Benzothiophene-based Fragments Act as Reversible and Irreversible Covalent Probes for Dynamic Coactivator Med25

by

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DEDICATION

I’d like to dedicate this work to my grandparents. Especially, my great-grandfather Ranford L. Williams (Papa) and my grandmother Sheila Moppin (Ma Sheila) who both supported me and believed that I could achieve anything I put my mind to but have unfortunately passed away before the completion of this document. Thank you for your love and encouragement and may your souls rest in peace. Also, to my great grandmother who’s been a continual support to me through all my ups and downs. Last, I want to dedicate this to my friends and family who continue to inspire me every day. I’m not sure how I’d be the person I am today and who I’m destined to become without your influence.
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PREFACE

The following dissertation outlines the development of two novel thermostabilizers of Med25 AcID in search of small molecule modulators of Med25-related Protein-Protein Interactions. We develop small molecules identified from a Cysteine Tethering Screen into Irreversible modulators and investigate their interaction with Med25 AcID.
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ABSTRACT

Transcriptional coactivators mediate transcriptional activity within cells by forming transient protein-protein interactions (PPIs) to facilitate the assembly of the RNA polymerase machinery. Dysregulation of these PPIs results in disease. Transcriptional coactivators consist either of multiple protein subunits or multiple subdomains that assist the transcriptional activation process through a PPI network with transcriptional activators. For example, Med25, a subunit of the Mediator complex, has been shown to play a role in bridging the Mediator complex and RNA Polymerase II at Med25-dependent gene targets, ultimately resulting in transcriptional upregulation. Mis-regulation of Med25-transcriptional activator PPIs contributes to viral infection, oncogenesis, and stress response disorders. For this reason, there is great interest in identifying druglike modulators of Med25. The motif that Med25 uses to form activator PPIs is the Activator Interaction Domain (AcID). It contains two binding surfaces, the H1 and H2 faces, that are large (900 Å²) and have little topology for small-molecule interactions. However, Med25 AcID contains two solvent-exposed cysteine residues adjacent to the H1 binding surface, suggesting that a site-directed screening approach might be an effective method for ligand discovery. Towards that end, the Mapp lab identified reversible covalent modulators of Med25 AcID using a disulfide Tethering approach in collaboration with the Wells lab. When the hits from the screen were examined, we noted the unusual structure of a benzothiophene-containing ligand that Tethered Med25 AcID at C506 selectively and potently and thus appeared to be an excellent candidate for further development.
The lead fragment contains both a benzothiophene moiety and an isonipecotic acid moiety, along with a disulfide used for Tethering. In Chapter 2 a study dissecting the roles of each of these functional groups and their contribution to the affinity of the lead fragment for Med25 was carried out. Each of the molecules was assessed using single-point Tethering experiments in a time-dependent fashion. The results indicate that both the benzothiophene and the nipecotic acid groups have some affinity for Med25 AcID but that neither recapitulates the affinity of the lead fragment. Taken together, the data suggest that both moieties make important contacts with Med25 AcID.

In Chapter 3 we transformed the reversible ligands from Chapter 2 into irreversible covalent ligands through the incorporation of α-bromoacetamide into each of the ligands. Each of the ligands was synthesized using standard methods and then tested in single-point alkylation experiments. We also used these experiments to evaluate the effects of stereochemistry on small molecule binding to Med25. Through this we demonstrate that benzothiophene-based ligands discovered through disulfide Tethering can be transformed into irreversible probes that target Med25 AcID. We show that both (R)- and (S)-benzothiophene nipecotic acetyl bromides not only irreversibly bind to Med25 AcID but also shift the melting temperature of Med25 AcID, suggesting that these two compounds stabilize particular Med25 AcID conformations. Thus, these two molecules are useful probes for us and others for the study of Med25 function. Future efforts will examine the effect of the conformational stabilization on Med25 PPI networks in vitro and in cells.
CHAPTER I Dynamic Coactivator Med25 Protein-Protein Interactions and Disease

Chapter 1.1 Background and Introduction

Transcriptional coactivators mediate transcriptional activity of cells by forming transient protein-protein interactions (PPIs) to facilitate the assembly of the RNA polymerase machinery (Figure 1.A). Dysregulation of these PPIs results in disease.\textsuperscript{1-18} Transcriptional coactivators are proteins consisting either of multiple protein subunits or multiple subdomains that assist the transcriptional activation process through a PPI network with transcriptional activators. For example, Med25, a subunit of the Mediator complex has been shown to play a role in recruiting both the remaining Mediator subunits and RNA Polymerase II to Med25-dependent gene targets, ultimately resulting in transcriptional upregulation (Figure 1.1B). Med25 was first discovered in 2004 by Tomomori-Sato et al. as an ortholog of Saccharomyces cerevisiae Mediator subunit Cse2.\textsuperscript{19} Tomomori-Sato et al. used several different Mediator preparations combined with various biochemical analyses to validate that Med25 is a bona fide subunit of Mediator. Med25 is
expressed within higher order eukaryotes (rats, mice, human, and plants) suggesting this subunit plays more of a role in species-specific regulatory processes.\textsuperscript{2,3,9,11,12,20–31}

Over time researchers have shown that Med25 is a 747-residue protein subunit of Mediator (Figure 1.2) consisting of three main domains.\textsuperscript{32–34} The von Willebrand factor A (VWA) domain, (AAs 17-226) which recruits and secures the other relevant Mediator subunits for transcriptional activation, the Activator Interacting Domain (AcID) (AAs 394-543), which is responsible for Med25’s activator interactions, and the Nuclear Receptor Domain (NR) (AAs 646-650) which participates in PPIs with nuclear receptors such as the retinoic acid receptor\textsuperscript{35}

\textbf{Chapter 1.1 Med25 AcID PPIs and Disease}

Since its discovery, Med25 AcID has been shown to be necessary for interacting with disparate activators such as the viral protein VP16\textsuperscript{27,36–39}, Ets-related factors such as ERM\textsuperscript{36,37} and the stress response protein ATF6\textsuperscript{α}\textsuperscript{,14,30,34,38,39} Med25 AcID contains two binding surfaces termed H1 and H2. While VP16 binds to both sites simultaneously, ERM interacts with the H1 face while ATF6\textsuperscript{α} binds the H2 face. (Figure 1.2) These interactions have been characterized by protein MR studies as well as genetic and biochemical experiments in an attempt to better understand the overall mechanisms involved.\textsuperscript{1,2,5,10,29,31,26,27,20,21,30,23,22,24,35,40–51}
Developing a chemical probe that disrupts or enhances Med25-related PPIs allows us to better understand their mechanisms and leads to the discovery of transcription-targeting therapeutics. Since it's been demonstrated\(^{52}\) in the case of the Ets-related factors ETV1/4/5 are often overexpressed in prostate cancer and have been shown to be functionally important for the transcription of genes regulated by these types of enhancers.\(^{36}\) Additionally, AP1-motifs which bind to JUN and FOS transcription factor families can be observed in Med25-occupied regions with both TFs making specific contacts with Med25. It’s interesting to note that the differences between these two TFs shows that FOS is able to strongly bind to the same Med25 site as ETV4, while JUN interacts with two other distinct sites.\(^{36}\)

Additionally, it has been recently demonstrated that Med25’s H1 and H2 sites are allosterically connected as the Koff rates of both VP16 and ATF6\(α\) are reduced when Med15’s H1 face is pre-engaged with ERM either covalently or noncovalently, but neither of their Kon rates are affected by ERM’s presence. It is hypothesized that tethered ERM forces Med25 through a conformational change that adds to the binding affinity of ATF6\(α\) for Med25 AcID.\(^{39}\) These results encourage the development of small molecule modulators that could tether to Med25 and recapitulate these allosteric effects and thus act as regulators for the conformational changes that Med25 undergoes upon binding. This could lead to chemical probes that for example can dissect the role of ETV-Med25 PPIs in initiating and progressing metastatic breast cancers or other related diseases.\(^{52}\)

Chapter 1.3 Med25 AcID Utilizes Large and Flexible Binding Surfaces for Activator PPIs

The previous examples of Med25-related activators all vary greatly in amino acid sequence, characteristics, as well as functional output. The mapped Med25-activator PPI sites that participate in various transient interactions cover a large surface area (Figure 1.3A) of each protein suggesting the absence of characteristic binding pockets which typically aid in traditional ligand
discovery techniques\textsuperscript{53–57} While traditionally success has been made using protein-ligand NMR experiments \textsuperscript{32–34,36} and computational docking experiments \textsuperscript{58} in identifying the interaction surface of Med25 PPIs, currently there are no available crystal structures of Med25 AcID that would aid in identifying small molecule lead fragments to guide the rational design of therapeutic candidates and computational docking can only provide limited information if the fragment’s binding site is unknown. These challenges have previously rendered dynamic transient protein interactions and their interaction surfaces as untargetable.\textsuperscript{53,59}

Additionally, dynamic proteins tend to exist in varying degrees of disorder. (\textbf{Figure 1.3B})

As an example, in solution, both Med25 and ERM exist as floppy unstructured states\textsuperscript{32,34} adding to their difficulty to target. Protein NMR experiments combined with mutational analysis experiments have shown specific amino acid contacts that facilitate the binding interaction (\textbf{Figure 1.3C}) and that upon binding these two proteins transiently form secondary structures using specific key amino acid residues\textsuperscript{36} indicating a conformational change that ultimately results in transcriptional activity.
Even though disparate activators use the same AcID binding surface for these interactions, it is hypothesized that each activator would promote the formation of unique conformations that would properly communicate the transcriptional signal to the cellular machinery. Since dynamic coactivators like Med25 utilize large and flexible binding surfaces instead of traditional pockets, the search for small molecule therapeutics has been rather challenging. This leaves the question of how can you possibly design a small organic molecule that selectively inhibits/enhances one of these Coactivator/Activator PPIs?\textsuperscript{60–66,59,67–71} For the regulation of related Med 25 related PPIs, I propose identifying small molecule modulators that recapitulate this transient structural change and therefore trap Med25 in specific conformations that would alter this protein’s ability to bind to its endogenous activators and thus allow us to better understand the mechanistic underpinnings of transcriptional regulation.

\textbf{Chapter 1.4 Identifying Small Molecule Scaffolds for Med25 AcID-PPI Modulation}

Despite the challenges of targeting Med25 AcID, co-workers in the Mapp lab have had some success in the development of inhibitors of Med25-activator PPIs. For example, natural product screening led to the identification of depsides and depsidones as relevant inhibitors of Med25 PPIs likely by binding to one of Med25’s flexible loops. Recently Dr. Garlick was able to show that the depsidone natural product Norstictic acid (Scheme 1.1) inhibits Med25 AcID-related PPIs \textbf{by covalently targeting a dynamic loop binding site and flanking one canonical binding surface allowing for both orthosteric and allosteric inhibition}\textsuperscript{62,72} This added natural products to the repertoire of Med25 inhibitors, however natural products when isolated from naturally sources are typically obtained in low yields and are synthetically challenging to make limiting their therapeutic use.

\begin{center}
\textbf{Scheme 1.1 Norstictic Acid}
\end{center}

The depsidone natural product norstictic acid has been shown to interact with Med25 AcID's H2 face.\textsuperscript{80}
Peptidomimetics have also been developed to untwine the governing mechanism of Med25-related transcriptional activation such as Dr. Stanford’s use of peptoids and Dr. Patelli’s use of Lipopeptide binders. These methods can result in therapeutic leads and can be easily modified using standard solid phase peptide synthesis (SPPS), but these molecules be so large that they have trouble crossing cellular membranes and thus are not typically considered as drug candidates.

Taken together these studies have demonstrated the targeting of the K519-521 loop adjacent to the H2 binding surface within Med25 AcID is effective for both orthosteric and allosteric inhibition of Med25-activator PPIs. However, there are at least 2 additional dynamic substructures within Med25 AcID that we have not previously been able to engage with small molecules or peptidomimetics and thus need to use alternative discovery strategies to develop such probes.
Chapter 1.5 Disulfide Tethering Screening the Wells Lab Disulfide Library

A promising technique to discover small organic molecules to act as inhibitors/enhancers is a site-directed ligand discovery method known as disulfide Tethering (Figure 1.4)\(^{75,76}\) This technique can be used on any proteins either by using native cysteine residues or engineered cysteine residues. When the cysteines must be engineered, it is crucial that the cysteine(s) be solvent exposed and placed between 5-10 Å from the expected binding pocket or surface, as to ensure the small organic molecule reaches the binding surface.\(^ {75}\) Small molecule fragments with any affinity for the protein of interest (POI) can be identified through mass spectrometry (MS) analysis as small molecule-protein complexes. Additionally, this technique can be used in a high throughput manner to rapidly identify small molecule binders or several molecules can be tested at once, so long as the fragments tested vary in molecular weight by about 5 Da, otherwise it can be difficult to interpret the MS readout as observed equilibrium complexes could have multiple identities. Fragments with higher affinity will display higher complex formation than weaker binders allowing for an additional method to rule out fragments. Disulfide Tethering can be used to identify potential small molecules that can act as probes for dynamic PPIs; this was previously

![Figure 1.4 General Disulfide Tethering Schematic](image)

Figure 1.4 General Disulfide Tethering Schematic. A general schematic of Site Directed Cysteine Disulfide Tethering. A protein target is incubated with a library of disulfide fragments. At equilibrium, small molecules with innate affinity for the protein of interest will form small molecule protein complexes that can be detected using q-Tof MS\(^ {75,76}\).
demonstrated by the Mapp lab’s successfully use of this technique to obtain the first crystal structure of ligand bound CBP KIX using fragment 1-10 (Scheme 1.3) from a Tethering screen.75,77

**Chapter 1.5a Advantages of this technique:**

Since Med25 AcID’s allostERICally connected binding sites are large and dynamic, it can be challenging to know where small molecules target AcID. This technique allows us to directly target Med25 AcID’s H1 face resulting in site-specific small molecule probes that can bind with either or both of Med25’s native cysteines (C497, C506). Because the fragments interact with AcID through a reversible, covalent disulfide bond, this method also allows for the identification of molecules with moderate-to-weak binding affinity, thus allowing for the identification of fragments that would normally be ruled out to be considered as starting points for designing therapeutic probes. Within the H1 face of AcID, C506 rests on one its dynamic loops. It’s been shown that Med25 uses its dynamic loops for allosteric regulation of its binding sites, so targeting C506 with small molecules could lead to both orthosteric and allosteric regulation of Med25 PPIs.

