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# On-column ligand exchange for structure-based drug design: a case study with human  $11\beta$ -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type 1

Successfully forming ligand–protein complexes with specific compounds can be a significant challenge in supporting structure-based drug design for a given protein target. In this respect, an on-column ligand- and detergent-exchange method was developed to obtain ligand–protein complexes of an adamantane series of compounds with  $11\beta$ -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type  $1\,(11\beta\text{-HSD1})$ after a variety of other complexation methods had failed. This report describes the on-column exchange method and an unexpected byproduct of the method in which artificial trimers were observed in the structures.

## 1. Introduction

One of the challenges in structure-based drug design is obtaining structures of the target protein with specific chemical compounds. Often, these compounds are identified from compound screens or are synthesized as part of lead-optimization activities. Depending on the chemical matter, it can be problematic to make the ligand–protein complexes required for crystallization and structure determination. In these attempts a number of complexation methods are commonly used, including soaking, displacement soaking, cocrystallization with ligands, adding ligands during purification, solution ligand exchange prior to crystallization or co-expression of the target protein with ligands (Hassell et al., 2007). In a structure-based drug-design effort with  $11\beta$ -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type 1 (11 $\beta$ -HSD1), obtaining structures with specific adamantane-based ligands proved to be particularly problematic.

11β-HSD1, an NADPH-dependent enzyme, is the principal enzyme in humans that catalyzes the conversion of the inactive glucocorticoid cortisone to the active glucocorticoid cortisol (Tomlinson et al., 2004). The isoform  $11\beta$ -HSD2 catalyses the reverse reaction and together they regulate tissue-specific glucocorticoid levels (Asensio et al., 2004; Tomlinson et al., 2004). Glucocorticoids are steroid hormones that are important regulators of glucose production and lipid homeostasis in tissues. Glucocorticoid excess in tissues can lead to obesity or metabolic syndrome, expressed as central obesity, insulin resistance or glucose intolerance, dyslipidemia and hypertension (Asensio et al., 2004; Rosmond, 2004; Tomlinson et al., 2004). Patients with metabolic syndrome are therefore at increased risk of coronary heart disease, stroke and type 2 diabetes. Cushing's syndrome, which has many symptoms resembling metabolic syndrome, is also correlated with excess cortisol (Asensio et al., 2004; Mariniello et al., 2006). Inhibiting  $11\beta$ -HSD1 is therefore seen as a promising treatment for metabolic syndrome and other metabolic diseases. This hypothesis has been further strengthened by studies in animal models (Masuzaki et al., 2001; Morton et al., 2001, 2004; Kotelevtsev et al., 1997; Alberts et al., 2002, 2003).

Although several different classes of potent and selective inhibitors of  $11\beta$ -HSD1 have been reported to date, with many the result of efforts in structure-based drug design (Hale et al., 2008; Johansson et al., 2008; Julian et al., 2008; Sun et al., 2008; Tu et al., 2008; Wan et al., 2009), in our research efforts we were unable to generate complex structures of  $11\beta$ -HSD1 with our specific synthesized ligands using commonly utilized complexation methods. In each case the detergent

which was necessary for protein solubilization also occupied the active site and was not displaced by our compounds. In order to obtain the required complexes with our specific ligands, we therefore developed an on-column ligand- and detergent-exchange method prior to crystallization which allowed us to generate protein–ligand crystal structures. In this study, we report the on-column exchange method and an unexpected assembly of the protein N-terminal tags in the crystal packing.

## 2. Materials and methods

The methods for cloning, expression and initial purification for crystallization trials of  $11\beta$ -HSD1 followed the method described by Hosfield et al. (2005) with some adaptation. These are briefly described as follows.

## 2.1. Cloning and expression

A recombinant N-terminally truncated form of human  $11\beta$ -HSD1 with a C-terminal domain cysteine point mutation  ${6(HQ) - [11\beta + HSD -}$ 1 (24–292) C272S]} was expressed in Escherichia coli DH10b-Tir cells. The cells were plated on Luria broth–ampicillin  $(200 \text{ mg l}^{-1})$  plates overnight. The next day, fresh transformants were used to inoculate Fernbach flasks containing 11 Luria broth and carbenicillin  $(200 \text{ mg l}^{-1})$ . Cells were grown at 310 K to an OD of 0.41; the cultures were then supplemented with 0.25 mM corticosterone, the flasks were shifted to 303 K and expression was induced by the addition of 0.2% arabinose. The cells were harvested 5 h post-induction by centrifugation and frozen at 188 K.

