



Mechanism-based Molecular Design of Chemicals with Low Carcinogenicity Potential

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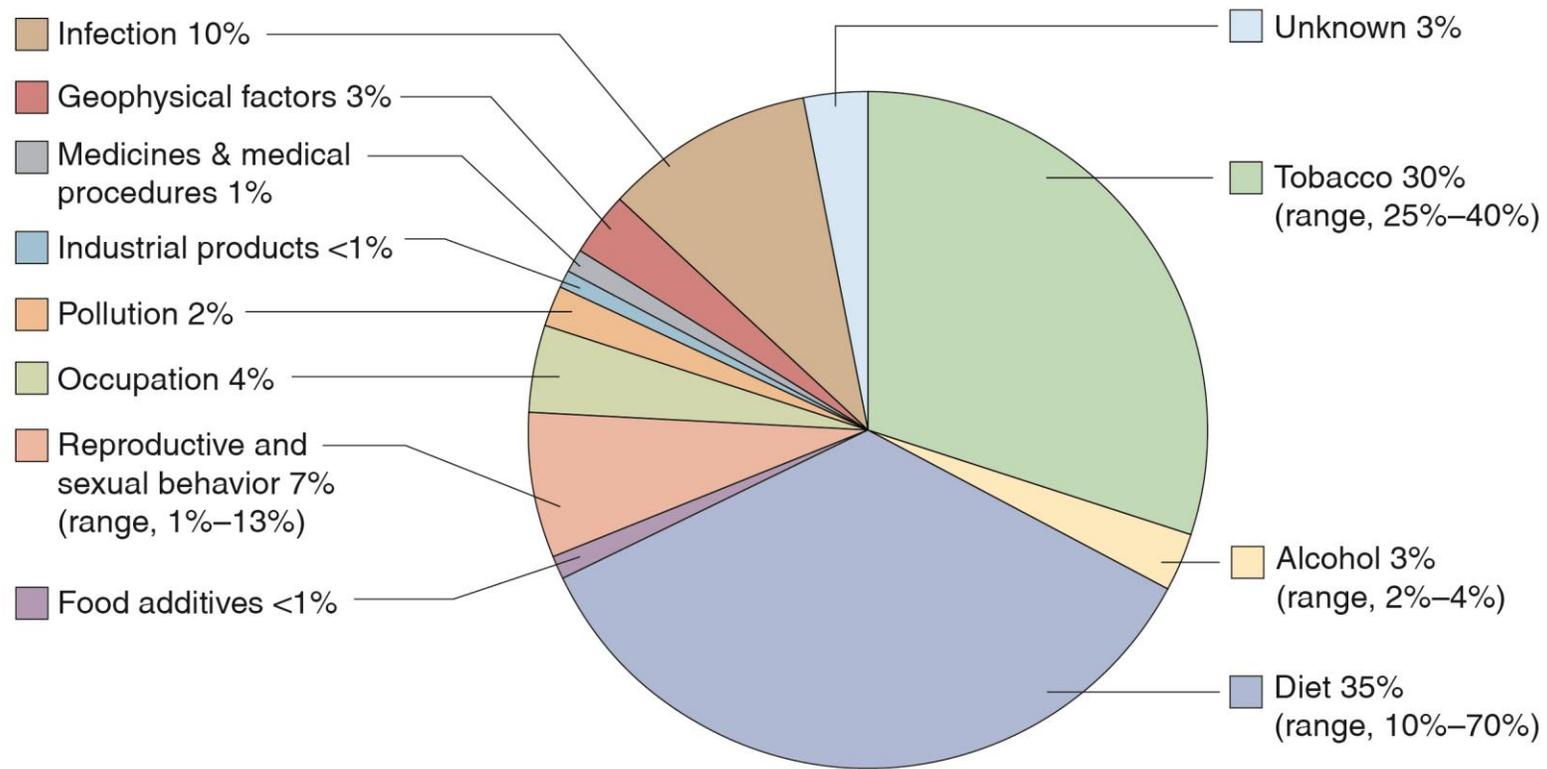


Figure 8-1. Proportions of human cancer deaths attributed to various factors. (Reproduced with permission from [no authors listed] Harvard reports on cancer prevention: causes of human cancer. Center for Cancer Prevention Harvard School of Public Health. *Cancer Causes and Control*. 1996;7 (Suppl 1):S3–S4, 1996.)



Table 8-32

Known Human Carcinogens: International Agency for Research on Cancer

Acetaldehyde	Estrogen–progestogen therapy	Painter (workplace exposure)
Acid mists, strong inorganic	Estrogen–progestogen oral contraceptives (combined)	3,4,5,3',4'-Pentachlorobiphenyl (PCB-126)
Aflatoxins	Ethanol in alcoholic beverages	2,3,4,7,8-Pentachlorodibenzofuran
Alcoholic beverages	Ethylene oxide	Phenacetin (and mixtures containing it)
Aluminum production	Etoposide	Phosphorus-32, as phosphate
4-Aminobiphenyl	Etoposide in combination with cisplatin and bleomycin	Plutonium
Areca nut	Fission products, including strontium-90	Radioiodines, including iodine-131
Aristolochic acid	Formaldehyde	Radionuclides, α -particle-emitting
Arsenic and inorganic arsenic compounds	Haematite mining	Radionuclides, β -particle-emitting,
Asbestos (all forms)	<i>Helicobacter pylori</i>	Radium-224 and its decay products
Auramine production	Hepatitis B virus	Radium-226 and its decay products
Azathioprine	Hepatitis C virus	Radium-228 and its decay products
Benzene	Human immunodeficiency virus type 1	Radon-222 and its decay products
Benzidine and dyes metabolized to benzidine	Human papilloma virus (HPV)	Rubber manufacturing industry
Benzo[<i>a</i>]pyrene	Human T-cell lymphotropic virus type I	Salted fish (Chinese-style)
Beryllium and beryllium compounds	Ionizing radiation	Schistosoma haematobium (flatworm)
Betel quid, with or without tobacco	Iron and steel founding	Semustine (methyl-CCNU)
Bis(chloromethyl)ether and chloromethyl methyl ether	Isopropyl alcohol	Shale oils
Busulfan	Kaposi sarcoma herpesvirus	Silica dust, crystalline (cristobalite)
1,3-Butadiene	Leather dust	Solar radiation
Cadmium and cadmium compounds	Magenta production	Soot (exposure of chimney sweeps)
Chlorambucil	Melphalan	Sulfur mustard
Chlornaphazine	Methoxsalen (8-methoxypsoralen) plus ultraviolet A radiation	Tamoxifen
Chromium (VI) compounds	4,4'-Methylenebis(chloroaniline) (MOCA)	2,3,7,8-Tetrachlorodibenzo-para-dioxin
Clonorchis sinensis (infection with)	Mineral oils, untreated or mildly treated	Thiotepa
Coal, household combustion	MOPP	Thorium-232 and its decay products
Coal gasification	2-Naphthylamine	Tobacco, smokeless
Coal tar distillation	Neutron radiation	Tobacco smoke, secondhand
Coal tar pitch	Nickel compounds	Tobacco smoking
Coke production	<i>N</i> '-Nitrosornicotine (NNN) and 4-(<i>N</i> -Nitrosomethylamino)-1-(3-pyridyl)-1-butanone (NNK)	ortho-Toluidine
Cyclophosphamide	Opisthorchis viverrini (liver fluke)	Treosulfan
Cyclosporine		Ultraviolet (UV) including UVA, UVB, and UVC
Diethylstilbestrol		Ultraviolet-emitting tanning devices
Epstein–Barr virus (infection with)		Vinyl chloride
Erionite		Wood dust
Estrogen postmenopausal therapy		X- and γ -radiation



EPA - New Chemicals Program

- Toxic Substances Control Act (TSCA) requires a manufacturer (including importer) of a new chemical substance to submit a “premanufacture notice” (PMN) to EPA 90 days before the date of intended start of production or import of the subject substance.
- During that 90-day review period, EPA assesses whether the manufacture, processing, distribution in commerce, use or disposal of the substance presents or may present an unreasonable risk to human health or the environment.
- Information required as part of a PMN: chemical identity, use, anticipated production volume, byproducts, exposure & release information, disposal practices, existing available health & environmental effects test data which are very limited.



