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Functional and Structural Analysis of a Key Region of the Cell Wall Inhibitor Moenomycin

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Abstract

Moenomycin A (MmA) belongs to a family of natural products that inhibit peptidoglycan biosynthesis by binding to the peptidoglycan glycosyltransferases (PGTs), the enzymes that make the glycan chains of peptidoglycan. MmA is remarkably potent, but its clinical utility has been hampered by poor physicochemical properties. Moenomycin contains three structurally distinct regions: a pentasaccharide, a phosphoglycerate, and a C25 isoprenyl (moenocinyl) lipid tail that gives the molecule its name. The phosphoglycerate moiety links the pentasaccharide to the moenocinyl chain. This moiety contains two negatively charged groups, a phosphoryl group and a carboxylate. Both the phosphoryl group and the carboxylate have previously been implicated in target binding but the role of the carboxylate has not been explored in detail. Here we report the synthesis of six MmA analogs designed to probe the importance of the phosphoglycerate. These analogs were evaluated for antibacterial and enzyme inhibitory activity; the specific contacts between the phosphoglycerate and the protein target were assessed by X-ray crystallography in conjunction with molecular modeling. Both the phosphoryl group and the carboxylate of the phosphoglycerate chain play roles in target binding. The negative charge of the carboxylate, and not its specific structure, appears to be the critical feature in binding since replacing it with a negatively charged acylsulfonamide group produces a more active compound than replacing it with the isosteric amide. Analysis of the ligand-protein contacts suggests that the carboxylate makes a critical contact with an invariant lysine in the active site. The reported work provides information and validated computational methods critical for the design of analogs based on moenomycin scaffolds.

Keywords

Peptidoglycan glycosyltransferase; murein synthesis; antibiotic; moenomycin; penicillin-binding protein

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Supporting Information Available: Experimental details for the synthesis of compounds **3–7** and **34** and characterization data for all new compounds; refinement statistics for co-complexes. This material is available free of charge *via* the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

INTRODUCTION

Antibiotic resistant bacterial infections pose a serious threat to public health and there is an ongoing need for a pipeline of new antibacterial agents (1–2). Compounds that have novel chemical structures or inhibit new targets in essential biosynthetic pathways are of particular interest since they are not expected to be susceptible to resistance mechanisms already established for other antibiotics. Moenomycin A (1, Figure 1, MmA) (3) is a natural product antibiotic that may serve as a promising lead for new antibiotics because it combines a novel structure with a unique mechanism of action. It inhibits peptidoglycan glycosyltransferases (PGTs), the enzymes that make the carbohydrate chains of bacterial peptidoglycan (PG) (4). Peptidoglycan biosynthesis is a major target for clinically used antibiotics, most of which are derived from natural products. Moenomycin is the only known natural product that directly inhibits the PGTs and it provides a blueprint to guide the design of potent, broad-spectrum inhibitors to this family of antibiotic targets.

The biological activity of moenomycin is remarkable compared with that of most other natural product antibiotics: it is 10–1000 times more potent than vancomycin (5–6) against Gram-positive organisms, with MICs below $0.1 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$. It was developed for use as a growth promoter in animals, but its use in humans has been prevented by its poor physicochemical properties. Altering these properties has long been a goal. In a beautiful series of papers in the 1980s and 90s, Welzel and coworkers used chemical synthesis to make a wide range of moenomycin analogs and elucidated several critical features of moenomycin that are essential for activity (3); however, a lack of detailed structural information on how moenomycin binds to its PGT targets eventually impeded progress in analog design. In the past three years, crystal structures of moenomycins bound to four different peptidoglycan glycosyltransferases have provided structural information to guide the design of new analogs. As is common, however, there are differences among the four complexes in the detailed contacts between the proteins and the ligands. The most significant differences involved how the phosphoglycerate unit binds since these differences raise questions about the importance of the phosphoglycerate (7–10). We have used chemical synthesis combined with structural analysis to address its role, with particular emphasis on the carboxylate moiety. The importance of carboxylate of moenomycin in target binding has not been systematically explored previously and there are notable differences among the crystal structures with respect to the protein contacts to this carboxylate. In one of the complexes, *S. aureus* PBP2 (Figure 2, panel d), a conserved negatively charged glutamate side chain makes a proposed contact to the carboxylate, possibly via a bridging hydrogen bond (9). In another complex, *E. coli* PBP1B there are no side chains within 4 Å of the carboxylate (8). In the other two complexes, *A. aeolicus* PBP1A and *S. aureus* MGT (Figure 2, panel b and e), an invariant lysine side chain is proposed to anchor the carboxylate (7,10).

