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# The synthesis and investigation of phthalazinones as antitubercular agents

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**Abstract:** A series of 2- and 7-substituted phthalazinones was synthesised and their potential as anti-tubercular drugs assessed via *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (mc<sup>2</sup>6230) growth inhibition assays. All phthalazinones tested showed growth inhibitory activity (MIC < 100  $\mu$ M), and those compounds containing lipophilic and electron-withdrawing groups generally exhibited better anti-tubercular activity. Several lead compounds were identified, including 7-((2-amino-6-(4-fluorophenyl)pyrimidin-4-yl)amino)-2-heptylphthalazin-1(2*H*)-one

(MIC = 1.6  $\mu$ M), 4-tertbutylphthalazin-2(1*H*)-one (MIC = 3  $\mu$ M), and 7nitro-phthalazin-1(2*H*)-one (MIC = 3  $\mu$ M). Mode of action studies indicated that selected pyrimidinyl-phthalazinones may interfere with NADH oxidation, however, the mode of action of the lead compound is independent of this enzyme.

#### Introduction

Phthalazinones exhibit a diverse range of pharmaceutical properties, such as anti-cancer,<sup>1-3</sup> anti-inflammatory,<sup>4-6</sup> anti-bacterial,<sup>1,7</sup> anti-oxidant,<sup>1</sup> and anti-neurodegenerative<sup>8</sup> properties, with mechanisms of action that are as varied as the diseases they are used against.<sup>9-12</sup> For example, the clinically used anti-cancer drug oliparib (**1**, Figure 1) inhibits the poly(ADP-ribose)polymerase,<sup>9</sup> while azelastine (**2**) is an antihistamine preferentially taken up by lung and alveolar macrophages.<sup>10</sup> Antibacterial phthalazinones include amide **3**, which inhibits *Francisella tularensis*, a potential bioterrorism agent, with a minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC) of 0.94  $\mu$ M,<sup>13</sup> and oxadiazole **4**, which is anti-bacterial against *Escherichia coli* 

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Salmonella typhi.<sup>14</sup> Although the mode of action of anti-bacterial phthalazinones has not been studied, we reasoned that phthalazinones might exhibit anti-tubercular activity due to their ability to mimic the benzoquinone moiety in menaquinone (MK), a key intermediate in the mycobacterial respiratory chain of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, the causative agent of tuberculosis (TB).<sup>15</sup>



Figure 1. Representative phthalazinones.

The mycobacterial respiratory chain is a potentially rich source of antimycobacterial drug targets,<sup>15</sup> as is perhaps best illustrated by the recent discovery of bedaquiline (BDQ, 5, Figure 2), the first FDA-approved drug for the treatment of TB in over forty years.<sup>16-</sup> <sup>18</sup> BDQ targets the  $F_1F_0$ -ATP synthase, acting as an uncoupler by dissociating the transmembrane proton transfer from phosphorylation reactions responsible for ATP generation. Other TB drug targets within the respiratory chain include the cytochrome bcc complex (inhibited by Q203, 6),<sup>19</sup> cytochrome bc1 (lansoprazole, LPZ, 7)<sup>20</sup> and, of particular interest to us, the respiratory type II NADH dehydrogenase (NDH-II).<sup>21</sup> NDH-II is absent from mammalian mitochondria yet it is essential for growth in mycobacteria as it catalyses the transfer of electrons from NADH to MK via the aid of a flavin co-factor (FAD).<sup>22,23</sup> There are three distinct binding sites in NDH-II: the first and second domains, which are situated in the aqueous environment of the cytoplasm and which bind NADH and FAD, respectively; and a hydrophobic

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membrane-anchoring domain, which contains the quinone binding site (Q-site).<sup>24,25</sup> To date, the antimycobacterial drug clofazimine (8) and our recently identified quinolinequinones, such as QQ8c (9), have been shown to target NDH-II thereby leading to increased NADH oxidation activity and bactericidal levels of ROS.<sup>21,26,27</sup>



Figure 2. Representative drugs that target the mycobacterial respiratory chain.

