



## Interactions at the bilayer interface and receptor site induced by the novel synthetic pyrrolidinone analog MMK3

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### ABSTRACT

This work presents a thorough investigation of the interaction of the novel synthetic pyrrolidinone analog MMK3 with the model membrane system of dipalmitoylphosphatidylcholine (DPPC) and the receptor active site. MMK3 has been designed to exert antihypertensive activity by functioning as an antagonist of the angiotensin II receptor of subtype 1 (AT<sub>1</sub>). Its low energy conformers were characterized by 2D rotating-frame Overhauser effect spectroscopy (ROESY) in combination with molecular dynamics (MD) simulations. Docking study of MMK3 shows that it fits to the AT<sub>1</sub> receptor as SARTANS, however, its biological activity appears to be lower. Thus, differential scanning calorimetry (DSC), Raman spectroscopy and small angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) experiments on the interaction of MMK3 with DPPC bilayers were carried out and results demonstrate that the drug is well incorporated into the membrane leaflets and furthermore causes partial bilayer interdigitation, although less effective than SARTANS. Thus, it appears that the nature of the bilayer matrix and the stereoelectronic active site requirements of the receptor are responsible for the low bioactivity of MMK3.

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### 1. Introduction

The renin angiotensin system (RAS) constitutes the major system that regulates blood pressure. Therefore, it is the main target in the drug design for developing novel synthetic antihypertensive drugs. The first rationale behind the synthesis of novel angiotensin analogs was to block the formation of vasoconstrictive hormone angiotensin II (Ang II). Renin and angiotensin converting enzymes are responsible for transforming in the body angiotensinogen to angiotensin I (Ang I) and subsequently to Ang II. The blocking of angiotensin converting enzyme was crowned with success and the market experienced captopril and its congeners as beneficial molecules in blood regulation. However, their side effects of dry mouth and angioedema precluded them from being the ideal drugs for hypertension. Recently, the synthetic molecule aliskiren entered the market with trade name

Tekturna (Novartis) and is the only available inhibitor from the renin inhibitor class [1].

The second class of synthetic molecules aims to block Ang II at the AT<sub>1</sub> receptor [2]. The first peptide analogs synthesized for this purpose, although not successful, provided molecular models for further rational drug design. To comprehend the stereoelectronic requirements for receptor binding, the stereochemical features of Ang II and its peptide antagonists sarmesin and sarilesin were explored [3–12]. These synthetic peptide analogues and other non-peptide AT<sub>1</sub> antagonists (commercially available and novel compounds) are designed to mimic the C-terminal part of Ang II. In this regard, losartan was the first successful peptidomimetic analog to be marketed. Furthermore, angiotensin receptor blockers (ARBs) have been developed to produce a more complete blockade of the action of angiotensin II as compared to other drug classes as well as decrease of their side effects [13–18].

Based on the molecular characteristics of these antagonists, a new avenue was explored in an attempt to design and synthesize novel AT<sub>1</sub> antagonists. Thus, (5S)-1-benzyl-5-(1H-imidazol-1-yl-methyl)-2-pyrrolidinone denoted as MMK1 was synthesized to possess pyrrolidinone as template instead of biphenyltetrazole. However, MMK1 did not show the desired biological properties as the *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies demonstrated [19]. For this purpose, we proceeded with the synthesis of a derivative of MMK1, the (5S)-1-benzyl-5-(1H-

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benzimidazol-1-yl-methyl)-2-pyrrolidinone named MMK3 (Fig. 1), which differs from MMK1 in two aspects: (a) it has a methoxy group at 11 position and (b) it contains a benzimidazole ring instead of an imidazole ring. The rationale behind these structural modifications was first to mimic in part the Ang II antagonist sarmesin (Sar) and second to extend the aromaticity of the molecule. We note, that the key requirement for antagonist activity of sarmesin is its methoxy group. In fact, the superagonist Sar[AngII] is identical to sarmesin except that it contains a methoxy group instead of phenolic hydroxyl group at Tyr<sup>4</sup>. Detailed synthesis of this molecule and biological data are reported elsewhere [20]. However, MMK3 as did MMK1, appeared not to have the desired activity both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. To some extent this was a surprising outcome, since the initial molecular modeling certified good binding properties of MMK3 with the active site of the AT<sub>1</sub> receptor [19, 20].

The cell membrane is believed to play an important role in the cause and progression of hypertension. On the basis of extensive studies of the antagonist losartan, our laboratory has proposed a two-step model, in which this antihypertensive drug is first incorporated into the bilayers through the lipid–water interface and then laterally diffuses to reach the active site of the AT<sub>1</sub> receptor [21]. A two-step mechanism has also been suggested for other amphiphilic molecules such as cannabinoids and calcium channel antagonists [22–25]. For the above reason it was decided to study the interaction of MMK3 with lipid model membranes.

The lowest energy conformer of MMK3 was derived from 2D ROESY data in combination with molecular modeling. Additionally, since new models of the AT<sub>1</sub> receptor have been published [26], we have re-examined the interactions of MMK3 in the receptor site, this time in a lipid environment by applying MD simulations. Then, in a second part, the MMK3: bilayer interactions in great detail were characterized by analyzing differential scanning calorimetry (DSC), Raman spectroscopy and small angle X-ray diffraction experiments.

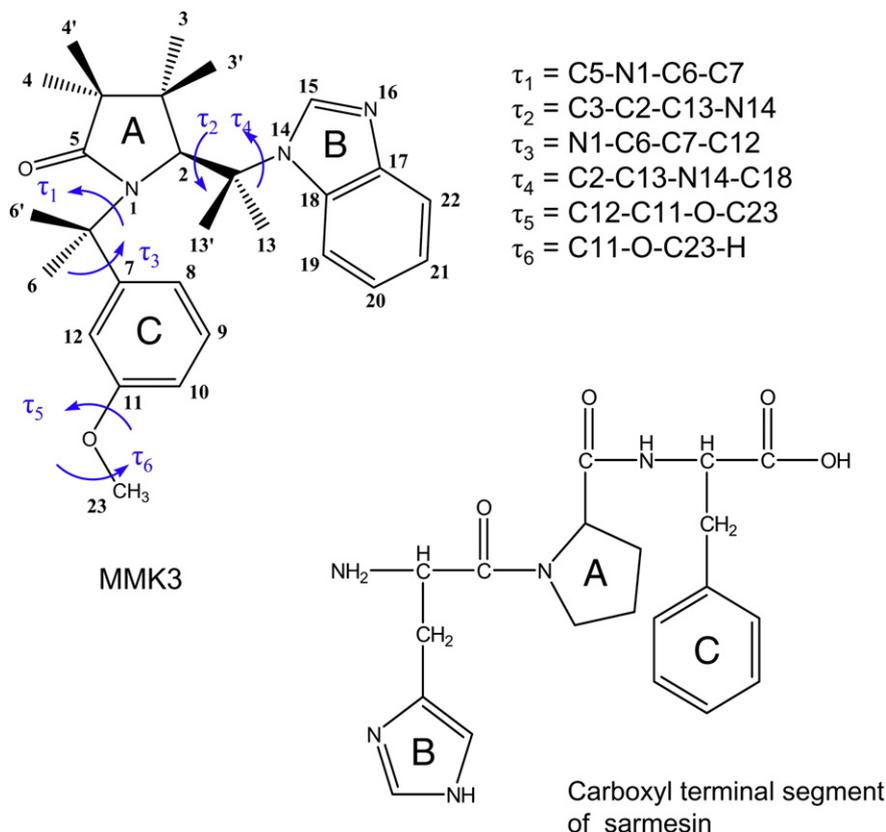
Hydrated DPPC lipids are used because they spontaneously form multilamellar bilayers whose dynamic and thermotropic properties have been extensively studied by various biophysical methods [27–36]. Moreover, phosphatidylcholines are the most abundant lipid species in sarcolemma cardiac membranes. The most frequently found among them are PCs with oleic and linoleic chains, and further DPPC [37]. Another study points out that partition coefficient of DPPC, especially in the fluid state, resembles that of natural cardiac membranes [38].