## 2.2. Purification of  $11\beta$ -HSD1 for initial crystallization experiments

Frozen cells were resuspended in lysis buffer (50 mM Tris, 150 mM NaCl, 30 mM CHAPS {3-[(3-cholamidopropyl)dimethylammonio]-1-propanesulfonate} pH 7.9, 40  $\mu$ g ml<sup>-1</sup> Benzonase, 2  $\mu$ l ml<sup>-1</sup> Ready-Lyse (Epicentre Biotechnologies, Madison, Wisconsin, USA)), lysed, incubated at room temperature for 1 h and clarified by centrifugation at 28 000g for 30 min to remove insoluble material. The supernatant



## Figure 1

Representative compounds reported in this study: (a) (1S,3S,4S,5R,7S)-4-[2-(4 methoxyphenoxy)-2-methylpropionylamino]-adamantane-1-carboxylic acid amide (compound 1), (b) 2-(2-chloro-4-fluorophenoxy)- $N$ -[(1R,2S,5S,7S)-5-methanesulfonyl-adamantan-2-yl]-2-methylpropionamide (compound 2).

was then passed through a 0.45 µm vacuum filter and loaded onto an Ni–IDA ProBond column (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, California, USA). The column was washed with loading buffer (50 mM Tris pH 7.6, 4 mM CHAPS, 40 mM imidazole, 250 mM NaCl) and eluted isocratically with elution buffer (loading buffer with 200 mM imidazole pH 7.8). This was followed by a Sephadex G-25 column (GE Healthcare, Piscataway, New Jersey, USA) with running buffer consisting of 25 mM Tris, 250 mM NaCl, 4 mM CHAPS pH 7.6. Fractions identified as  $11\beta$ -HSD1 by SDS-PAGE were pooled and concentrated to 11 mg  $ml^{-1}$  using a 10 kDa membrane cutoff Amicon Centriprep (Millipore, Billerica, Massachusetts) at 277 K.

## 2.3. Adamantane-class compounds

The compounds for which complex structures were pursued in this study were adamantane-class compounds. Two compounds from this class, (1S,3S,4S,5R,7S)-4-[2-(4-methoxyphenoxy)-2-methylpropionylamino]-adamantane-1-carboxylic acid amide (listed as compound 1) and 2-(2-chloro-4-fluorophenoxy)-N-[(1R,2S,5S,7S)-5-methanesulfonyl-adamantan-2-yl]-2-methylpropionamide (listed as compound 2), were used as representative compounds in this report. Their molecular structures are illustrated in Fig. 1. The compounds were synthesized as reported previously (Patel et al., 2007; Sorensen et al., 2007).

## 2.4. Purification with on-column  $11\beta$ -HSD1-ligand complexation

After cell lysis (as described above), the supernatant was divided into 100 ml volumes and purified in parallel. Each 100 ml volume was loaded onto 5 ml Probond resin (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, California, USA) previously equilibrated with three column volumes of wash buffer (50 mM Tris, 300 mM NaCl, 40 mM imidazole, 4 mM CHAPS pH 7.9). The resin was washed with 20 column volumes of wash buffer, gradiented to 100% overnight buffer {50 mM Tris, 300 mM NaCl, 5%( $v/v$ ) glycerol, 0.05%( $v/v$ ) Triton X-100, 0.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>,  $2$  mM ATP,  $2$  mM TCEP [Tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine],  $20 \mu M$ inhibitor pH 7.9} in ten column volumes and then isocratically run with another 20 column volumes of overnight buffer. Next morning, each column was washed with buffer  $A$  [50 mM Tris, 300 mM NaCl, 5%( $v/v$ ) glycerol, 0.05%( $v/v$ ) Triton X-100, 2 mM TCEP, 2.5  $\mu$ M inhibitor pH 7.9] for ten column volumes followed by 2% buffer  $B$  $(2 M \text{ imidazole pH } 7.8)$  for eight column volumes, 3% buffer B for three column volumes,  $10\%$  buffer B for eight column volumes and finally 15% buffer B for three column volumes. The fractions containing  $11\beta$ -HSD1 as assayed by SDS-PAGE were pooled and run on a Sephadex G-25 (GE Healthcare, Piscataway, New Jersey) column with running buffer consisting of 20 mM Tris, 250 mM NaCl, 5%( $v/v$ ) glycerol, 2 mM TCEP, 0.05%( $v/v$ ) Triton X-100, 2  $\mu$ M inhibitor pH 8.0 and then concentrated to  $12-15$  mg ml<sup>-1</sup>. Part of the protein was immediately used for crystallization screening. The rest of the protein was flash-frozen in  $60 \mu l$  aliquots for further crystallization optimization experiments if needed. Initially, the on-column experiments were conducted at 277 K with no NaCl in the sizeexclusion column buffer. Subsequent on-column exchange experiments were conducted at room temperature with 250 mM NaCl added to the size-exclusion buffer to promote protein stability during the concentration step.

