

This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. This Accepted Manuscript will be replaced by the edited, formatted and paginated article as soon as this is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the **Information for Authors**.

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard <u>Terms & Conditions</u> and the <u>Ethical guidelines</u> still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.



www.rsc.org/advances

| 1 | Title: Enzymatic approaches to the preparation of chiral epichlorohydrin |
|----|---|
| 2 | Authors and Their affiliation: |
| 3 | Huo-Xi Jin*, Xiao-Kun OuYang |
| 4 | School of Food Science and Pharmaceutics, Zhejiang Ocean University, Zhoushan 316022, P. R. |
| 5 | China |
| 6 | |
| 7 | Author's information |
| 8 | ¹ *Dr. Huo-Xi Jin, School of Food Science and Pharmaceutics, Zhejiang Ocean University, Zhoushan |
| 9 | 316022, P. R. China. Tel.:+86-18768082687; E-mail address: jinhuoxi@163.com |
| 10 | ² Prof. Xiao-Kun OuYang, School of Food Science and Pharmaceutics, Zhejiang Ocean University, |
| 11 | Zhoushan 316022, P. R. China. Tel.:+86-15957094799; E-mail address: xkouyang@zjou.edu.cn |
| 12 | |
| 13 | |
| 14 | |
| 15 | |
| 16 | |
| 17 | |
| 18 | |
| 19 | |
| 20 | |
| 21 | |
| 22 | |
| 23 | |
| 24 | |

| 25 | Enzymatic approaches to the preparation of chiral epichlorohydrin |
|----------|---|
| 26 | Huo-Xi Jin*, Xiao-Kun OuYang |
| 27 | School of Food Science and Pharmaceutics, Zhejiang Ocean University, Zhoushan 316022, P. R. |
| 28 29 | China |
| 30 | |
| 31 | Abstract: |
| 32 | Enantiomerically pure epichlorohydrin is a key chiral synthon in the preparation of 4-chloro-3- |
| 33 | hydroxybutyrate, pheromones, L-carnitine, and β -adrenergic blockers. Various methods are known for |
| 34 | obtaining the enantiomerically pure epoxides, including chemical and enzymatic approaches, but a |
| 35 | clear undestanding of the synthesis process in case of chiral epichlorohydrin is unavailable. This review |
| 36 | gives an overview of the enzymatic approaches for preparation of the chiral epichlorohydrin, |
| 37 | highlighting the synthetic routs using haloalcohol dehalogenase and epoxide hydrolase as biocatalysts. |
| 38 | |
| 39 | Key words: chiral epichlorohydrin, enzymatic synthesis, haloalcohol dehalogenase, epoxide hydrolase |
| 40 | |
| 41 | |
| 42 | |
| 43 | |
| 44 | |
| 45 | |
| 46 | |
| 47 | |
| 48 | |
| 49 | |
| 50 | |
| 51 | |
| 52 | |
| 53 | |

54 Introduction

Enantiomerically pure epoxides are versatile building blocks and important chiral synthons in synthetic chiral chemistry due to their high reactivity and directable regioselectivity[1, 2]. As one of several promising epoxides, enantiopure epichlorohydrin has been widely used to prepare many biologically active compounds, including (*S*)-4-chloro-3-hydroxybutyrate [3], β -adrenergic blockers [4], baclofen [5], and L-carnitine [6] (Fig 1). Various methods including chemical and biologic are known for obtaining the chiral epichlorohydrin. They can be divided in three general preparation strategies: asymmetric synthesis, use of the chiral precursor, and kinetic resolution of racemate.



62

Fig. 1 Biologically active compounds prepared from enantiomerically pure epichlorohydrin
The first strategy is the production of chiral epichlorohydrin, starting from a prochiral compound.
For example, 3-chloropropene and dichloropropanol could be converted into chiral epichlorohydrin by
external asymmetric induction using the chiral catalyst-peroxidase and haloalcohol dehalogenase,
respectively. This method is the commercially most attractive due to the high theoretical yield with 100%
of the enantiopure epichlorohydrin.

A chiral precursor for synthesis of the chiral epichlorohydrin is the enantiopure 2,3-dichloro-1-propanol, which can be converted into chiral epichlorohydrin by chemical or biological methods. However, the industrial application prospect of this method is not optimistic since the enantiopure 2,3-dichloro-1-propanol is expensive.

73 The third strategy is the kinetic resolution of racemic epichlorohydrin, which is based on the 74 differences in reaction rate of the enantiomers. In the reaction mixture, one enantiomer of

epichlorohydrin is remained in enantiomerically pure form when the other enantiomer has been entirely converted by chemo-catalyst or biocatalyst[7-9]. As two of the biocatalysts used in preparation of chiral epichlorohydrin, the haloalcohol dehalogenase and epoxide hydrolase have great potential for development due to their rich resources, as well as efficient catalytic specificity and environmental friendly. However, a drawback to this method is that the maximum yield is only 50% of the total amount of the racemate.

Although a number of papers have been publised on the preparation of chiral epichlorohydrin, review that specifically focuse on the enzymatic synthesis of chiral epichlorohydrin have not been reported so far. In this paper, we focuse on introducing the synthesis of chiral epichlorohydrin by biotransformation reactions, including by direct epoxidation of alkenes using peroxidase, by enantioselective ring closure of dichloropropanol using haloalcohol dehalogenases, by enantioselective ring opening of racemic epichlorohydrin using haloalcohol dehalogenases, and by enantioselective kinetic resolution of racemic epichlorohydrin using epoxide hydrolases.

