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Targeting the Transmembrane Domain 5 of Latent Membrane Protein 1 Using Small Molecule Modulators

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Abstract

Protein-protein interactions (PPIs) play a critical role in living cells and represent promising targets for the drug discovery and life sciences communities. However, lateral transmembrane PPIs are difficult targets for small-molecule inhibitor development given less structural information is known and fewer ligand discovery methods have been explored compared to soluble proteins. In this study, the interactions of the transmembrane domain 5 (TMD-5) of latent membrane protein 1 (LMP-1) of Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) were disrupted by pentamidine derivatives to curb the committed step of EBV infection. A pentamidine derivative 2 with a 7-atom di-amide linker had the best activity whilst switching the amide regiochemistry in the linker influenced membrane permeability and abolished anti TMD-5 activity. Molecular dynamics simulations were performed to understand the interaction between pentamidine derivatives and TMD-5, and to rationalize the observed structure-activity relationships. This study explicitly demonstrated that the interaction of small molecule with lipid should be considered alongside interaction with the protein target when designing small molecules targeting the PPIs of TMDs. In all, this study provides proof of concept for the rational design of small molecules targeting transmembrane PPIs.

Key Words

Protein-protein interactions; pentamidine analogues; latent membrane protein 1; the fifth transmembrane domain (TMD-5); Epstein-Barr virus; small molecule modulators.

1. Introduction

Protein-protein interactions (PPIs) are fundamental for living cells.[1-2] However, until recently they were considered undruggable given that PPI interfaces are typically large and flatter than those usually targeted by small molecules.[3] Lateral transmembrane PPIs are even more difficult to probe because less structural information is known and fewer ligand discovery methods have been applied to the identification of inhibitors when compared to soluble proteins.[4] Despite the hydrophobic nature of the transmembrane helix, the presence of charged residues is believed to be important for membrane protein functions.[5-8] For instance, with assistance of a charged aspartic acid (D150) in its transmembrane domain 5 (TMD-5),[9] the oncogenic latent membrane protein 1 (LMP-1) of Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) can form homo-oligomeric complexes on lipid rafts to active downstream signaling, leading to cell transformation.[10-13] As the first human cancer virus to be discovered, it is highly infectious and about 90% of the world's population is infected.[14] Studies have shown that EBV infection is highly correlated with multiple malignancies, including Burkitt's lymphoma, Hodgkin's lymphoma, stomach cancer, nasopharyngeal carcinoma, etc.[15-17] Unfortunately, LMP-1 function is independent of ligand binding and it effectively serves as a constitutively active receptor following oligomerization.[18] Therefore, the lateral transmembrane PPIs between monomers represent one of the limited current targets for drug discovery against EBV. Recent studies showed that TMD-5 itself can also form an oligomer,[9, 19] rendering it an ideal model for small molecule screening and development efforts targeting LMP-1 to curb the committed step of EBV infection.[20-22] Pentamidine, which is a clinical antifungal medication, has been shown to disrupt the oligomerization of LMP-1

(**Figure 1**).[20-21] However, its inhibition efficiency is moderate and its molecular mechanism of action is not well understood. Herein pentamidine analogues **1** - **5** with linkers of different lengths, varieties and orientations were designed and their anti TMD-5 activities were tested. A pentamidine derivative with a 7-atom di-amide linker, **2**, had the best activity. Interestingly, switching the regiochemistry of the amides in the linker to give a pentanediamide derivative abolished anti TMD-5 activity. Further molecular dynamics simulations were performed to understand the interaction between the small molecules **1** - **5** and TMD-5, and to rationalise the observed structure-activity relationships (SAR).

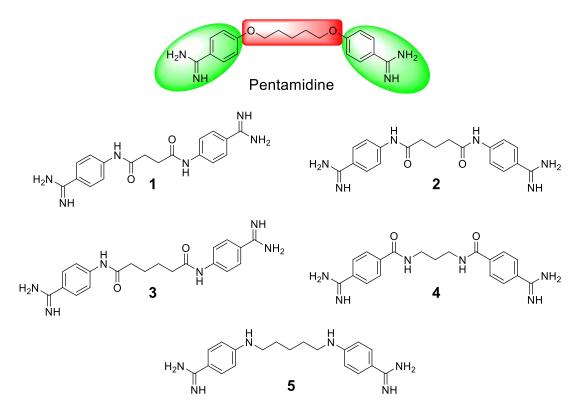


Figure 1. Chemical structures of pentamidine and its derivatives **1** - **5**. The linker is highlighted in red in pentamidine.

2. Results and discussion

The chemical structure of pentamidine (**Figure 1**) is symmetrical and contains two benzamidine motifs coupled by a bis(oxy)-pentane linker. Previous limited SAR studies showed that the positively charged benzamidine group is critical for anti TMD-5 activity.[20-21] However, how the linker affects its anti TMD-5 activity is not clear. Herein SAR analyses on the linker connecting two benzamidine groups in pentamidine was explored. Considering that only hydrogen bond acceptors (oxygens) exist in the linker of pentamidine, amide or secondary amine groups (both hydrogen bond acceptors and donors) were involved in pentamidine analogues to enhance protein-ligand interactions.

