDL and atherogenesis. *Circulation* **1997**, *95*, 1062-1071.
74. Esterbauer H, Gebicki J, Puhl H, Jurgens G. The role of lipid peroxidation and antioxidants in oxidative modification of LDL. *Free Rad. Biol. Med.* **1992**, *13*, 341-390.
75. Winata, A. and Lorenz, K. Antioxidant potential of 5-*n*-pentadecylresorcinol. *J. Food Proc. Pres.* **1996**, *20*, 417-429.
76. Struski, D. G. J. and Kozubek, A. Cereal grain alk(en)ylresorcinols protect lipids against ferrous ions-induced peroxidation. *Z. Naturforsch.* **1992**, *47c*, 47-50.

77. Kozubek, A. and Nienartowicz, B. Cereal grain resorcinolic lipids inhibit H₂O₂-induced peroxidation of biological membranes. *Acta Biochim. Polon.* **1995**, *42*, 309-316.
78. Kamal-Eldin, A., Pouru, A., Eliasson, C. and Åman, P. Alkylresorcinols as antioxidants: hydrogen donation and peroxy radical-scavenging effects. *J. Sci. Food Agric.* **2000**, *81*, 353-356.
79. Kozubek, A. and Demel, R. A. Permeability changes of erythrocytes and liposomes by 5-(*n*-alk(en)yl)resorcinols from rye. *Biochem. Biophys. Acta* **1980**, *603*, 220-227.
80. Kozubek, A. and Demel, R. A. The effect of 5-(*n*-alk(en)yl)resorcinols from rye on membrane structure. *Biochem. Biophys. Acta* **1981**, *642*, 242-251.
81. Linko, A.-M. and Adlercreutz, H. Whole-grain rye and wheat alkylresorcinols are incorporated into human erythrocyte membranes. *Br. J. Nutr.* **2005**, *93*, 11-13.
82. Kozubek, A. Higher cardol homologues (5-alkenylresorcinols) from rye affect the red cell membrane-water transport. *Z. Naturforsch.* **1985**, *40c*, 80-84.
83. Kozubek, A., Jezierski, A. and Sikorski, A. F. The effect of nonadec(en)ylresorcinol on the fluidity of liposome and erythrocyte membranes. *Biochem. Biophys. Acta* **1988**, *944*, 465-472.
84. Reusch, R. N. and Sadoff, H. L. Novel lipid components of the *Azotobacter vinelandii* cyst membrane. *Nature* **1983**, *302*, 268-270.
85. Bitkov, V. V., Nenashev, V. A., Pridachina, N. N. and Batrakov, S. G. Membrane-structuring properties of bacterial long-chain alkylresorcinols. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* **1992**, *1108*, 224-232.
86. Gerdon, S., Hoffmann, S. and Blume, A. Properties of mixed monolayers and bilayers of long-chain 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols and dipalmitoylphosphatidylcholine. *Chem. Phys. Lipids* **1994**, *71*, 229-243.
87. Gubernator, J., Stasiuk, M. and Kozubek, A. Dual effect of alkylresorcinols, natural amphiphilic compounds, upon liposomal permeability. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* **1999**, *1418*, 253-260.
88. Kozubek, A., Gubernator, J., Przeworska, E. and Stasiuk, M. Liposomal drug delivery, a novel approach: PLARosomes. *Acta Biochim. Polon.* **2000**, *47*, 639-649.
89. Ross, A. B., Shepherd, M. J., Knudsen, K. E. B., Glitso, E. B., Philips, J., Rowland, I., Guo, Z.-X., Massy, D. J. R., Åman, P. and Kamal-Eldin, A. Absorption of dietary alkylresorcinols in ileal-cannulated pigs and rats. *Br. J. Nutr.* **2003**, *90*, 787-794.
90. Ross, A. B., Chen, Y., Frank, J., Swanson, J. E., Parker, R. S., Kozubek, A., Lundh, T., Vessby, B., Åman, P. and Kamal-Eldin, A. Cereal alkylresorcinols elevate γ -tocopherol levels in rats and inhibit γ -tocopherol metabolism in vitro. *J. Nutr.* **2004**, *134*, 506-510.
