

Structural Basis of Nanomolar Inhibition of Tumor-Associated Carbonic Anhydrase IX: X-Ray Crystallographic and Inhibition Study of Lipophilic Inhibitors with Acetazolamide Backbone

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ABSTRACT: This study provides a structure—activity relationship study of a series of lipophilic carbonic anhydrase (CA) inhibitors with an acetazolamide backbone. The inhibitors were tested against the tumor-expressed CA isozyme IX (CA IX), and the cytosolic CA I, CA II, and membrane-bound CA IV. The study identified several low nanomolar potent inhibitors against CA IX, with lipophilicities spanning two log units. Very potent pan-inhibitors with nanomolar potency against CA IX and sub-nanomolar potency against CA II and CA IV, and with potency against CA I one order of magnitude better than the parent acetazolamide **1** were also identified in this study, together with compounds that displayed selectivity against membrane-bound CA IV. A comprehensive X-ray crystallographic study (12 crystal structures), involving both CA II and a soluble CA IX mimetic (CA IX-mimic), revealed the structural basis of this particular inhibition profile and laid the foundation for further developments toward more potent and selective inhibitors for the tumor-expressed CA IX.

INTRODUCTION

A common feature of many aggressive tumors is hypoxia.¹ Fast tumor growth places many tumor cells sufficiently far from blood vessels resulting in an inadequate amount of oxygen. As a consequence, the hypoxia-inducible factor 1 (HIF-1) is upregulated in hypoxic tumor cells, relocates to the nucleus, and triggers the expression of a group of proteins needed for the adaptation of cancer cells to survive the hypoxic environment.² Among them, carbonic anhydrase isozyme IX (CA IX) plays a key role in maintaining tumor cell pH homeostasis.^{3–10}

Carbonic anhydrases (CAs) are a family of zinc metalloenzyme that catalyzes the reversible hydration of carbon dioxide to bicarbonate ion and a proton ($CO_2 + H_2O \Rightarrow$ $HCO_3^- + H^+$). These isozymes have different subcellular localizations, such as cytosolic (CA I-III, VII, XIII), mitochondrial (CA VA, VB), membrane-bound (CA IV, IX, XII, XIV, and XV), or secreted (CA VI). Through each of these CA isozymes, cells can quickly equilibrate the intracellular and extracellular CO_2/HCO_3^- pools.^{3,5} The distribution of CA isozymes in humans differs from one isozyme to another, with CA isozymes ubiquitously present in most cell and tissue types (*e.g.*, CA I, CA II), in specific organs (*e.g.*, CA IV in lungs, kidneys, ciliary processes of the eye), while others have a relatively restricted tissue distribution (*e.g.*, CA IX only expressed in the epithelium lining the stomach and the small intestine in normal physiology).^{3,11} However, CA IX as well as CA XII have been identified as potential cancer targets. As mentioned previously, the CA IX isozyme is upregulated in tumors,^{5,12–14} where it functions to maintain the extracellular

Received: August 18, 2020





Figure 1. Biochemistry of hypoxic tumor cells: ATP is produced in the absence of oxygen through the upregulation of glycolysis, which also produces pyruvate and protons. Pyruvate is converted to lactate, regenerating NAD⁺ needed for glycolysis, and then lactate is excreted through monocarboxylate transporter (MCT). Intracellular pH homeostasis is maintained without ATP consumption *via* the action of CA isozymes: ubiquitously expressed cytosolic CA I, CA II, and the extracellular membrane-bound CA IX, which is overexpressed in hypoxic tumors. Efficient inhibition of CA IX has thus the potential to kill tumor cells.

Chart 1. CA Inhibitors Used in the Clinics, Together with Some Representative CAIs with High Potency against Membrane-Bound CA Isozymes, Including CA IX