These methodologies allows to learn about the thermodynamic changes in the presence of MMK3, to determine chain fluidity and mobility alterations, and finally to correlate these results with the structural modifications on a molecular level. A concrete model for partial bilayer interdigitation is presented and some potential scenarios in the framework of the two-step reaction model are discussed.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Sample preparation

MMK3 was synthesized as described previously [19,20].  $\alpha$ -dipalmitoylphosphatidylcholine ( $\alpha$ -DPPC, 99+%) was purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids Inc (Alabaster, AL) and spectroscopic grade  $\text{CHCl}_3$  from Sigma Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). For nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) measurements, the MMK3 concentration used was 10 mM dissolved in  $\text{CDCl}_3$ . For DSC measurements, appropriate amounts of DPPC and MMK3 diluted in chloroform were mixed, dried under stream of  $\text{N}_2$  and then stored under vacuum overnight. After dispersing in water (50% w/w), portions of the samples (*ca.* 5 mg) were sealed in stainless steel capsules obtained from Perkin-Elmer (Norwalk, CT). The same sample preparation was carried out for the Raman spectroscopy measurements. The amount of sample used was *ca.* 40 mg. For X-ray scattering experiments aqueous dispersions of multilamellar vesicles were prepared according to the above protocol



**Fig. 1.** Chemical structures of MMK3 and the carboxyl terminal segment of sarmesin. For MMK3 the critical dihedral angles that determine its conformational properties are defined. Equivalent aromatic rings of MMK3 and sarmesin are labeled with the same letters A–C.

with a final lipid weight concentrations of 25%. The drug concentrations used for the different experiments were  $x=0.01$  (99% molar ratio of phospholipid and 1% molar ratio of drug),  $x=0.05$  (95% molar ratio of phospholipid and 5% molar ratio of drug) and  $x=0.20$  (80% molar ratio of phospholipid and 20% molar ratio of drug).

## 2.2. NMR spectroscopy

NMR spectra were recorded on a Varian INOVA 600 MHz spectrometer (Palo Alto, CA) at 25 °C. The Double Quantum Filter Correlation Spectroscopy (DQF-COSY), Heteronuclear Single Quantum Coherence ( $^1\text{H}$ - $^{13}\text{C}$  gHSQC) and Heteronuclear Multiple Bond Correlation ( $^1\text{H}$ - $^{13}\text{C}$  gHMBC) were performed with pulsed field gradients. The offset compensated Rotating Overhauser Spectroscopy (ROESY) experiment was performed using a mixing time of 150 ms and a 4 kHz spin-locking field strength [39]. The  $^1\text{H}$  and  $^{13}\text{C}$  spectral windows used were 6000 Hz and 30,000 Hz, respectively. The homonuclear proton spectra were acquired with 4096 data points in  $t_2$  dimension, 4–32 scans, 256–512 complex points in  $t_1$  dimension and with a relaxation delay of 1–1.5 s. The  $^1\text{H}$ - $^{13}\text{C}$  heteronuclear experiments were acquired with 1024–4096 data points in  $t_2$  dimension, 32–64 scans and 128–1024 complex points in  $t_1$  dimension. Experimental data were processed using Varian VNMR software. Spectra were zero-filled two times and apodized with a squared sine bell function shifted by  $\pi/2$  in both dimensions. Interproton distances were calculated from integrated and normalized cross-peak intensities in ROESY spectra. The distance between adjacent aromatic protons (2.46 Å) was used for calibration. The resulted distances were corrected for the frequency offset effects to be eliminated. Upper and lower limit constraints were estimated as  $\pm 10\%$  of the resulted values.

## 2.3. Molecular mechanics (MM) conformational analysis studies

Molecular modeling analysis was performed on a Silicon Graphics O<sub>2</sub> workstation using QUANTA software (MSI, London, UK) and CHARMm force field. The dielectric constant ( $\epsilon$ ) was set to 1 to simulate CDCl<sub>3</sub> used in the NMR studies. The first step in the conformational analysis of MMK3 was to construct a preliminary 3D model which was minimized using the first order minimization algorithms, steepest descents, conjugate gradient, and Newton Raphson with 0.01 Kcal/(mol.Å) as the convergence criterion. This conformer was further subjected to random sampling obtaining 1000 low energy conformers. Cluster analysis led to 11 clusters using a dihedral angle RMSD threshold criterion. The lowest energy conformer of each cluster was further minimized. Among them, only three conformers satisfied the interatomic distances measured by the ROESY spectrum were selected.

## 2.4. "In silico" docking studies

Molecular docking simulations using the FlexX algorithm of SYBYL [40] have been employed to the three lowest energy conformers of MMK3 obtained by a combination of experimental and molecular modeling results. FlexX uses a fast docking method that allows flexibility in the ligands, keeping the receptor rigid, and it uses an incremental construction algorithm in order to place flexible ligands into a fully specified binding site. The default FlexX scoring function was used in the calculations. FlexX uses formal charges, which were turned on during docking.

## 2.5. Molecular dynamics (MD) simulations

MD simulations have been carried out in order to examine the stability of ligand inside the binding pocket, and understand the binding interactions between receptor and ligand.

The coordinate of the MMK3 ligand was submitted to PRODRG [41] algorithm to obtain Gromacs topologies. The DPPC lipid bilayers model for the MD simulations was taken from Karttunen [42] (it includes a 128 DPPC lipids and 3655 water molecules coordinate file derived from 100 ns MD simulations [43]). The MD simulations were performed with the GROMACS 3.3.1 software package [44] using the GROMOS96 force field [45]. Simulations were run in the NPT ensemble at 300 K and 1 bar with periodic boundary conditions. During equilibration the Berendsen barostat and thermostat algorithms [46] were applied. Electrostatic interactions were calculated using the particle mesh Ewald method [47]. Cutoff distances for the calculation of Coulomb and van der Waals interactions were 1.0 and 1.4 nm, respectively. Prior to the dynamics simulation, energy minimization was applied to the full system without constraints using the steepest descent integrator for 2000 steps with the initial step size of 0.01 Å (the minimization tolerance was set to 1000 kJ/(mol nm)). The system was then equilibrated via 250 ps simulation with a time step of 2 fs, subsequently a 2.5 ns simulation was performed at 300 K and 1 bar with a time step of 2 fs using the Berendsen thermostat [46] and Parrinello-Rahman barostat algorithms [48]. All bonds were constrained using the linear constraint solver (LINCS) algorithm [49]. Visualization of the dynamics trajectories was performed with the visual molecular dynamics (VMD) software package [50] and the Origin 6.0 program (OriginLab Corporation, Northampton, MA) was used for the plots.