91. Linko, A.-M., Juntunen, K. S., Mykkänen, H. and Adlercreutz, H. Whole-grain rye bread consumption by women correlates with plasma alkylresorcinols and increases their concentration compared with low-fiber wheat bread. *J. Nutr.* **2005**, *135*, 580-583.

92. Ross, A. B., Kamal-Eldin, A., Lundin, E. A., Zhang, J.-X., Hallmans, G. and Åman, P. Cereal alkylresorcinols are absorbed by humans. *J. Nutr.* **2003**, 2222-2224.
93. Ross, A. B., Åman, P., and Kamal-Eldin A. Identification of cereal alkylresorcinol metabolites in human urine – potential biomarkers of wholegrain wheat and rye intake. *J. Chrom. B.* **2004**, 809, 125-130.
94. Sroka, Z. and Cisowski, W. Hydrogen peroxide scavenging, antioxidant and anti-radical activity of some phenolic acids. *Food Chem. Tox.* **2003**, 41, 753-758.
95. Aura, A.-M., O’Leary, K. A., Williamson, G., Ojala, M., Bailey, M., Puupponen-Pimiä, R., Nuutila, A. M., Oksman-Caldentey, K.-M. and Poutanen, K. Quercetin derivatives are conjugated and converted to hydroxyphenylacetic acids but not methylated by human fecal flora in vitro. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **2002**, 50, 1725-1730.
96. Russell, W. R., Labat, A., Scobbie, L. and Duncan, S. H. Availability of blueberry phenolics for microbial metabolism in the colon and the potential inflammatory implications. *Mol. Nutr. Food Res.* **2007**, 51, 726-731.
97. Brown, G. D. Two new compounds from *Artemisia annua*. *J. Nat. Prod.* **1992**, 55, 1756-1760.
98. Cirigottis, K. A., Cleaver, L., Corrie, J. E. T., Grasby, R. G., Green, G. H.; Mock, J., Nimgirawath, S., Read, R. W., Ritchie, E., Taylor, W. C., Vadasz, A. and Webb, W. R. G. Chemical studies of the Proteaceae. VII. An examination of the woods of 17 species for resorcinol derivatives. *Aust. J. Chem.* **1974**, 27, 345-355.
99. Wenkert, E., Loeser, E.-M., Mahapatra, S. N., Schenker, F. and Wilson, E. M. Wheat bran phenols. *J. Org. Chem.* **1964**, 29, 435-439.
100. Lytollis, W., Scannell, R. T., An, H., Murty, V. S., Reddy, K. S., Barr, J. R. and Hecht, S. M. 5-Alkylresorcinols from *Hakea trifurcata* that cleave DNA. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1995**, 117, 12683-12690.
101. Ayer, W. A., Browne, L. M. and Lovell, S. H. Biologically active phenolic metabolites of a *Verticicladiella* species. *Phytochemistry* **1983**, 22, 2267-2271.
102. Wasserman, D. and Dawson, C. R. Cashew nut shell liquid. III. The cardol component of Indian cashew nut shell liquid with reference to the liquid’s vesicant activity. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1948**, 70, 3675-3679.
103. Kozubek, A. and Tyman, J. H. P. Cereal grain resorcinolic lipids: mono and dienolic homologues are present in rye grains. *Chem. Phys. Lipids* **1995**, 78, 29-35.
104. Durrani, A. A. and Tyman, J. H. P. Long chain phenols. Part 16. A. Novel synthesis of homologous orsellinic acids and their methyl esters. *J. Chem. Soc. Perkin Trans. I* **1980**, 1658-1666.
105. Novák, J. and Salemnik, C. A. A new and efficient synthesis of 5-alkylresorcinol dimethyl ethers. *Synthesis* **1983**, 597-598.

106. Fürstner, A. and Seidel, G. Shortcut syntheses of naturally occurring 5-alkylresorcinols with DNA-cleaving properties. *J. Org. Chem.* **1997**, *62*, 2332-2336.
107. Cleaver, L., Croft, J. A., Ritchie, E., Taylor, W. C. Chemical studies of the Proteaceae. IX. Synthesis of 5-alkylresorcinols from aliphatic precursors. *Aust. J. Chem.* **1976**, *29*, 1989-2001.