pH homeostasis within normal limits, despite significant upregulation of glycolysis with increased H⁺ production. Thus, in the cytoplasm of hypoxic tumor cells, CA I and CA II catalyze the conversion of glycolytic protons with cytoplasmic HCO₃⁻ to yield CO₂ and H₂O. CO₂ passes through the cell membrane and is rehydrated in the extracellular environment of the tumor by the overexpressed CA IX, reforming the HCO_3^- and H^+ ions. The bicarbonate ion is subsequently imported into the cytoplasm via the anion exchanger AE2, which exports Cl⁻ in exchange for HCO₃⁻. As a net result of the action of CA IX, in tandem with CA I, CA II, and AE2, hypoxic tumor cells can ensure pH homeostasis despite the upregulated glycolysis, efficiently exporting the glycolytic protons in the extracellular milieu without ATP consumption (Figure 1).¹⁵ This key biochemical mechanism allows malignant cells to secure the energy needed for continuous growth and proliferation under hypoxic conditions.¹⁶⁻¹⁸ Thus, CA IX expression has been associated with poor prognosis in colorectal,^{14,19,20} breast,^{12,21,22} ovarian,^{23,24} pancreatic,²⁵ head and neck,²⁶ cervical,^{27,28} brain,²⁹ and bladder cancers.³⁰ Inhibition of CA IX has proved to be a viable strategy to fight these aggressive metastatic tumors.^{3,5,31,32}

However, clinically used CA inhibitors (Chart 1) such as aromatic and heterocyclic primary sulfonamide acetazolamide (1, AAZ), methazolamide (2, MZA), ethoxzolamide (3, EZA), benzolamide (4, BZA), or dichlorphenamide (5, DCP), although relatively potent against CA IX,³ have suboptimal pharmacokinetic and biodistribution profiles due to their hydrophilic nature, being essentially designed to inhibit CA isozymes in kidneys (CA II, CA IV) and to act primarily as diuretics.³³ It was shown by our team that one can conjugate the benzenesulfonamide and 1,3,4-thiadiazole-2-sulfonamide zinc-binding motifs with different hydrophilic, amphiphilic, or hydrophobic moieties^{34–38} to increase the potency and selectivity of the resulting CA inhibitors (CAIs) by exploiting



Figure 2. Ribbon diagram (A) and active site details (B) of the 7/CAII (PDB 2HOC,⁵⁸ rendered in light yellow), 8/CA II (PDB 3N4B,⁵⁴ rendered in light blue), 9/CA II (PDB 1ZE8,⁶² rendered in gray) adducts (superimposed), revealing the orientation of the tail of the inhibitor either toward P1 (defined by residues Phe131, Val135, Leu198) for CAIs 7, 8 or P2 (defined by residues Ile91, Gln92, Phe131) for CAI 9.





the additional interactions of these moieties with key residues in the active site of CA isozymes in the so-called "tail approach" to potent and selective CAIs.³⁹ We applied this strategy to CA IX isozyme by synthesizing the halogenated aromatic and heterocyclic sulfonamides 6, 7 and congeners, in the first CA IX inhibition study with synthetic inhibitors (Chart 1).³² The same tail approach also yielded the ureido and thioureido sulfonamides as potent CAIs,³⁶ and subsequent modulation of lipophilicity through halogen decoration yielded powerful CA IX inhibitors such as 8.40 Other strategies involve conjugation of CAIs with charged groups (as in CAIs 9 and 10)^{34,35,37,41,42} with sugar⁴³⁻⁴⁷ or with polymeric moieties (as 11, Chart 1).⁴⁸ These lead compounds demonstrated the ability to inhibit CA IX and control the growth of various carcinomas in vitro and in vivo.45,49-51 Compound 8 (SLC-0111) was proved to be efficient against metastatic breast cancer^{40,52-54} and is currently in advanced clinical trials for the treatment of hypoxic tumors that overexpress CA IX (Chart 1). $^{3-5,49,55}$ The strategy was successfully used for the generation of many potent CA IX inhibitors. $^{3,5,46,51,55-57}$

In parallel with these synthetic efforts, we also conducted Xray crystallographic studies with these lead compounds to reveal their binding in the active site of CAs and to elucidate the structural basis of their potency and selectivity.^{5,58–61} Thus, crystal structures of the adducts of 7/CAII (PDB 2HOC⁵⁸), 8/CA II (PDB 3N4B⁵⁴), 9/CA II (PDB 1ZE8⁶²), and related^{5,58–61} reveal that the tail approach is exploiting the binding of the elongated CAIs in two major binding pockets, denominated P1 and P2 (Figure 2).^{5,58,62–64} The first binding pocket, denominated P1, is defined by residues Phe131, Val135, and Leu198, while the second pocket, denominated P2, is defined by residues Phe131, Ile91, and Gln92 (Figure 2).^{5,58,62-64} These crystallographic studies helped toward the design of more potent CA IX inhibitors^{57,65-69} and benefitted from the crystallization of the catalytic domain of CA IX⁷ and by the creation of a CA IX mimic by replacing the key amino acid residues in the active site of CA II with the corresponding ones found in the CA IX structure.⁷⁰ The abovementioned crystallographic studies evidenced that there are major structural differences between ubiquitous CA II and tumor-overexpressed CA IX at the level of P2 site. CA II has a Phe in position 131, which restricts the P2 site in this isozyme much larger.

