Axially Chiral Cannabinoids: Design, Synthesis, and Cannabinoid Receptor Affinity

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Supporting Information Placeholder

ABSTRACT: The resorcinol-terpene phytocannabinoid template is a privileged scaffold for the development of diverse therapeutics targeting the endocannabinoid system. Axially chiral cannabinoids (αxCBNs) are unnatural cannabinoids (CBNs) that bear an additional C10 substituent, which twists the cannabinol iaryl framework out of planarity creating an axis of chirality. This “escape from flatland” is hypothesized to enhance both the physical and biological properties of cannabinoid ligands, thus ushering in the next generation of endocannabinoid system chemical probes and cannabinoid-inspired leads for drug development. In this full report, we describe the philosophy guiding the design of αxCBNs as well as several synthetic strategies for their construction. We also introduce a second class of axially chiral cannabinoids inspired by cannabidiol (CBD), termed axially chiral cannabidiols (αxCBDs). Finally, we provide an analysis of axially chiral cannabinoid (αxCannabinoid) atropisomerism, which spans two classes (class 1 and 3 atropisomers), and provide first evidence that αxCannabinoids retain—and in some cases, strengthen—affinity and functional activity at cannabinoid receptors. Together, these findings present a promising new direction for the design of novel cannabinoid ligands for drug discovery and exploration of the complex endocannabinoid system.

INTRODUCTION

Phytocannabinoids and their synthetic analogs are prime candidates for pharmaceutical innovation in the quest for alternatives to highly addictive opioid analgesics, though they have yet to achieve FDA approval for this formidable goal. More generally, cannabinoid-based chemical probes and leads are essential for continued exploration of the endocannabinoid system, a complex neuro- and immunomodulating network implicated in a variety of neurodegenerative diseases as well as inflammation, metabolic disorders, and cancer.¹³ Most phytocannabinoid research to date has focused on the natural trans-tetrahydrocannabinol (trans-THC) and cannabidiol (CBD) frameworks, which has led to several approved medications (Figure 1A).¹⁴⁻¹⁸ For example, (−)-trans-Δ²-THC is FDA approved (Dronabinol) for the treatment of HIV/AIDS-induced anorexia¹⁹ as well as chemotherapy-induced nausea and vomiting.¹⁵ The approval of CBD (Epidiolex®) to treat refractory childhood seizures marked the first time a cannabis-derived product was approved by the FDA.¹⁴ Synthetic cannabinoids inspired by THC have emerged due to well-established synthetic protocols dating back to the 1940s via a renaissance of research in the late 20th century. Additionally, there are numerous inspiring routes to CBD¹⁶ and minor cannabinoids.¹⁷ In this regard, Nabilone is approved to treat chemotherapy-induced nausea and vomiting,¹⁸ and Ajulemic acid has reached various clinical trial phases as a treatment for systemic sclerosis, dermatomyositis, cystic fibrosis, and systemic lupus erythematosus (Figure 1B).¹⁹ Beyond the THC scaffold, other frameworks for synthetic cannabinoids have appeared, including cyclohexylphenols (e.g., CP55,940),¹⁹ cannabidiol derivatives (e.g., KLS-13019),¹¹ cannabialactones (e.g., AM1714),¹² and a variety of other heterocyclic scaffolds described elsewhere.²¹

Recently, we proposed that axially chiral analogs of cannabinoids may serve as valuable tools and leads for cannabinoid-based drug discovery (αxCannabinoids, Figure 1C).²² Scaffolds of this type are attractive for the following reasons: (i.) αxCannabinoids are three-dimensional ligands (due to axial chirality rather than the trans-point chirality of trans-THCs).²⁵⁻²⁶ It is well understood that three-dimensional ligands can exhibit superior recognition for their biological targets compared to planar analogs.²⁷⁻²⁹ (ii.) They are built upon a central biaryl framework. Biaryls are readily functionalized by numerous methods and are often metabolically stable. These features have
made biaryls a common template in drug discovery campaigns. This quality is particularly relevant to cannabinoid design as many phytocannabinoids and synthetic variants are prone to aerobic and metabolic oxidation. (iii.) Axial chirality is unexplored with respect to cannabinoid ligands, providing potentially rich grounds for discovery and innovation. In this report, we describe our initial efforts to establish axially chiral cannabinoids as valuable lead molecules with high affinity for cannabinoid receptors. We describe the synthetic chemistry for accessing axially chiral cannabinoids (axCBNs), introduce axially chiral cannabidiols (axCBDs), and disclose the results of affinity studies for select axCannabinoids at the cannabinoid receptors (hCB1R and hCB2R).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Synthetic methods toward axially chiral cannabinoids (axCBNs).

