

## Density Functional Theory Study of the Attack of Ebselen on a Zinc-Finger Model

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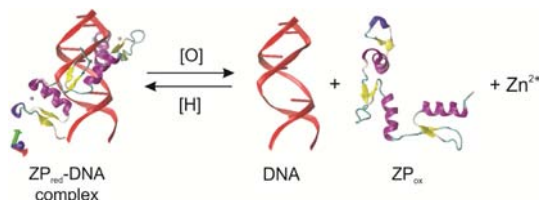
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## Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** Density functional theory and solvent-assisted proton exchange are used to model the attack of ebselen **1** on a zinc-finger model, an important step in the regulation of zinc signaling by reducible selenium compounds. These calculations show that the formation of a selenosulfide bond from an Se...S intermediate complex between **1** and a Cys<sub>2</sub>His<sub>2</sub> zinc-finger model can occur through a moderate activation barrier that is consistent with experimental observations of the relative rates of Zn<sup>2+</sup> release from zinc-finger transcription factors and metallothionein.

Redox signaling by zinc–sulfur proteins (ZPs) is important to nucleic acid transcription, recognition, and repair; protein regulation; and zinc storage and metabolism.<sup>1–6</sup> Zinc-finger (ZF) transcription factors incorporate Zn<sup>2+</sup> ions tetrahedrally coordinated to Cys and His residues (typically Cys<sub>2</sub>His<sub>2</sub>, Cys<sub>3</sub>His, or Cys<sub>4</sub>) to ensure proper folding of the ZF tertiary structure for biological recognition. The redox activity of the Cys thiolates creates a variable environment for Zn<sup>2+</sup> binding or release that is critical for the control of transcription, recognition and other mechanisms of cellular signaling (“zinc switch”).<sup>3,5,7</sup> The Zn<sup>2+</sup> ion coordinates to a ZP in its reduced state (ZP<sub>red</sub>) in which all Cys’s are in the thiolate form. Altering the Cys oxidation state by biological or xenobiotic oxidants (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, NO, S-nitrosothiols, etc.) releases Zn<sup>2+</sup> with a subsequent loss of the tertiary structure in ZP<sub>ox</sub> necessary for recognition (Scheme 1).<sup>3,5,7</sup> Reduction of ZP<sub>ox</sub> with thiols restores the ability

**Scheme 1.** Representation of the “Zinc Switch” for a ZF-Type ZP (Adapted from PDB ID 1TF3)



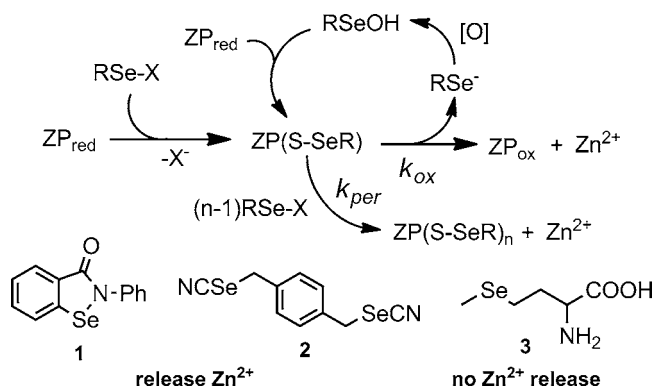
to bind Zn<sup>2+</sup>. Targeting of ZPs is important to potential treatments of viral infections and cancer by the disruption of gene expression and DNA repair,<sup>8</sup> but may prevent normal repair of damaged DNA and impair genomic stability.<sup>9</sup>

Ebselen **1** and other reducible selenium (rSe) compounds have been shown to release Zn<sup>2+</sup> from various ZPs.<sup>9–15</sup> Here, rSe compounds are defined as selenium compounds not in the lowest

Se(–2) oxidation state: selenite, seleninic acids RSeO<sub>2</sub>H, and divalent organoselenium compounds RSeX (e.g., **1**, diselenides RSe–SeR', selenosulfides RSe–SR', selenenyl chlorides RSe–Cl, and selenocyanates RSe–CN such as the antitumor agent 1,4-phenylenebis(methylene)selenocyanate **2**<sup>16</sup>). In contrast, fully reduced selenols and selenides, such as selenomethionine **3**, do not affect Zn<sup>2+</sup> release.<sup>9</sup> **1**, a well-known antioxidant mimic of the selenoprotein glutathione peroxidase,<sup>17,18</sup> inhibits DNA binding to transcription factor IIIA<sup>13</sup> and releases Zn<sup>2+</sup> from the Sp1 transcription factor<sup>13</sup> (Cys<sub>2</sub>His<sub>2</sub> type), the formamidopyridine–DNA glycosylase<sup>9</sup> and xeroderma pigmentosum group A<sup>19</sup> (Cys<sub>4</sub> type) repair proteins, as well as metallothionein (MT),<sup>11</sup> the Zn(Cys<sub>3</sub>His) site of a histone lysine demethylase<sup>20</sup> and an alcohol dehydrogenase with two Zn–S centers.<sup>11</sup> Although **1** and other rSe compounds are often considered antioxidants, Zn<sup>2+</sup> release is an important prooxidant mechanism.

