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1 Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a neurodegenerative disorder with no cure in sight. It is anticipated that with an aging population and increasing lifespan, the social and economic burden is going to multiply in the years to come. Current AD research indicates that many factors are involved in its pathophysiology. Due to the ever-growing complexity of AD, it is no surprise that the shift toward multi-targeting small molecule candidates which can counter the various facets of the disease, as the next generation AD treatments is increasing.¹⁻³ While current pharmacotherapy options rely on cholinesterase inhibitors (donepezil, rivastigmine and galantamine) that reduce the degradation of the neurotransmitter acetylcholine (ACh) and an N-methyl-D-aspartate antagonist (memantine), these were not designed as multi-targeting agents and provide only symptomatic relief.^{4,5} The role of beta-amyloid $(A\beta)$ which tends to form neurotoxic aggregates, cholinesterases (ChE) that degrade ACh which facilitates neurotransmission and oxidative stress

Application of quinazoline and pyrido[3,2-d] pyrimidine templates to design multi-targeting agents in Alzheimer's disease†

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A quinazoline and pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine based compound library was designed, synthesized and evaluated as multi-targeting agents aimed at Alzheimer's disease (AD). The SAR studies identified compound 8h (8-chloro-N²-isopropyl-N⁴-phenethylquinazoline-2,4-diamine) as a potent inhibitor of Aß40 aggregation (IC₅₀ = 900 nM) which was 3.6-fold more potent compared to the reference agent curcumin (AB40 IC₅₀ = 3.3 µM). It also exhibited dual ChE inhibition (AChE IC₅₀ = 8.6 µM; BuChE IC₅₀ 2.6 μ M). Compound 9h (8-chloro- N^4 -(3,4-dimethoxyphenethyl)- N^2 -isopropylquinazoline-2,4-diamine) was identified as the most potent Aß42 aggregation inhibitor (IC₅₀ \sim 1.5 μ M). Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) imaging demonstrates their anti-Aß40/Aß42 aggregation properties. Compound 8e was identified as a potent BuChE inhibitor (BuChE $IC_{50} = 100$ nM) which was 36-fold more potent compared to donepezil (BuChE $IC_{50} = 3.6 \mu M$). The pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine bioisostere 10b (N²isopropyl-N⁴-phenethylpyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine-2,4-diamine) exhibited good anti-A β activity (A β 40 IC₅₀ $= 1.1 \mu M$), dual ChE inhibition and iron-chelating properties (23.6% chelation at 50 μ M). These investigations demonstrate the usefulness of either a quinazoline or a pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine based ring scaffold in the design of multi-targeting agents to treat AD. PAPER

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including metal-induced neurotoxicity in AD disease pathophysiology, highlights the need to design and develop novel therapies to target multiple pathways.⁶⁻¹⁰

As part of our research program aimed at designing multitargeting small molecules, we have investigated the development of novel agents including quinazolines that exhibit $\mathbf{A}\beta$ aggregation inhibition, dual acetylcholinesterase (AChE) and butyrylcholinesterase (BuChE) inhibition and possess radical scavenging activity.^{11,12} In this regard, dual inhibition of both AChE and BuChE is known to be beneficial as BuChE can process ACh in advance stages of AD.¹³ Building on our recent efforts on multi-targeting small molecules, herein we present the structure-activity relationship (SAR) studies of substituted quinazolines and its bioisostere, pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine ring template (Fig. 1). Several compounds from this series exhibited

Fig. 1 SAR studies of quinazoline and pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidines as multi-targeting anti-AD agents.

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Scheme 1 Reagents and conditions: (a) urea, pressure vial, $150-155$ °C, 2 h; (b) toluene, N,N-diethylaniline, POCl₃, 0-105 °C, reflux, 14-16 h.

desirable multi-targeting ability including dual $A\beta$ /ChE inhibition and iron chelation properties. The road toward this library of 32 derivatives $(8-15)$ started by first reacting the substitutedchloro-2-aminobenzoic or picolinic acids (1a–d, Scheme 1) with urea to afford the quinazoline or pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine ring template (2a–d), followed by 2,4-dichlorination with $POCl₃$ to obtain 2,4,6-, 2,4,7- or 2,4,8-trichloroquinazolines $(3a-c)$ or 2,4dichloropyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine (3d) respectively (65–80% yield, Scheme 1).¹²

The N^4 -substituted dichloroquinazolines (4a–c and 5a–c) or N^4 -substituted-2-chloropyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine (6a and 7a) intermediates were obtained in moderate to good yields (\sim 75– 90%) by coupling 3a–d with phenethylamine or 3,4-dimethoxyphenethylamine in the presence of N,N-diisopropylethylamine (DIPEA) under reflux for 4 hours (Scheme 2). Displacement of the C2 chlorine in 4a–c, 5a–c, 6a and 7a was readily achieved by heating with respective amines (n-propylamine, isopropylamine, cyclopropylamine or N,N-dimethylamine) with 1,4 dioxane in the presence of DIPEA, in a pressure vial for 2 h to afford the quinazoline (Qnz) and pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine (Ppd) based compound library 8a–i, 9a–i, 10a–c, 11a–c, 12a–c, 13a–c, 14a and 15a with yields ranging from 68–78% (Scheme 1). The synthesized quinazoline derivatives were evaluated for their ability to modulate the aggregation kinetics of $A\beta40$ and $A\beta42$ using the thioflavin T (ThT) fluorescence assay.^{12,14} Their cholinesterase (hAChE/hBuChE) inhibition activity was determined using the Ellman's protocol.^{12,15} We identified few chloroquinazoline and pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidines that exhibited excellent Ab aggregation inhibition, dual ChE inhibition and iron-chelation properties thereby demonstrating multitargeting ability.