108. Marmor, R. S. An improved synthesis of 5-alkylresorcinols. *J. Org. Chem.* **1972**, *57*, 2901-2904.
109. Kotnis, A. S. A convenient, practical synthesis of substituted resorcinols: synthesis of DB-2073 and olivetol. *Tetrahedron Lett.* **1991**, *32*, 3441-3444.
110. Combes, S. and Finet, J.-P. A simple synthesis of the natural 2,5-dialkylresorcinol free radical scavenger antioxidant: resorstatin. *Synth. Commun.* **1997**, *27*, 3769-3778.
111. Alonso, E., Ramón, D. J. and Yus, M. Simple synthesis of 5-substituted resorcinols: a revisited family of interesting bioactive molecules. *J. Org. Chem.* **1997**, *62*, 417-421.
112. Mander, L. N. and Turner, J. V. A highly convenient and flexible strategy for the synthesis of a-ring aromatic steroids. *Tetrahedron Lett.* **1981**, *22*, 3683-3686.
113. Gunter, M. J. and Mander, L. N. Studies on reductive alkylation. A highly efficient synthesis of the phytoalexin orchinol. *Aust. J. Chem.* **1981**, *34*, 675-678.
114. Buddhasukh, D., Cannon, J. R., Metcalf, B. W. and Power, A. Synthesis of 5-*n*-alkylresorcinol dimethyl ethers and related compounds via substituted thiophenes. *J. Aust. J. Chem.* **1971**, *24*, 2655-2664.
115. Cannon, J. R., Cheong, P. K., Fallick, C. J., Hamilton, B. H., McDonald, I. A., Vinciguerra, G. Synthesis of 5-*n*-alkylresorcinol dimethyl ethers and 1,14-bis(3,5-dimethoxyphenyl)tetradecane via β -keto sulphone intermediates. *Aust. J. Chem.* **1973**, *26*, 799-808.
116. Wittig, G. and Geissler, G. Zur Reaktionsweise des Pentaphenyl-phosphors und eininger Derivate. *Liebigs Ann. Chem.* **1953**, *580*, 44-57.
117. Maryanoff, B. and Reitz, A. B. The Wittig olefination reaction and modifications involving phosphory-stabilized carbanions. Stereochemistry, mechanism and selected synthetic aspects. *Chem. Rev.* **1989**, *89*, 863-927.
118. Märkl, G. and Merz, A. Carbonyl-olefinierungen mit nicht-stabilisierten phosphin-alkylenen im wäßrigen system. *Synthesis*, **1973**, 295-297.
119. Matikainen, J., Kaltia, S. and Hase, T. Wittig reactions under daylight lamp irradiation: maximising the yields of (*E*)-alkenes. *Synlett*, **1994**, 817-818.
120. El-Batta, A., Jiang, C., Zhao, W., Anness, R., Cooksy, A. L. and Bergdahl M. Wittig reactions in water media employing stabilized ylides with aldehydes. Structures of α,β -unsaturated esters from mixing aldehydes, α -bromoesters and Ph_3P in aqueous NaHCO_3 . *J. Org. Chem.* **2007**, *72*, 5244-5259.

121. Yamamoto, K., Watanabe, M., Ideta, K., Mataka, S. and Thiemann, T. Combined Suzuki coupling – Wittig olefination reaction in aqueous medium. *Z. Naturforsch.* **2005**, *60b*, 1299-1307.
122. Orsini, F., Sello, G. and Fumagalli, T. One-pot Wittig reactions in water and in the presence of a surfactant. *Synlett* **2006**, 1717-1718.
123. Butcher, M., Mathews, R. J. and Middleton, S. Synthesis of ar-nitrostyrenes. *Aust. J. Chem.* **1973**, *26*, 2067-2069.
124. Wu, J., Zhang, D. and Wei., S. Wittig reactions of stabilized phosphorous ylides with aldehydes in water. *Synth. Commun.* **2005**, *35*, 1213-1222.
125. Wu, J., Li, D. and Zhang, D. Aqueous Wittig reactions of aldehydes with in situ formed semistabilized phosphorous ylides. *Synth. Commun.* **2005**, *35*, 2543-2551.