Experimental studies of Cys<sub>2</sub>His<sub>2</sub>- and Cys<sub>4</sub>-type ZPs suggest two mechanisms for reaction with divalent rSe compounds RSeX, which have been combined in Scheme 2. Zn<sup>2+</sup> can be

**Scheme 2.** Mechanisms of Zn<sup>2+</sup> Release from ZPs by Divalent Reducible Organoselenium Compounds (RSeX)



released either by oxidation of the thiolates to disulfides (ZP<sub>ox</sub>) or by perselenization of the Cys residues [ZP(S–SeR)<sub>n</sub>], as observed for MT (*n* = 20).<sup>19,21</sup> The rSe compound first reacts to form an Se–S bond through electrophilic attack on one of the Cys residues. From this monoselenenated intermediate ZP(S–SeR), the ZP can either eliminate selenolate RSe<sup>–</sup> by forming a disulfide bond (ZP<sub>ox</sub>) or additional equivalents of RSeX can react with the remaining Cys ligands [ZP(S–SeR)<sub>n</sub>]. Either oxidative

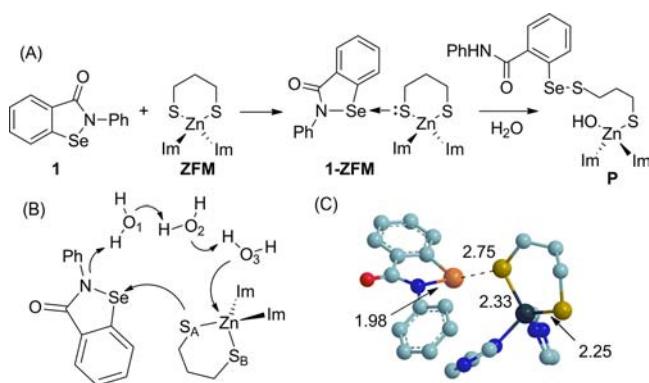
Received: June 6, 2013

Published: November 22, 2013

modification weakens the affinity of zinc for sulfur to facilitate  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  release. Pathways that result in oxidized ZPs with combinations of disulfide and selenosulfide bonds as discussed for  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  release from the NCP7 nucleocapsid (Cys<sub>3</sub>His type) by a disulfide can be drawn<sup>22</sup> but have not been reported for rSe compounds. Selenolates produced in the formation of  $\text{ZP}_{\text{ox}}$  can be oxidized to the selenenic acid  $\text{RSeOH}$  to catalyze  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  release. Because free  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  is associated with gene expression, apoptosis, and cell growth,<sup>23,24</sup> it is important to understand the redox chemistry of ZFs with rSe compounds.

In this Communication, we use density functional theory (DFT; see the Supporting Information for details) to model the formation of the selenosulfide intermediate from the attack of **1** on a model with a coordination sphere similar to that of a Cys<sub>2</sub>His<sub>2</sub> ZF, the most common ZP motif, (Scheme 3) using

**Scheme 3.** (A) Formation of an Initial Se...S Donor–Acceptor Intermediate 1-ZFM as Part of the Attack of **1** on a Cys<sub>2</sub>His<sub>2</sub> Model ZFM, (B) Bond Formation Pathway for the SAPE Model of the Reaction (A), and (C) Structure of 1-ZFM (Bond Distances in Angstroms)