We previously reported a scalable, first-generation synthesis of “parent” axially chiral cannabinol (axCBN), the C9-to-C10 methyl-transposed isomer of cannabinol (CBN) (Figure 2A). By design, this transposition results in significant topological changes to the cannabinoid architecture: the ground state biaryl dihedral angle increases from 19° in CBN to 38° in axCBN. CBNs are relatively planar with little barrier to inversion, whereas axCBNs have significant three-dimensionality with barriers to atropisomerism ranging from 14 – 17 kcal/mol (class 1 atropisomerism). Retrosynthetically, we envisaged access to axCBN via an intramolecular Diels-Alder approach to biaryls (DAB). This revealed dimethylpropargyl chloride 1, allylicyanide 2, and the olivetol derivative 3 as potential starting materials. A successful route to axCBN and other C10-substituted analogs was achieved through a key bialylfarnate intermediate 7 (Figure 2B). This advanced scaffold was prepared via Cu-catalyzed dimethylpropargylation between 1 and 3 (yielding 4), TiCl4/Et3N-promoted condensation between 4 and allylcyanide 2 (yielding an inseparable mixture of E-5 and Z-5), intramolecular Diels-Alder cycloaddition (yielding 6), DDQ oxidation, and demethylative Pinner reaction (yielding 7). axCBN-1 was prepared via LiAlH4 reduction (Figure 2B) and “parent” axCBN was prepared in two additional steps.

While this initial synthetic strategy provided ample amounts of parent axCBN and axCBN-1 over a reasonably efficient synthetic sequence (6 – 8 steps from 1, 2, and 3), it is not without shortcomings. Synthetic challenges include a non-selective vinylogous aldol condensation that produces an inseparable mixture of E-5 and Z-5, and only the Z isomer reacts as desired in the subsequent step. As shown in Figure 2C, the E-5 isomer undergoes a propargyl Claisen rearrangement to benzochromene 8. More significantly, our goal of preparing diverse

Figure 1. A: The major phytocannabinoids (THC, CBN, and CBD). B: Representative synthetic cannabinoids. C: Past efforts and this work: axCannabinoids as bioisosteric variants with improved physical and biological properties.
analogs with variable C9-substitution was thwarted as the key TiCl₄ / Et,N-promoted condensation between substituted crotonitriles (R ≠ H) was unsuccessful (Figure 2C).

The issues we encountered during our initial studies (Figure 2C) prompted us to explore an alternative protocol for accessing αxCBNs bearing both C9 and C10 substitution, as we hypothesized that the most active αxCBN analogs would have substituents at both positions. Simple transposition of the C9 methyl group to the C10 position generates a “methyl void” on the parent scaffold, and methyl groups are known to have significant impact on drug properties (the “magic methyl effect”). Consequently, deletion of the C9 methyl substituent may negatively impact the affinity and efficacy at cannabinoid receptors. Thus, we aimed to develop a synthetic route capable of facilitating diverse C9 and C10 substitution as well as variation at other positions. In this regard, we envisioned access to αxCBN analogs from 12 by a sequential intramolecular aldol condensation / Diels-Alder cycloaddition yielding the advanced

Scheme 1. A: 2nd generation strategy capable of achieving C9 and C10 disubstitution. B: Diels-Alder cycloaddition is no longer favorable over propargyl Claisen rearrangement. C: Can the innate [3,3] reactivity be overturned in favor of dearomatic [4+2] cycloaddition?
tetracyclic intermediate 14 (Scheme 1A). Upon cyclohexadiene oxidation and biaryl lactone ring opening, ax-CBN analogs would be unveiled. We postulated that the key scaffold 12 could be prepared simply from the requisite olivetol-aldehyde 9, 3,3-dimethylacrylic acid 10, and dimethylpropargyl chloride 1, with known literature procedures for preparing aryl dimethylpropargyl ethers and divinylcoumarins serving as inspiration.42,43