126. Russell, M. G. and Warren, S. J. Synthesis of new water-soluble phosphonium salts and their Wittig reactions in water. *J. Chem. Soc. Perkin I*, **2000**, *4*, 505-513.
127. Sieber, F., Wentworth, Jr. P., Toker, J. D., Wentworth, A. D., Metz, W. A., Reed, N. N. and Janda, K. D. Development and applications of a poly(ethyleneglycol)-supported triarylphosphine reagent: expanding the sphere of liquid-phase organic synthesis. *J. Org. Chem.* **1999**, *64*, 5188-5192.
128. Tyman, J. H. P. UK Patent application, GB 2429455 A.
129. Kappe, C. O. Controlled microwave heating in modern organic synthesis. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **2004**, *43*, 6250-6284.
130. Gedye, R., Smith, F., Westaway, K., Ali, H., Baldisera, L., Laberge, L. and Rousell, J. The use of microwave ovens for rapid organic synthesis. *Tetrahedron Lett.* **1986**, *27*, 279-282.
131. Giguere, R. J., Bray, T. L. and Duncan, S. M. Application of commercial microwave ovens to organic synthesis. *Tetrahedron Lett.* **1986**, *27*, 4945-4948.
132. Caddic, S. Microwave assisted organic reactions. *Tetrahedron*, **1995**, *51*, 10403-10432.
133. Lidström, P., Tierney, J., Wathey, B. and Westman, J. Microwave assisted organic synthesis –a review. *Tetrahedron*, **2001**, *57*, 9225-9283.
134. Hu, L., Wang, Y., Li, B., Du, D.-M. and Xu, J. Diastereoselectivity in the Staudinger reaction: a useful probe for investigation of nonthermal microwave effects. *Tetrahedron* **2007**, *63*, 9387-9392.
135. Hosseini, M., Stiasni, N., Barbieri, V. and Kappe, O. Microwave-assisted asymmetric organocatalysis. A probe for nonthermal microwave effects and the concept of simultaneous cooling. *J. Org. Chem.* **2007**, *72*, 1417-1424.
136. de la Hoz, A., Diaz-Ortiz, Á. and Moreno, A. Microwaves in organic synthesis. Thermal and non-thermal microwave effects. *Chem. Soc. Rev.* **2005**, *34*, 164-178.

137. Mazur, W. M., Duke, J. A., Wähälä, K., Rasku, S. and Adlercreutz, H. Isoflavonoids and lignans in legumes: nutritional and health aspects in humans. *J. Nutr. Biochem.* **1998**, *9*, 193-200.
138. Adlercreutz, H., Kiuru, P., Rasku, S., Wähälä, K. and Fotsis, T. An isotope dilution gas chromatographic-mass spectrometric method for the simultaneous assay of estrogens and phytoestrogens in urine. *J. Steroid Biochem. & Mol. Biol.* **2004**, *92*, 399-411.
139. Ingold, C. K., Raisin, C. G. and Wilson, C. L. Structure of benzene. Part II. Direct introduction of deuterium into benzene and the physical properties of hexadeuterobenzene. *J. Chem. Soc.* **1936**, 915-925.
140. Nikas, S. P., Thakur, G. A. and Makriyannis A. Regiospecifically deuterated (-)- Δ^9 -tetrahydrocannabinol. *J. Chem. Soc. Perkin Trans. I* **2002**, 2544-2548.
141. Nikas, S. P., Thakur, G. A. and Makriyannis, A. Synthesis of side chain specifically deuterated (-)- Δ^9 -tetrahydrocannabinols. *J. Label. Compd. Radiopharm.* **2002**, *45*, 1065-1076.
142. Rybka, K., Sitarski, J. and Raczynska-Bojanowska, K. Ferulic acid in rye and wheat grain and grain dietary fiber. *Cereal Chem.* **1993**, *70*, 55-59.
143. Mathew, S. and Abraham, T. E. Ferulic acid: an antioxidant found naturally in plant cell walls and feruloyl esterases involved in its release and their applications. *Crit. Rev. Biotechnol.* **2004**, *24*, 59-83.
144. Herrmann, K. Occurrence and content of hydroxycinnamic and hydroxybenzoic acid compounds in foods. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.* **1989**, *28*, 315-347.
