# THE DESIGN OF MOLECULAR HOSTS, GUESTS, AND THEIR COMPLEXES

Nobel Lecture, 8 December 1987

bv

DONALD L CRAM

Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, University of California at Los Angeles, Los Angeles, California 90024, U.S.A.

### Origins

Few scientists acquainted with the chemistry of biological systems at the molecular level can avoid being inspired. Evolution has produced chemical compounds exquisitely organized to accomplish the most complicated and delicate of tasks. Many organic chemists viewing crystal structures of enzyme systems or nucleic aids and knowing the marvels of specificity of the immune systems must dream of designing and synthesizing simpler organic compounds that imitate working features of these naturally occurring compounds. We had that ambition in the late 1950's. At that time, we were investigating pi-complexes of the larger [m.n.]paracyclophanes with (NC)<sub>2</sub>C=C(CN)<sub>2</sub>, and envisioned structures in which the pi-acid was sandwiched by two benzene rings. Although no intercalated structures were observed [1,2], we recognized that investigations of highly structured complexes would be central to simulation of enzymes by relatively simple organic compounds.

In 1967, Pedersen's first papers appeared [3,4] which reported that alkali metal ions bind crown ethers to form highly structured complexes. We immediately recognized this work as an entree into a general field. The 1969 papers on the design, synthesis, and binding properties of the cryptands by J.-M. Lehn, J.-P. Sauvage, and B. Dietrich [5,6] further demonstrated the attractions and opportunities of complexation chemistry. Although we tried to interest graduate students in synthesizing *chiral crown ethers* from 1968 on, the efforts were unsuccessful. In 1970 we insisted that several postdoctoral co-workers enter the field. During 1973, we published five Communications on the subject [7,11]. In 1974 with Jane M. Cram, we published a general article entitled "Host-Guest Chemistry", which defined our approach to this research [12].

Aeschylus, the Athenian Poet-Dramatist, wrote 2 500 years ago, "Pleasantist of all ties is the tie of host and guest" [13]. Our research of the past 17 years has dealt with the pleasant tie between host and guest and the organic molecular level. The terms *host*, *guest*, *complex*, and their binding forces were defined in 1977 as follows [14]. "Complexes are composed of two or more molecules or

ions held together in unique structural relationships by electrostatic forces other than those of full covalent bonds . . . molecular complexes are usually held together by hydrogen bonding, by ion pairing, by pi-acid to pi-base interactions, by metal to ligand binding, by van der Waals attractive forces, by solvent reorganizing, and by partially made and broken covalent bonds (transition states) high structural organization is usually produced only through multiple binding sites a highly structured molecular complex is composed of at least one host and one guest component . . a host-guest relationship involves a complementary stereoelectronic arrangement of binding sites in host and guest ... the host component is defined as an organic molecule or ion whose binding sites converge in the complex the guest component is defined as any molecule or ion whose binding sites diverge in the complex..." In these definitions, hosts are synthetic counterparts of the receptor sites of biological chemistry, and guests, the counterparts of substrates, inhibitors, or cofactors. These terms and concepts have gained broad international acceptance [15]. A new field requires new terms which, if properly defined, facilitate the reasoning by analogy on which research thrives.

From the beginning, we used Corey-Pauling-Koltun (CPK) molecular models [16], which served as a compass on an otherwise uncharted sea full of synthesizable targtt complexes. We have spent hundreds of hours building CPK models of potential complexes, and grading them for desirability as research targets. Hosts were then prepared by my co-workers to see if they possessed the anticipated guest-binding properties. Crystal structures of the hosts and their complexes were then determined to compare what was anticipated by model examination with what was experimentally observed. By the end of 1986, Drs. K. N. Trueblood, C. B. Knobler, E. F. Maverick, and I. Goldberg, working at UCLA, had determined the crystal structures of over 50 complexes, and those of another 25 hosts. These crystal structures turned our faith into confidence. Chart I traces the steps involved in linking the structures of biotic complexes of evolutionary chemistry with our abiotic complexes designed with the aid of CPK molecular models [17].

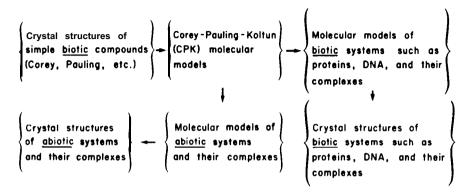
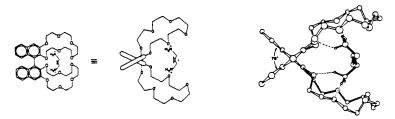


Chart I. Crystal structures of biotic compounds are correlated with those of abiotic compounds through CPK models.

In molecular modeling, we made extensive use of the self-evident principle of complementarity: "to complex, hosts must have binding sites which cooperatively contact and attract binding sites of guests without generating strong nonbonded repulsions" [18]. Complexes were visualized as having three types of common shapes: 1) perching complexes, resembling a bird perching on a limb, an egg protruding from an egg cup, or a scoop of ice cream sitting on a cone; 2) nesting complexes, similar to an egg resting in a nest, a baby lying in its cradle, or a sword sheathed in its scabbard; 3) capsular complexes, not unlike a nut in its shell, a bean in its pod, or a larva in its cocoon. Chart II provides a comparison of CPK models of the three types of complexes (1, 2, and 3) and their actual crystal structures [19,20].