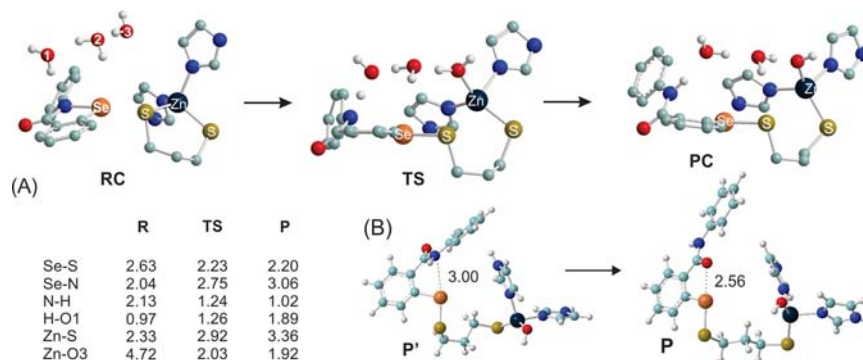


solvent-assisted proton exchange (SAPE). This technique of including explicit protic solvent molecules to shuttle protons in a reactive gas-phase model has been used previously to explore redox scavenging by **1**.<sup>25</sup> The ZF model (ZFM) replaces His and Cys with imidazole (Im) and 1,3-propylenedithiolate, respectively. The thiolates have been tethered to represent the 2–5 hydrophobic amino acids that provide structural stability to the ZF<sup>26,27</sup> and to prevent the selenosulfide from drifting away from the zinc coordination site during the DFT study. Formation of the Se–S bond is expected to be rate-determining for Cys<sub>2</sub>His<sub>2</sub>-

type ZFs because the oxidized protein  $\text{ZP}_{\text{ox}}$  is obtained from the reaction of **1** with a fragment of Sp1.<sup>13</sup>

The reactant complex **RC** for the DFT-SAPE study was constructed by adding a three-water network to the donor–acceptor complex of **1** with ZFM (1-ZFM, Scheme 3). These water molecules facilitate protonation of the amide leaving group of **1** required to break the Se–N bond and provide a hydroxide ligand to complete the coordination sphere of  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  (Scheme 3B). 1-ZFM, in which the ZFM forms an Se...S chalcogen bond with  $\text{RSeX}$ , is assumed to be an initially formed intermediate in selenosulfide bond formation (Scheme 3A). Donation of a thiolate sulfur lone pair to the antibonding Se–N molecular orbital of **1** results in a strong Se...S interaction (2.75 Å), as indicated by natural bond orbital<sup>28</sup> donor–acceptor calculations ( $\Delta E_{\text{d} \rightarrow \text{a}} = 36.2$  kcal/mol). Surprisingly, Se...S interactions between rSe compounds and ZFM are stronger than those with a simple thiol because of destabilization of the sulfur lone pairs through metal coordination.<sup>19</sup> Complexation weakens the Zn–S bond (2.33 Å relative to 2.27 Å in ZFM) and activates the Se–N bond (1.98 Å relative to 1.88 Å in **1**) toward nucleophilic substitution. The increase in the partial negative charge of nitrogen [ $-0.75e$  (**1**) vs  $-1.21e$  (1-ZFM)]<sup>29</sup> facilitates proton transfer to the activated Se–N amide.

The structure of **RC** (Figure 1) was optimized using DFT(mPW1PW91<sup>30</sup>) and either the B2 all-electron basis set<sup>31</sup> (BSL) or the small-core Ermler–Christiansen relativistic effective core potential (RECP) basis set<sup>32,33</sup> (BSEC) for zinc. The three water molecules of the SAPE network extend from the amide nitrogen to terminate in a hydrogen-bonding interaction with CH groups from each Im rather than interacting directly with zinc [ $d_{\text{Zn} \cdots \text{O}} = 4.74$  (BSL) and 4.72 (BSEC) Å]. [Note that if the Wadt–Hay large-core RECP basis set<sup>35</sup> is used for zinc (called by either LANL1DZ or LANL2DZ in the Gaussian<sup>36</sup> packages), the **RC** optimizes to a five-coordinate, trigonal-bipyramidal geometry around zinc incorporating a water molecule from the SAPE network as the fifth ligand. See Supporting Information.] From **RC**, cleavage of the activated Se–N bond requires transfer of a proton from the SAPE network to the amide nitrogen. The concurrent formation of the Se–S bond oxidizes and neutralizes the thiolate, which moves away from the coordination sphere of  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  to be replaced by an  $\text{OH}^-$  group formed by proton transfer to the amide nitrogen from the SAPE network. The DFT(mPW1PW91)/BSEC transition state (**TS**) for this process (Figure 1A) is found where the Se–N bond has increased by 0.71 Å and the Se–S bond has decreased by 0.40



**Figure 1.** (A) Selected DFT(mPW1PW91)/BSEC bond distances (Å) for the attack of ebselen **1** on a model of a Cys<sub>2</sub>His<sub>2</sub> ZF. Hydrogen atoms not involved in the SAPE network have been removed for clarity. (B) Structure for the rearrangement of the selenosulfide product from **P** (Se...N) to **P'** (Se...O).