The differences in the four PGT complexes raised questions about whether the carboxylate is critical for binding and, if so, whether the negative charge or the hydrogen bonding capability of the carboxyl group is more important. We have used a degradation-reconstruction approach to make six MmA analogs to address the role of the phosphoglycerate moiety of moenomycin in binding to peptidoglycan glycosyltransferases (11). We report here the multistep synthesis of these compounds, their biological evaluation, and modeling studies restrained by crystallographic data for co-complexes of two of the compounds. Our analysis indicates that the carboxylate plays a central role in binding to the target through energetically favorable ionic interactions with positively charged side chains in the active site. These interactions help orient the lipid chain for binding along the hydrophobic groove that funnels down from the active site to the membrane.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Synthesis of MmA analogs

In 2006 we reported the total synthesis of moenomycin as well as chemistry to degrade and reconstruct this natural product (11–12). The latter chemistry allows us to independently change the phosphoryl group, the carboxylate, or the lipid of the phosphoglycerate moiety. Both these groups have previously been implicated in target binding (13) but the role of the carboxylate has not been explored in detail. Here we report the preparation of six derivatives of MmA in which individual features of the phosphoglycerate have been systematically varied. Two series of moenomycin compounds were prepared, one containing the natural C25 isoprenyl chain (**3** and **4**, Figure 3) and the other containing a neryl (C10) chain (**5** and **6**, Figure 3). In each series we synthesized one derivative in which the phosphoryl group was capped (**3** and **5**, Figure 3), and another in which the carboxylate was removed (**4** and **6**, Figure 3). In the C10 series, we also synthesized the isosteric carboxamide analog **7** (Figure 3), which maintains the hydrogen-bonding network available to the carboxylate but removes the charge, and the acylsulfonamide analog **34** (Scheme 3), which maintains the charge. The synthesis of each analog required approximately fourteen steps, and the combined syntheses of six different analogs highlights the utility of the synthetic methods we previously developed to degrade and reconstruct analogs of this densely functionalized natural product.

The desired phosphoglycerate derivatives were obtained by first preparing the appropriate lipid glycerates (Scheme 1). Briefly, alcohols **8** and **9** were prepared by coupling allyl bromides **11** (11) and **12** to the mono-triisopropylsilyl protected ethylene glycol **13** followed by deprotection with TBAF. Alcohol **10** was prepared by amidation of carboxylic acid **16** (11), prepared from glycidol in six steps, followed by deprotection with DDQ. To obtain the desired phosphodiester **22–25**, the C25-lipid-containing alcohol **8** and the C10-lipid-containing alcohols **9**, **10** and **18** were subjected to condensation with the core pentasaccharide *H*-phosphonate **21** (Scheme 2), which was prepared from MmA (**1**) (11). Competing esterification of alcohols **9** and **10** by 1-adamantanecarbonyl chloride (**14**) can be suppressed if addition of the 1-adamantanecarbonyl chloride is added as a solution in pyridine at 0 °C. Treatment with carbon tetrachloride (**15–16**) effects *in situ* oxidation to form the corresponding phosphodiester **22–25** selectively without affecting other chemically sensitive functionality (*e.g.*, the 2-amino-1,3-cyclopentadione of the A-ring and olefins within the isoprenoid chain). Subsequent saponification of the phosphodiester **22–24** afforded the phosphoglycols **4** and **6** and the phosphoglyceramide **7** in satisfactory yield (Scheme 2 and Figure 3). Methyl phosphates **3** and **5** (Figure 3) were prepared by selective hydrolysis of methyl esters **19** and **26** under alkaline conditions (Scheme 2). Hydrolysis of the methyl phosphate was not observed under these reaction conditions.

The desired acylsulfonamide **34** (Scheme 3) was prepared by coupling the pentasaccharide lactol **20** with the protected acylsulfonamide **31**. Our route to the protected acylsulfonamide **31** is patterned on a synthetic route developed by Welzel (17–18). The carboxylic acid **29** was prepared in two steps from known 1,3:4,6-di-*O*,*O*-(4-methoxybenzylidene)-D-mannitol (**27**) (19–21). Condensation of **29** with *N*-allyl-methanesulfonamide (**22**) was achieved under mild conditions using DCC in the presence of a stoichiometric amount of DMAP to afford optically pure *N*-allyl-protected acylsulfonamide **30**. An allyl group was chosen to protect the acylsulfonamide so that it could be selectively removed under neutral conditions (*e.g.*, palladium catalysis) (23–24). Acid hydrolysis of the silyl ether **30** gave the primary alcohol **31**, which was used for coupling with the protected pentasaccharide **20**. The phosphoramidite was prepared *in situ* from **31**, coupled with lactol **20**, and further oxidized with *tert*-butylhydroperoxide to give phosphotriester **32**. The use of the phosphoramidite coupling (25–28) to prepare **32** turned out to be a more effective procedure than the *H*-phosphonate coupling method (26,29) used to prepare compounds **2** and **4–7**. The

phosphoramidite coupling method avoids transformation of lactol **20** to *H*-phosphonate **21** and the potential to competitively acylate **31**. To deprotect the acylsulfonamide **32**, a few allyl scavengers were tested (morpholine (30), *p*-toluenesulfinate (31), and barbituric acid (32)). Barbituric acid successfully removed allyl group from **32** under palladium catalysis to give free acylsulfonamide **33**. These conditions for allyl group deprotection did not decompose the chemically labile allylic ether of the isoprenoid chain (33). As far as we know, this is the first report of the use of an allyl group to protect an acylsulfonamide. The final global deprotection of **33** in mild base afforded the acylsulfonamide **34** (Scheme 3).