Mechanism-based SAR Analysis

- Physical and chemical Properties
- Metabolism and Mechanisms of Action
- Carcinogenicity and SAR



5.3.1 Acyl and Benzoyl Halide Type Compounds.....	
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5.3.5 Aldehyde Type Compounds	
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5.3.7 Alkanesulfonyl Ester Type Compounds	
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5.3.14 Carbamate Type Compounds	
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5.3.26 Halogenated Linear Aliphatic Type Compounds	
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5.3.42 Reactive Sulfone Reactive Functional Groups	
5.3.43 Sulfur Mustard Reactive Functional Groups.....	
5.3.44 Sultone Reactive Functional Groups.....	
5.3.45 Thiocarbamate Type Compounds	
5.3.46 Thiocarbonyl Type Compounds.....	
5.3.47 Triazene Type Compounds	



Mechanisms of Chemical Carcinogenesis

- Genotoxic (direct-acting/active metabolites)
Interaction with DNA to cause mutation(s) in genes
- Non-genotoxic
Receptor-mediated, oxidative stress, etc.

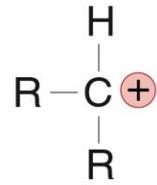


Table 1. Electrophilic species of some chemical carcinogens.

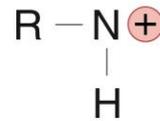
Electrophilic species	Structures	Examples of carcinogens
Alkylcarbonium ions	$R-CH_2^+$	Diethylnitrosamine; dimethylsulfate; 1,2-dimethylhydrazine
Arylcarbonium ions		Benzidine; 1-(4-methoxyphenyl)-1,3-dimethyltriazene
Allylic carbonium ions	$R-\overset{1/2\oplus}{C}H \text{ --- } CH \text{ --- } \overset{1/2\oplus}{C}H_2$	Allyl methanesulfonate; lasiocarpine; safrole
Benzylic carbonium ions		Benzyl chloride; 7,12-dimethylbenz(a)anthracene
Formaldehyde	$\overset{\oplus}{C}H_2-O^-$	Formaldehyde; hexamethylphosphoramide
A,β-Unsaturated carbonyls or carboxylates	$\text{---}C^{\oplus}=C-O^-$	Acrylates; arecoline; cyclophosphamide; diallate; ptaquiloside
Acylation moieties	$R-C^{\oplus}(=O)$	Benzoyl chloride; dimethylcarbonyl chloride
Carbon-centered free radicals or radical cations	$R\cdot$ $Ar-\dot{C}H_2$ $\cdot Ar-CH_3$	Carbon tetrachloride; 7,12-dimethylbenz(a)anthracene
Carbene	$:C<$	Carbon tetrachloride; safrole
Aziridinium ions		Aziridine; cyclophosphamide; nitrogen mustard
Iminium ions	$>N^+=CH_2$	Hexamethylmelamine; bis-(morpholino)-methane; hycanthone
Arylnitrenium ions	$Ar-N^+(R)$	2-Acetylamino fluorene; benzidine; N,N-dimethyl-4-aminoazobenzene
Nitrogen-centered free radicals or radical cations	$Ar-\dot{N}H$ $Ar-\dot{N}H_2^{\oplus}$	Benzidine; 2-naphthylamine
Epoxides		Afatoxic B ₁ ; capsaicin. Ethylene oxide; vinyl chloride
Oxonium ions (α-haloethers)	$-\overset{\oplus}{O}=CH_2 \longleftrightarrow -O-CH_2^{\oplus}$	Bis(chloromethyl)ether
Peroxy free radicals	$-ROO\cdot$	Di-t-butyl peroxide
Episulfonium ions		1,2-dichloroethane; sulfur mustard
Sulfonium ions (α halothioesters)	$-\overset{\oplus}{S}=CH_2 \longleftrightarrow -S-CH_2^{\oplus}$	Dichloromethane



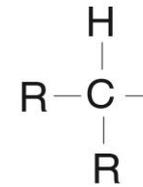
1. Carbonium ions



2. Nitrenium ions



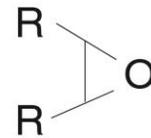
3. Free radicals



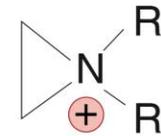
4. Diazonium ions



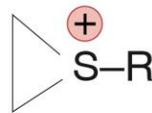
5. Epoxides



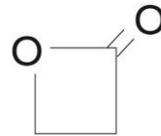
6. Aziridinium ions



7. Episulfonium ions



8. Strained lactones



9. Sulfonates



10. Halo ethers



11. Enals

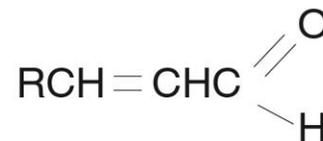


Figure 8-3. Structures of reactive electrophiles.