An E. coli FHK-12 cell-based ToxR assay was developed to study association of the transmembrane helix in а biological membrane.[23-24] The chimeric TMD-5 was expressed with maltose binding protein for localization on the membrane and transcription factor ToxR to provide a reporter for changes in oligomerization. As shown in Figure 2 and Table 1, pentamidine derivative 2, which was constructed replacing the bis(oxy)-pentane linker of pentamidine pentanediamide and has the same number of linker atoms as pentamidine, inhibited ToxR activity in a concentration-dependent manner with an IC₅₀ of 0.6±0.3 µM, which is 15-fold higher than pentamidine (9.1±0.6 µM),[21] suggesting it could disrupt the oligomerization of TMD-5. By changing the linker length by one-atom with respect to 2, 1 was formed by linking two benzamidine motifs with butanediamide and 3 was designed by linking the benzamidine motifs with hexanediamide. Compared to 2, 1 (IC₅₀ = 111.5 \pm 15.0 μ M) and 3 $(IC_{50} = 42.0 \pm 14.8 \mu M)$ showed much weaker anti TMD-5 potencies, which indicates that the length of the linker is critical and a linker of 7-atoms in length is optimal. However, switching the regiochemistry of the amide from **2** to give **4** resulted in the abolition of anti TMD-5 activity (IC₅₀ > 200 μ M), which revealed a critical importance of amide orientation on inhibitory potency. Changing the linker from an ether group (pentamidine) or amide group (**2**) to an amino group (**5**), the anti TMD-5 activity also diminished (IC₅₀ = 31.2±1.4 μ M). It should be noted that no derivative showed significant cell proliferation inhibition (**Table 1** for cell viability). Together, the results showed the linker composition, length and the functional group orientation profoundly influence pentamidine derivative's anti TMD-5 activity.

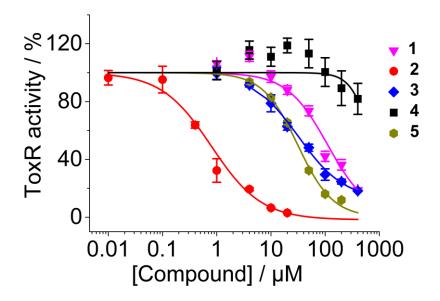


Figure 2. Concentration-dependent inhibition curves of pentamidine analogues on TMD-5 oligomerization was measured by chimeric TMD-5 ToxR assay.

To further confirm the interaction between pentamidine derivatives and the chimeric TMD-5 system happened in the membrane domain, a direct TMD-5 biophysical binding experiment in the membrane environment was performed.[9] Tryptophan (Trp) emission fluorescence

intensity of TMD-5 was recorded upon titration with pentamidine derivatives; this led to quenching of the TMD-5 intrinsic fluorescence (**Figure 3**). The dissociation constants are summarized in **Table 1**. A dissociation constant of $2.6\pm0.4~\mu M$ was determined for **2**. Compared to **2**, **1** (K_d = $13.5\pm3.3~\mu M$) and **3** (K_d = $8.9\pm2.3~\mu M$) had weaker binding affinity to TMD-5, which is consistent with the TMD-5 ToxR functional assays and confirmed the optimal linker of 7-atoms for pentamidine analogues. Interestingly, the binding affinity of **4**, which was designed by reversing the orientation of the amides in the linker of **2**, was too weak to fit. Finally, the TMD-5 binding affinity of **5** was $7.3\pm1.8~\mu M$, again weaker than that of **2**. Collectively, the TMD-5 biophysical binding data were consistent with the TMD-5 ToxR activity data and confirmed the linker profoundly influences the anti-TMD-5 activity of pentamidine derivatives.

Table 1. IC_{50} for ToxR assay, cell viability and TMD-5 binding affinity (K_d) of pentamidine analogues.

compound	IC ₅₀ of ToxR (μΜ)	FHK 12 cell viability (μΜ)	Κ _d (μ M)
1	111.5±15.0	>200	13.5±3.3
2	0.6±0.3	56.4±2.1	2.6±0.4
3	42.0±14.8	>200	8.9±2.3
4	>200	>200	n.ď ^a
5	31.2±1.4	>200	7.3±1.8

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^a *n.d.*, not determined because the binding affinity was too weak to fit; All experiments were performed at least three times independently, and data are given as the mean ± SD.

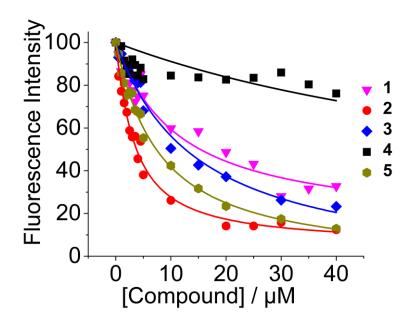
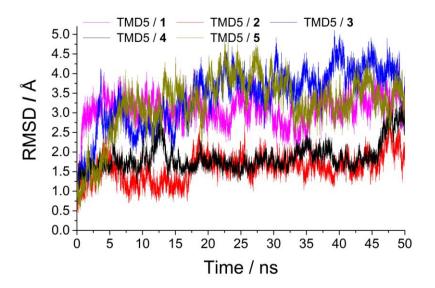


Figure 3. Representative titration curves of TMD-5 with pentamidine analogues. 290 nm was used as the excitation wavelength for intrinsic Trp protein fluorescence; emission fluorescence at 337 nm was plotted against the pentamidine analogue concentration.

Molecular dynamics (MD) simulations were employed to understand how pentamidine derivatives interact with TMD-5 and to rationalise the observed SAR. The root-mean-square deviation (RMSD) of TMD-5 over 50 ns was analyzed across the series of pentamidine analogues (**Figure** 4). The RMSD values of TMD-5 in the protein-ligand complexes showed



that all TMD5s can reach a stable state in 50 ns.