At the outset of our studies, we successfully prepared model Diels-Alder precursors 13a – 13e by the proposed Cu-catalyzed dimethylpropargyl ether synthesis, phenol acylation with 3,3-dimethylacrylic acid 10, and intramolecular vinylogous aldol condensation (Scheme 1B). At this point, we realized that the desired thermal [4+2] transformation would be more challenging than we initially anticipated: under thermal conditions, these substrates exclusively react via propargyl Claisen rearrangement to yield pyranocoumarins.42,43 It became apparent that a critical Curtin-Hammett kinetics challenge exists in which the desired product 14 is neither thermodynamically nor kinetically favored over the propargyl Claisen rearrangement (Scheme 1C). Recall from Figure 2 that the Z-cyano-1,3-diene underwent favorable [4+2] cycloaddition over propargyl Claisen rearrangement. While 13 has the correct 1,3-diene geometry, the kinetics and thermodynamics of the desired [4+2] cycloaddition are less favorable due to the aromaticity of the coumarin (which must be broken during the Diels-Alder reaction).40,44,45 Thus, to achieve the desired transformation, reversal of the innate Curtin-Hammett controlled reactivity is necessary. Toward this goal, we envisioned that a transition-metal catalyst could template the diene and dienophile (via intermediate-A (Int-A); Scheme 1C), resulting in an altered kinetic profile and mechanism favoring formation of the coumarin-dearomatized [4+2] product (Figure 2). While there are many examples of metal catalyzed [4+2] cycloisomerization,46-53 vinylicoumarins as dienes, dearomatization, and Curtin-Hammet kinetics challenges are novel to this research area.

To achieve the desired [4+2] reactivity, rhodium(I) catalysis was examined (Scheme 2A).48,50,52,53 Using Wilkinson’s catalyst, (PPh₃)₂RhCl, in trifluoroethanol (entry 1), we observed a complex mixture of products that notably contained the desired [4+2] cycloadduct 14a and its oxidation product, biaryl 15a. Also observed was the depropargylated product 17a and the propargyl Claisen rearrangement product 16a. The addition of catalytic Ag(OTf) improved the yield to 32% yield 14a and 20% yield 15a (entry 2). Catalytic [Rh(NBD)Cl]₂/Ag(I) additives performed comparably to Wilkinson’s catalyst / Ag(OTf) (entries 3 – 5 versus entry 2). The best results were achieved with catalytic [Rh(COD)Cl]₂ / Ag(I) salts in trifluoroethanol (entries 6 – 8) where combined 68% – 82% yields of 14a and 15a were obtained. Notably, the reaction performed similarly well on the 1 mmol scale (Scheme 2B). As a control, we examined the reaction catalyst-free in trifluoroethanol (entry 9), confirming the essential impact of the catalyst. We briefly examined general substitution patterns (Scheme 2C – 3E), targeting the tetracyclic scaffolds 15a – 15f directly via a one-pot, two-step Rh(I)-catalyzed [4+2] cycloaddition followed by in situ DDQ oxidation of the resulting 1,4-cyclohexadienes to the corresponding arenes (Scheme 2C and 2E).52 Products 15d and 15e represent variations in the diene component. Unsubstituted (15d) and ethyl substituted (15e) dienes were reasonably tolerated. In contrast, modifications to the diene electronics resulted in little to no sign of the desired products (Scheme 2D). For example, ester substrate 13d and the silyl-enol ether diene 13e were not competent Diels-Alder substrates. With respect to the propargylic substitution on the dienophile, a cyclohexyl group was tolerated yielding 15f. However, in the absence of substitution, the transformation did not occur (Scheme 2D, 13f).

The scope studies related to the Rh(I)-catalyzed [4+2] cycloaddition suggest that a variety of C8 / C10 (15e) and C9 / C10 (15a and 15f) disubstituted ax-CBNs can be accessed. Along these lines, coumarins 13b and 13c bearing the common cannabinoid aliphatic chains (pentoxy and dimethylheptyl (DMH), respectively) on the resorcinol-portio of the scaffold were prepared. Gratifyingly, the Rh(I)-catalyzed [4+2] cycloaddition/oxygenation sequence yielded the desired pyrano-biarylactones 15b and 15c. LiAlH₄ reduction furnished the targeted ax-CBN analogs, ax-CBN-2 and ax-CBN-3.