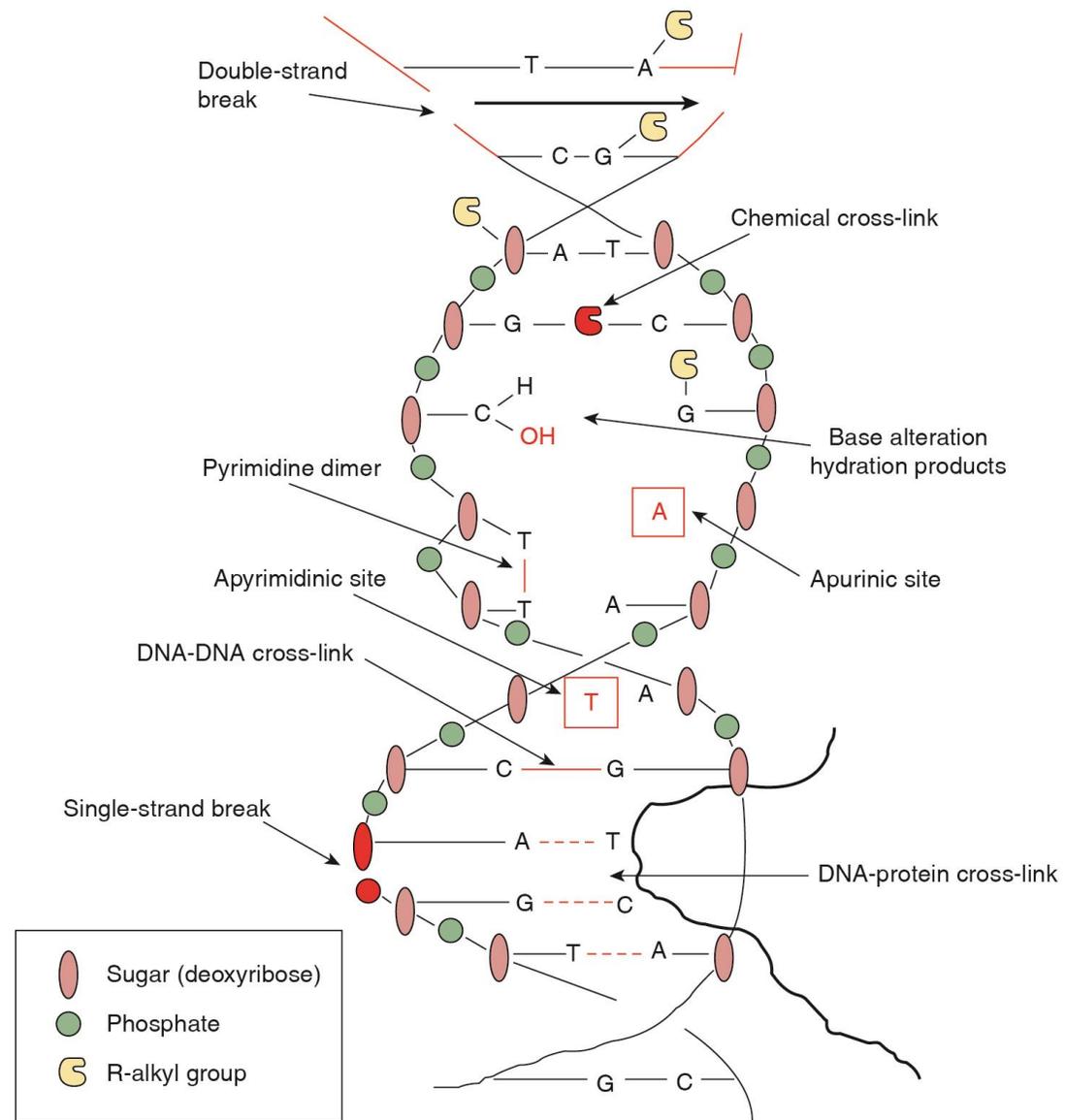


Figure 8-8. Schematic representation of chemical and radiation-induced lesions in DNA.



Critical Factors for Consideration

I. Nature of electrophiles:

- Reactivity
- Resonance stabilization of electrophilic metabolites
- Molecular flexibility
- Polyfunctionality and spacing/distance between reactive groups



Critical Factors for Consideration (cont.)

II. Environment Surrounding Electrophiles:

- Physicochemical Factors
 - Molecular weight
 - Physical state, size and shape
 - Solubility

- Nature and position of substituents
 - Steric hindrance
 - Enhancement of activation
 - Blocking of detoxification



Resonance stabilization of Reactive Intermediates

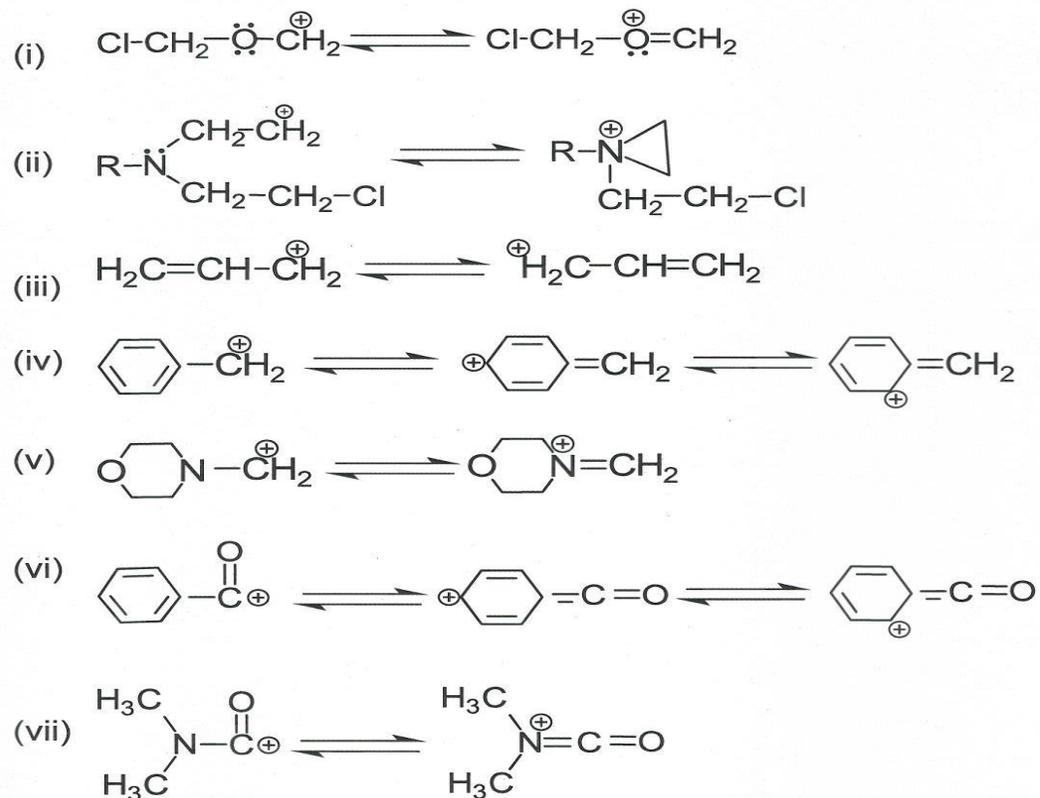


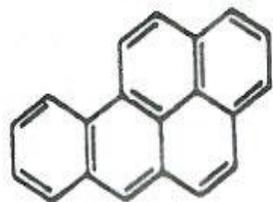
Figure 1. Resonance stabilization of reactive intermediate from (i) bis-(chloromethyl)ether, (ii) aliphatic nitrogen mustard, (iii) allyl chloride, (iv) benzyl chloride, (v) bis-(morpholino)methane, (vi) benzoyl chloride, and (vii) dimethylcarbonyl chloride.

TABLE 2. Molecular Parameters That Can Affect the Carcinogenicity of Chemicals

Carcinogenic

Noncarcinogenic

(a) Molecular size and shape

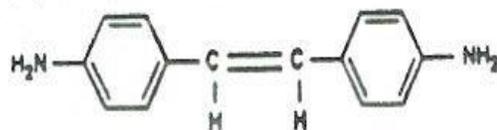


Benzo[a]pyrene

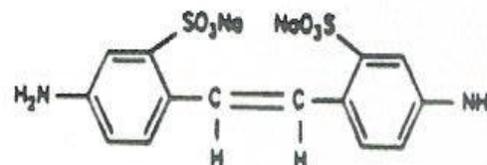


Pentacene

(b) Substituent effect

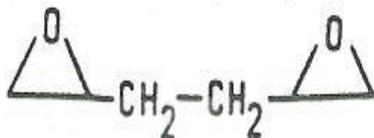


4,4'-Diaminostilbene

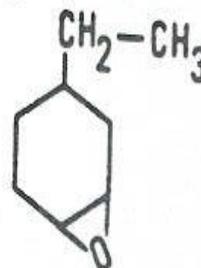


4,4'-Diamino-2,2'-stilbene-disulfonic acid, disodium salt

(c) Molecular flexibility and polyfunctionality of reactive groups



Diepoxyhexane



3,4-Epoxyethylcyclohexane



Molecular Design of Chemicals of Low Carcinogenic Potential – General Approaches

Approaches	Rationale
1. Introduce bulky groups to increase the molecular size (<i>e.g.</i> , m.w. >1,000) or hydrophilic groups (<i>e.g.</i> , sulfonyl, carboxyl)	To reduce “bioavailability”, <i>i.e.</i> , its ability to be absorbed, bioactivated and to reach target tissues and cells, and render it more polar so it cannot easily penetrate the lipid membrane of cells
2. Introduce substituent(s) adjacent to the electrophilic group	To exert electronic or steric effects on the bioactivation and reactivity/stability of ultimate electrophilic metabolites
3. For alkylating agents, substituting the alkyl group with group (s) higher than butyl	To decrease the alkylating potential
4. Positioning of all electrophilic functional groups in the middle of the molecule with none at any terminal position	To reduce molecular flexibility and accessibility of the electrophilic functional group(s) to interact with cellular nucleophiles such as DNA
5. For compounds which require metabolic activation, avoid structural features (<i>e.g.</i> , conjugated double bonds, conjugated system/aryl moiety)	Not to provide resonance stabilization of electrophilic metabolites to give the reactive intermediates a longer life time to remain reactive during transport from the site of activation to target macromolecules