One can notice that this site is also hydrophobic, pointing to the fact that one can increase simultaneously the potency and the selectivity of a CAI toward CA IX through the use of lipophilic moieties, which can locate either in the P1 or in the P2 site. Therefore, we have decided to systematically investigate the effect of conjugating the 2-amino-5-sulfonamido-1,3,4-thiadiazole pharmacophore of acetazolamide with lipophilic moieties of increased size toward inhibition of CA IX, in a comparative manner with ubiquitously spread CA II and to double this synthetic and inhibition study with a comprehensive X-ray crystallographic study on CA II and CA IX.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The new CAIs were synthesized starting from the same key intermediate 2-amino-5-sulfonamido-1,3,4-thiadiazole 12 *via* acylation with the corresponding acid chlorides in the presence of pyridine as base, in acetonitrile (method A), or with the corresponding acid anhydrides in acetonitrile, at reflux (method B). The key intermediate 12 was synthesized from

acetazolamide (AAZ) 1 via acid deprotection, followed by neutralization of the corresponding hydrochloride (Scheme 1). CAIs 13–18 were purified by flash chromatography, crystallized, and characterized by standard analytical methods (see the Materials section).

The lipophilic CAIs 13–18 were tested for their ability to inhibit the tumor-overexpressed CA IX isozyme, the ubiquitous cytosolic CA I and CA II isozymes, and the membrane-bound isozyme CA IV that can be reached *in vivo* by compounds 13–18. The parent Acetazolamide 1 was also included for comparison (Table 1). Data from Table 1

Table 1. Physicochemical Properties and Inhibition Data against Human CA Isoforms CA I, II, IV, and IX with Derivatives 13–18 Reported Here and with the Standard Inhibitor Acetazolamide (AAZ, 1) by a Stopped-Flow CO_2 Hydrase Assay

			$K_{\rm I} ({\rm nM})^a$			
comp	R	log P	CA I	CA II	CA IV	CA IX
AAZ	l Me	0.14	250	12.1	74	25.8
13	Et	0.8	66.8	2.7	0.78	12.8
14	nPr	1.21	53.8	0.52	0.37	2.1
15	iPr	1.36	75.1	0.59	0.44	2.4
16	tBu	2.07	63.4	0.66	0.43	8.2
17	cHex	2.12	62.8	0.53	0.36	15.7
18	Ad	2.28	883	11.0	349	6.4
a Moon	from three	different	0000000	by a stop	nod flow	tachniqua

"Mean from three different assays, by a stopped-flow technique (errors were in the range of $\pm 5-10\%$ of the reported values). Monomeric (recombinant) human enzymes used in all cases.

revealed an excellent inhibitory profile of compounds 13-18 against CA II, CA IV, and CA IX, with nanomolar and even sub-nanomolar potency of some representatives against these targets. The CA I isozyme was the least susceptible to be inhibited with CAIs 13-18. The inhibitory potency of the new compounds increased while elongating the tail length from Me (AAZ 1) to Et (13) and nPr (14). Tail branching to iPr (compound 15), tBu (compound 16), or cHexyl (compound 17) does not significantly increase the potency of the CAI toward CA I. However, the substitution of cHexyl moiety from 17 with much bulkier adamantly (Ad in Scheme 1) in 18 lowers the inhibitory potency with 1 order of magnitude (Table 1). The same trend is valid for the other three isozymes: the initial elongation of the tail of the inhibitor increases the potency of the inhibitor, with nPr congener 14 being the most potent representative against CA II, IV, and IX, and reaching low nanomolar potency for CA IX and subnanomolar potency for CA II and CA IV. Branching of the tail in iPr (compound 15), tBu (compound 16), and cHexyl (compound 17) does not alter much the inhibitory potency against CA II and CA IV, which remain sub-nanomolar. However, CA IX seems to be more sensitive to this branching effect, with K_{I} 's values increasing from nPr congener 14 to *i*Pr congener 15, then to tBu congener 16 and cHexyl congener 17. The combined effect of tail branching and bulkiness in adamantyl congener 18 decreases the potency of the CAI relative to cHexyl congener 17 1 order of magnitude for CA II (similarly to CA I) and 2 orders of magnitude for CA IV. Interestingly, adamantane derivative 18 retained nanomolar potency for CA IX, although about three times weaker than nPr congener 14.