**Synthetic methods toward axially chiral cannabidiols (axCBDs).**

During our studies related to the first-generation route to ax-CBNs (Figure 2), specifically, the attempted demethylation to free the phenol on 6, we encountered a transformation that converted the Diels-Alder adduct 6a into the biaryl 18a with concomitant pyran ring cleavage (Scheme 3). We surmised that this transformation occurred by an “E1,ax aromatization.” In this process, the nitrile group directs deprotonation yielding int-B, which is poised for pyran ring-cleavage to phenoxide int-C. In situ or upon acidic work up, int-C undergoes a thermodynamically favorably isomerization from the nonaromatic isotoledene to the biaryl product 18. This was an interesting outcome as it resulted in an axially chiral biaryl by a unique method, and the structure is reminiscent of the theoretical “parent” axially chiral cannabidiol (axCBD). Regarding the method, Diels-Alder reaction between dienes and alkynes to yield arenes usually relies on oxidation of the intermediate 1,4-cyclohexadiene or elimination of an endocyclic leaving group.54,55 Thus, this represents a unique strategy for targeting substituted and functionalized arenes. With respect to CBD, axCBD is formulated in analogy to the relationship between THC and ax-CBN: the cyclohexene ring of the parent natural product is formally oxidized to the arene, and the methyl group is transposed from the C9 to the C10 position, thus resulting in axially chiral cannabidiol. This term should be considered loosely as parent axCBD is prochiral.

![Scheme 3](image-url)
rather than chiral, but it bears an orthogonal, conformationally restricted biaryl linkage and thus is three-dimensional. That said, many \( \alpha \)-CBD analogs have the potential to be axially chiral biaryl.

Intrigued by the initial result and the potential to mimic the structure of cannabidiol (CBD) with axially chiral analogs, we designed a model substrate to optimize the E1 \(_{oa}\) aromatization sequence for targeting \( \alpha \)-CBDs (Scheme 4). The key substrates (6a – 6i) were prepared by the same synthetic sequence outlined in Figure 2: (i) TiCl\(_4\)/Et\(_3\)N-mediated aldol condensation between alkylo cyanide and the requisite \( O \)-dimethylpropargylsalicylaldehyde then (ii) intramolecular Diels-Alder cycloaddition. It was found that various bases could instigate the E1 \(_{oa}\) aromatization, but LiHMDS was optimal (see the supporting information for select optimization reactions). This reaction can be performed on the gram scale, and a variety of unique \( o \)-benzonitrile–\( o \)’-phenol biaryls were prepared in good yields under the optimized protocol. Notably, halogen functional handles are tolerated at every position about the phenol (18c – 18g), and an \( o \)-benzonitrile–\( o \)’-naphthyl biaryl 18h is accessible. With the goal of applying this method to the synthesis of \( \alpha \)-CBD analogs, Diels-Alder adducts 6a and 6i were accessed on the 0.5 – 1 gram scale. Under the standard E1 \(_{oa}\) aromatization conditions, we prepared the advanced axially chiral biaryl intermediates 18a and 18i in good yields (54% and 44%, respectively). Nitrile reduction to the alcohol was achieved via sequential addition of DIBALH and NaBH\(_4\), yielding \( \alpha \)-CBD-1 (\( R = \text{pentyl} \)) and \( \alpha \)-CBD-2 (\( R = \text{dimethylheptyl} \) (DMH))

Scheme 4, A: Biaryl synthesis via E1\(_{oa}\) aromatization: Scalability and scope studies. B: Synthesis of \( \alpha \)CBD-1 and \( \alpha \)CBD-2 utilizing E1\(_{oa}\) aromatization.

Atropisomerism of axially chiral cannabinoids

Axially chiral cannabinoids (\( \alpha \)-CBNs) and cannabidiols (\( \alpha \)CBDs) differ from their respective natural product counterparts, THC and CBD, by oxidation of the natural cyclohexene to a benzene ring and C9 to C10 methyl transposition. These molecules are biaryl but three-dimensional in the ground state. Using VT-NMR, we determined the barrier to atropisomerism for \( \alpha \)CBN-2 and its bis-acetate, \( \alpha \)CBN-4, to be 14 kcal/mol and 17 kcal/mol, respectively (Scheme 5). Regarding \( \alpha \)CBDs, VT-NMR experiments indicated that the biaryl linkage was conformationally stable: no coalescence of the enantirotopic signals was observed up to 95 °C in toluene-D\(_8\). These studies revealed that we have synthesized two classes of axially chiral cannabinoid thus far:23 \( \alpha \)CBNs are class 1 atropisomers while \( \alpha \)CBDs are class 3 atropisomers. Regarding \( \alpha \)CBNs, they are three-dimensional in their ground state (biaryl dihedral angle = 38°), but rapidly equilibrating. Thus, both enantiomeric conformers are accessible under ambient conditions.

Scheme 5. A: \( \alpha \)CBNs display “type 1” atropisomerism. B: \( \alpha \)CBDs display “type 3” atropisomerism.