**Chapter 1.5b Previous uses of Disulfide Tethering:**

Dynamic regions within proteins are typically viewed as untargetable. Nonetheless, the Mapp Lab has used disulfide Tethering to target dynamic transcriptional coactivators. After initial success with the CBP KIX domain, where a ligand-bound crystal structure was derived, they attempted a similar screen with Med25 AcID.77 As noted earlier, Med25 has two solvent-exposed cysteines (C497 and C506) readily available for Tethering experiments. Given that both cysteines
reside within the H1 binding surface of Med25 AcID, C497 on the stable β-barrel core and C506 on one of Med25 AcID’s dynamic loops, it was hypothesized that these cysteines would be reactive enough for Tethering.\textsuperscript{78} From the resulting screen 24 lead compounds that bound to Med25 AcID with equilibrium concentration values of at least 16% were identified, some of which were able to react at both cysteines shown in \textbf{Chapter 2 (Scheme 2.4 and 2.5)}. These results suggest that both cysteines on Med25 AcID are targetable to different extents. Additionally, both the CBP KIX and Med25 AcID Tethering studies highlight \textbf{how dynamic regions within proteins are indeed targetable and that targeting these dynamic regions may lead to the development of small molecule probes for Med25 AcID-related PPIs}. Recently our lab has performed follow up studies on the hits in this library.\textsuperscript{78} For example, Compound 22 (\textbf{Scheme 1.4}), a fragment derived from a combination of naproxen and isonipecotic acid moieties, was bound to Med25 AcID and used transient kinetics to test the allosteric effect of the tethered compound. Here the $K_{\text{off}}$ values were reduced by 25% suggesting Med25 AcID dissociates from VP16 or ATF6α faster than 22-bound Med25 AcID.\textsuperscript{39} This exemplifies that small molecules can recapitulate the allosteric communication between Med25’s sites just as prebound activator ERM\textsuperscript{36}, and suggests the need to develop specific probes that capture significant protein conformations necessary for molecular recognition and gene transcription.

\textbf{Scheme 1.4 Structure of Compound 22}Compound 22 was identified from a 2017 Tethering screen against Med25 AcID.\textsuperscript{78,78,79} It has been drawn without the disulfide tether to highlight the interacting fragment.
Chapter 1.5c Disulfide Tethering as a screening tool for SAR

Disulfide Tethering permitted the investigation of small organic fragments with intrinsic binding affinity for Med25 AcID. Hits were defined as fragments that display a detectable equilibrium concentration greater than 15% termed the active set. Through a cheminformatics analysis of Med25 AcID’s 2017 Tethering screening results carried out by Dr. Clint Regan, it was hypothesized that the certain sub-fragments within the active set of fragments may have enhanced binding activity towards Med25. Many fragments within the tethering library have similar structural features. For example, within the Hits described in Chapter 2 Scheme 2.5, Three out of the twenty-four hits contain a benzothiophene moiety, six contain a nipecotic or isonipecotic moiety, and all 24 contain aromatic regions. It is also significant to note that the benzothiophene moiety seems to be localized to the active set as there were only four total benzothiophene based fragments in the entire 1600 compound library, and three of them were hits, while the (R)-nipecotic or isonipecotic substructures, and aromatic fragments are ubiquitously seen within the entire library. Considering these observations, the benzothiophene fragment may have unique affinity for Med25 Acid. Thus, active compound 5 that was composed of both a benzothiophene and an isonipecotic acid moiety (Scheme 1.5) was selected for further investigation and thus is the basis of this study investigating how each feature adds to the overall binding interaction. We decided to explore different structure activity relationships regarding the disulfide tail, the N-substitution, and stereochemistry and their role in fragment 5’s ability to engage with Med25 AcID.
Chapter 2 describes how I synthesized various disulfide sub-fragment analogues of 5 and performed single point Tethering (SPT) experiments against wtMed25 AcID at two different BME concentrations (1mM high stringency and 0.1mM low stringency). By comparing percentages of the equilibrium species detected using qTOFMS, we determined that both sub fragments play a role in compound 5 binding to Med25 AcID, and that the isonipecotic acid fragment is more than just a chemical spacer. We also demonstrate that the benzothiophene fragment alone is reactive enough to bind both of Med25 AcID solvent exposed cysteines and thus binds less specifically than either the iso-nipecotic acid fragment or the combined analogue 5.

Chapter 1.5d Disadvantage of Using Reversible Fragments as Modulators

A major disadvantage of disulfide Tethering as a ligand discovery method is that reversible probes are limited to in vitro experiments as disulfide tethered fragments would be less stable in the cellular environment. Since these disulfide probes can be so easily reduced off the POIs, any activity observed cannot be directly correlated to small molecule binding.\textsuperscript{79–83} To evaluate these different constructs as potential ligands of Med25 capable of inhibiting related PPIs and to increase the lifetime of these fragments for cellular experiments, reversible probes must be further functionalized into irreversible probes for used in cell-based studies.

Chapter 1.6 Alkylation Background:

Chapter 1.6a Irreversible Covalent Ligands:

Covalent ligands can be used to create small molecule probes to target proteins and their PPIs to better understand their mechanistic roles. Utilization of the Wells lab disulfide Tethering library resulted in the identification of reversible covalent ligands that target Med25 AcID. The newly formed covalent bond allows small organic fragments with moderate or weak affinity for
the protein to bind to the protein’s binding surfaces. However, this bond can be easily reduced and
thus renders this probe unusable within a cellular context due to its reducing nature of the chance
for off target effects and toxicity.\textsuperscript{80,82–86} Chapter 3 begins with the synthesis of irreversible
analogues of the compounds studied in Chapter 2 that bind to Med25 AcID’s solvent exposed
cysteines through reversible tethering. Irreversible modulators were made by converting the
disulfide tail necessary for reversible tethering into a thiol reactive electrophile capable of reacting
to form irreversible bonds.

Irreversible ligands have gained popularity within the therapeutic world due to their ability
to fully bind a POI, however, there still remains skepticism over the efficacy of using irreversible
probes due to their off-target activity, lifetime within the cell, and toxicity.\textsuperscript{87–91} Irreversible ligands
can be developed through several different methods such as using amino acid R group activity to
our advantage. There are several thiol reactive moieties which allow Cysteines to irreversibly bind
with small organic molecules.\textsuperscript{30,92–99} For example, Iodoacetamide, a known thiol reactive
compound can singly label Med25 roughly 30%, and double labeling can be seen roughly 12%
over two hours at various concentrations. (\textbf{Figure 3.4}) However, this small molecule is very
reactive and generally used to probe cysteine reactivity for any POI. For Chapter 3 we’ve chosen
to use bromo acetyl bromide to transform the fragments explored in Chapter 2 from reversible
probes to irreversible probes.

\textbf{Chapter 1.6b Assessing Thermostability:}

Finally, we use the results from Chapter 3 to compare whether irreversible fragment
binding could lead to stabilization of the protein.\textsuperscript{100,101} Differential scanning fluorimetry (DSF)
(\textbf{Figure 1.5}) was used to assess whether the small molecules when complexed to Med25 AcID
would alter wtMed25 AcID’s melting temperature ($T_m$). This technique has been a powerful
screening tool for dynamic proteins as changes in thermostability can be detected even without knowledge of the binding sites. The melting temperature ($T_m$) of the protein is interpreted as the inflection point of the resulting melt curve. While allosteric effects of small molecules cannot be determined using this method, their effect on protein stability can be determined. In a high throughput screen, molecules can be sorted by their ability to increase or decrease protein temperature. Combined with further binding studies allosteric inhibition can be inferred using modified tethering hits.

**Chapter 1.7 Summary of Dissertation Findings:**

In this Dissertation, we first selected compound 5 as a point of reference and synthesized disulfide analogs of the composite sub-fragments. Using SPT experiments, we evaluate the role that each substructure plays in binding to dynamic transcriptional coactivator Med25 AcID’s H1 face. We hypothesized that the benzothiophene fragment would exhibit significant equilibrium tethering percentages, while the isonipecotic acid fragment may just act as a spacer that better positions relevant aromatic groups towards Med25 AcID for an enhanced reaction as other benzothiophene based probes also appeared within the active set of molecules but had lower equilibrium binding concentrations.

We then transform the reversible probes tested in Chapter 2 into irreversible ligands using bromo acetyl bromide. We then utilize

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**Figure 1.5 DSF to Assess Protein Stabilization** Differential Scanning Fluorimetry (DSF) uses fluorophores to detect a protein’s melting temperature ($T_m$) by binding hydrophobic regions on proteins that become exposed as the protein melts and unfolds. This method can be performed on ligand-bound proteins to assess stabilization through observed changes in $T_m$. 

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We then transform the reversible probes tested in Chapter 2 into irreversible ligands using bromo acetyl bromide. We then utilize
Single Point Alkylation studies in comparison to iodoacetamide and BME alkylation, to evaluate the effects stereochemistry plays in ligand binding to AcID. After determining experimental conditions where at minimum 25% alkylation occurs these probes were incubated with Med25 AcID over 24 hours and DSF was performed on each complex to assess the thermostabilization resulting in the identification of 2 novel benzothiophene-based fragments that alter Med25 AcID’s Tm greater than 3 standard deviations of the mean. It has been shown that binding ability of a fragment doesn’t always correlate with inhibition or enhancement activity of other endogenous interactions.\(^{39,78}\) For example, compound 22 was the 3rd worst binding fragment within the hits, yet it’s capable of teasing out mechanistic details between Med25 and the Ets-related family of activators. Therefore, future work will be focused on exploring these benzothiophene-based probes with competitive binding studies such as Fluorescence Polarization (FP) to compare wtMed25 and small molecule-bound Med25’s abilities to bind canonical binding partner. Since these molecules target the H1 face of Med25, any interference with Med25-ERM PPIs is a direct result of an orthosteric interaction, while interference with Med25-ATF6\(\alpha\) would suggest an allosteric one. Assessment of the functional results of these experiments would facilitate the development of novel Med25 AcID-related transcriptional therapeutics.

Chapter 1.8 References


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CHAPTER II Investigating the Role of Nipecotic Acid-based Fragments and Benzothiophene-based Fragments as Reversible Covalent Probes of Med25 AcID

Chapter 2.1 Abstract

Identifying small molecule probes for dynamic coactivators has been a challenging and important goal for dissecting the role of coactivator protein-protein interactions (PPIs) in disease. The Mapp lab in conjunction with the Wells lab have demonstrated how site-directed ligand discovery can be utilized for targeting dynamic loop regions of coactivator proteins. In Chapter 2 we report an analysis of several Tethering fragments discovered through a 2017 disulfide Tethering screen of the coactivator Med25. Through this work we found that lead fragment 5 composed of a benzothiophene moiety and a nipecotic acid group utilize both sub-features to form specific interactions with Med25 AcID displaying max tethering of 74%. Individually the benzothiophene or nipecotic acid moieties only Tethered 2-20%. Taken together, the results indicate that fragment 5 is an excellent starting point for the development of an irreversible Med25 modulator, as outlined in Chapter 3.
Chapter 2.2 Introduction

Disulfide Tethering has been used to study protein-small molecule interaction and protein-peptide binding for a wide range of proteins of interest (POI)\textsuperscript{8,19–21} (Figure 2.1A). Tethering is a powerful method for doing so because it is a site-directed screening strategy such that one can target very specific regions within a protein for ligand discovery. In a site-directed disulfide Tethering screen, a POI containing a cysteine is incubated with a library of mixed disulfide fragment molecules. Fragments with innate affinity for a binding site within 5-10 Å away from a solvent-exposed cysteine will form a reversible covalent bond via disulfide exchange, forming a complex with detectable equilibrium concentration. In this way, hits can be identified through mass spectrometric (MS) analysis of each screening well.\textsuperscript{19} This method can also be used in a high throughput manner allowing for rapid testing of large disulfide libraries. Disulfide fragments used in Tethering have two main components, a variable carboxylic “HEAD” for the interaction with the POI and a disulfide “TAIL” for the formation of a covalent bond with the cysteine in the POI (Figure 2.1B). By using this site-directed ligand discovery method, the Mapp lab has identified several ligands that
are capable of binding to specific sites within transcriptional coactivators that alter the conformation and interaction networks of those proteins. For example, previous coworkers dissecting the structure and function of the master coactivator CBP identified a small molecule fragment that targeted a dynamic loop via engineered cysteine L664C in the KIX domain²⁰ (Figure 2.2A). This fragment 1-10 (Scheme 2.1), allosterically and orthosterically inhibited the KIX PPI networks and stabilized KIX sufficiently such that the first crystal structure of the protein was obtained.

More recently, the Mapp lab conducted a Tethering screen on the coactivator Med25, a sub stoichiometric subunit of the Mediator complex, in an effort to identify fragments capable of modifying Med25’s activator-binding activities.²²,²³ While the Med25 and CBP KIX exhibit disparate structures, they do share a few common features. Both have at least two binding sites that allosterically communicate and both contain dynamic loops that play a role in allostery. (Figure 2.2B and 2.2C) It is the Activator Interaction Domain (AcID) within Med25 that interacts with the transcription factors (TFs) VP16, ²⁴–²⁸ Ets-related activators ERM, ETV1, and ETV4, ²⁹,³⁰ cJun, ²⁹,³¹ p53, ³² IE62, ³³ RSV NR1, ³⁴ and ATF6α ³⁵,³⁶ using the two binding surfaces either separately or simultaneously. (Figure 2.3). Dysregulation of these Med25-related
PPIs results in viral gene transcription, oncogenesis, and an altered ER stress response. Thus, it would be useful to have small molecule probes as starting points for therapeutic agents. Previous attempts to target and disrupt Med25 PPIs using traditional screening methods have been largely unsuccessful, with only a single small-molecule inhibitor reported for Med25 PPIs. Some recent natural products screens have identified natural products that can bind Med25 and inhibit related PPI activity; however their complicated structures make them challenging to chemically synthesize and thus difficult to use in SAR studies for probe development.