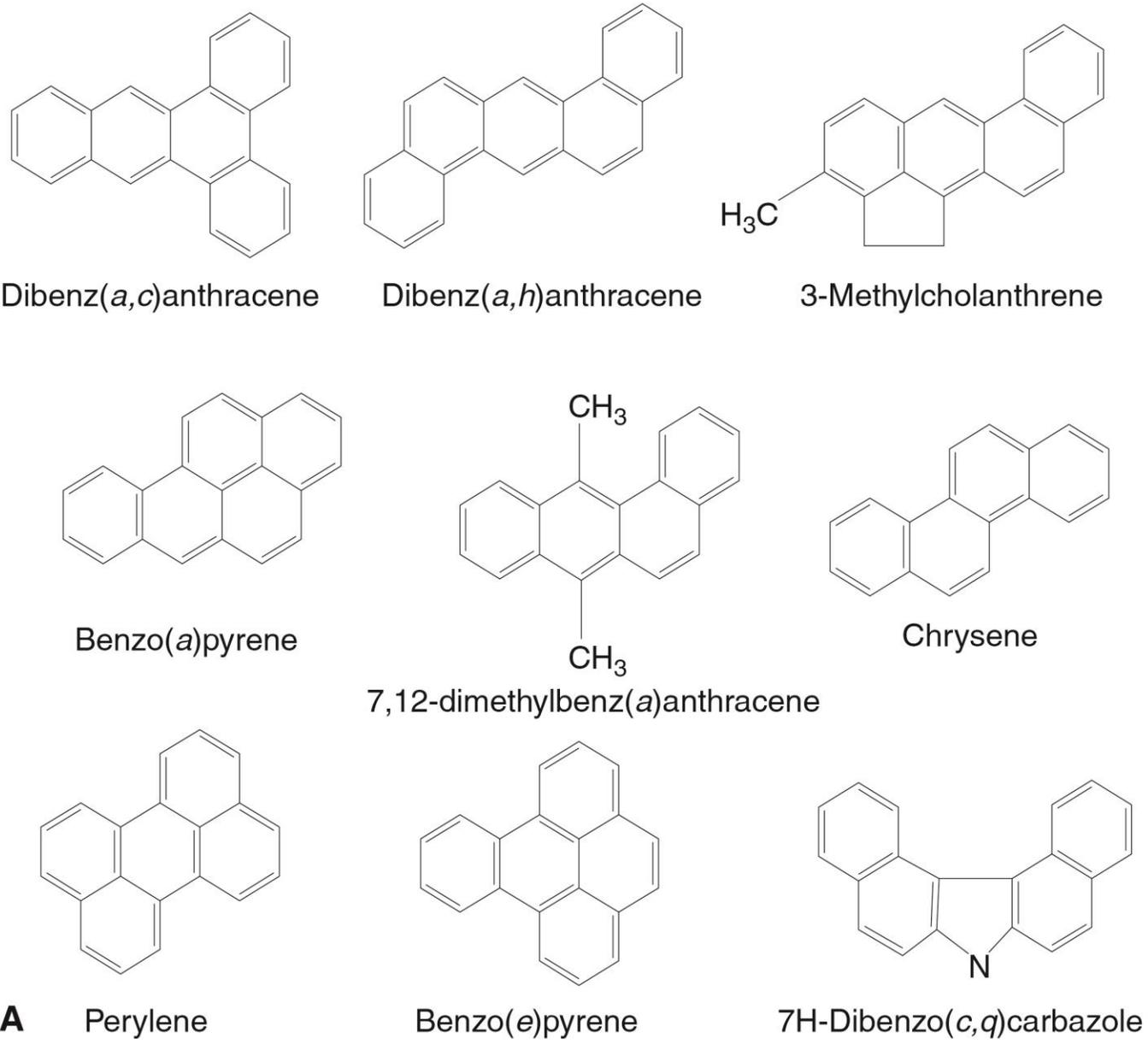


Figure 8-10. (A), Chemical structures of selected carcinogenic polycyclic hydrocarbons. (B), Role of epoxide hydrolase in the inactivation of benzo[*a*]pyrene 4,5-oxide and in the conversion of benzo[*a*]pyrene to its tumorigenic Bay region diolepoxide.

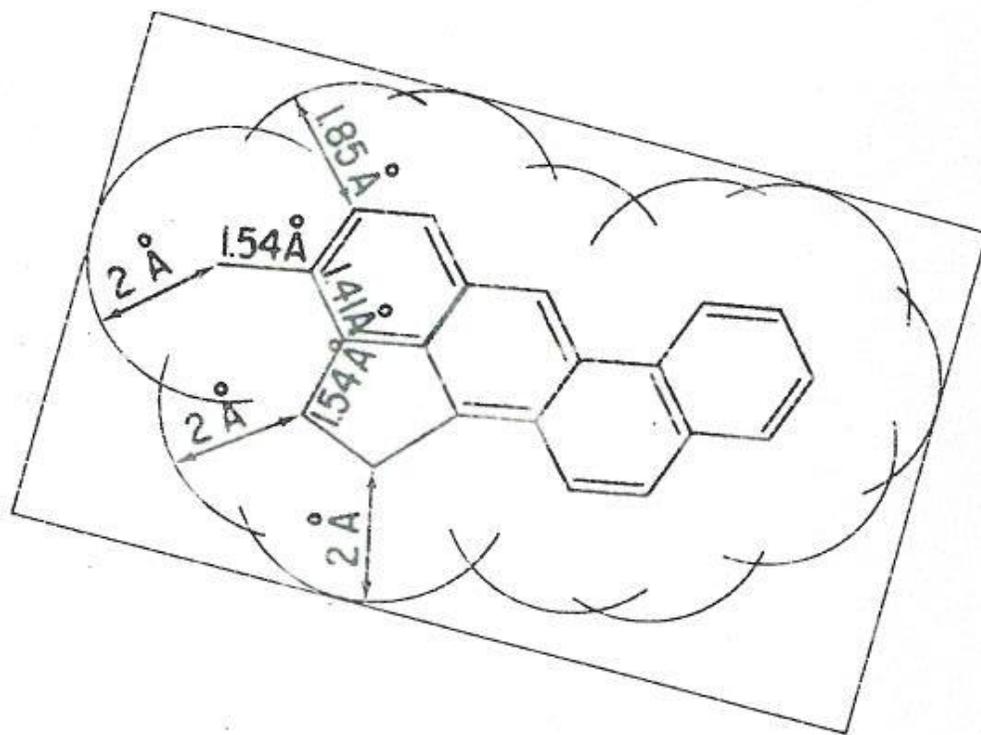


Fig. 34. Incumbrance area parallelogram of 20-methylcholanthrene. The values used for drawing the structure proportionally to molecular dimensions are shown.

