The preparation and evaluation of xanthinyl analogues
as inhibitors of monoamine oxidase B

Kevin R. Zoellner
B.Pharm.

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Magister Scientiae in Pharmaceutical Chemistry at the North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus

Supervisor: Dr. J.P. Petzer
Co-supervisor: Prof. J.J. Bergh
Assistant supervisor: Prof. S.F. Malan

2006

Potchefstroom
Abstract

Monoamine oxidase B (MAO-B) is a drug target for the treatment of neurodegenerative diseases such as Parkinson's disease. For example, the mechanism-based inactivator of MAO-B, (R)-deprenyl, is frequently used in combination with L-dopa as dopamine replacement therapy in Parkinson's disease. In contrast with reversible inhibitors, following treatment with inactivators such as (R)-deprenyl, enzyme activity can only be regained via de novo synthesis of the MAO-B protein. For this reason, several studies are currently underway to develop safer inhibitors of MAO-B as an alternative to (R)-deprenyl. These inhibitors are required to be reversible while retaining selectivity towards MAO-B. We have recently identified (E)-8-(3-chlorostyryl)caffeine (CSC) as an exceptionally potent reversible inhibitor of MAO-B with an enzyme-inhibitor dissociation constant ($K_i$ value) of 128 nM.

In an attempt to identify the structural features that are responsible for the high inhibition potency of CSC, we have synthesized six additional analogues of CSC and examined their MAO-B inhibition potencies in vitro. The analogues chosen for this study are illustrated below. All of the analogues were found to be reversible inhibitors of baboon liver MAO-B with $K_i$ values in the nano-molar to low micro-molar range.
The most potent inhibitor of MAO-B was found to be (E)-8-(3,4-dichlorostyryl)caffeine with a $K_i$ value of 36 nM, approximately 3.5 times more potent than the lead compound CSC. (E)-8-(3-bromostyryl)caffeine was also found to be a potent inhibitor with a $K_i$ value of 86 nM, also more potent than the lead compound CSC. The thiényl and furyl substituted compounds proved to be moderate inhibitors with $K_i$ values in the low micro-molar range.
Monoamien oxidase B (MAO-B) is 'n belangrike geneesmiddel teiken vir die behandeling van neurodegeneratiewe siektes soos Parkinson se siekte. Byvoorbeeld, die MAO-B inakteerder (R)-deprenyl word gereeld gebruik in kombinasie met L-dopa, as dopamien vervangings terapie, vir Parkinsonisme. In kontras met omkeerbare inhibeerders, kan die MAO-B ensiem eers aktiwiteit herwin deur de novo sintese van die MAO-B protein, na behandeling met inakteerders soos (R)-deprenyl. Vir hierdie rede is daar tans verskeie studies onderweg, om veiliger inhibeerders van MAO-B, as alternatief tot (R)-deprenyl, te ontwikkel. Hierdie inhibeerders moet omkeerbaar wees, terwyl selektiwiteit vir die MAO-B isoform behou word. (E)-8-(3-Chlorostiriel)kaffeien is onlangs geïdentifiseer as 'n besondere potente inhibeerder van MAO-B met 'n ensiem-inhibeerder dissosiasie konstante (K_i waarde) van 128 nM.

Om die strukturele eienskappe te identifiseer wat verantwoordelik is vir CSC se hoe inhibisie potensie, het ons additionele analoë van CSC gesintetiseer en hul MAO-B inhibisie potensies in vitro ondersoek. Die analoë wat in hierdie studie ondersoek is, word hieronder aangedui. Daar is bevind dat al die analoë wat ondersoek is, inhibisie van MAO-B getoon het, met K_i waardes in die lae nano- en mikro-molaar konsentrasie gebied.
Die \((E)-8-(3,4\text{-Dichlorostiriel})\)kafeien analoog was die potentste van die reeks met 'n \(K\)-waarde van 36 nM ongeveer 3.5 keer meer potent as die leidraad verbinding CSC. Die tweede potenste verbinding was die \((E)-8-(3\text{-bromostiriel})\)kafeien, met 'n \(K\), waarde van 86 nM ook meer potent as CSC. Die heterosikliese verbindings was almal middelmatig potente inhibeerders van MAO-B, met \(K\), waardes in die lae mikro-molaar gebied.
This investigation was carried out at the Department of Pharmaceutical Chemistry, North-West University (Potchefstroom campus).

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the following people and organizations:

- To my supervisor and friend, Dr. J.P. Petzer, for your leadership, patience and encouragement up to the completion of this study. Thank you for sharing your knowledge and guidance with the necessary techniques and skills.

- I would like to thank Prof. J.J. Bergh for his exceptional outlook on life and science. You gave me the chance to participate in important research that will always contribute to my future.

- To Prof. S.F. Malan, for your inspiring ideas and support.

- Prof. Neal Castagnoli for his generous gift of the MMTP used in this study.

- To my father, mother and brother – thank you for your endless support and love that made this journey possible!
Abstract ........................................................................................................... i

Uittreksel ........................................................................................................... iii

Acknowledgements ........................................................................................... v

Index ................................................................................................................ vi

List of figures ................................................................................................... ix

Chapter 1: Introduction .................................................................................. 11

1.1 Monoamine Oxidase B ............................................................................... 11

1.2 Study Aim .................................................................................................. 13

1.3 Synthetic Pathway ................................................................................... 14

1.4 Enzymology .............................................................................................. 15

1.5 Summary ................................................................................................... 15

Chapter 2: Synthesis ..................................................................................... 17

2.1 Preparation of (E)-8-styrylcaffeine derivatives ........................................ 17

2.1.1 The general synthetic approach for 5,6-diaminouracil derivatives .......... 17

2.1.2 Synthetic approaches towards synthesis of caffeine analogues .......... 18

2.1.3 Chemicals and instrumentation ............................................................. 19

2.1.4 1,3-Dimethyl-6-aminouracil (D) ............................................................ 19

2.1.5 1,3-Dimethyl-5-nitroso-6-aminouracil (E) ............................................. 20
Chapter 3: Enzymology ........................................................................... 24

3.1 Introduction .................................................................................... 24
3.2 Monoamine oxidase ........................................................................ 24
3.3 MPTP and Parkinson’s disease ....................................................... 25
3.4 Irreversible inhibitors of MAO-B ................................................... 27
3.5 Reversible inhibitors (Historical background) ............................... 27
3.6 MAO-B inhibition and adenosine A2A receptor antagonism ........ 29
3.7 Approaches to the measurement of MAO-B activity in vitro .......... 31
3.8 Enzyme kinetics – $K_m$ and $V_{max}$ determination ....................... 33
3.9 Enzyme kinetics – $K_i$ determination ........................................... 35
3.10 Experimental Section ................................................................. 38
3.11 MAO-B incubations for the inhibition studies ............................ 38
3.12 Results ........................................................................................ 39
3.13 Conclusion and Summary ............................................................ 43

Chapter 4: Conclusion .......................................................................... 43

References .......................................................................................... 45

Appendix .............................................................................................. 53

1.1 (E)-8-(3,5-Ditrifluoromethylstyryl)caffeine $^1$H-NMR ....................... 53
1.2 (E)-8-(3,5-Ditrifluoromethylstyryl)caffeine $^{13}$C-NMR .................... 54
1.3 (E)-8-(3,4-Dichlorostyryl)caffeine $^1$H-NMR ................................... 55
1.4 (E)-8-(3,4-Dichlorostyryl)caffeine $^{13}$C-NMR .......................................................... 56
1.5 (E)-8-(3-Bromostyryl)caffeine $^1$H-NMR .......................................................... 57
1.6 (E)-8-(3-Bromostyryl)caffeine $^{13}$C-NMR .......................................................... 58
1.7 (E)-8-(2-Thienylethenyl)caffeine $^1$H-NMR .......................................................... 59
1.8 (E)-8-(2-Thienylethenyl)caffeine $^{13}$C-NMR .......................................................... 60
1.9 (E)-8-(3-Thienylethenyl)caffeine $^1$H-NMR .......................................................... 61
1.10 (E)-8-(3-Thienylethenyl)caffeine $^{13}$C-NMR ......................................................... 62
1.11 (E)-8-(2-Furylethenyl)caffeine $^1$H-NMR .......................................................... 63
1.12 (E)-8-(2-Furylethenyl)caffeine $^{13}$C-NMR .......................................................... 64
Figure 1-1: The structures of (R)-Deprenyl (1), Dopamine (2) and MPTP (3)......................... 11

Figure 1-2: The structures of and rasagiline (4), lazabemide (5) and safinamide (6)........... 12

Figure 1-3: (E)-8-(3-Chloroaryl)caffeine (CSC) (7), the lead compound for this study. ................................................................................................................................. 13

Figure 1-4: The structures of the caffeine analogues that will be examined in this study (8a–f). ................................................................. 14

Figure 1-5: The synthetic pathway to the caffeine analogues that will be examined in this study. .......................................................................................................................... 15

Figure 2-1: Synthetic pathway to 1,3-dimethyl-5,6-diaminouracil (F)................................ 18

Figure 2-2: Synthetic pathway to substituted xanthinyl derivatives .................................. 19

Figure 2-3: Synthetic pathway to the target compounds examined in this study ............... 21

Figure 3-1: Oxidative deamination of dopamine to form toxic metabolites ....................... 25