Figure 4. Time evolution curves of RMSD of TMD-5 helix backbone during molecular dynamics simulations of TMD-5/pentamidine analogue complexes.

Binding mode analysis showed that all compounds exhibited similar interaction patterns with TMD-5: one amidine group interacted with the charged D150 of TMD-5 to sterically encumber oligomer formation whilst the other amidine group reached out to the polar head group of the membrane lipids (**Figure 5**). **1**, **3** and **5** caused bending of TMD-5 in the membrane (the bending angles of TMD-5 are shown in **Figure S1**), which would incur an energy penalty and therefore reduce the TMD-5 binding affinity and anti-TMD activity. In contrast, **2** and **4**, had much less influence on conformational changes of TMD-5 than the other compounds, which indicated that less energy penalty was cost to bent TMD-5 when **2** or **4** binds to TMD-5.

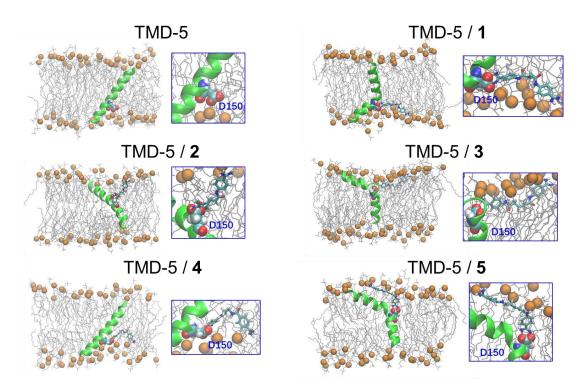


Figure 5. Conformations of TMD-5 with pentamidine analogues after

equilibration. The grey lines represent the lipids and the orange spheres represent phosphorus atoms in the lipids. TMD-5 is shown as a green ribbon. The key residue D150 is shown with spheres and the cyan sticks correspond to the compounds.

Interactions of the linker nitrogen with the lipid head groups, which is appear to be a key driving force for bending of TMD-5 in the membrane, were further investigated. Compared to other pentamidine derivatives, 2 and 4 showed formation of fewer H-bonds between linker nitrogen and lipid head groups (Figure 6, white columns). Meanwhile, 4 is the only analogue with an electron withdrawing group para to the amidine, decreasing the ability of forming hydrogen bonds of amidines. As shown in Figure 6 (grey columns), amidines of 4 formed the fewest hydrogen bonds with TMD-5 among all pentamidine analogues. These provide an explanation as to why they did not substantially bend the TMD-5 helix. Together, these MD simulations in the membrane milieu indicate that 2 and 4 should have potent TMD-5 binding affinity and anti-TMD activity. However, experimental evidence indicated that 2 was a potent TMD-5 disruptor while 4 had no apparent anti-TMD-5 activity.

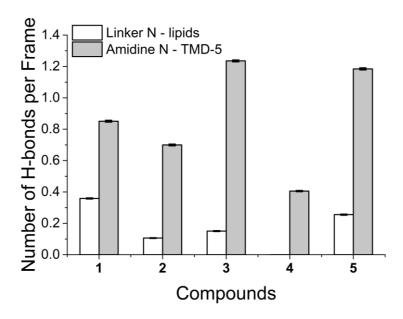


Figure 6. Number of H-bonds per frame (total number of H-bonds/number of frames) formed between nitrogen in the linker and lipids (white columns) and between nitrogen in amidines and TMD-5 (grey columns).

It should be noted that during the above MD simulations the small molecules were first directly docked into TMD-5 in the membrane milieu. Considering that pentamidine derivatives first permeate into the membrane and then interact with TMD-5, it was therefore speculated that 4 might have poor membrane permeability. In order to test this hypothesis, the free energy changes for 2 and 4 crossing the membrane were calculated. As shown in Figure 7A, 2 overcame an energy barrier of 1.5 kcal/mol to enter the membrane and stayed in the middle of membrane with a free energy change of -6.8 kcal/mol; 4 had to overcome an energy barrier with ~ 3.0 kcal/mol to permeate into the membrane and had a free energy minimum of -4.9 kcal/mol. Compared to 2, the parameters governing partition of 4 into the membrane milieu were kinetically and thermodynamically less favorable. To validate the calculation results about pentamidine derivatives 2 and 4 crossing cell membranes, the MDCK transport experiments were performed. The apparent

permeability coefficient (P_{app}) of compounds 2 and 4 are shown in **Figure 7B**. An apparent permeability coefficient (P_{app}) of $4.28 \times 10^{-6} \pm 1.24 \times 10^{-7}$ cm/s was determined for 2. Compared to 2, 4 ($P_{app} = 1.07 \times 10^{-6} \pm 1.03 \times 10^{-7}$ cm/s) had much weaker membrane penetration ability, which is consistent with the above free energy calculation. Therefore, 4, generated by switching the position of the carbonyl group and amino group relative to the linker in 2, showed weak ability to bind and disrupt TMD-5 oligomerization which is most likely due to its poor membrane permeability. In contrast, 2, which had better membrane permeability, interacted with TMD-5 without apparent bending of the TMD-5 helix, favoring TMD-5 binding and TMD-5 oligomerization disruptor activity.

