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Identification of an *in vivo* orally active dual-binding protein-protein interaction inhibitor targeting TNF α through combined *in silico/in vitro/in vivo* screening

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TNF α is a homotrimeric pro-inflammatory cytokine, whose direct targeting by protein biotherapies has been an undeniable success for the treatment of chronic inflammatory diseases. Despite many efforts, no orally active drug targeting TNF α has been identified so far. In the present work, we identified through combined *in silico/in vitro/in vivo* approaches a TNF α direct inhibitor, compound 1, displaying nanomolar and micromolar range bindings to TNF α . Compound 1 inhibits the binding of TNF α with both its receptors TNFRI and TNFRII. Compound 1 inhibits the TNF α induced apoptosis on L929 cells and the TNF α induced NF- κ B activation in HEK cells. *In vivo*, oral administration of compound 1 displays a significant protection in a murine TNF α -dependent hepatic shock model. This work illustrates the ability of low-cost combined *in silico/in vitro/in vivo* screening approaches to identify orally available small-molecules targeting challenging protein-protein interactions such as homotrimeric TNF α .

Protein-protein interactions (PPI) represent a large class of therapeutic targets that play a crucial role in biological processes. Despite their importance, they were considered intractable due to their large and flat topology compared to classical small molecule binding sites¹. Considerable progress was achieved in the last decade since 27 PPIs have now been tackled by small molecules^{2,3} including organometallic compounds⁴⁻⁶ and dendrimers⁷. PPIs are still considered to be a very challenging class of targets for therapeutic applications^{8,9}. Historically, PPI inhibitors are larger and more hydrophobic than “drug-like” orally available compounds¹⁰. Despite their “excessive” logP or molecular weight, some PPI inhibitors such as navitoclax¹¹ (molecular weight 975 g.mol⁻¹) or venetoclax¹² (molecular weight 868 g.mol⁻¹) are orally available. Among the different strategies devised to inhibit PPIs, directed allosteric modulation could provide a potential way forward for the most difficult targets¹³.

Tumor Necrosis Factor alpha (TNF α) is a homotrimeric cytokine of the immune system whose overproduction has been associated with several chronic inflammatory diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis, Crohn’s disease or psoriasis¹⁴. Clinically approved inhibitors of TNF α include monoclonal antibodies (infliximab, adalimumab) and soluble receptors of TNF α (etanercept). These biotherapies display several drawbacks including opportunistic infections¹⁵ and treatment resistance due to autoimmune reactions¹⁶ that could be addressed by small molecule modulators.

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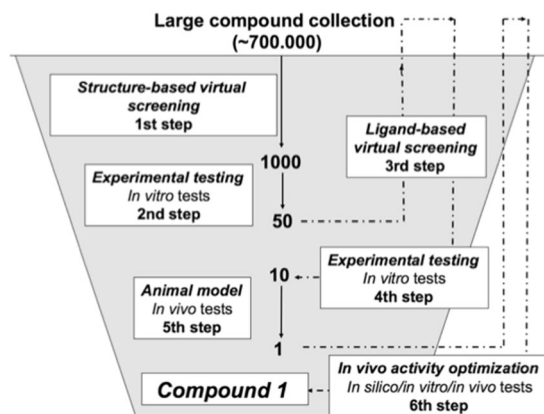


Figure 1. Flowchart of the screening protocol used in the study. *1st step.* A collection of 700,000 drug-like commercially available compounds was screened *in silico*. Molecular docking was performed using Surflex-dock version 2.5. After visual inspection, a 1000 compound hit list was selected for experimental testing. *2nd step:* The inhibitory activity of the compounds composing the hit list was evaluated *in vitro* on human TNF α induced apoptosis on the L929 cell line. Top hit compounds displayed an IC₅₀ between 1 and 100 μ M. *3rd step:* 2D/3D similarity search methods were used to identify analogues of the top hits identified after step 2. Up to 100 analogues were found per top hit with a Tanimoto similarity score >0.6. *4th step:* As in step 2, their inhibitory activity was evaluated *in vitro* on human TNF α induced apoptosis on the L929 cell line. The 10 best compounds after these 4 steps were selected as candidates for *in vivo* evaluation on a murine model. *5th step:* The *in vivo* evaluation of the candidates was performed in the TNF α -dependent hepatic shock model triggered with LPS/D-Galactosamine via force-feeding. After this step, 1 *in vivo* active compound was selected. *6th Step:* Using 2D/3D similarity search methods, we searched in our large compound collection for new analogues of this best compound identified after step 5. Up to 500 analogues were identified and purchased from the chemical supplier. As in step 2, their inhibitory activity was evaluated *in vitro* on human and murine TNF α . The 9 best compounds were evaluated *in vivo* in our murine hepatic shock assay by force-feeding as described in step 5. The best compound identified after the 6th step is compound 1.

Identified in 2005, SPD304 constitutes a reference allosteric modulator of TNF α that inhibits its activity by disrupting TNF α homotrimeric form¹⁷. SPD304 cannot be used *in vivo* due to his high toxicity¹⁸. Despite many efforts^{5, 18–27} no orally available TNF α inhibitor has been identified so far.

In the present work, in order to identify allosteric modulators of TNF α , we targeted the binding site of SPD304 with a large compound collection through the use of *in silico*, *in vitro* and *in vivo* screening. We report the structure and properties of our best confirmed hit, compound 1, a high affinity small molecule inhibitor of TNF α that inhibits the activity of TNF α *in vitro* and is orally active *in vivo* in a reference TNF α -dependent murine model^{27–29}. This work illustrates the ability of current virtual screening methods to identify high affinity orally available compounds targeting challenging PPIs such as TNF α .