Figure 3-2: The oxidation of MPTP by MAO-B................................................................. 26

Figure 3-3: The structures of (R)-deprenyl (1) and Rasagiline (4). .................................. 27

Figure 3-4: The structures of previously reported reversible inhibitors of MAO-B. .......... 28

Figure 3-5: The structures of adenosine A2A receptor antagonists CSC (7) and KW-6002 (18) ......................................................................................................................... 31

Figure 3-6: The oxidation of MMTP (19) to form the spectrophotometrically quantifiable MMDP+ (20). MMDP+ is stable to further oxidation in vitro. ........................................ 32
Figure 3-7: The oxidation of kynuramine (21) by MAO-B and subsequent cyclization to yield 4-hydroxyquinoline (22) ............................................................................................................. 33

Figure 3-8: Graphical presentation of the Michealis-Menten equation (V versus [S]) .......... 34

Figure 3-9: A Lineweaver-Burke plot (1/V versus 1/[S]) .......................................................... 35

Figure 3-10: Competitive inhibition reaction scheme ................................................................. 36

Figure 3-11: Lineweaver-Burke plots of a reversible inhibitor with inhibitor concentrations of 0, 10 and 20 µM ......................................................................................................... 37

Figure 3-12: A graphical illustration of estimating a K_i value from Lineweaver-Burke plots. ............................................................................................................................... 37

Figure 3-13: Lineweaver-Burke plots of the oxidation of MMTP by baboon liver MAO-B in the absence (filled circles) and presence of various concentrations of 8e (open circles, 1 µM; filled triangles, 2 µM; open triangles, 4 µM). The concentration of the baboon liver mitochondrial preparation was 0.15 mg/mL and the rates are expressed as nmoles.mg protein⁻¹.min⁻¹ of MMDP⁺ formed. The inset is the replot of the slopes versus the inhibitor concentrations....... 40

Figure 3-14: Lineweaver-Burke plots of the oxidation of MMTP by baboon liver MAO-B in the absence (filled circles) and presence of various concentrations of 8b (open circles, 0.1 µM; filled triangles, 0.2 µM; open triangles, 0.4 µM). The concentration of the baboon liver mitochondrial preparation was 0.15 mg/mL and the rates are expressed as nmoles.mg protein⁻¹.min⁻¹ of MMDP⁺ formed. The inset is the replot of the slopes versus the inhibitor concentrations....... 40

Figure 4-1: Structures of trans,trans-farnesol (15) and isatin (13) .................................................. 43
1.1 Monoamine Oxidase B

Monoamine oxidase (MAO) is a flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD)-containing enzyme attached to the mitochondrial outer membrane of neuronal, glial, and other cells. Its roles include regulation of the levels of biogenic and xenobiotic amines in the brain and the peripheral tissues by catalyzing their oxidative deamination (Bach et al., 1988). On the basis of their substrate and inhibitor specificities, two types of MAO (A and B) have been described. MAO-A preferentially deaminates serotonin, norepinephrine, and epinephrine (Waldemier, 1987) and is irreversibly inhibited by low concentrations of clorgyline. MAO-B preferentially deaminates β-phenylethylamine and benzylamine and is irreversibly inhibited by (R)-deprenyl (1) (Figure 1-1) (Grimsby et al., 1990). Both isoforms utilize dopamine (2) as substrate with MAO-B having the higher catalytic turnover (Youdim & Bakhle, 2006). Due to their role in the metabolism of catecholamine neurotransmitters, MAO-A and -B have long been of considerable pharmacological interest and reversible and irreversible inhibitors of MAO-A and -B have been used clinically to treat neurological disorders including depression and Parkinson’s disease (PD) (The Parkinson Study Group, 1989). MAO-B has also been implicated in neurodegenerative processes resulting from exposure to xenobiotic amines. For example, the first step of the bioactivation of the parkinsonian inducing pro-neurotoxin 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP) (3) is catalyzed by MAO-B (Chiba et al., 1985a).

![Figure 1-1: The structures of (R)-Deprenyl (1), Dopamine (2) and MPTP (3).]
MAO-A and -B are therefore important targets for the development of new drugs. We are particularly interested in the therapeutic role of MAO-B inhibitors in the treatment of Parkinson’s disease. Since MAO-B is the isoform predominantly responsible for dopamine metabolism in the basal ganglia, inhibition of this enzyme in the brain may conserve the depleted supply of dopamine and inhibitors are frequently used in combination with L-dopa as dopamine replacement therapy in patients diagnosed with early PD (Rabey et al., 2000). For example, MAO-B inhibitors have been shown to elevate dopamine levels in the striatum of primates treated with L-dopa (Finberg et al., 1998). Furthermore, in the catalytic cycle of MAO, one mole of dopaldehyde and H₂O₂ is produced for each mole of dopamine oxidized. Both these catabolic products may be neurotoxic if not rapidly inactivated by centrally located aldehyde dehydrogenase and glutathione peroxidase, respectively. Thus inhibitors of MAO-B may also exert a neuroprotective effect by stoichiometrically decreasing aldehyde and H₂O₂ production in the brain (Youdim & Bakhle, 2006). Inhibitors that have been demonstrated to be of clinical value include the mechanism-based inactivators (R)-deprenyl (The Parkinson Study Group, 1989) and rasagiline (4) (Rabey et al., 2000) and reversible inhibitors such as lazabemide (5) (The Parkinson Study Group, 1996) and safinamide (6) (Chazot, 2001) (Figure 1-2). From a safety point of view, reversible inhibitors may be therapeutically more desirable than inactivators since MAO-B activity can be regained relatively quickly following withdrawal of the reversible inhibitor. In contrast, return of enzyme activity following treatment with inactivators requires de novo synthesis of the MAO-B protein which may require up to two weeks. For this reason, several studies are currently underway to develop reversible inhibitors of MAO-B. These inhibitors act typically in a competitive manner while retaining selectivity towards MAO-B.

![Figure 1-2](image_url): The structures of rasagiline (4), lazabemide (5) and safinamide (6).
We have recently reported that (E)-8-styrylcaffeines act as moderate to very potent competitive inhibitors of MAO-B (Petzer et al., 2003). In contrast caffeine only weakly inhibited the enzyme (Chen et al., 2002), which indicates that substitution at C-8 enhances affinity of caffeine analogues for the active site of MAO-B. Substitution at C-8 with an electron deficient styryl functional group produced structures that were especially potent inhibitors. For example, the most potent member of the series was found to be (E)-8-(3-chlorostyryl)caffeine (CSC) (7) with an enzyme–inhibitor dissociation constant (Kᵢ value) of 128 nM (Vlok et al., 2006). A structure-activity relationship (SAR) study indicated that the structural features important for MAO-B inhibition are the trans configuration about the styryl double bond and 1,3,7-trimethyl substitution of the xanthine ring. The literature supports the proposal that wide variety of planar, heterocyclic compounds frequently act as competitive inhibitors of MAO-B. Accordingly a small series of (E)-2-styrylbenzimidazoles were shown to be moderate competitive inhibitors of MAO-B (Petzer et al., 2003). In the present study we have examined additional caffeine analogues (8a–f) (Figure 1-4), in an attempt to identify compounds with improved MAO-B inhibition potency. Among the compounds studied was (E)-8-(3-bromostyryl)caffeine (8a). Applying a multivariate predictive equation constructed in a previous study (Vlok et al., 2006) this putative inhibitor is predicted to have a Kᵢ value for the inhibition of MAO-B of 106 nM.

![CSC (7)](image)

Figure 1-3: (E)-8-(3-Chlorostyryl)caffeine (CSC) (7), the lead compound for this study.

1.2 Study Aim

In this study we will prepare additional analogues of CSC in an attempt to identify the specific structural features responsible for potent MAO-B inhibition. Earlier studies suggested that structural features important for MAO-B inhibition are the trans configuration of the styryl moiety and 1,3,7-trimethyl substitution of the caffeine ring. As part of the present study, the compounds chosen will retain the caffeine core and only differ in substitution at the 8-position of the caffeine ring. All of the compounds chosen will be synthesized and evaluated as reversible inhibitors of MAO-B. The structures (8a–f) that will be examined in this study are illustrated in Figure 1-4. Among the compounds that will be studied is (E)-8-(3-bromostyryl)caffeine (8a). Applying a multivariate predictive equation constructed in a previous study (Vlok et al., 2006) this putative inhibitor is
predicted to have a $K_i$ value for the inhibition of MAO-B of 106 nM. Also included in this study are analogues substituted at C-8 with 2-furylethenyl (8d), 2-thienylethenyl (8e) and 3-thienylethenyl (8f). A 3-furyl analogue will not be included in this study because the 3-(3-furyl) acrylic acid is not commercially available. These compounds were included in order to determine the influence of electron deficient aromatic rings on MAO-B inhibition activity. We have also included (E)-8-styrylcaffeine analogues that are disubstituted on the styryl phenyl ring (8b and 8c).