The co-crystallisation of NDH-II with MK has proven challenging and has only been achieved with the yeast equivalent of the enzyme.<sup>28</sup> Notwithstanding, docking studies of MK and other quinones in the presence of FAD in NDH-II have demonstrated that quinones fit well into the Q-site.<sup>24</sup> Moreover, a hydrogen bond between one of the carbonyl oxygen atoms of the quinones and an amine proton on the FAD isoalloxazine ring, as well as a distant edge-to-face  $\pi$ - $\pi$  interaction between MK and the FAD isoalloxazine ring, were observed. Co-crystallisation of Caldalkalibacillus thermarum NDH-II with a known inhibitor, 2heptyl-4-hydroxyquinoline-N-oxide (HQNO), revealed similar binding interactions.<sup>25</sup> Accordingly, we proposed that the ketonecontaining bicyclic planar phthalazinone scaffold could be accommodated between the hydrophobic residues Q317 and 1379 in the Q-site,<sup>24,25</sup> with the ketone oxygen participating in hydrogen bonding interactions with the ring nitrogen of the FAD isoalloxazine ring. Moreover, with a pKa ≈ 8.88,29 phthalazinones are able to carry charge through the cell membrane and thus act as an uncoupler. Accordingly, we proposed to synthesise a series of phthalazinones (I, Figure 3) and to test the ability of these derivatives to inhibit the growth of *M. tuberculosis* (mc<sup>2</sup>6230) and in addition, target NDH-II.



Figure 3. Target phthalazinone structures.

#### **Results and Discussion**

#### Modelling:

phthalazinones To determine whether the could be accommodated in the NDH-II Q-site, molecular docking of 2methylphthalazin-1(2H)-one (10) was undertaken using USCF Chimera/DOCK6 (Figures 4).<sup>30</sup> Different molecular orientations with similar binding scores were observed (Figure 4B), however, in all instances, phthalazinone 10 was wedged between the hydrophobic residues Q317 and I379 with a similar binding orientation to that reported for MK and HQNO.<sup>24,25</sup> Hydrogen bonding was also evident between phthalazinone 10 and guanidine residue R382 (Figure 4B). A similar interaction was observed for the docked structure of MK into the Q-site, although the authors queried the plausibility of this interaction as R382 is embedded in the cell membrane.<sup>24</sup> A hydrogen bond between phthalazinone **10** and the ring nitrogen in FAD was also observed for certain binding modes (Figure 4C). Further analysis of the NDH-II Q-site also indicated that the pocket should be able to accommodate substituents at the 2- and 7-positions, thus providing scope to potentially improve the anti-bacterial activity of this class of compounds. As quinolinvl-pyrimidines have been found to interact with NDH-II,<sup>31</sup> we also reasoned that the addition of a pyrimidine to the phthalazinone scaffold might assist with NDH-II binding by way of a hydrogen bond between the pyrimidine amine and a glutamic acid residue (E324) in the Qsite.24,25



**Figure 4.** Docking studies of phthalazinone **10** in *C. thermarum* NDH-II (PDB: 6BDO),<sup>25</sup> calculated using USCF Chimera/DOCK6. A). Structure of 2-methylphthalazin-1(2*H*)-one (**10**). B). Phthalazinone **10** can adopt many different orientations in the binding tunnel, sandwiched between Q317 and I379. C). Positioning of a highly ranked conformer of **10** with a hydrogen bond to FAD.