Evaluation of Biological Activity of MmA analogs

We first evaluated the ability of the moenocinyl analogs **3** and **4** to inhibit the PGT activity of PBP2 from *S. aureus* (34–35) and PBP2A from *E. faecalis* (11) using a previously described PGT assay (36–37). The inhibitory ability of an analog is reported as the half maximal inhibitory concentration (IC₅₀), the concentration at which the analog inhibits 50% of the Lipid II polymerization activity catalyzed by PGTs. Polymerization activity was monitored by paper chromatography using a radiolabeled synthetic Lipid II substrate. We also determined the minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of compounds **3** and **4** against laboratory strains of *S. aureus* and *E. faecalis* (Table 1). The MICs of analogs **3** and **4** were 5–10 and ~25 times higher, respectively, than that of MmA; however, the increased MICs were not reflected in the IC₅₀ values for the analogs, which are similar to those for MmA (Table 1). One explanation for this observation is that the long moenocinyl chain interacts so strongly with the purified enzymes via non-specific hydrophobic interactions that the effects of changes elsewhere in the molecule are obscured. That is, the *in vitro* assay may be not capable of distinguishing activity differences among compounds with low nanomolar binding since the enzyme is stoichiometrically inhibited. We prepared the corresponding neryl analogs **5** and **6** to probe the importance of the phosphoryl group and carboxylate in the context of a molecule that does not bind to the target as tightly. We have previously shown that neryl analog **2** (11), although it has no biological activity, has very good enzyme inhibitory activity (tenfold lower than the natural product in our assay); furthermore, it binds in the same region of the active site as MmA itself and establishes similar contacts. Therefore, it is a good model system for assessing the importance of particular protein-ligand contacts. The IC₅₀ values of analogs **5** and **6** were two orders of magnitude higher than that of **2**, showing that both the phosphoryl group and the carboxylate make critical contacts to the target (7). The magnitude of the change in binding for **5** and **6** are in the range that might be expected for an electrostatic contact between a ligand and a protein (38–39). In all four reported moenomycin:PGT structures, the phosphoryl group makes a similar network of contacts to charged residues. These contacts likely explain the diminished affinity of **5** compared with **2**, as reflected in the IC₅₀ values. However, the contacts to the carboxylate in the reported crystal structures vary (see Introduction). Therefore, although the lack of activity of the descarboxyl analog highlights the importance of the carboxylate, we had to carry out further experiments to determine the structural basis for requiring this functional group.

To determine whether the hydrogen bonding network or the negative charge is most important for binding, we prepared carboxamide **7**, an uncharged isostere of **2**, that is capable of hydrogen binding, and the acylsulfonamide analog **34**. Acylsulfonamides are known to be fully deprotonated at physiological pH (pK_a ~4–5) (40) and are often used to mimic carboxylate groups. Although the acylsulfonamide is sterically larger than the carboxylate functionality, analysis of the X-ray structures of the complexes suggested there might be sufficient room for this group. Compound **7** was found to have an IC₅₀ value comparable to the descarboxyl analog against both PGTs tested; the IC₅₀ of the acylsulfonamide analog **34** was 5–10 fold better than the carboxamide isostere **7**. These

results are consistent with the hypothesis that a negative charge in this region of MmA plays a key role in binding. The increased steric hindrance of the sulfonamide group may explain the observation that **34** is not as potent an inhibitor as **2**. Nevertheless, the activity of the analog demonstrates that it is possible to make significant changes to this portion of the molecule provided the negative charge is maintained.

Computational analysis of n-MmA analogs complexed with the aaPGT domain

We attempted to obtain X-ray structural data on **5** and **6** complexed to aaPGT domain but were only partially successful. Although data sets were acquired for complexes with both ligands, the fractional occupancy was low. The positions of the phosphoryl groups were clear, but density of the other parts was not as good. Therefore, we used molecular modeling to help rationalize the effects of the structural changes on binding for the analogs in Figure 3. Docking computations of moenomycin analogs were performed with LigPrep and Glide from the Schrodinger Suite using the X-ray structure of the PGT domain of *A. aeolicus* PBP1A (aaPGT) from the n-MmA co-complex (PDB code: 3D3H) (7–10). Since moenomycin is much larger than a typical molecule used in docking (1200 Da vs 350 Da), and has more rotatable bonds that can be currently handled by the Schrodinger Suite, we used CEF trisaccharide fragments rather than the full pentasaccharide for docking (Figure 4, panel b, d and f) (for sugar notation, see Figure 1). To validate the computational methods, we first confirmed that the docking results for the n-MmA CEF trisaccharide fragment were consistent with the crystal structure. The RMSD between the docked ligand and the ligand in the crystal structure of the complex was 1.1 Å, a very good agreement considering the large size of the docked ligand and the number of rotatable bonds. The docking computations were then extended to the CEF trisaccharide fragments of compounds **5** and **6** (Figure 4, panel d and f). Both docked in the same location as **2**. We used the Glide 4.0 XP scoring function to estimate protein-ligand binding affinities. This function incorporates unique water desolvation energy terms, hydrophobic enclosure, neutral-neutral single or correlated hydrogen bonds, and five categories of charged-charged hydrogen bonds (41). The Glide scores for the trisaccharide fragments of **2**, **5** and **6** were –12, –10.6, and –9.2, respectively, an order consistent with the relative affinities of the compounds based on the IC₅₀ measurements (42). The RMSDs between n-MmA in the crystal structure and the docked trisaccharide analogs of **5** and **6** were 1.3 Å and 2.7 Å, respectively.