![Figure 1-4: The structures of the caffeine analogues that will be examined in this study (8a–f).](image)

1.3 Synthetic Pathway

The procedures by which 8-substituted caffeyl analogues will be synthesized are documented in the literature (Suzuki et al., 1993). Acylation of 1,3-dimethyl-5,6-diaminouracil with an appropriate commercially available carboxylic acid in the presence of a carbodiimide reagent (1-ethyl-2-[3-(dimethylamino)propyl]-carbodiimide, EDAC) followed by treatment with sodium hydroxide results in the corresponding 1,3-dimethyl-7H-xanthinyl analogues. These reaction intermediates will be 7N-methylated in the presence of an excess of iodomethane and potassium carbonate to yield the target compounds. Following recrystallization from a suitable solvent the structures and purity of the compounds will be verified by mass spectrometry and NMR. The trans geometry about the double bond will confirmed by a proton-proton coupling constants which are in the range of 15-16 Hz.
Chapter 1: Introduction

Figure 1-5: The synthetic pathway to the caffeine analogues that will be examined in this study.
Key: (i) EDAC; (ii) NaOH; (iii) CH$_3$I, K$_2$CO$_3$.

1.4 Enzymology

As source of MAO-B we will use the mitochondrial fraction from baboon liver tissue. MAO-B from baboon liver is reported to have approximately the same inhibitor specificities as MAO-B obtained from human liver (Hubálek et al., 2005). Because of its ease of operation we will employ spectrophotometry to measure MAO-B activity. As enzyme substrate we routinely use 1-methyl-4-(1-methylpyrrol-2-yl)-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MMTP) (Vlok et al., 2006). Each incubation will contain MAO-B (0.15 mg/mL of the mitochondrial fraction), MMTP (30-120 µM) and various concentrations of the test inhibitor dissolved in sodium phosphate buffer. Following a 15 minute incubation period the reactions will be terminated by the addition of perchloric acid and the concentration of MMDP$^*$ (the oxidation product of MMTP) will be measured spectrophotometrically at a wavelength of 420 nm. $K_I$ values are obtained from a replot of the slopes of the Lineweaver-Burke plots vs. the inhibitor concentration (Vlok et al., 2006).

1.5 Summary

Idiopathic Parkinson’s disease (PD) is a neurological disorder, characterized by the marked loss of dopaminergic nigrostriatal neurons, and clinically by disabling movement disorders. Treatment for PD relies on replacement of diminished dopamine stores, via treatment with L-dopa. MAO-B inhibitors have also been shown to be of value in the treatment of PD. Currently irreversible inhibitors of MAO-B, such as (R)-deprenyl are most frequently used for the treatment of PD. Because of safety considerations, reversible inhibitors may be more desirable as a treatment strategy. Our approach to developing novel inhibitors of MAO-B is based on previous studies with
the reversible MAO-B inhibitor, (E)-8-(3-chlorostyryl)caffeine (CSC) (7) (Figure 1-3). SAR studies indicated that the trans configuration, and 1,3,7-trimethyl substitution of the caffeine ring, are important for potent inhibitory effect. Based on this knowledge six derivatives of CSC will be synthesized, and their enzyme dissociation constants (K\text{d} values) will be determined.
2.1 Preparation of (E)-8-styrylcaffeine derivatives

Substitution of caffeine with a (E)-styryl functional group at the 8 position results in compounds that are exceptionally potent reversible inhibitors of MAO-B. Using standard literature procedures (Suzuki et al., 1993; Jacobson et al., 1993; Müller et al., 1997a) six 8-substituted caffeine derivatives were prepared in this study.

2.1.1 The general synthetic approach for 5,6-diaminouracil derivatives

For the synthesis of caffeine derivatives most of the reported methods make use of 5,6-diaminouracil (F) as starting material. 5,6-Diaminouracil can be prepared according to a general procedure first described by Traube (1900) in which a symmetric dimethylurea (A) is condensed with cyanoacetic acid (B) in the presence of acetic anhydride (i) to yield a cyanoacetylurea intermediate (C) (Figure 2-1). On treatment with aqueous sodium hydroxide (Papesch & Schroeder, 1951) or a metal alkoxide base (ii) (Triplett et al., 1978) ring closure takes place to form 1,3-dimethyl-6-aminouracil (D). When D is treated with sodium nitrite in the presence of an acid (iii), 1,3-dimethyl-5-nitroso-6-diaminouracil (E) is formed which can be reduced to the desired 5,6-diaminouracil (F) with sodium hydrosulfite (iv) (Blicke & Godt, 1954; Speer & Raymond, 1953).
2.1.2 Synthetic approaches towards synthesis of caffeine analogues

For the synthesis of substituted caffeine analogues most literature procedures make use a 5,6-diaminouracil derivative (F) as key starting material (figure 2-2) (Shimada et al., 1992; Müller et al., 1997a; Suzuki et al., 1993). Acylation of the uracil (F) with a carboxylic acid followed by treatment with aqueous sodium hydroxide give the corresponding 7H-xanthinyl derivative (I) (Shimada et al., 1992). A commercial carbodiimide reagent is used to convert the carboxylic acid to the active acylation agent. The carbodiimide most frequently used is 1-ethyl-3-[3-(dimethylamino-propyl]carbodiimide (EDAC) (Müller et al., 1997). Another approach to this reaction has been documented by Jacobson et al., (1993). The uracil (F) is acylated by an acid chloride in pyridine as solvent (Shimada et al., 1992; Müller et al., 1997a). The amide intermediate (G) can be cyclized by treating with phosphorous oxychloride or aqueous sodium hydroxide (Shimada et al., 1992). Condensation of an aldehyde with the uracil (F) is also frequently reported. The product an imine (H), is subsequently subjected to oxidative ring closure using ferric chloride or thienyl chloride (vii). Most frequently methylation of the 7-N position (J) is required for potent inhibition of the MAO-B enzyme. This is achieved by addition of iodomethane in the presence of a weak base such as potassium carbonate (ix).
Figure 2-2: Synthetic pathway to substituted xanthinyl derivatives. Key: (v) Ar\text{COCl} pyridine or Ar\text{CO}_2\text{H}, 1-ethyl-3-[3-(dimethylamino)-propyl]carbodiimide (EDAC). (vi) Ar\text{CHO}, acetic acid. (vii) Na\text{OH} (aq), reflux or PCl\text{,}, reflux. (viii) Fe\text{Cl}_3, reflux or SO\text{Cl}_2. (ix) CH\text{I}_3, K\text{,}\text{CO}_3.

2.1.3 Chemicals and instrumentation

All starting materials not described elsewhere were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich and were used without purification. Proton and carbon NMR spectra were recorded on a Varian Gemini 300 spectrometer. Proton (\textsuperscript{1}H) spectra were recorded in CDCl\textsubscript{3} at a frequency of 300 MHz and carbon (\textsuperscript{13}C) spectra at 75 MHz. Chemical shifts are reported in parts per million (\delta) downfield from the signal of tetramethylsilane added to the deuterated solvent. Spin multiplicities are given as s (singlet), d (doublet), t (triplet), q (quartet) or m (multiplet) and the coupling constants (\textit{J}) are given in hertz (Hz). Direct insertion electron impact ionization (EIMS) and high resolution mass spectra (HRMS) were obtained on a VG 7070E mass spectrometer. Melting points (mp) were determined on a Gallenkamp melting point apparatus. All the melting points are uncorrected. Thin layer chromatography (TLC) was carried out using silica gel 60 (Macherey-Nagel) containing UV\textsubscript{254} fluorescent indicator.

2.1.4 1,3-Dimethyl-6-aminouracil (D)

1,3-Dimethylurea (A) (55 mmol) and cyanoacetic acid (B) (55 mmol) were dissolved in 7.1 mL acetic anhydride with the exclusion of moisture (anhydrous calcium chloride trap). After the mixture was heated and stirred at 60 °C for 3 to 5 hours the excess anhydride and acetic acid were removed under reduced pressure, to yield a light yellow oil (C). Slow addition of an aqueous sodium hydroxide solution (5 %) to the stirred residue on ice resulted in the formation of 1,3-
dimethyl-6-aminouracil (D) as precipitate, which was collected by filtration. The reaction was monitored using silica gel thin layer chromatography with 100 % methanol, as mobile phase. Yield 81.5 %; MP 188 °C, literature, 198-199 °C (Papesch & Schroeder, 1951).

2.1.5 1,3-Dimethyl-5-nitroso-6-aminouracil (E)

A solution of sodium nitrite (36 mmol) in 15 mL water was added to D (30 mmol) suspended in 30 mL water and the mixture was acidified by the dropwise addition of 3.6 mL aqueous acetic acid (36 %) over a period of one hour. Stirring was continued for an additional 3 hours at room temperature. After cooling to 0 °C, the violet precipitate (E) was isolated by filtration and washed with water. Compound E was obtained in a yield of 95 % mp >240 °C, literature, 233 °C (Blicke & Godt, 1954).

2.1.6 1,3-Dimethyl-5,6-diaminouracil (F)

1,3-Dimethyl-5-nitroso-6-aminouracil (E) (16.4 mmol) was suspended in 16.4 mL ammonia water (30 %) to yield a yellow orange suspension. While heating the suspension at 40 °C, sodium hydrosulfite (51.9 mmol) in 7.2 mL distilled water, was added portionwise over a period of 20 minutes. Stirring was continued for another 30 minutes. The reaction turned into a light yellow solution which was cooled on ice. The product (F) crystallized from solution and was collected by filtration. This reaction was monitored using thin layer chromatography with 100% methanol as mobile phase. (F) Was obtained in a yield of 85 % mp 206 °C, literature 209 °C (Blicke & Godt, 1954).