88 Direct epoxidation of alkenes by peroxidase

89 Chloroperoxidase, a versatile heme-peroxidase, is able to catalyze a variety of different reactions due 90 to its unique active site structure, such as halogenation, epoxidation, peroxidation, sulfoxidation, and 91 hydroxylation[10, 11]. More importantly, this enzyme has the broad substrate adaptability, and shows 92 enantioselectivity for epoxidation of alkenes and hydroxylation of alkynes[12, 13]. A number of 93 epoxides produced from alkenes by chloroperoxidase catalysis can be used as chiral synthons for 94 preparation of chiral drug. Hager et al. had investigated the substrate specificity of chloroperxidase 95 from Caldariomyces fumago for preparation of chiral epoxides[14]. The results indicated that 96 chloroperxidase showed the high activity for alkenes with chain lengths of less than ten carbon atoms, 97 and methallyl alkenes and styrenes can function as good substrates.

$$H_2C = CH - CH_2$$
 Chloroperoxidase O
 H_2O_2 Cl

98 99

Fig. 2 Prodcution of chiral epichlorohydrin by chloroperoxidase from 3-chloropropene

100 Chiral epichlorohydrin would be produced by direct epoxidation of 3-chloropropene using 101 chloroperoxidase (Fig. 2). This method can obtain the 100% theoretical yield of chiral epichlorohydrin, 102 but the low enantioselectivity, as well as inactivation of this enzyme at high concentration of H_2O_2 , had 103 greatly limited its development and application[15]. Wu *et al.* used t-butyl hydroperoxide as O_2 donor

in order to eliminate the inhibition, the (*R*)-epichlorohydrin with 97.1% enantiomeric excess (e.e.) and
 88.8% yield was obtained by asymmetric epoxidation of 3-chloropropene using chloroperxidase from
 Caldariomyces fumago in homogenous phosphate buffer/ionic liquid mixtures[16]. In this reaction
 system, the imidazole ionic liquids as co-solvent remarkably increased the yield of
 (*R*)-epichlorohydrin.

109 Enantioselective ring-closure of dichloropropanol by haloalcohol dehalogenase

110 Haloalcohol dehalogenases catalyse the the conversion of halohydrins into their corresponding 111 epoxides by intramolecular nucleophilic displacement of a halogen, as well as the reverse 112 reaction[17-21]. Halohydrin dehalogenase, halohydrin epoxidase or hydrogen-halide lyase are 113 alternative names for the haloalcohol dehalogenase[22]. Haloalcohol dehalogenase can be found in 114 several organisms, such as Flavobacterium sp.[23], Agrobacterium radiobacter[24], Arthrobacter 115 sp.[25, 26], Pseudomonas sp.[27], Corynebacterium sp.[28], Alcaligenes sp.[29], Agrobacterium 116 tumefaciens[30], Agromyces mediolanus[31], and so on. Most haloalcohol dehalogenases genes were 117 cloned and sequenced[24, 30-32]. They were divided in three general types: HheA, HheB, and HheC 118 due to the sequence homology. The haloalcohol dehalogenases in the same type are very close to each 119 other with an 88.7–98.3% homology; while it was only 18.9–33.5% between different groups[22]. 120 Recently, the structures and mechanism of HheA from Arthrobacter strain AD2 and HheC from 121 Agrobacterium radiobacterAD1 had been reported[33-36], but there is still no report on the structure 122 information of HheB. These three haloalcohol dehalogenases have great difference in substrate 123 specificity. HheA and HheB have the higher catalytic activity for long-chain halohydrin, while HheC 124 has the higher catalytic activity for short-chain halohydrin, and high enantioselectivity for different 125 aromatic or aliphatic compounds.

126

127 Fig. 3 Synthesis of chiral epichlorohydrin from dichloropropanol catalyzed by haloalcohol128 dehalogenases

129 The enantioselectivity of ring-closure reactions of halohydrin catalysed by haloalcohol 130 dehalogenases makes them promising biocatalysts for the preparation of chiral epoxides. Both 131 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol and 2,3-dichloro-1-propanol are the direct precursors for production of chiral

RSC Advances Accepted Manuscript

RSC Advances

132 epichlorohydrin by haloalcohol dehalogenases (Fig. 3). However, most haloalcohol dehalogenases

133 which can catalyse the ring closure of 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol display low activity or no activity for

134 2,3-dichloro-1-propanol, only a few haloalcohol dehalogenases exhibit an excellent activity for

135 2,3-dichloro-1-propanol (Table 1).

- 136
 Table 1 The relative activities of haloalcohol dehalogenases from different organisms
- 137

| for 2.3-dichloro-1-propan |
|---------------------------|
|---------------------------|

| Microbial strains | Relative activities (%) ^a | | |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|--|
| Arthrobacter sp. AD2[17] | 0 | | |
| Arthrobacter erithii H10a[37] | 0 | | |
| Agromyces mediolanus[31] | 0 | | |
| Corynebacterium sp. N-1074[38, 39] | 0.089 | | |
| Pseudomonas sp. OS-K-29[27] | 9.8 | | |
| Arthrobacter sp. PY1[26] | 10 | | |
| Agrobacterium radiobacter AD1[25] | 25 | | |
| Agrobacterium tumefaciens[30] | 28.3 | | |
| Agrobacterium sp. NHG3[40] | 34 | | |
| Alcaligenes sp. DS-K-S38[29] | 47 | | |

^aThe activity of each haloalcohol dehalogenase for 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol was defined as 100%,

and the activity of each haloalcohol dehalogenase for 2,3-dichloro-1-propanol is relative to that for
1,3-dichloro-2-propanol.