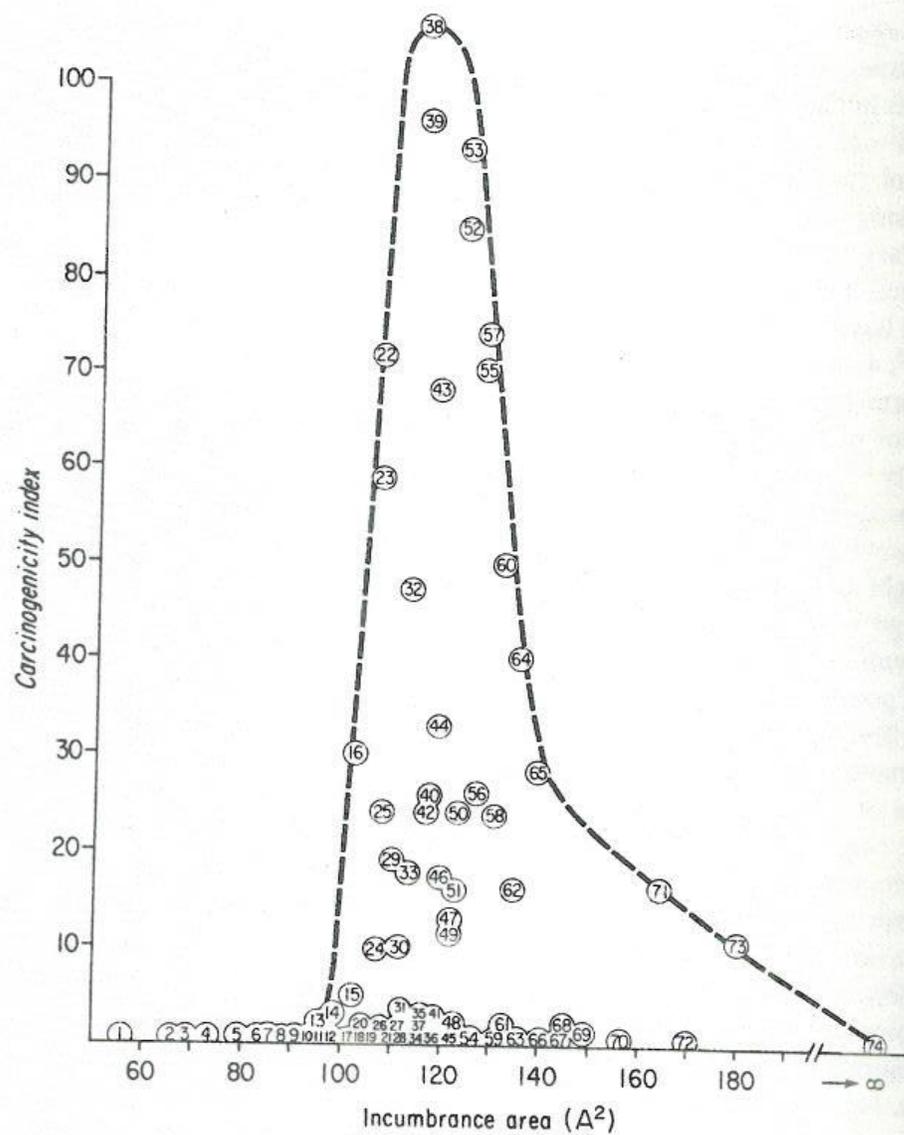


Fig. 39. The critical molecular size-range of condensed polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons for carcinogenic activity. When available, the average of the sarcoma and epithelioma (+ papil-

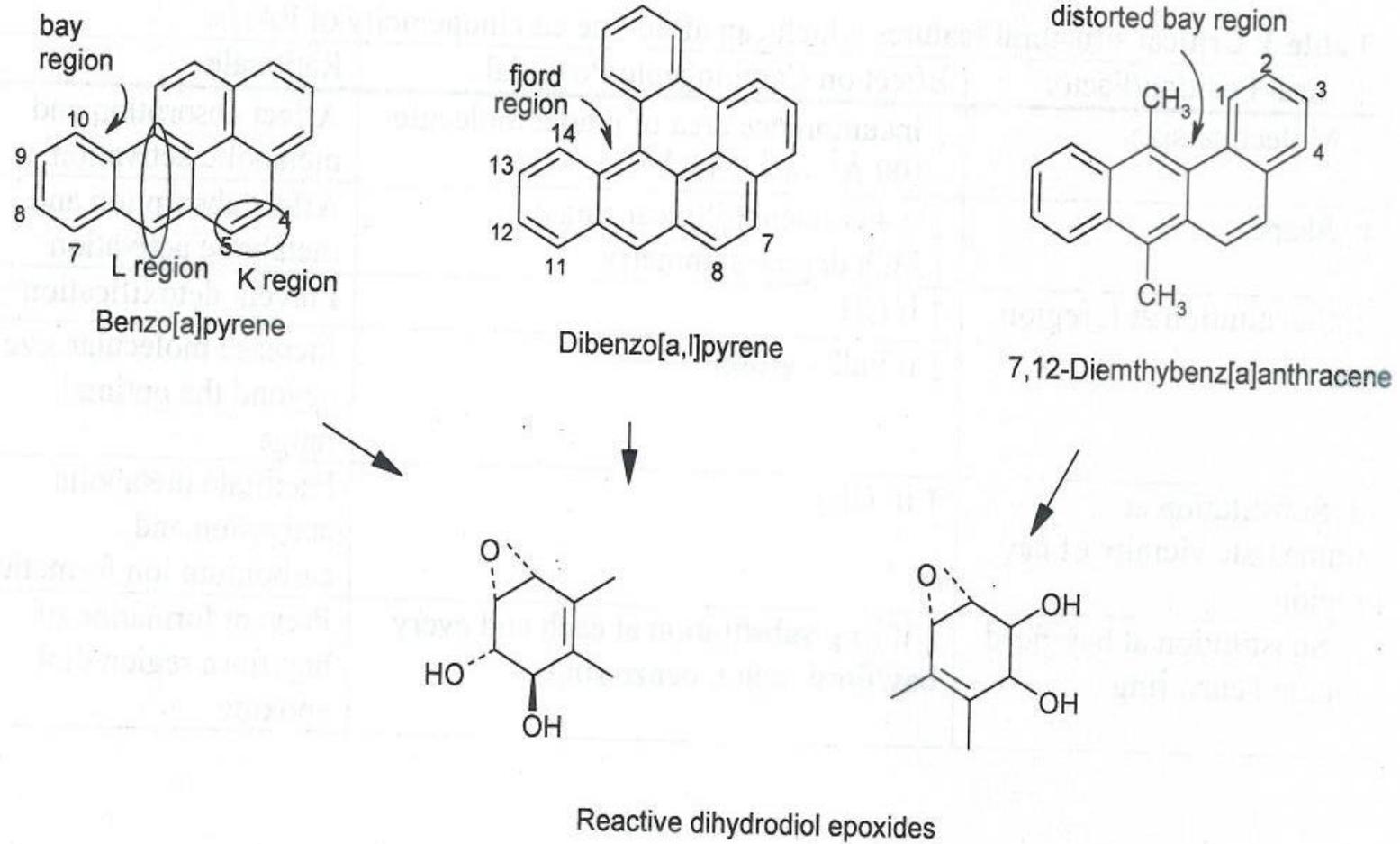


Figure 3. Potent PAH carcinogens with a bay/fjord region.