2.1.7 General procedure for the synthesis of the (E)-8-styrylcaffeinyln analogues (8a–f)

The (E)-8-styrylcaffeine analogues (8a–f) examined in this study were prepared according to the procedure described by Suzuki and co-workers (Suzuki et al., 1993). 1,3-Dimethyl-5,6-diaminouracil (F, 3.50 mmol) and 1-ethyl-2-[3-(dimethylamino)propyl]-carbodiimide hydrochloride (EDAC, 5.11 mmol) was dissolved in 40 mL dioxane: H2O (1:1) followed by the addition of the appropriate commercially available carboxylic acid (3.81 mmol). The pH of the suspension was adjusted to 5 with 2 M aqueous hydrochloric acid and stirring was continued for an additional 2 hours. The reaction was neutralized with 1 M aqueous sodium hydroxide, cooled to 0 °C and the resulting precipitate was collected by filtration. The crude product was dissolved in 40 mL aqueous sodium hydroxide (1 M):dioxane (1:1) and heated for 2 hours under reflux. The reaction solution was cooled to 0 °C, acidified to a pH of 4 with 4 M aqueous hydrochloric acid and the precipitate
was collected by filtration (i). The resulting 8-substituted analogues (I) were reacted in the subsequent reaction without further purification. Iodomethane (0.40 mmol) was added to a stirred suspension of \( I \) (0.20 mmol) and potassium carbonate (0.50 mmol) in 5 mL DMF (ix). Stirring was continued at 60 °C for 60 minutes, the insoluble materials were removed by filtration and sufficient water was added to the filtrate to precipitate the product (8a–f) that was collected by filtration. Following recrystallization from a mixture of methanol:ethyl acetate (9:1) analytically pure samples of 8a–f were obtained. For previously reported 8e we found the melting point to be 218 °C while the reported melting point is 216–218 °C (Del Guidice et al., 1996). NMR and MS data also correlated to that described.

\[(\text{v}) \quad 1\text{-ethyl-3-[3-(dimethylamino)-propyl]carbodiimide (EDAC), NaOH, reflux (ix) CH}_3\text{I, K}_2\text{CO}_3.\]

\[(\text{J}) \]

\[(\text{E})\]

\[(\text{F})\]

**Figure 2-3:** Synthetic pathway to the target compounds examined in this study. Key: (v) 1-ethyl-3-[3-(dimethylamino)-propyl]carbodiimide (EDAC), NaOH, reflux (ix) CH₃I, K₂CO₃.

\((E)-8-(3\text{-Bromostyryl})\text{caffeine (8a)}\) was prepared from 1,3-dimethyl-5,6-diaminouracil (F) and trans-3-bromocinnamic acid in a yield of 37 %: mp > 240 °C (capillary method); \(^1\text{H NMR (CDCl}_3\) \( \delta \) 3.38 (s, 3H), 3.59 (s, 3H), 4.05 (s, 3H), 6.88(d, 1H, \( J \) = 15.8 Hz), 7.25 (m, 1H), 7.45(dd, 2H, \( J \) = 1.7, 7.9 Hz), 7.70 (d, 1H, \( J \) = 15.7 Hz), 7.71 (t, 1H, \( J \) = 1.8 Hz); \(^{13}\text{C NMR (CDCl}_3\) \( \delta \) 27.92, 29.72, 31.55, 108.12, 112.59, 123.12, 126.16, 129.81, 130.42, 132.21, 136.48, 137.64, 148.52, 149.30, 151.65, 155.24; EIMS \( m/z \) 374 and 376 (M⁺); HRMS calcd. 374.0378, found 374.0371.

\((E)-8-(3,5\text{-Difluoromethylstyryl})\text{caffeine (8b)}\) was prepared from 1,3-dimethyl-5,6-diaminouracil (F) and trans-3,5-difluoromethylcinnamic acid in a yield of 38 %: mp 238 °C (capillary method); \(^1\text{H NMR (CDCl}_3\) \( \delta \) 3.39 (s, 3H), 3.60 (s, 3H), 4.10 (s, 3H), 7.03 (d, 1H, \( J \) = 15.8 Hz), 7.82 (bs, 1H),
7.84 (d, 1H, J = 15.8 Hz), 7.96 (bs, 2H); $^{13}$C NMR (CDCl$_3$) δ 27.96, 29.71, 31.70, 108.49, 114.84, 122.42, 124.89, 126.90, 132.48 (q), 134.53, 137.62, 148.44, 148.47, 151.60, 155.25; ElMS m/z 432 (M$^+$); HRMS calcd. 432.1021, found 432.1001.

(E)-8-(3,4-Dichlorostyryl)caffeine (8c) was prepared from 1,3-dimethyl-5,6-diaminouracil (F) and trans-3,4-dichlorocinnamic acid in a yield of 42%: mp > 240 °C (capillary method); $^1$H NMR (CDCl$_3$) δ 3.39 (s, 3H), 3.60 (s, 3H), 4.06 (s, 3H), 6.87 (d, 1H, J = 15.7 Hz), 7.37 (m, 1H), 7.45 (d, 1H, J = 8.4 Hz), 7.64 (d, 1H, J = 2.1 Hz), 7.68 (d, 1H, J = 15.7 Hz); $^{13}$C NMR (CDCl$_3$) δ 27.93, 29.72, 31.56, 108.18, 112.91, 126.46, 128.68, 130.89, 133.24, 133.28, 135.40, 135.57, 148.49, 149.07, 151.62, 155.08; ElMS m/z 365 (M$^+$); HRMS calcd. 364.0494, found 364.0513.

(E)-8-(2-Furylethenyl)caffeine (8d) was prepared from 1,3-dimethyl-5,6-diaminouracil (F) and 3-(2-furyl)acrylic acid in a yield of 35%: mp > 240 °C (capillary method); $^1$H NMR (CDCl$_3$) δ 3.35 (s, 3H), 3.56 (s, 3H), 3.98 (s, 3H), 6.44 (m, 1H), 6.52 (d, 1H, J = 3.92 Hz), 6.75 (d, 1H, J = 15.5 Hz), 7.44 (d, 1H, J = 2.3 Hz), 7.72 (d, 1H, J = 6.32 Hz), 7.50 (d, 1H, J = 15.5 Hz); $^{13}$C NMR (CDCl$_3$) δ 27.84, 29.63, 31.37, 107.86, 109.11, 112.34, 113.12, 124.63, 143.87, 148.55 , 149.86, 151.63, 151.79, 155.08; ElMS m/z 286 (M$^+$); HRMS calcd. 286.1066, found 286.1064.

(E)-8-(2-Thienylethenyl)caffeine (8e) was prepared from 1,3-dimethyl-5,6-diaminouracil (F) and 3-(2-thienyl)acrylic acid in a yield of 32%: mp 204 °C (capillary method); $^1$H NMR (CDCl$_3$) δ 3.36 (s, 3H), 3.57 (s, 3H), 3.99 (s, 3H), 6.63 (d, 1H, J = 15.4 Hz), 7.03 (dd, 1H, J = 5.1, 5.1 Hz), 7.21 (d, 1H, J = 4.8 Hz), 7.30 (d, 1H, J = 5.1 Hz), 7.86 (d, 1H, J = 15.4 Hz); $^{13}$C NMR (CDCl$_3$) δ 27.86, 29.67, 31.44, 107.82, 110.21, 127.02, 128.14, 129.46, 130.89, 140.84, 148.53, 149.65, 151.62, 155.09; ElMS m/z 302 (M$^+$); HRMS calcd. 302.0837, found 302.0820.

(E)-8-(3-Thienylethenyl)caffeine (8f) was prepared from 1,3-dimethyl-5,6-diaminouracil (F) and 3-(3-thienyl)acrylic acid in a yield of 35%: mp 218 °C (capillary method), literature mp 216–218 °C (Del Guidice et al., 1996); $^1$H NMR (CDCl$_3$) δ 3.36 (s, 3H), 3.57 (s, 3H), 3.99 (s, 3H), 6.68 (d, 1H, J = 15.5 Hz), 7.32 (m, 2H), 7.44 (dd, 1H, J = 1.9, 2.4 Hz), 7.75 (d, 1H, J = 15.6 Hz); $^{13}$C NMR (CDCl$_3$) δ 27.84, 29.67, 31.41, 107.80, 110.98, 124.61, 126.27, 126.91, 132.06, 138.47, 148.50, 150.01, 151.62, 155.11; ElMS m/z 302 (M$^+$); HRMS calcd. 302.0837, found 302.0830.

2.2 Summary

Following literature procedures, six (E)-8-styrylcaffeine derivatives were prepared. With the exception of 8e, all of the compounds are previously unknown. The identities and purities of the prepared compounds were confirmed by mass, $^1$H NMR and $^{13}$C NMR spectroscopy. The trans
geometry about the styryl double bonds of 8a–f were confirmed by proton-proton coupling constants which were in the range of 15.4–15.8 Hz for the olefinic proton signals.
3.1 Introduction

Degeneration of nigrostriatal dopamine neurons is the main pathological cause of Parkinson's disease. A definitive neuropathological diagnosis of Parkinson's disease requires loss of dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra and related brain stem nuclei, and the presence of Lewy bodies in remaining nerve cells (Youdim et al., 2005). The contribution of genetic factors to the pathogenesis of Parkinson's disease is increasingly being recognized. A point mutation which is sufficient to cause a rare autosomal dominant form of the disorder has been recently identified in the alpha-synuclein gene on chromosome 4 in the much more common sporadic, or 'idiopathic' form of Parkinson's disease, and a defect of complex I of the mitochondrial respiratory chain was confirmed at the biochemical level. Disease specificity of this defect has been demonstrated for the parkinsonian substantia nigra (Ebadi et al., 2001).