## 2.6. Differential scanning calorimetry

Thermal scans were carried out using Perkin-Elmer DSC-7 calorimeter (Norwalk, CT). All samples were scanned from 10 to 60 °C until identical thermograms were obtained using a scanning rate of 2.5 °C/min. The temperature scale of the calorimeter was calibrated using indium ( $T_m = 156.6$  °C) and DPPC bilayers ( $T_m = 41.2$  °C). The following diagnostic parameters were used for the study of drug to membrane interactions:  $T_m$  (maximum of the recorded heat capacity),  $T_{onset}$  (the starting temperature of the phase transition) and  $T_{m1/2}$  (the half-height width of the phase transition). An empty pan for the base line and a sample containing double distilled water were run for the temperature range of 10–60 °C as a reference for the background. This background was subtracted from each thermal scan of the samples. The area under the peak, represents the enthalpy change during the transition ( $\Delta H$ ). The mean values of  $\Delta H$  of three identical scans were tabulated.

## 2.7. Raman spectroscopy

The Raman spectra were obtained with 4  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  resolution from 3500 to 400  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  with interval 2  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  using a Perkin-Elmer NIR FT-spectrometer (Spectrum GX II, Norwalk, CT) equipped with CCD detector (Norwalk, CT). The measurements were performed at a temperature range of 27–50 °C. The laser power (a Nd:YAG at 1064 nm, Norwalk, CT) was controlled to be constant within 400 mW during the experiments. 1500 scans were accumulated and back scattering light was collected.

## 2.8. X-ray diffraction

Small angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) experiments were performed with a small- and wide angle X-ray scattering camera with Kratky collimation [51] (SWAXS, Hecus X-ray Systems, Graz, Austria) mounted on a sealed-tube generator (Philips PW 1729, Philips, Holland) operating at 2 kW. Cu-K $\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda = 1.54$  Å) was selected using a tungsten filter. A linear one-dimensional position-sensitive detector (PSD 50-M, Hecus X-ray Systems, Graz, Austria) covered the  $q$ -range of interest from 0.004 to 0.5 Å $^{-1}$ . For the measurements, the sample was transferred in a 1.5 mm capillary and measured at 25 and

50 °C, respectively. The same capillary filled with water was measured as background. The exposure time was fixed to one hour and at each temperature the sample was exposed 10 times.

After background subtraction the scattering patterns were analyzed by the global analysis program (GAP) [52]. For the lattice contributions of the lamellar fluid phase the Caillé theory [53,54] and for the gel phase the paracrystalline theory [55] were considered. For the bilayer contribution a simple 4 parameter model was applied. This model uses one Gaussian for the head-groups and another for the hydrophobic core. A more detailed description of this model is given in Pabst's recent review [56].

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Structure assignment and conformational analysis of MMK3

2D NMR COSY, ROESY, HSQC and HMBC experiments confirmed the chemical structure of MMK3 given in Fig. 1. The  $^1\text{H}$  and  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR chemical shift assignments for  $^1\text{H}$  and  $^{13}\text{C}$  are given in Table 1. The spectra of MMK3 are obtained at  $\text{CDCl}_3$  environment which has a lipophilic nature and simulates the lipophilic environment of lipid bilayers. Although micelle and especially liposomes are more commonly used mediums for simulating the lipid environment [57], our previous studies had shown that  $\text{AT}_1$  antagonists in  $\text{CDCl}_3$ , micellar or liposomal environment adopt almost identical conformations [58]. These results justify in our present study the usage of the deuterated chloroform solvent.

Structure elucidation of MMK3 was achieved based on the published structure of MMK1 which as mentioned in the introduction contains the identical ring A, the methylene bridge and ring C without methoxy group [19]. MMK3 bears benzimidazole ring instead of imidazole ring. Briefly, H15 is resonated at 7.26 ppm as a singlet like in MMK1 [19]. Additionally, the 2D ROESY experiment allowed to differentiate between H19/22 and H20/21, because H19/22 showed ROE effect with H13/13'. The deshielded chemical shift values of H19/22 relatively to H20/21 confirmed the ROE results. The protons of the methoxy group are resonating as a singlet at 3.78 ppm. The easy assignment of primary, secondary and tertiary carbon chemical shifts was achieved using 2D HSQC experiment and quaternary carbons using 2D HMBC experiment. The 2D ROESY experiment showed the through space connectivities between vicinal spatial protons pre-

**Table 1**

Structure elucidation of MMK3. Chemical shifts obtained with  $^1\text{H}$  and  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectra and  $^1\text{H}$ - $^{13}\text{C}$  couplings through HSQC and HMBC.

Proton	Chemical shift (ppm)	Carbon	Chemical shift (ppm)	HSQC	HMBC
3, 3'	1.85 (m), 2.09 (m)	3	21.13	H3, H3'	H4, H4', H2, H13, H13'
4, 4'	2.39 (m), 2.50 (m)	4	29.73	H4, H4'	H3'
2	3.63 (m)	2	55.26	H2	H3, H4, H13, H13', H6
6, 6'	3.75 (d), 4.88 (d)	6	44.47	H6, H6'	H12, H8
23	3.78 (s)	23	55.25	H23	
13, 13'	3.95 (q), 4.02 (q)	13	68.91	H13, H13'	H3, H3', H2
12	6.68 (s)	12	113.57	H12	H6, H6', H8, H10
8	6.71 (d)	8	120.26	H8	H6, H6', H12, H10
10	6.80 (m)	10	113.24	H10	
9	7.20 (t)	9	130.05	H9	
19/22	7.74 (d)	19/22	127.93	H19/22	H20/21, H19/22
15	7.26 (s)	15	145.33	–	H19/22
20/21	7.37 (d)	20/21	130.06	H20/21	H20/21
		17/18	132.42	–	H20/21
		7	137.63	–	H6, H6', H9
		11	159.97	–	H23, H12, H10, H9
		5	175.02	–	H3, H4, H4', H2, H6, H6'

**Table 2**

Interproton distances of MMK3 as they were calculated from volumes of ROEs. Numbering used in the table is provided in Fig. 1.

Protons	Distances (Å)
H12–H6	2.40
H12–H6'	2.74
H8–H6	2.74
H8–H6'	2.40
H23–H10	2.81
H13–H2	1.89
H13'–H2	1.89
H13–H3	2.57
H13'–H3	2.69
H4'–H20/21	3.00
H13'–H19/22	3.47
H13–H19/22	3.18