We redocked the CEF trisaccharide fragments of compounds **5** and **6** using restraints obtained from the X-ray data for the parent compounds (**5** and **6**; see METHODS). Although the occupancy in the X-ray structures of the complexes is low, strong electron density corresponding to the phosphate atoms is clearly visible and can be used as experimental constraints. A glide score of –11.2 was obtained for the CEF trisaccharide fragment of compound **5** in the restrained docking computations; the RMSD compared to n-MmA was 1.4 Å, similar to the RMSD from unrestrained docking computations. A score of –9.6 and an RMSD of 2.6 Å were obtained for the CEF trisaccharide fragment of compound **6**, which is also similar to the RMSD from the unrestrained docking computations. It is notable that the neryl side chains in the docked structures of **2**, **5**, and **6** are oriented differently, suggesting that having the correctly positioned phosphoglycerate moiety also helps orient the lipid chain.

Based on the restrained docking computations, the high resolution X-ray structure of **2** complexed to the *A. aeolicus* PGT, and the IC₅₀ values of the analogs we have synthesized, we propose that the carboxylate of moenomycin plays an important role in binding through a favorable electrostatic interaction with an invariant lysine in the active site. This contact is observed in two of the four reported moenomycin:PGT complexes (see Figure 2b and e) (7–10). There may be a number of explanations for its absence in the other two complexes (7–10), including differences in crystallization conditions and the possibility that non-specific

hydrophobic interactions with the moenocinyl chain lead to misalignment of other functional groups. In any event, the relative activities of the descarboxyl analogs **4** and **6**, the carboxamide **7**, and the acylsulfonamide analog **34** compared to the parent compounds clearly implicate the carboxylate negative charge in target binding.

The potential of moenomycin as a starting point for design of clinically useful antibiotics

The PGTs are unexploited targets in the pathway for peptidoglycan biosynthesis. They are considered promising antibacterial targets because their structures are conserved, their functions are essential, they have no eukaryotic counterparts, and they are located on the external surface of the cytoplasmic membrane where they are accessible to molecules that cannot penetrate into the cell. The moenomycins are the only blueprints to guide the design of analogs and it is important to understand in detail how they bind. Although recent high resolution structures have provided detailed information on protein-ligand contacts, the importance of the contacts must be evaluated experimentally, particularly since there are some discrepancies. In this paper, we have focused on the role of the phosphoglycerate portion of moenomycin in binding to the PGT targets. Using a previously described method, we have been able to remove the phosphoglycerate lipid from the protected natural product and reattach a range of other phospholipids. We have prepared six different analogs of moenomycin containing changes to the phosphoglycerate-lipid portion of the molecule. Based on their enzyme inhibitory activity in conjunction with X-ray structural analysis and molecular docking, we have concluded that both the phosphoryl group and the carboxylate moiety of moenomycin form functionally important electrostatic interactions with conserved active site residues in the PGTs. The phosphate-protein contacts are similar in all four complexes and these contacts, shown in Figure 2, likely explain the importance of the phosphoryl group in anchoring moenomycin in the active site. In contrast, the carboxylate-protein contacts vary in the complexes, with two showing a salt bridge to an invariant lysine, and the others showing no attractive interactions. Studies on our synthetic analogs support the importance of the observed salt bridge.

An interesting observation is that the relative importance of both the phosphoryl group and the carboxylate depends on the length of the lipid chain. No decrease in enzyme inhibitory activity was observed when either one of these groups was modified in the context of the C25 chain (compare **1** to **3** or **4**); in contrast, decreases of 2 to 3 orders of magnitude were observed when they were modified in the context of a C10 chain (compare **2** to **5**, **6**, **7**, or **34**). The results indicate that both the hydrophobic chain and the phosphoglycerate play a role in binding. One may contribute more to the energetics and the other may contribute more to the specificity. The C25 lipid clearly plays a major role in the biological activity of the natural product and it probably contributes to target binding both by direct interactions with the hydrophobic funnel that leads to the membrane and by membrane anchoring. At the same time, it is also credited with the poor pharmacokinetic properties and high serum binding of moenomycin so reducing its size is desirable. Although the C10 analogs are too short to retain biological activity, the C25 chain is longer than required for activity (43). An optimal lipid length has not yet been identified, but one implication of the work reported here is that any reduction in the size of the lipid chain increases the importance of maintaining appropriate polar active site contacts.