# Molecular model structures Perching complex (1) CH<sub>3</sub> C

# Nesting complex (2)



### Capsular complex (3)

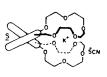
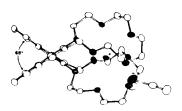


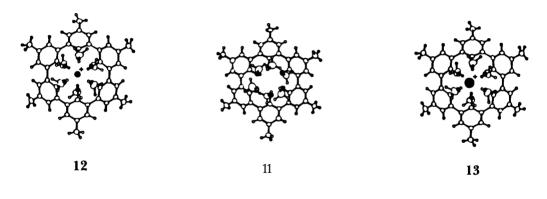
Chart II. Three types of complexes.



# Principle of Preorganization

Crystal structures of Pedersen's 18-crown-6 [21] and Lehn's [2.2.2] cryptand [22,23] show that in their uncomplexed states, they contain neither cavities nor convergently-arranged binding sites. Comparisons of the crystal structure of host 4 with that of its K<sup>\*</sup>complex 5, and of host 6 with that of its K<sup>\*</sup>complex 7 indicate that the complexing act must be accompanied by host reorganization and desolvation.

With the help of CPK molecular models, we designed ligand system 8, whose oxygens have no choice but to be octahedrally arranged around an enforced spherical cavity complementary to Li<sup>+</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup>ions. We have given the family name, *spherand*, to completely preorganized ligand systems, and the name, *spheraplex*, to their complexes, which like 7, are capsular [24]. The syntheses and crystal structures of 8, 9 and 10, have been reported [25]. As expected, the crystal structure of 11 contains a hole lined with 24 electrons, which are shielded from solvation by six methyl groups. The snowflake-like structures of 11 and of spheraplexes 12 and 13 are nearly identical. Thus 8 is the first ligand system to be designed and synthesized which was completely organized for complexation during synthesis, rather than during complexation.



A method was developed of determining the binding free energies of lipophilic hosts toward guest picrate salts of Li<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, Rb<sup>+</sup>, Cs<sup>+</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub><sup>+</sup>, and t-BuNH<sub>3</sub><sup>+</sup>. The guest salts were distributed between CDCl<sub>3</sub> and D<sub>2</sub>O at 25 °C in the presence and absence of host. From the results, K<sub>a</sub> (mol<sup>+</sup>) and - $\Delta$ G° values (kcal mol<sup>+</sup>) were calculated (equations (1)). This method was rapid and convenient for obtaining

$$H + GPic \xrightarrow{k_1} H \cdot G \cdot Pic \quad K_a = k_1/k_1 \quad -\Delta G^{\circ} = -RTlnK_a \tag{1}$$

 $-\Delta G^{\circ}$  values at 25 °C ranging from about 6 to 16 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> in CDCl<sub>3</sub> saturated with D<sub>2</sub>O [26]. Higher values (up to 22 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>) were obtained by equilibration experiments between complexes of known and those of unknown  $-\Delta G^{\circ}$  values [18, 27, 28]. Others were determined from measured k and k values, all in the same medium at 25 °C [18]. Spherand 8 binds LiPic with >23 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>, NaPic with 19.3 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>, and totally rejects the other standard ions, as well as a wide variety of other di- and trivalent ions [18]. The openchain counterpart of 8, podand 14, binds LiPic and NaPic with  $-\Delta G^{\circ}$  <6 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> [29]. Podand is the family name given to acylic hosts [15].

Podand 14 differs constitutionally from spherand 8 only in the sense that 14 contains two hydrogen atoms in place of one Ar-Ar bond in 8. The two hosts differ radically in their conformational structures and states of solvation. The spherand possesses a single conformation ideally arranged for binding Li<sup>+</sup> and N a<sup>+</sup>. Its oxygens are deeply buried within a hydrocarbon shell. The orbitals of their unshared electron pairs are in a microenvironment whose dielectric properties are between those of a vacuum and of a hydrocarbon. No solvent can approach these six oxygens, which remain unsolvated. The free energy costs of

organizing the spherand into a single conformation and of desolvating its six oxygens were paid for during its synthesis. Thus spherand 8 is preorganized for binding [30]. The podand in principle can exist in over 1 000 conformations, only two of which can bind metal ions octahedrally. The free energy for organizing the podand into a binding conformation and desolvating its six oxygens must come out of its complexation free energy. Thus the podand is not preorganized for binding, but is randomized to maximize the entropy of mixing of its conformers, and to maximize the attractions between solvent and its molecular parts.

The difference in  $-\Delta G^{\circ}$  values for spherand 8 and podand 14 binding Li<sup>+</sup>is >17 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>, corresponding to a difference in K of a factor of >10<sup>12</sup>. The difference in  $-\Delta G^{\circ}$  values for 8 and 14 binding Na<sup>+</sup>is >13 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>, corresponding to a difference in K of a factor of >10<sup>10</sup>. These differences are dramatically larger than any we have encountered that are associated with other effects on binding power toward alkali metal ion guests. We conclude that preorganization is a central determinant of binding power. We formalized this conclusion in terms of what we call the principle of preorganization, which states that "the more highly hosts and guests are organized for binding and low solvation prior to their complexation, the more stable will be their complexes." Both enthalpic and entropic components are involved in preorganization, since solvation contains both components [29]. Furthermore, binding conformations are sometimes enthalpically rich. For example, the benzene rings in spherand 8 and spheraplexes 9 and 10 are somewhat folded from their normal planar structures to accommodate the spacial requirements of the six methoxyl groups [30]. The anisyl group is an intrinsically poor ligand [31, 32]. That 8 is such a strong binder provides an extreme example of the power of preorganization.