Treatment approaches remain to enhance dopaminergic flux, limiting of toxic byproducts and the action of dopamine agonists. Monoamine oxidase B (MAO-B) is therefore a drug target for the treatment of neurodegenerative diseases such as Parkinson's disease (Rabey et al., 2000).

3.2 Monoamine oxidase

Monoamine oxidase (MAO) is an enzyme responsible for the oxidative deamination of various physiologically and pathologically important monoamine neurotransmitters and hormones such as dopamine (Figure 3-1), noradrenaline, adrenaline, and serotonin (Nagatsu, 2004). Inhibitors of Complex I of the mitochondrial respiratory chain, such as rotenone, and MPTP, promote Parkinson disease-like symptoms and signs of oxidative stress. Dopamine (DA) oxidation products may be implicated in such a process (Zoccarato et al., 2005).
Chapter 3: Materials and methods

Figure 3-1: Oxidative deamination of dopamine to form toxic metabolites.

The enzyme exists in two distinct isoforms, A and B. MAO-A is inhibited by clorgyline and MAO-B, by (R)-depinyl. cDNA of MAO-A and MAO-B were cloned and their structures determined. MAO-A and MAO-B are encoded by different nuclear genes located on the X chromosome (Xp11.23). MAO-A and MAO-B genes consist of 15 exons with identical intron-exon organization, suggesting that they were derived from a common ancestral gene. Both enzymes require a flavin cofactor, flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD), which binds to the cysteine residue of a pentapeptide sequence (Ser-Gly-Gly-Cys-Tyr) (Nagatsu, 2004). Both enzymes exist on the outer membrane of mitochondria of various types of cells in various tissues including the brain. In humans, MAO-B is abundant in the brain and liver, whereas the liver, lungs and intestine are rich in MAO-A. MAO-A oxidizes noradrenaline and serotonin while MAO-B mainly utilizes beta-phenylethylamine as substrate. In the human brain, MAO-A exists in catecholaminergic neurons, but MAO-B is found in serotonergic neurons and glial cells. MAO-A knockout mice exhibit increased serotonin levels and aggressive behavior, whereas MAO-B knockout mice show little behavioral change. MAO-A and MAO-B may be closely related to various neuropsychiatric disorders such as depression and Parkinson's disease, and inhibitors of them are the subject of drug development for such diseases (Nagatsu, 2004)

3.3 MPTP and Parkinson's disease

The enzyme monoamine oxidase B (MAO-B) has been identified as the principal enzyme responsible for the metabolic activation of the proneurotoxin 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP) (3) in the brains of mammals including humans (Figure 3-2) (Chiba
et al., 1984). The molecular mechanisms by which MPTP selectively damages nigrostriatal neurons and induces a parkinsonian syndrome in mammals, including humans, has been the subject of extensive research (Heikkila et al., 1984a). Critical to its mode of action is the MAO-B catalyzed α-carbon oxidation of the parent compound yielding the corresponding 1-methyl-4-phenyl-2,3-dihydropyridinium species MPDP⁺ (9). This metabolic intermediate undergoes a second two-electron oxidation to generate the 1-methyl-4-phenylpyridinium metabolite MPP⁺ (10), the ultimate neurotoxin (Chiba et al., 1984).

![Figure 3-2: The oxidation of MPTP by MAO-B.](image)

This process appears to take place mainly in glial cells where MAO-B is located (Takada et al., 1990). MPP⁺ is believed to be transported into the nigrostriatal dopaminergic nerve terminals, possibly via the plasma membrane dopamine transporter (DAT) where it localizes within the inner mitochondrial membrane. Inhibition of complex I of the mitochondrial respiratory chain by MPP⁺ leads to downstream events such as ATP depletion and oxidative stress which eventually result in degeneration of nigrostriatal dopaminergic neurons. The remarkable selectivity of MPP⁺ as a nigrostriatal toxin can presumably be explained by the ability of the DAT system to actively concentrate MPP⁺ in the dopaminergic neuron (Chiba et al., 1985b). Experimental animals treated with MPTP have become useful models for studying neurodegenerative processes. In a frequently used protocol the striatal dopamine concentrations of C57BL/6 mice are measured seven days following systemic injection (multiple or single doses) of MPTP (Schmidt & Ferger, 2001). MPP⁺ induced depletion of striatal dopamine is indicative of the permanent loss of nigrostriatal dopaminergic cell bodies in the substantia nigra. Nigrostriatal cell death in 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP)-induced Parkinson's disease, therefore arises from the pyridinium metabolite [1-methyl-4-phenylpyridinium (MPP⁺)], formed by the MAO-B catalyzed oxidation of MPTP.
3.4 Irreversible inhibitors of MAO-B

(R)-Deprenyl (1) (Figure 3-3) gained wide acceptance as a useful form of adjunct with L-dopa as therapy for Parkinson's disease (Nyholm, 2006). The effect of L-dopa is potentiated and prolonged by (R)-deprenyl (Heinonen & Rinne, 1989). (R)-Deprenyl belongs to the class of enzyme-activated irreversible inhibitors, because it acts as substrate for the target enzyme, whose action on the compound results in irreversible inhibition.

Figure 3-3: The structures of (R)-deprenyl (1) and rasagiline (4).

(R)-Deprenyl first of all forms a noncovalent complex with MAO as an initial, reversible step. Inhibitor-enzyme interaction leads to a reduction of the enzyme-bound flavin-adenine dinucleotide (FAD), and concomitant oxidation of the inhibitor. This oxidized inhibitor then reacts with FAD at the N-5-position in a covalent manner, to form a deactivated MAO-B-deprenyl combination. The observed in vitro selectivity of (R)-deprenyl for MAO-B may be accounted for by differences in the affinities of the two MAO subtypes for reversible interaction with (R)-deprenyl, differences in the rates of reaction within the noncovalent complexes to form the irreversibly inhibited adduct, or a combination of both these factors (Gerlach et al., 1992). Examination of different derivatives of the suicide inhibitors showed that the propargyl moiety is essential to the neuroprotective effect of these molecules (Palfi et al., 2006; Bonneh-Barkay et al., 2005; Youdim et al., 2005). (R)-Deprenyl (1) and rasagiline (4) (Figure 3-3) also markedly attenuate the neurotoxic effects of MPTP (Kupsch et al., 2001).

3.5 Reversible inhibitors

From a safety point of view, reversible inhibitors may be therapeutically more desirable than inactivators since MAO-B activity can be regained relatively quickly following withdrawal of the reversible inhibitor. In contrast, return of enzyme activity following treatment with inactivators
requires *de novo* synthesis of the MAO-B protein which may require up to two weeks. For this reason, several studies are currently underway to develop reversible inhibitors of MAO-B. These inhibitors act typically in a competitive manner while retaining selectivity towards MAO-B. Examples of reversible inhibitors of MAO-B that are reported in the literature are shown in (Figure 3-4). Their potencies, mode of action and type of enzyme used are indicated in Table 1.

![Figure 3-4: The structures of previously reported reversible inhibitors of MAO-B.](image)

A particularly potent inhibitor is structure 12 that was recently reported by Ooms et al., (2002). Compound 12 was found to inhibit baboon liver MAO-B with a $K_i$ value of 14 nM. Also of
particular importance to us is CSC (7). CSC was found to inhibit MAO-B obtained from human, baboon and mouse liver with $K_i$ values of 235 nM, 128 nM and 100 nM, respectively (Petzer et al., 2003; Vlok et al., 2006). The high inhibition potencies of larger MAO-B inhibitors are believed to be dependent upon the ability of the structures to bind simultaneously to both the entrance and active site cavities of the MAO-B enzyme. In accordance with this hypothesis, X-ray crystal structures of human MAO-B co-crystallized with trans,trans-farnesol (15) and 1,4-diphenyl-2-butene (16) have shown that both these inhibitors traverse the entrance and substrate cavities of MAO-B upon binding (Hubalek et al., 2005). A similar dual mode of binding is probably responsible for the high affinity of potent inhibitors such as CSC (7), and 12 for the active site of MAO-B. Smaller structures such as isatin (13) and 7-nitroindazole (14) are only able to occupy either the entrance or substrate cavity at a time. For example X-ray crystal structures of human MAO-B complexes with isatin have shown that isatin is located in the substrate cavity of the enzyme (Hubalek et al., 2005).