METHODS

Materials

Radiolabeled heptaprenyl-Lipid II was synthesized as described by Ye et al (36). Moenomycin A (**1**) was extracted and purified from the feed stock flavomycin and purified as described (11). n-MmA (**2**) was synthesized as previously described (11). The synthesis

and characterization of compounds **3–7** and **34** are described in the Supporting Information. All other reagents and buffer components were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich.

Biological Activity Evaluation

IC₅₀'s against PBP2 from *S. aureus* and PBP2A from *E. faecalis* were obtained using a previously described assay (36–37). PBP2 from *S. aureus* and PBP2A from *E. faecalis* were prepared as described in references (11,34–35). MIC values ($\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$) against laboratory strains of *S. aureus* and *E. faecalis* were obtained using the standard broth microdilution assay (44). The MIC is defined as the lowest antibiotic concentration that resulted in no visible growth after incubation at 37 °C for 22 h.

Crystallization and Structural Determination

Crystals of protein aaPGT (PBP1A[51–243]) were obtained as described previously (45). Compounds **5** and **6** were soaked into PGT crystals at a concentration of 1 mM and 5 mM respectively in a stabilizing solution containing 100 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, 15% polyethylene glycol 6000 (w/v) for 10 h. The crystals then were cryoprotected with 25% glycerol (v/v) and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen.

Data sets for two co-complexes were collected at NE-CAT beamline ID-24-C of the Advanced Photon Source (Argonne National Laboratories, Chicago). Data were indexed, integrated and scaled with HKL2000 (46) and the data collection statistics are shown in Table S1. The unit cell parameters for both co-complexes were very similar to the apo-aaPGT crystals, and therefore we placed the aaPGT coordinates (PDB code 2OQO) in the unit cell and refined the initial position by a rigid body protocol in CNS 1.225 (47). The protein model in each complex was then further improved by several iterative rounds of manual fitting in COOT 0.326 (48) and cycles of simulated annealing and temperature factor refinement in CNS. Inspection of final $2f_o - f_c$ and $f_o - f_c$ electron density maps confirmed the presence of ligand and the position of the phosphorus atoms. Detailed statistics pertaining to the final model are given in Table S1.

Structure-based docking

Protein structure-based docking was performed with the Schrödinger Suite (www.schrodinger.com). The coordinates of a complex of the peptidoglycan glycosyltransferase domain from *A. aeolicus* and n-MmA (PDB code: 3D3H) were first optimized using Protein Preparation Wizard. As part of this step we added hydrogen atoms, stripped water molecules and performed energy minimization. The prepared coordinates were then used to calculate three grids, all centered at $x = 34.2 \text{ \AA}$, $y = 34.2 \text{ \AA}$ and $z = 10.3 \text{ \AA}$. The first grid did not incorporate any restraints and was subsequently used for docking the CEF trisaccharide fragments of n-MmA. The other two grids were calculated to dock the CEF trisaccharide fragments of compounds **5** and **6**, respectively, and therefore included positional restraints that would force the phosphorous atoms of the moenomycin derivatives to overlap, within 1.2 Å, with the position of the phosphorous atoms in the herein described X-ray structures. All ligands were prepared by the Schrödinger Ligprep module, and structure-based docking was performed with Glide version 5.0.1 in the extra precision (XP) mode. The root mean square deviation was calculated for atoms in rings E, F and the phosphoglycerate group.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