141 The different haloalcohol dehalogenases often exhibit significant differences in enantioselectivity for 142 the ring closure of 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol. The haloalcohol dehalogenases HheA from Arthrobacter 143 strain AD2 and Corynebacterium sp. revealed no enantioselectivity, while haloalcohol dehalogenases 144 from Agromyces mediolanus and Agrobacterium radiobacter AD1 displayed low enantioselectivity[31, 145 41]. The haloalcohol dehalogenases HheB from *Corvnebacterium* sp. vielded (S)-epichlorohydrin with 146 90% e.e. in the initial stage of the reaction[42]. However, the enantiomerical purity of the formed 147 epichlorohydrin continuously decreased during the reaction. This phenomenon was also observed with 148 the haloalcohol dehalogenases from Arthrobacter erithii H10a and Agrobacterium radiobacter AD1[37, 149 43]. The prochiral 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol was initially converted to (R)-epichlorohydrin with 89% e.e. 150 by the haloalcohol dehalogenases from Arthrobacter erithii H10a, but it decreased upon prolonged 151 incubation[37]. Jin et al. obtined (S)-epichlorohydrin with 60% e.e. in the beginning of the reaction by 152 haloalcohol dehalogenase HheC from Agrobacterium radiobacter AD1, but the e.e. decreased to almost 153 zero after 20 min[43]. The above phenomenon could be explained by the enzyme-catalysed

154 racemisation of epichlorohrdin via the reverse reaction. In the presence of Cl, the preferentially formed 155 epichlorohydrin was also preferentially converted into 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol by haloalcohol 156 dehalogenases, resulting in decline of the enantiomerical purity. The racemization depends on the 157 reaction equilibrium, which is related to the type of halogen substitutent. The equilibrium tends to form 158 the halohydrin for the chloro-substituted alcohols, and follows the order: $Cl^{2} > Br^{2} > I^{2}$ [44]. Therefore, 159 a way to obtain the chiral epichlorohydrin by ring closure of dichloropropanol using haloalcohol 160 dehalogenase is timely removal of Cl in the reaction mixture, which will be a magnet for new 161 investigation.

162 The enantiomerical purity of the formed epichlorohydrin was low by ring closure of 163 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol or 2,3-dichloro-1-propanol using haloalcohol dehalogenase due to the reverse 164 reaction. Promisingly, some haloalcohol dehalogenases show a good enantioselectivity for kinetic 165 resolution of racemic 2,3-dichloro-1-propanol, remaining the single enantiomer with high 166 enantiomerical purity[29, 45, 46]. The chiral epichlorohydrin is prepared from the remaining 167 2,3-dichloro-1-propanol with treatment of aqueous NaOH (Fig. 4). However, the kinetic resolution of 168 the racemic 2,3-dichloro-1-propanol using haloalcohol dehalogenase was inhibited by the formed 169 epichlorohydrin. Therefore, it is necessary to remove the formed epichlorohydrin instantly. A lack of 170 accumulation of the epichlorohydrin would improve significantly the e.e. and yield of the remaining 171 2,3-dichloro-1-propanol.



172

Fig. 4 Synthesis of chiral epichlorohydrin by preparation of chiral 2,3-dichloro-1-propanol usinghaloalcohol dehalogenase

Kasai and co-workers obtained (R)- and (S)-2,3-dichloro-1-propanol with 100% e.e. from the racemate by resting cells of *Alcaligenes* sp. and *Peseudomonas* sp., respectively, both of which contained haloalcohol dehalogenase and epoxide hydrolase. However, the e.e. of (S)- or (R)-epichlorohydrin did not reach 100% by treating the (R)- or (S)-2,3-dichloro-1-propanol with aqueous NaOH. This results was probably attributed to isomerization of chiral epichlorohydrin caused by Payne rearrangement under alkaline conditions[29, 45]. The e.e. of (S)-2,3-dichloro-1-propanol was 96% by kinetic resolution of its racemate with haloalcohol dehalogenase from A. radiobacter AD1,

RSC Advances Accepted Manuscript

RSC Advances

while it was increased to >99% with addition of the excess epoxide hydrolase[46]. The formed
epichlorohydrin was immediately hydrolysed into 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol by epoxide hydrolase,
resulting in high e.e. of the remaining 2,3-dichloro-1-propanol by removing the inhibition of
epichlorohydrin.

Although the high enantiomerical purity of epichlorohydrin could be obtained by preparation of chiral 2,3-dichloro-1-propanol with haloalcohol dehalogenase, it is difficult for industrial applications due to the two drawbacks as follows: (1) the price of chiral 2,3-dichloro-1-propanol is higher than chiral epichlorohydrin; (2) most haloalcohol dehalogenases have no or low activities for 2,3-dichloro-1-propanol as described in table 1.