### Table 1: The potencies of selected inhibitors of MAO-B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Mode of action</th>
<th>$K_i$ $\mu$M</th>
<th>Mitochondria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(11)</td>
<td>Reversible</td>
<td>0.00114</td>
<td>Rat brain MAO-B (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(12)</td>
<td>Reversible</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>Baboon liver MAO-B (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(13)</td>
<td>Reversible</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Human liver MAO-B (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(14)</td>
<td>Reversible</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Mouse brain MAO-B (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(15)</td>
<td>Reversible</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>Human liver MAO-B (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(16)</td>
<td>Reversible</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>Human liver MAO-B (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7)</td>
<td>Reversible</td>
<td>0.128</td>
<td>Baboon liver MAO-B (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(17)</td>
<td>Reversible</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Human liver MAO-B (6)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1Gnerrre et al., 2000; 2Ooms et al., 2003; 3Hubalek et al., 2005; 4Castagnoli et al., 1997; 5Vlok et al. 2006; 6Khalil et al., 2000.

### 3.6 MAO-B inhibition and adenosine $A_{2A}$ receptor antagonism

The principal therapeutic agents used in the management of Parkinson's disease (PD) enhance nigrostriatal dopaminergic flux through either replenishment of depleted dopamine stores or the action of dopaminergic agonists. However, long term use of these traditional treatments can lead to loss of drug efficacy and the onset of unwanted dyskinesias (Marsden et al., 1982).
Consequently alternative therapeutic strategies to treat PD that target non-dopamine systems are under development.

Adenosine is present in all mammalian tissues where it has a variety of physiological functions (Pelleg & Porter, 1990). One of these functions is to act as a neuromodulator through the interaction of G protein-coupled receptors, the adenosine receptors. Currently four adenosine receptors have been characterized and cloned, $A_1$, $A_2A$, $A_2B$ and $A_3$ (Fredholm et al., 1994). The intracellular signaling pathway of these receptors involves adenylate cyclase catalyzed formation of cyclicAMP. Adenosine activation of $A_1$ and $A_3$ inhibits cyclic AMP formation while interaction with $A_{2A}$ and $A_{2B}$ activates cyclic AMP formation (Ongini & Fredholm, 1996). In the early 1900s it became clear that the $A_2A$ receptor had distinctly different properties from the other adenosine receptors (Ongini et al., 2001), and has been linked most closely to dopaminergic neurotransmission and CNS motor activity (Morelli et al., 1994). Antagonists of the $A_{2A}$ receptor subtype became an attractive non-dopaminergic drug target (Xu et al., 2005), in the treatment of neurological diseases, such as Parkinson's disease (Richardson et al., 1997). Adenosine $A_{2A}$ receptor antagonists for example CSC (7) (Figure 3-5) and KW-6002 (18) may provide symptomatic relief in PD and have displayed neuroprotective properties based on studies in the 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP) mouse model of nigrostriatal neurodegeneration (Castagnoli et al., 2003). KW-6002 has been demonstrated to increase motor activity in PD patients in a recent clinical phase IIIB trial. The potential neuroprotective effect is further substantiated by the demonstration that pharmacological blockade of $A_{2A}$ receptors by the xanthines, specific $A_{2A}$ antagonists, or genetic depletion of the $A_{2A}$ receptor, attenuate dopaminergic neurotoxicity and neurodegeneration in animal models of PD (Chen et al., 2006).

(E)-8-(3-Chlorostyryl)caffeine (CSC) (7), the lead compound for this study, and the structurally related KW6002 (18) bind to the adenosine $A_{2A}$ receptor with $K_i$ values of 54 nM (Petzer et al., 2003) and 2.2 nM (Shimada et al., 1997) respectively. The dualistic properties of CSC, creates the possibility that structural analogues (8a-f) synthesized in this study, might possess similar activity.
3.7 Approaches to the measurement of MAO-B activity in vitro

To determine the catalytic activity of the MAO-B enzyme, spectrophotometric techniques are frequently applied (Houslay et al., 1974). Radiometric (Fuller et al., 1970), fluorometric (Zhou et al., 1996), luminometric (O'Brien et al., 1993) and ammonia detection (Meyerson et al., 1978) methods are less frequently used.

Because of their ease and speed of operation, our laboratory made use of spectrophotometric assays to measure MAO-B catalytic activity. Spectrophotometric detection of MMDP⁺ (20), the MAO-B catalyzed oxidation product of 1-methyl-4-(1-methylpyrrol-2-yl)-1,2,3,6 tetrahydropyridine (MMTP) (19) (structurally related to MPTP), is measured at a wavelength of 420 nm. MMTP acts as the substrate and is oxidized to the corresponding dihydropyridinium species MMDP⁺ (Figure 3.6) that is stable to further oxidation, unlike the MPTP (1) oxidation intermediate. MPTP is less suitable as substrate for the spectrophotometric method of analysis since oxidation of MPTP leads to an unstable intermediate (MPDP⁺) (20). When MPTP is used as a substrate the HPLC method, described by Castagnoli et al. (1997), is used to quantify MPDP⁺ and MPP⁺ concentrations. MMTP is therefore the more suitable substrate (Inoue et al., 1999).
Chapter 3: Materials and methods

Figure 3-6: The oxidation of MMTP (19) to form the spectrophotometrically quantifiable MMDP* (20). MMDP* is stable to further oxidation in vitro.

For the spectrophotometric determination of MAO-B activity (with MMTP (19) as substrate), the measured absorbance (Abs) of the dihydropyridinium metabolite MMDP* (20), the reported molar extinction (ε) for MMDP* (24,000 M⁻¹) together with the enzyme concentration [E] (0.15 mg protein/mL) and incubation time (15 minutes) is substituted in equation 1 (Inoue et al., 1999). The dimensions of $\nu_i$ in this equation is mol mg⁻¹ protein⁻¹ min⁻¹ of the dihydropyridinium formed.

$$V_i = \frac{Abs}{\varepsilon} \times \frac{1}{[E]} \times \frac{1}{Time} \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

Radiometric analysis is based on the detection of the labeled MAO-B catalyzed oxidation product after incubation with a radio labeled substrate. Fuller et al. (1970) measured the rate of oxidation of $^3$H-tyramine after extracting the deaminated metabolite into organic solvent. Radiometric assays are however, limited to the availability of labeled compounds. Luminometric assays are based on measurement of the light produced from peroxidase-catalyzed chemiluminescent oxidation of luminol. This is dependant on the amount of hydrogen peroxide produced in the MAO reaction (O'Brien et al., 1993). This method is very sensitive and enables the analysis of substrates that produce products that are not readily detected.

Another very sensitive procedure is based on fluorometric detection. Zhou et al. (1996) reported that kynuramine is oxidatively deaminated and intramolecularly cyclized to form 4-hydroxyquinoline (Figure 3-7). 4-Hydroxyquinoline is fluorescent and can easily be quantified in the presence of non-fluorescent substrate. Finally, assays based on the detection of ammonia are only applicable for detecting the metabolites of primary amines (Meyerson et al., 1978).
Figure 3-7: The oxidation of kynuramine (21) by MAO-B and subsequent cyclization to yield 4-hydroxyquinoline (22).

3.8 Enzyme kinetics – $K_m$ and $V_{max}$ determination

The substrate concentration that produces half maximal velocity is termed the $K_m$ value or the Michaelis constant. The constant can be determined by graphing $V_i$ as a function of [S] (Figure 3-8). $V_i$ is the measured initial velocity, when very little substrate has reacted. If the concentration of a substrate [S] is increased while all the other conditions are kept constant, $V_i$ reaches $V_{max}$ where the enzyme is said to be “saturated”. $V_{max}$ is almost always reached because the substrate is present in large molar excess compound to the enzyme.

When [S] is approximately equal to the $K_m$, $V_i$ is very responsive to changes in [S], and the enzyme is working at half-maximal velocity. In fact many enzymes possess $K_m$ value that approximate the physiological concentration of their substrates. The Michaelis-Menten equation (equation 2) describes the behavior of many enzymes as the [S] is varied:

$$V_i = \frac{V_{max} \times [S]}{K_m + [S]} \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

To determine the numeric value for $V_{max}$, sometimes requires impractically high concentrations of the substrate to achieve saturation. To overcome this, linear equations are used that permit ready extrapolation of $V_{max}$ and $K_m$. The Michaelis-menten equation (equation 2), is inverted and factored in order to obtain its linear form (equation 5). This equation is termed the double reciprocal or Lineweaver-Burke plot (Figure 3-9). $V_{max}$ and $K_m$ values can now easily be gathered from the graph.
Figure 3-8: Graphical presentation of the Michealis-Menten equation ($V_i$ versus $[S]$)

The inverse of the Michealis-Menten equation:

$$\frac{1}{V} = \frac{K_m}{V_{max}} + \frac{[S]}{V_{max}}$$  \hspace{1cm} \text{Equation 3}

Factor:

$$\frac{1}{V} = \frac{K_m}{V_{max}} \times \frac{1}{[S]} + \frac{[S]}{V_{max}}$$  \hspace{1cm} \text{Equation 4}

Simplified:

$$\frac{1}{V_i} = \frac{K_m}{V_{max}} \times \frac{1}{[S]} + \frac{1}{V_{max}}$$  \hspace{1cm} \text{Equation 5}

The $K_m$ value may be estimated from the double reciprocal or Lineweaver-Burke plot (Figure 3-9) using either the slope and the $y$ intercept or the negative $x$ intercept. Since $[S]$ has a mathematical unit of molarity, the dimensions of $K_m$ are moles per liter. Velocity, $V_i$, may be expressed in any units, since $K_m$ is independent of enzyme concentration, $[Enz]$. The double-
reciprocal treatment requires relatively few points to define $K_m$ and is the method most often used to determine $K_m$ (Murray et al. 2000:25).