## 2.5. Crystallization

All crystallization experiments were conducted by vapor diffusion at 277 K. Samples were initially screened and promising hits were then further optimized using drops consisting of  $2 \mu$ l protein solution

and 2 µl reservoir solution equilibrated against 1 ml reservoir solution. For the complex with compound 1  $(15 \text{ mg ml}^{-1})$ , the reservoir solution was 2.0 M ammonium sulfate, 0.1 M trisodium citrate dihydrate pH 5.6, 0.2 M potassium/sodium tartrate tetrahydrate. In this instance the protein buffer did not contain 250 mM NaCl, which was added to all subsequent samples to improve protein stability during concentration. For the complex with compound 2 (13 mg ml<sup>-1</sup>), the reservoir solution was  $2.2 M$  ammonium sulfate,  $0.1 M$  trisodium citrate dihydrate. In both cases the crystals were cryoprotected using  $26\%$ ( $v/v$ ) glycerol and X-ray diffraction data were collected on the 17-BM beamline at the Advanced Photon Source.

## 2.6. Structure determination

Diffraction data were indexed, integrated and scaled using HKL-2000 (Otwinowski & Minor, 1997) and the structures were solved by molecular replacement with MOLREP (Vagin & Teplyakov, 2010) in the CCP4 program suite (Winn et al., 2011) using PDB entry 1xu9 (Hosfield et al., 2005) as a model. The models were refined iteratively using the graphics programs *QUANTA* (Accelrys, San Diego, California, USA) and REFMAC5 (Murshudov et al., 2011). Figures were prepared using the program PyMOL (Schrodinger LLC).





## $(b)$

#### Figure 2

Crystal morphologies obtained during the course of the  $11\beta$ -HSD1 complex crystallization experiments: (a) trigonal (compound 1), (b) cubic (compound 2).

## 3. Results

## 3.1. Initial  $11\beta$ -HSD1–ligand complex structure attempts

An initial crystal structure of  $11\beta$ -HSD1 prepared in the absence of ligands reproduced the findings of Hosfield et al. (2005) in that CHAPS was observed in the active site (data not shown). Attempts to soak these crystals with specific ligands of interest were unsuccessful. The crystals either did not survive the soaking process or provided poor diffraction. To stabilize the crystals during soaking the crystals were cross-linked with glutaraldehyde (Lusty, 1999). These crystals looked good visually after soaking, but still did not provide usable diffraction. Attempts were then made to obtain complex structures by cocrystallization. Adding ligand in excess to the protein (by straight addition or via dialysis) and incubating prior to setting up crystallization plates provided crystals with useful diffraction; however, it was observed that CHAPS was still not displaced from the active site. Diluting the protein and ligand in order to make a low-concentration complex with a reduced CHAPS concentration  $(1 \text{ m})$  in the buffer and then concentrating back to a usable protein concentration prior to crystallization gave the same unsuccessful result. An attempt was also made to include the ligand in the ferment and have it present throughout the purification process; however, this also proved to be unsuccessful.