191 Enantioselective ring opening of epichlorohydrin by haloalcohol dehalogenases

192 Haloalcohol dehalogenase is known to be a versatile biocatalyst based on the fact that it catalyse the 193 enantioselective ring closure of vicinal halo-alcohols to epoxides, as well as the reverse reaction in the 194 presence of nucleophiles. The enantioselective ring-opening of epoxides catalysed by haloalcohol 195 dehalogenases have been widely used for synthesis of enantiomerically pure β -substituted alcohols and 196 epoxides[47, 48]. Haloalcohol dehalogenase can accept many kind of nucleophiles, not only the 197 halogen ions, but also some small negatively charged ions like N₃⁻, NO₂⁻, CN⁻, SCN⁻ and OCN⁻ in the 198 ring opening reaction[49]. It was reported that haloalcohol dehalogenase HheC from A. radiobacter 199 AD1 is the most selective among the three different haloalcohol dehalogenases (HheA, HheB, and 200 HheC) by describing the substrate specificity and enantioselectivity[48]. The activity, 201 enantioselectivity, and enantiopreference were associated with the enzyme, nucleophiles, and the 202 substrate stucture. For example, the (R)-epichlorohydrin was preferentially converted by HheA from 203 Arthrobacter erithii H10a in the presence of Cl⁻, while (S)-epichlorohydrin in the presence of Br⁻[37]. 204 In the presence of N₃⁻, NO₂⁻, or CN⁻, the HheC showed high enantioselectivity for the ring opening of 205 epoxides with high β -regioselectivity. NO₂⁻ is the most interesting and complex one among these 206 nucleophiles because both oxygen and nitrogen atoms can attack the carbon atoms of epoxides, 207 yielding two different products (Fig. 5) [50]. The formed nitrite ester is chemically unstable, especially 208 at low pH, and spontaneously hydrolyses to the diol. In this way, haloalcohol dehalogenases function 209 as an epoxide hydrolases for the ring opening of epoxides in the presenc of NO_2^{-} .



210 211

223

Fig. 5 Nitrite-mediated ring opening of epoxides catalyzed by haloalcohol dehalogenase

212 A promising route of preparing the chiral epichlorohydrin is enantioselective ring opening of its 213 racemate using haloalcohol dehalogenases in nucleophiles-mediated (Fig. 6). The HheC revealed the 214 higher enantioselectivity than HheA and HheB for the epichlorohydrin [51]. Spelberg et al. indicated 215 that pH of the reaction system had significant influences on the reaction rate and enantioselectivity in 216 the ring opening of epichlorohydrin by HheC and N_3^- , both of which decreased sharply as pH increase 217 from 5.5 to 8.5. However, the reaction rate of the ring closure of 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol catalysed by 218 HheC increased as pH increase within this pH range[52]. Therefore, (R)-epichlorohydrin with e.e. >99% 219 was obtained from its racemate by HheC and N_3^- at pH 4.5. This was attributed to no racemisation 220 because of very low rate of ring-closure at this pH. In addition, the (R)-epichlorohydrin with 99% e.e. 221 and 41% yield had been successfully prepared using NO_2^- as the nucleophile at the low pH (pH 5.0) in 222 our studies[43].



Fig. 6 Synthesis of chiral epichlorohydrin by enantioselective ring opening of its racemate usinghaloalcohol dehalogenases

226 As described above, it was known that the HheC had a low enantioselectivity in the ring closure of 227 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol and a high enantioselectivity in the ring opening of epichlorohydrin using the 228 N_3^- or NO_2^- as the nucleophile. Furthermore, the optimal reaction pH of ring closure and ring opening 229 showed a huge difference. Consequently, it was possible to obtain the chiral epichlorohydrin from 230 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol using HheC by adjusting the pH. In our studies, the chiral epichlorohydrin was 231 formed by addition of excess NO₂⁻ and adjustment of pH from 8.0 to 5.0 after the ring closure of 232 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol with HheC[43]. In addition, Assis et al. had reported another method without 233 adjustment of the reaction pH for preparation of the chiral epichlorohydrin from 234 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol. Consequently, the (R)-epichlorohydrin with >95% e.e. was obtained by 235 addition of excess Br using HheA from Arthrobacter erithii H10a[37]. This was attributed to the fact

that the epichlorohydrin formed preferentially in the ring closure of 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol was(*R*)-isomer, while (*S*)-isomer was preferentially converted in the ring opening of epichlorohydrin with

238 Br⁻ as nucleophile.

239 Enantioselective hydrolysis of epichlorohydrin by epoxide hydrolases

Epoxide hydrolases, which catalyze the hydrolysis of epoxides to yield the corresponding diols, have been widely used in preparation of the chiral epoxides and vicinal diols[53-55]. Epoxide hydrolase activity has been found in animals, plants, and microorganisms[56-59]. The epoxide hydrolases from microorganisms prompted an increased interest in biocatalytic applications due to the excellent enantioselectivity and those be easily obtained in large amounts[60, 61].

245 The epoxide hydrolase shows great difference in activity and enantioselectivity based on the 246 structure of epoxides. A correct combination of epoxide hydrolases and substrates resulted in various 247 substituted chiral epoxides and diols. A number of epoxide hydrolases display the high 248 enantioselectivity for kinetic resolution of disubstituted or polysubstituted epoxides because of the 249 steric effect[62, 63]. It was showed that the epoxide hydrolases from bacteria have almost absolute 250 enantioselectivity for the epoxides with disubstituent on the chiral centre, namely priority hydrolysis of 251 (S)-enantiomer. The level of enantioselectivity was related to the type of the two substituents [64]. The 252 benzyl carbon atom of aromatic epoxides is conducive to be attacked by nucleophilic groups, resulting 253 in that the epoxide hydrolases with enantioselective hydrolysis of this range of epoxides are relatively 254 common in microorganism[65, 66]. A very extensive study showed that the chiral recognition for the 255 mono-substituted epoxides by some epoxide hydrolases was difficult. This was caused by the regional 256 freedom of nucleophilic attack due to the teeny steric hindrance of this range of epoxides.

