The use of the electrostatic potential at the molecular surface in recognition interactions: Dibenzo-p-dioxins and related systems

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An ab initio self-consistent-field molecular orbital approach was used to compute the electrostatic potentials of dibenzo-p-dioxin, 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin (TCDD), two analogues of the latter, and two isomeric benzoflavones on a three-dimensional molecular surface corresponding to the contour of constant electronic density equal to 0.002 electrons/bohr³. The results are discussed in relation to the biological activities of the respective molecules. It is shown that the electrostatic potential graphically depicted on the molecular surface is well suited for the study of recognition interactions, such as are believed to be involved in the initial receptor-mediated step leading to toxicity in the dibenzo-p-dioxins. The surface potential has the advantage of clearly showing steric features that may play a role in understanding the recognition process being investigated.

Keywords: electrostatic potential, molecular surface, dibenzo-p-dioxins, benzoflavones, recognition interactions

The electrostatic potential $V(\mathbf{r})$ that the nuclei and electrons of a molecule create in the surrounding space has been shown to be a very useful analytical tool in the study of molecular reactivity, ¹⁻⁵ including biological recognition interactions. ⁵⁻¹² In earlier studies, we have presented the electrostatic potentials of dibenzo-p-dioxin (I), and a variety of

Address reprint requests to Dr. Sjoberg at Nobel Chemicals, Nobel Industries Sweden, S-69185 Karskoga, Sweden. Received 1 November 1989; accepted 23 January 1990 halogenated dibenzo-p-dioxins, including the highly toxic 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin (TCDD, II), and several structural analogues of TCDD (such as III and IV). We have identified patterns in these potentials that are associated with high degrees of biological activity, ^{13–17} including toxicity, aromatic hydrocarbon hydroxylase (AHH) induction, and receptor binding. In addition, we have studied the electrostatic potentials of the two isomers, 5,6-benzoflavone (VI) and 7,8-benzoflavone (VI)¹⁶; these are also

inducers of AHH activity, but are inhibitors of the subsequent metabolic oxidation carried out by this enzyme system.¹⁸

In light of the evidence that the toxic effects produced by the dibenzo-p-dioxins and related systems are receptor-mediated, $^{19-21}$ our earlier work focused on the initial recognition process involved in this receptor interaction. We computed $V(\mathbf{r})$ at a distance of 1.75 Å above the molecular plane, which corresponds to the approximate van der Waals radius of the largest atom in this group of molecules (chlorine). This is the potential that a receptor would encounter during a recognition process. In systems with central oxygens, $V(\mathbf{r})$ was also computed in perpendicular planes through the oxygens to study the effects of structure and substitution on their characteristic negative potentials.

We have recently developed a procedure for viewing and analyzing the electrostatic potential on a three-dimensional surface, designed to encompass nearly all of the electronic charge of the molecule.²³ This approach has been shown to be effective for successfully interpreting and predicting nucleophilic processes,²³ which previously have been much less straightforward to interpret (by means of electrostatic potentials) than electrophilic ones.^{3,4}

In the present work, our aim is to demonstrate that the electrostatic potential plotted on a well-defined molecular surface is well suited for the study and analysis of receptor interactions and complements our earlier two dimensional approach. Accordingly, the surface potentials of **I–VI** will be presented and discussed in the light of their respective biological activities and in relation to our previous work in this area.

METHODS AND PROCEDURE

The molecular electrostatic potential at any point \mathbf{r} is expressed rigorously by

$$V(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{A} \frac{Z_A}{|\mathbf{R}_A - \mathbf{r}|} - \int \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r}') d\mathbf{r}'}{|\mathbf{r}' - \mathbf{r}|}$$
(1)

where Z_A is the charge on nucleus A, located at \mathbf{R}_A , and $\rho(\mathbf{r})$ is the electronic density function of the molecule, which we obtain by an ab initio self-consistent-field molecular orbital approach. The first term on the right side of equation 1 represents the contribution of the nuclei, which is positive; the second term brings in the effect of the electrons, and is negative. An important feature of $V(\mathbf{r})$ is that it is a real physical property, which can be determined experimentally by diffraction techniques as well as computationally.⁴

In this work, $V(\mathbf{r})$ has been computed and graphically displayed on a characteristic three-dimensional surface, corresponding in all instances to the contour of constant electronic density equal to 0.002 electrons/bohr³. It has been shown, for a group of diatomic molecules and for methane, that this contour in three dimensions encompasses at least 95% of the electronic charge and gives physically reasonable molecular dimensions. ^{24–26} This surface is defined in terms of a molecular property, the electronic density function $\rho(\mathbf{r})$, and thereby reflects features such as bond formation and lone pairs that are unique to a molecule. This is in contrast to earlier approaches in which surfaces have been defined

in terms of sets of intersecting spheres centered on the nuclei of the molecule. ^{24,27–37}