Families of hosts generally fall into the order of their listing in Chart III when arranged according to their  $-\Delta G^{\circ}$  values with which they bind their most complementary guests: spherands > cryptaspherands > cryptands > hemispherands > corands > podands. Corand is the family name given to modified crown ethers [33]. Spheraplex  $\mathbf{8} \cdot \text{Li}^{+}$  provides a  $-\Delta G^{\circ}$  value, of >23 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>. Cryptaspheraplexes  $\mathbf{15} \cdot \text{Na}^{+}$ ,  $\mathbf{16} \cdot \text{Na}^{+}$ , and  $\mathbf{17} \cdot \text{Cs}^{+}$  [34] give values of 20.6, 21.0, and 21.7 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>, respectively [27]. Cryptaplexes  $\mathbf{18} \cdot \text{Li}^{+}$ ,  $\mathbf{19} \cdot \text{Na}^{+}$ , and  $\mathbf{6} \cdot \text{K}^{+}$  give respective values of 16.6, 17.7, and 18.0 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>[27]. Hemispheraplexes  $\mathbf{20} \cdot \text{Na}^{+}$ , 21 Na<sup>+</sup>, and  $\mathbf{22} \cdot \text{K}^{+}$  are bound by 12.2, 13.5, and 11.6 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>[35, 36]. Coraplex  $\mathbf{23} \cdot \text{K}^{+}$  has a  $-\Delta G^{\circ}$  value of 11.4 [26, 31] and podaplexes  $\mathbf{14} \cdot \text{M}^{+}$  values of <6 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>[29]. Although the numbers of binding sites and their characters certainly influence these values, the degree of preorganization appears to be dominant in providing this order.

D. I. Cram 425

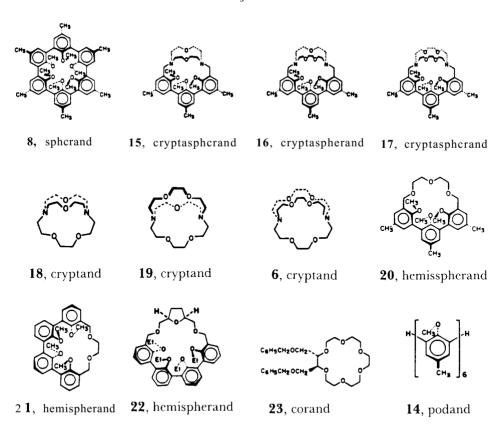
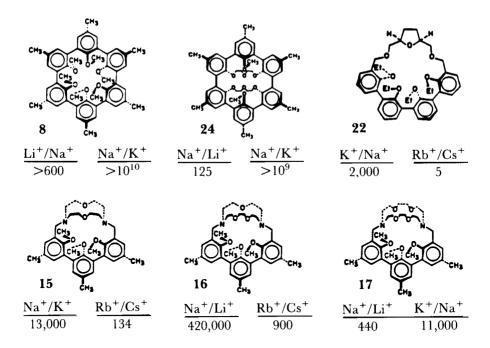


Chart III. Host structures arranged in the order of decreasing  $-\Delta G^{\circ}$  values for binding their most complementary guest picrate salts at 25 °C in CDCl<sub>3</sub> saturated with D<sub>2</sub>O.

### Structural Recognition

Just as preorganization is the central determinant of binding power, complementarity is the central determinant of structural recognition. The binding energy at a single contact site is at most a few kilocalories per mole, much lower than that of a covalent bond. Contacts at several sites between hosts and guests are required for structuring of complexes. Such contacts depend on complementary placements of binding sites in the complexing partners.

The most extensive correlations of structural recognition with host-guest structure involve the  $K_a$  values with which the spherands, cryptaspherands, cryptands, and hemispherands associate with the various alkali metal picrate salts at 25 °C in CDCl<sub>3</sub> saturated with D<sub>2</sub>O. Chart IV lists the  $K_a^{\ A'}K_a^{\ A'}$  ratios for various hosts binding two alkali metal ions A and A'that are adjacent to one another in the periodic table [33]. Notice that factors as high as > 10<sup>10</sup> are observed for the spherands binding Na<sup>+</sup> better than K<sup>+</sup>. Cryptaspherand 15 provides a factor of 13,000. The highest factors for hosts binding K<sup>+</sup> better than Na<sup>+</sup> are observed for cryptaspherand 17 (11,000) and hemispherand 22 (2000). The highest factors for a host binding Li<sup>+</sup> over Na<sup>+</sup> are found for cryptand 18 (4,800). These particular selectivities are important because of the



physiological importance of these ions. These hosts, or modifications of them, are being developed for commercial use in the medical diagnostics industry.

Chart V provides stereoviews of crystal structures of capsular complexes  $15\cdot \mathrm{N}\,\mathrm{a}^{\scriptscriptstyle +},\ 17\cdot \mathrm{N}\,\mathrm{a}^{\scriptscriptstyle +},\$ and  $17\cdot \mathrm{K}^{\scriptscriptstyle +}.$  Notice that in  $15\cdot \mathrm{N}\,\mathrm{a}^{\scriptscriptstyle +}$  and  $17\cdot \mathrm{K}^{\scriptscriptstyle +}$  the metal ions contact all of the heteroatoms, whereas in  $17\cdot \mathrm{N}\mathrm{a}^{\scriptscriptstyle +},\$ the Na $^{\scriptscriptstyle +}$ ion does not. Here is a visual example of complementarity vs. noncomplementarity. The Ka/K,\*' ratio for  $17\cdot K^+/17\cdot \mathrm{Na}^+=11,000\ [34].$ 

Arrangement of the classes of hosts in decreasing order of their ability to select between the alkali metal ion guests provides spherands > cryptaspherands > cryptands > hemispherands > corands > podands. This order is similar but less rigidly followed than that for host preorganization. In some cases, rather small changes in structure provide a substantial spread in  $-\Delta G^{\circ}$  values for binding under our standard conditions [33].