Molecular pharmacology of axial chiral cannabinoids at cannabinoid receptors.

We have examined a small series of \( \alpha \)-Cannabinoids for binding affinity and functional activity at human cannabinoid receptors (hCB1R and hCB2R) (Scheme 6 and 7). From this initial series, several compounds emerged with desirable pharmacology relative to the relevant parent phytocannabinoid in terms of affinity and selectivity. \( \alpha \)CBN-3 exhibited sub-nanomolar affinity for both receptors, approximately 360-fold higher than CBN at hCB1R and 134-fold higher at hCB2R.58 When compared to the dimethylheptyl derivative of CBN (CBN-DMH) reported by Rhee and coworkers,58,59 \( \alpha \)CBN-3 has approximately 5-10-fold higher affinity. This suggests that the addition of the C-10 group, which biases the biaryl to a nonplanar configuration, confers additional beneficial interactions with hCB1R and hCB2R that result in higher affinity. Notably, \( \alpha \)CBN-3 demonstrated higher affinity than the positive control, CP55,940, at both receptors.58 Additionally, \( \alpha \)CBD-2 and \( \alpha \)CBN-4 exhibited increased selectivity for hCB2R, 4.8- and 6.2-fold, respectively.

Importantly, these compounds maintained functional activity as determined by stimulation of \( \left[^{35}S\right]\gamma \text{TPS binding} \), an assay of native G protein activation (Supplementary Tables 4 and 5). \( \alpha \)CBN-3 exhibited an 8-fold greater potency to stimulate \( \left[^{35}S\right]\gamma \text{TPS binding} \) at hCB2R than at hCB1R while exhibiting increased efficacy over CBN. \( \alpha \)CBD-4 also maintained agonist activity at hCB2R. Notably, \( \alpha \)CBD-2 exhibited 7.4-
which is also supported by the higher efficacy of αxCBN versus CBN in Gai1 activation.

**Figure 6.** A: αxCannabinoid summary. B: Displacement of [35S]GTPγS binding. C: αxCannabinoid binding affinity at cannabinoid receptors. D: Functional effects of αxCannabinoids in Gai1 activation.

Fold greater potency in [35S]GTPγS binding. Further, αxCBD-2 exhibited agonism at hCB2R in the TRUPATH assay of Gai1B3γ9 protein activation (Supplementary Tables 6 and 7), but not at hCB1R at concentrations up to 31.6 μM (Figure 6D), suggesting a potential route for development of selective hCB2R agonists. This functional activity diverges from that of the parent CBD which exhibits no efficacy at either cannabinoid receptor in either of these assays (data not shown). Interestingly, in contrast to CBN [F(2, 64) = 1.21, p = 0.305], αxCBN-3 [F(2, 91) = 42.7, p < 0.0001] exhibited distinct affinities for two binding sites following an extra sum-of-squares F test for one site versus two site binding models (Scheme 7). The higher affinity binding may reflect selection for the active conformation, which is also supported by the higher efficacy of αxCBN-3 in [35S]GTPγS binding (Supplementary Tables 4 and 5). Further, because αxCBN-3 is a class 1 atropisomer, it exists as two enantiomeric conformers rapidly equilibrating, each of which may have unique affinities for different conformations and give rise to multiphasic binding curves as depicted in Figure 6. Thus, these compounds may exhibit particularly unique pharmacology in terms of the receptor populations they could stabilize to give rise to unique signaling profiles.

Together, these data showcase that αxCBNs and αxCBDs can mimic—or even surpass—the activity of phyto- and synthetic cannabinoids at cannabinoid receptors. These analogs occupy a unique conformational chemical space (ground-state three-dimensional structures), which impacts affinity and selectivity for biological targets (cannabinoid receptors and beyond). These molecules have the potential for improved metabolic and aerobic stability, and they represent a new cannabinoid-based platform for drug discovery and development.