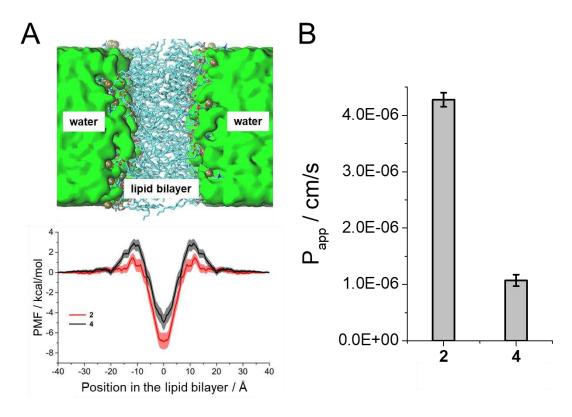


Figure 7. (A) The free energy profiles (PMFs) along the permeation route of pentamidine analogues into a model bilayer; (B) The apparent permeability

coefficient (P_{app}) of pentamidine analogues **2** and **4** was measured by MDCK transport experiments.

The free energy profiles for **2** binding to TMD-5 are shown in **Figure 8**. In the PMF profiles, compound **2** reached a global minimum at z = 5.5 Å with -4.6 kcal/mol. However, the minimum for **4** is at z = -0.5 Å with -3.6 kcal/mol. The conformations and locations with lowest free energy of compounds **2** and **4** interacting with TMD-5 are consistent with the equilibrium simulation results (see **Figure 5**). Significantly, the presence of TMD-5 decreased the energy barrier for compound permeation into the membrane. However, the barrier for permeation of **4** is still slightly higher than **2** whilst binding of **4** is less favourable than that of **2** based on the free energies. Considering the broader permeation barrier for **4**, it may be kinetically unfavourable for **4** to enter the membrane even in the presence of TMD-5.

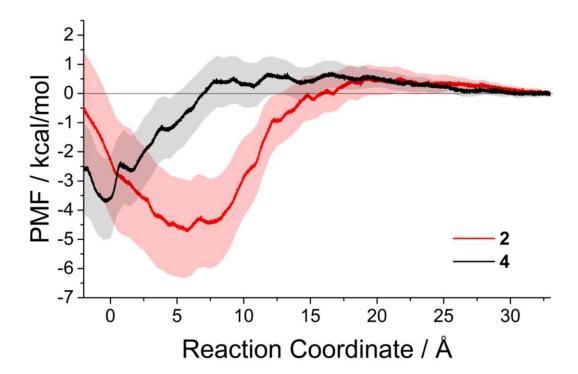


Figure 8. The binding free energy profiles of compounds 2 and 4 interacting with TMD-5. The reaction coordinate was defined as the distance along the z

axis between the center of mass of non-hydrogen atoms of the compound and the carbon atom of the carboxyl group of D150 (see **Figure S2**).

3. Conclusions

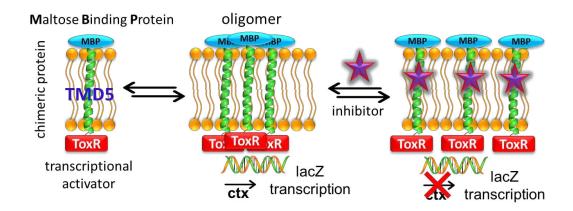
We designed pentamidine analogues to disrupt the oligomerization of TMD-5 by targeting D150. **2** with a linker length of 7 atoms had the best activity whilst switching the amide regiochemistry in the linker influenced membrane permeability and abrogated anti-TMD-5 activity. Further examination of the effects of pentamidine derivatives on the oligomerization and function of full length of LMP-1 of EBV is worthy of investigation. In contrast to traditional drug discovery, targeting the PPIs of TMD is a multi-body problem; the interaction of small molecule with lipid should be considered alongside small molecule interactions with target proteins, and target protein-lipid interactions. The permeability of the small molecule, which may be influenced by the structural orientation of its functional groups, is critical because local lipophilicity is likely to influence conformation, stability, and oligomerization in the transmembrane domain. In all, this study provides proof of concept for the rational design of small molecules targeting transmembrane PPIs.

4. Materials and method

4.1 ToxR assay

ToxR assay was performed and validated as described previously (**Scheme 1**).[20-21] Briefly, ToxR7-TMD-5 plasmid (200 ng) was transformed into 200 μ L FHK12 competent cells with heat shock at 42 °C for 90 s and incubated on ice for 2 minutes, followed by addition of 800 μ L SOC media and incubation with shaking at 37 °C for 1 h. 50 μ L of the transformation mixture was used to inoculate 5 mL LB + arabinose (0.0025%) and chloramphenicol

(30 μg/mL) with different concentrations of testing compound. Five replica Cultures were incubated with shaking at 37 °C for 20 h and β-galactosidase activity was measured using a SYNERGY H1 Micro-plate Reader (BioTek Instruments, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Briefly, 5 μL of culture was transferred to the wells of a Costar 3596 polystyrene 96-well plate (Corning, NY, USA) containing 100 μL Z buffer/chloroform (1% β-mercaptoethanol, 10% chloroform, 89% A buffer: 1 M sodium phosphate, 10 mM KCl, 1 mM MgSO4 and pH 7.0). Cells were lysed by addition of 50 μL Z buffer/SDS (1.6% w/v sodium dodecyl sulfate in Z buffer) and shaking at 28 °C for 10 min. 50 μL Z buffer/ σ -Nitrophenyl- β -galactoside (ONPG, 0.4% w/v in Z buffer) was added and β -galactosidase activity was measured by monitoring the reaction at 405 nm for a period of 20 min at 28 °C. The effect of testing compound on FHK12 E. coli. proliferation was also investigated by measuring the OD at 600 nm (**Table 1**).