Results and Discussion

In order to identify allosteric modulators of TNF α , we carried out a hierarchical *in silico* and *in vitro* screening of the top 0.2% scoring compounds of a collection of 700,000 commercially available compounds by targeting the binding pocket of SPD304 in TNF α identified by He *et al.*¹⁷ (Supplementary Fig. S1). This hierarchical protocol, described in Fig. 1a, led to the identification of compound 1, whose structure is depicted in Fig. 2a, and whose analytics are presented in Supplementary Fig. S2a–d.

Dissociation constants and Ligand efficiency of compound 1 with TNF α . Dissociation constants of the TNF α /SPD304 and TNF α /compound 1 complexes were determined from gravimetric measurements using a Surface Acoustic Wave (SAW) biosensor^{30–32}. On the TNF α /SPD304 complex, the phase shift variations ($\Delta\Phi$) suggested a “one-site binding” with a corresponding K_d constant of $9.1 \pm 1.1 \mu$ M which is consistent with the K_d values obtained by Papanephytou *et al.* in the literature using a fluorescence binding assay ($K_d = 5.4 \pm 0.2 \mu$ M)³³. On the TNF α /compound 1 complex, the phase shift variations ($\Delta\Phi$) suggested a “two-site binding” (Fig. 2b). The corresponding equilibrium dissociation constants K_d were respectively in the micromolar range ($4.79 \pm 1.12 \mu$ M) and in the nanomolar range (2.31 ± 1.03 nM) at room temperature. The corresponding ligand efficiencies of compound 1 ($LE_1 = 0.22$ and $LE_2 = 0.37$) are in the range of most of the protein-protein interaction inhibitors⁹.

Modification of the intrinsic tryptophan fluorescence profile of TNF α by compound 1. The intrinsic tryptophan fluorescence (ITF) of TNF α is modified by adding compound 1 in a dose dependent manner at the 20–100 μ M range (Fig. 2c). The modification of the ITF profile by compound 1 is different to the one obtained with SPD304¹⁷ which is consistent with a mid micromolar affinity binding of compound 1 in an additional binding pocket at the surface of the homotrimer close to tryptophan residues.

Predicted binding modes of compound 1 on TNF α . The top-scoring binding mode of compound 1 predicted using Surflex-dock³⁴ is illustrated in Fig. 3a. As expected from the highly hydrophobic surface of

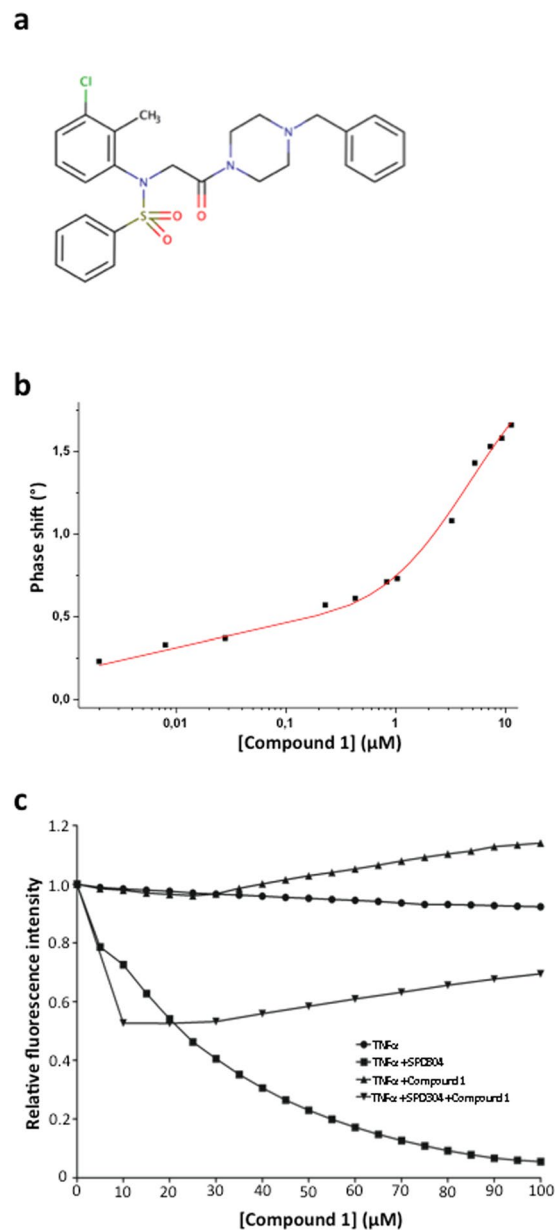


Figure 2. (a) Structure of compound 1. (b) Dissociation constants of TNF α /Compound 1. Determination of dissociation constants of TNF α /compound 1 complex, from gravimetric biosensor response, by using a “two-site binding” model. $K_{d1} = 4.79 \pm 1.12 \mu\text{M}$ and $K_{d2} = 2.31 \pm 1.03 \text{ nM}$. (c) Intrinsic Tryptophan Fluorescence. Intrinsic Tryptophan Fluorescence of $0.5 \mu\text{M}$ TNF α diluted in Phosphate Buffered Saline in the presence of DMSO alone, SPD304 (5–100 μM) in DMSO, compound 1 (5–100 μM) in DMSO or SPD304 (25 μM) + compound 1 (10–100 μM) in DMSO.

the binding pocket of SPD304^{17,23}, compound 1 displays numerous hydrophobic interactions with TNF α , its benzyl-piperazine moiety being deeply inserted in the primary binding pocket of SPD304 surrounded by Y232, Y264, Y179, L239 and L177. The phenyl-sulfonamide moiety of compound 1 displays additional hydrophobic interactions with an extension of the SPD304 binding pocket surrounded by L129, L43, L270, I268 and I127. This binding mode of compound 1, compared to the binding mode of SPD304, would not only hinder the positioning of the side chain of Y119 of the disrupted TNF α monomer¹⁷ but also the side chains of L57, L157 and V123 of the disrupted TNF α monomer.