Because of the size of molecules I-VI, crystallographic geometries have been used whenever possible as starting points for our computations. The structure of TCDD (II) was taken from a crystallographic study³⁸ and used as a model for I, with appropriate modifications. Chlorines were replaced by hydrogens in I, with CCH angles set to 120° and all C—H bond lengths taken to be 1.08 Å. For III, a geometry was approximated, with C-C bond distances in the aromatic rings set to 1.38 Å, and the two C—C bonds joining these rings set to 1.40 Å. The C—Cl and C—H bond distances in III were set to 1.73 and 1.02 Å, respectively; the CCX angles (where X is H or Cl) were taken to be 120°. The structure of IV was taken from a crystal structure of anthraquinone, 39 with the C—Cl bond distances and C—C—Cl angles set to 1.73 Å and 120°, respectively. For V and VI, structures were obtained from crystallographic

Using these geometries, we have computed STO-5G wave functions for I-VI with the GAUSSIAN 86 system of programs.⁴¹ We have found this basis set to be satisfactory for properties related to the electronic charge distribution, as is $V(\mathbf{r})$. Furthermore, extensive investigations have shown that ab initio SCF approaches, such as are used in this study, produce generally reliable representations of the electrostatic potential.^{1,2,42,43} These wave functions were then used to calculate surface electrostatic potentials. The latter can, of course, be shown at whatever degree of resolution is desired. For the molecules I-VI, we have chosen to indicate three ranges of $V(\mathbf{r})$, by means of different colors.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The calculated electrostatic potentials on the molecular surfaces of the parent inactive dibenzo-p-dioxin, I, and the highly toxic TCDD, II, are shown in Color Plates 1 and 2. In Color Plate 1, negative potentials extend over the outer two rings, becoming stronger near the central oxygens. The lateral regions (near positions 2,3 and 7,8) are positive, as is the surface above the central dioxin ring. The negative potentials above the outer rings can be interpreted as being due to the aromatic π electrons.

The surface $V(\mathbf{r})$ of TCDD (Color Plate 2) is in extreme contrast to that of **I**. Negative lateral regions associated with the chlorines are separated by a large positive $V(\mathbf{r})$ region. The negative potentials above the outer rings of **I** are completely eliminated, as was seen also in our earlier two-dimensional $V(\mathbf{r})$ plots. In addition, the oxygen negative potentials in **II** are greatly diminished relative to **I**, and appear on the sides of the surface, largely masked from view. These various features reflect the strong electronattracting inductive power of the chlorine substituents.

2,3,6,7-Tetrachlorobiphenylene (III) is a non-oxygen-containing analogue of TCDD, very similar to II in toxicity, AHH induction, and receptor binding. Its surface electrostatic potential, presented in Color Plate 3, is also strikingly similar to that of TCDD (Color Plate 2); negative lateral regions are separated by an extensive area of positive potential. This points out, as we have suggested earlier, ¹⁶ that oxygens in the central portion of the molecule are not required for high activity.

It is seen in Color Plate 4 that the surface $V(\mathbf{r})$ of the relatively inactive 2,3,6,7-tetrachloroanthraquinone (IV) has a pattern similar to those of II and III (Color Plates 2 and 3). However, the negative potentials associated with the central oxygens in IV are farther apart from each other and more accessible than those of TCDD (Color Plate 2). This difference between the potentials of II and IV, which is steric in nature, is clearly brought out by Color Plates 2 and 4. These results are consistent with our earlier speculation that the biological inactivity of IV may be due in part to the carbonyl oxygen negative regions being in a position to inhibit an attractive interaction between IV and the receptor binding site, whatever that may be. 16

Our present results for I-IV support our earlier observations regarding factors that are linked to high biological activities in the dibenzo-p-dioxins and similar systems. 13,16 Negative regions above all or most of the lateral positions of the molecule, separated by an area of positive potential, appear to be necessary for high activity; oxygens in the central portion of the molecule are not. Our results for the highly toxic II and the relatively inactive IV suggest that in cases with central oxygens, a high level of biological activity requires their characteristic negative potentials to be small, relatively weak, and close to the center of the molecule. These features are graphically depicted by the electrostatic potentials on the molecular surfaces of the highly active II and III (Color Plates 2 and 3). In the case of IV, the steric factor that may be responsible for its low activity (more widely separated and accessible negative oxygen potentials) is also clearly shown by its surface potential (Color Plate 4).

5,6-Benzoflavone (V) and 7,8-benzoflavone (VI) are structural isomers differing in the position of a fused benzene ring. V is essentially planar, whereas in VI the linked phenyl ring is rotated slightly out of the plane of the remainder of the molecule. 40 The calculated electrostatic potentials on the molecular surfaces of V and VI (Color Plates 5 and 6, respectively) show negative regions that can be attributed to the carbonyl oxygens, the ring oxygens, and the π electrons of the aromatic rings. However, the overall $V(\mathbf{r})$ patterns are qualitatively different for the two molecules. In VI, the strongest negative regions are associated with the two oxygens, while in V they are with the carbonyl oxygen and the nearby 5,6-benzo ring, and overlap due to their proximity; the ring oxygen is less negative. The nonplanarity of VI is clearly indicated by its surface potential. (Note the tilting of the linked phenyl ring in Color Plate 6.)