Scheme 1. ToxR assay. TMD-5 can self-associate in an *E. coli* Membrane to activate the transcriptional activator ToxR, promoting binding to the *ctx* promoter and initiating *lacZ* transcription. It will further regulate the production of β -galactosidase. A colorimetric readout is obtained by addition of ONPG to lysed cells.

4.2 Peptide synthesis

TMD-5 peptide (KKKK-WQLLAFFLAFFLDLILLIIALYL-KKKK) was synthesized and purified by a CRO company (GL Biochem, Shanghai, China). The identity and purity of these peptide were confirmed by MALDI and HPLC (>98%) (**Figure S8 and S9**). The concentration of TMD-5 was determined by absorbance at 280 nm using the extinction coefficient of 6990 M⁻¹cm⁻¹.

4.3 Biophysical binding titration

The intrinsic Trp fluorescence of TMD-5 was used to investigate the TMD-5 with interaction of pentamidine analogues. Fluorescence measurements were performed on a Cary Eclipse spectrofluorimeter (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA). All measurements were carried out under room temperature in a 2×10 mm quartz cell (Starna Cells, Atascadero, CA, USA). 290 nm was chosen as the excitation wavelength of Trp fluorescence and emission at 310-450 nm was measured. Appropriate controls were subtracted from spectra obtained on the samples. 1 µM TMD-5 in 50 mM HEPES (pH = 7.4) buffer contained 150 μ M C14 betaine (3-(N,N-dimethylmyristylammonio)propanesulfonate) micelle was titrated with different concentrations of testing compound. The fluorescence intensity at 337 nm was plotted against compound concentration. The raw data was fitted by non-linear least square method using the equation:

$$F=0.5\times(2\times F_0-F_{PL}\times(K_D+[L_T]+[P_T]-((K_D+[L_T]+[P_T])^2-4\times[L_T]\times[P_T])^{0.5}))$$

where F, the observed fluorescence; F_0 , initial fluorescence of protein in the absence of ligand; F_{PL} , adjustable parameter for protein-ligand complex molar fluorescence; K_D , dissociation constant; $[L_T]$, total concentration of the ligand; $[P_T]$, total protein concentration.

4.4 Docking

The structure for the TMD-5 was built as described previously.[22] The state of D150 was set to be charged and the compounds were prepared by Maestro.[25] The charge state of compounds were generated at pH = 7.0 ± 2.0 (all compounds are protonated with the charge of ±2). AutoDock Vina 1.1.2[26] was applied with default setting options to dock and score the compounds. The best scored conformations were used for molecular dynamics simulations.

4.5 Molecular simulations

The TMD-5 helix and compound were embedded in а 1,2-dimyristoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DMPC) bilayer and solvated with TIP3P water molecules in a 60×60×120 Å³ box via the CHARMM-GUI membrane builder protocol.[27] 150 mM KCl was added to neutralize the system and mimic the physiological concentration. The protein, lipids, and ions were described by the CHARMM36 force field[28-29] and compounds 1, 2, 3, and 4 were parameterized by the CGenFF program.[30] Considering that the penalties of compound 5 was too high, it was re-parameterized with GAAMP program.[31] All MD simulations were performed by the NAMD2.12 program package.[32]

The models with ~40,000 atoms were simulated under the NPaT ensemble with a pressure of 1 atm at 310.15 K. The Nosé-Hoover Langevin piston method[33-34] was applied for the pressure control and the Langevin thermostat for the temperature coupling. The particle mesh Ewald (PME) algorithm was employed to treat long-range electrostatic interactions.[35] Non-bonded interactions were switched off at 10 ~ 12 Å and periodic boundary conditions were applied in all directions. The timestep was set as 2 fs and each

system was run for 50 ns. Only the last 30 ns were used for hydrogen bond analysis.

The compound permeation simulations were set with the same conditions. To explore the free energy changes when compounds permeate into the lipid bilayer, umbrella sampling simulations were performed. A harmonic biasing potential with a force constant of 10 kcal/(mol·Å) along the perpendicular direction of lipid bilayer was applied on the center of mass (COM) of non-hydrogen atoms of compounds. The sampling windows were spaced every 0.5 Å from -40 to 40 Å resulting in 161 windows. Each window was run for 3 ns as only the last 2 ns was used for analysis. The free energy profiles were rebuilt with the Weighted Histogram Analysis Method (WHAM) and the tolerance was set to 10^{-6} .[36-37] The statistical uncertainties were estimated as described previously.[38]

Free energy profiles of compounds binding to TMD-5 were also calculated by umbrella sampling methods. Same simulation conditions described above for compound permeation simulations were applied. The reaction coordination was defined as the distance along z axis between the COM of non-hydrogen atoms of compound and the carbon atom of carboxyl group of D150 (see **Figure S2**). Each window was run for 11 ns as only the last 10 ns was used for analysis.

4.6 MDCK transport experiment

Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM) and Trypsin–EDTA were purchased from HyClone (Uath, USA). Penicilin, streptomycin and G418 (+10000 Units/mL penicilin, +10000 µg/mL streptomycin) were purchased from Grand Island (NY, USA). Foetal bovine serum (FBS) and Hank's Balanced Salt

Solution (HBSS) were obtained from BI (Biological Industries Israel Beit Haemek LTD., CT, USA). TranswellTM plates of 12 wells (12 mm, pore size 0.4 µm) were purchased from Corning Costar (Cambridge, MA, USA).