145. Liyana-Pathirana, C. M. and Shahidi, F. The antioxidant potential of milling fractions from breadwheat and durum. *J. Cereal Sci.* **2007**, *45*, 238-247.
146. Andreasen, M. F., Christensen, L. P., Meyer, A. S. and Hansen, Å. Content of phenolic acids and ferulic acid dehydrodimers in 17 rye (*Secale cereale* L.) varieties. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **2000**, *48*, 2837-2842.
147. Natella, F., Nardini, M., Di Felice, M. and Scaccini, C. Benzoic and cinnamic acid derivatives as antioxidants: structure – activity relation. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **1999**, *47*, 1453-1459.
148. Graf, E. Antioxidant potential of ferulic acid. *Free Rad. Biol. Med.* **1992**, *13*, 435-448.
149. Kikuzaki, H., Hisamoto, M., Hirose, K., Akiyama, K. and Taniguchi, H. Antioxidant properties of ferulic acid and its related compounds. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **2002**, *50*, 2161-2168.
150. Kanski, J., Aksenova, M., Stoyanova, A. and Butterfield, D. A. Ferulic acid antioxidant protection against hydroxyl and peroxy radical oxidation in synaptosomal and neuronal cell culture systems in vitro: structure – activity studies. *J. Nutr. Biochem.* **2002**, *13*, 273-281.

151. Mitra, A. K., De, A and Karchaudhuri, N. Application of microwave irradiation techniques for the synthesis of cinnamic acids by Doebner condensation. *Synth. Commun.* **1999**, *29*, 573-581.
152. Pérez, T. M., Comdom, R. F. P., Mesa, M. and Vélez, H. KF-Al₂O₃ catalyzed synthesis of 3-phenyl-2-propenoic acids in dry media under microwave irradiation. *J. Chem. Res. (S)* **2003**, 240-241.
153. Robbins, R. J. and Schmidt, W. F. Optimized synthesis of four isotopically labelled (¹³C-enriched) phenolic acids via a malonic acid condensation. *J. Label. Compd. Radiopharm.* **2004**, *47*, 797-806.
154. Marigo, G., Riviere, D. and Boudet, A. M. Biological synthesis of carbon-14 labeled ferulic and sinapic acids. *J. Label. Compd. Radiopharm.* **1981**, *18*, 695-702.
155. Desai, U. D. and Mane, R. B. Deuterium labelling studies with unsaturated acids and nitriles. *J. Ind. Chem. Soc.* **1986**, *63*, 592-593.
156. Lairez, D., Cathala, B. and Monties, B. Aggregation during coniferyl alcohol polymerization in pectin solution: a biomimetic approach of the first steps of lignification. *Biomacromolecules*, **2005**, *6*, 763-774.
157. Schneider, S. and Rolando, C. One step synthesis of vanillin d₃ (4-hydroxy-3-(methoxy d₃)-benzaldehyde. *J. Label. Compd. Radiopharm.* **1992**, *31*, 489-492.
158. Markey, S. P., Powers, K., Dubinsky, D. and Kopin, I. J. General method for the synthesis of methyl isotope labelled catecholamine metabolites. Preparation of 4-hydroxy-3-methoxy-d₃-(mandelic acid, phenylacetic acid and phenylethylene glycol). *J. Label. Compd. Radiopharm.* **1980**, *17*, 103-114.
159. Kessar, S. V., Gupta, Y. P., Mohammad, T., Goyal, M. and Sawal, K. K. Regioselective mono-*O*-alkylation of some pyrocatechoxide dianions. *J. Chem. Soc. Chem. Commun.* **1983**, *7*, 400-401.
160. Loupy, A. and Majdoub, M. Monomethylation of 3,4-dihydroxybenzaldehyde as an alternate route to isovanillin. *Org. Prep. Proc. Intl.* **1990**, *22*, 99-102.
161. Bjørsvik, H.-R., Liguori, L. and Minisci, F. High selectivity in the oxidation of mandelic acid derivatives and in *O*-methylation of protocatechualdehyde: new processes for synthesis of vanillin, iso-vanillin, and heliotropin. *Org. Proc. Res. Dev.* **2000**, *4*, 534-543.