#### Retrosynthesis:

A retrosynthetic route was devised (Scheme 1), whereby pyrimidinyl-phthalazinones functionalised at the 2- and 6'-positions (II) could be assembled from an appropriately functionalised chloropyrimidine III and 7-aminophthalazinone I ( $R^2 = NH_2$ ). Here, phthalazinones bearing apolar alkyl and aromatic groups were proposed so as to increase the lipophilicity

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of the phthalazinone scaffold and assist with binding to the hydrophobic NDH-II binding site<sup>24,25</sup> while electron-withdrawing groups, such as fluorophenyl and sulfonamide, on the phthalazinone scaffold were thought to improve the ability of compounds to disrupt the mycobacterial respiratory chain.<sup>32</sup> In addition, the inclusion of a terminal alkyne substituent on the phthalazinone scaffold was proposed to increase the antitubercular activity of the compounds as several anti-tubercular agents containing alkyne groups have previously been reported.33,34 The phthalazinones I could be synthesised by condensation of 3-bromo-6-nitro-isobenzofuranone IV with various hydrazines, followed by reduction, while the chloropyrimidines III, equipped with phenyl or methyl groups, were envisioned to be available from the condensation of functionalised beta-ketoesters (V) with guanidine. Furanone IV  $(R^2 = NO_2)$  itself can be prepared via the reduction of phthalic anhydride, followed by nitration and subsequent benzylic bromination. Using this same route, a library of phthalazinones I (where  $R^2 = H$ ) could also be synthesised from phthalic anhydride.



 $\label{eq:scheme1} \begin{array}{l} \mbox{Scheme 1.} \ \mbox{Retrosynthesis for the preparation of pyrimidinyl-phthalazinones (II)} \\ \mbox{and phthalazinones (I)}. \end{array}$ 

To synthesise the first library of phthalazinones, phthalic anhydride (11, Scheme 2) was reduced using sodium borohydride to give isobenzofuranone 12, which then underwent a Wohl-Ziegler reaction<sup>35</sup> to give bromo-lactone **13**.<sup>36</sup> Lactone **13** was then treated with various hydrazines to afford phthalazinones 14-22 in good yields (34-92%, Scheme 2A). Here, <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>13</sup>C NMR spectroscopy confirmed the loss of resonances corresponding to H-3 and C-3 of bromide 13 (7.41 ppm and 74.8 ppm, respectively, in CDCl<sub>3</sub>) and the appearance of resonances associated with the 4-positions of the phthalazinones (8.00 - 8.30 ppm, 136.0 - 139.0 ppm, respectively). In addition, IR spectra of phthalazinones showed absorptions between 1102-1120 cm<sup>-1</sup>, typical of N-N stretches.<sup>37</sup> Phthalazinone 14 was also alkylated using heptylbromide and propargylbromide under basic conditions to give alkyl-phthalazinones 23 and 24, respectively (Scheme 2B). The connectivity of the alkyl groups to the ring nitrogens was confirmed by HMBC, in which correlations between the N-CH<sub>2</sub> and the carbonyl carbons were observed for both 23 and 24.



Scheme 2. Synthesis of first series of phthalazinones.

Next, the amino-phthalazinones were prepared (Scheme 3). Initially, it was envisaged that nitro-phthalide 25 could be synthesised by subjecting bromo-benzofuranone 13 to nitric acid, however, 13 was unstable under highly acidic conditions which necessitated the need to first nitrate isobenzofuran-1(3H)-one (12) before subjecting the intermediate, 6-nitrobenzofuran-1(3H)one, to Wohl-Ziegler conditions to yield the desired phthalide 25.38 Next, bromo-phthalide 25 was reacted with phenylhydrazinium chloride to give phthalazinone 26, of which a crystal structure was obtained to unequivocally confirm the configuration of the product (Scheme 3). The iron-mediated reduction of 26 then yielded the desired amino-phthalazinone 27.39 Similarly, treatment of nitrophthalide 25 with hydrazine hydrate gave phthalazinone 28, which was then alkylated using propargyl bromide or 1-bromoheptane to give propargyl-phthalazinone 29 and heptyl-phthalazinone 31, respectively, in good to excellent yield. These two alkylated phthalazinones were then reduced, with 7-amino-2-propargylphthalazin-1(2H)-one (30) and 7-amino-2-heptylphthalazin-1(2H)-one (32) being obtained in 88% and 98% yield from their respective nitro-functionalised precursors.