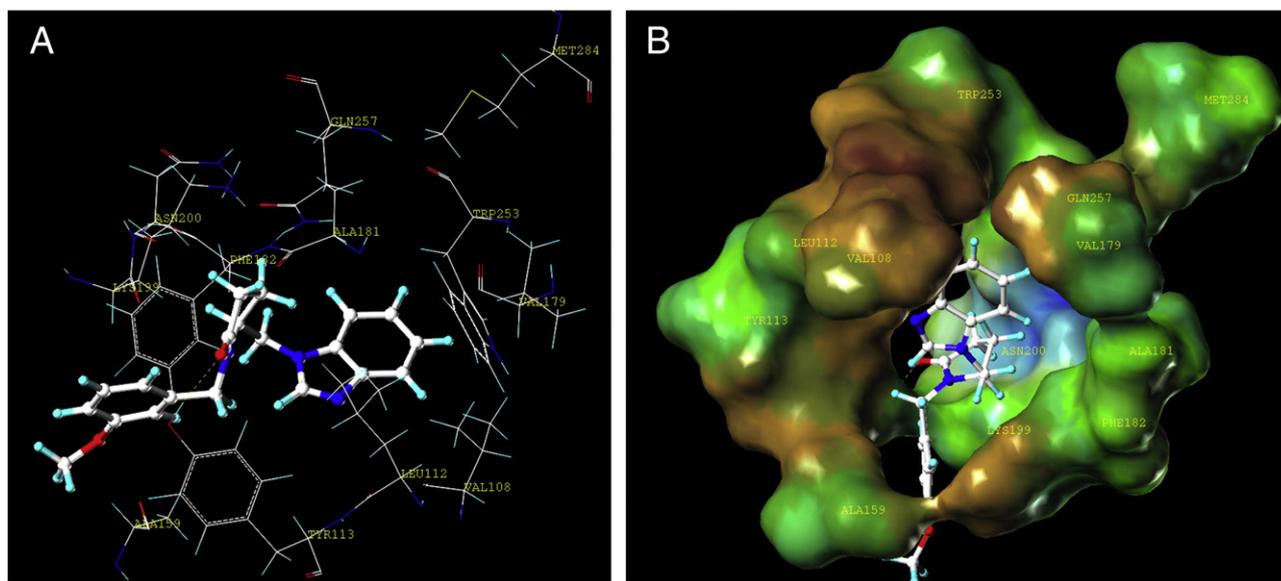
sented in Table 2. Among the observed ROEs the critical one is that between 4' and protons 20/21, because it determines the bend of the molecule and the spatial vicinity between pyrrolidinone and benzimidazole rings. In order to determine the lowest energy conformers, compatible with the critical ROEs, first the molecule was optimized using different energy minimization algorithms such as steepest descents, conjugate gradient, and Newton Raphson until  $E_i - E_{i-1}$  was  $<0.001$  kcal/mol. Random sampling was applied to find even lower energy structures using only the critical ROE H4'–H20/21 as a constraint. The obtained different conformers were again minimized using steepest descent and conjugate gradient algorithms until  $E_i - E_{i-1}$  was  $<0.001$  kcal/mol and classified into clusters. Table 3 describes the average structures, defined as conformers A–C of three clusters that are compatible with the ROE constraints. In conformer A the rings of benzimidazole and phenyl are far away from each other. In conformer B the two rings are almost perpendicular and in close proximity to each other. The close proximity is preserved in conformer C, but the two rings are almost parallel. These three low energy conformers are docked in  $\text{AT}_1$  receptor and the best scored binding pose is shown in Fig. 2. Panel A in Fig. 2 shows the structural details of MMK3 and the surrounding amino acids of the active site while panel B focuses on the lipophilic profile of the active site. The major characteristic of the docking is that benzimidazole ring is surrounded by the lipophilic moieties of Val108, Leu112 and Trp253. The carbonyl of pyrrolidinone is hydrogen bonded with Tyr113 and the aromatic ring C is situated between the lipophilic aromatic rings (shown in brown color) of PHE182 and TYR113. Interestingly, the major part of the cavity that surrounds MMK3 is lipophilic, some bear intermediate polarity (green color). Only barely in the depth of the cavity a small hydrophilic segment is observable (blue color).

The best-docked complex among the three lowest energy conformers was used as input in the MD simulations using the  $\text{AT}_1$  receptor surrounded by a lipid bilayer environment. MMK3 keeps identical conformation with that found in  $\text{CDCl}_3$  and receptor active site at lipid bilayers environment.

**Table 3**

Values of dihedral angles (defined in Fig. 1) of low energy conformer of MMK3 and conformers A–C. Derived conformer A has a relative value of energy  $-32.3$ , conformer B  $-43.3$  and conformer C  $-40.3$  kcal/mol.

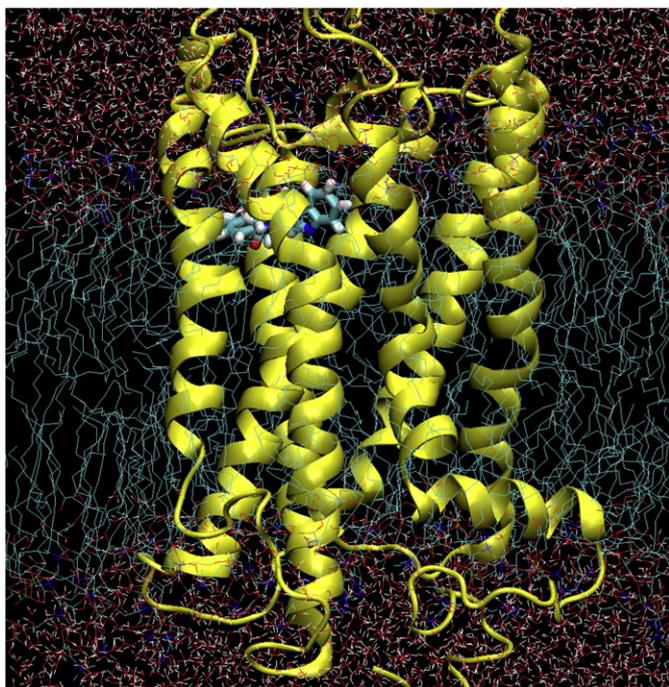
Dihedral angles	Values of dihedral angles (°) for the starting conformer	Values of dihedral angles (°) for conformer A	Values of dihedral angles (°) for conformer B	Values of dihedral angles (°) for conformer C
$\tau_1$	101.4	77.6	85.6	$-63.5$
$\tau_2$	$-61.9$	58.7	$-152.4$	60.9
$\tau_3$	$-67.6$	$-83.9$	91.0	$-89.3$
$\tau_4$	116.0	$-107.0$	65.1	$-175.1$
$\tau_5$	173.4	5.6	$-4.1$	42.8
$\tau_6$	$-58.5$	$-64.4$	$-59.7$	$-68.6$



**Fig. 2.** Docking of MMK3 in AT<sub>1</sub> receptor using different views. Panel A shows the structural details of MMK3 and the surrounding amino acids of the active site. Panel B focuses on the lipophilic profile of the active site. Colors of blue represent the hydrophilic, brown the lipophilic and green the intermediate polarity segments of the receptor active site.

A representative snapshot of the MD simulations is shown in the Fig. 3. The ligand (shown with bold sticks) at the active site of the receptor (yellow helices) was merged to DPPC and water molecules (shown with sticks). After the MD simulations, a conformational analysis was performed to six rotatable bonds (defined in the corresponding Fig. 1) in ligand. The torsional angle values of these six dihedral angles were screened throughout the MD simulations and showed to be stable.

Fig. 4A shows the conformations of MMK3 used as input coordinate for the ligand (derived from docking studies) before the MD simulations and panel B of Fig. 4 the critical interactions of MMK3



**Fig. 3.** Docking of MMK3 in AT<sub>1</sub> receptor surrounded by lipid bilayers. Yellow color represents the seven helices of AT<sub>1</sub> receptor. Lipid bilayers are constituted with 128 DPPC lipids and 3655 waters.