4.6.1 Cell culture and evaluate the viability of cells

MDCK cells were cultured in DMEM, supplemented with 10% (v/v) FBS, 1% penicillin-streptomycin solution and 0.5 mL G418 solution (600 μ g/mL) at 37 $^{\circ}$ C in an incubator containing 5% CO₂.

The passage number of the cells was 20-35. Viability of cells was directly measured using MTT assay to evaluate the maximum nontoxic concentration to the cells (**Figure S3**). For the MTT assay, MDCK cells were seeded onto a 96-well culture plate with a density of 4,000 cells/well and incubated at 37 $^{\circ}$ C for 24 h. Then the medium was replaced with 100 μ M pentamidine analogues 2 and 4 with different concentrations, which diluted in DMEM containing 10 % FBS. The control group was treated with the same amount solvent without drugs. Meanwhile, the wells without cells were used as blank control. After 4 h, the medium was replaced with 100 μ L MTT at the concentration of 1 mg/mL to form formazan crystals. And then the MTT solution was removed and the formazan crystals were dissolved into 150 μ L DMSO. The absorbance at 570 nm was showed on a microplate reader (Tecan, Austria). The percentage of cell viability was calculated as follows:

Cell viability % = (model-blank) / (control-blank) ×100 %.

4.6.2 Evaluation of MDCK cell monolayers

The formation of functional epithelial layers was monitored by measuring the transepithelial electrical resistance (TEER) with an epithelial volt-ohm

meter in order to evaluate the integrity of the MDCK cell monolayers before each experiment.[39] Only cell monolayers with a TEER of above 200 Ω/cm^2 were used for the transport assays. The TEER values were also measured after the experiment to check monolayer integrity.

4.6.3 Preparation of Transport Samples

MDCK cells were seeded at the density of 5×10^4 cells/well on Transwell. Culture medium was replaced with fresh medium every two days, and the monolayers were grown for 4-5 days to reach confluence and differentiation after seeding. Before the experiments, the MDCK cell monolayers were washed three times with pre-warmed HBSS medium (pH 7.4), the monolayers were incubated in HBSS for 30 min at the finality. Then the drug solutions were added to either the apical (AP, 0.5 mL) or basolateral side (BL, 1.5 mL). 500 μ L of the sample was collected from the opposite side at 150 mins and then immediately frozen, lyophilized and preserved below -20 $^{\circ}$ C. Before quantitative analysis, the samples were dissolved in 100 μ L water.

The apparent permeability coefficients (Papp) were calculated as:

$$P_{app} = dQ/dt \times (1/C_0A)$$

P_{app}: apparent permeability coefficient (cm/s), dQ/dt: permeability rate of the compound on the receiver.

4.7 Chemistry methods

Common reagents and materials were purchased from commercial sources and used as received without further purification unless otherwise stated. Anhydrous ethanol (EtOH) was refluxed with magnesium powder and distilled under nitrogen before use. Anhydrous methanol (MeOH) and dichloromethane (DCM) was freshly distilled from CaH₂. Anhydrous dioxane

was freshly distilled from anhydrous CaCl $_2$ prior to use. TLC plates were visualized by exposure to ultra violet light (UV). High resolution mass spectrometer (HRMS) data were acquired in positive ion mode using a Thermo Fisher LTQ ORBITRAP XL with an electrospray ionization (ESI) source. Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectra were acquired on a Bruker AV-300 spectrometer (300 MHz 1 H, 75 MHz 13 C). Chemical shifts ($\bar{\delta}$) are expressed in ppm downfield from tetramethylsilane (TMS) using non-deuterated solvent present in the bulk deuterated solvent (CDCl $_3$: 1 H 7.26 ppm, 13 C 77.16 ppm; DMSO-d $_6$: 1 H 2.50 ppm, 13 C 39.52 ppm). Data are represented as follows: chemical shift, multiplicity (s = singlet, d = doublet, t = triplet, m = multiplet, br = broad), coupling constant in Hertz (Hz), and integration. Detailed procedures with synthetic rout were exhibited in **Scheme 2**.

A

2
$$\frac{HN}{H_2N}$$
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Scheme 2. Synthetic route for pentamidine analogs. Reagents and conditions: (a) pyridine, DMF, 150 °C; (b) DCM, Et₃N, ambient temperature; (c) EtOH, HCl (*gas*); (d) EtOH, NH₃ (*gas*), ambient temperature; (e) DMSO, Et₃N, 150 °C; (f) dioxane, MeOH, HCl (*gas*), ambient temperature.

4.7.1 Synthetic and ¹H and ¹³C NMR and HRMS characterization of compound **1**.[40]

N¹,N⁴-bis(4-carbamimidoylphenyl)succinamide (1). To a solution of 4-aminobenzamidine dihydrochloride (2.08 g, 10 mmol) in pyridine (8 mL) and DMF (40 mL) was added succinyl dichloride (0.56 mL, 5 mmol). The resulting mixture was stirred at 150 °C for 2 h, and a large amount of gray solid was generated. Then the reaction mixture was cooled to room temperature and

filtrated. The filter cake was washed with water (20 mL) and acetone (20 mL) and dried under high vacuum for 3 h to give the crude compound 1, which was purified by flash column chromatography to afford **1** (1.70 g, 48%) as a white solid. M.p. 218.3-220.9 °C (lit.[40] >300 °C in a dihydrochloride salt). ¹H NMR (300 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ = 7.71 (d, J = 8.7 Hz, 4H), 7.61 (d, J = 8.7 Hz, 4H), 4.65–2.99 (m, 8H) 2.69 (s, 4H) ppm; ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, DMSO-d₆): δ = 171.1, 171.1, 162.6, 162.6, 141.2, 141.2, 130.2, 130.2, 130.2, 130.2, 127.6, 127.6, 118.5, 118.5, 118.5, 31.6, 31.6 ppm; HRMS (ESI-Orbitrap) m/z: [M + H]+ calcd for C₁₈H₂₁N₆O₂+ 353.1721; found 353.1719.