To provide a solid structural basis of the inhibitory profile of CAIs 13–18, we undertook an extensive X-ray crystallographic study using the cytosolic CA II and the CA IX mimic.⁷⁰ The results are summarized in Figures 3–5. The 12 crystal structures were solved with high resolutions, ranging from 1.3 to 1.7 Å (Supporting Information Tables 1 and 2). The inhibitors bound as expected within active sites of both CA II and CA IX, anchoring their sulfonamide moiety through the catalytic zinc. All compounds displayed full electron density including tail atoms as seen in Figure 3. While examining these figures, one can observe that the tail of inhibitors 13–18 resides only in the hydrophobic pocket P1 in the case of the CA IX.

As seen in Figure 4B,I, compound 13 binds in a similar fashion in both CA isoforms with the exception of the final methyl group on the tail portion. In CAII, the methyl tail is positioned away from the bulky F131 and resides in pocket P2. In contrast, in CA IX, the methyl tail of compound 13 binds in pocket P1 adjacent to residue 131. Mention must be made that P1 pocket is larger in CA IX as compared with CA II, having a Val instead of a Phe in position 131, and therefore can accommodate easily hydrophobic tails of increased steric bulk, from Et (congener 13) to adamantyl (congener 18). The location of the hydrophobic tail of compounds 13-18, in the large, hydrophobic pocket P1 of CA IX explains the constant nanomolar potency of these compounds against this target despite the significant increase in steric bulk and lipophilicity (log P's between 0.8 and 2.28, Table 1). Even the bulkiest adamantyl derivative 18 can be fully accommodated in the P1 of CA IX, which explains why this derivative is most potent against CA IX. The pattern displayed by compound 13 binding in CA IX is repeated with the rest of the compounds, as seen in Figure 4C–G.

In contrast, in the case of CA II isozyme, the hydrophobic tail of compounds 13-18 was found to be located mostly in P2, opposite with the case of parent acetazolamide AAZ 1 that has the methyl located in the P1 pocket, 59,71 thus revealing the importance of the tail approach also used in this study (Figure 4J-N). Interestingly, the only CAI that had the tail located outside the P2 pocket of CA II was the tBu derivative 16. In this case, the tBu moiety is in fact located in between P1 and P2 pockets, displacing gently the Phe131 residue that normally separates the P1 and P2 pockets in CA II from its normal position (Figures 3-5). This translates into a slight decrease of potency relative to congeners 15 and 17 (Table 1). Compounds 13-17 each had higher specificity toward CA II over CA IX. With their smaller, nonbulky tails, these inhibitors were able to bind in the P2 pocket of CA II, resulting in stable and high-affinity binding. On the contrary, in CA IX, these inhibitors' tails went to the less sterically hindered P1 pocket binding near Val131 (Figure 3). However, with the addition of a bulky adamantyl group to the tail, steric clashes start to interfere with P2 pocket binding, thus specificity toward CA II drops. On the contrary, in CA IX, the adamantyl group can still bind with relatively high affinity to the less bulky P1 pocket of CA IX (Figure 3).

CONCLUSIONS

A detailed structure–activity relationship study was carried out within a series of lipophilic CAI with acetazolamide backbone 13–18. The CAIs were profiled against the tumor-overex-pressed CA IX, against ubiquitous cytosolic CA I and CA II and against membrane-bound CA IV. We identified several low



Figure 3. continued



Figure 3. CA Inhibitors 13–18 electron density. Panels (A–F) are CA II and (G–L) are CA IX mimic complexes. CA II complex with (A) CAI 13 green, (B) CAI 14 blue, (C) CAI 15 pink, (D) CAI 16 yellow, (E) CAI 17 peach, and (F) CAI 18 purple. CA IX complex with (G) CAI 13 green, (H) CAI 14 blue, (I) CAI 15 pink, (J) CAI 16 yellow, (K) CAI 17 peach, and (L) CAI 18 purple. The 2FO-FC electron density maps (blue mesh) for each of the inhibitors are contoured to 1.0σ . Active site zinc is depicted as a magenta sphere.