Chiral recognition in complexation is a fundamental aspect of structural recognition in complexation in the biotic world. We synthesized host 25 in an enantiomerically pure form to study its ability to distinguish between enantiomers in complexation of amino acids and ester salts in solution. We were careful to design a system containing at least one  $C_2$  axis of symmetry, a tactic that made the hosts *nonsided* with respect to perching guests. A CDCl<sub>3</sub> solution of (R, R)-25 in CDCl<sub>3</sub> at 0 °C was used to extract  $D_2O$  solutions of racemic amino acid or ester salts. As predicted in advance by CPK molecular models, the (D)-enantiomers were extracted preferentially into the organic layer. Chiral

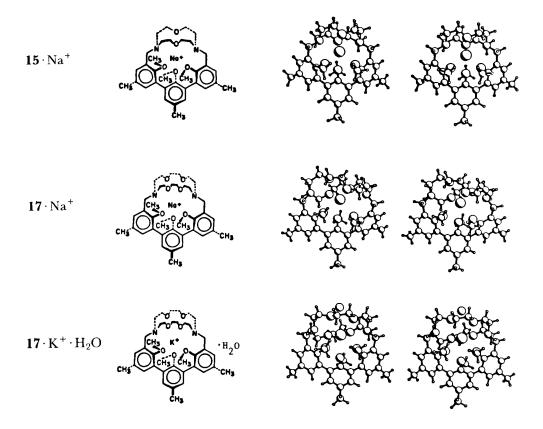


Chart V. Stereoviews of crystal structures of cryptaspheraplexes

recognition factors ranged from a high of 31 for  $C_6H_3CH(CO_2CH_3)NH_3PF_6$  to a low of 2.3 with  $CH_3CH(CO_2H)NH_3C1O_4$ . These factors represent free energy differences between diastereomeric complexes of 1.9 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> and 0.42 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Other amino acid and ester salt guests ranged between these values. We interpreted these results in terms of the complementarity between host and guest of the (R, R)-(D)-configurations as visualized in the complex 26, and the lack of complementarity in those of the (R,R)-(L)-configurations, which were designed not to form [38, 39].

An amino acid and ester resolving machine was designed, built, and tested, which is pictured in Figure 1. It made use of chiral recognition in transport of amino acid or ester salts through lipophilic liquid membranes. From the central reservoir of the W-tube containing an aqueous solution of racemic salt, the (L)-enantiomer was picked up by (S,S)-25 in the left hand chloroform reservoir and delivered to the left hand aqueous layer, while the (D)-enantiomer was transported by (R,R)-25 in the right hand chloroform reservoir and delivered to the right hand aqueous layer. The thermodynamic driving force for the machine's operation involved exchange of an energy-lowering entropy of dilution of each enantiomer for an energy-lowering entropy of mixing. To maintain the concentration gradients down which the enantiomers traveled in

$$\frac{R}{R} = \frac{\frac{CH_3}{CCO_2H}}{\frac{R}{H}} = \frac{\frac{R}{R}}{\frac{R}{H}} + \frac{\frac{R}{R}}{\frac{R}} + \frac{\frac{R}{R}}{\frac{R}}{\frac{R}} + \frac{\frac{R}{R}}{\frac{R}}{\frac{R}} + \frac{\frac{R}{R}}{\frac{R}}{\frac{R}} + \frac{\frac{R}{R}}{\frac{R}}{\frac{R}} + \frac{\frac{R}{R}}{\frac{R}}{\frac{R}} + \frac{\frac{R}{R}}{\frac{R}}{\frac{R}}{\frac{R}} + \frac{\frac{R}{R}}{\frac{R}}{\frac{R}}{\frac{R}} + \frac{\frac{R}{R}}{\frac{R}}{\frac{R}} + \frac{\frac{R}{R}}{\frac{R}}{\frac{R}}{\frac{R}} + \frac{\frac{R}{R}}{\frac$$

STABLER COMPLEX

each arm of the W-tube, fresh racemic guest was continuously added to the central reservoir and (L)- and (D)-C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>3</sub>H(CO<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>3</sub>)NH<sub>3</sub>PF<sub>6</sub> of 86-90% enantiomeric excess were continuously removed from the left and right hand aqueous reservoirs, respectively [40].

In another experiment, we covalently attached the working part of (R,R)-25 at a remote position of the molecule to a macroreticular resin (polystyrene-divinylbenzene) to give immobilized host of ~18,000 mass units per average

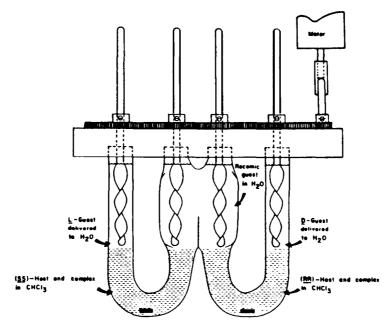


Figure 1. Enantiomer resolving machine.

active site. This material (the host part of 27) was used to give complete enantiomeric resolution of several amino acid salts. The behavior in the chromatographic resolution paralleled that observed in the extraction and transport experiments, and was useful both analytically and preparatively. Separation factors ranged from 26 to 1.4, the complexes of the (R,R)-(D)- or (S,S)-(L)-configurations always being the more stable. The structure envisioned for the more stable complex is formulated in 27 [41].