Critical Structural Features which can Affect the Carcinogenicity of PAHs

Critical Position/Factor	Effect on Carcinogenic Potential	Rationale
a. Molecular size	↓ incumbrance area of planar molecule $<100 \text{ \AA}^2$ or $> 150 \text{ \AA}^2$	Affect absorption and metabolic activation.
b. Shape	↓ > 4 condensed linear rings; ↓ high degree symmetry	Affect absorption and metabolic activation
c. Substitution at bay/fjord region benzo ring	↓ if ring substitution at each and every bay/fjord region benzo ring	Prevent formation of bay/fjord region diol epoxide
d. Substitution at L region	↑ if CH_3	Prevent detoxification
	↓ if bulky group	Increase molecular size beyond the optimal range

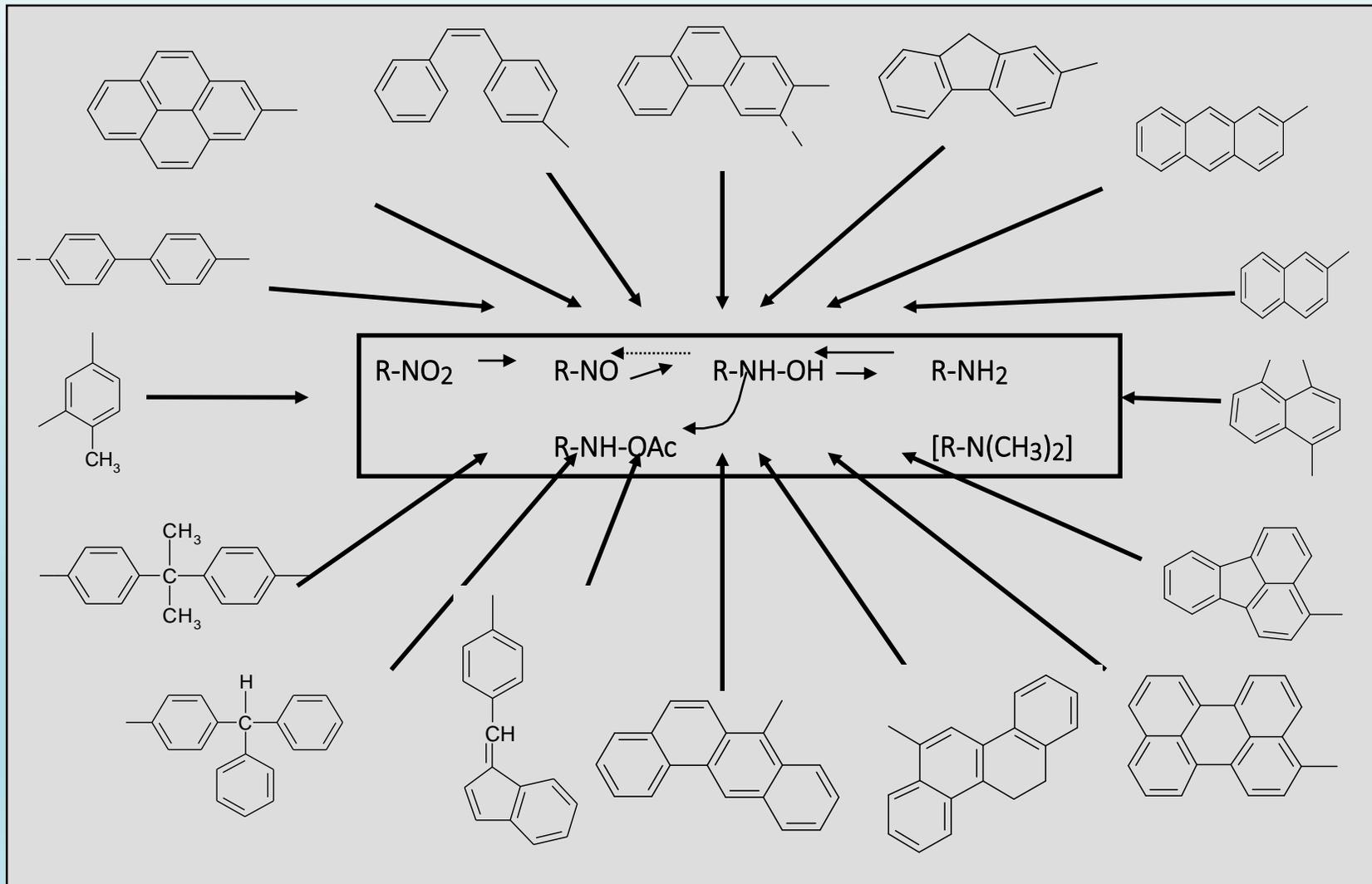


Molecular Design of Chemicals of Low Carcinogenic Potential - PAHs

Approaches	Rationale
1. Modify (a) the size of the incumbrance area of planar molecule to $<100 \text{ \AA}^2$ or $> 150 \text{ \AA}^2$, and (b) the shape to contain > 4 condensed linear rings.	Make the chemical less favorable for absorption, enzyme activation and DNA interaction.
2. Avoid compounds with a bay/fjord region. If a bay/fjord region is absolutely needed, add substituent(s) at each and every bay/fjord region benzo ring(s).	Since metabolic activation to bay/fjord ring diol epoxide is the key pathway for the carcinogenesis of PAHs.
3. Avoid methyl group or other small substituents at L-region	As substitutions at L-region will prevent detoxification