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42. The methyl phosphonate in compound **5** has a chiral center. We modeled both diastereomers and obtained Glide scores for each. The values for each diastereomer are similar (–11.18 and –9.94) and we simply took the average value. The methyl phosphonate in compound **5** has a chiral center. We modeled both diastereomers and obtained Glide scores for each. The values for each diastereomer are similar (–11.18 and –9.94) and we simply took the average value.
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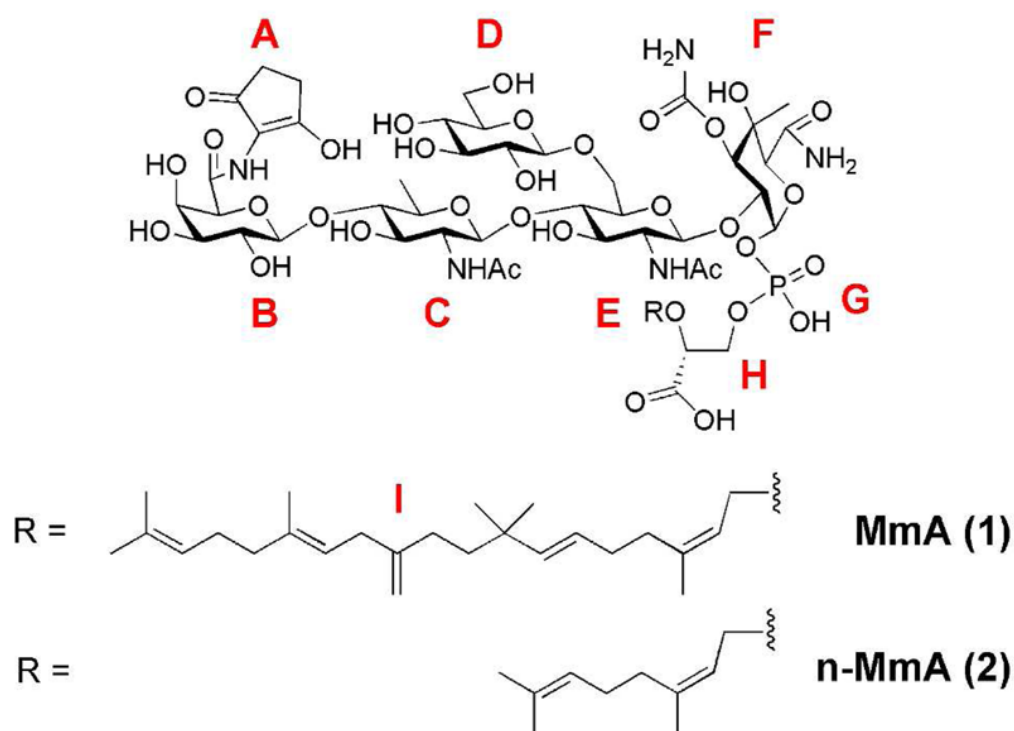
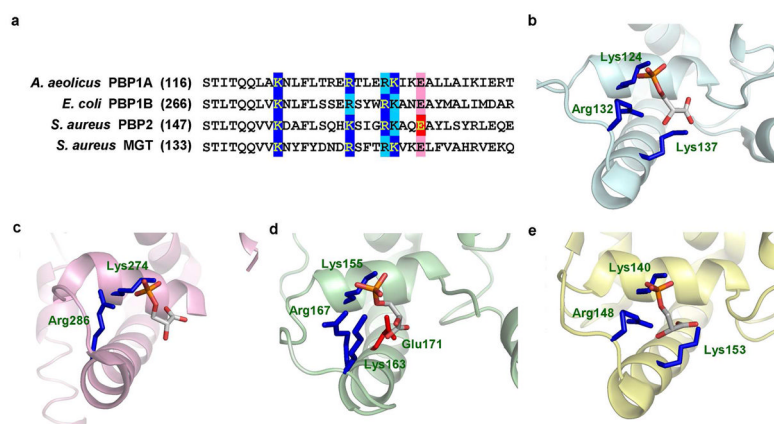


Figure 1.
Chemical structures of MmA and n-MmA.

**Figure 2.**

Sequence and structural alignment of charged residues. a) Charged residues in four PGTs that interact with MmA phosphoglycerate within 4 Å are highlighted in green letter as shown. These residues are highly conserved and well aligned, as shown in boxes, blue for positive and red for negative charged residues. Structural interactions of indicated residues and phosphoglycerate portion are drawn as stick models in b) *A. aeolicus* PBP1A (PDB code: 3D3H), c) *E. coli* PBP1B (PDB code: 3FWM), d) *S. aureus* PBP2 (PDB code: 2OLV) and e) *S. aureus* MGT (PDB code: 3HZS) crystal structures, shown as ribbon representations.

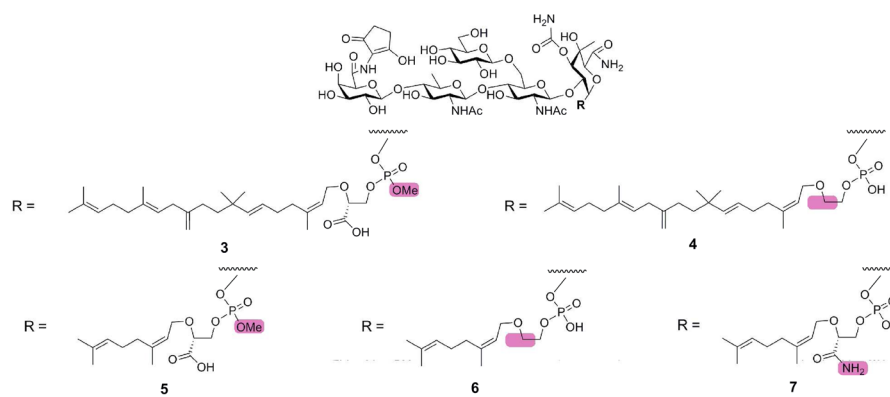


Figure 3.
Chemical structures of MmA analogs.