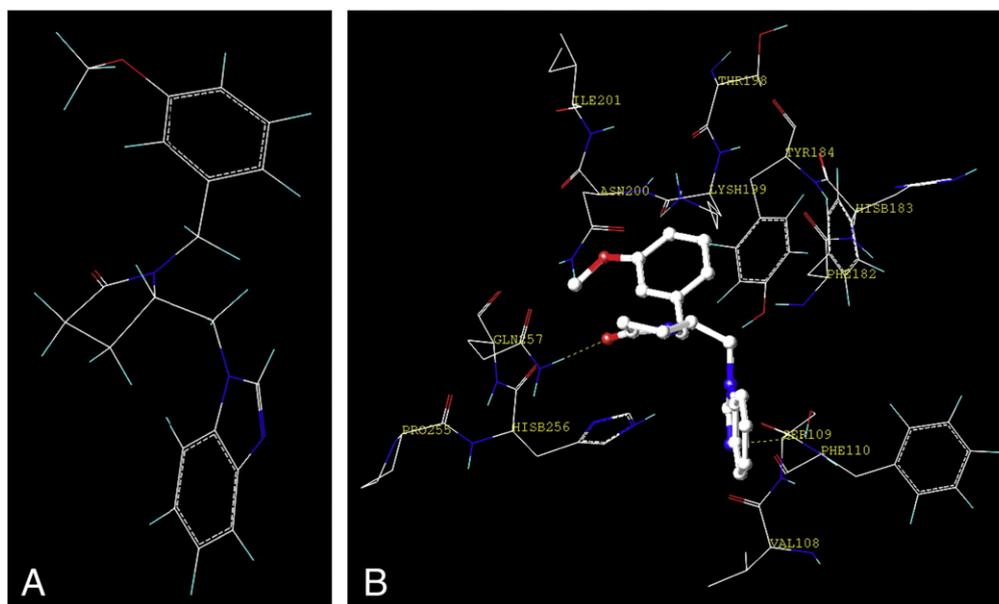
obtained after applying MD simulations. The hydrogen bonding between the oxygen of the carbonyl ring of pyrrolidinone is now shifted to the amide proton of GLN257. Another hydrogen bonding is observed between the nitrogen of imidazole ring and hydrogen of hydroxyl group of Ser109. The aromatic ring bearing the methoxy group is surrounded by a lipophilic core (Lys199, Asn200 and Tyr184), while the aromatic ring of benzimidazole by the amino acids Val108, Ser109 and Phe110.

### 3.2. Differential scanning calorimetry

The thermal changes in the pure DPPC/water system as well as the influence of different concentrated inclusions of MMK3 in DPPC bilayers are shown in Fig. 5. Without any drug (top curve) two characteristic endothermic peaks are visible referring to the pre- and the main transition, respectively. The DPPC molecules form below the pre-transition the well organized lamellar gel phase,  $L_{\beta}$ , while above the main transition temperature the fluid lamellar phase,  $L_{\alpha}$ , is apparent. An intermediate phase,  $P_{\beta}$ , is also observed, in which the bilayers are modulated by a periodic ripple (ripple phase). The recorded transition temperatures and enthalpies are in good agreement with literature values [27] (Table 4). In the presence of the drug MMK3 the following observations have been made. Already, at only 1 mol% of MMK3 the pre-transition is suppressed indicating an effect in the head-group regime of the drug molecule. Further, with increasing drug concentration the main transition temperature and the transition cooperativity decrease monotonously. This shows that drug molecules exert an additional effect in the alkyl chains, when the concentration is increased. The enthalpy of the main transition increases slightly from 7.5 to 8.1 kcal/mol for  $x=0.01$  to 0.20 and it is above that of DPPC (7.4 kcal/mol). However, the total  $\Delta H$  remains below the total enthalpy of the pure DPPC bilayers (8.5 kcal/mol). As we will outline later this enthalpy increase indicates a partial interdigitation of the alkyl chains.

### 3.3. Raman spectroscopy

Raman spectra of DPPC bilayers alone and in the presence of  $x=0.20$  MMK3 were obtained in a temperature range of 27–50 °C and were recorded in a range of 500–3500  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . In order to characterize the transition behavior, especially the C–C and C–H stretching modes, respectively, have been analyzed in greater detail.



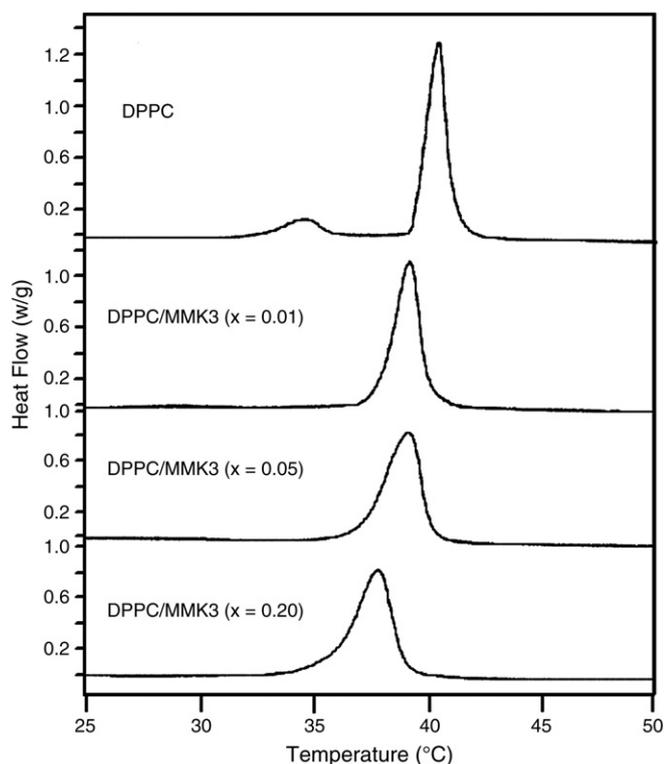
**Fig. 4.** Panel A shows the conformation of MMK3 before the MD simulations and panel B the critical interactions of MMK3 obtained after applying MD simulations.

The C–C stretching mode region in the 1050–1150  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  spectral interval reflects directly intramolecular *trans*–*gauche* conformational changes within the hydrocarbon chain region of the lipid matrix. Especially, the temperature profiles of the peak height intensity ratio  $I_{1090/1130}$  allows the direct comparison of the bilayers disorder–order characteristics between bilayers preparations without or with drug incorporation [34, 35]. Fig. 6 shows the changes in  $I_{1090/1130}$  intensity ratio caused by MMK3 when it is incorporated in DPPC bilayers. The transition temperatures compare well to the results found from the

calorimetric measurement, and it is clearly seen that MMK3 induces lowering of the *gauche/trans* ratio, i.e. across the gel to fluid phase transition  $\Delta I$  drops from  $>0.8$  to about 0.2. In summary, the gel phase region displays a greater fluidity in the presence of MMK3 and on the other side, the lipid chains in the fluid chain region exhibit less *trans* to *gauche* isomerizations.