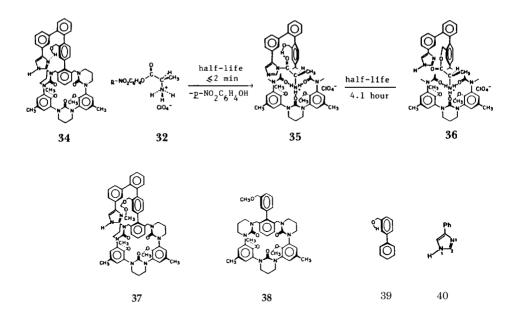
### Partial Transacylase Mimics

The design and synthesis of enzyme-mimicking host compounds remains one of the most challenging and stimulating problems of organic chemistry. We chose to examine transacylase mimics first because the mechanism of action of these enzymes had been so thoroughly studied.

The active site of chymotrypsin combines a binding site, a nucleophilic hydroxyl, an imidazole, and a carboxyl group in an array preorganized largely by hydrogen bonds as indicated in 28. With the help of molecular models, we designed 29 as an "ultimate target" host possessing roughly the same organization of groups as that of 28.

Compound 29 is much too complicated to synthesize without getting encouragement from simpler model compounds. An incremental approach to 29 was employed. We first prepared 30, and found that it binds  $t\text{-BuNH}_3\text{Pic}$  in CDCI, saturated with D2O with  $-\Delta G^\circ=13.2$  kcal moli. The complex,  $30\cdot (\text{CH}_3)_3\text{CNH}_3^+$ , had the expected crystal structure [42]. Accordingly, 31 was prepared, and found to bind CH3N H3Pic and NaPic under our standard

conditions with  $-\Delta G^\circ=12.7$  and 13.6 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>, respectively [43]. Host 31 was acylated by 32 to give 33 and p-nitrophenol. The kinetics of formation of 33 were measured in CHCl<sub>3</sub>, and found to be first order in added Et<sub>3</sub>N/Et<sub>3</sub>NHClO<sub>4</sub>buffer ratio. Thus the alkoxide ion is the nucleophile. The rate constant for acylation of 31 by 32 was calculated to be ~10<sup>11</sup> higher valued than the rate constant for the noncomplexed model compound, 3-phenylbenzyl alcohol [44]. This high factor demonstrates that collecting and orienting reactants through highly structured complexation can result in an enormous rate acceleration. When NaClO<sub>4</sub>was added to the medium, the acylation rate of 31 was depressed by several powers of ten. Thus the acylation of 31, like that of the serinc esterases, is subject to competitive inhibition.



A thirty-step synthesis of 34 was then devised, and about 0.5 g of the compound prepared [45]. This compound combines the binding site, the nucleophilic hydroxyl, and the imidazole proton-transfer agent in the same molecule, lacking only the carboxyl group of final target compound 29. Compound 34 complexed CH<sub>3</sub>N H<sub>3</sub>Pic and NaPic with respective  $-\Delta G^{\circ}$  values of 11.4 and 13.6 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> in CDCl<sub>3</sub> saturated with D<sub>2</sub>O at 25° C. In pyridinechloroform, amino ester salt 32 instantaneously acylated the imidazole group of 34 to give 35, which more slowly gave 36. In CHCl, in the absence of any added base, the observed rate constant for acylation of 34 by 32 was higher by a factor of 105 than that for acylation of an equal molar mixture of noncomplexing model compounds 39 or 40 under the same conditions. The same ratio was obtained when 37 was substituted for 34. Thus the imidazole groups of 34 and 37 are the sites of acylation. Introduction of NaClO into the medium as a competitive inhibitor of complexation destroyed much of the rate acceleration. When 32 added to 38 was substituted for 34, the resulting complex acylated imidazole 40 with a 10 rate-constant factor increase. Thus complexed 32 is a better acylating agent than 32 alone.

The disadvantages of comparing rate constants for reactions with different molecularities are avoided by referring to uncomplexed 34 or 37, noncomplexing imidazole 40, and uncomplexed acylating agent 32 as standard starting states, and the rate-limiting transition states for transacylation as standard final states. This treatment introduces  $K_a$  into the second order rate constant expression when complexation precedes acylation. The resulting second order rate constants for 32 acylating 34 or 37 are higher by factors of  $10^{10}$  or  $10^{11}$  than the second order rate constant for 32 acylating 40. This work clearly

demonstrates that complexation of the transition states for transacylation can greatly stabilize those transition states to produce large rate factor increases over comparable noncomplexed transition states [46]. Others have shown that the imidazole of chymotrypsin is acylated first by esters of nonspecific substrates [47].

These investigations demonstrate that totally synthetic systems can be designed and prepared which mimic the following properties of enzymes: the ability to use complexation to vastly enhance reaction rates and the sensitivity to competitive inhibition. In a different, chiral system, we demonstrated that a synthetic host was capable of distinguishing between enantiomeric reactants [48, 49]. We anticipate that as the field matures, many of the other remarkable properties of enzyme systems will be observed in designed, synthetic systems. Our results illustrate some of the strategies and methods that might be applied in this expanding field of research.