Scheme 3. Synthesis of the amino phthalazinones.

Finally, the assembly of pyrimidinyl-phthalazinones was undertaken. First, the chloropyrimidines were synthesised via the treatment of guanidine carbonate (**33**) with either ethyl

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acetoacetate (34),<sup>40</sup> ethyl benzoylacetate (35),<sup>41</sup> or ethyl-4fluorobenzoylacetate (36) to give hydroxypyrimidines 37, 38, and respectively, in good yield (Scheme 4A). The hydroxypyrimidines were then treated with POCI<sub>3</sub> under heating with reflux to yield the corresponding chloropyrimidines 40,40 4142 and 42. Condensation of the chloropyrimidines with aminophthalazinones 27, 30 and 32 under acidic conditions then gave pyrimidinyl-phthalazinones 43-51 in moderate to good yields (Scheme 4B). Successful formation of pyrimidinyl-phthalazinones 43-51 was confirmed via NMR spectroscopy, which included an HMBC between the bridging amine NH and carbons at the 5'-, 8and 6-positions.



, R<sup>1</sup> = CH<sub>3</sub>, R<sup>2</sup>= Ph, 60% , R<sup>1</sup> = CH<sub>3</sub>, R<sup>2</sup> = C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>3</sub>, 29% ,  $R^1 = CH_3$ ,  $R^2 = C_7H_{15}$ , 79% , R<sup>1</sup> = Ph, R<sup>2</sup> = Ph, 24% , R<sup>1</sup> = Ph, R<sup>2</sup> = C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>3</sub>, 83% ,  $R^1$  = Ph,  $R^2$  =  $C_7H_{15}$ , 45% , R<sup>1</sup> = 4-F-Ph, R<sup>2</sup> = Ph, 38% ,  $R^1 = 4$ -F-Ph,  $R^2 = C_3H_3$ , 53% , R<sup>1</sup> = 4-F-Ph, R<sup>2</sup> = C<sub>7</sub>H<sub>15</sub>, 27%

Scheme 4: Synthesis of the pyrimidinyl-phthalazinones

= 0.2  $\mu$ M). Here, the unfunctionalised phthalazinone 14 exhibited an MIC = 50  $\mu$ M (entry 1, Table 1), while the incorporation of an aliphatic chain at the 2-position led to an increase in inhibitory activity of the phthalazinones, with tert-butyl- (15), heptyl- (23) and propargyl- (24) phthalazinones all exhibiting low micromolar MIC values (3 µM, 6 µM, 12.5 µM, respectively, entries 2-4). Although the incorporation of lipophilic groups at this position significantly increased the potency of the compounds, there was no direct correlation between activity and the lipophilicity of the molecule as a whole, as expressed in terms of cLogP, the calculated logarithm of the n-octanol/water partition coefficient. Notably, the cLogP for the most potent compound, tert-butyl-phthalazinone 15 (cLogP = 1.848), was in between those of heptyl compound 23 (cLogP = 3.785) and unsubstituted phthalazinone 14 (cLogP = 0.155). Phenyl-substituted phthalazinone 16 was a poorer inhibitor (MIC = 100 µM, entry 5), although when electronwithdrawing groups were incorporated onto the phenyl ring (e.g. 17-22, entries 6-11), lower MICs of 50 µM were obtained for all derivatives, except the one that contained a p-CF<sub>3</sub> group (19, entry 8), where an MIC =  $12.5 \mu$ M was observed. Thus, these results imply that increasing the electron-withdrawing nature of the phthalazinones can increase the inhibitory activity of the compounds towards M. tuberculosis.