To illustrate the alternate binding mode of compound 1 on TNF α , we explored the whole surface of the structure of human trimeric TNF α (PDB ID: 1TNF) to identify an additional binding pocket at the surface of the homotrimer that contains tryptophan residues (Fig. 3b). After a careful visual inspection, a pocket has been identified at the junction of the three TNF α subunits that is conserved in the homodimeric structure cocrystallized with SPD304 (PDB ID: 2AZ5). This secondary pocket illustrated in Fig. 3c could be the one we suspected after gravimetric studies (dual binding) and intrinsic tryptophan fluorescence measurements (alternate modification

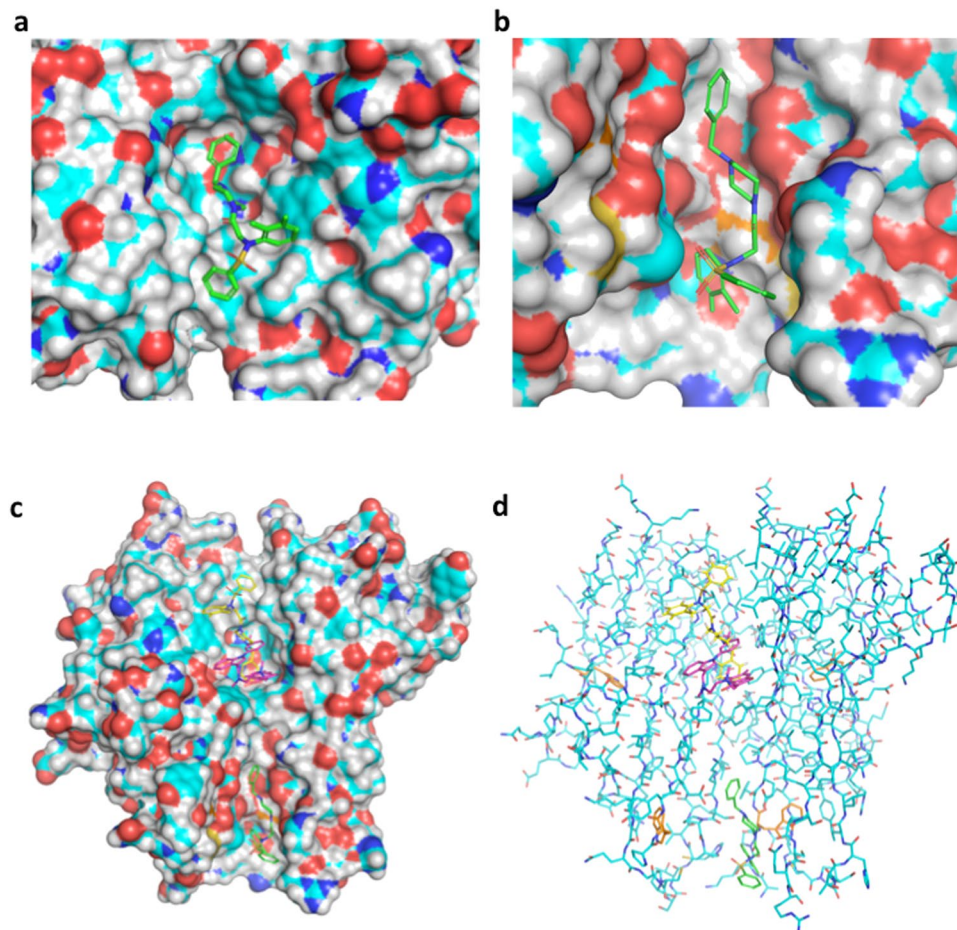


Figure 3. (a) Illustration of the top scoring binding mode of compound 1 with Surflex-dock in the TNF α binding site defined for the study (PDBID:2AZ5). (b) Alternate binding mode of compound 1 (green) predicted using Surflex-dock on the surface of TNF α dimer. Tryptophan residues are displayed in orange. (c) Secondary pocket on the structure of human dimeric TNF α . (d) Dual binding of compound 1 (yellow and green) predicted with Surflex-dock on the surface of the TNF α dimer co-crystallized with SPD304 displayed in purple (PDB ID: 2AZ5). Tryptophan residues are displayed in orange.

of the ITF profile) since it is the only one on the surface of TNF α that contains tryptophan residues (it contains one tryptophan residues per TNF α monomer). The top scoring binding mode of compound 1 on this new binding pocket on the surface of the TNF α dimer predicted using Surflex-dock is illustrated in Fig. 3d.

Activity of compound 1 on TNF α -TNFR1 and TNF α -TNFR2 interactions. We evaluated the inhibitory activity of compound 1 on the binding of TNF α to its receptors TNFR1 and TNFR2 using an ELISA assay. Compound 1 displayed IC₅₀ of 37 μ M on TNF α /TNFR1 and 31 μ M on TNF α /TNFR2 (Fig. 4a). These values are comparable to the IC₅₀ of 22 μ M obtained with SPD304 on TNF α /TNFR1¹⁷.