2 Results and discussion

2.1 Inhibition of $\mathbf{A}\beta$ aggregation

The results of the SAR investigation on the anti- $A\beta$ aggregation properties of chloroquinazolines and pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidines is shown in Table 1. Examining the SAR of C4 phenethylaminebased chloroquinazolines (8a–i), shows that chlorine placement on the quinazoline ring had an effect on anti- $\Delta\beta$ activity with the 8-Cl placement exhibiting superior $\mathsf{A}\beta$ aggregation inhibition. The activity order was $8\text{-Cl} > 7\text{-Cl} > 6\text{-Cl}$ with respect to both A β 40/A β 42 inhibition. While 8a-c was ineffective toward A β 42, others in the group showed inhibition ranging from \sim 3.9-12 μ M, with 8h being the most potent A β 42 inhibitor. Significant $A\beta40$ aggregation inhibition was observed with compounds 8g-i $(\sim 900 \text{ nM}$ to 3.7 µM), with **8h** (8-Cl, C2 i-Pr) being the most potent inhibitor (A β 40 IC₅₀ = 900 nM) and was 3.6-fold more potent compared to the reference agent curcumin (A β 40 IC₅₀ = 3.3 μ M, Table 1). The addition of a C4 3,4-dimethoxylphenethylamine substituent in compounds (9a–i) generally provided dual inhibition of both $A\beta40$ and $A\beta42$ aggregation except for the 7-chloro derivative 9e (Table 1). Compound 9h (8 chloro, C2 i-Pr) was identified as a good inhibitor of both A β 40 and A β 42 (A β 40 IC₅₀ ~ 4.0 µM; A β 42 IC₅₀ ~ 1.5 µM). Significantly, it was \sim 6.6-fold and 10-fold more potent toward A β 42 compared to reference agents resveratrol (A β 42 IC₅₀ = 15.3) and curcumin (A β 42 IC₅₀ = 9.9 μ M). Replacing the quinazoline ring template with a pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine bioisostere was generally ineffective. In this group of compounds, the C4 phenethylamine derivatives 10a–c were better than the corresponding C4 3,4-dimethoxyphenethylamine derivatives 11a–c with compound $10b$ identified as the most potent A β 40 aggregation Paper Wax-to-term Common Common

Scheme 2 Reagents and conditions: (a) phenethylamine or 3,4-dimethoxyphenethylamine, DIPEA, ethanol, reflux, 80-85 °C, 4 h; (b) alkylamine, DIPEA, 1,4-dioxane, 150-155 °C, pressure vial, 2 h.

Table 1 Amyloid- β (A β 40/A β 42) inhibition activity of quinazolines (8, 9, 12 and 13) and pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidines (10, 11, 14 and 15)

		9, 12 and 13) and pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidines (10, 11, 14 and 15)			2,4-diamine) was the most potent $A\beta40$ aggregation inhibitor $\text{(IC}_{50} \sim 900 \text{ nM})$, while 9h $\text{(8-chloro-N}^4\text{-}(3,4\text{-dimethox}))$
		Chloride substitution	${IC_{50}}^{a,b}$ (μ M)		yphenethyl)- N^2 -isopropylquinazoline-2,4-diamine) was the most
Compd	\mathbf{R}^1		$A\beta40$	$A\beta42$	potent Aβ42 aggregation inhibitor (IC ₅₀ \sim 1.5 μM).
8a	$n-Pr$	C6	>25	>25	The ThT-based Aβ40 aggregation kinetics data in the pres
8b	i-Pr	C ₆	$8.6\,\pm\,0.7$	>25	ence of the most active inhibitors (8h and 10b for $A\beta 40$) is
8c	c - Pr	C ₆	8.7 ± 0.9	>25	shown in Fig. 2. This reveals that, their modes of aggregation
8d	$n-Pr$	C7	6.9 ± 1.4	4.6 ± 0.9	inhibition do differ from one another. As seen in Fig. 2 (pane)
8e	i-Pr	C7	6.1 ± 1.3	7.2 ± 1.6	A), 8h was exhibiting a concentration-dependent reduction in
8f	c -Pr	C7	4.8 ± 1.0	11.7 ± 2.0	the aggregation with complete inhibition of Aβ40 aggregation
8g	$n-Pr$	C8	3.7 ± 0.5	6.5 ± 0.4	seen at 25 μ M. On the other hand, 10b (Fig. 2, panel C) was also
8h	i-Pr	C8	0.9 ± 0.1	3.9 ± 0.5	exhibiting a concentration-dependent reduction in aggregation
8i	c -Pr	C8	1.3 ± 0.2	6.8 ± 1.3	
9a	$n-Pr$	C6	4.9 ± 0.5	10.7 ± 1.1	In addition, unlike compound 8h, it was able to delay the onset
9b	i-Pr	C ₆	5.8 ± 0.7	7.7 \pm 0.8	of aggregation by delaying the lag phase further. Investigating
9c	c -Pr	C ₆	8.9 ± 0.9	9.8 ± 0.8	the Aß morphology by TEM imaging further confirms the ability
9d	$n-Pr$	C7	3.1 ± 0.3	12.4 ± 1.1	of both compounds 8h and 10b to prevent A β aggregation
9e	i-Pr	C7	10.6 ± 0.9	>25	(Fig. 2). Analysis of the $A\beta42$ aggregation kinetics in the pres
9f	c -Pr	C7	5.2 ± 0.6	22.5 ± 1.9	ence of the most active inhibitors (9h and 13c for A β 42, Fig. 2)
9g	$n-Pr$	C8	4.9 ± 0.5	2.3 ± 0.3	
9h	i-Pr	C8	4.0 ± 0.4	$1.5\,\pm\,0.2$	revealed similar observations. Both derivatives, which were
9i	c -Pr	C8	4.6 ± 0.5	2.2 ± 0.2	nearly equipotent against Aβ42 aggregation, shared similar
10a 10 _b	$n-Pr$ i-Pr		NA 1.1 ± 0.1	13.7 ± 2.0 >25	modes of action. As seen in Fig. 2 (panel B), 9h was able to
10c	c -Pr		6.8 ± 1.0	11.5 ± 1.5	reduce the overall load of $A\beta 42$ fibril formation in a concentra
11a	$n-Pr$		NA	>25	tion dependent manner with almost complete inhibition seen
11 _b	i-Pr	—	NA	>25	at 25 μ M. A similar trend was seen with 13c (Fig. 2, panel D)
11c	c -Pr	$\overline{}$	>25	>25	
12a	—	C6	6.5 ± 0.9	>25	Furthermore, TEM morphology studies corroborate aggregation
12 _b		C7	5.1 ± 1.7	>25	kinetics data observed (Fig. 2).
12c	$\overline{}$	C8	1.9 ± 0.3	${>}5.8\,\pm\,0.7$	The molecular docking study of best two Aß40 aggregation
13a	$\overline{}$	C6	2.5 ± 0.3	5.6 ± 0.7	inhibitors, 8h and 10b, in the A β dimer model (Fig. 3, panel A
13 _b	—	C7	$4.3\,\pm\,0.4$	9.4 ± 0.9	derived from the solution structure of Aß fibrils ¹⁶ (pdb id:2LMN)
13c	$\overline{}$	C8	2.3 ± 0.2	1.8 ± 0.3	indicated that both the 8-chloroquinazoline and the pyrido[3,2]
14a		$\overbrace{}$	NA	12.7 ± 2.0	pyrimidine templates were oriented between C- and N-terminal
15a			>25	>25	
Resveratrol			1.1 ± 0.1	15.3 ± 1.9	region whereas the C4-phenethylamine substituent was closer
Curcumin			3.3 ± 0.4	9.9 ± 0.4	to the turn region Asp23-Gly29 (distance \sim 6-8 Å). Hydrophobic
		a IC ₅₀ values were calculated using the ThT-based fluorescence			interactions were the dominating force involved. In the pyrido
					[3.2] alperty miding compound 10 b the presence of an additional