257 Hydrolytic kinetic resolution is an effective way for synthesis of chiral epichlorohydrin (Fig. 7). 258 However, epichlorohydrin is a kind of the mono-substituted and small molecule epoxides, most 259 epoxide hydrolases revealed the low enantioselectivity for it. As early as 1991, Weijers et al. had 260 reported that the strain *Nocardia* H8 by enantioselective degradation gave (R)-epichlorohydrin in high 261 enantiomerical purity (>98% e.e.) from racemic mixtures, but the yield was only 19%[67]. Choi and his 262 partner successfully obtained (S)-epichlorohydrin from its racemate using an Aspergillus niger with 263 epoxide hydrolase activity, the yield was <5% in the aqueous system but 20% in the organic system by 264 reducing the spontaneous chemical hydrolysis of epichlorohydrin[68, 69].

265

RSC Advances



266 Fig. 7 Synthesis of chiral epichlorohydrin by resolution of its racemate using epoxide hydrolases. 267 More enantioselective epoxide hydrolases from microorganisms were screened and purified in the 268 21st century, and the genes were also cloned and expressed [70-72]. Kim et al. performed the hydrolysis 269 of 50 mM (R,S)-epichlorohydrin using an recombinant epoxide hydrolase from the *Rhodotorula* 270 glutinis, yielding enantiopure (R)-epichlorohydrin with 26% yield [73]. Lee also prepared the chiral 271 epichlorohydrin using a recombinant epoxide hydrolase, and finally (R)-epichlorohydrin with 99% e.e 272 and 28.5% yield at 20 mM of the racemate was obtained [74]. The epoxide hydrolase from 273 Novosphingobium aromaticivorans can enantioselectively hydrolyze the racemic epichlorohydrin at 274 500 mM substrate concentration, but producing (S)-epichlorohydrin in a yield of only 11.9%[75]. It 275 was indicated that these processes were not suitable for industrial production because of the low 276 substrate concentration or yield. With the rapid development of genetic engineering and bioinformatics, 277 it is possible to obtain novel epoxide hydrolase with the higher yield of chiral epichlorohydrin by 278 directed evolution and sequential analysis. Mutant S4 of epoxide hydrolase from A. radiobacter with 279 20-fold higher enantioselectivity for epichlorohydrin was obtained by error-prone PCR and DNA 280 shuffling [76]. The yield of (R)-epichlorohydrin with >99% e.e. was over 40% by kinetic resolution of 281 25.6 mM racemate using this mutant[77].

282 The group of professor Zheng from Zhejiang University of Technology performed a very extensive 283 research for preparation of chiral epichlorohydrin using epoxide hydrolases[77-81]. The genes of 284 epoxide hydrolases from A. radiobacter, Agromyces mediolanus, Rhodococcus sp, and 285 Rhodosporidium toruloides were cloned and expressed in Escherichia coli [53, 77, 78, 80]. Table 2 286 shows the characteristics of epoxide hydrolases from different microorganisms towards 287 epichlorohydrin [77, 78, 80]. The results indicated that both the enantiopure (R)- and 288 (S)-epichlorohydrin were obtained from (R,S)-epichlorohydrin using the corresponding epoxide 289 hydrolases. The epoxide hydrolase from A. radiobacter exhibited the excellent property for the high 290 yield and reaction rate. The (S)-epichlorohydrin was preferentially hydrolyzed due to the lower K_m , but 291 the (R)-epichlorohydrin would be hydrolyzed with a much faster compared to (S)-epichlorohydrin 292 because of the higher $V_{\rm m}$ of (R)-epichlorohydrin when the (S)-epichlorohydrin was completely 293 converted[77]. In addition, the writer also performed the enantioselective hydrolysis of racemic

RSC Advances Accepted Manuscript

294 epichlorohydrin using whole cells of Aspergillus niger ZJB-09173 in cyclohexane. The results showed 295 that the water content had significant influence on the e.e. and yield of (S)-epichlorohydrin. The 296 substrate inhibition, rather than product inhibition was observed in this process. The substrate 297 concentration was markedly increased by continuous feeding of substrate for reducing the substrate 298 inhibition[81]. In another research, both substrate and product inhibition were observed in kinetic 299 resolution of epichlorohydrin using the A. radiobacter epoxide hydrolase. The (R)-epichlorohydrin 300 with a high yield (>27%) and e.e. (>98%) was obtained from over 500 mM substrate concentration in 301 two-phase system by intermittent feeding of the substrate, laying the foundations for its application on 302 the industrial scale[77].

Table 2 The characteristics of epoxide hydrolases from different microorganisms towardsepichlorohydrin

| Microorganism | Isomer | % e.e. | Yield | V_{mS} | V _{mR} | $K_{\mathrm{m}S}$ | $K_{\mathrm{m}R}$ |
|----------------|--------|--------|-------|---------------|-----------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| | | | (%) | (µmol/min/mg) | (µmol/min/mg) | (mM) | (mM) |
| A. radiobacter | R | >99 | 42.7 | 27.8 | 62.5 | 5.3 | 42.5 |
| A. mediolanus | S | >99 | 21.5 | 7.9 | 35.6 | 161 | 56.6 |
| R. toruloides | R | 100 | 18 | — | — | — | — |

305 $V_{mS}, K_{mS}, V_{mR}, K_{mR}$ represent the V_{max} and K_m for (S)- and (R)-epichlorohydrin, respectively.