nanomolar potent inhibitors against CA IX, with lipophilicities spanning two log units. We also identified very potent pan inhibitors such as 14, with nanomolar potency against CA IX and sub-nanomolar potency against CA II and CA IV, and a good inhibition profile (1 order of magnitude) better than parent acetazolamide 1 against CA I. The adamantane derivative 18 displayed high potency against CA IX and CA II, involved in tumor pH homeostasis (Figure 1) and selectivity against membrane-bound CA IV, features that recommend this compound for translation to *in vivo* studies for the treatment of hypoxic solid tumors. We revealed the structural basis of these particular inhibition profiles through a comprehensive X-ray crystallographic study involving both CA II and CA IX comparatively, thus laying the basis for further developments toward more potent and selective inhibitors for the tumoroverexpressed CA IX isozyme.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Materials. The following materials were used as received: propionic anhydride, butyric anhydride isobutyric anhydride (TCI America, Portland, OR), acetazolamide, pivaloyl chloride, cyclohexane carboxylic acid, adamantane carboxylic acid (Sigma, St Louis, MO); other salts, acids, and solvents (HPLC quality) were purchased from Fisher Scientific (Pittsburgh, PA), EMD (Gibbstown, NJ), and VWR International (West Chester, PA), respectively.

Techniques. The purity and the structure identity of the intermediary and the final products were assessed by a combination of techniques that included thin-layer chromatography (TLC), HPLC-MS, ¹H NMR, COSY, and ¹³C NMR, high-resolution mass spectrometry (HR-MS). TLC was carried out on SiO₂-precoated aluminum plates (silica gel with F254 indicator); layer thickness 200 μ m; pore size 60 Å, from Sigma-Aldrich. Melting points were determined using a Thermolyne heating stage microscope (Dubuque, IA), equipped with an Olympus 5X objective, at heating/cooling rate of ~4 °C/min and were uncorrected. The purity of compounds was assessed via liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) using an Agilent 1200 HPLC-DAD-MS system equipped with a G1315A DAD and a 6130 Quadrupole MS using a ZORBAX SB-C18 column, eluted with H₂O (0.1% HCOOH)/MeCN (0.1% HCOOH) 95/5 to 0/100 linear gradient. NMR spectra were recorded at \approx 300 K with a Bruker Avance III 400 Plus spectrometer equipped with a 5 mm indirect detection probe, operating at 400 MHz for ¹H NMR, at 100 MHz for ¹³C NMR. Chemical shifts are reported as δ values, using tetramethylsilane (TMS) as an internal standard for proton spectra and the solvent resonance for carbon spectra. Assignments were made based on chemical shifts, signal intensity, COSY, HMQC, and HMBC sequences. For ¹H NMR, data are reported as follows: chemical shift, multiplicity (s = singlet, d = doublet, t = triplet, sep = septet, m = multiplet), coupling constants J (Hz), and integration.

Synthesis of 5-Amino-1,3,4-thiadiazole-2-sulfonamide (2). 5-Amino-1,3,4-thiadiazole-2-sulfonamide **2** was synthesized by deprotection of acetazolamide as previously described.^{34,72}

General Procedure for the Synthesis of Acyl Derivatives 13–16 (Method A). In a 100 mL round-bottom flask, 5-amino-1,3,4thiadiazole-2-sulfonamide 2 (1.8 g, 10 mmol) was suspended in dry acetonitrile (30 mL) and cooled to 0-5 °C using an ice bath. The corresponding anhydride (12 mmol) was added dropwise to the cold suspension, under stirring. The ice bath was removed and the reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for another 30 min, followed by heating it to reflux (TLC control, MeOH/CH₂Cl₂ 20/80 v/v). After all amine was consumed (1-3 h reflux), the reaction mixture was cooled and the solvent was evaporated to a small volume using a rotary evaporator when the product precipitates. The crude product was filtered out, washed with cold acetonitrile, and dried under vacuum. Recrystallization from alcohols (MeOH, EtOH) usually yielded the pure product, as evidenced by LC-MS (>96%). When purity was not satisfactory, flash chromatography was performed using MeOH/CH₂Cl₂ gradients. The pure fractions (by TLC) were grouped, evaporated to dryness, and crystallized from MeOH or EtOH. Reaction advancement was checked by TLC, and its completion was confirmed by LC-MS.