The binding surfaces within Med25 are much larger than typical binding pockets, approximately 900 Å², and lack significant topology for small molecule binding. **However, recent work from our lab found that the dynamic loops flanking the binding surfaces are critical for both the molecular recognition of activator binding partners and allosteric communication between the binding surfaces** (Figure 2.3). Thus, Med25 AcID’s **dynamic loops** were the focus of the Tethering screen.
Chapter 2.3 Results from a 2017 Tethering Screen against Med25 AcID

Prior work in the Mapp lab demonstrated that Med25 AcID has two solvent-exposed cysteines capable of reacting with electrophiles. One of the cysteines (C497) is on the beta barrel core of the coactivator’s activator binding domain (ABD), adjacent to the dynamic loop on the H1 face. The second cysteine (C506) resides on a dynamic loop between the H1 and H2 faces, though both fragments are perfectly suited to target Med25 AcID’s H1 face. Thus, it was expected that a Tethering screen would identify ligands for one or both cysteines. In a 2017 Tethering screen conducted in collaboration with the Wells laboratory at UCSF, twenty-four small molecule fragments were identified as Med25 binders. (Figures 2.4 and 2.5)

Previous studies with compound 22 (Scheme 2.2) showed that when covalently bound to C506 it recapitulates allosteric changes involved in native Med25 PPIs. More specifically, compound 22 lowers the off-rates of both ATF6α and VP16 with the H2 face of Med25. A comparison of Med25 modulators obtained from the traditional disulfide Tethering screen, using

\[ \text{Scheme 2.2 Structure of Fragment 22.} \]

Compound 22 identified from a 2017 Tethering Screen to bind to Med25 and recapitulate Med25 PPIs.
Med25 AcID as the POI and those obtained from an FP-Tethering screen using the Med25-ERM complex showed minimal overlap between the two hit groups. These results emphasize the point that a molecule’s ability to bind to a POI is not the only factor relevant to altering PPI activity. In other words, a molecule may Tether to one of the cysteines in Med25 AcID yet not affect the PPIs of interest, so choosing the best binding probe may not always result in the most biologically active probe. Rather, a molecule that can bind specifically to the POI and displays biological activity makes for the best modulator.

Examining fragment 22 in comparison to the other hit fragments from the tethering library (Scheme 2.3), a few notable patterns can be observed in structure and activity. First, the compound numbering scheme is in order of highest Med25 labeler 1 to lowest Med25 labeler 24. Fragment had the ability to either singly tether (binding at a single Cysteine) or doubly tether (binding at both solvent exposed cysteines), however only the single labeling percentage is

Scheme 2.3 Structure of Hits from 2017 Med25 Tethering Screen. 2017 Tethering Screening Results: Top 24 best labeling hit fragments are shown above. These compounds are numbered 1-24 based on Tethering Percentages (middle to bottom right of each molecule). Also, the plate well number and equilibrium Tethering percent (or percent of detected complex in solution at equilibrium or designated time points identified by MS) are noted below each fragment for reference. The screen was carried out by Dr. Nicholas Foster and Dr. Andrew Henderson. Additional cheminformatic analysis was carried out by Dr. Clint Regan to analyze trends within the HIT data set.
shown in **Scheme 2.3** Of the hit fragments, 8 of them contain the nipecotic acid or iso-nipecotic acid substructures (**Scheme 2.3**: Compounds 2, 4, 5, 8, 9, 16, 21, and 22); however, many of the fragments within the inactive set also contained this feature. All the hits also contained aromatic rings and there was limited diversity among these aromatic moieties suggesting that these specific aromatic moieties are spatially arranged in a way that allows them to interact with Med25 AcID’s H1 face after reversibly Tethering to one of the solvent exposed cysteines present. Additionally, the benzothiophene substructure was identified as a component of 3 of the hit fragments, appearing in compounds 5, 23, and 24 (**Scheme 2.3**) and only one other time within the entire Tethering library (**Scheme 2.4**). Thus, the benzothiophene fragment appears to be enriched within the active set while the isonipecotic and (R)-nipecotic acid substructures may simply function as a chemical spacer to optimally position aromatic groups to enhance their ability to interact with Med25 AcID.

The hits from the Tethering screen have varying selectivity for C497 and/or C506. In studies where C506 was mutated to an alanine, several fragments displayed selective engagement with C506 over C497 as Tethering is drastically reduced or abolished under these conditions. (Figure 2.6). Using the benzothiophene-based fragments for reference, compound 5 binds wild-type Med25 AcID (wtMed25 AcID) 23% at 1 mM β-mercaptoethanol (high stringency) and 75% at 0.1 mM β-mercaptoethanol (low stringency). Utilization of the Med25 C506A mutant, however, nearly abolishes this fragment’s ability to tether, as seen by the decrease in single labeling percent of compound 5 to 1%, suggesting this fragment selectively binds C506 over
Compounds 23 and 24, however, preferentially interact with C506 but are still able to bind when Med25 C506A is used. The observed results suggest that compound 5 selectively targets C506, while compounds 23 and 24 interact with Med25 AcID with a lesser degree of specificity.

Since compound 5 singly labels Med25 AcID even under stringent Tethering conditions, displays an observable cysteine selectivity, and contains the enriched benzothiophene sub fragment, this study aims to further investigate the role that each of the composite sub fragments play in binding to Med25 AcID. Additionally, we sought to evaluate different TAIL moieties to simplify the overall synthesis of the fragment molecules. To do this, we synthesized the respective disulfide analogs shown in Scheme 2.5, then utilized single point Tethering (SPT) experiments to analyze the extent to which each Tethers to Med25 AcID, thus allowing a limited structure-activity relationship to emerge.
Chapter 2.4 Synthesis of Reversible Fragments

Scheme 2.5 Structures of Reversible Ligands Synthesized. Reversible probes synthesized and used in Single Point Tethering Experiments (SPT)

Scheme 2.6 Synthesis of Reversible Ligands. Synthesis of Reversible Probes: General carboxylic acids are transformed into disulfide or thiol probes through amide coupling with cystamine or cysteamine.
Scheme 6 shows the synthetic scheme for the formation of reversible probes (PW4, PW5, PW6, PW7, PW8, and PW9)

We transformed Boc-isonipecotic acid into a thiol, a homodisulfide and a heterodisulfide. For the synthesis of Boc isoNipecotic thiol PW4, commercially available Boc-isonipecotic acid was converted into a mixed anhydride through treatment with pivaloyl chloride followed by the addition of β-mercaptoethylamine to yield PW4 (46%). For PW6, commercially available Boc-isonipecotic acid was treated with cystamine using general amide coupling conditions to form Boc isoNipecotic homodisulfide PW6 (48%). PW6 was then converted into Boc isoNipecotic heterodisulfide PW5 (48%) through a disulfide exchange reaction with 2,2′-dithiobis[N,Ndimethylethanamine] (Captamine) and tris(2-chloroethyl) phosphate (TCEP). Compound PW6 was additionally converted into isoNipecotic homodimer PW7 (63%) using 20% trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) in DCM. Compound PW7 was then converted into compound PW8 (14%) through treatment of the free amine with acetic anhydride and Hünig’s base. Finally, compound PW9 (63%) was made by taking the commercially available benzothiophene carboxylic acid and converting it into a mixed anhydride through treatment of pivaloyl chloride. Following pivonylation, cystamine was added and the reaction was subjected to general amide coupling conditions resulting in homodisulfide PW9 (63%).

Chapter 2.5 Single Point Tethering Experiments
With the molecules in hand, single point Tethering (SPT) experiments were performed to assess the interaction of each fragment with Med25 AcID. For these experiments, Med25 was incubated with five equivalents of small molecule fragment and either 1 mM or 0.1 mM β-mercaptopethanol (BME) in Med25 storage buffer (10 mM phosphate, 50 mM NaCl, 10% v/v glycerol, 0.001% v/v NP-40, pH 6.8). At various time points, the reaction mixtures were evaluated using qTOF-MS to identify the extent of small molecule-protein complexation. The
addition of BME initiates the disulfide exchange experiment. BME can also reversibly compete with the small molecule. By evaluating both 1 mM or 0.1 mM concentrations of BME we can assess the stringency of the experiment as weaker small molecule probes can be ruled out as they are more easily reduced from Med25 AcID and therefore less likely to form substantial amounts of a favorable equilibrium complex.

Chapter 2.5a Tethering Controls

SPT Experiments of Controls Molecules (Figure 2.7):

Captamine PW1, Boc isonipeotic acid PW2, and Benzothiophene carboxylic acid PW3

Initially we assessed captamine as a positive control capable of disulfide Tethering as well as two negative controls that were anticipated to interact with Med25 AcID non-specifically and/or noncovalently. When five equivalents of PW1 were incubated with Med25 AcID, this fragment Tethered both of Med25’s solvent-exposed cysteines. Additionally, this fragment is analogous to the Tail portion of typical disulfide probes and can sometimes be seen as one of the
major equilibrium species detected by MS-analysis of a Tethering reaction. As can be seen in Figure 2.7, captamine quickly labels Med25 AcID with a detectable concentration present at the start of the reaction, roughly 15% single-labeled, 5% double-labeled regardless of the reaction stringency. (t=0 hours). At equilibrium, the percentage of detectable captamine-Med25 slightly increases, but not to a significant amount as the start and 24 hours data points are within error of each other.

The negative controls Boc-isonipecotic acid PW2 and benzothiophene carboxylic acid PW3 were not expected to form a covalent bond with Med25 due to lack of a thiol-reactive moiety in their structures. Unexpectedly, some degree of Med25 single labeling was observed, albeit limited. However, neither of these negative controls showed significant double labeling under either BME concentration. While the identification of a MS adduct generally represents the formation of a covalent bond, under the reaction conditions it is unlikely that either of these carboxylic acids are meaningfully engaging with Med25 AcID, and thus further studies will need to be carried out to determine if the observed binding is real or an artifact.

**Chapter 2.5b Tethering TAIL Fragments**

Boc-isonipecotic thiol PW4, Boc-isonipecotic heterodisulfide PW5, Boc-isonipecotic homodisulfide PW6
Figure 2.8 shows the percentage of small molecule observed singly or doubly Tethered to Med25 AcID at various time points under less stringent (left, 0.1 mM BME) or more stringent (right, 1mM BME) detected by MS analysis. The top displays the single-Tethering percentages while the bottom displays the percentages of double-labeled species detected at equilibrium. Next, we compared the how the structural differences between compounds PW4, PW5, and PW6, that differ only in the reversible TAIL, affect the probe’s ability to bind Med25 AcID. Under ideal conditions, it would be expected that the equilibrium Tethering percentages would be identical among the three fragments since the HEAD portion of the disulfide fragments remain the same and complexation is dependent on the HEAD fragment’s innate binding affinity for a POI. However, the starting molecules display different solubilities and may involve alterations in the redox conditions. Under the experimental conditions each fragment singly labeled Med25 with the Boc-isonipecotic HEAD fragment roughly 30-50% under less stringent
conditions whereas Tethering was reduced to 30% with added stringency (Figure 2.8). At both BME concentrations these molecules all bind to Med25 more effectively than the controls. This Boc-isonipecotic HEAD fragment is also capable of double-labeling as shown by the bottom of Figure 2.8. Interestingly, when the Boc-Nipecotic Acid fragment is a heterodisulfide PW5 the highest percentage of doubled labeled Med25 could be observed, with a maximum of 6% at 1 mM BME. However, both the Boc-nipecotic acid homodimer PW6 and thiol PW4 constructs did not Tether more than 3% at either concentration. Equilibrium percentages for PW4, PW5, and PW6 all vary within error but suggest that the boc-nipecotic acid HEAD fragment binds to both of Med25 AcID’s cysteine’s, one more specifically than the other.

Chapter 2.5c Tethering HEAD Fragments

Boc isoNipecotic Acetyl Bromide PW 6, isoNipecotic Acetyl Bromide PW 7, Acetyl isoNipecotic Acetyl Bromide PW 8 and Benzothiophene Acetyl Bromide PW 9:

Figure 2.9 SPT Analysis of HEAD Fragments. Figure 2.9 shows the percentage of small molecule observed singly or doubly Tethered to Med25 AcID at various time points under less stringent (left, 0.1 mM BME) or more stringent (right, 1 mM BME) detected by MS analysis. The bar graphs represent 3 independent experiments with indicated percent error (SD).
Since the Boc-nipecotic homodimer PW6 labeled Med25AcID relatively well (25-30%), the analogous, unprotected PW7 and acetyl protected PW8 molecules were also tested. In addition to these, the simplest benzo thiophene substrate PW9 was also considered. (Figure 2.9) Each of these molecules were synthesized as homodisulfides and compared to the homodisulfide PW6. It was hypothesized that the hydrophobic nature of the Boc group within fragment PW6 added to the interaction of the subgroup, increasing its residence time on Med25 AcID. It was also hypothesized that PW7 may bind poorly due to its overall positive charge which should repel positively charged Med25. Interestingly, PW6 and PW7 both singly label Med25 to a similar extent under both concentrations of BME at roughly 20%. On the other hand, PW8 is barely able to bind at all under either condition with a maximum of 6% at both BME concentrations. Another finding to mention, PW9 seems to singly label Med25 20% over time under the less stringent conditions; however, this labeling is reduced to about 5% when BME is at 1mM. Regarding the double labeling data, only isonipecotic acid shows apparent double labeling, suggesting the removal of the Boc group decreases cysteine selectivity.

Chapter 2.6 Conclusions and Future Directions
The results from the single point Tethering experiments provided useful insight for the development of compound 5 and its analogs as useful probes for Med25 PPIs. For the first time I demonstrated that having a mixed disulfide as the Tethering moiety is not required; both a thiol or a homodisulfide are sufficient, as each species PW4, PW5, and PW6 showed similar Tethering. The results also suggest that nipecotic acid functions as more than just a spacer, as this moiety is capable of Tethering to Med25 AcID in substantial amounts. Additionally, the benzo thiophene fragment alone is capable of labeling Med25 in significant amounts as demonstrated by PW9, yet the combination of both pieces significantly increased this fragments tetherability. When comparing PW6, PW7, and PW8, to compound 5, we can see that the N-
substitution affects the fragments binding. Having an aromatic substituent such as the benzothiophene in compound 5 offers the best binding ability and best selectivity. Changing the aromatic substituent to a Boc protecting group decreases the binding of the fragment, but having either a free amine or an acetyl substituent decreases the binding more significantly and increases nonspecific binding as tethering of both of Med25 AcID’s cysteines is observed. Thus, moving forwards, I decided to further investigate the two Boc-isonipecotic acid and benzothiophene carboxylic acid substructures, along with the composite full fragment compound 5. However, these reversible probes would not survive within a cellular experiment. By converting these reversible probes into irreversible thiol reactive moieties, these fragments can be further developed into mechanistic and therapeutic probes to investigate Med25 and its PPI networks. Towards this end, in Chapter 3 we transform these fragments and various analogs into irreversible ligands and evaluate their ability to bind to Med25 AcID.

Chapter 2.7 Methods

**General Procedures:**

13C and 1H NMR spectra were recorded on a Varian MR400, a Varian Vnmrs 600MHz, or a Bruker Ascend 500 magnetic resonance spectrometer, as noted. Proton chemical shifts are referenced to CHCl3 (δ 7.26ppm) in CDCl3 solutions, CD3OD (δ 3.31) in CD3OD solutions, and DMSO δ 2.5). Carbon chemical shifts are referenced to δ 77.16ppm in CDCl3 solutions, δ 49.09 ppm in CD3OD solutions, and δ 39.53 ppm in DMSO.