spectroscopy assay (excitation $= 440$ nm, emission $= 490$ nm). b Values are mean of triplicate readings for three independent experiments. $NA = not active$.

inhibitor (IC₅₀ \sim 1.1 μ M). In the next step, the impact of a tertiary dimethylamine moiety at the C2-position was investigated. The presence of a C4 phenethylamine, increased potency toward Ab40 12a–c; 6-Cl < 7-Cl < 8-Cl while only 12c was active toward A β 42. On the other hand, with a 3,4-dimethoxyphenethylamine at the C4 position, potency toward $A\beta40$ ranged from \sim 2–4 μ M with chlorine placement at C6 being equipotent to C8 placement. The $A\beta 42$ aggregation inhibitory potency increased from 7-Cl (13b, IC₅₀ \sim 9.4 μ M) to 6-Cl (13a, IC₅₀ \sim 5.6 μM) to 8-Cl (13c, IC₅₀ \sim 1.8 μM). Combining the C2 dimethylamine group with a C4 phenethylamine or 3,4-dimethoxyphenethylamine on a pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine scaffold resulted in either weak or no inhibition of $\mathbf{A}\beta$ aggregation (compounds 14a and 15a, Table 1). With respect to the $\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ aggregation inhibition SAR, \sim 22% of the derivatives screened surpassed the activity level of curcumin toward $A\beta40$, while \sim 44% surpassed the activity level of curcumin toward Aβ42.

The molecular docking study of best two $A\beta40$ aggregation inhibitors, 8h and 10b, in the A β dimer model (Fig. 3, panel A) derived from the solution structure of A β fibrils¹⁶ (pdb id:2LMN) indicated that both the 8-chloroquinazoline and the pyrido[3,2] pyrimidine templates were oriented between C- and N-terminal region whereas the C4-phenethylamine substituent was closer to the turn region Asp23-Gly29 (distance \sim 6–8 Å). Hydrophobic interactions were the dominating force involved. In the pyrido $[3,2-d]$ pyrimidine compound 10b, the presence of an additional ring nitrogen (N5) led to a hydrogen bonding contact with the amide backbone of Val24 (distance \sim 3 Å). In the fibril model, Fig. 3, panel B, both 8h and 10b had similar binding modes where the C4-phenethylamine group was oriented toward the center region of the fibril core (Ile32-Met35, distance \sim 5–8 Å). Both core templates were undergoing hydrophobic interactions with Ile31-Val38 (distance \sim 5–8 Å) at the C-terminal end. These studies support the ability of 8h and 10b to reduce fibril aggregation.