Activity of compound 1 on TNF α functional cellular models. Compound 1 inhibited the induction of apoptosis by TNF α in the L929 cell line with an IC₅₀ of 12 μ M (Fig. 4b and Supplementary Movie). In the same assay, SPD304 displayed a high cellular toxicity (no cells survived with more than 30 μ M of SPD304). The cellular activity of compound 1 was confirmed on the TNF α signaling pathway, by using a HEK cell line expressing TNFR1 and transfected with a reporter gene under the control of five NF- κ B binding sites, where compound 1 displayed an IC₅₀ of 10 μ M (Fig. 4c). On the same assay, SPD304 displayed a high cellular toxicity (no cells survived with more than 10 μ M of SPD304). Since TNF α and TNF β share 30% sequence identity, the activity of compound 1 on TNF β in the L929 cell line was also evaluated. Compound 1 inhibited the induction of apoptosis by TNF β with an IC₅₀ of 28 μ M and a maximal survival of 40% at 100 μ M (Supplementary Fig. S3).

Activity of compound 1 on CXCL1 expression, caspases and protein kinases related to the TNF α pathway. Compound 1 was tested for its ability to inhibit the production of CXCL1 on L929 cells since is triggered by TNF α . The supernatants from treated L929 cells with TNF α and compound 1 contained significantly less CXCL1 than the supernatants from untreated L929 cells as depicted in Fig. 4d. Compound 1 inhibited the secretion of CXCL1 at a similar level to the anti-TNF α antibody. We evaluated the ability of compound 1 to inhibit the activation of caspase 3 and caspase 8, widely used as readouts for TNF α signaling. Compound