High Resolution Mass Spectra were recorded with a (TOF, QTOF) using either positive or negative mode electrospray ionization (ESI)

Products were purified by flash chromatography using indicated solvent systems. Column chromatography was performed manually.
**Purchase and Synthesis of Probes**

Control Molecules 2,2'-disulfanediylbis(ethan-1-amine) **PW1**, 1-(tert-butoxycarbonyl)piperidine-4-carboxylic acid **PW2**, and benzo[b]thiophene-2-carboxylic acid **PW3** were used as purchased from commercial vendor Sigma Aldrich.

Silica gel, Pivonyl Chloride, Hunig’s base, K2CO3, HOBT, Cystamine, Cysteamine, BME, TCEP, CH2Cl2, and DMF were all purchased from commercial vendors (Sigma Aldrich or Toronto Chemical)

**Experimental**

Synthesis of tert-butyl 4-((2-mercaptoethyl)carbamoyl)piperidine-1-carboxylate

![Chemical Structure]

**Boc nipecotic mixed Anhydride**

To a round bottom flask charged with a stir bar was added Boc nipecotic acid (control **PW2**) (1.0 g, 4.36 mmol), in THF (21.80 mL). Dropwise Hünig’s base (0.91 mL) was added, and the reaction mixture was cooled to -5 °C pivaloyl chloride (0.64 mL) was added dropwise to the reaction mixture. The reaction was allowed to stir at room temperature for 1 hour. When the reaction was judged to be complete, the reaction mixture was extracted into CH2Cl2, washed
with saturated NaHCO₃, brine, dried with anhydrous Na₂SO₄, filtered and concentrated under reduced pressure to give Boc anhydride (1.21 g, 88 %) as a white solid as previously described.

**PW4** (Boc isonipecotic thiol)

![Boc Isonipecotic Thiol](image)

To a round bottom flask charged with a stir bar was added Boc nipecotic anhydride (1.21g, 3.85 mmol) and 3-aminopropane-1-thiol (356.79 mg, 4.62 mmol in CH₂Cl₂ (20.00 mL) and the reaction mixture was let stir at room temperature overnight. When the reaction was judged to be complete, the reaction mixture was poured into a separatory funnel and extracted into CH₂Cl₂ (15mL x3), washed with saturated NaHCO₃ (15 mL) then brine (15 mL), and dried over anhydrous MgSO₄, filtered, then concentrated under reduced pressure to give a clear-yellow oil. (950 mg, 86%). The crude fragment **PW4** was then used for SPT experiments.

¹H NMR (599 MHz, MeOD) δ 3.99 (dt, J = 13.4, 4.1 Hz, 2H), 2.93 (bs, 3H), 2.73 (tt, J = 10.8, 4.2 Hz, 1H), 1.95 (dd, J = 13.6, 3.9 Hz, 2H), 1.59 (dtdd, J = 13.4, 11.3, 4.4, 2.0 Hz, 2H), 1.46 (s, 9H), 1.26 (d, J = 1.8 Hz, 9H).

¹³C NMR (151 MHz, MeOD) δ 176.22, 155.03, 79.69, 48.16, 42.66, 42.33, 28.30, 27.85, 27.26.

Synthesis of tert-butyl 4-((2-((2-(dimethylamino)ethyl)disulfaneyl)ethyl)carbamoyl)piperidine-1-carboxylate **PW5** (Boc isonipecotic heterodisulfide)
To a round bottom flask charged with a stir bar was added Boc isoNipecotic Homodimer PW6 (200mg, 0.0348mmol), Captamine (734mg, 3.479mmol), and TCEP (10.03mg, 0.035mmol) was added to a mixture of DMF (1.2 mL) and H2O (1.2 mL). Hünig’s base (1.2 mL) was added dropwise (DMF/H2O/ Hünig (0.1M)) and the reaction was stirred at room temperature overnight. When the reaction was judged to be complete, ice water was added to the reaction mixture followed by acidification of the solution to pH 7. The crude mixture was then extracted into CH2Cl2 (10mL) washed with NaHCO3 (10mL) then brine (10mL), dried over anhydrous MgSO4, filtered, and concentrated under reduced pressure. The crude was subsequently purified by flash chromatography (1% CH2Cl2:MeOH) to give an off white solid (129.7 mg, 48%) The purified fragment PW5 was then used for SPT experiments.

1H NMR (599 MHz, cdcl3) δ 6.51 – 6.44 (m, 1H), 4.12 (s, 2H), 3.56 (q, J = 6.3 Hz, 2H), 3.41 (d, J = 1.2 Hz, 6H), 2.81 (t, J = 6.4 Hz, 2H), 2.73 (s, 3H), 2.30 (tt, J = 11.6, 3.8 Hz, 1H), 1.80 (d, J = 13.1 Hz, 2H), 1.62 (qt, J = 12.5, 5.9 Hz, 2H), 1.44 (d, J = 1.2 Hz, 9H), 1.29 – 1.26 (m, 1H), 1.24 (s, 2H)

Synthesis of di-tert-butyl 4,4’-(((disulfanediylbis(ethane-2,1-diyl))bis(azanediyl))bis(carbonyl))bis(piperidine-1-carboxylate) PW6,
To a round bottom flask charged with a stir bar was added Boc isonipecotic acid (1.0 g, 4.35 mmol), 1-hydroxybenzotriazole hydrate (HOBt) (1.06 g, 7.85 mmol), N-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)-N’ethylcarbodiimide hydrochloride EDCI·HCL (4.181 g, 21.81 mmol), 2,2'-disulfanediylbis(ethan-1-amine) (cystamine) (492 mg, 2.18 mmol), and Hünig’s base (3.04 mL) in DMF (21.8 mL). This mixture was stirred overnight at room temperature. When the reaction was judged to be complete, the reaction mixture was diluted over ice H₂O (15mL) and extracted into ethyl acetate (15mL). The organic extracts were washed with brine, dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄, filtered, and concentrated under reduced pressure. The crude was subsequently purified by flash chromatography (70% ethyl acetate: hexanes) to give an off white solid. The purified fragment **PW6** was then used for SPT experiments. (1.1145 g, 85 %)

\[\begin{align*}
^1H\ NMR\ (599\ MHz,\ DMSO)\ &\delta\ 7.95\ (t,\ J = 5.6\ Hz,\ 2H),\ 3.88\ (d,\ J = 13.1\ Hz,\ 4H),\ 3.31 – 3.24\ (m,\ 4H),\ 2.71\ (t,\ J = 6.7\ Hz,\ 4H),\ 2.51 – 2.47\ (m,\ 4H),\ 2.47 – 2.44\ (m,\ 2H),\ 2.23\ (tt,\ J = 11.5,\ 3.7\ Hz,\ 2H),\ 1.63 – 1.56\ (m,\ 4H),\ 1.34\ (s,\ 18H). \\
^13C\ NMR\ (151\ MHz,\ DMSO)\ &\delta\ 173.21,\ 152.93,\ 77.69,\ 47.41,\ 40.05,\ 39.52,\ 37.48,\ 27.20.
\end{align*}\]

Synthesis of \(N,N'-(\text{disulfanediylbis(ethane-2,1-diyl)})\text{bis(piperidine-4-carboxamide})\ **PW7**,\n
\[\begin{align*}
\end{align*}\]
To a round bottom flask charged with a stir bar was added Homodisulfide PW6 (200 mg, 0.348 mmol) in CH$_2$Cl$_2$ (2.8mL). TFA was then added dropwise (0.7 mL), and the mixture was stirred for 30 minutes to an hour at room temperature. When the reaction was judged to be complete, cold ether (5mL) was added and PW7 precipitated out of solution. Excess solvent and TFA were evaporated with N$_2$ (g). This fragment was used as crude for preparation of PW8 and SPT experiments. (82.58 mg, 63 %)

$^1$H NMR (599 MHz, DMSO) δ 8.26 (s, 2H), 8.06 (t, $J = 5.6$ Hz, 2H), 3.29 (q, $J = 6.4$ Hz, 4H), 3.23 (dd, $J = 9.7$, 6.2 Hz, 4H), 2.94 (s, 2H), 2.88 – 2.79 (m, 4H), 2.72 (t, $J = 6.7$ Hz, 4H), 1.70 – 1.60 (m, 2H).

Synthesis of N,N'-(disulfanediylbis(ethane-2,1-diyl))bis(1-acetylpiperidine-4-carboxamide)

To a round bottom flask charged with a stir bar was added Homodisulfide PW7 (23mg, 0.061 mmol) in CH$_2$Cl$_2$ (1 mL). Hünig’s base (0.1 mL) was added dropwise, and the reaction was cooled to 0° C and acetic anhydride (0.5mL) was added dropwise to the reaction mixture and stirred overnight. When the reaction was judged to be complete, the crude reaction mixture was extracted into CH$_2$Cl$_2$ x3. The combined organic layers were then washed with brine, dried over anhydrous MgSO$_4$, and concentrated. The crude PW8 was used for SPT experiments. (4mg, 14%)
$^1$H NMR (599 MHz, DMSO) $\delta$ 7.99 (t, $J = 5.6$ Hz, 2H), 3.25 (q, $J = 6.4$ Hz, 4H), 2.70 (t, $J = 6.7$ Hz, 4H), 1.91 (s, 6H), 1.82 – 1.79 (m, 4H), 1.67 – 1.55 (m, 4H), 1.41 (qd, $J = 12.3, 4.4$ Hz, 2H).

Synthesis of N,N'- (disulfanediylbis(ethane-2,1-diyl))bis(benzo[b]thiophene-2-carboxamide)

PW9.

\[
\text{To a round bottom flask charged with a stir bar was added benzothiophene carboxylic acid (1.0 g, 5.61 mmol), 1-hydroxybenzotriazole hydrate (HOBt) (1.36 mg, 7.85 mmol), N-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)-N'ethylcarbodiimide hydrochloride EDCI-HCL (1.936 g, 10.10 mmol), 2,2'-disulfanediylbis(ethan-1-amine) (cystamine) (436 mg, 2.10 mmol), and triethylamine (0.6 mL) in DMF (43 mL) and H}_2\text{O (2.6 mL). This mixture was stirred overnight at room temperature. When the reaction was judged to be complete, the reaction mixture was diluted over ethyl acetate (150 mL) then washed with H}_2\text{O (25 mL). The combined organic layers were then washed with brine, dried over anhydrous Na}_2\text{SO}_4, filtered, and concentrated under reduced pressure. The crude was subsequently purified by flash chromatography (gradient 30-70% ethyl acetate: hexanes) to give an off a reddish brown solid (1.670 mg, 63 %) The purified fragment PW9 was then used for SPT experiments.}
\]

$^1$H NMR (599 MHz, DMSO) $\delta$ 8.91 (t, $J = 5.6$ Hz, 2H), 8.02 (d, $J = 0.8$ Hz, 2H), 7.97 (dq, $J = 8.3, 0.9$ Hz, 2H), 7.92 – 7.87 (m, 2H), 7.45 – 7.36 (m, 4H), 3.58 – 3.52 (m, 4H), 2.95 (s, 8H).

**Protein Expression and Purification**
WT Med25 was expressed and purified from heat-shock competent Rosetta pLysS cells (Novagen), in Terrific Broth (TB) containing 0.1 mg/mL ampicillin and 0.034 mg/mL chloramphenicol, using previously described conditions.20,27 Cells were grown at 37 °C to an optical density (OD600nm) of 0.8. Temperature was reduced to 18°C and protein expression was induced upon addition of IPTG to a final concentration of 0.5 mM. Post-induction, cells were incubated for 16 hours at 18°C.

Cells were pelleted via centrifugation at 6000xg for 20 mins at 4°C. Cell pellets were stored at 80°C prior to purification. The harvested pellet was thawed on ice and resuspended in 20 mL of lysis buffer (50 mM phosphate, 300 mM sodium chloride, 10 mM imidazole, pH 6.8). Cells were then lysed by sonication on ice and cellular lysates were cleared by centrifugation at 9500 rpm for 20 min at 4°C. The supernatant lysate was then added to 750µL Ni-NTA beads (Qiagen) and incubated for 1 hour at 4°C. The resin was pelleted by centrifugation at 2500 rpm for 2 min at 4°C and washed with wash buffer (50 mM phosphate, 300 mM sodium chloride, 30 mM imidazole, pH 6.8) a total of five times. Protein was then eluted with 2 mL of elution buffer (50 mM phosphate, 300 mM sodium chloride, 400 mM imidazole, pH 6.8) a total of three times. Eluent was then pooled and purified by cation exchange FPLC (Source 15S, GE Healthcare) using a gradient of Buffer B (50 mM phosphate, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, pH 6.8) in Buffer A (50 mM phosphate, 1 mM DTT). The FPLC purified protein was then dialyzed into storage buffer (10 mM phosphate, 50 mM NaCl, 10% v/v glycerol, 0.001% v/v NP-40, pH 6.8) overnight, concentrated, aliquoted, and stored at -80°C. Final protein was greater than 90% pure as determined by Coomassie stained polyacrylamide gel. Protein concentration was determined by UV-Vis spectroscopy using an extinction coefficient, ε = 22,460 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹.27
**Single Point Tethering Experiments**

Med25 AcID was incubated with 5 equivalents of Small Molecule fragment in storage buffer (10 mM phosphate, 50 mM NaCl, 10% v/v glycerol, 0.001% v/v NP-40, pH 6.8) in a 100µL solution. Order of addition (Buffer, Protein, Small Molecule). When ready to start the reaction, add either 0.1mM or 1mM BME to initiate the disulfide exchange reaction. Mass spectrometry analysis of covalent adducts of wtMed25 was performed on 2µL samples of each 100µL SPT solution. Samples were incubated for 30 minutes, 5 hours, and 24 hours at room temperature. Analysis was conducted by mass spectrometry using an Agilent QToF LC/MS equipped with a Poroshell 300SB C8 reverse-phased column with a gradient of 5-100% acetonitrile with 0.1% formic acid in water with 0.1% formic acid over five minutes. Analysis of data was completed using the Agilent Qualitative Analysis Program with background subtraction and deconvolution settings for an intact protein of 16,000-40,000 Da.

Total abundances that correspond to masses of tethered species and common adducts were compared to untethered Med25 or BME tethered Med25 fragments to detect equilibrium percentages.

**Chapter 2.8 References**

(4) Lodge, J. M. Discovery of Small Molecules to Dissect the Individual Roles of GACKIXActivator Complexes.


(34) Han, E. H.; Rha, G. B.; Chi, Y.-I. MED25 Is a Mediator Component of HNF4α-Driven Transcription Leading to Insulin Secretion in Pancreatic Beta-Cells. PLOS ONE 2012, 7 (8), e44007. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0044007.