2.2 Inhibition of cholinesterases

With respect to cholinesterase inhibition, the SAR data is shown in Table 2. While examining the first cluster of C4 phenethylamine-based chloroquinazolines (8a–i), it became evident that chlorine placement at either C6, C7 or C8 was able to modulate the ChE inhibitory activity with 7-Cl exhibiting better ChE inhibition. The ChE inhibition can be ranked as 7-Cl > 6-Cl > 8-Cl with respect to both ChEs. Most noteworthy was the outcome from $8e$ (AChE IC₅₀ \sim 6.6 μ M, BuChE IC₅₀ \sim 100 nM), which was the most potent AChE inhibitor in this group, and

Fig. 2 A β 40/A β 42 (5 µM) aggregation kinetics study with or without 1, 5 or 25 µM of 8h (panel A), 9h (panel B), 10b (panel C) or 13c (panel D) along with corresponding TEM morphology in the presence of 25 μ M of 8h, 9h, 10b or 13c. Aggregation kinetics were monitored by ThT-fluorescence spectroscopy (excitation = 440 nm, emission = 490 nm) for 24 h at 37 °C in phosphate buffer at pH 7.4. TEM image scale: white bars represent 500 nm.

Fig. 3 Aß molecular docking studies. Binding modes of the quinazoline compound 8h (red) and pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine compound 10b (green) in A β -dimer model (panel A) and A β -fibril model (panel B). Hydrogen atoms were removed for clarity

was the most potent BuChE inhibitor overall (about 36-fold more potent compared to donepezil, $IC_{50} = 3.60 \mu M$). The addition of the 3,4-dimethoxyphenethyl substituent in the second cluster of derivatives (9a–i) exhibited similar AChE inhibition range as per compounds 8a–i. However, it was detrimental for BuChE inhibition, although one key derivative stood out from the pack (9e, BuChE $IC_{50} \sim 4 \mu M$) and was equivalent to donepezil. It is interesting to point out that both compounds 8e and 9e that exhibited signicant BuChE inhibition possessed a C2 isopropylamine substituent which promoted BuChE inhibition. Replacing the quinazoline

template with a pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine template (10a–c and 11a–c), led to weak or no inhibitory activity toward BuChE. With respect to AChE inhibition, they were on par with the chloroquinazolines (8a–i and 9a–i) with activity range AChE IC₅₀ \sim 7– 8 μ M, Table 2. The incorporation of a N,N-dimethylamine at the C2 position was explored to investigate the role of a tertiary amine instead of a secondary amine toward ChE inhibition (12a–c and 13a–c). The chlorine placement played a role as 12b (7-Cl, BuChE IC₅₀ \sim 1.5 μ M) was \sim 3.6-fold more potent compared to its 6-chloro isomer (12a). In addition, 12b was more potent compared to compound 13b (BuChE IC₅₀ > 50 μ M).

Table 2 Cholinesterase inhibition (AChE and BuChE) of quinazolines (8, 9, 12 and 13) and pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidines (10, 11, 14 and 15)

Table 2 Cholinesterase inhibition (AChE and BuChE) of quinazolines Compd	R^1	Chloride substitution	(8, 9, 12 and 13) and pyrido [3,2-d] pyrimidines (10, 11, 14 and 15) ${IC_{50}}^a (\mu M)$		(B) (A) Val288
			h AC h E	h BuChE	Phe295
8a	$n-Pr$	C ₆	8.9 ± 0.6	4.8 ± 0.3	Ser ₂₈
8b	i-Pr	C6	8.7 ± 0.5	1.5 ± 0.1	Leu286
8c	c -Pr	C ₆	8.7 ± 0.9	9.1 ± 0.7	
8d	$n-Pr$	C7	7.2 ± 0.7	4.4 ± 0.4	Ser198
8e	i-Pr	C7	6.6 ± 0.6	0.1 ± 0.02	
8f	c -Pr	C7	7.3 ± 0.6	3.5 ± 0.4	Glu334
8g	$n-Pr$	C8	7.7 \pm 0.7	6.0 ± 0.6	Glu325
8h	i-Pr	C8	8.6 ± 0.9	2.6 ± 0.2	
8i	c -Pr	C8	7.6 ± 0.7	10.9 ± 0.9	
9a	$n-Pr$	C ₆	6.2 ± 0.4	>50	Fig. 4 Cholinesterase molecular docking studies. Panel (A): Binding
9b	i-Pr	C ₆	6.8 ± 0.7	20.3 ± 1.5	modes of 9a (red) and 12b (green) in hAChE. Panel (B): Binding modes
9c	c -Pr	C ₆	8.0 ± 0.7	>50	of 8e (red) and 12b (green) in hBuChE. Hydrogen atoms removed for
9d	$n-Pr$	C7	7.2 ± 0.7	>50	clarity.
9e	i-Pr	C7	7.9 ± 0.8	3.9 ± 0.3	
9f	c -Pr	C7	8.7 ± 0.8	>50	
9g	$n-Pr$	C8	6.5 ± 0.5	>50	binding interactions, explaining their near-equipotent inhibi-
9h	i-Pr	C8	6.8 ± 0.7	19.3 ± 1.1	
9i	c -Pr	C8	6.6 ± 0.7	>50	tion of the AChE (IC ₅₀ \sim 6 µM). In both derivatives, the 7
10a	$n-Pr$	$\qquad \qquad -$	8.1 ± 0.8	30.3 ± 2.8	chloroquinazoline ring scaffold was stacked parallel agains
10 _b	i-Pr	$\overbrace{}$	7.8 ± 0.8	29.3 ± 2.0	Trp86 (distance \sim 4–6 Å) and the C4-benzylamino groups were
10c	c -Pr		7.6 ± 0.6	>50	extending from the catalytic site toward the peripheral anionic
11a	$n-Pr$	$\overline{}$	7.2 ± 0.8	>50	site (PAS), where the 3,4-dimethoxy moiety of compound 9a was
11 b	i-Pr	$\qquad \qquad$	7.4 ± 0.7	>50	
11c	c -Pr	$\qquad \qquad -$	7.2 ± 0.5	>50	undergoing favorable interactions with Trp286 (distance \sim 3-4
12a	$\overbrace{}$	C ₆	7.7 ± 0.8	5.4 ± 0.6	Å). The C6 and C7 chlorine atoms were oriented toward the
12 _b		C7	5.8 ± 0.7	1.5 ± 0.1	catalytic triad (distance \sim 6-8 Å), while the C2-alkylamine
12c		C8	7.5 ± 0.8	>50	groups underwent hydrophobic interactions with Trp86
13a		C ₆	7.2 ± 0.7	$31.2\,\pm\,3.4$	(distance \sim 3–5 Å). The binding orientation of compounds 86
13b		C7	13.4 ± 1.1	>50	
13c	$\overline{}$	C8	8.1 ± 0.8	>50	and 12b that exhibited superior inhibitory potency toward
14a			$6.8\,\pm\,0.7$	>50	BuChE was quite different (Fig. 4, panel B). The most potent
15a			6.7 ± 0.5	>50	BuChE inhibitor 8e underwent three hydrogen-bonding inter
Donepezil			0.03 ± 0.002	3.6 ± 0.4	actions centered around the C2 isopropylamine-NH, the 7
Galantamine			2.6 ± 0.6	>50	chloroquinazoline- $N1$ with His447 and Ser203 duo (distance \sim