#### Table 1. Inhibition of M. tuberculosis by phthalazinones



Having completed the synthesis of phthalazinones and pyrimidinyl-phthalazinones, the compounds were then screened for their ability to inhibit the growth of *M. tuberculosis*, with the first line TB drug isoniazid (INH) being used as a positive control (MIC

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 $^{\rm [a]}$  Minimal inhibitory concentrations (MIC) were determined using a microtitre plate assay. *M. tb* mc^26230 cultures were incubated with the compounds for 5 days before resazurin was added and MICs determined.

<sup>[b]</sup> isoniazid (INH) was used as a positive control (MIC =  $0.2 \mu$ M).

Next, the inhibitory activity of phthalazinones containing electronwithdrawing and electron-donating groups at the 7-positions were investigated. Here, the incorporation of a nitro group at the 7position led to a remarkable increase in anti-tubercular activity for phthalazinone 28 (MIC = 3  $\mu$ M, entry 12) compared to the unfunctionalised phthalazinone 14 (MIC = 50  $\mu$ M, entry 1) and a two-fold improvement in activity for nitro-phthalazinone 29 (MIC = 6 µM, entry 13) compared to the corresponding propargylphthalazinone 24 (MIC = 12.5 µM, entry 4). In addition, it is noteworthy that phthalazinones 28 and 15 have appreciable antitubercular activities despite their low lipophilicities (cLogP = -0.102 and 1.848, respectively). For heptyl-phthalazinone 31 however, incorporation of the 6-nitro group led to a loss in antitubercular activity (MIC = 100 µM, entry 14 vs. 6 µM for 23, entry 3), while no change in inhibitory activity was observed between phenyl-phthalazinones 26 and 16 (entries 15 and 5, respectively). Amino-phthalazinones 27, 30, and 32 (entries 16-18) resulted in a loss of *M. tuberculosis* growth inhibition when compared to the equivalent unsubstituted phthalazinones 16, 24, and 23, respectively (entries 3-5), thus demonstrating that the instalment of an electron-donating amino group appears to lead to a reduction in potency of the drugs. This may be due to the ability of the amine groups in the amino-phthalazinones to form hydrogen bonds with amino acid residues away from the putative NDH-II Q-site, e.g. glutamic acid E324, or the relatively high polarity of the amino-phthalazinones could lower their binding affinity for the hydrophobic NDH-II Q-site.

Finally, the ability of pyrimidinyl-phthalazinones **43-51** to inhibit *M. tuberculosis* growth were determined (entries 19-27). In general, compounds bearing a 6-methyl-pyrimidine moiety were poor *M. tuberculosis* inhibitors, with phthalazinones **43-45** having high MIC values (50 – 100  $\mu$ M, entries 19-21). Similarly, while phenyl-pyrimidinyl-alkyne **47** elicited good anti-tubercular activity (MIC = 12.5  $\mu$ M, entry 23), 6-phenyl-pyrimidines **46** and **48** had low potency against *M. tuberculosis* with an MIC value of 100  $\mu$ M (entries 22 and 24). Aside from propargyl-phthalazinone **50** (entry 26), the incorporation of the more electron-withdrawing fluorophenyl-pyrimidine led to an increase in anti-tubercular activity in

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two of the pyrimidinyl-phthalazinones, as evidenced by the low MIC values of fluorophenyl-phthalazinones **49** (MIC = 12.5  $\mu$ M, entry 25) and **51** (MIC = 1.6  $\mu$ M, entry 27), with phthalazinone **51** exhibiting the highest anti-tubercular activity of the series. Thus, while the incorporation of a pyrimidine group did not significantly increase anti-tubercular activity of all phthalazinones, the lead *M. tuberculosis* inhibitor did contain this functional group. Taken together, these studies demonstrate that the inclusion of electron-withdrawing substituents and lipophilic group at the 2-position can increase the anti-tubercular activity of phthalazinones, however, the size and position of functional groups on the phthalazinone scaffold also influences inhibitory activity.