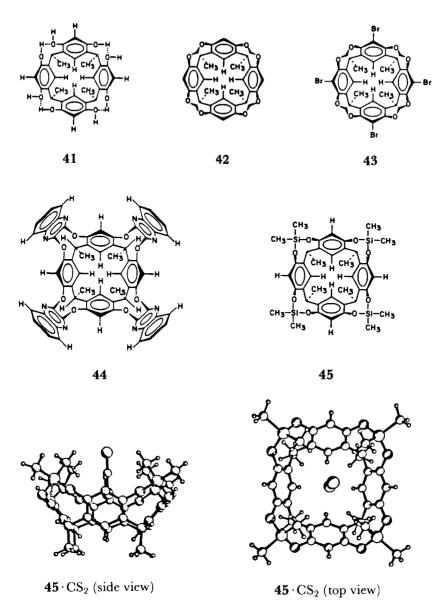
### Cavitands-Synthetic Molecular Vessels

Although enforced cavities of molecular dimensions are frequently encountered in enzyme systems, RNA, or DNA, they are almost unknown among the seven million synthetic organic compounds. In biological chemistry such cavities play the important role of providing concave surfaces to which are attached convergent functional groups which bind substrates and catalyze their reactions. If synthetic biomimetic systems are to be designed and investigated, simple means must be found of synthesizing compounds containing enforced concave surfaces of dimensions large enough to embrace simple molecules or ions. We applied the name *cavitand* to this class of compound [50].

Cavitands designed and studied include compounds 42-45, many of which were prepared from 41. The structure and conformational mobility of 41 had been established by A. G. S. Högberg [51]. The substance is prepared in good yield by treatment of resorcinol with acetaldehyde and acid. We rigiditied 41 and its derivatives by closing four additional rings to produce 42-45 [50, 52].

As anticipated by molecular model examinations, 42-45 crystallize only as solvates because these rigid molecules taken alone are incapable of filling their voids either intermolecularly or intramolecularly. They are shaped like bowls of differing depth supported on four methyl "feet." Compound 42 forms crystallates with SO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>3</sub>CN, and CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>, molecules to which it is complementary (molecular model examination). Cavitand 43, whose cavity is deeper, crystallizes with a mole of CHCl<sub>3</sub>. Crystal structures of 42·CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> and 43·CHCl<sub>3</sub> show they are caviplexes, as predicted [53]. Cavitand 44 is vaseshaped. It crystallizes with one mole of (CH<sub>3</sub>) NCHO, which is just small enough to fit into the interior of 44 in models. Although the amide cannot be removed at high temperature and low pressure, it is easily displaced with CHCl<sub>3</sub>, one and one-half moles of which appear to take the place of the (CH<sub>3</sub>) NCHO in the crystallate [50].

Treatment of octal 41 with R<sub>2</sub>SiC1<sub>2</sub> gave a series of cavitands, of which 45 is typical. In molecular models, 45 has a well-shaped cavity, defined by the bottoms of four aryls and by four inward-turned methyl groups. In molecular



models, this well is complementary to small, cylindrical molecules such as S=C=S,  $CH_3C=CH$ , and O=O, but not to larger compounds such as CDCls or  $C_6D_6$ . Cavitand 45 and its analogues when dissolved in CDCls or  $C_6D_6$  complex guests such as those mentioned above, whose external surfaces are complementary to the internal surface of the host cavity. Association constants were determined for 45 and its analogues binding S=C=S. Values of  $-\Delta G^o$  as high as 2 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> have been observed. A crystal structure of  $45 \cdot CS_2$  shows that  $CS_2$  occupies the well in the expected manner. Compound 45 in CDCls was also shown to bind dioxygen reversibly [52]. Dissolution of 45 in solvents such as CDCls or  $C_6D_6$  is the equivalent of dissolving "holes" in a medium into

which appropriately shaped solutes fall. The discrimination shown by the holes for the guests exemplifies the principle of complementarity as applied to cavitand complexation.

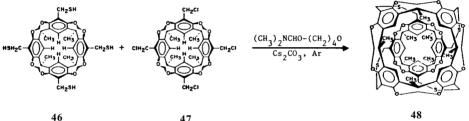
The next steps in research on these cavitands is to append to them watersolubilizing and catalytic groups. The former will provide them with hydrophobic driving forces to complex nonpolar guests, and the latter to catalyze reactions of such guests.

### Carcerands-Synthetic Molecular Cells

Absent among the millions of organic compounds hitherto reported are closedsurface hosts with enforced interiors large enough to imprison behind covalent bars, guests the size of ordinary solvent molecules. After much thought and molecular model examination, we chose 48 as the target for synthesis of the first molecular cell. The term carcerand was applied to this class of compound. The synthesis involved treating Cs,C O, with a solution in (CH,),NCHO-(CH<sub>2</sub>),O of equal molar amounts of cavitands 46 and 47 under an atmosphere of argon. The first question to be answered was: what guest compounds would be trapped inside during the shell closure? This question is akin to asking whether two soup bowls closed rim-to-rim under the surface of a kettle of stew would net any stew. The answer was that 48 "contained" essentially every kind of component of the medium present during ring closure [54].

The product (48 and guests) was very insoluble in all media, and was purified by extracting it with the most powerful solvents of each type. The remaining material was subjected to elemental analysis for C, H, S, O, N, Cl, and Cs. Nitrogen analysis and an IR spectrum of the substance revealed that (CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>NCHO had been entrapped. The presence of equivalent amounts of Cs and Cl demonstrated that one or the other ion or both had to be encapsulated in the host.