 a IC₅₀ values were an average \pm SD of triplicate readings for two to three independent experiments.

This trend also extended to the AChE profiles, where 12b (AChE IC₅₀ \sim 5.8 µM) was \sim 2.3-fold more potent compared to 13**b**, it was also \sim 1.3-fold more potent compared to its 6- and 8-chloro isomers (12a and 12c). These studies show that combining the N,N-dimethylamine group at C2 with phenethylamine or 3,4 dimethoxyphenethylamine on a pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine scaffold resulted in equipotent and selective AChE inhibition (14a and **15a**, AChE IC₅₀ \sim 6.7 µM, BuChE IC₅₀ > 50 µM, Table 2). The quinazoline derivative 8e (7-chloro- N^2 -isopropyl- N^4 phenethylquinazoline-2,4-diamine) was the most potent BuChE inhibitor with an IC₅₀ \sim 100 nM, while 12b (7-chloro- N^2 , N^2 dimethyl-N⁴-phenethylquinazoline-2,4-diamine) was the most potent AChE inhibitor with an $IC_{50} \sim 5.8 \mu M$.

The binding interaction of quinazoline derivatives was investigated by using the X-ray crystal structures of human AChE (pdb id:1B41) and BuChE (pdb id:1P0I) enzymes.^{17,18} The binding modes of two best quinazoline based AChE inhibitors 9a and 12b in hAChE (Fig. 4, panel A) revealed quite similar

Fig. 4 Cholinesterase molecular docking studies. Panel (A): Binding modes of 9a (red) and 12b (green) in hAChE. Panel (B): Binding modes of 8e (red) and 12b (green) in hBuChE. Hydrogen atoms removed for clarity.

binding interactions, explaining their near-equipotent inhibition of the AChE (IC₅₀ \sim 6 μ M). In both derivatives, the 7chloroquinazoline ring scaffold was stacked parallel against Trp86 (distance \sim 4–6 Å) and the C4-benzylamino groups were extending from the catalytic site toward the peripheral anionic site (PAS), where the 3,4-dimethoxy moiety of compound 9a was undergoing favorable interactions with Trp286 (distance \sim 3–4 A). The C6 and C7 chlorine atoms were oriented toward the catalytic triad (distance \sim 6–8 Å), while the C2-alkylamine groups underwent hydrophobic interactions with Trp86 (distance \sim 3–5 Å). The binding orientation of compounds 8e and 12b that exhibited superior inhibitory potency toward BuChE was quite different (Fig. 4, panel B). The most potent BuChE inhibitor 8e underwent three hydrogen-bonding interactions centered around the C2 isopropylamine-NH, the 7 chloroquinazoline-N1 with His447 and Ser203 duo (distance \sim $2.5-3.5$ Å). The core ring scaffold was also oriented in the catalytic triad, with the C7 chlorine oriented toward the acyl pocket (Leu286-Val288, distance \sim 4-5 Å). The C4phenethylamine substituent was oriented perpendicular to Trp82 (Fig. 4, panel B). On the other hand, derivative 12b had its core scaffold and C4-phenethylamine substituent directly interacting with Trp82 (distance \sim 3–4 Å), while the *N*,*N*-dimethylamine was oriented toward the catalytic triad (distance \sim 4– (5 Å) which explains their superior inhibition profile.

2.3 Iron chelation properties

The presence of an additional ring nitrogen in the pyrido[3,2-d] pyrimidine class of compounds (10a–c, 11a–c, 14a and 15a) provides a chelation center.19,20 Due to the role of iron in promoting oxidative stress in AD²¹–²³ and its contribution in the formation of neurotoxic $\mathbf{A}\beta$ plaques and neurofibrillary tangles (NFTs), we assessed the Fe^{2+} -chelation potential of the pyrido $[3,2-d]$ pyrimidines (Table 3) in ferrozine based assay. The known iron chelators clioquinol and deferroxamine were used as reference agents. These studies show that, the C4 phenethylamine substituted compounds 10a–c exhibited better chelation capacity compared to their C4 3,4-

Table 3 Iron (Fe²⁺) chelation studies of pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidines

Compd	R	R ¹	$\%$ Fe ²⁺ Chelation ^{a}
10a	Phenethyl	$n-Pr$	$29.3 + 4.3$
10 b	Phenethyl	i-Pr	$23.6 + 4.0$
10 _c	Phenethyl	c -Pr	$37.0 + 5.6$
11a	3,4-DiOMe-phenethyl	$n-Pr$	$24.1 + 3.6$
11 b	3,4-DiOMe-phenethyl	i-Pr	$21.8 + 3.3$
11c	3,4-DiOMe-phenethyl	c -Pr	$26.7 + 4.0$
14a	Phenethyl		$22.9 + 3.4$
15a	3,4-DiOMe-phenethyl		23.0 ± 3.0
Clioquinol			$39.0 + 5.8$
Deferoxamine			$86.7 + 11.0$

^a % Fe²⁺ chelation values were an average \pm SD of duplicate readings for two independent experiments. The ferrozine absorbance was measured at 562 nm.

dimethoxyphenethyl dimethoxyphenethylamine counterparts 11a–c, 14a and 15a (inactive at 50 μ M).

Overall, these pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine compounds exhibited weak to moderate (22–37% chelation) iron-chelation capacity. Interestingly, the presence of a C2 cyclopropyl substituent provided the best chelation capacity compared to other C2 substituents explored with compound 10c exhibiting equipotent iron-chelation capability (37% chelation at 50 μ M) compared to the reference agent clioquinol (39% inhibition at 50 μ M, Table 3). More significantly, the corresponding quinazoline class of compounds did not exhibit any iron-chelation capacity highlighting the requirement of a pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine ring scaffold to display iron-chelation properties.

3 Conclusions

In summary, we synthesized and optimized the structure of quinazoline based ring scaffold as multi-targeting agents aimed at the amyloid, cholinergic, and oxidative stress pathways of AD pathophysiology. A number of agents synthesized exhibited dual Ab, ChE inhibition and iron-chelation capacity. The SAR acquired shows that compound 8h was the most potent $A\beta40$ aggregation inhibitor (IC₅₀ = 900 nM) and compound 8e provided dual A β (IC₅₀ A β 40 = 6.1 µM; A β 42 IC₅₀ = 7.2 µM) and ChE inhibition (IC₅₀ AChE = 6.6 μ M; BuChE IC₅₀ = 100 nM). The presence of a pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine bioisostere instead of a quinazoline was essential to exhibit iron-chelation properties (22–37% chelation) with compounds 10b and 10c exhibiting multi-targeting activity toward A β , ChE and iron-chelation properties. The data presented herein highlights the dual anti-Ab40/b42 aggregation, ChE inhibition, and metal-chelation capabilities of quinazoline and pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine class of compounds as multi-targeting agents to treat AD.

4 Materials and methods

4.1 General information

All chemicals and reagents used were purchased from either Sigma-Aldrich, USA or Alfa Aesar, USA and was used without

further purification. Melting points were determined using a Fisher-Johns melting point apparatus and are uncorrected. $^{1}\mathrm{H}$ NMR (300 MHz) and ¹³C NMR spectra (100 MHz) were recorded on a Bruker Avance NMR spectrometer in DMSO- d_6 . Coupling constants (J values) were recorded in hertz (Hz) and the following abbreviations were used to represent multiplets of NMR signals: $s = singlet, d = doublet, t = triplet, m = multiplet,$ $br = broad. Carbon multiplicities (C, CH, CH₂ and CH₃) were$ assigned by DEPT 90/135 experiments. Low-resolution mass spectra (LRMS) was obtained using an Agilent 6100 series single quad LCMS whereas high-resolution mass spectra (HRMS) were recorded on a Thermo Scientific Q Exactive™ mass spectrometer with an ESI source, Department of Chemistry, University of Waterloo. Compound purity was assessed $(\sim]95\%$ purity) using an Agilent 6100 series single quad LCMS equipped with an Agilent 1.8 µm Zorbax Eclipse Plus C18 (2.1 \times 50 mm) running 50 : 50 water/ACN with 0.1% FA at a flow rate of 0.5 mL min^{-1} with detection at 254 nm by UV. Compounds 3a–d and 4a were previously reported.²⁴–²⁶ Paper

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4.1.1 General procedure for the synthesis of compounds 3a–d. These compounds were synthesized as per previously reported method.^{24,26} In a 350 mL round pressure vial 16-18 g urea was heated at 150-155 $^{\circ}$ C till it melted. To the liquid urea solution 0.1 eq. of 1a, or 1b, or 1c or 1d was added. The pressure vial was sealed and heated at 150-155 °C for 2 h, cooled to room temperature, followed by the addition of water (100 mL) after which the reaction mixture was heated at 100-105 \degree C for 1 h. After cooling to room temperature, the reaction mixture was diluted with \sim 80 mL EtOAc and washed with brine solution (50 mL \times 4). The combined aqueous layers were washed with ${\sim}35$ mL EtOAc, dried over $MgSO₄$ and the organic solvent was removed in vacuo. The solid obtained (compounds 2a–d) was straightaway carried to the next step (yield 70–85%) without further purification. In a 250 mL RBF, 29.24 mmol of either 2a or 2b or 2c or 2d was suspended in 25 mL of anhydrous toluene and allowed to stir on an ice bath. To this, 5 eq. of POCl₃ was added in small aliquots followed by the slow addition of 5 eq. of DEA. The solution was kept on the ice bath for 10 min before moving to room temperature and allowed to stir for 1 h prior to refluxing at 105-110 °C for 14-16 h. Upon cooling to room temperature, the reaction mixture was added in small aliquots to a double-ice-water bath while stirring. The quenching solution was left stirring at room temperature for 5 h before vacuum filtering the yellowish-grey precipitate. The precipitate was stirred for 1 h in saturated NaHCO₃ solution and was filtered. This neutralization process was carried out 2–3 times until the bicarbonate solution maintains a neutral to slight basic pH. The final precipitate was dissolved in DCM and purified by a silica gel column chromatography using 100% DCM as the eluent to afford white to light grey solids 3a–d (65–80%).