4.7.2 Synthetic and ¹H and ¹³C NMR and HRMS characterization of compound **2**.[41]

 N^1,N^5 -bis(4-carbamimidoylphenyl)glutaramide (2). Following the procedure described above for the synthesis of compound 1, bisbenzamidine 2 (1.84 g, 50%) was prepared from 4-aminobenzamidine dihydrochloride and glutaryl dichloride. M.p. 213.5-214.6 °C (lit.[41] >300 °C in a dihydrochloride salt). 1H NMR (300 MHz, DMSO-d₆): δ = 7.72 (d, J = 8.6 Hz, 4H), 7.63 (d, J = 8.6 Hz, 4H), 2.41 (t, J = 7.1 Hz, 4H), 1.99–1.84 (m, 2H) ppm; 13 C NMR (75 MHz, DMSO-d₆): δ = 171.5, 171.5, 162.7, 162.7, 141.2, 141.2, 131.1, 131.1, 131.1, 127.2, 127.2, 127.2, 127.2, 118.7, 118.7, 36.0, 36.0, 21.2 ppm; HRMS (ESI-Orbitrap) m/z: [M + H]+ calcd for $C_{19}H_{23}N_6O_2+367.1877$; found 367.1873.

4.7.3 Synthetic and ¹H and ¹³C NMR and HRMS characterization of compound **3**.[41]

N¹,N⁶-bis(4-carbamimidoylphenyl)adipamide (**3**). Following the procedure described above for the synthesis of compound **1**, bisbenzamidine **3** (2.09 g,

55%) was prepared from 4-aminobenzamidine dihydrochloride and adipoyl dichloride. M.p. 211.4-212.9 °C (lit.[41] >300 °C in a dihydrochloride salt). 1 H NMR (300 MHz, DMSO-d₆): δ = 7.71 (d, J = 8.1 Hz, 4H), 7.63 (d, J = 8.1 Hz, 4H), 2.37 (s, 4H), 1.63 (s, 4H) ppm; 13 C NMR (75 MHz, DMSO-d₆): δ = 171.9, 171.9, 162.9, 162.9, 141.5, 141.5, 130.2, 130.2, 130.2, 130.2, 127.8, 127.8, 118.6, 118.6, 118.6, 118.6, 36.7, 36.7, 25.2, 25.2 ppm; HRMS (ESI-Orbitrap) m/z: [M + H]⁺ calcd for C₂₀H₂₅N₆O₂⁺ 381.2034; found 381.2032.

4.7.4 Synthetic and ¹H and ¹³C NMR and HRMS characterization of compound **4**.[42]

N,N'-(propane-1,3-diyl)bis(4-cyanobenzamide) (9). To a solution of propane-1,3-diamine (0.83 mL, 10 mmol) in Et₃N (2.8 mL) and DCM (30 mL) was added dropwise 4-cyanobenzoyl chloride (3.31 g, 20 mmol) in DCM at 0 °C by a constant pressure titration funnel, then warmed to ambient temperature. After stirring for 24 h, the solvent was removed under vacuum and the residue was washed with saturated aqueous NaHCO₃ (30 mL), hydrochloride acid aqueous (30 mL, 1 N) and water (30 mL) to give crude compound 9 (3.20 g). The crude product was recrystallized by (50 - 90)% aqueous DMSO to yield compound 9 (2.96 g, 89%) as a white solid. M.p. 215.2-216.1 °C (lit.[42] 212.5-213.5 °C). ¹H NMR (300 MHz, DMSO-d₆): δ = 8.77 (t, J = 5.4 Hz, 2H), 8.03 – 7.91 (m, 8H), 3.35 (dd, J = 12.7, 6.6 Hz, 4H), 1.81 (p, J = 6.9 Hz, 2H) ppm. ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, DMSO-d₆): δ = 165.3, 165.3, 139.0, 139.0, 132.9, 132.9, 132.9, 132.9, 128.4, 128.4, 128.4, 128.4, 118.8, 118.8, 114.0, 114.0, 37.8, 37.8, 29.3 ppm; HRMS (ESI-Orbitrap) m/z: [M + H]⁺ calcd for C₁₉H₁₇N₄O₂+ 322.1273; found 322.1277.

Diethyl-4,4'-((propane-1,3-diylbis(azanediyl))bis(carbonyl))dibenzimidate (10). To a solution of dry EtOH (50 mL) was bubbled fresh prepared HCl (gas)

for 8 h under ice bath. Then compound **9** (2.0 g, 6.02 mmol) was added to the fresh ethanol solution of HCl (50 mL) and the reaction mixture was slowly warmed to ambient temperature. After vigorously stirred for 4 d, the reaction mixture was cooled in a freezer to form precipitate. The precipitate was filtered and the filter cake was washed with diethyl ether (3×100 mL), dried under high vacuum to yield crude compound **10** (1.76 g), which was instable and used for the next step without further characterization and purification.