306 The haloalcohol dehalogenase catalyses the ring closure of 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol to yield 307 epichlorohydrin with low enantioselectivity, but the epoxide hydrolase catalyses enantioselective 308 hydrolysis of epichlorohydrin to remain a single enantiomer. Accordingly, it is believed that there is a 309 good potential for production of chiral epichlorohydrin from 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol by combination 310 of these two enzymes. The reaction was performed in a specially designed reactor by two-step 311 biocatalysis[82]. The reaction mixtures in the first reactor flowed into the second reactor after the ring 312 closure reaction of 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol, but the immobilized haloalcohol dehalogenase was 313 intercepted in the first reactor in order to avoid the racemization of chiral epichlorohydrin in the second 314 step. The formed epichlorohydrin was hydrolyzed with high enantioselectivity by epoxide hydrolase in 315 the second reactor, and finally the (R)-epichlorohydrin with >99% e.e. was successfully obtained. This 316 research offered a potential method to produce the chiral epichlorohydrin from 317 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol.

318 Concluding remarks

319 Enantiomerically pure epichlorohydrin is a valuable chiral intermediate for synthesis of chiral

320 pharmaceuticals. Currently, chiral epichlorohydrin is mainly produced by the chemical methods. 321 Kinetic resolution of racemic epichlorohydrin by chemical catalyst salen-Co revealed the excellent 322 enantioselectivity with >99% e.e. and >45% yield. However, the salen-Co catalyst is expensive and 323 pollutes the environment. It is necessary to find an economical, environmentally friendly, and efficient 324 process of producing the chiral epichlorohydrin. Enzymatic synthesis is qualified for these 325 requirements and considered as a promising alternative method. A lot of haloalcohol dehalogenase and 326 epoxide hydrolase have been screened and applied for preparation of chiral epichlorohydrin, but it is 327 still a long way for their applications in industrial production. The further studies would focus mainly 328 on improvement of substrate concentration and yield by genetic engineering and protein engineering 329 technologies. 330 Acknowledgment 331 This work is supported by the Scientific Research Foundation of Zhejiang Ocean University (No. 332 Q1420). 333 334 References 335 [1] W. J. Choi, Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol., 2009, 84, 239-247. 336 [2] M. Kotik, V. Tepanek, M. Grulich, P. Kyslík and A. Archelas, J. Mol. Catal. B-Enzym., 2010, 65, 337 41-48. 338 [3] N. Kasai, T. Suzuki and Y. Furukawa, *Chirality.*, 1998, **10**, 682-692. 339 [4] K. Kitaori, Y. Takehira, Y. Furukawa, H. Yoshimoto and J. Otera, *Pharm. Bull.*, 1997, 45, 412-414 340 [5] S. Shuto, N. Shibuya, S. Yamada, T. Ohkura, R. Kimura and A. Matsuda, *Chem. Pharm. Bull.*, 341 1999, 47, 1188-1192. 342 [6] M. M. Kabat, A. R. Daniewski and W. Burger, Tetrahedron. Asymmetr., 1997, 8, 2663-2665. 343 [7] X. Zheng, C. W. Jones and M. Weck, *Chem-Eur. J.*, 2006, **12**, 576-583. 344 [8] C. S. Gill, K. Venkatasubbaiah, N. T. S. Phan, M. Weck and C. W. Jones, Chemistry., 2008, 14, 345 7306-7313. 346

- 346 [9] Z. P. Zhao, M. S. Li, J. Y. Zhang, H. N. Li, P. P. Zhu and W. F. Liu, *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.*, 2012, 51,
 347 9531-9539.
- 348 [10] R. L. Osborne, M. K. Coggins, T. James and J. H. Dawson, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 2007, 129, 14838-14839.

- 350 [11] J. Aburto, J. Correa-Basurto and E. Torres, Arch. Biochem. Biophys., 2008, 480, 33-40.
- 351 [12] V. M. Dembitsky, *Tetrahedron.*, 2003, **59**, 4701-4720.
- 352 [13] S. K. Karmee, C. Roosen, C. Kohlmann, S. Lütz, L. Greiner and W. Leitner, Green. Chem., 2009,
- **353** 11, 1052-1055.
- 354 [14] L. P. Hager, F. J. Lakner and A. Basavapathruni, J. Mol. Catal. B-Enzym., 1998, 5, 95-101.
- 355 [15] J. B. Park and D. S. Clark, *Biotechnol. Bioeng.*, 2006, 93, 1190-1195.
- 356 [16] J. Wu, C. Liu, Y. Jiang, M. Hu, S. Li and Q. Zhai, Catal. Commun., 2010, 11, 727-731.
- 357 [17] A. J. van den Wijngaard, P. T. Reuvekamp and D. B. Janssen, J. Bacteriol., 1991, 1, 124-129
- 358 [18] A. Archelas and R. Furstoss, *Annu. Rev. Microbiolo.*, 1997, **51**, 491-525.
- 359 [19] K. Zheng and L. Tang, J. Chem. Ind. Eng., 2008, 59, 2971-2977.
- 360 [20] T. Koudelakova, S. Bidmanova, P. Dvorak, A. Pavelka, R. Chaloupkova, Z. Prokop and J.
- 361 Damborsky, *Biotech. J.*, 2013, **8**, 32-45.
- 362 [21] S. Marcus, R. J. Floor, H. Bernhard, B. Michael, P. A. Jekel, H. J. Wijma, B. W. Dijkstra and D. B.
- 363 Janssen, *Chembiochem.*, 2013, **14**, 870-881.
- 364 [22] Z. Y. You, Z. Q. Liu and Y. G. Zheng, *Appl. Microbiol. Biot.*, 2013, 97, 9-21.
- 365 [23] C. E. Castro, E. W. Bartnicki, *Biochem.*, 1968, 7, 3213-3218.
- 366 [24] J. E. van Hylckama Vlieg, L. Tang, J. H. Lutjie Spelberg, T. Smilda, G. J. Poelarends, T. Bosma,
- 367 et al. J. Bacteriol., 2001, 183, 5058-5066.
- 368 [25] A. J. Van Den Wijngaard, D. B. Janssen and B. Witholt, J. Gen. Microbio., 1989, 135, 2199-2208.
- 369 [26] R. Yonetani, H. Ikatsu, C. Miyake-Nakayama, E. Fujiwara, Y. Maehara, S. I. Miyoshi, H.
- 370 Matsuoka and S. Shinoda, J. Health. Sci., 2004, 50, 605-612.
- 371 [27] N. Kasai, K. Tsujimura, K. Unoura and T. Suzuki, Agric. Biol. Chem., 1990, 54, 3185-3190.
- 372 [28] T. Nakamura, F. Yu, W. Mizunashi and I. Watanabe, Agric. Biol. Chem., 1991, 55, 1931-1933.
- 373 [29] N. Kasai, K. Tsujimura, K. Unoura and T. Suzuki, J. Ind. Microbiol., 1992, 10, 37-43.
- 374 [30] Z. Q. Liu, A. C. Gao, Y. J. Wang, Y. G. Zheng and Y. C. Shen, J. Ind. Microbiol. Biotechnol., 2014,
- **41**, 1145-1158.
- 376 [31] X. Feng, Z. Q. Liu, N. W. Wan and Y. G. Zheng, *Appl. Biochem. Biotechnol.*, 2014, 174, 352-364.
- 377 [32] F. Yu, T. Nakamura, W. Mizunashi and I. Watanabe, *Biosci. Biotechnol. Biochem.*, 1994, 58, 1451-1457.
- 379 [33] R. M. de Jong, J. J. Tiesinga, H. J. Rozeboom, K. H. Kalk, L. Tang, D. B. Janssen and B. W.