CHAPTER III: Irreversible Ligands of Med25 AcID

Chapter 3.1 Abstract
Med25, a coactivator protein relevant to transcription, uses its Activator Interaction Domain (AcID) to form protein-protein interactions (PPIs) with transcriptional activator proteins that regulate transcriptional activity.1–15 It is of great value to identify small molecule probes that target Med25 AcID’s binding surfaces as these molecules can be transformed into therapeutics.16–18,18–29 Here we demonstrate that benzothiophene-based ligands discovered through disulfide Tethering30,31 can be transformed into irreversible probes that target Med25 AcID. We show that both (R)- and (S)-benzothiophene nipecotic acetyl bromides not only irreversibly bind to Med25 AcID but also shift the melting temperature of Med25 AcID, suggesting that these two compounds stabilize particular Med25 AcID conformations. Future efforts will examine the effect of the conformational stabilization on Med25 PPI networks.

Chapter 3.2 Introduction
Med25 of the Mediator complex found within higher order eukaryotes has important roles in regulating species-specific transcriptional processes.30–32 Med25 uses its Activator Binding Domain (ABD) AcID (Activator Interacting Domain) to form key protein-protein interactions (PPIs) at cell programmed times to regulate these transcriptional mechanisms. Dysfunction of Med25 AcID PPIs can lead to viral progression, unregulated stress response, and various cancer progress. Therefore, identifying small molecule modulators that can be transformed into therapeutics would be of great value.
In Chapter 2, we dissected compound 5, previously identified in a site-directed disulfide Tethering screen, into its subunits isonipecotic acid and benzothiophene carboxylic acid for a structure-binding analysis experiment. (Figure 3.1) We demonstrated that even the simple subfragments Tether to Med25 AcID, suggesting that each moiety contributes to the affinity of compound 5 for the protein. Additionally, Boc-nipeotic acid was shown to have similar Tetherability as isonipecotic acid suggesting that the hydrophobic interactions from the Boc group may also add to overall ligand binding. Disulfide fragments and other reversible ligands, while excellent tools for exploring in vitro space, do not function well within the reducing cellular environment. 

By converting these small molecule “HEAD” fragments into thiol reactive analogs, irreversible probes can be made. By transforming these
fragments in this way, ligands will be irreversibly bound to their targets allowing us to properly correlate downstream effects to small molecule-protein complex formation.

Recently, the Mapp Lab has shown that irreversible probes can be used to modulate activator-coactivator PPIs. In one example involving the master coactivator CBP/KIX, a coactivator responsible for a wide variety of cellular processes, the top fragment found from a Tethering screen performed in collaboration with the Wells Lab was modified with four different thiol reactive “TAILS” resulting in both orthosteric and allosteric modifications of PPIs. \(^{27,31}\) For example, compound 1-10d inhibits MLL but enhances the binding of pKID while 1-10c exhibits modest inhibition of pKID with only a change in linker length. Additionally, simply changing the “TAIL” from a vinyl sulfonamide 1-10d to an \(\alpha\)-chloroacetamide 1-10a allows for the same allosteric trends, at a lower efficacy. \((\text{Figure 3.2})\)

![Figure 3.2](image)

In \textit{Chapter 3}, we explore how the reversible covalent probes produced in \textit{Chapter 2} can be transformed into irreversible probes and how they engage Med25 AcID (Figure 3.3). We elected to investigate how the benzothiophene isonipecotic fragment and related analogs react with Med25 AcID when coupled to bromoacetyl bromide as a reactive and irreversible thiophiles. The complete suite of molecules utilized for this study is shown in \textit{Scheme 3.1}. 

\[\text{Figure 3.3 Transforming Reversible Ligands into Irreversible Ligands that Target Med25 AcID.} \text{ Med25 AcID has two solvent-exposed cysteines, C497 and C506. Disulfide-containing ligands modify C506. Conversion of the disulfide moiety to an \(\alpha\)-bromoacetamide group is proposed to create irreversible ligands.}\]
Chapter 3.3 Synthesis of Irreversible Probes

Chapter 3.3a Synthesis of Nipecotic-based Irreversibles

The synthesis of the molecules proceeded in a straightforward. The Boc-nipecotic amines in Scheme 3.2 were dissolved in DCM and combined with K$_2$CO$_3$ dissolved in water. Then bromoacetyl bromide was added to the reaction mixture to convert the corresponding amines into Boc-isonipecotic acetyl bromide PW12 (tert-butyl 4-(2-bromoacetamido)piperidine-1-carboxylate) (70%), Boc-(R)-nipecotic acetyl bromide PW13R ( tert-butyl (R)-3-(2-bromoacetamido)piperidine-1-carboxylate) (37%), and Boc-(S)-nipecotic acetyl bromide PW14S ( tert-butyl (S)-3-(2-bromoacetamido)piperidine-1-carboxylate) (87%).
Chapter 3.3b Synthesis of Benzothiophene based Irreversibles


Scheme 3.3 shows the synthesis of Benzothiophene Acetyl Bromide (N-(benzo[b]thiophen-2-yl)-2-bromoacetamide), **PW15**, Benzothiophene isoNipecotic Acetyl Bromide **PW18** (N-(1-(benzo[b]thiophene-2-carbonyl)piperidin-4-yl)-2-bromoacetamide), Benzothiophene (R)-Nipecotic Acetyl Bromide **PW19R** ((R)-N-(1-(benzo[b]thiophene-2-carbonyl)piperidin-3-yl)-2-bromoacetamide) and Benzothiophene (S)-Nipecotic Acetyl Bromide ((S)-N-(1-(benzo[b]thiophene-2-carbonyl)piperidin-3-yl)-2-bromoacetamide) **PW20S**.

Benzo[b]thiophen-2-amine was converted into **PW15** through treatment with K$_2$CO$_3$ and bromo acetyl bromide in DCM/H$_2$O (19%).

Benzothiophene-Nipecotic Acetyl Bromides derivatives **PW18, PW19R**, and **PW20S** were made by first converting benzothiophene carboxylic acid into a mixed anhydride by
treatment with pivaloyl chloride. Then addition of Boc-Amino-Piperidine derivatives and TEA to the solution results in the formation of intermediates **PW18-I**, **PW19R-I**, and **PW20S-I**. Deboc protection of each intermediate followed by treatment with K$_2$CO$_3$ and bromoacetyl bromide in DCM/ H$_2$O led to the formation of each benzothiophene nipecotic acetyl bromide fragments. Benzothiophene isoNipecotic Acetyl Bromide **PW18** N-(1-(benzo[b]thiophene-2-carbonyl)piperidin-4-yl)-2-bromoacetamide (5%), Benzothiophene (R)-Nipecotic Acetyl Bromide **PW19R** ((R)-N-(1-(benzo[b]thiophene-2-carbonyl)piperidin-3-yl)-2-bromoacetamide) (14%), and Benzothiophene (S)-Nipecotic Acetyl Bromide **PW20S** Benzothiophene (S)-Nipecotic Acetyl Bromide ((S)-N-(1-(benzo[b]thiophene-2-carbonyl)piperidin-3-yl)-2-bromoacetamide) (37%).

**Chapter 3.3c Synthesis of Nipecotic-derived Irreversibles**

Formation of isoNipecotic Acetyl Bromide **PW16** and Acetyl Nipecotic Acetyl Bromide **PW17**

![Scheme 3.4 Synthesis of isoNipecotic-Based Ligands](image)
For the preparation of PW16, PW12 was synthesized as described above then subjected to 20% TFA in DCM for 30min- 1hr to form isoNipecotic Acetyl Bromide PW16 2-bromo-N-(piperidin-4-yl)acetamide (73%)

For the preparation of PW17, 4-Amino-1-Bocpiperidine was first transformed into isoNipecotic Anhydride 17I through treatment with acetic anhydride and hüning’s base in DCM. K₂CO₃ and bromoacetyl bromide in a DCM/H₂O mixture followed removal of the Boc protecting group with TFA. The resulting intermediate PW17-I was then subjected to 20% TFA in DCM for a BOC deprotection followed by treatment with K₂CO₃ and bromoacetyl bromide in DCM/H₂O resulting in the formation of Acetyl isoNipecotic Acetyl Bromide PW17 (N-(1-acetylpiperidin-4-yl)-2-bromoacetamide) (27%) (Scheme 3.4)

Chapter 3.3d Notes on Synthesis

While general amide coupling conditions are able to form the desired products, whenever the pivaloyl anhydride was formed, the reactions proceeded with higher yields and generally had less side products. However without an aromatic ring anhydrides compounds can be tricky to identify as they quickly hydrolize with any available nucleophile. Thus its better to use these fragments crude and choose a future step to purify your compound rather than allowing these fragments to react with water or silica. Additionally, its important to remember that the thiols or disulfides used all have very pungent odors, so using bleach to neutralize the effects is a must. Some of these fragments also are sensitive to oxidation. Thus storing them out of light and under N2 (g) can help preserve the compound for longer periods. If these compounds have reacted with oxidizers, NMRs may show combinations of redox products.
Another thing of note, the nipecotic derivatives tend to have rather complicated spectra. Each of the piperidine ring nitrogens tend to be diasteotopic appearing at different chemical shifts in several solvents. These fragments are more soluble in MeOD than CDCl₃, however the residual solvent peak in MeOD and water interfere with compound signals especially when using lower purity or less concentrated samples. Also, if the concentration of sample is high enough, you can see multiple rotomers within both the 13C spectra and the 1H spectra at various ratios. These peaks take an odd shape in that they appear slightly broader and each major peak will have a small partner or shoulder.

Additionally, I had trouble with samples with free amines getting stuck in my aqueous layer during work ups and other hits to yields came during the purification steps resulting in challenges obtaining clear 13C spectra for all samples.

Last, once you’ve found a fragment of interest, try to create a synthesis that allows you to make the most of it in the least amount of steps. If you aim to add a diversification step to explore SAR, try to have the diversification step as one of the last ones so you can make several probes that branch off from one step.

Chapter 3.4 Single Point Alkylation Experiments

Chapter 3.4a SPA Introduction

Alkylation differs from tethering in that an irreversible bond is formed between a small molecule and a POI, thus when the ligand binds it stays bound blocking that site from further interactions. To study the Med25-related PPIs of interest, it would be useful to have Small Molecule-Med25 complexes to compare to unbound Med25. To identify conditions where Med25 is 50% bound or higher for use in future biological assays, we utilize Single Point Alkylation (SPA) experiments where we test small molecules at two constant concentrations (high 250µM, low 25 µM) against Med25 AcID. We can see differences in alkylation by
examining the total abundance of Med25 related species at equilibrium. With higher small molecule concentrations, higher alkylation should be observed, however since drug fragments are typically administered in low micromolar to high nanomolar concentrations, better probes would alkylate well even at low small molecule concentrations. Additionally, using higher concentrations allows us to investigate single alkylation (binding to either C497 OR C506) versus multi-alkylation events (binding to both C497 AND C506). Since Med25 has two solvent exposed cysteines capable of reacting with thiophiles, it would be useful to identify a small molecule probe that preferentially binds to one cysteine, as a probe like this could be used against wtMed25 in cellular experiments without further development.

**Chapter 3.4b SPA Experiment 1**

In each of the following SPA experiments, Med25 (25 µM) was added to Med25 storage buffer solution (10 mM phosphate, 50 mM NaCl, 10% v/v glycerol, 0.001% v/v NP-40, pH 6.8) with either 25 µM or 250 µM small molecule (2% DMSO), 1 mM DTT to a volume of 100 µL. Samples (25 µL) were quenched with 10 µM of 1 mM BME and analyzed by q-tof mass spec at the indicated time points. Percentages of each species were calculated using the total abundance of all Med25 species as the denominator. (SPA Condition1)
Chapter 3.4b1 SPA of Control Molecules

SPA of Control Molecules Iodoacetamide PW10 and β-mercaptoethanol PW11

Figure 3.4 SPA of Control Molecules. Data from single point alkylation experiments of control compounds Iodoacetamide PW10 and Cystamine PW11 with Med25. The upper panel shows the results of single alkylation (left) and double alkylation (right) over a 2-hour period at a 25 μM concentration of small molecule. The lower panel shows the results of single alkylation (left) and double alkylation (right) over a 2-hour period at a 250 μM concentration of small molecule. The Iodoacetamide bar graphs represent the average of 2-3 independent experiments with indicated error (SD). The β-mercaptoethanol bar graphs represent the data from a single experiment as this experiment was only performed once.

Both iodoacetamide PW10 and β-mercaptoethanol PW11 were used as control molecules for this experiment. (Figure 3.4) Iodoacetamide is generally used to assess cysteine reactivity.

32,39-42 BME is likely binding in a reversible way; however, since BME was used to quench each reaction before MS analysis, this control allows us to evaluate any potential competition introduced by this step. Iodoacetamide can singly alkylate Med25 AcID roughly 30% under these conditions. Med25 AcID was doubly alkylated by PW10 around 15%. BME, in contrast, can been seen alkylating once to the same percent as iodoacetamide; however, the maximum percent observed double labeling of PW11 appears to be limited to about 3%. This shows that PW10 is a stronger labeler than PW11, which is not unexpected. Also, since both fragments doubly labeled the protein, neither specifically targets either cysteine.
Thus, we were looking for fragments that could singly label Med25 greater than 15%. We want the small molecule fragment to have a higher affinity for the protein than BME and exhibit a similar reactivity to iodoacetamide. However, as stated above, PW10 is very reactive towards many different targets, so the optimal fragment would perform somewhere in between the two control molecules.

Chapter 3.4b2 SPA of Boc Nipecotic-based Fragments:

Effects of Stereochemistry on Med25 AcID Alkylation: Boc isoNipecotic Acetyl Bromide Derivatives PW12, PW13R, PW14S (Figure 3.5)

**Figure 3.5 SPA of Boc Nipecotic-Based Irreversible Ligands.** Data from single point alkylation experiments of isonipecotic acetyl bromide PW12, Boc (R)-nipecotic acetyl bromide PW13R, and Boc (S)-nipecotic acetyl bromide PW14S Med25. The upper panel shows the results of single alkylation (left) and double alkylation (right) over a 48-hour period at a 25 mM concentration of small molecule. The lower panel shows the results of single alkylation (left) and double alkylation (right) over a 48-hour period at a 250 mM concentration of small molecule. The bar graphs represent the average of 2 independent experiments with indicated error (SD) for the start (0 hours) and 24-hour time points. The 48-hour data was only collected once.
Boc isoNipecotic derivatives were able to Tether to Med25 AcID (Figure 2.8 and 2.9) and several hit fragments from the original screen contained the (R)-nipecotic acid moiety, we decided to investigate how stereochemistry affects alkylation. It is hypothesized that changes in stereochemistry will alter the binding activity of the fragment as a molecule’s shape tends to play a pivotal role in molecular recognition. With synthesized fragments Boc-isonipecotic acetyl bromide PW12, Boc-(R)-nipecotic acetyl bromide PW13R, and Boc (S)-nipecotic acetyl bromide PW14S in hand, we carried out single point alkylation reactions with Med25 AcID to determine whether or not a molecule's stereochemistry alters its ability to bind to a POI.