162. Xue, J. J., Zhang, X. S., Liang, X. Z. and Li, Y. The first total synthesis of (±)-3',7'-dihydroxy-4'-methoxyflavan. *Chin. Chem. Lett.* **2003**, *14*, 443-444.
163. Kiddle, J. J. Microwave irradiation in organophosphorous chemistry. Part 2: synthesis of phosphonium salts. *Tetrahedron Lett.* **2000**, *41*, 1339-1341.
164. Kiddle, J. J. Microwave irradiation in organophosphorous chemistry. III. Moderate scale synthesis of reagents for olefin formation. *Synth. Commun.* **2001**, *31*, 3377-3382.

165. Taber, D. F., Amedio, J. C. and Jung, K.-Y. P₂O₅/DMSO/Triethylamine (PDT): A convenient procedure for oxidation of alcohols to ketones and aldehydes. *J. Org. Chem.* **1987**, *52*, 5621-5622.
166. Kuck, D. Half a century of scrambling in organic ions: complete, incomplete, progressive and composite atom interchange. *Int. J. Mass Spectr.* **2002**, *213*, 101-144.
167. Turkevich, J., Schissler, D. O. and Irsa, P. A study of the interaction of ethylene and deuterium. *J. Phys. Chem.* **1951**, *55*, 1078-1084.
168. Wilson, J. N., Otvos, J. W., Stevenson, D. P. and Wagner, C. D. Hydrogenation of olefins over metals. *Ind. Eng. Chem.* **1953**, *45*, 1480-1487.
169. Meyer, E. F. and Burwell, R. L. The reaction between deuterium and dialkylacetylenes on palladium catalyze. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1963**, *85*, 2877-2880.
170. Mathew, S. and Abraham, T. E. Bioconversions of ferulic acid, an hydroxycinnamic acid. *Crit. Rev. Microbiol.* **2006**, *32*, 115-125.
171. Boyle, B. and Langman, J. S. ABC of colorectal cancer – Epidemiology. *Br. Med. J.* **2000**, *321*, 805-808.
172. Loft, S. and Poulsen, H. E. Cancer risk and oxidative DNA damage in man. *J. Mol. Med.* **1996**, *74*, 297-312.
173. Pool-Zobel, B. L., Adlercreutz, H., Gleib, M., Liegibel, U. M., Sittlington, J., Rowland, I., Wähälä, K. and Rechkemmer, G. Isoflavonoids and lignans have different potentials to modulate oxidative genetic damage in human colon cells. *Carcinogenesis* **2000**, *21*, 1247-1252.
174. Venturi, M., Hambly, R. J., Glinghammar, B., Rafter, J. J. and Rowland, I. R. Genotoxic activity in human faecal water and the role of bile acids: a study using the alkaline comet assay. *Carcinogenesis* **1997**, *18*, 2353-2359.
175. Rosignoli, P., Fabiani, R., Bartolomeo, A., Spinuzzi, F., Agea, E., Pelli, M. A. and Morozzi, G. Protective activity of butyrate on hydrogen peroxide-induced DNA damage in isolated human colonocytes and HT29 tumour cells. *Carcinogenesis* **2001**, *22*, 1675-1680.
176. Gill, C. I. R., Haldar, S., Porter, S., Matthews, S., Sullivan, S., Coulter, J., McGlynn, H. and Rowland, I. The effect of cruciferous and leguminous sprouts on genotoxicity, *in vitro* and *in vivo*. *Cancer Ep. Biom. Prev.* **2004**, *13*, 1199-1205.
177. Zhu C-Y, Loft S. Effects of Brussels sprouts extracts on hydrogen peroxide-induced DNA strand breaks in human lymphocytes. *Food Chem. Tox.* **2001**, *39*, 1191-1197.
178. Morton, M. S., Chan, P. S., Cheng, C., Blacklock, N., Matos-Ferreira, A., Abranches-Monteiro, L., Correia, R., Lloyd, S. and Griffiths, K. Lignans and isoflavonoids in plasma and prostatic fluid in men: Samples from Portugal, Hong Kong, and the United Kingdom. *Prostate* **1997**, *32*, 122-128.