Figure 3-9: A Lineweaver-Burke plot ($1/V_i$ versus $1/[S]$).

3.9 Enzyme kinetics – $K_i$ determination

Determination of an inhibitor's $K_i$ value, describes the affinity that the inhibitor has for the active site of the enzyme. Competitive inhibitors compete with the substrate for the same site, the catalytic site. Lineweaver-Burke plots facilitate the evaluation of competitive inhibitors. The lines drawn through the experimental points coincide at the y axis ($1/V_{max}$), this states that at an infinitely high concentration of S ($1/[S] = 0$), $V_i$ is the same as in the absence of the inhibitor. The value of the negative of the x intercept indicates the $1/K_m$ value for substrates. Therefore addition of a competitive inhibitor increases the slope of the straight line, and therefore the apparent $K_m$ value of the inhibitor.

Competitive inhibition occurs at the substrate binding (catalytic) site. The chemical structure of a substrate analogue inhibitor (I) generally resembles that of the substrate (S). An inhibitor-enzyme complex (EnzI) forms when the inhibitor binds reversibly with the enzyme. When an inhibitor and substrate are present they compete for the catalytic site of the enzyme. The action of competitive inhibitors may be understood in terms of the following reactions illustrated in Figure 3-10, and by equation 6. This equation illustrates that the $K_i$ value is calculated by product of the unbound enzyme concentration and the unbound inhibitor concentration divided by the concentration of the enzyme-inhibitor complex.
$$\text{Enz} + S \underset{t}{\overset{\text{I}}{\rightleftharpoons}} \text{EnzS (active)} \rightarrow \text{Enz} + P$$

\[ K_i = \frac{[\text{Enz}][I]}{[\text{Enz}]} \quad \text{Equation 6} \]

**Figure 3-10:** Competitive inhibition reaction scheme.

The rate of product (P) formation depends solely on the concentration of the enzyme-substrate (EnzS) complex available. $K_i$ values are directly proportionate to the strength of bonding between the enzyme and inhibitor if the $K_i$ value is small, very little free enzyme (Enz) is available for the formation of the enzyme-substrate (EnzS) complex. The reaction rate will therefore be slow, and the concentration of product (P) little. But for an equal concentration of an inhibitor that binds less tightly ($K_i =$ larger number) the rate of catalyzed reaction will not be decreased to such a large extent.

Double reciprocal plots facilitate evaluation of inhibitors (Figure 3-11). The reaction velocity ($V_i$) at fixed concentrations of the test inhibitor are measured against various concentrations of the substrate. The lines drawn coincide at the y axis. Since the y intercept is equal to $V_{\text{max}}$, at an infinitely high concentration of S, $V_{\text{max}}$ in the presence and absence of the inhibitor will be equal. However, the intercept on the x axis, a characteristic related to the $K_m$ value, varies with inhibitor concentration. The value at this specific interception point becomes a larger number in the presence of the inhibitor. And therefore, a competitive inhibitor raises the apparent $K_m$ value for the substrate. Since $K_m$ is the substrate concentration at which the concentration of the free enzyme is equal to the substrate-enzyme complex (EnzS), substantial free enzyme is available to react and combine with the inhibitor. $K_i$ values for a series of competitive inhibitors indicate their effectiveness. At low concentration, those with the lowest $K_i$ values, will be more potent inhibitors and therefore cause the greatest deal of inhibition. Many clinical drugs competitively inhibit important enzymes in microbial and animal cells (Murray et al. (2000:25)).
In order to determine the $K_i$ value of a competitive inhibitor from the Lineweaver-Burk plots (Figure 3-11), the slopes of each plot is replotted versus the inhibitor concentration (Figure 3-12). The $K_i$ value is equal to the negative on the x-axis intercept. This method is used frequently to determine the competitive $K_i$ values.

**Figure 3-11:** A Lineweaver-Burke plot of a reversible inhibitor with inhibitor concentrations of 0, 10 and 20 μM.

**Figure 3-12:** A graphical illustration of estimating a $K_i$ value from Lineweaver-Burke plots.
3.10 Experimental Section

In the present study we have examined the possibility that the synthetic caffeine analogues (8a-f) may act as inhibitors of MAO-B. The measurement of MAO-B activity in our laboratory is based on the MAO-B catalyzed oxidation of 1-methyl-4-(1-methylpyrrol-2-yl)-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MMTP) to the corresponding dihydropyridinium metabolite (MMDP') (Inoue et al., 1999). Since MMDP' absorbs light maximally at a wavelength of 420 nm, the enzymatic production of MMDP' may be readily measured spectrophotometrically. At this wavelength neither the substrate nor the test inhibitors absorb light. Because of these favorable chromophoric characteristics and the in vitro chemical stability of MMDP' this assay is frequently used to evaluate the potencies of potential inhibitors of MAO-B (Vlok et al., 2006; Petzer et al., 2003). As enzyme source we have employed the mitochondrial fraction obtained from baboon liver tissue since it is reported to be devoid of MAO-A activity, while exhibiting a high degree of MAO-B catalytic activity (Inoue et al., 1999). Therefore even though MMTP is a MAO-A/B mixed substrate, its oxidation by baboon liver mitochondria can be exclusively attributed to the action of the MAO-B isoform. Also the interaction of reversible inhibitors with MAO-B obtained from baboon liver tissue appears to be similar to the interaction with the human form of the enzyme since inhibitors such as CSC are equipotent with both enzyme sources (Petzer et al., 2003).

3.11 MAO-B incubations for the inhibition studies

Mitochondria were isolated from baboon liver tissue as described by Salach and Weyler (1987) and stored at −70 °C in 300 μL aliquots. Following addition of an equal volume of sodium phosphate buffer (100 mM, pH 7.4) containing glycerol (50%, w/v) to the aliquots, the protein concentration was determined by the method of Bradford using bovine serum albumin as reference standard (Bradford, 1976). Since the mitochondrial fraction obtained from baboon liver tissue is reported to be devoid of MAO-A activity (Inoue et al., 1999), inactivation of this enzyme was unnecessary. The MAO-A and -B mixed substrate MMTP ($K_m = 60.9$ μM for baboon liver MAO-B) (Inoue et al., 1999) served as substrate for the inhibition studies. Incubations were carried out in sodium phosphate buffer (100 mM, pH 7.4) and contained MMTP (30–120 μM), the mitochondrial isolate (0.15 mg protein/mL) and various concentrations of the test inhibitors. The final volume of the incubations was 500 μL. The stock solutions of the inhibitors were prepared in DMSO and were added to the incubation mixtures to yield a final DMSO concentration of 4% (v/v). DMSO concentrations higher than 4% are reported to inhibit MAO-B (Gnerre et al., 2000). Following incubation at 37 °C for 15 min, the enzyme reactions were terminated by the addition of 10 μL perchloric acid (70%) and the samples were
centrifuged at 16,000g for 10 minutes. The MAO-B catalyzed production of MMDP* is reported to be linear for the first 15 minutes of incubation under these conditions (Inoue et al., 1999). The supernatant fractions were removed and the concentrations of the MAO-B generated product, MMDP*, were measured spectrophotometrically at a wavelength of 420 nm (ε = 24,000 M⁻¹) (Inoue et al., 1999). The initial rates of oxidation at four different substrate concentrations (30–120 μM) in the absence and presence of three different concentrations of the inhibitors were calculated and Lineweaver-Burke plots were constructed. The slopes of the Lineweaver-Burke plots were plotted versus the inhibitor concentration and the $K_i$ value were determined from the x-axis intercept (intercept= $-K_i$). Linear regression analysis was performed using the Sigma Plot software package (Systat Software Inc.).

3.12 Results

All of the compounds that were evaluated (8a-f) in this study were found to be inhibitors of MAO-B. As demonstrated by example with (E)-8-(2-thienylethenyl)caffeine (8e) (Figure 3-14) and (E)-8-(3,5-ditrifluoromethylstyryl)caffeine (8b) (Figure 3-15), the lines of the Lineweaver-Burke plots intersected at the y-axis. This indicates that the mode of inhibition was competitive and therefore implies that the inhibitors interact reversibly with the enzyme. The $K_i$ values for the inhibition of MAO-B by the test compounds are presented in Table 1. The most potent inhibitor was found to be (E)-8-(3,4-dichlorostyryl)caffeine (8c) with a $K_i$ value of 36 nM. This compound was approximately 3.5 times more potent that the lead compound for this study, CSC. CSC is reported to have a $K_i$ value of 128 nM for the inhibition of baboon liver MAO-B.

The second most potent inhibitor evaluated in this study was (E)-8-(3-bromostyryl)caffeine (8a). This inhibitor has a $K_i$ value of 83 nM. Applying a multivariate predictive equation constructed in a previous study (Vlok et al., 2006) we were able to predict the $K_i$ value for the inhibition of MAO-B by equation 7. The reported $\sigma_m$ and $V_w$ values for a bromine substituted in the meta position of a phenyl ring are 0.39 and 1.32, respectively.

$$\log K_i = -2.10(\pm 0.19)\sigma_m - 0.49(\pm 0.09)V_w + 0.49(\pm 0.07) \quad \text{Equation 7}$$

Substitution of these values into the multivariate equation above yield a predicted $K_i$ value of 106 nM. The small difference between the experimentally obtained $K_i$ value of 83 nM and the predicted value may be considered proof of the validity of the equation.