Compounds PW12, PW13R and PW14S singly alkylate Med25 to roughly the same extent (Figure 3.5). Based on data from the original Tethering screen and follow up experiments, the assumption is that this occurs at C506. At the beginning of the experiment (t=0), these fragments alkylated Med25 on average 38%, 24%, and 35%, at smaller concentrations of small molecule and 30%, 43%, and 33% at higher concentrations of small molecule, respectively. These percentages were all within error of each other. Over time (~48hrs), each fragment can fully alkylate Med25 AcID at both concentrations of small molecule. Under these conditions, both PW13R and PW14S, seem to bind less specifically than PW12, as they can doubly alkylate Med25 ~10% when only 25 µM small molecule is added. However, when 250 µM of small molecule is added, this value drops to about 7% for both PW13R and PW14S, but PW12 can be seen multi-alkylating Med25 roughly 20%. This suggests that the two compounds may have similar innate affinity to Med25 AcID.
Chapter 3.4b3 SPA of Benzothiophene-Based Fragments

Alkylation of benzothiophene-based fragments PW15, PW19R and PW20S

Next, we synthesized benzothiophene acetyl bromide PW15, benzothiophene (R)-nipecotic acetyl bromide PW19R, and benzothiophene (S)-nipecotic acetyl bromide PW20S to determine how each of these moieties react with Med25 AcID on their own. Compound PW15 resembles two of the fragments from the original Tethering screen 23 and 24 but contains a flipped amide bond necessary to form the irreversible probe. Both PW19R and PW20S resemble compound 5 from Chapter 2, but with a replacement of the isonipecotic acid fragment with its two regioisomers. This allows us to evaluate how the benzothiophene fragment and its placement on the molecule affect alkylation.

![Figure 3.6 SPA1 of Benzothiophene-Based Irreversible Ligands](image-url)

Data from single point alkylation experiments of benzothiophene-based compounds benzothiophene acetyl bromide PW15, benzothiophene (R)-nipecotic acetyl bromide PW19R, and benzothiophene (S)-nipecotic acetyl bromide PW20S with Med25. The upper panel shows the results of single alkylation (left) and double alkylation (right) over a 48-hour period at a 25 mM concentration of small molecule. The lower panel shows the results of single alkylation (left) and double alkylation (right) over a 48-hour period at a 250 mM concentration of small molecule. The bar graphs represent the average of 2 independent experiments with indicated error (SD) for the start (0 hours) and 24-hour time points. The 48-hour data was only collected once.
Figure 3.6 shows Benzothiophene acetyl bromide PW15 is initially able to singly alkylate Med25 about 12% -15% at both concentrations tested, much less than any of the Boc Nipecotic-based derivatives (Figure 3.5), while the new enantiomers PW19R and PW20S perform better, initially binding around 47% when added at 25 µM, and roughly 75% when added at 250 µM. While the data shown suggests that PW20S may engage with Med25 more slowly than PW19R due to an observed smaller alkylation percentage at the start of the experiment, these two fragments were only tested at these concentrations once. Comparing this result to (Figure 3.5), it’s likely that the two enantiomers PW19R and PW20S may have similar affinity regarding Med25 AcID (Figure 3.6). Using both concentrations of small molecule, both enantiomers PW19R and PW20S can singly alkylate Med25 100% after 48 hours.

An irregular data point occurs with both enantiomers PW19R and PW20S as it can be observed that the 24-hour time points appear to show lower alkylation percents than at the start of the reaction. This may be explained by precipitation of the small molecule-protein complex out of solution over time, or inconsistencies occurring in the analysis of the qTOF-MS data. (Figure 3.5 left)

Interestingly, PW15 can be seen double-labeling Med25 at both concentrations, roughly 11%. This is most comparable to the double-labeling results of PW10 iodoacetamide control (Figure 3.3) PW13R and PW14S (Figure 3.5). The other two benzothiophene-based fragments then in Figure 3.6, PW19R and PW20S, showed limited double alkylation suggesting they selectively target one of Med25 AcID’s cysteines, most likely C506. These results suggest that in the case of these two fragments stereochemistry may alter the speed of alkylation and cysteine selectivity of this irreversible reaction, but not binding affinity. This exemplifies how sub fragments can be grown into larger more potent fragments (From PW15 to compound 5) and
how altering stereochemistry of connected sub fragments can also identify new similar performing irreversible probes. (From compound 5 to PW19R or PW20 S (Scheme 3.5))

![Scheme 3.5 Compound 5 dissected and stereochemically altered. A schematic that shows how compounds discovered from a reversible Tethering screen can be dissected and stereochemically modified to create irreversible probes.]

Chapter 3.4b4 SPA of Head Sub-fragments

Choosing different alkylation conditions:

**Alkylation of Head SubFragments (250µM)**

![Figure 3.7 SPA of Sub-fragments over 48 hours. Data from single point alkylation experiments of HEAD sub fragment compounds Boc isonipecotic acetyl bromide PW12 Boc (R)-nipecotic acetyl bromide PW13R, Boc (S)-nipecotic acetyl bromide PW14S, and benzothiophene acetyl bromide PW15 with Med25 over 48 hours. The bar graphs represent the average of 2 or 4 independent experiments with indicated error (SD) for the start (0 hours), 1 hour 30 min, and 24-hour time points. The 2 hour and 48-hour data were only collected once.]

When initially running this experiment, there were a few time points considered between the start of the experiment (t=0) and 48 hours after. With that in mind, the potential for the Med25-Small Molecule complex to precipitate out of solution, and the consideration that the
alkylation results under these conditions did not display any significant differences in affinity for Med25 AcID we decided to rerun the alkylation experiments over shorter time points. (Figures 3.8-3.12)

Chapter 3.4c SPA Experiment 2

SPA Conditions 2: For these experiments, Med25 (25 µM) was added to Med25 Storage buffer solution (10 mM phosphate, 50 mM NaCl, 10% v/v glycerol, 0.001% v/v NP-40, pH 6.8) with either 25 µM or 250 µM small molecule (2% DMSO), 1 mM DTT to a volume of 100 µL. Since these experiments were focused on capturing alkylated Med25 AcID over 2 hours, 20 µL samples were quenched with 10 µM of 1 mM BME and analyzed by q-tof MS at various time points. Percentages of each species were calculated using total abundance as a base line for comparison.
Chapter 3.4c1 SPA of Boc Nipecotic-based Fragments

SPA Analysis of PW12, PW13R, and PW14S

Figure 3.8 SPA2 of Boc Nipecotic-Based Irreversible Ligands. Data from single point alkylation experiments of Boc isonipecotic acetyl bromide PW12, Boc (R)-nipecotic acetyl bromide PW13R, and Boc (S)-nipecotic acetyl bromide PW14S with Med25. The upper panel shows the results of single alkylation (left) and double alkylation (right) over a 2-hour period at a 25 mM concentration of small molecule. The lower panel shows the results of single alkylation (left) and double alkylation (right) over a 2-hour period at a 250 mM concentration of small molecule. The bar graphs represent the average of 2 or 3 independent experiments with indicated error (SD).

Chapter 3.4c2 SPA HEAD Sub-Fragments

At this point, we also decided to test isonipecotic acid acetyl bromide PW16, and acetyl isonipecotic acetyl bromide PW17 which were synthesized following Scheme 3.4. We wanted to see if the N-substitution binding trend (Best: Aromatic > Boc > H > Ac: Worst) we observed in the Tethering interactions from Chapter 2 would be consistent with these new irreversible probes. Thus, with PW16 and PW17 in hand we performed Single Point Alkylation Experiments as described above. Here (Figure 3.9) it is valuable to note that each of these fragments poorly singly alkylated Med25 at both concentrations tested (max alkylation %: 8% at 25 µM and 16% at 250 µM). These values are similar to the boc-nipecotic-based fragments in Figure 3.5.
Additionally, both fragments **PW16** and **PW17** display the ability to alkylate both cysteines suggesting these fragments interact with Med25 in a nonspecific way. The data also suggests that **PW16** consisting of a free amine is the most nonspecific binder out of the molecules tested. Interestingly, over shorter time points, it becomes more challenging to point out significant binding differences between these fragments which suggests they may not react with Med25 AcID as quickly as iodoacetamide. Though they do bind in a comparable way to PW15 when low stringency conditions are used. At higher BME concentrations however, PW15 almost exclusively doubly alkylates Med25. This observation suggests this fragment may have a special affinity for Med25 and it would be interesting to consider how this fragment functionally alters Med25 function as a double labeler.

**Figure 3.9 SPA2 of Head Sub-fragment Irreversible Ligands.** Data from single point alkylation experiments of HEAD sub fragments benzothiophene acetyl bromide **PW15**, iso-nipecotic acetyl bromide **PW16**, and acetyl nipecotic acetyl bromide **PW17** with Med25. The upper panel shows the results of single alkylation (**left**) and double alkylation (**right**) over a 2-hour period at a 25 mM concentration of small molecule. The lower panel shows the results of single alkylation (**left**) and double alkylation (**right**) over a 2-hour period at a 250 mM concentration of small molecule. The bar graphs represent one independent experiment.
Chapter 3.4d SPA Experiment 3

Given that the 2-hour alkylation results SPA Conditions 2 did not result in significant alkylation with the various Head fragments, we decided to explore alternate reaction conditions (12.5 µM Med25 and with 25 µM or 250 µM Small Molecule in 1mM DTT over 2 hours SPA Conditions 3) with the hope of seeing similar trends with higher percent alkylation. Compound PW18 Benzothiophene isoNipecotic Acetyl Bromide synthesized according to Scheme 3.4 was used as a comparison against PW19R and PW20S to further test the hypothesis that the addition of a new stereocenter would not greatly affect the sub fragment’s ability to bind Med25 AcID. The following figures 3.10-3.12 display fragments PW12-PW20S under the new reaction conditions.

Chapter 3.4d1 SPA of Boc Nipecotic-Based Fragments

SPA of Boc Nipecotic Based Fragments PW12, PW13R, and PW14S

Figure 3.10 SPA3 of Boc Nipecotic-based Irreversible Ligands. Data from single point alkylation experiments of Boc Nipecotic-based sub fragments Boc isonipecotic acetyl bromide PW12, Boc (R)-nipecotic acetyl bromide PW13R, and Boc (S)-nipecotic acetyl bromide PW14S with Med25. The upper panel shows the results of single alkylation (left) and double alkylation (right) over a 2-hour period at a 25 mM concentration of small molecule. The lower panel shows the results of single alkylation (left) and double alkylation (right) over a 2-hour period.
Chapter 3.4d2 SPA of HEAD Sub-Fragments

SPA of Head Sub-fragments PW15, PW16, and PW17

Figure 3.11 SPA of Head Sub-fragment Irreversible Ligands. Data from single point alkylation experiments of HEAD sub fragments benzothiophene acetyl bromide PW15, isoniapeic acetyl bromide PW16, and acetyl ipeicotic acetyl bromide PW17 with Med25. The upper panel shows the results of single alkylation (left) and double alkylation (right) over a 2-hour period at a 25 mM concentration of small molecule. The lower panel shows the results of single alkylation (left) and double alkylation (right) over a 2-hour period at a 250 mM concentration of small molecule. The bar graphs represent one independent

Chapter 3.4d3 SPA of Benzothiophene Based Fragments

SPA of Benzothiophene based fragments PW18, PW19R, and PW20S
In summary, the benzothiophene nipecotic acid-based fragments \textbf{PW18}, \textbf{PW19R}, and \textbf{PW20S} performed the best as the highest labeling fragments and displayed selectivity for one cysteine over the other as shown by these fragments’ abilities to singly alkylate Med25 AcID 100% after 48 hours. This was consistent at all Med25 AcID concentrations tested. It is hypothesized that these fragments bind irreversibly to C506, based on the Tethering studies described in \textbf{Chapter 2} where Med25 AcID \textbf{C506A} was used and the benzothiophene isonipecotic heterodisulfide, compound \textbf{5} displayed diminished alkylation percentages due to this mutation suggesting cysteine selectivity. Similar Tethering and mutational analysis studies can be done to test this hypothesis. After the benzothiophene nipecotic acid-based fragments, the boc nipecotic acid-based derivatives \textbf{PW12}, \textbf{PW13R}, and \textbf{PW14S} showed significant alkylation to Med25 AcID.

\textbf{Figure 3.12 SPA3 of Benzothiophene-Based Irreversible Ligands.} Data from single point alkylation experiments of benzothiophene-based fragments benzothiophene isonipecotic acetyl bromide \textbf{PW 18}, benzothiophene (R)-nipecotic acetyl bromide \textbf{PW19R}, and benzothiophene (S)-nipecotic acetyl bromide \textbf{PW20S} with Med25. The upper panel shows the results of single alkylation (left) and double alkylation (right) over a 2-hour period at a 25 mM concentration of small molecule. The lower panel shows the results of single alkylation (left) and double alkylation (right) over a 2-hour period at a 250 mM concentration of small molecule. The bar graphs represent one independent experiment.
(60-70%) over 2 days. The simple benzothiophene fragment PW15 binds both cysteines in reasonable amounts despite the fragment’s concentration, suggesting this fragment alone is likely too nonspecific to be considered as a viable probe. Finally, both PW16 and PW17 performed the worst in this experiment binding the least and relatively nonspecifically. These results correlate with the Single Point Tethering experiment results. Also, the concentration of protein and small molecules affect the results of the experiment. With too much of either, precipitation occurs and with too little of either significant alkylation cannot be detected, so it is important to choose adequate reaction conditions to assess any differences in binding. Last, alkylation generally occurs in a quick manner and since this is an irreversible process once the small molecule binds to a cysteine on the protein, that cysteine remains bound. In the case of this experiment, only considering shorter time points (0-2hrs) would likely have led us to switching our focus to analyzing a different HIT fragment, but the longer time points (24-48hrs) better display these molecules’ significance.

**Chapter 3.5 Investigating Protein Thermostability**

With these results each compound can covalently and irreversibly bind to Med25 in a time dependent manner. One may think, a ligand capable of binding at a higher equilibrium concentration over a set period would indicate this ligand is important for targeting that protein’s PPIs. Unfortunately, ligand binding which suggests protein stabilization, does not always correlate to PPI modulation. It has been previously cited that a ligand garnering affinity for a protein of interest may or may not affect its PPIs. For example, compound 5 has been previously tested in an FP-Tethering screen against Med25-ERM interactions. In this study this fragment was not identified as an inhibitor of this interaction. 32 Also, compound 22 was able to induce allosteric activity similar to ERM even though it was only the 22nd best Med25 AcID binder. 30
This can be due to compounds being toxic and thus dangerous to develop further, identification promiscuous scaffolds, or even the compound simply being too small to effectively orthostERICally inhibit the interaction.