The surface electrostatic potentials of V and VI present a different picture of the carbonyl oxygen regions than did our earlier two-dimensional $V(\mathbf{r})$ plots. ¹⁶ The latter showed the carbonyl region of VI to be significantly more negative than that of V. This probably reflects the difficulty in choosing appropriate planes in which to compare $V(\mathbf{r})$ for planar and nonplanar systems, such as V and VI. The computation of $V(\mathbf{r})$ on a well-defined molecular surface is clearly advantageous in this respect; the necessity of selecting planes is eliminated, thus removing any ambiguity associated with this choice.

The surface potentials of V and VI can help to explain their differing biological activities. V is known to be a stronger inducer of AHH activity than VI and has a higher binding affinity to the cytosolic Ah receptor. 18 Perhaps the

negative regions of the carbonyl and ring oxygens in VI somewhat interfere with binding to the receptor, resulting in a diminished tendency to induce AHH activity (relative to V). The nonplanarity of VI may be a further factor affecting receptor binding.

Once the AHH activity has been induced, V and VI actually inhibit the metabolic oxidation carried out by this enzyme system. Both the oxidation and the inhibition are believed to occur at the cytochrome P-450 enzyme site. 18 Our surface potential analysis supports earlier speculation as to why VI is a more effective inhibitor than V. 44 The unhindered situation of the negative carbonyl oxygen region of VI may allow it to displace a ligand at the P-450 enzyme site (one of them is known to be weakly bound), thereby interfering with any subsequent oxidation—reduction reactions. This type of inhibition conceivably could not occur with V, with its shielded carbonyl oxygen. It is therefore more likely that V acts as a competitive inhibitor, mimicking the substrate and blocking the enzyme active site.

To further demonstrate the effectiveness of surface electrostatic potentials in accounting for steric effects, such as appear to be of considerable importance in understanding the biological activities of the systems discussed thus far, we present the electrostatic potentials on the molecular surfaces of methyl chloride (VII) and *tert*-butyl chloride (VIII).

$$H_3C-Cl$$
 $(H_3C)_3C-Cl$ **VIII VIII**

In aliphatic systems, the S_N 2 displacement of a group X by a nucleophile Z: proceeds through the transition state IX and thus involves inversion of configuration:

$$Z: + \frac{R_1 \stackrel{R_2}{\searrow} c - X}{R_3} \xrightarrow{} Z - \frac{R_1 \stackrel{R_2}{\searrow} c}{\stackrel{R_3}{\bowtie}} - X \longrightarrow Z - c \stackrel{R_2}{\searrow} c + :X$$

$$IX$$

For a given Z, the reactivity of the chlorine in this substitution diminishes in the order

$$H_3C-Cl > (H_3C)H_2C-Cl > (H_3C)_2HC-Cl > (H_3C)_3C-Cl$$

a trend that has been attributed to the steric hindrance due to the methyl groups.⁴⁵

This is reflected in the surface potentials of VII and VIII, shown in Color Plates 7 and 8, respectively. (STO-3G optimized structures were used to compute $V(\mathbf{r})$ at the 3-21G level.) The yellow areas, with $V(\mathbf{r}) > 20$ kcal/mol, are indicative of regions highly susceptible to nucleophilic attack. The large yellow area that can be seen in Color Plate 7 for H₃C—Cl is almost completely absent in Color Plate 8a, which shows the corresponding view for $(H_3C)_3C$ —Cl. There is still a yellow region, but it is buried inside the cone formed by the C—CH₃ bonds (Color Plate 8b).

SUMMARY

We have computed and presented the electrostatic potentials on the molecular surfaces of dibenzo-p-dioxin, 2,3,7,8tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin, two analogues of the latter, and two isomeric benzoflavones. We have discussed these in the light of the molecules' respective biological activities. Our results are consistent with those obtained earlier with two-dimensional plots of $V(\mathbf{r})$ for these and a variety of related systems. However, the use of surface potentials eliminates all uncertainty related to choosing the most appropriate plane in which to compute the potential; all molecules are now treated in a consistent manner. This can be rather an important point for systems with significant asymmetry, such as the benzoflavones. The surface electrostatic potentials clearly reveal steric features that may affect the recognition process being investigated. Their effectiveness in accounting for steric factors is further demonstrated by the comparison of H₃C—Cl and (H₃C)₃C—Cl. Our results show that the electrostatic potential graphically depicted on an appropriate three-dimensional surface is well suited for the study of recognition interactions, such as are believed to be involved in the initial receptor-mediated step leading to the biological activities of the dibenzo-p-dioxins and related systems.

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