Another inhibitor identified in this study as an exceptionally potent inhibitor is (E)-8-(3,5-ditrifluoromethylstyryl)caffeine (8b). This compound was found to inhibit MAO-B with a $K_i$ value
of 239 nM. (E)-8-(2-Thienylethenyl)caffeine (8e), (E)-8-(3-thienylethenyl)caffeine (8f) and (E)-8-(2-furylethenyl)caffeine (8d) were found to be only moderate inhibitors of MAO-B with $K_i$ values in the low micro molar range. Although less potent than the other inhibitors evaluated in this study (E)-8-(2-thienylethenyl)caffeine (8e) was still a better inhibitor than (E)-8-styrylcaffeine. (E)-8-styrylcaffeine has a reported $K_i$ value for the inhibition of baboon liver mitochondria of 3 μM (Vlok et al., 2006).

**Table 2:** The $K_i$ values for the inhibition of MAO-B by (E)-8-styrylcaffeine analogues (8a–f).
Figure 3-13: Lineweaver–Burke plots of the oxidation of MMTP by baboon liver MAO-B in the absence (filled circles) and presence of various concentrations of 8e (open circles, 1 μM; filled triangles, 2 μM; open triangles, 4 μM). The concentration of the baboon liver mitochondrial preparation was 0.15 mg/mL and the rates are expressed as nmoles.mg protein$^{-1}$.min$^{-1}$ of MMDP$^+$ formed. The inset is the replot of the slopes versus the inhibitor concentrations.

Figure 3-14: Lineweaver–Burke plots of the oxidation of MMTP by baboon liver MAO-B in the absence (filled circles) and presence of various concentrations of 8b (open circles, 0.1 μM; filled triangles, 0.2 μM; open triangles, 0.4 μM). The concentration of the baboon liver mitochondrial preparation was 0.15 mg/mL and the rates are expressed as nmoles.mg protein$^{-1}$.min$^{-1}$ of MMDP$^+$ formed. The inset is the replot of the slopes versus the inhibitor concentrations.
3.13 Conclusion

All of the compounds that were evaluated (8a-f) in this study were found to be inhibitors of MAO-B. The mode of inhibition was found to be competitive and therefore the inhibitors interact reversibly with the enzyme. The most potent inhibitor was found to be (E)-8-(3,4-dichlorostyryl)caffeine (8c) with a $K_i$ value of 36 nM. This compound was approximately 3.5 times more potent that the lead compound for this study, CSC. CSC is reported to have a $K_i$ value of 128 nM for the inhibition of baboon liver MAO-B.

The second most potent inhibitor evaluated in this study was (E)-8-(3-bromostyryl)caffeine (8d). This inhibitor has a $K_i$ value of 83 nM. The small difference between the experimentally obtained $K_i$ value of 83 nM and the predicted value of 106 nM may be considered proof of the validity of the predictive equation.

Another inhibitor identified in this study as an exceptionally potent inhibitors is (E)-8-(3,5-ditrifluoromethylstyryl)caffeine. This compound was found to inhibit MAO-B with a $K_i$ value of 239 nM. (E)-8-(2-Thienylethenyl)caffeine (8e), (E)-8-(3-thienylethenyl)caffeine (8f) and (E)-8-(2-furylethenyl)caffeine (8d) were found to be only moderate inhibitors of MAO-B with $K_i$ values in the low micro molar range. Although less potent than the other inhibitors evaluated in this study (E)-8-(2-thienylethenyl)caffeine (8e) was still a better inhibitor than (E)-8-styrylcaffeine. (E)-8-styrylcaffeine has a reported $K_i$ value for the inhibition of baboon liver mitochondria of 3 μM. (Vlok et al., 2006). These results suggest that electron deficiency of the styryl ring is not the only requirement for (E)-8-styrylcaffeine analogues to act as potent inhibitors of MAO-B. Hydrophobic interactions between styryl substituents and active site residues may play an important role in stabilizing the enzyme-inhibitor complex. The lack of such substituents in compounds 8d-f may explain their relatively lower inhibition potencies compared to the other structures examined in this study. This argument is further supported by the finding that (E)-8-(3-bromostyryl)caffeine (8d) is a more potent inhibitor than CSC even though bromine is less electron-withdrawing than chlorine.
4.1 Conclusion and Summary

The crystal structures of human recombinant MAO-B in complex with several pharmacological important inhibitors of the enzyme have recently been reported (Binda et al., 2004; Binda et al., 2003; Hubalek et al., 2005). From the surface of the enzyme, the access channel leading to the active site FAD co-factor consists of an entrance followed by a substrate cavity. An inhibitor must transverse an entrance cavity in order to gain access to the substrate cavity. This is true for small molecule inhibitors such as isatin that has been shown to bind within the substrate cavity of the enzyme (Binda et al., 2003). A larger inhibitor such as the reversible inhibitor 1,4-diphenyl-2-butene (16) (Figure 3-4) appears to exhibit a dual binding mode that involves traversing both the entrance and substrate cavities (Binda et al., 2003).

Another inhibitor, trans,trans-farnesol (15) is also reported to span both the entrance and substrate cavities with the polar OH moiety in close contact with the flavin located in the substrate cavity (Hubalek et al., 2005). The gate separating the two cavities is the side chain of Ile-199 which is thought to exhibit different rotamer conformations that allows for the fusion of the two cavities in order to accommodate these larger inhibitors (Binda et al., 2003). The potency of MAO-B inhibition by (E)-8-styrylcaffaines may possibly also be explained by a similar
mode of binding that involves traversing both the entrance and substrate cavities (Binda et al., 2006). These inhibitors possibly bind to MAO-B with the caffeine ring located in the substrate cavity of the active site while the styryl substituent extends into the entrance cavity. In support of this hypothesis caffeine was reported to be a very weak inhibitor of MAO-B (Chen et al., 2001). Without the styryl side chain, caffeine is expected to bind to either the substrate or the entrance cavity leaving the other cavity unoccupied. Therefore styryl substitution possibly assists with dual binding that may lead to increased inhibition potency.

The important role played by the styryl side chain is further supported by the observation that substitution of the phenyl ring has a considerable effect on the potency by which (E)-8-styrylcaffeine analogues inhibit MAO-B. Since the styryl ring of these inhibitors is thought to bind within the entrance cavity, specific interactions between the styryl substituents and amino acid side chains in the entrance cavity may explain these observations. It may be predicted that bulky and lipophylic styryl substituents may lead to increased binding affinity since the entrance cavity is lined by the side chains of hydrophobic amino acids (Binda et al., 2002). In accordance with this expectation, we have previously found that for (E)-8-styrylcaffeine analogues bearing different substituents at C-4 of the styryl ring (Vlok et al., 2006), the potency of MAO-B inhibition correlated with both the size (Vw) and the lipophylicity (m) of the substituents. Enhancement of the size and lipophylicity of the substituents resulted in better inhibition. In the present study it was demonstrated that relative large and lipophylic styryl substituents (3-Br, 3,4-di-Cl and 3,5-di-CF3) enhanced inhibition potency to a large degree compared to the unsubstituted (E)-8-styrylcaffeine (Ki value of 2.7 \( \mu \text{M} \)). This suggests that these inhibitors also spans both the entrance and substrate cavities and the styryl substituents are involved in hydrophobic interactions, possibly within the entrance cavity where the styryl phenyl ring is expected to be located. The electron-deficiency of the styryl ring appears to be of lesser importance since compounds 8d-f were found to be only moderate inhibitors.

Another interesting outcome of this study was that the (E)-8-styrylcaffeine analogue disubstituted with chlorine at C-3 and C-4 of the styryl ring (8c) was found to be a more potent inhibitor (\( K_i = 36 \text{ nM} \)) than CSC, which is monosubstituted with chlorine at C-3 (\( K_i = 128 \text{ nM} \)). We have previously reported that the (E)-8-styrylcaffeine analogue that is monosubstituted with chlorine at C-4 (\( K_i = 260 \text{ nM} \)) also inhibits MAO-B potently (Vlok et al., 2006). This synergistic effect of dissubstitution on MAO-B inhibition suggests that there exists, possibly within the entrance cavity, an aromatic binding pocket with at least two major interaction sites, one for substituents at C-3 of the aromatic ring and another for substituents at C-4. Alternatively, the addition of a second substituent may simply enhance the lipophilicity of the inhibitor and therefore its affinity for the enzyme. We have previously shown that the lipophilicity of the C-4
styryl substituents correlates with MAO-B inhibition potency of (E)-8-styrylcafeines (Vlok et al., 2006).

References


monoamine oxidase A and B mRNA. *Journal of neurochemistry*, 55:1166-1169.


Appendix


YOUDIM, M.B., BAR, A.O., YOGEV-FALACH, M., WEINREB, O., MARUYAMA, W., NAOI, M.,


ZOCCARATO, F.; TOSCANO, P.; ALEXANDRE, A. 2005. Dopamine-derived dopaminochrome promotes H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2} release at mitochondrial complex I: stimulation by rotenone, control by Ca(2+), and relevance to Parkinson disease. *Journal of biological chemistry* 280:15587-15594.