4.1.2 General procedure for the synthesis of compounds 4a–c, 5a–c, 6a and 7a. These compounds were synthesized as per previously reported method.27,28 To a 30 mL solution of ethanol in a 100 mL round-bottom flask on ice, \sim 21.46-25.13 mmol of either 3a or 3b or 3c or 3d was added followed by slow addition of 1.3 eq. (27.90–32.66 mmol) of the corresponding primary amine. Contents were stirred on an ice bath while 2.0 eq. of diisopropyl-ethylamine (DIPEA, 42.92–50.25 mmol) was added in drop wise fashion. The solution was then heated at 80–85 \degree C under reflux for 3–4 h. The reaction contents were cooled to room temperature and precipitated residues were vacuum-filtered with EtOAc. The organic supernatant was concentrated in vacuo followed by two rounds of extraction using EtOAc and saturated brine solution (40–50 mL each respectively). The combined organic layers were dried over $MgSO₄$, evaporated *in vacuo* and purified (1–2 times) using silica gel column chromatography with 5 : 1 EtOAc : MeOH as the elution solvent to afford 4a–c, 5a–c, 6a and 7a as white to beige solids with yields ranging from 75–90%.

4.1.3 General procedure for the synthesis of compounds 8a–i, 9a–i, 10a–c, 11a–c, 12a–c, 13a–c, 14a and 15a. The target compounds were synthesized as per previously reported method.^{12,28} Briefly in a 50 mL pressure vial (PV), 0.25 g of 2,6dichloro, 2,7-dichloro or 2,8-dichloro-N-substituted quinazolin-4-amine or 2-chloro-N-substituted pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine-2,4 diamine (~0.66–0.83 mmol) was combined with 2 eq. (~1.32– 1.66 mmol) of primary amine (methyl-, ethyl-, n-propyl-, isopropyl- or cyclopropylamine) or dimethylamine which was dissolved in 5 mL of 1,4-dioxane followed by the addition of 3 eq. of DIPEA $(\sim$ 1.98–2.40 mmol). Pressure vial was sealed and stirred in an oil bath at 150–155 \degree C for 2 h. Upon completion and cooling to room temperature, the reaction mixture was diluted with \sim 40 mL of EtOAc and washed with brine solution (25 mL \times 2). The combined aqueous layer was washed with \sim 25 mL of EtOAc. The combined EtOAc layers were dried over $MgSO₄$ before removing EtOAc in vacuo to yield a solid product that was purified by silica gel column chromatography using $5:1$ EtOAc : MeOH as the eluent to afford pale yellow to brown solids (yield \sim 68–78%).

4.2 Experimental procedure for cholinesterase (hAChE/ hBuChE) inhibition

Quinazoline and pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine derivatives (8a–i, 9a–i, 10a–c, 11a–c, 12a–c, 13a–c, 14a and 15a) were evaluated for ChE inhibitory activity using Ellman's method.12,15,29 The test compounds compete with substrates acetylthiocholine iodide (ATChI) and S-butyrylthiocholine iodide (BuTChI) for either human AChE (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) or human BuChE (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO), respectively. Known ChE inhibitors donepezil and rivastigmine were used as reference agents for comparison. Quinazoline and pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine derivatives were prepared in DMSO (maximum concentration used 1% v/v) and 10 μ L each (0.001-25 μ M final concentration range), was incubated for 5 minutes at room temperature with 160 μ L of 1.5 mM DTNB, 50 μ L 0.22 U mL⁻¹ AChE (in 50 mm Tris HCl, pH 8.0, 0.1% w/v bovine serum albumin, BSA) or 50 μ L 0.12 U mL⁻¹ BuChE (in 50 mm Tris · HCl, pH 8.0, 0.1% w/v bovine serum albumin, BSA). After the incubation period, 30 μ L of ATChI (15 mM, prepared in ultra pure water) or BuTChI (15 mM, prepared in ultra pure water) were added to 96-well plates. The ChE inhibition was measured at 412 nm wavelength using a microplate reader (BioTek Synergy H1 microplate reader) at various time intervals $(t = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4)$

and 5 min). Appropriate controls, without the test compounds and ChE were included. The inhibitory concentration $(IC_{50}$ values) was calculated from the concentration-inhibition dose response curve on a logarithmic scale based on two independent experiments run in triplicates.