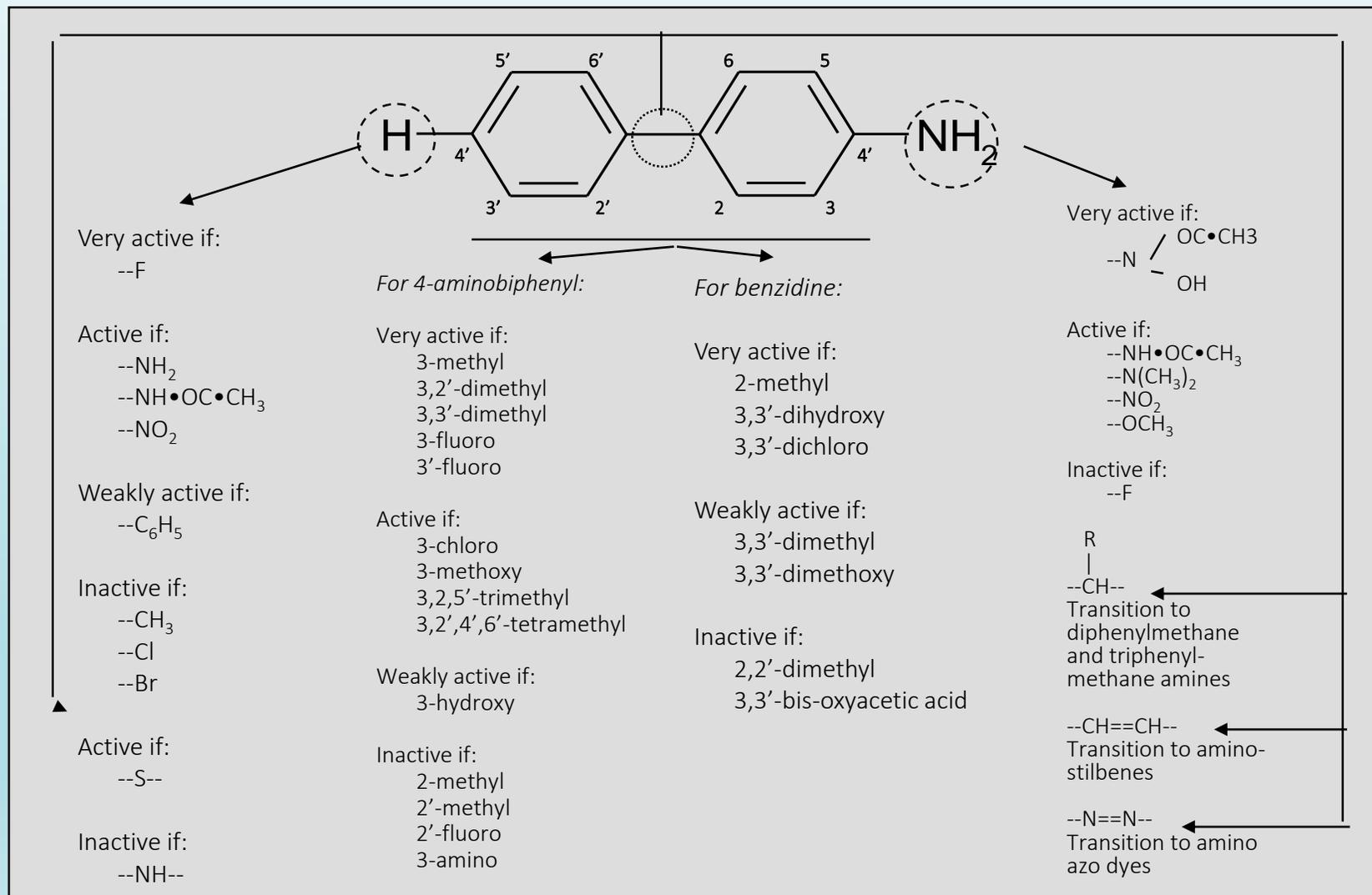


Some Hydrocarbon Moieties Present in Carcinogenic Aromatic Amines





Synoptic Tabulation of Structural Requirements for Carcinogenic Activity of 4-Aminobiphenyl and Benzidine Derivatives





Factors Affecting Carcinogenicity of Aromatic Amines

- Number of aromatic ring(s)
- Molecular size, shape, planarity
- Number and position of amino or amine-generating groups(s) - position of amino group relative to longest resonance pathway - type of substituents on amino group
- Nature, number, position of other ring substituent(s) - steric hindrance - hydrophilicity
- Nature of aromatic ring(s) - homocyclic vs. heterocyclic - nature and position of heteroatoms

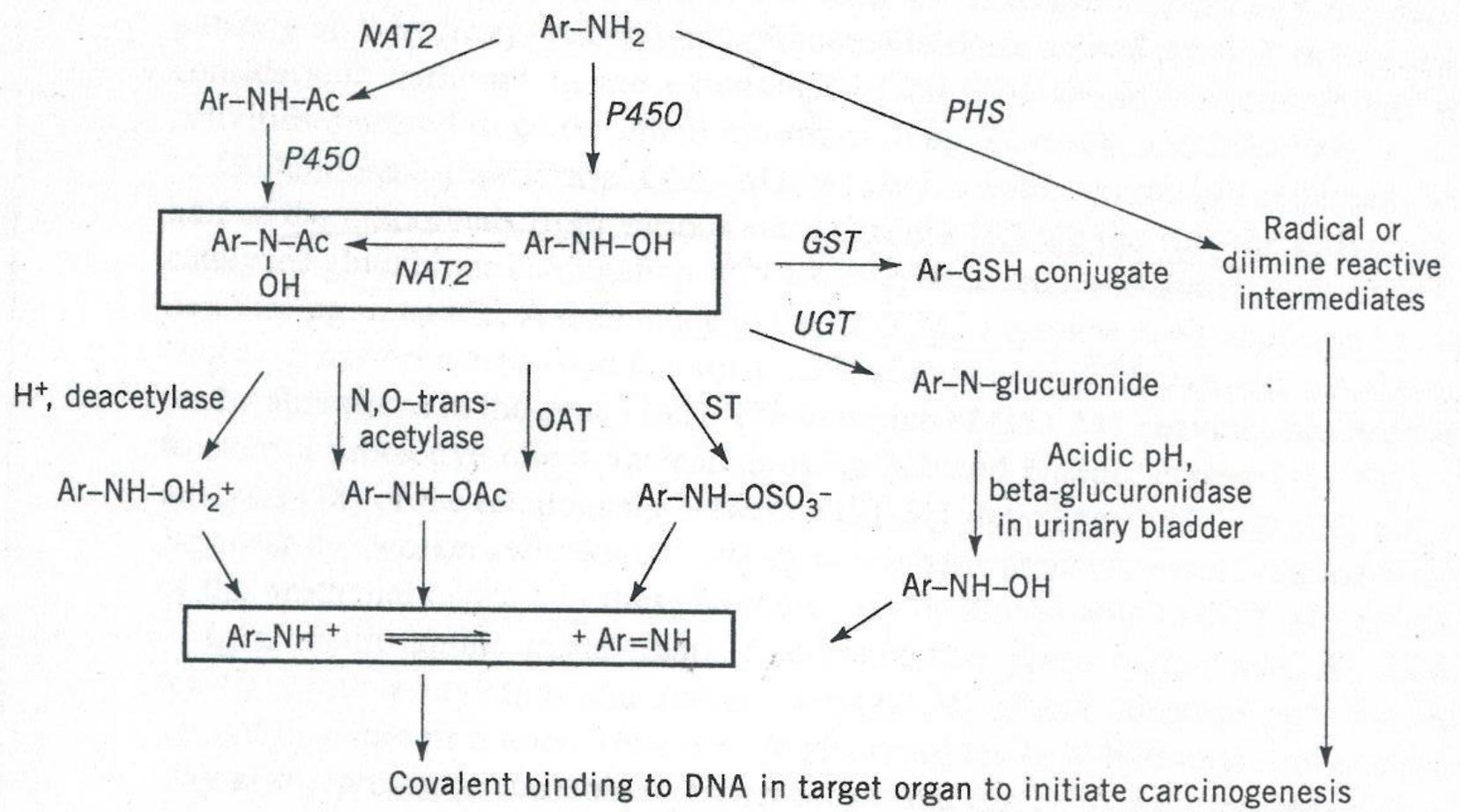
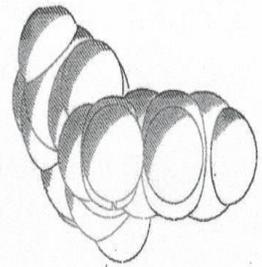
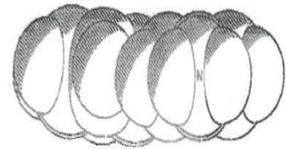
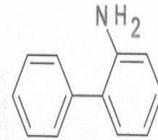


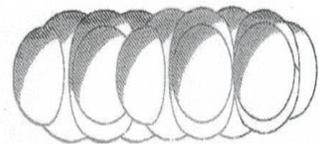
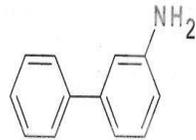
Figure 58.1. Metabolic pathways of typical aromatic amines. (abbreviations used: GST = glutathione *S*-transferase; Nat2 = *N*-acetyltransferase-2; OAT = *O*- Acetyltransferase; P450 = Cytochrome P450; PHS = prostaglandin H synthetase; ST = sulfotransferase; UGT = UDP glucuronyl transferase).