- 380 Dijkstra, EMBO. J., 2003, 22, 4933-4944.
- 381 [34] R. M. de Jong, H. J. Rozeboom, K. H. Kalk, L. Tang, D. B. Janssen and B. W. Dijkstra, Acta.
- 382 Crystallogr. D. Biol. Crystallogr., 2002, 58, 176-178.
- 383 [35] R. M. D. Jong, J. J. W. Tiesinga, A. Villa, L. Tang, D. B. Janssen and B. W. Dijkstra, J. Am. Chem.
- *Soc.*, 2005, **127**, 13338-13343.
- 385 [36] R. M. D. Jong, K. H. Kalk, T. Lixia, D. B. Janssen and B. W. Dijkstra, *J. Bacteriol.*, 2006, 188, 4051-4056.
- 387 [37] H. M. S. Assis, A. T. Bull and D. J. Hardman, *Enzyme. Microb. Technol.*, 1998, 22, 545-551.
- 388 [38] T. Nakamura, T. Nagasawa, F. Yu, I. Watanabe and H. Yamada, J. Bacteriol., 1992, 174,
 389 7613-7619.
- 390 [39] T. Nakamura, F. Yu, W. Mizunashi and I. Watanabe, Appl. Environ. Microbiol., 1993, 59, 227-230.
- 391 [40] A. J. Effendi, S. D. Greenaway and B. N. Dancer, *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2000, 66, 2882-2887.
- 393 [41] S. P. Zou, E. H. Du, Z. C. Hu and Y. G. Zheng, *Biotechnol. Lett.*, 2013, **35**, 937-942.
- 394 [42] T. Nakamura, Appl. Environ. Microbiol., 1994, 60, 1297-1301.
- 395 [43] H. X. Jin, Z. C. Hu, Z. Q. Liu and Y. G. Zheng, Biotechnol. Appl. Biochem., 2012, 59, 170-177.
- 396 [44] D. B. Janssen, E. M. Majeri, G. Hasnaoui, B. Hauer and J. H. Lutje Spelberg, *Biochem. Soc. T.*,
 397 2006, 34, 291-295.
- 398 [45] N. Kasai, K. Tsujimura, K. Unoura and T. Suzuki, J. Ind. Microbiol., 1992, 9, 97-101.
- 399 [46] J. H. Lutje Spelberg, J. E. T. van Hylckama Vlieg, T. Bosma, R. M. Kellogg and D. B. Janssen,
- 400 Tetr: Asymm., 1999, 10, 2863-2870.
- 401 [47] G. Hasnaoui-Dijoux, M. Majeric Elenkov, J. H. Lutje Spelberg, B. Hauer and D. B. Janssen,
- 402 *Chembiochem.*, 2008, **9**, 1048-1051.
- 403 [48] M. M. Elenkov, B. Hauer and D. B. Janssen, Adv. Synth. Catal., 2006, 348, 579-585.
- 404 [49] J. H. Lutje Spelberg, L. Tang, M. V. Gelder, R. M. Kellogg and D. B. Janssen, *Tetr. Asymm.*, 2002,
 405 13, 1083-1089.
- 406 [50] G. Hasnaoui, J. H. Lutje Spelberg, E. D. Vries, L. Tang, B. Hauer and D. B. Janssen, *Tetr. Asymm.*,
 407 2005, 16, 1685-1692.
- 408 [51] T. Nakamura, T. Nagasawa, F. Yu, I. Watanabe, H. Yamada, Tetrahedron., 1994, 50, 11821-11826.
- 409 [52] J. H. Lutje Spelberg, L. Tang, R. M. Kellogg and D. B. Janssen, Tetr. Asymm., 2004, 15,