**Molecular modeling of αxCannabinoids at cannabinoid receptors**

We used induced-fit docking (Glide-XP, Schrödinger, Inc.) to predict how αxCannabinoids αxCBN-3 and rac-αxCBD-2 engage hCB1R and hCB2R. The Glide-XP docking scoring function is an approximated binding affinity that is used to rank predicted poses of a ligand as a result of its interaction with a target: αxCBN-3 had an appreciable score with hCB1R (XPscore -13.285 kcal/mol) and hCB2R (XPscore -13.711 kcal/mol), and rac-αxCBD-2 had lower predicted affinity in hCB1R (XPscore -12.488 kcal/mol) compared to hCB2R (XPscore -13.117 kcal/mol). In each case, the dimethylheptyl tails of the αxCannabinoids occupies the same narrow hydrophobic channel between transmembrane helix (TMH) 3, 5, and 6 as the co-crystallized ligand (Figure 3). Hydrophobic aromatic interactions with Phe268 (hCB1R) and Phe87, Phe94 and Phe183 (hCB2R) are also observed. Canonical structure-activity relationships (SAR) of classical cannabinoids indicate that a free phenol at position 1 is generally required for hCB1R and hCB2R binding. For αxCBN-3, this group is not predicted to form beneficial interactions with hCB1R, but is predicted to donate a hydrogen bond to Ser285 in hCB2R; the equivalent Ser383 in CB1R does donate a hydrogen bond to the oxygen in the pyran ring. The 10-hydroxymethyl group of αxCBN-3 is predicted to form an intramolecular hydrogen bond (IMHB) with the nearby 1-phenol. This may contribute to target binding by overall lowering the hydrophilicity of this region, making this group to occupy an otherwise hydrophobic portion of the binding site. The predicted binding pose of rac-αxCBD-2 differs from that of αxCBN-3 due to the larger dihedral angle connecting the two phenyl rings (ranging from -27.9° to 29.2° for αxCBN-3 and -75.1° to -75.3° for rac-αxCBD-2 when docked in hCB1R and hCB2R, respectively; see Figures S3 – S6 in the
Supporting Information). Within hCB1R, the 6-propyl substituent points toward Phe268, while the 10-hydroxymethyl group occupies a narrow lipophilic region below the plane of aryl ring A. Multiple steric clashes contribute to a lower Glide score, including a clash with Ser383. Within hCB2R, however, the 10-hydroxymethyl group is able to donate a hydrogen bond to the backbone carbonyl of Leu182, and the phenol forms a beneficial hydrogen bond with Ser285. The presence of these additional beneficial binding interactions may explain the observation that rac-axCBN-2 is a selective hCB2R agonist.

CONCLUSIONS AND OUTLOOK

We have conceptualized and validated axCannabinoids as novel leads for cannabinoid-inspired drug discovery. We hypothesize that axCannabinoids will be uniquely valuable scaffolds due to their three-dimensionality and stability imparted by the central axially chiral biaryl framework. Through the development of various de novo synthetic routes and collaborative biological analysis at cannabinoid receptors (hCB1R / hCB2R), we have achieved a preliminary understanding of axCannabinoid structure-activity relationships. With respect to synthesis, disclosed herein are three distinct synthetic strategies capable of producing diverse analogs bearing either a tricyclic cannabinol framework or a bicyclic scaffold inspired by cannabidiol: axially chiral cannabinoids (axCBNs) or cannabidiols (axCBDs), respectively. Numerous products were obtained, including 8 analogs which were examined for biological activity, and we speculate that analogs beyond those disclosed herein are accessible with our established protocols. The initial structure-activity relationship study revealed an axCannabinoid (axCBN-3) with picomolar affinity for the hCB1 and hCB2 receptors as well as other promising leads (e.g. axCBN-4 and rac-axCBD-2) that display >5-fold selectivity for the hCB2 receptor over the hCB1 receptor. The axCannabinoids described here offer new opportunities to probe the binding sites of cannabinoid receptors and other protein targets of phytocannabinoids. Based on these findings, we plan to (1) further interrogate the biological activity and therapeutic potential of the initial lead molecules, and (2) utilize these findings to design and synthesize the next generation of axCannabinoids for drug discovery.

It is also worth noting that this strategy of converting point chirality into axial chirality can be applied beyond cannabinoids. Many bioactive natural products contain linked 6-membered rings, and we speculate that scaffolds of this type have atropisemic biaryl bioisosteres that may exhibit improved therapeutic, stability, and other ADMET properties (Figure 4). We propose that this type of structural modification be considered routinely throughout medicinal chemistry campaigns.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

Supporting Information includes experimental procedures and characterization data (1H NMR, 13C NMR, HRMS).

Figure 3. Results from automated docking. axCBN-3 (green) docked within hCB1R (gray) (A) and hCB2R (green) (B), rac-axCBD-2 (orange) docked within hCB1R (C) and hCB2R (D). For docking scores, please see the text.

Figure 4. Beyond cannabinoids: other “lead molecules” in principle can have atropisemic counterparts with potentially improved pharmaceutical/therapeutic properties.
REFERENCES