N-(5-Sulfamoyl-1,3,4-thiadiazol-2-yl)propionamide (**13**). Mp 249–252 °C (lit³³ mp 147–148 °C, lit⁷³ mp 247–248 °C); yield 85.2%; ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6 , δ , ppm): 12.96 (s, 1H, –CONH), 8.32 (s, 2H, –SO₂NH₂), 2.54 (q, *J* = 7.5 Hz, 2H, <u>CH</u>₂CONH), and 1.13 (t, *J* = 7.5 Hz, 3H, <u>CH</u>₃CH₂CONH); ¹³C NMR (DMSO- d_6 , δ , ppm): 172.9 (–CONH), 164.2 (C5 TDA), 161.1 (C2, TDA), 28.2 (–<u>C</u>H₂CONH), and 8.7 (<u>C</u>H₃CH₂CONH); LC-MS: C₅H₈N₄O₃S₂, exact mass: 236.0; found: 237.0 (MH⁺).

N-(5-Sulfamoyl-1,3,4-thiadiazol-2-yl)butyramide (14). Mp 276– 280 °C (lit³³ mp 260–262 °C); yield 81.5%; ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6 , δ , ppm): 12.99 (s, 1H, –CONH), 8.32 (s, 2H, –SO₂NH₂), 2.53 (m, 2H, <u>CH₂CONH</u>), and 1.65 (sext, J = 7.4 Hz, 3H, CH₃<u>CH₂CH₂CONH</u>); 0.90 (t, J = 7.4 Hz, 3H, <u>CH₃CH₂CH₂CONH</u>); 1°C NMR (DMSO- d_6 , δ , ppm): 172.1 (–CONH), 164.2 (C5 TDA), 161.0 (C2, TDA), 36.6 (–<u>CH₂CONH</u>), 17.8 (–<u>CH₂CH₂CONH</u>), and 13.4 (<u>CH₃CH₂CH₂CONH</u>); LC-MS: C₆H₁₀N₄O₃S₂, exact mass: 250.0; found: 251.0 (MH⁺).

N-(5-Sulfamoyl-1,3,4-thiadiazol-2-yl)isobutyramide (**15**). Mp 281–283 °C (lit³³ mp 280–283 °C); yield 79.2%; ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6 , δ , ppm): 12.98 (s, 1H, –CONH), 8.32 (s, 2H, –SO₂NH₂), 2.82 (hep, *J* = 6.8 Hz, 1H, <u>CH</u>CONH), and 1.15 (d, *J* = 6.9 Hz, 6H, (<u>CH₃)₂CHCONH</u>); ¹³C NMR (DMSO- d_6 , δ , ppm): 176.0 (–CONH), 164.3 (C5 TDA), 161.2 (C2, TDA), 33.9 (–<u>C</u>HCONH), and 18.8 (<u>CH₃)₂CHCONH</u>; LC-MS: C₆H₁₀N₄O₃S₂, exact mass: 250.0; found: 251.0 (MH⁺).

General Procedure for the Synthesis of Acyl Derivatives 17,18 (Method B). In a 100 mL round-bottom flask, 5-amino-1,3,4thiadiazole-2-sulfonamide 2 (1.8 g, 10 mmol) was suspended in dry



Figure 4. continued

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Figure 4. Interactions of inhibitors 13–18 with CA II and CA IX. Panels (A) and (H) are the unbound active sites of CA II (PDB 3KS3) and CA IX mimic (PDB 4ZAO), respectively. Panels (B–G) are CA II and panels (I–N) are CA IX mimic complexes. CA II complex with (B) CAI 13 green, (C) CAI 14 blue, (D) CAI 15 pink, (E) CAI 16 yellow, (F) CAI 17 peach, and (G) CAI 18 purple. CA IX complex with (I) CAI 13, (J) CAI 14 blue, (K) CAI 15 pink, (L) CAI 16 yellow, (M) CAI 17 peach, and (N) CAI 18 purple. Active site zinc is depicted as a magenta sphere, and active site histidines are represented by sticks. Ordered active site waters are represented by red spheres.



Figure 5. Superposition of CAIs 13–18 binding. Surface representation of (A) CA II and (B) CA IX mimic in complex with CAIs 13–18. CAI 13 green, CAI 14 blue, CAI 15 pink, CAI 16 yellow, CAI 17 peach, and CAI 18 purple. Note that residue 131 has a key role in the binding modes of the tails of the inhibitors in CA II and CA IX.