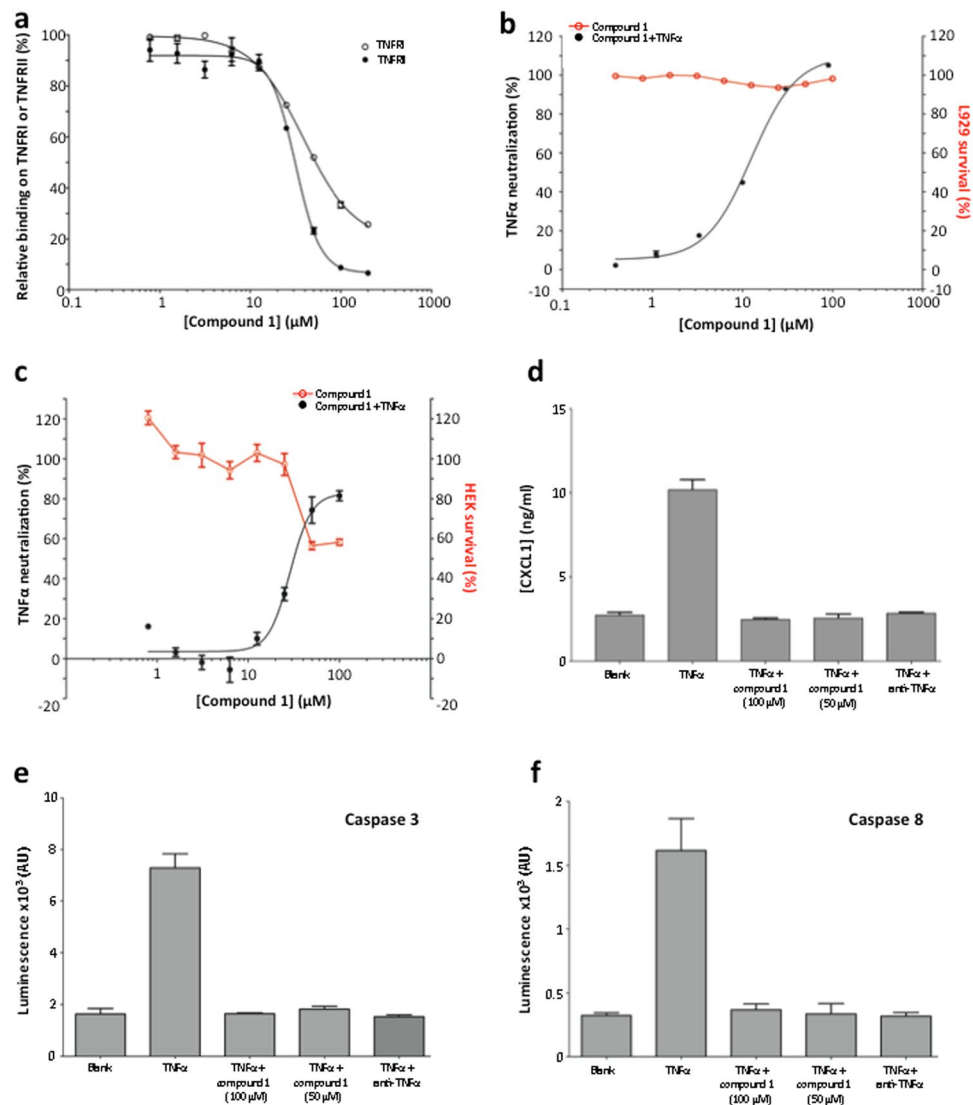


Figure 4. (a) Relative binding on TNFRI and TNFRII. Compound 1 inhibits the interaction between TNF α and its receptors TNFRI and TNFRII in a dose dependent manner. TNFRI IC₅₀ = 37 μ M, TNFRII IC₅₀ = 31 μ M. (b) Neutralization of TNF α and survival of L929 cells. Compound 1 inhibition of TNF α induced apoptosis in L929 cell line. Data represent neutralization of TNF α in presence of various concentrations of compound 1. IC₅₀ = 12 μ M (c) Neutralization of TNF α and survival of HEK cells. Compound 1 inhibition of the TNF α signaling pathway on HEK cells transfected with a reporter gene under the control of NF- κ B. Data represent the neutralization of TNF α in the presence of different concentrations of compound 1. IC₅₀ = 10 μ M. (d) Inhibition of CXCL1 secretion in L929 supernatants in presence of various concentrations of compound 1 after stimulation with TNF α (5 ng/ml). (e) Inhibition of caspase 3 activity in presence of compound 1. (f) Inhibition of caspase 8 activity in presence of compound 1.

1 blocked the activation of caspase 3 and caspase 8 (Fig. 4e,f), in a dose dependent manner. Compound 1 was tested for direct inhibition of caspases and kinases activities related to the TNF α pathway (κ B kinases (IKK), JNK1, p38 and Syk, caspase 3, caspase 8). Compound 1 displayed no significant effect on these proteins at 1 μ M (Supplementary Fig. S4).

Activity of compound 1 on murine TNF α . Compound 1 inhibited both human and murine TNF α with similar IC₅₀s on the TNF α -induced apoptosis assay on L929 cells (~10 μ M).

In vivo activity of compound 1. The *in vivo* activity of compound 1 was evaluated in a TNF α dependent murine model, the LPS/D-Galactosamine induced shock assay²⁹. As shown in Fig. 5a, compound 1 exhibited a fully protective effect with an oral administration of 5 mg of compound 1 per mouse eight hours before the induction of the shock ($p < 4.10^{-3}$). The oral administration of 5 mg of compound 1 did not affect the mice serum level of TNF α induced after the shock (Fig. 5b) but diminished the mice serum level of AST/ALT which transcribes the damage induced to hepatocytes (Fig. 5c,d). We conducted hispathological and immunohistochemical analyses on