A fast atom bombardment mass spectrum of 48·G showed the presence of the following host-guest combinations, the species trapped in the interior of 48 being enclosed by parentheses:



47

No peaks were found at molecular masses above that of the last carcaplex listed. None were observed that could not be interpreted in terms of appropriate host-guest combinations. When highly dried 48 was boiled with  $D_2O$ , the  $48\cdot(Cs^+ + D_2O)$  peak was substantially replaced by a  $48\cdot(Cs^+ + D_2O)$  peak. Models suggest that 48 has two small portals lined with methyl groups through which molecules as small as H,O can pass.

Molecular models of 48 show that its interior surface is complementary to the outer surface of anti-ClCF<sub>2</sub>C F<sub>2</sub>Cl. Shell closure of 46 and 47 in the presence of this Freon resulted in entrapment of a small amount of this gas in the interior of 48.

The FAB-MS coupled with the elemental analyses indicated that about 5% of the mixture was noncomplexed 48, about 60% encapsulated Cs<sup>2</sup>, about 45% encapsulated (CH<sub>2</sub>), NCHO, 15% encapsulated (CH<sub>2</sub>), O, but only 1-2% encapsulated Cl<sup>2</sup>. Thus Cs<sup>2</sup> was mainly inside and Cl<sup>2</sup> mainly outside the carcaplex. Models show that if the final covalent bond leading to 48 G involves an intramolecular SN, linear transition state as in 48, any Cs<sup>2</sup> ion-paired to the S<sup>2</sup> is trapped inside the cavity and the Cl<sup>2</sup> must be external to the cavity [54].

49

We anticipate that unusual physical and chemical properties will provide unusual uses for carcaplexes, particularly when their design renders them soluble and separable.

We warmly thank the following co-workers for carrying out the research described here: L. A. Singer, R. H. Bauer, M. G. Siegel, J. M. Timko, K. Madan, S. S. Moore, T. L. Tarnowski, G. M. Lein, J. L. Toner, J. M. Mayer, S. P. Ho, M. P. de Grandpre, S. P. Artz, G. D. Y. Sogah, S. C. Peacock, L. A. Domeier, H. E. Katz, I. B. Dicker, J. R. Moran, and K. D. Stewart as graduate students; E. P. Kyba, L. R. Sousa, K. Koga, R. C. Helgeson, G. W. Gokcl, D. M. Walba, J. M. Cram, T. Kaneda, S. B. Brown, K. E. Koenig, P. Stückler, G.D.Y. Sogah, G. R. Weisman, Y. Chao, F.C. A. Gaeta, M. Newcomb, P.Y. S. Lam, S. Karbach, A. G.S. Högberg, Y. H. Kim, and M. Laucr as postdoctoral fellows. The crystal structure work of colleagues K. N. Trucblood, C. B. Knobler, E. F. Maverick and I. Goldberg was indispensable.

We gratefully acknowledge the financial support of the following granting agencies: the Division of Basic Energy Sciences of the Department of Energy for the work on the metal ion binding; the National Science Foundation for the work on structural recognition; the National Institutes of Health for research on catalysis. We warmly thank all former and present co-workers, over 200 in number, and the many others whose results and discussions have stimulated and instructed us over the years. My long-time colleague, Roger C. Helgeson, has provided us not only with excellent ideas and results, but also with continuity. The artwork displayed here and in my slides and publications for

the last twelve years was done by Mrs. June Hcndrix, to whom we are much indebted.