To determine if any of these fragments alter Med25’s stability we explored Differential Scanning Fluorimetry (DSF) which allows us to monitor how a ligand affects the conformation and resulting stability of a protein-ligand complex through changes in protein melting temperature (T_m). This method uses a hydrophobic dye that binds to a protein of interest’s hydrophobic regions as it unfolds due based on temperature changes. Thus, we can compare the melting temperatures of unlabeled Med25 AcID and small molecule bound Med25 Acid to see if this complexation results in stabilization of Med25 through changes in T_m. Generally, the melting temperature can either be increased or decreased, however both imply protein conformation stabilization. For Med25 AcID a decrease in T_m is typically observed.

Med25 was incubated with varying amounts of small molecules for 24 hours then subjected to DSF experiments. Compounds decreased the Tm and the absolute value of the change in melting temperature was plotted.
Results

Through DSF we identified 2 fragments that alter Med25 AcID’s Tm greater than 3 standard deviations of the mean. This suggests these fragments stabilize a particular conformation of Med25 that could alter the protein’s ability to mediate PPIs. In comparison we show two other fragments tested that were not able to cause the same stabilization. Figure 3.14 shows how increasing ligand concentrations decrease Med25’s melting point. As fragments capable of decreasing the melting point by greater than 3 standard deviations of the mean, PW19R and PW20S have been shown to be thermostabilizers of Med25 AcID. This suggests that we have captured a particular Med25 conformation, that may alter related PPI activity. Thus,
it would be useful to further test these probes using functional assays such as Fluorescence Polarization (FP)

**Figure 3.15 DSF Results and Med25 Thermostability.** Figure 3.15 shows the absolute value of the $\Delta T_m$ when 2x small molecule or 5x small molecule is incubated with Med25 AcID over 24. Small molecule complexation results in decreases in Med25 Melting Temperature. The $\Delta T_m$ was not plotted for 10x or 20x small molecule concentrations to focus on single labeling events. (PW19R (blue), PW20S (purple), PW17 (pink) PW13R (green)) These plots show the average of 3 individual experimental replicates with the indicated error (SD).

**Chapter 3.6 Discussion and Conclusion**

R-Benzothiophene nipecotic acetyl bromide and S-benzo thiophene nipecotic acetyl bromide both alter Med25’s melting temperature by more than 3 standard deviations of the mean suggesting they stabilize the Med25 AcID conformation. Interestingly, when compound 5 was evaluated as a potential inhibitor of Med25-ERM PPIs, this fragment did not display significant inhibition activity. When considering irreversible analogues PW19R and PW20S, it was shown that these fragments act as stabilizers of Med25 AcID by quickly singly binding Med25 100% and decreasing Med25’s melting temperature by greater than 3 standard deviations of the mean.

The differences of note are as follows. First, to create the irreversible probe, the amide most closely connected to Med25 AcID’s cysteine(s) must be reversed for synthetic feasibility. Next, in PW19R and PW20S we have introduced a new stereocenter at the associated amide bond. Additionally, neither compound can be found within the original tethering library and thus neither has never been considered for inhibitory activity of Med25 PPIs. Since PW19R and PW20S are similar but notably different than compound 5 it is reasonable to hypothesize they
will also have differences in their biological activity. Thus, it would be useful to test these fragments against ERM as well as other Med25-related Activators for a thorough assessment of their biological use. Further studies can be done to investigate the role that these compounds play in Med25-PPI inhibition.

In conclusion, compound 5 from the list of ligands identified as Med25 binders from the Wells Tethering Library and its sub fragments were transformed into irreversible probes that target Med25 AcID. Two of the probes, R-Benzothiophene nipecotic acetyl bromide and S-benzothiophene nipecotic acetyl bromide suggest that both stabilize Med25 by shifting the Tm more than 3 SD units through DSF experiments. Further studies can be done to investigate if this stabilization results in disruption of Med25 AcID PPIs.

Chapter 3.7 Methods

General Procedures:

13C and 1H NMR spectra were recorded on a Varian MR400, a Varian Vnmrs 600MHz, or a Bruker Ascend 500 magnetic resonance spectrometer, as noted. Proton chemical shifts are referenced to CHCl3 (δ 7.26 ppm) in CDCl3 solutions, CD3OD (δ 3.31) in CD3OD solutions, and DMSO δ 2.5). Carbon chemical shifts are referenced to δ 77.16 ppm in CDCl3 solutions, δ 49.09 ppm in CD3OD solutions, and δ 39.53 ppm in DMSO and referenced in Appendix 2 High Resolution Mass Spectra were recorded with a (TOF, QTOF) using either positive or negative mode electrospray ionization (ESI) Products were purified by flash chromatography using indicated solvent systems. Column chromatography was performed manually.

Purchase and Synthesis of Probes
Silica gel, 4-Amino-1-Boc piperidine, (R)-3-Amino-1-Boc piperidine, (S)-3-Amino-1-Boc piperidine, 4-(N-Boc amino)piperidine, (R)-3-(Boc Amino)Piperidine, (S)-3-(Boc Amino)Piperidine, Benzothiophene amine, Benzothiophene carboxylic acid, iodoacetamide, bromo acetyl bromide, β-mercaptoethanol (BME), Dithithreitol (DTT), pivaloyl chloride, hunig’s base, sodium bicarbonate, trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) acetic anhydride, and DMSO were purchased from commercial vendors Sigma Aldrich or Toronto Chemical and used as received.

Control molecule Iodoacetamide PW10 was used as purchased and dissolved in DMSO to create a 1mL 50mM stock solution. This stock was diluted to various other concentrations for use in SPA experiments.

Control molecule BME PW11 was used as purchased and dissolved in Med25 buffer solution to create a 1mL solution of 10mM BME. This stock was diluted to various other concentrations and used for SPA experiments and for quenching of SPA experiments.

**Formation of Irreversible Electrophiles**


Formation of Boc-iso Nipecotic Acetyl Bromide PW12
tert-butyl 4-(2-bromoacetamido)piperidine-1-carboxylate (80%)

To a round bottom flask charged with a stir bar was added 4-amino-1-Boc piperidine (1.0g, 4.9930 mmol) in CH₂Cl₂ (2.52 mL). This solution was combined with a solution of K₂CO₃ (1.0351g, 7.4895 mmol) in H₂O (2.33 mL) and cooled to 0° in an ice bath. Dropwise bromo acetyl bromide (436.29 µL, 4.9930 mmol) was added and the solution was allowed to stir at room temperature overnight. The crude product was extracted into CH₂Cl₂ (5 mL x3). The
combined organic layers were then washed with saturated NaHCO₃, brine, dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄, and concentrated under reduced pressure and the residue was purified using flash chromatography (1% MeOH/CH₂Cl₂) to give **PW12** (1.2696 g crude, 79%)

**Synthesis of Boc-(R)-Nipecotic Acetyl Bromide PW13R**

tert-butyl (R)-3-(2-bromoacetamido)piperidine-1-carboxylate (37%)

To a round bottom flask charged with a stir bar was added (R)-3-(Boc-amino) piperidine (505.4 mg, 2.52 mmol) in CH₂Cl₂ (1.25 mL). This solution was combined with a solution of K₂CO₃ (527.4 mg, 3.82 mmol) in H₂O (1.15 mL) and cooled to 0° in an ice bath. Dropwise bromo acetyl bromide (0.25 mL) was added and the solution was allowed to stir at room temperature overnight. The crude product was extracted into CH₂Cl₂ (5 mL x3). The combined organic layers were then washed with saturated NaHCO₃, brine, dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄, and concentrated under reduced pressure and the residue was purified using flash chromatography (1% MeOH/CH₂Cl₂) to give **PW13R** as a bubble white solid (300mg, 37%)

**Synthesis of Boc-(S)-Nipecotic Acetyl Bromide PW14S**

tert-butyl (S)-3-(2-bromoacetamido)piperidine-1-carboxylate (67%)

To a round bottom flask charged with a stir bar was added (S)-3-(Boc-amino) piperidine (1.0g, 4.9930 mmol) in CH₂Cl₂ (2.52 mL). This solution was combined with a solution of K₂CO₃ (1.0351g, 7.4895 mmol) in water (2.33 mL) and cooled to 0° in an ice bath. Dropwise bromo acetyl bromide (436.29 µL, 4.9930 mmol) was added and the solution was allowed to stir at room temperature overnight. The crude product was extracted into CH₂Cl₂ (5 mL x3). The combined organic layers were then washed with saturated NaHCO₃, brine, dried over anhydrous
Na₂SO₄, and concentrated under reduced pressure and the residue was purified using flash chromatography (1% MeOH/CH₂Cl₂) to give PW₄S as a bubble white solid, 973.3 mg, 67%

**Synthesis of Benzothiophene Acetyl Bromide PW₁₅**

N-(benzo[b]thiophen-2-yl)-2-bromoacetamide (70%)

To a round bottom flask charged with a stir bar was added benzothiophene amine (100 mg, 0.6710 mmol) in CH₂Cl₂ (388.89 µL). This solution was combined with a solution of K₂CO₃ (139mg, 1.0065 mmol) in H₂O (388.89 µL) and cooled to 0° in an ice bath. Dropwise bromoacetyl bromide (436.29 µL, 4.9930 mmol) was added and the solution was allowed to stir at room temperature overnight. The crude product was extracted into CH₂Cl₂ (5 mL x3). The combined organic layers were then washed with saturated NaHCO₃, brine, dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄, and concentrated under reduced pressure and the residue was purified using flash chromatography (30%-70% ethyl acetate: hexanes) to give PW₁₅ (126 mg, 70%)

**Formation of Nipecotic acid-derived alkylators**

**Synthesis of PW₁₆** 2-bromo-N-(piperidin-4-yl)acetamide

To a round bottom flask charged with a stir bar was added tert-butyl 4-(2-bromoacetamido)piperidine-1-carboxylate PW₁₂ (55mg, mmol) to CH₂Cl₂ (1.71 mL). The reaction mixture was cooled to 0 °C, then dropwise was added TFA (0.34 mL, 4.48 mmol) and let stir 30 minutes to 1 hour. When the reaction was judged to be complete the solvent and excess TFA were evaporated using N₂ (g). The crude fragment PW₁₆ (27.63 mg, 73%) was used for SPA experiments.
Synthesis of Acetyl isonipecotic acetyl bromide **PW17**

N-(1-acetyl)piperidin-4-yl-2-bromoacetamide (27%)

To a round bottom flask charged with a stir bar was added tert-butyl piperidin-4-ylcarbamate (400 mg, 2 mmol) in CH₂Cl₂ (20 mL). Hünig’s base (0.7 mL, 4.00 mmol the reaction mixture was then cooled to 0 °C in an ice bath. Dropwise acetic anhydride (0.19 mL, 2.00 mmol) was added, and the reaction stirred overnight. When the reaction was judged complete, the crude product was extracted into CH₂Cl₂ (15 mL x3). The combined organic layers were washed with saturated NaHCO₃, brine, dried over Na₂SO₄, filtered, and concentrated under reduced pressure to yield intermediate **PW17-I** as a yellowish white solid. (605 mg, 80 %)

The crude product **PW17-I** (204 mg, 1.019 mmol) was dissolved in DCM (10 mL) and dropwise TFA (2.04 mL) was added, and the reaction was let stir for 30 min to 1 hour to produce the deprotected amine. The excess solvent and TFA was evaporated using N₂ (g) and used as crude for the next step.

This intermediate free amine (1.019 mmol) was dissolved in DCM (0.69 mL) and mixed with a combined solution of K₂CO₃ (313.00 mg, 2.26 mmol) in H₂O (0.75 mL). The reaction mixture was cooled to 0 °C with an ice bath and the reaction was let stir over night. When the reaction was judged to be complete, the reaction was quenched with saturated NaHCO₃ (5 mL) and extracted into DCM (5mL x3). The combined organic layers were then washed with NaHCO₃ and brine, then dried with anhydrous Na₂SO₄, filtered, and concentrated under reduced pressure to obtain yellowish white solid, **PW17** (105mg, 27%) was then used for SPA experiments.

**Synthesis of Benzothiophene-Nipecotic acid-derived alkylators**

Synthesis of Benzothiophene isoNipecotic Acetyl Bromide **PW18**
N-(1-(benzo[b]thiophene-2-carbonyl)piperidin-4-yl)-2-bromoacetamide (23%)

To a round bottom flask charged with a stir bar was added a benzothiophene anhydride intermediate (350 mg, 1.33 mmol), tert-butyl piperidin-4-ylcarbamate (350 mg, 1.75 mmol) in CH₂Cl₂ (10 mL). Hünig’s base (0.50 mL, 2.70 mmol) was then added, and the reaction mixture was allowed to stir overnight. When the reaction was judged complete the crude was extracted into CH₂Cl₂ (x3 10 mL). The combined organic layers were washed with NaHCO₃ (10 mL) and brine (10 mL), then dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and concentrated under reduced pressure to yield a white solid. The crude was then purified using flash chromatography (50% ethyl acetate: hexanes) to give intermediate PW₁₈-I (420 mg, 90%).

To a round bottom flask charged with a stir bar was added PW₁₈-I (106 mg, 0.19 mmol) in CH₂Cl₂ (1.5 mL). The reaction mixture was cooled to 0 °C and dropwise TFA (0.3 mL, 3.93 mmol) was added, and the reaction mixture was let stir for 30 minutes to 1 hour to produce the deprotected intermediate. The excess solvent and TFA was evaporated using N₂ (g) and redissolved in CH₂Cl₂ (0.5mL) and used crude for the next step.

This intermediate free amine (0.19mmol) was dissolved in CH₂Cl₂ (0.5 mL) and mixed with a combined solution of K₂CO₃ (120 mg, 0.87 mmol) in H₂O (0.5 mL). The reaction mixture was cooled to 0 °C with an ice bath and the reaction was let stir over night. When the reaction was judged to be complete, the reaction was quenched with saturated NaHCO₃ (5 mL) and extracted into DCM (5mL x3). The combined organic layers were then washed with NaHCO₃ (5 mL) and brine (5mL), then dried with anhydrous Na₂SO₄, filtered, and concentrated under reduced pressure to obtain yellowish white solid. The crude was then purified using flash chromatography (100% DCM) to give PW₁₈ (26 mg, 23 %) was then used for SPA experiments.
Synthesis of Benzothiophene (R)-Nipecotic Acetyl Bromide \textbf{PW19R}

(R)-N-(1-(benzo[b]thiophene-2-carbonyl)piperidin-3-yl)-2-bromoacetamide (68%)

To a round bottom flask charged with a stir bar was added a benzothiophene anhydride intermediate (250mg, 0.95 mmol), tert-butyl (R)-piperidin-3-ylcarbamate (250mg, 1.248 mmol) in CH$_2$Cl$_2$ (10mL). Hünig’s base (0.35 mL, 2.00 mmol) was then added, and the reaction mixture was allowed to stir overnight. When the reaction was judged complete the crude was extracted into CH$_2$Cl$_2$ (x3 10mL). The combined organic layers were washed with NaHCO$_3$ and brine, then dried over MgSO$_4$, filtered, and concentrated under reduced pressure to yield a white solid. The crude was then purified using flash chromatography (50% ethyl acetate: hexanes) to give intermediate \textbf{PW19-I} (250mg, 73%).