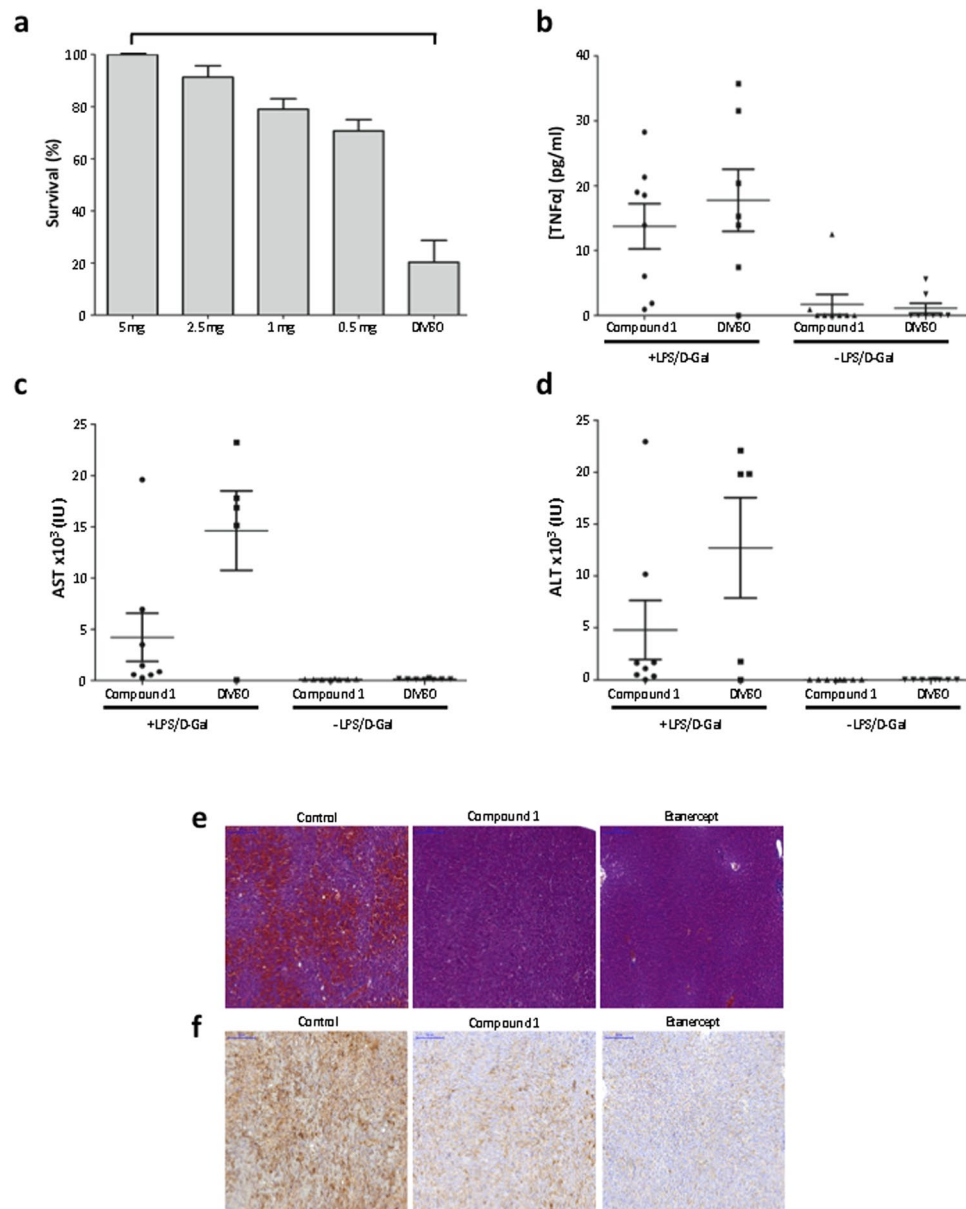


Figure 5. Effect of compound 1 in an *in vivo* murine model of LPS/D-Galactosamine induced shock. **(a)** Mice survival after force-feeding with different doses of compound 1 and an intraperitoneal injection of LPS/D-Galactosamine. Groups of eight mice were used. Values are mean \pm s.e.m. **(b)** TNF α levels in mice sera three hours after the induction of the shock by LPS/D-Galactosamine. Mice were forced-fed with 5 mg compound 1 in DMSO. Groups of eight mice were used. Values are mean \pm s.e.m. **(c)** Aspartate aminotransferase (AST) levels in mice sera eight hours after the induction of the shock. Mice were forced-fed with 5 mg compound 1 in DMSO. Values are mean \pm s.e.m. **(d)** Alanine aminotransferase (ALT) levels in mice sera eight hours after the induction of the shock. Mice were forced-fed with 5 mg compound 1 in DMSO. Values are mean \pm s.e.m. **(e)** Livers sections (H&E staining) from mice forced-fed with DMSO (control) or compound 1 or injected with etanercept and an intraperitoneal injection of LPS/D-Galactosamine. **(f)** Liver sections from mice forced-fed with DMSO (control) or compound 1 or injected with etanercept and an intraperitoneal injection of LPS/D-Galactosamine. Sections were incubated with an anti-cleaved caspase-3 antibody and revealed with an anti-rabbit antibody and DAB.

the livers of the LPS/D-Galactosamine injected mice, treated with the vehicle (DMSO), compound 1 or etanercept (Fig. 5e,f). The mice that received only the vehicle displayed important liver damage and hemorrhage whereas the mice treated with compound 1 or etanercept (Fig. 5e) displayed reduced liver damage and hemorrhage. The immunohistochemical analysis of the mice livers treated with compound 1 or etanercept displayed a reduced expression of cleaved caspase 3 (Fig. 5f), which is consistent with a reduction of the liver apoptosis in these animals. Taken together, these results confirmed that compound 1 did not affect the production of TNF α but inhibited TNF α induced damage on the mice liver by preventing caspase 3 induced apoptosis of hepatocytes.

Conclusion

Using an *in silico/in vitro/in vivo* screening approach, we have identified compound 1 that binds TNF α with high affinity and inhibits its activity *in vitro* and *in vivo* via oral administration. Compound 1 physicochemical profile displays some drawbacks that could be addressed after a medicinal chemistry program, in particular a moderate solubility in aqueous solvents and a low bioavailability rendering necessary administration of several milligrams of compound per mouse. However, we could demonstrate that despite these drawbacks, compound 1 displayed a fully protective effect on an acute TNF α dependent mouse model in which large quantities of TNF α are released and inhibited by the compound. Compound 1 displayed a reduced inhibiting activity on TNF β compared to TNF α . Targeting both TNF α and TNF β could be beneficial for the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis³⁵ since etanercept, a treatment of reference, displayed effective downregulation of both TNF α and TNF β ^{36,37}.

The next steps for the development of a drug based on the properties of compound 1 will be to improve its physicochemical profile, assess its full pharmacodynamics properties and evaluate its protective effect in a TNF α dependent chronic animal model closer to the physiopathology of chronic inflammatory diseases. This work illustrates a first step in the identification of orally available small molecule cytokine inhibitors that could be the basis for the development of alternate strategies to the biologics used for the treatment of chronic inflammatory diseases. In addition, this work highlights the ability of low-cost integrative *in silico/in vitro/in vivo* screening approaches to identify small-molecules targeting challenging protein-protein interactions such as homotrimeric TNF α .

Experimental Procedures

Materials, cell line and mice. Compounds were obtained from Chembridge (San Diego, CA, USA). Dimethyl Sulfoxide (DMSO), Lipopolysaccharide (LPS), TMB, Thiazolyl Blue Tetrazolium Bromide (MTT) and DAB were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (Saint Quentin Fallavier, France). Human TNF α , human TNF β and anti-TNF α antibody were obtained from R&D Systems (Lille, France). Anti-cleaved caspase 3 was obtained from Cell Signaling Technology (St Quentin en Yvelines, France), Anti-rabbit antibody coupled with HRP was obtained from Abcam (Paris, France) Dulbecco's Modified Eagle and Phosphate Buffered Saline (PBS) were obtained from Pan Biotech (Brumath, France). Actinomycin D and D-Galactosamine were obtained from Fisher (Illkirch, France). L929 cell line has been grown in the Laboratory for years. HEK-Blue™ TNF α reporter cell line and QUANTI-Blue™ were obtained from InvivoGen (Toulouse, France). 7 weeks-old female Balb/C mice were obtained from Charles River Laboratories (L'Arbresle, France). Mice used in all experiments were handled according to the guidelines and protocols were approved by the ethical committee of Paris Descartes University, France.

***In silico* screening.** *Structure preparation.* The binding site has been defined at 4 Å around the co-crystallized SPD304 ligand in the structure of the TNF α dimer (PDB id: 2AZ5, Supplementary Fig. 1). Hydrogen atoms were added using Chimera³⁸.