#### 3.2. On-column complexation of  $11\beta$ -HSD1 with inhibitors

To obtain a successful complex it appeared to be important to keep the protein stable in the presence of CHAPS (which serves as both a solubilizing agent and a stabilizing ligand) in the first step of the preparation. It was then necessary to find a method that allowed CHAPS to be exchanged with another solubilizing detergent that had no affinity for the active site while forming the desired ligand complex. The method developed for this purpose was to immobilize the protein on a Probond resin column and then exchange CHAPS with Triton X-100 while the ligand was present in the buffer. This provided the necessary exchange while also stabilizing the protein and preventing protein aggregation during exchange. A typical final



#### Figure 3

Overlay of the crystal structures of  $11\beta$ -HSD1 with compound 1 (purple) and compound 2 (green). The protein is colored gray and the NADP<sup>+</sup> cofactor is highlighted in cyan. Elemental components are colored as follows: oxygen, red; nitrogen, blue; sulfur, yellow; phosphate, orange; chlorine, dark green; fluorine, light blue.

#### Table 1

X-ray diffraction and refinement statistics.

Values in parentheses are for the highest resolution shell.



†  $R_{\text{merge}} = \sum_{hkl} \sum_i |I_i(hkl) - \langle I(hkl) \rangle| / \sum_{hkl} \sum_i I_i(hkl)$ , where  $I(hkl)$  is the integrated intensity of a reflection.  $\ddagger R_{\text{work}} = \sum_{hkl} |F_{\text{obs}}| - |F_{\text{calc}}| / |\sum_{hkl} |F_{\text{obs}}|$ , where  $F_{\text{obs}}$  and  $F_{\text{calc}}$  are the observed and calculated structure-factor amplitudes;  $R_{\text{free}}$  is calculated using 5% of the data that were excluded from refinement.

yield for each protein–inhibitor preparation was 1.5 mg per gram of cells.

Of 11 unique complexes generated using this protocol, six provided crystals, giving a 55% success rate for crystallization. While all of the complexes were broadly screened, the useable crystallization hits tended to be clustered around ammonium sulfate conditions (1.6– 3.0 M) within the pH range 5.6–8.5. Of the six crystallization leads, one could not be optimized to provide usable crystals and one did not provide diffraction data of sufficiently high quality to distinguish the ligand. A total of four structures were obtained (with diffraction resolutions of 2.3, 2.4, 2.5 and 3.1  $\AA$ ) from the 11 on-column ligandexchange experiments, providing a structure-to-experiment success rate of 36%. For those crystals providing structures, two different



#### Figure 4

Chelation of metal ions by the 6(HQ) N-terminal purification tag, forming an artificial trimer in the crystal. Only the histidine residues of the tag coordinating the ion are illustrated. Each  $11\beta$ -HSD1 monomer is represented in a different color.

crystal morphologies were obtained. Compound 1 produced trigonal crystals, while the other three compounds, including compound 2, produced cubic crystals (Fig. 2).

#### 3.3. Representative crystal complex structures

Fig. 3 shows an overlay of the structures of  $11\beta$ -HSD1 complexed with compound 1 (PDB entry 2irw; Patel et al., 2007) and compound 2 (PDB entry 2ilt; Sorensen et al., 2007). Both compounds displayed a similar binding mode in the steroid-binding site adjacent to the bound cofactor NADP<sup>+</sup>, with the adamantyl moiety of each compound located near the nicotinamide portion of the cofactor. For compound 1 the primary amide is positioned close to the pyrophosphates of the NADP<sup>+</sup>. The central amide interacts with the active-site residues; the carbonyl is within 2.8 and 2.9  $\AA$  of the hydroxyl groups of Ser170 and Tyr183, respectively. The gem-dimethyl and ether-linked phenyl groups extend into the hydrophobic cavity of the steroid-binding site, where Tyr177 forms the base of the pocket. The binding of compound 2 is similar, with the central carbonyl interacting with the same key residues responsible for substrate ketone reduction. X-ray diffraction statistics for both structures are given in Table 1.

## 3.4. Metal-ion chelation by the purification tag in the crystal structures

Upon further inspection of the crystal structures, an unexpected chelation of metal ions by the purification tag was observed in three of the four structures. In the structure with compound 1, in which the crystals grew in a trigonal crystal form, the N-terminal purification tag 6(HQ) was disordered. However, in the other three structures, in which the crystals grew in a cubic form, it was observed that the tag was chelating metal ions (possibly nickel ions stripped from the column as a result of the on-column exchange), forming an artificial trimer (Fig. 4). The chelation of the metal is facilitated by the tag, as the histidine residues chelate the metal ions while the alternating glutamine residues flip out and away from the ions.