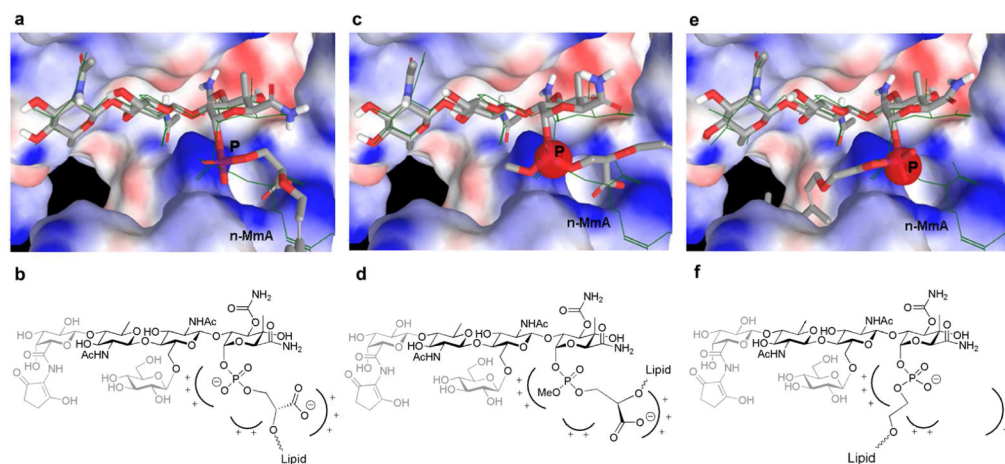


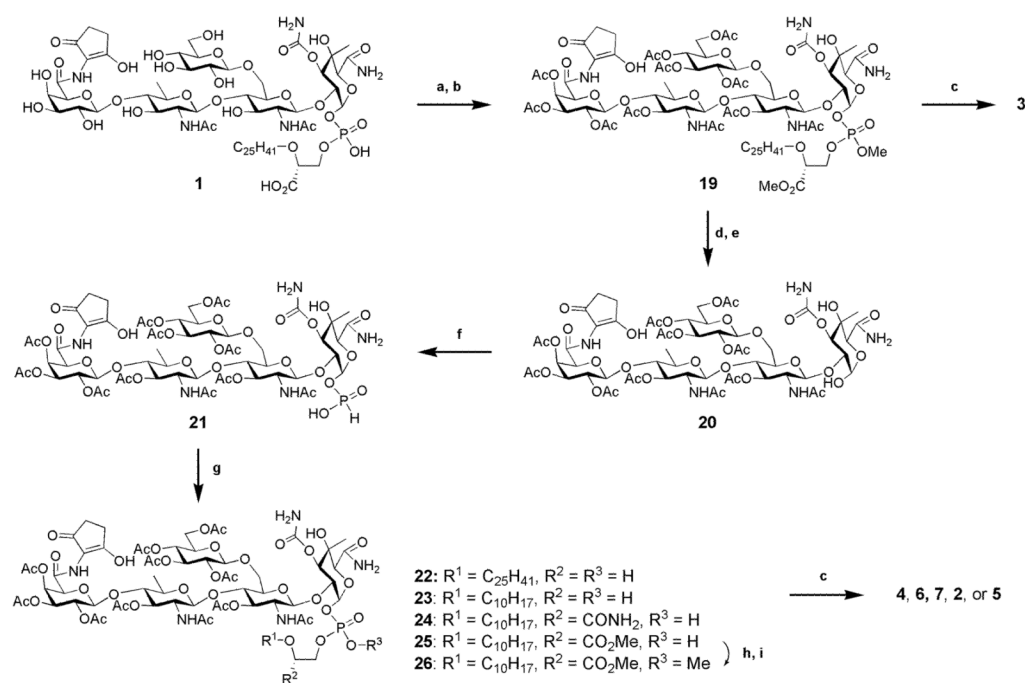
Figure 4.

Structure-based docking results using CEF trisaccharide fragments of compounds **2**, **5** and **6**.

Top panels represent close-up views of the ligand (shown in sticks with the phosphorus atoms labeled as P) docked in the active site of *aaPGT* domain and overlaid on *n-MmA* (shown as green lines) from the crystal structure of the *n-MmA:aaPGT* co-complex. The protein receptor is shown as a surface presentation colored in red (oxygen), blue (nitrogen) and white (carbon). Bottom panels are chemical structures of the docked ligands. Figures in the top panels are made in Maestro. a) Docking of analog **2** with *aaPGT* with no restraints. b) Chemical structure of compound **2** showing the CEF trisaccharide fragment used in the docking computations shown in black, with the rest shaded. c) Docking of analog **5** with *aaPGT* using restraints for the phosphorus atom (the restraint is shown as a red ball). d) Chemical structure of compound **5** with the CEF trisaccharide fragment used in the docking computations shown in black, with the rest shaded. e) Docking of analog **6** with *aaPGT* using restraints for the phosphorus atom. f) Chemical structure of compound **6** with the CEF trisaccharide fragment used in the docking computations shown in black, with the rest shaded.