The methylene C–H stretching mode region 2800–3100  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  provides the most intense bands in the Raman spectrum of lipid samples and is commonly used to monitor changes in the lateral packing properties and mobility of the lipid chain in both gel and liquid crystalline bilayer systems. In particular, the 2935/2880 intensity ratio measures effects originating from changes both in interchain and intrachain order–disorder processes in the bilayer acyl chains. Although the C–H stretching mode region consists of many superimposed vibrational transitions, the peak height intensity ratio described above provides a sensitive probe to monitor the lipid phase transitions [59–61]. Fig. 7 shows changes in 2935/2880 peak height intensity ratio caused by MMK3, when incorporated in DPPC bilayers. Although the effect is not as strongly expressed as in the  $I_{1090/1130}$  intensity ratio,  $\Delta I$  drops about 20–30% during the gel to fluid phase transition indicating that the entropy changes of the melting is increased under the influence of MMK3.

Other characteristic band alterations give evidence for the incorporation of MKK3 in the DPPC bilayers (data not shown). First, an additional band around 1600  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  was observed, which is attributed to an alteration of the stretch vibration of the amide bond. Second, at 714  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  corresponding to C–N stretch vibration, a shift to



**Fig. 5.** DSC scans of DPPC bilayers containing MMK3 at molar ratios  $x = 0.01, 0.05$  and  $0.20$ . The thermal scan attributed to DPPC bilayers shows two distinct thermal events. The incorporation of the drug eliminates the small endothermic event (pre-transition). The higher the incorporated concentration of the drug, the broader is the transition width and the lower the phase transition temperature.

**Table 4**

$T_{\text{onset}}$ ,  $T_m$ ,  $T_{m1/2}$  and  $\Delta H$  of DPPC alone and with incorporated MMK3 at molar ratios  $x = 0.01, 0.05$  and  $0.20$ .

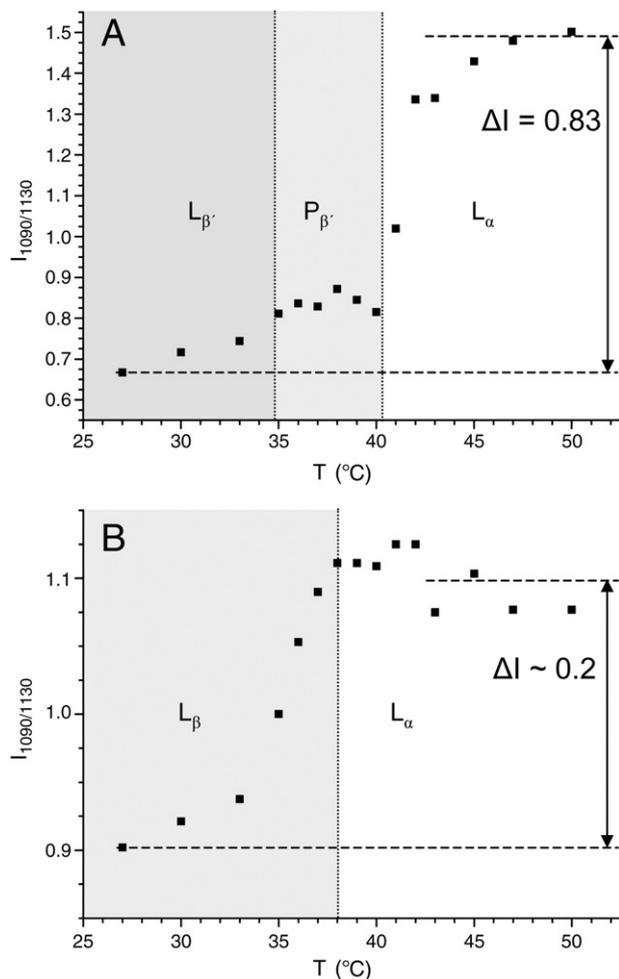
Samples	$T_{\text{onset}}$ (°C)	$T_m$ (°C)	$T_{m1/2}$ (°C)	$\Delta H$ (kcal/mol)
DPPC	(32.1) 39.4	(35.9) 41.2	(2.0) 1.0	(1.12 ± 0.07) 7.36 ± 0.05
DPPC/MMK3 ( $x = 0.01$ )	38.7	40.2	1.3	7.50 ± 0.07
DPPC/MMK3 ( $x = 0.05$ )	38.0	40.0	1.8	7.88 ± 0.10
DPPC/MMK3 ( $x = 0.20$ )	36.7	38.6	1.8	8.10 ± 0.17

Values in brackets are given for the pre-transition of DPPC. The table refers to experiments displayed in Fig. 5. R data (compare also Tables 2 and 3).

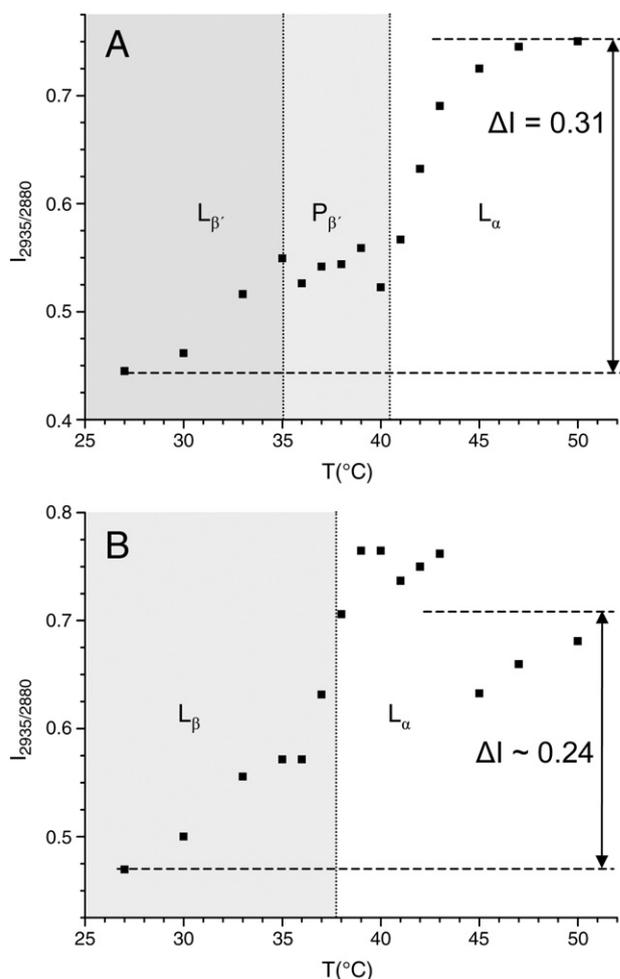
higher values was observed, when MMK3 is present in the membrane. This indicates that MMK3 interacts with head-groups. Third, MMK3 caused a shift and line-shape changes at  $1296\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , which correspond to stretching vibrations of the  $(\text{CH})_2$  region of the DPPC bilayers. This is a direct evidence of the interaction of MMK3 with  $(\text{CH})_2$  region of the DPPC bilayers.