- 410 1095-1102.
- 411 [53] Z. Q. Liu, Y. Li, Y. Y. Xu, L. F. Ping and Y. G. Zheng, Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol., 2007, 74,
- **412** 99-106.
- 413 [54] A. Archelas and R. Furstoss, Curr. Opin. Chem. Biol., 2001, 5, 112-119.
- 414 [55] H. Jin, Q. Wang and Z. Y. Li, *Chinese. J. Chem.* 2001, 19, 272-275.
- 415 [56] J. M. D. Carmo, A. A. D Silva, J. Morgan, Y. X. Wang, S. Munusamy and J. E. Hall, Nutr. Metab.
- 416 *Cardiovas. Dis.*, 2012, **22**, 598-604.
- 417 [57] S. Q. Huang, Y. Wang and Y. Q. Long, Chinese. J. Org. Chem., 2012, 32, 877-888.
- 418 [58] E. Blée and F. Schuber, *Biochem. J.*, 1992, 282, 711-714.
- 419 [59] M. H. Jacobs, A. J. Van den Wijngaard, M. Pentenga and D. B. Janssen, Eur. J. Biochem., 1991,
- **420 202**, 1217-1222.
- 421 [60] C. Morisseau, H. Nellaiah, A. Archelas, R. Furstoss and J. C. Baratti, *Enzyme. Microb. Technol.*,
 422 1997, 20, 446-452.
- 423 [61] Y. Liu, Q. Sha, S. Wu, J. Wang, L. Yang and W. Sun, J. Ind. Microb. Biotechnol., 2006, 33,
 424 274-282.
- 425 [62] U. Wandel, M. Mischitz, W. Kroutil and K. Faber, J. Chem. Soc. Perkin. Trans., 1995, 7, 735-736.
- 426 [63] K. Faber, M. Mischitz, W. Kroutil, E. C. Roos, Q. B. Broxterman, W. J. J. van den Tweel, K.
- 427 Kamphuis, Acta. Chem. Scand., 1996, 50, 249-258.
- 428 [64] A. Steinreiber, I. Osprian, S. Mayer, R. A. Orru and K. Faber, *Eur. J. Org. Chem.*, 2000, 2000,
 429 3703-3711.
- 430 [65] C. A. G. M. Weijers, *Tetr. Asymm.*, 1997, 8, 639-647.
- 431 [66] F. Zocher, M. M. Enzelberger, U. T. Bornscheuer, B. Hauer, W. Wohlleben and R. D. Schmid, J.
- 432 Biotechnol., 2000, 77, 287-292.
- 433 [67] C. A. G. M. Weijers and J. A. M. D. Bont, *Enzyme. Microb. Technol.*, 1991, 13, 306-308.
- 434 [68] W. J. Choi, E. C. Huh, H. J. Park, E. Y. Lee and C. Y. Choi, *Biotechnol. Tech.*, 1998, 12, 225-228.
- 435 [69] W. J. Choi, E. Y. Lee, S. J. Yoon, S. T. Yang and C. Y. Choi, J. Biosci. Bioeng., 1999, 88, 339-341.
- 436 [70] E. Misawa, C. K. Kwo Chion, I. V. Archer, M. P. Woodland, N. Y. Zhou, S. F. Carter and D. A.
- 437 Widdowson, Eur. J. Biochem., 1998, 253, 173-183.
- 438 [71] C. Morisseau, A. Archelas, C. Guitton, D. Faucher, R. Furstoss and J. C. Baratti., Eur. J. Biochem.,
- **439** 1999, **263**, 386-395.

- 440 [72] H. Visser, S. Vreugdenhil, J. A. M. D. Bont and J. C. Verdoes, Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol., 2000,
- **441 53**, 415-419.
- 442 [73] H. S. Kim, J. H. Lee, S. Park and E. Y. Lee, *Biotechnol. Bioproc. Eng.*, 2004, 9, 62-64.
- 443 [74] E. Y. Lee, J. Ind. Eng. Chem., 2007, 13, 159-162.
- 444 [75] J. H. Woo, Y. O. Hwang, J. H. Kang, H. S. Lee, S. J. Kim and S. G. Kang, J. Biosci. Bioeng., 2010,
- **445 110**, 295-297.
- 446 [76] V. L. Bert, J. H. Lutje Spelberg, K. Jaap, S. Theo, M. G. Wubbolts and D. B. Janssen, Chem. Biol.,
- **447** 2004, **11**, 981-990.
- 448 [77] H. X. Jin, Z. Q. Liu, Z. C. Hu and Y. G. Zheng, *Eng. Life Sci.*, 2013, 13, 385-392.
- 449 [78] F. Xue, Z. Q. Liu, S. P. Zou, N. W. Wan, W. Y. Zhu, Q. Zhu and Y. G. Zheng, Process. Biochem.,
- **450** 2014, **49**, 409-417.
- 451 [79] Z. Q. Liu, Y. Li, L. F. Ping, Y. Y. Xu, F. J. Cui, Y. P. Xue and Y. G. Zheng, Process. Biochem.,
- **452** 2007, **42**, 889-894.
- 453 [80] Z. Q. Liu, L. P. Zhang, F. Cheng, L. T. Ruan, Z. C. Hu, Y. G. Zheng, *Catal. Commun.*, 2011, 16,
- **454** 133-139.
- 455 [81] H. X. Jin, Z. C. Hu and Y. G. Zheng, J. Biosci., 2012, 37, 695-702.
- 456 [82] H. X. Jin, Z. Q. Liu, Z. C. Hu and Y. G. Zheng, *Biochem. Eng. J.*, 2013, 74, 1-7.

457