Å. The OH<sup>-</sup> group, outside the coordination sphere of Zn<sup>2+</sup> in RC, moves close to the metal (2.03 Å) at the TS as a Zn–O bond begins to form. The replacement of thiolate in the coordination sphere of Zn<sup>2+</sup> by OH<sup>-</sup> is an important feature of the SAPE model. The solvation-corrected energy of the reaction for the product complex PC is endothermic ( $\Delta G = 3.1$  kcal/mol). In PC, the selenosulfide P' forms an Se...N interaction with the amide group that can rearrange to interact with the more basic carbonyl oxygen<sup>29</sup> (Se...O short contact), as shown for P (Figure 1B), which is 2.7 kcal/mol more stable. Further oxidation to the disulfide through attack of the remaining thiolate on the selenosulfide is a unimolecular process and is expected to be rapid from this point. The loss of both thiolates from the coordination sphere of Zn<sup>2+</sup> allows its release and the unraveling of the ZF tertiary structure required for DNA recognition.

The solvation-corrected activation barrier ( $\Delta G^\ddagger = 15.6$  kcal/mol) is lower than the DFT barrier to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> oxidation of a similar ZFM (20.9 kcal/mol)<sup>34</sup> due to the softness of the selenium electrophile. Experimental studies show that **1** reacts more slowly with MT, which coordinates Zn<sup>2+</sup> through Cys only and is thus more nucleophilic than a Cys<sub>2</sub>His<sub>2</sub> ZF, than with a simple thiol like glutathione [GSH;  $t_{1/2}(\text{GSH}) \approx 5$  ms vs  $t_{1/2}(\text{MT}) \approx 5$  s].<sup>11</sup> The DFT barrier for our Cys<sub>2</sub>His<sub>2</sub> ZFM is higher than the reaction of MeSH with **1** (8.4 kcal/mol),<sup>25</sup> which agrees with a faster reaction with thiols relative to ZFs. Because Cys<sub>3</sub>His- and Cys<sub>4</sub>-type ZFs are more nucleophilic, their barriers for Se–S bond formation are expected to be lower than that demonstrated here for a Cys<sub>2</sub>His<sub>2</sub> ZF-like model. The perselenization of MT by **1** is complete within seconds,<sup>11</sup> whereas Zn<sup>2+</sup> release from Sp1 via disulfide formation is only 50% complete after 30 min.<sup>13</sup> Thus, the perselenization of Cys<sub>4</sub>-type ZPs to Zn(S–SeR)<sub>n</sub> rather than oxidation to the disulfide (ZP<sub>ox</sub>) is consistent with a lower barrier for selenosulfide formation. For Cys<sub>2</sub>His<sub>2</sub>-type ZFs, the moderate barrier to the Se–S bond allows monoselenenated ZP(S–SeR) to exist long enough for unimolecular attack of the Cys thiolate upon selenosulfide to form Zn<sub>ox</sub> ( $k_{\text{ox}} > k_{\text{per}}$ ; Scheme 2). For Cys<sub>4</sub>-type ZFs and MT, selenosulfide bond formation is much faster ( $k_{\text{per}} > k_{\text{ox}}$ ), such that, in the presence of excess rSe compounds, each Cys reacts with 1 equiv of rSe to release Zn<sup>2+</sup>. Note that the reactivity of Cys<sub>3</sub>His-type ZPs with rSe compounds has been less well-studied, and its moderate nucleophilicity relative to Cys<sub>2</sub>His<sub>2</sub> and Cys<sub>4</sub> may lead to other mechanistic pathways.

DFT modeling of selenosulfide formation by the attack of **1** on a ZFM is an important step toward understanding the electronic factors involved in the reactivity of ZFs. The simplified ZFM omits steric effects to provide a baseline for the interaction with **1**. Future studies will explore the reactivity of Cys<sub>3</sub>His- and Cys<sub>4</sub>-type ZFMs with other rSe compounds known to release Zn<sup>2+</sup>. These results and their extension into larger models will enhance the design of selenium-based drugs to target ZFs involved in cancer and viral infections as well as increase our understanding of the toxic effects of selenium.

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Supporting Information

Details of DFT calculations and Cartesian coordinates of the structures in Figure 1. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

## ■ AUTHOR INFORMATION

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## Funding

The authors thank the National Science Foundation for funding (Grant CHE-0750413).

## Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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