In an attempt to better explain the anti-tubercular activity of the phthalazinones, investigations into the ability of the compounds to affect respiratory NDH-II-dependent NADH oxidation were undertaken. Here, the rates of NADH oxidation in the absence and presence of inhibitors were measured using inverted membrane vesicles (IMVs) from *M. smegmatis*.<sup>43,44</sup> The addition of several phthalazinones to IMVs oxidising NADH showed a trend whereby the rates of NADH oxidation were enhanced compared to the basal rate (Figure 5), particularly pyrimidinyl-phthalazinones **46**, **49** and **50**. These data suggest that these



Figure 5: Rates of NADH oxidation when IMVs are treated with phthalazinones 14-24, 26-32, and pyrimidinyl-phthalazinones 43-51. Negative control is vehicle only, whereby IMV was not treated with compound or NADH. The basal rate is the rate of NADH oxidation by IMVs without the addition of drug. Data are expressed as average  $\pm$  standard deviation of three independent experiments.

compounds might activate NDH-II activity probably via a redox cycling mechanism.<sup>21,27</sup> Conversely, many phthalazinones appeared to cause a lower rate of NADH oxidation, notably phenyl-phthalazinone **16**, heptyl-phthalazinone **23**, and nitro-heptyl-phthalazinone **31**, which could be a result of NDH-II inhibition (direct or indirect). Accordingly, certain phthalazinones and pyrimidinyl-phthalazinones appear to bind NDH-II, although with different modes of action. Whereas representative

pyrimidinyl-phthalazinones activate NDH-II, which could lead to the formation of lethal levels of ROS,<sup>21,27</sup> some phthalazinones may exert their anti-tubercular activity through the inhibition of NDH-II and/or acting as an uncoupler of oxidative phosphorylation in mycobacteria.<sup>15</sup> On the other hand, a lack of correlation was observed between the MIC values of alkyne bearing compounds and their ability to affect NDH-II. For example, the rates of NADH oxidation upon treatment with alkyne-substituted phthalazinones 24 and 29 (MIC = 12.5  $\mu$ M and 6  $\mu$ M, respectively) were comparable to the basal rate of NADH oxidation, while alkynes 30 and 50, with comparatively high MIC values (50 µM for both), increased the rate of NADH oxidation in IMVs. As alkynes can undergo covalent interactions with non-target enzymes, it is possible that the observed anti-tubercular activities of propargylphthalazinones 24 and 29 resulted from off-target effects. Similarly, the mode of action of the lead phthalazinones (e.g. 15 and 28) and pyrimidinyl-phthalazinones (e.g. 51) appears to be independent of NDH-II.

#### Conclusions

In conclusion, we determined that phthalazinones are a promising class of TB inhibitors. In the present study, computational modelling using a representative phthalazinone scaffold indicated that these derivatives could be accommodated in the putative NDH-II Q-site. Accordingly, a library of phthalazinones functionalised at the 2- and 7-positions were synthesised and tested for their ability to inhibit the growth of *M. tuberculosis*. In general, the presence of electron-withdrawing or lipophilic groups on the phthalazinone or pyrimidinyl-phthalazinone scaffolds increased the anti-tubercular activity of the compounds, with several promising TB inhibitors, including fluorophenylpyrimidinyl-heptyl-phthalazinone **51** with an MIC =  $1.6 \mu$ M, being identified. The compounds were then screened for their ability to affect NADH oxidation in IMVs, which demonstrated that certain pyrimidinyl-phthalazinones increased the rate of NADH oxidation, while some phthalazinones decreased the rate of NADH oxidation. Other derivatives, such as heptyl-phthalazinone 51, did not greatly affect NADH oxidation, thus suggesting a different mode of action. Taken together, these studies are the first to demonstrate the potential of phthalazinones to act as antitubercular inhibitors. Further studies into optimising the antitubercular activity of these compounds and to better understand their mode of action are underway.

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