Compound collection. The 900,000 compounds Chembridge screening compound collection was retrieved from www.hit2lead.com. After an ADME-tox filtering using FAF-drugs2³⁹, 700,000 compounds were selected to constitute our commercially available drug-like compound collection.

Structure-based virtual screening. Molecular docking was performed using Surflex-dock version 2.5³⁴. Surflex-dock is based on a modified Hammerhead fragmentation/reconstruction algorithm to dock compounds flexibly into the binding site. The query molecule is decomposed into rigid fragments that are superimposed to the Surflex-protomol *i.e.*, molecular fragments covering the entire binding site. The docking poses are evaluated by an empirical scoring function. The protomol generation step has been performed using the options `proto_thresh = 0.5` and `proto_bloat = 4`. Screening step was performed using the option `pscreen`.

Ligand-based virtual screening. Ligand-based virtual screening was performed using the 2D/3D similarity search methods implemented in the webservice provided by www.hit2lead.com. Analogues identifications were performed using 2D and 3D similarity search with a 60% Tanimoto-based 2D and 3D similarity cut-off. Compounds were selected for experimental tests after a careful visual inspection of the retrieved analogues.

Gravimetric measurements for the determination of dissociation constants. Gravimetric measurements were performed using surface acoustic wave (SAW) sensors. TNF α solutions were prepared by diluting 10 μ g of lyophilized TNF α in 1 ml of PBS. They were kept in the freezer (at -18°C) and put at room temperature just before their further grafting onto the gold surface area of the SAW sensor. We prepared stock solutions of 0.5 g/l of SPD304 in PBS and 0.1 g/l of compound 1 in HCl 0.1 M/H $_2$ O (1/1: v/v). pH was adjusted to ≈ 7 before the injection of the analyte of interest into the microfluidic channel of the detection system.

Phase shift variations ($\Delta\Phi$) versus compound concentration (C) were fitted using equation 1

$$\Delta\Phi = \frac{\Phi_{\text{sat}} \times C}{K_d + C}$$

where Φ_{sat} represents the maximum sensor's response to the compound binding and K_d represents the equilibrium dissociation constant.

In the case of a two-site binding, equation 2 was used for fitting:

$$\Delta\Phi = \frac{\Phi_{\text{sat},1} \times C}{K_{d_1} + C} + \frac{\Phi_{\text{sat},2} \times C}{K_{d_2} + C} \quad (2)$$

where Φ_{sat1} and Φ_{sat2} are related to the maximum sensor's response for each binding site and K_{d1} and K_{d2} are their respective dissociation constants.

Measurement of TNF α intrinsic fluorescence. All samples were brought to 10 mM phosphate buffer, 0.05% Tween20, 1% DMSO. Fluorescence readings were made with a Quantamaster QM4CW spectrofluorimeter (Photon Technology International), by exciting TNF α at 290 nm and measuring the emission peaks at 322 nm. Compound 1 inner filter effects were corrected using absorbance measurements of compound alone solutions at 290 nm and 322 nm.

TNF α -TNFRI and TNF α -TNFRII binding ELISA. Microtiter plates were coated with 12.5 ng of TNFRI or TNFRII in 125 μ l of PBS per well at 37°C. The wells were washed, blocked with PBS/BSA 2% for three hours and washed as before. Serial dilutions of compounds were mixed with a fixed quantity of TNF α in PBS/BSA 1% and incubated two hours at 37°C. 125 μ l of the mix were added to the wells and plates were incubated overnight at 4°C. Wells were washed incubated with 37.5 ng of TNF α biotinylated antibody in 125 μ l of PBS/BSA 1% for two hours at 37°C. Wells were washed and incubated with avidin-HRP (1:500) in 125 μ l of PBS/BSA 1% for 30 minutes at 37°C, 5% CO₂. After washing, TMB solution was added to wells, quenched with 63 μ l of 1 M H₂SO₄ solution. Absorbance was measured at 450 nm.

Neutralization of cellular TNF α induced apoptosis. 80% confluent L929 cells were plated in flat bottom plates at 4×10^5 cells per well in 100 μ l of DMEM medium containing 10% FBS, 2 mM L-Glutamine, 100 U/ml Penicillin – 100 μ g/ml Streptomycin and incubated for one night at 37°C, 5% CO₂. TNF α or TNF β (150 pg/ml), Actinomycin D (4 μ g/ml) and the compounds at different concentrations (ranging from 100 μ M to 0.8 μ M) were mixed in 150 μ l DMEM medium 1% FBS, 2 mM L-Glutamine, 100 U/ml Penicillin – 100 μ g/ml Streptomycin in U-bottom plates. After two hours incubation at 37°C, 5% CO₂, 100 μ l of the mix was added to the plated cells and incubated at 37°C, 5% CO₂ for 24 hours. Supernatants were discarded and 100 μ l of MTT at 0.5 mg/ml were added to wells. After two hours, supernatants were discarded and 200 μ l of DMSO were then added. Plates were read at 570 nm with a spectrophotometer providing the optical density (OD) of each well. The percentage of neutralization of TNF α by a compound was calculated using equation 3:

$$\%Neutra = \frac{OD_{\text{compound}} - ODTNF\alpha}{OD_{\text{cells}} - ODTNF\alpha} \times 100 \quad (3)$$

An IC₅₀ could be computed from the percentage of neutralization for each compound.