4.3 Experimental procedure for thioflavin T based $A\beta$ aggregation kinetics

The anti-A β aggregation activity of test compounds (8a–i, 9a–i, 10a–c, 11a–c, 12a–c, 13a–c, 14a and 15a), was evaluated using the ThT-based fluorescence assay.^{11,14} The A β 40 and A β 42 hexafluoro-2-propanol (HFIP) (rPeptide, Geogia, USA) stock solution was prepared by dissolving in 1% NH₄OH solution, to a 1 mg mL⁻¹ stock solution, followed by dilution to 50 μ M in phosphate buffer (215 mM, pH 7.4). Stock solutions of test compounds were prepared in DMSO, diluted in phosphate buffer (pH 7.4), and were sonicated for 30 min. The final DMSO concentration per each well was 1% v/v or lower. The ThT fluorescent dye stock solution (15 μ M) was prepared in 50 mM glycine buffer (pH 7.4). The aggregation kinetics assay was carried out using a Corning® 384-well flat, clear bottom black plates. Each well contains 44 μ L of ThT, 20-35 μ L of phosphate buffer (pH 7.4), 8 μ L of test compounds in different concentrations (1, 5, 10 and 25 μ M, final concentration) and 8 μ L of either A β 40 or A β 42 (5 µM final concentration). The plate was incubated at 37 \degree C with a plate cover under shaking and fluorescence was measured every 5 min using a BioTek Synergy H1 microplate reader multimode plate reader (excitation $=$ 440 nm and emission $= 490$ nm) over a period of 24 h. Appropriate control experiments that contain either A β 40/42 and test compound alone were evaluated. The known $\mathbf{A}\beta$ aggregation inhibitors curcumin and resveratrol were used as reference agents. The IC₅₀ value (μ M) was calculated using the equation 100% control – [(IFi–IFo)] where 100% control indicates no inhibitor, IFi and IFo are the fluorescence intensities in the presence and absence of ThT. The results were expressed as IC_{50} values \pm SD based on two separate experiments in triplicate measurements. BSC Advances Workelabones Article comparisons Article. Published on 2013. The methods are noted to the methods are noted to the methods are noted to the methods of the methods of the methods of the methods of the methods

4.4 Experimental procedure for transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

In Costar 96-well, round-bottom plates were added 80 µL of 215 mM phosphate buffer, 20 μ L of 10 \times test compound dilutions (250 μ M – prepared in the same way as for the ThT assay) and 100 μ L of A β 40 or A β 42 respectively (50 μ M each). For the control wells, 2 μ L of DMSO and 18 μ L of phosphate buffer was added. Final A β : test compound ratio was 1 : 1 (25 μ M : 25 μ M). Plates were incubated on a Fisher plate incubator set to 37 \degree C and the contents were shaken at 730 cpm for 24 h. To prepare the TEM grids, \sim 20 μ L droplet was added using a disposable Pasteur pipette over the formvar-coated copper grids (400 mesh). Grids were air-dried for about 3 h before adding two droplets (\sim 40 µL, using a disposable Pasteur pipette) of ultrapure water and using small pieces of filter paper to wash out precipitated buffer salts. After air-drying for \sim 15-20 min, the grids were negatively stained by adding a droplet (\sim 20 \upmu L, using

a disposable Pasteur pipette) of 2% phosphotungstic acid (PTA) and immediately after the grids were dried using small pieces of filter paper. Grids were further air-dried overnight. The scanning was carried out using a Philips CM 10 transmission electron microscope at 60 kV (Department of Biology, University of Waterloo) and micrographs were obtained using a 14-megapixel AMT camera.^{11,30}

4.5 Experimental procedure for molecular docking studies

The modeling experiments were carried out using Discovery Studio (DS), Structure-Based-Design version 4.0, software program from BIOVIA Inc, San Diego, USA. Quinazoline and pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine derivatives 8e, 8h, 9a, 10b and 12b were built using the small molecules module in DS. For ChE docking studies, the X-ray coordinates of human AChE (pdb id:1B41) and BuChE (pdb id:1P0I) were obtained from protein data bank. The enzymes were prepared for docking using the macromolecules module in DS. The ligand binding site was defined by a 12 A sphere for both AChE and BuChE.^{29,31} Docking simulation was carried out using the LibDock algorithm. During the docking simulation, CHARMm force field was used. The docked poses were evaluated using CDOCKER energy, CDOCKER interaction energy in kcal mol $^{-1}$ and by considering the type and number of polar and nonpolar contacts.³² The molecular docking of test compounds with the $\mathbf{A}\beta$ assembly was carried out by using the NMR solution structure (pdb id:2LMN). The A β dimer and A β fibril assemblies were built using the macromolecules module in DS.³² Ligand binding site was defined by selecting a 15 \AA radius sphere for both A β dimer and fibril assembly. Molecular docking was performed using the receptor–ligand interactions module in DS. The LibDock algorithm was used to find the most appropriate binding modes of quinazoline/pyrido[3,2-d]pyrimidine derivatives (8h and 10b) using CHARMm force field. The docked poses obtained were ranked based on the LibDock scores and the binding modes were analyzed by evaluating all the polar and nonpolar contacts between the ligands and Abdimer and fibril regions. Paper

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4.6 Experimental procedure for iron $[Fe(\theta)]$ chelation assay

Determined using the ferrozine (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) based competitive colorimetic assay.²³ Test compounds were initially dissolved in anhydrous methanol to 10 mM and diluted down to 105 μ M using 100 mM tris buffer (pH 7.4). Then 95 μ L of test compound solutions (final concentration of 50 μ M in each well) were added to clear 96-well plates, followed by a 10 μ L aliquot of iron sulphate (FeSO₄·7H₂O) stock solution (from 800 µM stock solution prepared in methanol). After a 5 minute incubation period at room temperature, 95 µL ferrozine solution (from 210 μ M stock solution prepared in tris buffer) was added. After incubating at room temperature for 30 minutes the absorbance was measured at 562 nm and subtracted from compound blanks (95 μ L of compound solutions + 105 μ L of tris buffer) and compared to the ferrozine-only positive control (95 μ L of tris buffer + 10 μ L of iron sulphate + 95 μ L of ferrozine). The results obtained were compared with known iron chelators; clioquinol (50 μ M) and desferoxamine (50 μ M). The results were reported

as average % iron-chelation \pm SD in triplicate measurements based on two independent experiments.

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