acetonitrile (20 mL), under stirring. Pyridine (0.95 g, 12 mmol) was added via a syringe and the reaction mixture was cooled to 0-5 °C using an ice bath. The corresponding acyl chloride (12 mmol, made from the corresponding acid with thionyl chloride), dissolved in 5-10mL of dry acetonitrile, was added dropwise to the cold suspension, under stirring. Stirring was continued for 1 h when a white precipitate of pyridinium chloride was formed. The ice bath was removed and the reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature until completion (TLC control, MeOH/CH₂Cl₂ 20/80 v/v). The solvent was evaporated to dryness using a rotary evaporator and the residue was treated with 10 mL of DI water, stirred for 5 min, then filtered, and washed with cold DI water. Recrystallization from alcohols (MeOH, EtOH) usually yielded the pure product, as evidenced by LC-MS (>96%). When purity was not satisfactory, flash chromatography was performed using MeOH/CH₂Cl₂ gradients. The pure fractions (by TLC) were grouped, evaporated to dryness, and crystallized from MeOH or EtOH. Reaction advancement was checked by TLC and its completion was confirmed by LC-MS.

N-(5-Sulfamoyl-1,3,4-thiadiazol-2-yl)pivalamide (**16**). Mp 256–258 °C (lit⁷⁴ mp 252−254 °C); yield 82.1%; ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_{6} , δ , ppm): 12.73 (s, 1H, −CONH), 8.32 (s, 2H, −SO₂NH₂), and 1.28 (s, 9H, <u>(CH₃)₃CCONH)</u>; ¹³C NMR (DMSO- d_{6} , δ , ppm): 177.4 (−CONH), 164.4 (C5 TDA), 161.9 (C2, TDA), 30.6 (−<u>C</u>CONH), and 26.3 (<u>C</u>H₃)₃CCONH; LC-MS: C₇H₁₂N₄O₃S₂, exact mass: 264.0; found: 265.0 (MH⁺).

N-(5-Sulfamoyl-1,3,4-thiadiazol-2-yl)cyclohexanecarboxamide (17). Mp 255–259 °C; yield 78.6%; ¹H NMR (DMSO- $d_{6'}$, δ , ppm): 12.96 (s, 1H, –CONH), 8.32 (s, 2H, –SO₂NH₂), 2.55 (m, 1H, C<u>H</u>CONH), and 1.10–1.90 (m, 10H, cyclohexyl); ¹³C NMR (DMSO- $d_{6'}$, δ , ppm): 175.0 (–CONH), 164.3 (C5 TDA), 161.2 (C2, TDA), 42.3 (<u>C</u>aCONH), 28.5 (2C, <u>C</u> β CONH), 25.1 (<u>C</u> δ CONH), and 24.9 (2C, <u>C</u> γ CONH); LC-MS: C₉H₁₄N₄O₃S₂, exact mass: 290.0; found: 291.0 (MH⁺); anal (C₉H₁₄N₄O₃S₂) C, H, N. Requires: C 37.23, H 4.86, N 19.30; found: C 37.20, H 4.95, N 19.36.

N-(5-Sulfamoyl-1,3,4-thiadiazol-2-yl)adamantanecarboxamide (**18**). Mp 246–248 °C (lit⁷⁵ mp 246–248 °C); yield 75.2%; ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6 , δ , ppm): 12.68 (s, 1H, –CONH), 8.31 (s, 2H, –SO₂NH₂), 1.82–2.10 (m, 9H, Ad), and 1.60–1.80 (m, 6H, Ad); ¹³C NMR (DMSO- d_6 , δ , ppm): 176.7 (–CONH), 164.4 (C5 TDA), 161.9 (C2, TDA), 40.8 (<u>Cα</u>CONH Ad), 37.3 (3C, <u>Cβ</u>CONH Ad), 35.6 (3C, <u>Cγ</u>CONH Ad), and 27.3 (3C, <u>Cδ</u>CONH Ad); LC-MS: C₁₃H₁₆N₄O₃S₂, exact mass: 340.0; found: 341.0 (MH⁺).

CA Inhibition Assay. An applied photophysics stopped-flow instrument has been used for assaying the CA-catalyzed CO2 hydration activity.⁷⁶ Phenol red (at a concentration of 0.2 mM) has been used as an indicator, working at the absorbance maximum of 557 nm, with 20 mM Hepes (pH 7.5) as buffer, and 20 mM Na_2SO_4 (for maintaining constant the ionic strength), following the initial rates of the CA-catalyzed CO_2 hydration reaction for a period of 10–100 s. The CO₂ concentrations ranged from 1.7 to 17 mM for the determination of the kinetic parameters and inhibition constants. For each inhibitor, at least six traces of the initial 5-10% of the reaction have been used for determining the initial velocity. The uncatalyzed rates were determined in the same manner and subtracted from the total observed rates. Stock solutions of inhibitor (0.1 mM) were prepared in distilled-deionized water and dilutions up to 0.01 nM were done thereafter with the assay buffer. Inhibitor and enzyme solutions were preincubated together for 15 min at room temperature prior to assay to allow for the formation of the E-I complex. The inhibition constants were obtained by nonlinear least-squares methods using PRISM 3 and the Cheng-Prusoff equation, as reported earlier,³⁸ and represent the mean from at least three different determinations. All CA isoforms were recombinant ones obtained inhouse as reported earlier.^{21,32,75,}