### 3.4. X-ray diffraction

Static small angle X-ray scattering experiments were carried out on DPPC/MMK3 multilamellar vesicles to elucidate the influence of the drug onto the model membrane system (Fig. 8). Remarkably, already in the gel phase, MMK3 has a strong influence on the DPPC membranes. Visible by naked eye the usually observed quasi long range order of the membrane stacking is not preserved any more. Instead of recording the first five diffraction peaks as seen for pure DPPC liposomes in the gel phase [62], only the first order reflection is relatively well expressed (Fig. 8A). The global fitting analysis reveals two reasons for the rather diffuse scattering pattern. First, the averaged number of correlated membranes is very low, i.e. the crystallite size is limited to only about 3 lamellae, and second, the root mean square fluctuation  $\sigma$  of the membranes is about 3 times higher than normal (Table 5). The bilayer thickness as seen in the corresponding electron density profile (Fig. 8C) is only slightly influenced by the presence of MMK3, whereas the inter-membrane distance is about 7 Å increased when it is compared to the pure DPPC/



**Fig. 6.**  $I_{1090/1130}$  vs. temperature graphs for (A) DPPC alone and (B) DPPC bilayers containing  $x=0.20$  of MMK3. Note, that the presence of drug lowers the phase transition temperature and decreases  $\Delta I$ , which is accompanied with a broadening of phase transition temperature in agreement with DSC data (Fig. 5).



**Fig. 7.**  $I_{2935/2880}$  vs. temperature graphs for (A) DPPC alone and (B) DPPC bilayers containing  $x=0.20$  of MMK3. Note, that the presence of drug lowers the phase transition temperature in agreement with DSC data (Fig. 5).

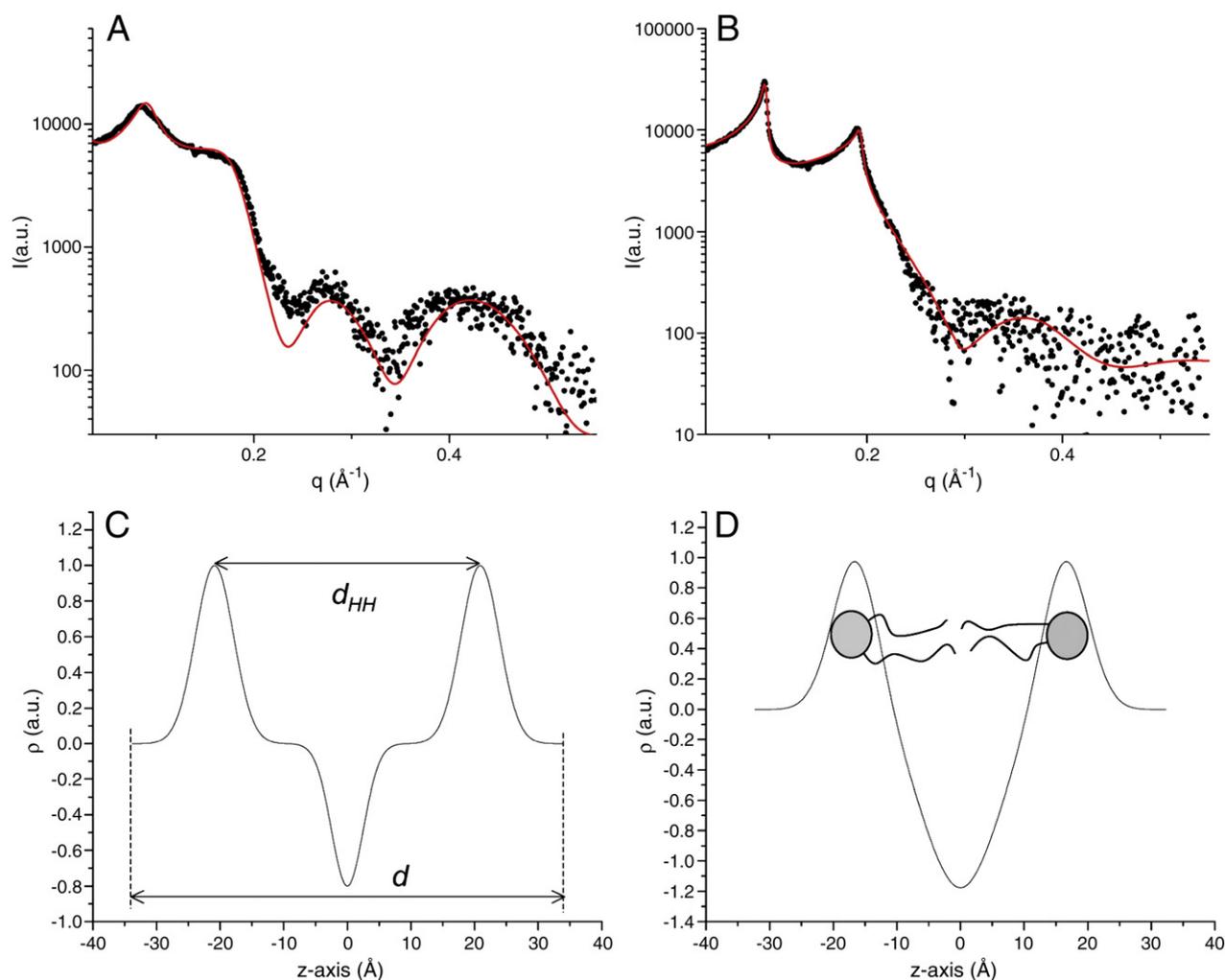
water system (Table 5). In the fluid lamellar phase at 50 °C the diffraction pattern appears common (Fig. 8B): the quasi long range order and the root mean square fluctuation  $\sigma$  in the multilamellar system are very similar to those found in pure DPPC [63–67] (Table 5). However, the fitting results show that the bilayer thickness is clearly reduced (about  $-4\text{ \AA}$ ) (Fig. 8D).

## 4. Discussion

MMK3 is a synthetic molecule designed rationally to mimic the antihypertensive effects of  $\text{AT}_1$  antagonists. Its lower activity relatively to the prototype of  $\text{AT}_1$  antagonist losartan led us to study thoroughly its conformational properties both in the receptor site and in a lipid environment. MMK3 fits nicely within the active site of the cavity as reported for other  $\text{AT}_1$  antagonists [68]. However, it does not tightly interact with critical amino acids of Lys199 and His256 as it is reported with the  $\text{AT}_1$  antagonists. This may explain in part its relatively low activity.

Since  $\text{AT}_1$  antagonists act in the active site of  $\text{AT}_1$  receptor localized in the transmembrane segment, we postulated an important role in their action with the membrane itself. For this reason, we have also studied the effects of MMK3 within lipid bilayers to reveal their possible role in the drug action.

DSC results showed that already at low concentrations ( $x=0.01$ ) MMK3 as losartan suppresses the pre-transition, a first hint for its polar interface activity. At higher concentrations, MMK3 causes  $T_m$  lowering, decrease of cooperativity and slight increase of enthalpy



**Fig. 8.** X-ray scattering curves of DPPC/MMK3 multilamellar vesicles at 25 °C (A) and 50 °C (B), and their corresponding electron density profiles (C), (D). (Top) The full red lines give the global fit to the data. (Bottom)  $d_{HH}$  defines the head to head-group distance and  $d$  the lattice repeat distance. For clarity in panel D two lipid molecule models are superimposed to the electron density profile of the bilayer. The most significant structural parameters are summarized in Table 5.

change of main transition. AT<sub>1</sub> antagonist losartan has shown to exert similar, but more pronounced, thermal effects on DPPC bilayers [69].  $T_m$  values of DPPC bilayers containing losartan at identical concentrations of  $x = 0.05$  and  $x = 0.20$  are 38.9 and 35.3 °C, respectively, and are lower as compared to values of 40.0 and 38.6 °C observed in bilayers containing MMK3.  $\Delta H$  for DPPC bilayers containing  $x = 0.05$  of either MMK3 or losartan is identical, but at higher concentration of  $x = 0.20$   $\Delta H$  is higher for the bilayers containing losartan. This indicates that both drugs either significantly increase the *trans:gauche* isomerization and/or enhance the van der Waals interactions during the main phase transition with losartan being more effective.