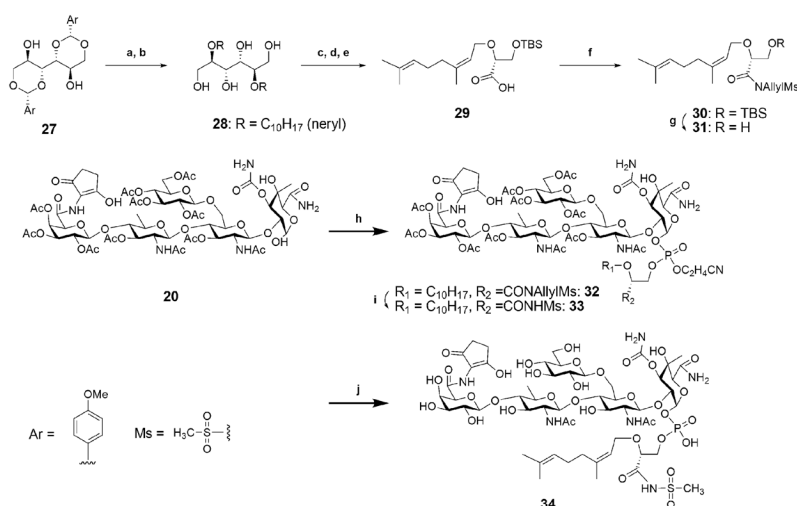
^aConditions: a) NaH, THF/DMF (7:1), 0 °C; b) TBAF, THF, 0 °C (**8**: 63% in 2 steps, **9**: 72% in 2 steps); c) ClCO₂Et, Et₃N, *t*-BuOMe, r.t., then NH₄OAc (70%); d) DDQ, CH₂Cl₂/pH 7 buffer (10:1), r.t. (**10**: 81%, **18**: 72%); e) TMSCHN₂, CH₂Cl₂/MeOH (1:1), -60 °C (quant.).



Scheme 2.

Preparation of MmA analogs **2–7**^a.

^aConditions a) Ac_2O , Py, r.t.; b) $TMSCHN_2$, $CH_2Cl_2/MeOH$ (1:1), $-78^\circ C$ (61% in 2 steps); c) 1 M LiOH aq. or 1 M KOH aq., THF/ H_2O (1:1), r.t. (**2**: 76%, **3**: 68%, **4**: quant., **5**: 77%, **6**: 97%, **7**: 66%); d) $TMSOTf$, MS 4 Å, CH_2Cl_2 , -78 to $0^\circ C$; e) saturated $NaHCO_3$ aq., r.t., 1 h (73% in 2 steps); f) 2-chloro-1,3,2-benzodioxaphosphorin-4-one, CH_3CN , $-20^\circ C$ then H_2O (70%); g) **8**, **9**, **10**, or **18**, 1-adamantanecarbonyl chloride, Py, MS 4 Å, r.t., or $47^\circ C$ then $CCl_4/NMM/CH_3CN/H_2O$ (2.4:1:1:1), r.t. (**22**: 55% based on 65% conversion, **23**: 88%, **24**: 68% based on 75% conversion, **25**: 63%); h) **25**, Dowex 50WX8-100, MeOH, $0^\circ C$; i) $TMSCHN_2$, $CH_2Cl_2/MeOH$ (1:1), $-78^\circ C$ (61% in 2 steps).



Scheme 3.

Preparation of MMA acyl sulfonamide analogs **34**^a.

^aConditions a) NaH, **12**, DMF, r.t.; b) AcOH/THF/H₂O (4:4:1), 50 °C (70% in 2 steps); c) TBSCl, imidazole, *cat.* DMAP, CH₂Cl₂, r.t.; d) NaIO₄, THF/H₂O (9:1), 50 °C; e) NaClO₂, NaH₂PO₄·H₂O, 2-methyl-2-butene, *t*-BuOH/H₂O (5:1), r.t. (77% in 3 steps); f) MsNHAllyl, DCC, DMAP, CH₂Cl₂, r.t. (57%); g) AcOH/THF/H₂O (5:1:1), 50 °C (86%); h) **31**, CIP(OC₂H₄CN)Ni-Pr₂, DIEA, CH₃CN, then **20**, tetrazole, MS 3 Å, 0 °C ~ r.t., then *t*-BuO₂H, 0 ~ 10 °C (33%); i) barbituric acid, *cat.* Pd(PPh₃)₄, MeOH, r.t.; j) 1 M LiOH·H₂O, THF/MeOH/H₂O (3:1:1) (46% in 2 steps).

Table 1

PGT inhibition and antibacterial activity for MmA and analogs.

	IC ₅₀ (μM) ^a		MIC (μg mL ⁻¹)	
	<i>S. aureus</i> PBP2	<i>E. faecalis</i> PBP2A	<i>S. aureus</i> ATCC 29213	<i>E. faecalis</i> ATCC 29212
1	0.022±0.001	0.035±0.007	0.13	0.063
2	0.340±0.209	0.203±0.101	>250	>250
3	0.046±0.039	0.059±0.010	0.60	0.60
4	0.008±0.001	0.011±0.005	3.1	1.6
5	15±4	23±7	>250	>250
6	56±14	57±14	>250	>250
7	68±26	88±40	>250	>250

^aThe IC₅₀ measurements were carried out under identical enzyme concentrations (30 nM for *S. aureus* PBP2; 40 nM for *E. faecalis* PBP2A).