Secreted embryonic alkaline phosphatase reporter assay. 80% confluent HEK-Blue™ TNF α were plated in flat bottom plates at 5×10^4 per well in 100 μ l of DMEM containing 2 mM L-Glutamine, 100 U/ml Penicillin – 100 μ g/ml Streptomycin and incubated at 37°C, 5% CO₂. Serial dilutions of compounds (ranging from 100 μ M to 0.8 μ M) were mixed with 400 pg/ml of human TNF α in DMEM containing 2% of FBS, 2 mM L-Glutamine, 100 U/ml Penicillin – 100 μ g/ml Streptomycin in U-bottom plates. After two hours of incubation at 37°C, 5% CO₂, 100 μ l of the mix was added to the plated cells and incubated 24 hours at 37°C, 5% CO₂. 20 μ l of supernatants were incubated for 3 hours with 180 μ l of QUANTI-Blue™ to reveal secretion of phosphatase alkaline and plates were read at 620 nm with a spectrophotometer providing the optical density (OD).

Activation of Caspases 3 and 8 assays. Caspases 3 and 8 activation was determined using Caspase-Glo® 3 and Caspase-Glo-8® assays kits (Promega) according to the manufacturer's procedures. After 8 hours of treatment, plates were equilibrated at room temperature. 100 μ l Caspase-Glo 3® and Caspase-Glo 8® reagent were added to each well. Luminescence was read on a FLUOstar OPTIMA reader.

Measurement of the concentration of CXCL1. Cells were plated at 2.5×10^5 cells/well in 24-well plates and treated as indicated. Eight hours later, supernatants were recovered and kept at –20°C for later use. The concentration of murine CXCL1 was measured in supernatants with a dosage ELISA kit obtained from R&D Systems (Lille, France) according to the manufacturer's procedures.

Inhibition activity of kinases and caspases related to TNF α pathway. Kinases and caspases activities in presence of 1 μ M of compound 1 were carried out by CEREP/Eurofins (Celle-Lévescault). The activity of compound 1 on the different kinases and caspases was compared to control values. Data are expressed as percentages of inhibition of control values.

LPS/D-Galactosamine induced lethal shock. 7 weeks-old Balb/C mice were force-fed with 100 μ l of a solution of DMSO containing various doses of compound 1 (5 mg down to 0.5 mg) eight hours before receiving an intraperitoneal injection of 200 μ l of PBS containing 0.1 μ g of LPS and 20 mg of D-Galactosamine. A control group (DMSO) was force-fed with 100 μ l of a solution of DMSO alone eight hours before to be injected with 200 μ l of LPS/D-Galactosamine solution. Mice survival was monitored for 48 hours after the injection of LPS/D-Galactosamine.

Histological and immunohistochemical studies of livers. 7 weeks-old Balb/C mice were forced-fed with a solution of DMSO containing 5 mg of compound 1 eight hours before receiving an intraperitoneal injection of 200 μ l of PBS containing 0.1 μ g of LPS and 20 mg of D-Galactosamine. Eight hours after LPS/D-Galactosamine injection, mice were sacrificed by cervical dislocation and livers were harvested, fixed in 4% formalin and embedded in paraffin. Serial 4 μ m sections were stained with hematoxylin and eosin or incubated with an anti-cleaved caspase

3 antibody (1:300) and revealed with an anti-rabbit antibody and DAB. Slides were scanned with a slide scanner (Perkin Elmer) and analyzed with Panoramic viewer (3D HISTECH).

Cytokines quantification. 7 weeks-old Balb/C mice were forced-fed with a solution of DMSO containing 5 mg of compound 1 eight hours before receiving an intraperitoneal injection of 200 μ l of PBS containing 0.1 μ g of LPS and 20 mg of D-Galactosamine. Three hours after LPS/D-Galactosamine injection, mice were anesthetized with ketamine/xylazine to recover blood by cardiac puncture. Sera were kept at -80°C until assay.

TNF α in serum was quantified using U-CyTech biosciences kits (Utrecht, The Netherlands) according to manufacturer's procedures.

AST/ALT quantification. 7 weeks-old Balb/C mice were forced-fed with a solution of DMSO containing 5 mg of compound 1 eight hours before receiving an intraperitoneal injection of 200 μ l of PBS containing 0.1 μ g of LPS and 20 mg of D-Galactosamine. Eight hours after, mice were anesthetized by an injection of ketamine/xylazine to recover blood by cardiac puncture. Sera were kept at -80°C until assay. Quantification of AST/ALT was performed using Architect ci 8200 analyser (Abbott) with reagent kits from Abbott.

Ethics. All study protocols and experimental procedures were approved by the Paris Descartes University ethical committee and were carried out in accordance with the approved guidelines.

Statistics. One-tailed p-values were calculated using Fisher's exact test.

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Author Contributions

H.G., N.B.N. and M.M. performed and analyzed the molecular modeling experiments. H.M., G.M. and L.D. performed and analyzed the biochemical and cellular assays. H.M., G.M., N.F., C.Z., B.B. and P.E. performed and analyzed the biophysical assays. H.M. and L.D. performed and analyzed the mice experiments. J.P., R.R. and J.L.S. participated in some experiments. M.M. and J.F.Z. conceived the whole study. H.M., M.M., B.B., P.E., C.Z., N.F., H.D. and J.F.Z. wrote the manuscript. All the authors reviewed the manuscript.

Additional Information

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Competing Interests: J.F.Z., R.R., and H.D. are shareholders of Peptinov S.A.S. L.D., H.D., H.M., and G.M. are employed by Peptinov S.A.S.

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