**Table 5**  
Structural data on pure DPPC bilayers and DPPC with 20 mol% MMK3 ( $x = 0.20$ ).

	DPPC (20 °C)	DPPC (50 °C)	DPPC/MMK3 (25 °C)	DPPC/MMK3 (50 °C)
$d$ (Å)	63.5 <sup>a</sup>	67.0 <sup>a</sup>	67.7	64.7
$d_{HH}$ (Å)	44.2 <sup>a</sup>	38.3 <sup>a</sup>	42	33
$d - d_{HH}$ (Å)	19.3 <sup>a</sup>	28.7 <sup>a</sup>	26	32
$\sigma$ (Å)	1 <sup>b</sup>	6 <sup>c</sup>	3	7

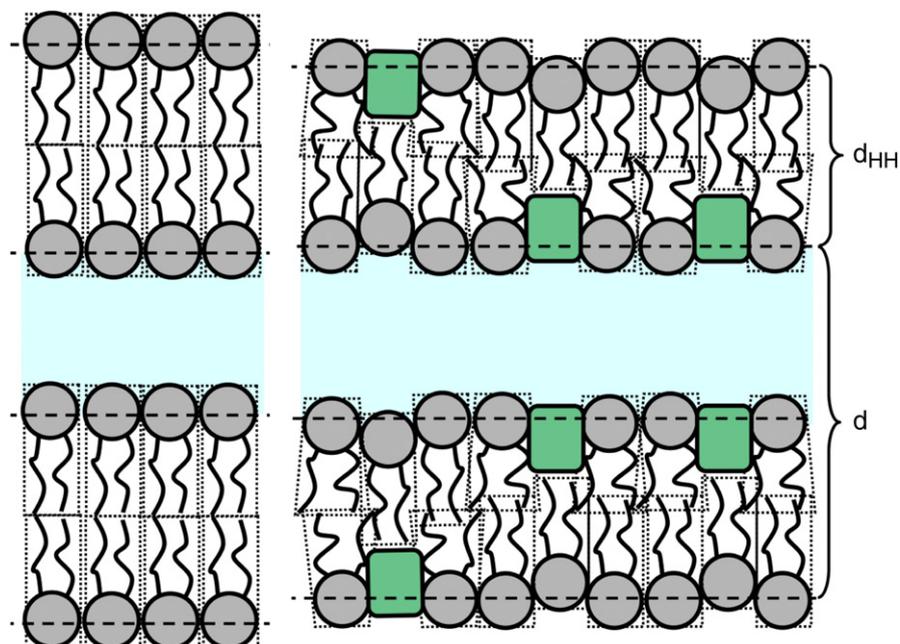
<sup>a</sup> Structural data taken from the review [12].

<sup>b</sup> Estimated value from global data analysis (data not shown).

<sup>c</sup> Data concerning the root mean square fluctuation in pure DPPC rely on data from [10,11].

Raman Spectroscopy results confirmed and complemented those obtained by DSC. In particular, Raman results showed that the gel phase in the presence of MMK3 appeared more fluid and the fluid phase less fluid in comparison with DPPC bilayers alone. The *trans:gauche* isomerization reduction points out that the enthalpy increase observed in DSC experiments is solely attributed to the increase of van der Waals interactions, giving a hint of partial interdigitation effect. Again, similar but more pronounced results are obtained with DPPC bilayers containing losartan [69].

X-ray diffraction results show that incorporated MMK3 enhances the inter-membrane distance,  $d - d_{HH}$ , in a range from 4 to 7 Å (see Table 5), inducing some additional steric repulsion between adjacent membranes. Possibly, throughout its interfacial activity it softens the bilayer and hence causes increased undulation of the membrane. This view is further supported by the observed increase of the root mean square fluctuation  $\sigma$  especially in the gel phase (25 °C). The analysis of membrane thickness reveals a different picture, here the main changes take place in the fluid lamellar phase, i.e. the bilayer reduces about 4 Å in the presence of MMK3. A possible interpretation is outlined in Fig. 9. Throughout the insertion of MMK3 into one leaflet of the membrane voids are induced that need to be filled by lipids of the opposite leaflet. This in turn causes neighboring lipid molecules to interdigitate partially. We note that the scheme bases on experimental X-ray data, i.e. the decomposition



**Fig. 9.** Bilayer stacking in pure DPPC (left) and DPPC/MMK3 multilamellar vesicles (right). The structural data are summarized in Table 5. The rough size of the MMK3 drug has been estimated from NMR data (compare also Tables 2 and 3).

of the  $d$ -spacing into bilayer and water layer thickness is realistic both for the pure DPPC/water as well as for the DPPC–MMK3/water system.

Thus, taken all complementary results of DSC, Raman spectroscopy and X-ray diffraction together, we proved the induction of partial interdigitation in the liquid crystalline phase for the first time. Within this interpretation all experimental results are consistent. First, the enthalpy increase is caused by an increase difference of the van der Waals interactions between gel and liquid crystalline phases. Second, the *trans:gauche* isomerization reduction during the main transition precludes the observed thinning of the fluid bilayer to be due to the effective lipid length shortening. Third, the overall thinning of the membrane can be sufficiently explained by partial interdigitation as demonstrated in Fig. 9.

We have already reported that partial interdigitation is observed for the bulky molecule of vinblastine and the antihypertensive AT<sub>1</sub> antagonist losartan. Both molecules are characterized as amphiphiles that reside on the interface regime and possess net positive and negative charges. These charges may be responsible for their stronger anchoring in this region and cause more effective partial interdigitation effect [70–72].

In conclusion, we showed that MMK3's observed lower bioactivity in comparison to SARTANs may be attributed mainly to two reasons: first, although it resides at the interface regime of lipid bilayers in the same manner as SARTANs do, its thermodynamical and structural effects are not as pronounced. This may preclude MMK3 to reach the critical concentration for reaching the active site of the receptor. Second, although the drug molecule fits nicely to the active site of the receptor, it does not exert the right interactions with the key amino acids lacking the proper stereoelectronic requirements. Therefore, MMK3's Odyssey to Ithaca is restrained by two elements: the nature of the bilayer matrix and stereoelectronic active site requirements.

To further examine the role of the lipid bilayers we are currently performing similar studies with other AT<sub>1</sub> antagonists. Hitherto, such studies show that AT<sub>1</sub> antagonists do not exert a unique perturbing effect, and hence, these results urge for more comprehending understanding of the role of lipid bilayers in the antihypertensive drug action.

In this respect, we like to point out that there is a growing awareness that even small structural variations in the composition of cell membranes can influence the function of intrinsic membrane proteins. Any membrane active drug does change the lateral pressure profile in bilayers and hence, can affect the behavior of membrane proteins [73]. This means that at least locally any membrane interface active solute leaves its special fingerprint [74], and it will be of great importance for future rational drug design to understand not only direct drug action at the active site, but also to understand specific drug to bilayer interactions to foresee at least qualitatively the consequences for drug efficiency.

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