Protein Expression and Purification. CA II and CA IX mimic were expressed and purified according to previously published protocols.⁷⁰ Briefly, the gene-containing plasmid was transformed into competent BL21 *Escherichia coli* cells *via* a standard BL21 transformation protocol. After growth in SOC media, the cultures

were transferred to an overnight growth in nutrient-rich Luria Broth. Cultures were then allowed to grow to an optical density of 0.6 at 600 nm in a 2 L culture flask in the presence of selecting antibiotic. The *E. coli* was then induced by the addition of 0.5 mM isopropyl β -D-1-thiogalactoside (IPTG) and 1 mM zinc sulfate and incubated for an additional 3 h. Cells were then lysed using a microfluidizer set to 18 000 psi and purified using affinity chromatography with a benzenesulfonamide resin. Purity was determined with SDS-Page and concentration was determined by UV–vis spectroscopy at 280 nm.

X-ray Crystallography. CAII and CA IX mimic were cocrystallized with a series of 6 CA inhibitors 3-8. Each crystallization drop was prepared by adding 4.5 μ L of protein in a 1:1 ratio with 4.5 μ L of the precipitant solution of 1.6 M sodium citrate and 50 mM Tris at a pH of 7.8 to a final volume of 9 μ L. Inhibitor stock solutions of varying concentrations were made in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) to determine solubility. Approximately, 1 μ L of 200 mM of each inhibitor was added to the crystallization drop to a final volume of 10 μ L. Crystal trays were incubated at room temperature and undisturbed for 2 weeks until crystals formed. The complexes of CAI 8 could not be obtained via cocrystallization due to the high log P value of the inhibitor. Instead, the preformed crystals of CA II and CA IX mimic were soaked with ~80 mM CAI 8 in 10% DMSO. Data was collected at cryogenic temperatures at Cornell High Energy Synchrotron Source (CHESS) and Stanford Synchrotron Radiation Lightsource (SSRL), using a Pilatus 6M detector. The diffraction images were indexed, integrated, merged, and scaled to the P21 space group using XDS via the CCP4 program suite⁷⁸ The diffraction data was phased with standard Molecular replacement methods using the software package PHENIX with the PDB entry 3KS3 as the search model.7 Coordinate refinements and inhibitor restraints were calculated using PHENIX.⁷⁹ The program Coot was utilized in between refinements to add a solvent and inhibitor molecules and make individual real space refinements of each residue when needed.⁸¹ Figures were generated in the molecular graphical software PyMol (Schrodinger LLC), and protein-ligand interactions and bond lengths were determined using LigPlot Plus.⁸² The inhibitor surface interactions were determined using online server PDB Pisa.⁸¹

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.jmedchem.0c01390.

Crystallographic CA II complex structure statistics; and crystallographic CA IX_{mimic} -complex structure statistics (PDF)

HPLC traces of investigated compounds (PDF) Smiles (CSV)

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Author Contributions

The manuscript was written through the contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We would like to thank the staff, operators, and scientists at SSRL and CHESS for their assistance in X-ray crystallography data acquisition. MAI acknowledges the financial support of NIH (Grant R03EB026189) and of Edward N. & Della Thome Memorial Foundation. Suleyman Akocak acknowledges the financial support of the Turkish Minister of Education for a PhD scholarship. The support of Temple Undergraduate Research Program is also gratefully acknowledged.

ABBREVIATIONS

CA, carbonic anhydrase; CAI, carbonic anhydrase inhibitor; HIF-1, hypoxia-inducible factor 1; ATP, adenosine triphosphate; AAZ, acetazolamide; MZA, methazolamide; EZA, ethoxzolamide; BZA, benzolamide; DCP, dichlorphenamide; IPTG, isopropyl β -D-1-thiogalactoside; CHESS, Cornell High Energy Synchrotron Source; SSRL, Stanford Synchrotron Radiation Lightsource

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