To a round bottom flask charged with a stir bar was added \textbf{PW19-I} (70 mg, 0.19 mmol) in CH$_2$Cl$_2$ (1.5 mL). The reaction mixture was cooled to 0 °C and dropwise TFA (0.3 mL, 3.93 mmol) was added, and the reaction mixture was let stir for 30 minutes to 1 hour to produce the deprotected intermediate. The excess solvent and TFA was evaporated using N$_2$ (g) and redissolved in CH$_2$Cl$_2$ (0.5mL) and used crude for the next step.

This intermediate free amine (0.19 mmol) was dissolved in CH$_2$Cl$_2$ (0.5 mL) and mixed with a combined solution of K$_2$CO$_3$ (120 mg, 0.87 mmol) in H$_2$O (0.5 mL). The reaction mixture was cooled to 0 °C with an ice bath and the reaction was let stir over night. When the reaction was judged to be complete, the reaction was quenched with saturated NaHCO$_3$ (5 mL) and extracted into CH$_2$Cl$_2$ (5mL x3). The combined organic layers were then washed with NaHCO$_3$ and brine, then dried with anhydrous Na$_2$SO$_4$, filtered, and concentrated under reduced pressure to obtain yellowish white solid. The crude was purified using flash chromatography (100%
CH₂Cl₂) to yield, PW19R (72 mg, 68%) and a white solid which was then used for SPA experiments.

Synthesis of Benzothiophene (S)-Nipecotic Acetyl Bromide PW20S

(S)-N-(1-(benzo[b]thiophene-2-carbonyl)piperidin-3-yl)-2-bromoacetamide (47%)

To a round bottom flask charged with a stir bar was added a benzothiophene anhydride intermediate (250mg, 0.95 mmol), tert-butyl (S)-piperidin-3-ylcarbamate (250mg, 1.248 mmol) in DCM (10mL). Hünig’s base (0.35 mL, 2.00 mmol) was then added, and the reaction mixture was allowed to stir overnight. When the reaction was judged complete the crude was extracted into DCM (x3 10mL). The combined organic layers were washed with NaHCO₃ and brine, then dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and concentrated under reduced pressure to yield a white solid. The crude was then purified using flash chromatography (50% ethyl acetate: hexanes) (289 mg, 84%) to give intermediate PW20S-I.

To a round bottom flask charged with a stir bar was added PW20S-I (98 mg, 0.19 mmol) in DCM (1.5 mL). The reaction mixture was cooled to 0 °C and dropwise TFA (0.3 mL, 3.93 mmol) was added, and the reaction mixture was let stir for 30 minutes to 1 hour to produce the deprotected intermediate. The excess solvent and TFA was evaporated using N₂ (g) and redissolved in DCM (0.5mL) and used crude for the next step.

This intermediate free amine (0.19 mmol) was dissolved in DCM (0.5 mL) and mixed with a combined solution of K₂CO₃ (120 mg, 0.87 mmol) in H₂O (0.5 mL). The reaction mixture was cooled to 0 °C with an ice bath and the reaction was let stir over night. When the reaction was judged to be complete, the reaction was quenched with saturated NaHCO₃ (5 mL) and extracted into DCM (5 mL x3). The combined organic layers were then washed with NaHCO₃
and brine, then dried with anhydrous Na$_2$SO$_4$, filtered, and concentrated under reduced pressure to obtain yellowish white solid. The crude was then purified using flash chromatography (100% CH$_2$Cl$_2$) PW20S (49 mg, 47%) to yield a white solid. PW20S was then used for SPA experiments.

**Protein Expression and Purification**

WT Med25 was expressed and purified from heat-shock competent Rosetta pLysS cells (Novagen), in Terrific Broth (TB) containing 0.1 mg/mL ampicillin and 0.034 mg/mL chloramphenicol, using previously described conditions.$^{30,59}$ Cells were grown at 37 °C to an optical density (OD$_{600}$nm) of 0.8. Temperature was reduced to 18°C and protein expression was induced upon addition of IPTG to a final concentration of 0.5 mM. Post-induction, cells were incubated 16 hours at 18°C. Cells were pelleted via centrifugation at 6000xg for 20 mins at 4°C. Cell pellets were stored at -80°C prior to purification. The harvested pellet was thawed on ice and resuspended in 20 mL of lysis buffer (50 mM phosphate, 300 mM sodium chloride, 10 mM imidazole, pH 6.8). Cells were then lysed by sonication on ice and cellular lysates were cleared by centrifugation at 9500 rpm for 20 min at 4°C. The supernatant lysate was then added to 750µL Ni-NTA beads (Qiagen) and incubated for 1 hour at 4°C. The resin was pelleted by centrifugation at 2500 rpm for 2 min at 4°C and washed with wash buffer (50 mM phosphate, 300 mM sodium chloride, 30 mM imidazole, pH 6.8) a total of five times. Protein was then eluted with 2 mL of elution buffer (50 mM phosphate, 300 mM sodium chloride, 400 mM imidazole, pH 6.8) a total of three times. Eluent was then pooled and purified by cation exchange FPLC (Source 15S, GE Healthcare) using a gradient of Buffer B (50 mM phosphate, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, pH 6.8) in Buffer A (50 mM phosphate, 1 mM DTT). The FPLC purified protein was then dialyzed into storage buffer (10 mM phosphate, 50 mM NaCl, 10% v/v
glycerol, 0.001% v/v NP-40, pH 6.8) overnight, concentrated, aliquoted, and stored at -80°C. Final protein was greater than 90% pure as determined by Coomassie stained polyacrylamide gel. Protein concentration was determined by UV-Vis spectroscopy using an extinction coefficient, $\varepsilon = 22,460 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$.

**Single Point Alkylation (SPA) Experiments**

Med25 AcID (12.5 or 25 µM) was incubated with either 25µM or 250µM Small Molecule fragment and 1mM DTT in storage buffer (10 mM phosphate, 50 mM NaCl, 10% v/v glycerol, 0.001% v/v NP-40, pH 6.8) in a 100µL solution. Order of addition (Buffer, Protein, DTT, Small Molecule). The reaction begins upon addition of the small molecule fragment. At various time points, 20µL or 25µL samples of each SPA solution was quenched with 10µL of 10mM β-Mercaptoethanol. Mass spectrometry analysis of covalent adducts of wtMed25 was performed on 2µL samples of either 30µL or 35µL quenched SPA solution. Samples (25µL of 100 µL SPA solution) were incubated for 0 hours, 2 hour, 24 hours, and 48 hours at room temperature. Samples (20 µL of 100 µL SPA solution) were incubated for 0 hours, 30 minutes, 1 hour, 1 hour 30 minutes, 2 hours at room temperature. Analysis was conducted by mass spectrometry using an Agilent QToF LC/MS equipped with a Poroshell 300SB C8 reverse-phased column with a gradient of 5-100% acetonitrile with 0.1% formic acid in water with 0.1% formic acid over five minutes. Analysis of data was completed using the Agilent Qualitative Analysis Program with background subtraction and deconvolution settings for an intact protein of 16,000- 40,000 Da. Total abundances that correspond to masses of alkylated species and common adducts were compared to unalkylated Med25 or BME or DTT alkylated Med25 fragments to detect equilibrium percentages. When deciding on conditions, each experiment was done two to three times. Finally, the crude compounds used were only tested once as a proof of concept. Since their
SPA and SPT results were lower than the benzothiophene-based fragments we did not feel it was necessary to retest these fragments.

Chapter 3.8 References


(32) Henderson, A. R. Dissecting Transcriptional Coactivator Binding Networks To Enable Small Molecule Modulation.


CHAPTER IV Conclusions and Future Directions
Chapter 4.1 Conclusions
Since the coactivator Med25 plays significant regulation roles in healthy and in diseased tissues, there is a need to identify small molecule probes that would allow us to better control Med25 protein-protein interactions (PPIs). However, as outlined in Chapter 1, Med25 PPIs are of a class that are particularly challenging to target with small molecules.

In Chapter 2, I demonstrated how the site-directed ligand discovery method of disulfide Tethering can be utilized to first identify fragments with innate affinity for the dynamic coactivator Med25 AcID in a high throughput manner, and then adapted to quickly investigate how changes in structure affect the ability of a probe to covalently tether to Med25 AcID.

Med25 is perfectly suited for disulfide Tethering as it has two solvent-exposed cysteines that are reactive enough to participate in a reversible disulfide exchange. The two cysteines are also close enough to Med25’s binding surfaces that the disulfide exchange results in the formation of a favorable complex detectable by mass spectrometry.

I dissected compound 5 (identified from the 2017 Tethering screen) into sub-fragments and demonstrated that each piece contributes to the overall binding affinity. More specifically, both the nipecotic acid moiety and the benzothiophene have some affinity for Med25 AcID; however, neither sub fragment is comparable to compounds 5. Additionally, I demonstrated that the Tethering moiety (the ‘tail’ portion of a fragment) can be a thiol PW4, a homodisulfide PW6, or as is typical, a heterodisulfide PW5 since the Boc isonipecotic HEA D fragment could bind to Med25 in all instances. The TAIL portion of the disulfide does however play roles in the solubility of the overall fragment and can alter the kinetics of the disulfide exchange and will
allow the attached HEAD fragment to reach the same equilibrium concentrations despite the attached TAIL.

It is also important to emphasize that the disulfide ligands all function as reversible covalent ligands for Med25, meaning these probes are sensitive to redox conditions. This limits the use of these probes to in vitro studies, as they would not survive within the reductive cellular environment. As the probes become reduced from their targets resulting in off target effects. Because of this I decided to convert the nipecotic acid-based and benzothiophene-based analogs of Chapter 2 into irreversible probes by converting the disulfide tail into a more thiol-reactive electrophile. To create the irreversible probe the representative amine analog of each fragment was coupled to bromo acetyl bromide. The experiments of Chapter 3 catalogue how stereochemical alterations of these sub fragments and other SAR considerations affect their ability to alkylate Med25.

Here I showed that the stereochemistry of the nipecotic acid- derivatives does not affect the fragments’ abilities to effectively alkylate Med25. Considering how each of the sub-fragments were able to effectively Tether Med25 20-30%, and how at least the R-Nipecotic Acid fragment appeared frequently in the Med25 hits from the initial disulfide Tethering screen, we chose to test both (R)-nipecotic acetyl bromide and (S)-nipecotic acetyl bromide derivatives in conjunction with isonipecotic acetyl bromide analogs, testing the hypothesis that one isomer would be able to bind Med25 AcID better than the other. Surprisingly, each fragment alkylated Med25 similarly, suggesting that the changes in stereochemistry do not affect binding to at least this dynamic protein. This may relate to the protein altering its overall structure to accommodate
ligand binding. This result was corroborated when the Benzothiophene-Nipecotic Acid-based fragments all alkylated Med25 in similar ways. It can be noted that the Benzothiophene isoNipecotic Acid seems to be the worst performing out of the three.

Interestingly, both Benzothiophene (R)-Nipecotic Acetyl Bromide PW19R and Benzothiophene (S)-Nipecotic Acetyl Bromide PW20S, which were not fragments from the original tethering screen, were shown to stabilize Med25 AcID by lowering its Melting Temperature (T_m) by more than 3 standard deviations of the mean.

Chapter 4.2 Future Directions
To further investigate the role these benzothiophene-based ligands play regarding Med25 AcID PPIs, a few different directions can be explored. By using fluorescence polarization (FP) relying on fluorescently labeled peptide to compete off prelabeled small molecule, we can evaluate if these ligands can act as inhibitors of Med25 related PPIs by looking for changes in Kd between Med25 and a related activator versus Med25-Small Molecule complex and a related activator. Changes can be seen both allosterically and orthosterically as Med25 AcID is known to change structure upon ligand binding. However, simply binding to a protein of interest (poi) does not indicate that molecule’s effectiveness at altering PPIs. While it was interesting to see that these molecules bound to Med25, the results presented in a follow-up experiment for the KIX protein suggested that the binding of a small molecule to a specific binding site does not correlate to the molecule’s ability to alter related PPI activity.  

Additionally, it has been recently shown that modifying the thiol-reactive electrophile can tune the reactivity of the electrophile as well as have disparate orthosteric or allosteric effects depending on complexation changes Med25 AcID’s structure. Various different thiol reactive tails can be attached to the benzothiophene-based analogues to tune the fragments overall
It would be interesting to consider how an acrylamide tail and a vinyl sulfonamide tail compared to the bromo acetyl tail alter Med25 PPIs.

Figure 4.1 Modifications of PW19R and PW20S For Use in Biological Experiments. Figure 4.1 shows the next steps for PW19R and PW20S. By changing their electrophile TAIL to different thiol reactive moieties, we expect to see differences in Med25 PPI regulation.

Since many of the initial Tethering fragments can be seen both singly and doubly labeling Med25, it could be useful to do additional experiments that help differentiate which Cysteine (C497 or C506) is being targeted by which fragments. To do this one could perform site directed mutational analysis on wtMed25 AcID to make Cysteine mutants Med25 C497A, Med25 C506A, Med25 C497S or Med25 C506S or even a double alanine mutant Med25 C497A C506A. By mutating out one of the Cysteines, double labeling should be significantly decreased if not completely abolished allowing for the rational design of cysteine-specific probes or the identification of patterns or sub features that help us identify significant scaffolds that add specificity to these binding interactions. Generally, alanine mutants are used, but it may be more
useful to create serine mutants which only differs from cysteine by replacement of Cysteine’s S with Serine’s O.\textsuperscript{13,14}

\textbf{Chapter 4.3 References}


(2) Henderson, A. R. Dissecting Transcriptional Coactivator Binding Networks To Enable Small Molecule Modulation.


APPENDICIES
Appendix 1 Abbreviations
You can find a list of abbreviations here.
Appendix 2 Small Molecule Characterization
You can see the NMR data analysis for new compound synthesized here.

You can see the MS data analysis for new compounds synthesized here.