#### 4. Discussion

The first structure of human  $11\beta$ -HSD1 was published by Hosfield et al. (2005). In this structure, the cofactor  $NADP<sup>+</sup>$  and the steroidal detergent CHAPS that was used in the purification were identified in the active site. Since then, researchers pursuing ligand-complex structures with human  $11\beta$ -HSD1 have also noted CHAPS in the binding site, but were able to displace the CHAPS by soaking (Hale et al., 2008; Tu et al., 2008; Wan et al., 2009) or by cocrystallization (Johansson et al., 2008; Julian et al., 2008; Sun et al., 2008) with their ligands of interest. Although we used a similar cloning and purification procedure, we were unable to displace CHAPS with our adamantane compounds by soaking, cocrystallization or other commonly used complexation procedures. While this is puzzling, another researcher working with guinea pig  $11\beta$ -HSD1 also reported problems in ligand exchange (Ogg et al., 2005). In this case, the protein was incubated during purification with  $NADP<sup>+</sup>$  and ligand (BVT.4584). An attempt was then made to exchange this set of ligands with AADP and cortisone by repeated dilution and reconcentration of the protein in the presence of the new cofactor and ligand prior to crystallization. When the structure was solved, NADP<sup>+</sup> was found to be present; however, neither cortisone nor BVT.4584 was observed in the binding site, indicating that the ligandexchange exercise had not been successful. Although we made multiple attempts to obtain complex structures with our adamantane compounds by a variety of methods, only by using the on-column

exchange method were we able to obtain the desired complex structures.

The ligand–protein complexes produced by the on-column method had a crystallization success rate of 55%. This is typical in our experience of that encountered in cocrystallization experiments. For example, the success rate of ligand cocrystallization with Hsp90 (heat-shock protein 90; Huth et al., 2007) in our laboratory was 50%. For 11 $\beta$ -HSD1, despite broad screening, a clustering of crystallization conditions was observed, but this again is typical in our experience of that encountered when cocrystallizing with compounds from within the same chemical series.

One unexpected result from the on-column exchange experiments was the observed chelation of metal ions by the 6(HQ) N-terminal tag, which resulted in an artificial trimer in the crystal structures. In our initial structure with NADP<sup>+</sup> and CHAPS, as also in the reported literature structure using the same clone (Hosfield et al., 2005), the N-terminus was disordered. For the first compound used in the oncolumn exchange experiments (compound 1) the resulting crystals were in a trigonal form and the N-terminus was also disordered in the structure. However, the next three structures, for which compound 2 is representative, all grew in a cubic crystal form and all showed the artificial trimer (with the chelated metal ions) in the structure.

There are a number of possible factors for this variance in the crystallization results from the on-column exchange experiments. In the first attempt with compound 1 the on-column exchange was conducted at 277 K, while all subsequent experiments were conducted at 296 K. Also, for compound 1 the protein buffer during the final concentration step did not contain the 250 mM NaCl that was added to all subsequent samples to improve the protein stability during concentration. The ligands can also affect crystallization. Compound 1 has an amide terminal to the adamantane, yet similar compounds were also present among the complexes that formed the artificial trimers. The most likely factor is therefore the crystallization conditions, to which the differing NaCl concentration in the protein buffer may have contributed. For compound 1 the crystals grew at pH 5.6. For the three complexes that formed the artificial trimers, the crystallization solution pH was 7.1–7.3. This higher pH range is more favorable for the chelation of metal ions with a histidine-based tag than pH 5.6. For the complexes that provided the artificial trimers, dynamic light scattering of diluted samples  $(18 \mu)$  revealed that 98–99% of the mass had a size of 5 nm, indicative of monomers. The trimer is therefore likely to form at higher protein concentrations under crystallization conditions where the pH is more favorable for metal-ion chelation. At this point the metal ions are assumed to be nickel that was stripped from the column during the process of oncolumn exchange; however, this has not been confirmed.

## 5. Conclusions

For the adamantane compounds pursued in this study, the on-column exchange method provided  $11\beta$ -HSD1-ligand complexes for structure determination where other reported complexation methods had not been successful. The crystallization success rates for the oncolumn exchange method are similar to those achieved by traditional cocrystallization methods. One interesting byproduct of the method was the chelation of metal ions by the 6(HQ) tag, which produced artificial trimers in the crystal structures. The on-column exchange method should be considered for the production of protein–ligand complexes in cases where traditional complexation methods are not successful.

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