N,N'-(propane-1,3-diyl)bis(4-carbamimidoylbenzamide) (**4**). To a solution of dry EtOH (50 mL) was bubbled fresh prepared NH₃ (gas) for 8 h under ice bath. The compound **10** (1.76 g) was added to the saturated ethanolic ammonia solution (50 mL). The reaction mixture was sealed and slowly warmed to ambient temperature and vigorously stirred for 4 d. Then, the mixture was cooled in a freezer to form precipitate, which was filtrated, washed with water (10 mL) and dried under high vacuum to give compound **4** (0.90 g, 41% from compound **10**) as a white solid. M.p. 230.4-231.6 °C (lit.[42] 302.5-304.5 °C in a dihydrochloride salt). ¹H NMR (300 MHz, DMSO-d₆): δ = 8.59 (s, 2H), 7.85 (s, 8H), 6.48 (s, 6H), 3.34 (d, J = 5.2 Hz, 4H), 1.77 (m, 2H) ppm; ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, DMSO-d₆): δ = 166.2, 166.2, 162.3, 162.3, 139.0, 139.0, 137.3, 137.3, 136.9, 136.9, 136.9, 136.9, 136.0, 136.0, 136.0, 136.0, 37.6, 37.6, 29.7, 29.7 ppm. HRMS (ESI-Orbitrap) m/z: [M + H]⁺ calcd for C₁₉H₂₃N₆O₂+ 367.1877; found 367.1875.

4.7.5 Synthetic and ¹H and ¹³C NMR and HRMS characterization of compound **5**.[43]

4,4'-(pentane-1,5-diylbis(azanediyl))dibenzonitrile (11).[44] To a solution of 4-fluorobenzonitrile (11 g, 90 mmol) in Et₃N (14 mL) and DMSO (60 mL) was added pentane-1, 5-diamine (2.3 g, 23 mmol). The reaction mixture was stirred

at 150 °C for 3 h. Then the reaction mixture was poured into ice-water mixture (400 mL) and a large amount of pale-yellow solid was generated. The solid was filtered and recrystallized with DMSO / H_2O (8:1) to yield a pale yellow solid (5.3 g, 75%). M.p. 141.1-142.7 °C. ¹H NMR (300 MHz, DMSO-d₆): δ = 7.42 (d, J = 8.7 Hz, 4H), 6.68 (t, J = 5.1 Hz, 2H), 6.60 (d, J = 8.8 Hz, 4H), 3.04 (dd, J = 12.2, 6.4 Hz, 4H), 1.56 (dt, J = 13.7, 7.0 Hz, 4H), 1.42 (dd, J = 14.3, 7.8 Hz, 2H) ppm. ^{13}C NMR (75 MHz, DMSO-d₆): δ = 152.7, 152.7, 133.8, 133.8, 133.8, 121.2, 121.2, 112.1, 112.1, 112.1, 112.1, 95.7, 95.7, 42.5, 42.5, 28.6, 28.6, 24.6 ppm. HRMS (ESI-Orbitrap) m/z: [M + H]+ calcd for $C_{19}H_{21}N_4$ + 304.3970; found 304.3975.

Dimethyl-4,4'-(pentane-1,5-diylbis(azanediyl))dibenzimidatedihydrochlorid e (12). To a solution of dry dioxane (50 mL) and dry MeOH (20 mL) was bubbled fresh prepared HCl (gas) for 8 h at ice bath. Then compound 11 (5.3 g) was added to the prepared solution (50 mL) and slowly warmed to ambient temperature and stirred for 1 h, then another portion of mixed solution (20 mL) was added to reaction. After stirring for 2 d, a large amount of precipitate was generated. The reaction mixture was filtered and the filter cake was washed with diethyl ether (100 mL), dried under reduced pressure to achieve crude compound 12 (4.7 g), which was instable and used for the next step without further characterization and purification.

4,4'-(pentane-1,5-diylbis(azanediyl))dibenzimidamide (**5**). To a solution of dry EtOH (30 mL) was bubbled fresh prepared NH₃ (gas) for 8 h at -20 °C. Then compound **12** (1.0 g) was added to the saturated ethanolic ammonia solution (30 mL). The reaction mixture was sealed and slowly warmed to ambient temperature. After vigorously stirred for 3 d, a large amount of white solid was generated. The reaction mixture was filtered and the filter cake was dispersed to a solution of NaOH aqueous (30 mL, 1 M). After stirring for 40 min,

the solid was filtered and the filter cake was washed with water (10 mL) and then dried under high vacuum to yield compound **5** (0.63 g, 23% from compound **11**) as a white solid. M.p. 161.6-163.2 °C (lit.[45] 215 °C in a tetrahydrochloride salt). ¹H NMR (300 MHz, DMSO-d₆): δ = 7.52 (d, J = 8.4 Hz, 4H), 6.51 (d, J = 8.5 Hz, 4H), 6.20 (s, br, 4H), 5.98 (m, 2H), 3.03 (m, 4H), 1.57 (m, 4H), 1.45 (m, 2H) ppm; ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, DMSO-d₆): δ = 163.0, 163.0, 150.9, 150.9, 128.1, 128.1, 128.1, 128.1, 122.9, 122.9, 111.1, 111.1, 111.1, 111.1, 43.0, 43.0, 28.9, 28.9, 24.8 ppm; HRMS (ESI-Orbitrap) m/z: [M + H]⁺ calcd for C₁₉H₂₇N₆⁺ 339.2292; found 339.2294.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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