### REFERENCES AND NOTES

- 1. Cram, D.J.; Bauer, R.H. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1959, 81, 5971-5977.
- 2. Singer, L. A.; Cram, D. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1963, 85, 1080-1084
- 3. Pedersen, C. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1967, 89, 2495-2496.
- 4. Pedersen, C.J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1967, 89, 7017-7036.
- 5. Dietrich, B.; Lehn, J.-M.; Sauvage, J.-P. Tetrahedron Lett. 1969, 2885-2888.
- 6. Dietrich, B.; Lehn, J.-M.; Sauvage, J.-P. Tetrahedron Lett. 1969, 2889-2892.
- Kyba, E. P.; Siegel, M. G.; Sousa, L. R.; Sogah, G. D. Y.; Cram, D. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1973, 95, 2691-2692.
- Kyba, E. P.; Koga, K.; Sousa, L. R.; Siegel, M. G.; Cram, D. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1973,95, 2692-2693.
- Helgeson, R. C.; Koga, K.; Timko, J. M.; Cram, D. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1973, 95, 3021-3023.
- 10. Helgeson, R.C.; Timko, J. M.; Cram, D. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1973, 95, 3023-3025.
- 11. Gokel, G. W.; Cram, D. J. J. C. S. Chem. Commun. 1973, 7,92 481-482.
- 12. Cram, D. J.; Cram, J. M. Science, 1974, 183, 803-809.
- Aeschylus [525-456 B.C.], The Choëphoroe,
   Translated by Sir Gilbert Murry, taken from J. Bartlett, Familiar Quotations,
   I th. Edition, C. Morley and L. D. Everett editors, Garden City Publishing Co., Garden City, New York, 1944, p. 963.
- Kyba, E. P.; Helgeson, R. C.; Madan, K.; Gokel, G. W.; Tarnowski, T. L.; Moore,
   S. S.; Cram, D. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1977, 99, 2564-2571.
- Topics in Current Chemistry, "Host-Guest Complex", Volumes I-III, ed. E. L. Boschke, Springer Verlag, Berlin, 1982-1984.
- 16. Koltun, W. L. Biopolymers 1965, 3, 665-679.
- The crystal structures and references to them up to 1980 are gathered in Cram,
   D. J.; Trueblood, K. N. Topics in Current Chemistry, 1981, 98, 43-106.
- 18. Cram, D.J.; Lein, G.M. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1985, 107, 3657-3668.
- Timko, J. M.; Moore, S. S.; Walba, D. M.; Hiberty, P. C.; Cram, D. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1977, 99, 4207-4219.
- 20. Helgeson, R. C.; Tarnowski, T. L.; Cram, D. J, J. Org. Chem. 1979, 44, 2538-2550.
- 21. Dunitz, J.D.; Dobler, M.; Seiler, P.; Phizackerly, R. P. Acta Crystallogr. Sect. B, 1974, 30, 2733 and following papers to 2750.
- 22. Weiss, R.; Metz, B.; Moras, D. Proc. Int. Conf. Coord. Chem. 13th. 1970, 2, 85-86.
- 23. Metz, B.; Moras, D.; Weiss, R. Acta Crystallogr. Sect. B, 1973, 29, 1377-1381.
- Cram, D. J.; Kaneda, T.; Helgeson, R. C.; Lein, G. M. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1979, 101, 6752-6754.
- Trueblood, K.N.; Knobler, C. B.; Maverick, E.; Helgeson, R.C.; Brown, S.B.;
   Cram, D. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1981, 103, 5594-5596.
- Helgeson, R. C.; Weisman, G. R.; Toner, J. L.; Tarnowski, T. L.; Chao, Y.; Mayer,
   J. M.; Cram, D.J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1979, 101, 4928-4941.
- 27. Cram, D.J.; Ho, S. P. J. Am Chem. Soc. 1985, 107, 2998-3005.
- 28. Cram, D. J. Science 1983, 219, 1177- 1183.
- Cram, D. J.; deGrandpre, hl. P.; Knobler, C. B.; Trueblood, K. N. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1984,106, 3286-3292.
- Cram, D. J.; Kaneda, T.; Helgeson, R. C.; Brown, S. B.; Knobler, C. B.; Maverick, E.; Trueblood, K. N. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1985, 107, 3645-3657.
- 31. Mitsky, J.; Jaris, L.; Taft, R. W. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1972, 94, 3442-3445.
- 32. Aitken, H. W.; Gilkerson, W. R. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1973, 95, 8551-8559.
- 33. Cram, D.J, Angew, Chemie Int. Ed., 1986, 25, 1039-1057.

- Cram, D. J.; Ho, S. P.; Knobler, C. B.; Maverick, E.; Trueblood, K. N. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1985, 107, 2989-2998.
- Koenig, K. E.; Lein, G. M.; Stückler, P.; Kaneda, T.; Cram, D. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1979, 101, 3553-3566.
- 36. Artz, S. P.; Cram, D.J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1984, 106, 2160-2171.
- 37. The cis-isomer gave a lower--  $\Delta G^{o}_{av}$  value than the trans-isomer by 0.7 kcal mot<sup>-1</sup>.
- Peacock, S. C.; Domeier, L. A.; Gaeta, F. C. A.; Helgeson, R. C.; Timko, J. M.; Cram, D. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1978, 100, 8190-8202.
- Peacock, S. C.; Walba, D. M.; Gaeta, F. C. A.; Helgeson, R. C.; Cram, D. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1980, 102, 2043-2052.
- Newcomb, M.; Toner, J. L.; Helgeson, R. C.; Cram, D. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1979, 101, 4941-4947.
- 41. Sogah, G. D.Y.; Cram, D. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1979, 101, 3035-3042
- Cram, D. J.; Dicker, I. B.; Lauer, M.; Knobler, C. B.; Trueblood, K. N. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1984, 106, 7150-7167.
- 43. Katz, H. E.; Cram, D.J. J. Am. Chem. Sac. 1983, 105, 135-137.
- 44. Cram, D. J.; Katz, H. E.; Dicker, I. B. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1984, 106, 4987-5000.
- 45. Cram, D. J.; Lam, P. Y. S. Tetrahedron Symposium-in-Print, 1986, 42, 1607-1615.
- 46. Cram, D.J.; Lam, P. Y. S.; Ho, S. P. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1986, 108, 839-841.
- 47. Hubbard, C. D.; Kirsch, J, F. Biochemistry, 1972, 11, 2483-2493.
- 48. Chao, Y.; Cram, D.J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1976, 98, 1015-1017.
- Chao, Y.; Weisman, G. R.; Sogah, G. D. Y.; Cram, D. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1979, 101, 4948-4958.
- 50. Moran, J. R.; Karbach, S.; Cram, D. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1982, 104, 5826-5828.
- 51. Högberg, A.G. S. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1980, 102, 6046-6050.
- Cram, D. J.; Stewart, K. D.; Goldberg, I.; Trueblood, K. N. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1985, 107, 2574-2575.
- Cram, D. J.; Cram, J. M. "Designed Complexes-Science and Applications", Chapter in Monograph "Selectivity; A goal for Synthetic Efficiency", W. Bartmann and B. M. Trost, Ed., Workshop Conference Hoechst, 14, Verlag Chemie, Weinheim, Germany, 1983, 42-64.
- Cram, D. J.; Karbach, S.; Kim, Y. H.; Baczynskyj, L.; Kalleymeyn, G. W. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1985, 107, 2575-2576.