2-AMINOBIPHENYL



3-AMINOBIPHENYL



4-AMINOBIPHENYL

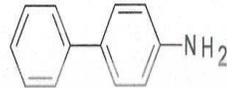
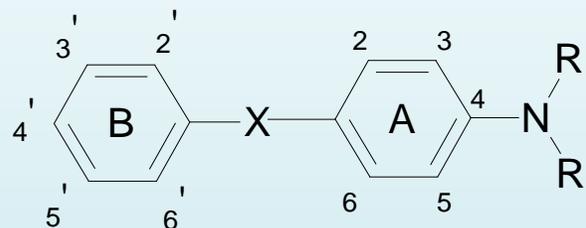


Fig. 4. Space-filled models of the isomeric forms of aminobiphenyl. Models were drawn using the PLUTO computer program and utilizing the following van der Waals radii to generate the computer graphical plots: molecular geometry, carbon 1.6 Å, hydrogen 1.2 Å and nitrogen 1.5 Å.



Critical Structural Features which can Affect the Carcinogenicity of Aromatic Amines.





Molecular Design of Chemicals of Low Carcinogenic Potential – Aromatic Amines

Approaches	Rationale
1. Introduce bulky N-substituent(s) to the amine/amine-generating group(s)	Make the dye a poor substrate for the bioactivation enzymes
2. Introduce bulky substituent(s) <i>ortho</i> to the amine/amine-generating group(s)	Provide steric hindrance to inhibit bioactivation
3. Introduce bulky groups <i>ortho</i> to the intercylic linkages to distort the planarity of the molecule	Make it less accessible to the bioactivation enzymes
4. Alter the position of the amine/amine-generating group(s) in the aromatic ring(s)	To distort the planarity of the compound and reduce the force of conjugation and thus the resonance stability of the electrophilic nitrenium ion.
5. Replace electron-conducting intercylic linkages by electron-insulating intercylic linkages	To disrupt the conjugation path and thus reduce the force of conjugation which facilitate the departure of the electrophilic ion

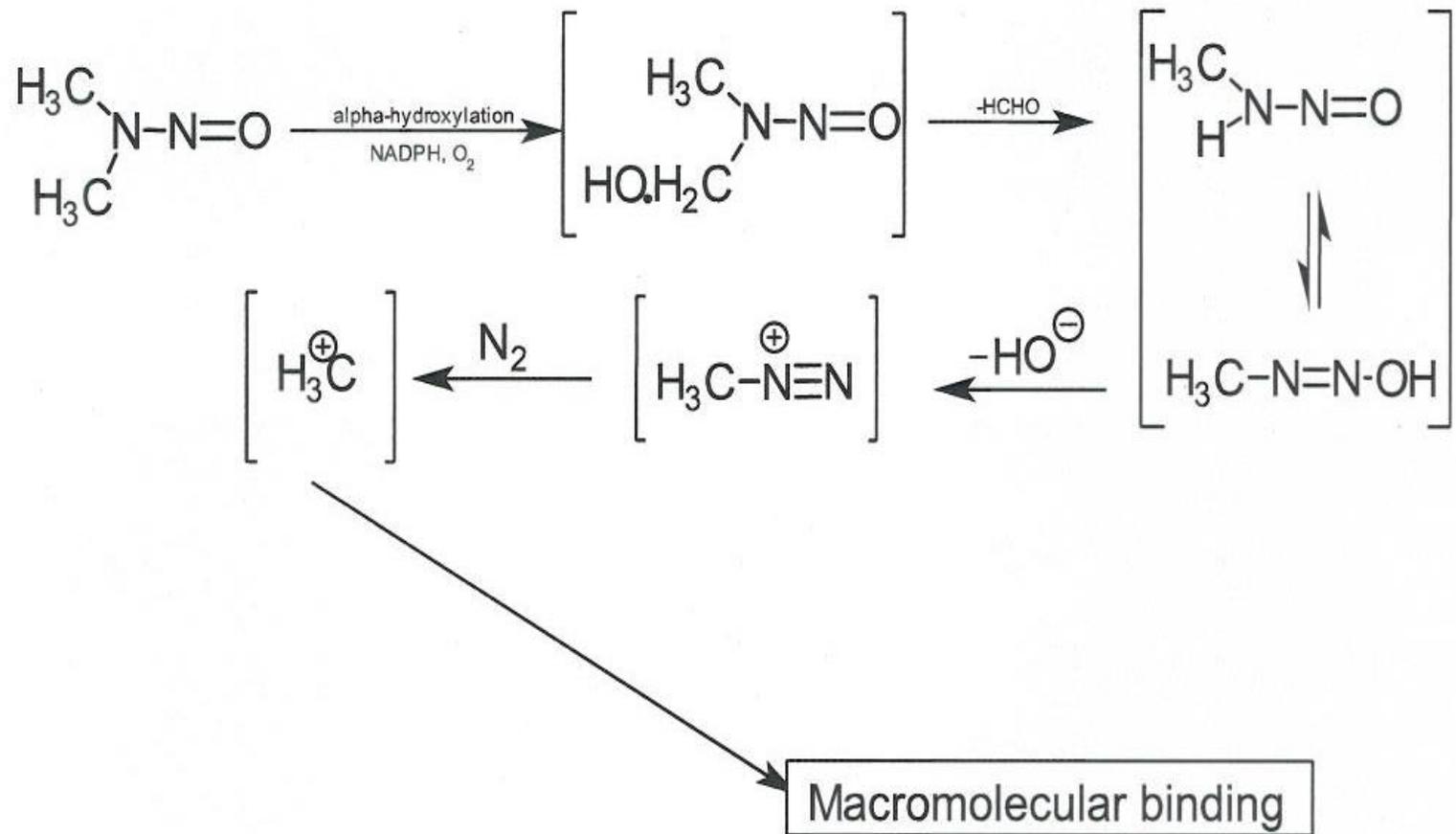
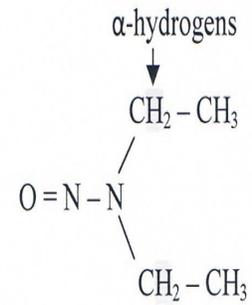
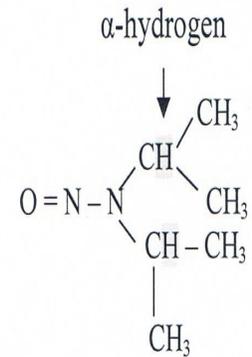


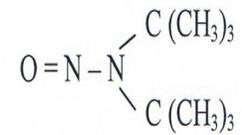
Figure 4. Bioactivation of N-Nitrosamines.



Diethylnitrosamine (DEN) : potent carcinogen



Di-*sec*-propylnitrosamine : weak carcinogen



Di-*tert*-butylnitrosamine : non-carcinogen.

Critical Structural Features which can Affect the Carcinogenicity of N-Nitrosamines

Critical Position/Factor	Effect on Carcinogenic Potential	Rationale
a. Substitution at the α -carbon	↓ if acidic group, fluoro group, bulky group(s)	Steric/electronic hindrance of metabolic activation
b. Substitution in the vicinity of the α -carbon	↓ if branching of alkyl groups/bulky substituents, or total number of C>15	Steric/electronic hindrance of metabolic activation



Molecular Design of Chemicals of Low Carcinogenic Potential – Nitrosamines

Approaches	Rationale
1. Not to include α -carbon in the molecule	No α -hydroxylation and bioactivation
2. Substitution in the vicinity of the α -carbon with branched alkyl group(s) or bulky substituent(s)	Will hinder metabolic activation and reduce or abolish the carcinogenicity
3. Substitution at the α -carbon with acidic group(s), fluoro group(s), or bulky group(s)	Substituents known to reduce/eliminate carcinogenicity potential
4. Introduce large alkyl groups with a total of more than 15 carbons	Carcinogenicity decreases with the increase of carbon atoms



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