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Biochemical Pharmacology, Vol. 39, No. 10, pp. 1620–1623, 1990, Printed in Great Britain.

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Antimalarial activity of substituted anthraquinones

(Received 14 April 1989; accepted 22 December 1989)

Most antimalarial agents can be divided into two classes based on their speed of action [1]: (a) cinchona alkaloids, aminoquinoline, 9-aminoacridine derivatives, and (b) sulfa compounds of pyrimidine and biguanine derivatives which interfere with the conversion of dihydrofolic acid (FH₂) to tetrahydrofolic acid (FH₄), and thus inhibit the synthesis of purines and pyrimidines.

It has been suggested that in addition to these two classes, substantial evidence clearly indicates that malaria parasites may impair oxidant defence and repair functions of host erythrocytes through a number of mechanisms [2–7]. According to this view it seems likely that oxidant agents or alternatively agents that generate reactive oxygen, could damage parasitized red cells. This phenomenon seems to be related to the interference of malaria parasites with cellular oxidant repair mechanisms [2–7].

Aldehydes [8], diketones [9, 10], nitro compounds [11, 12] and apparently also substituted aminoalkylamino anthraquinones may generate reactive oxygen and thus inactivate malaria parasites (*Plasmodium falciparum*, *P. vinckei* and *P. berghei*). It has already been demonstrated that aminoalkylamino-anthraquinones exhibit a broad spectrum of activities such as anticancer [13–17], antiviral [18], antibacterial [13], antileishmania [19] and antiamebic [20] activity, together with their inhibitory effect on bovine serum amine oxidase [21]. Aminoalkylamino-anthraquinones intercalate [22–24] with DNA or form free radicals [25–28]. In addition the products formed by oxidizing naturally occurring polyamines by bovine serum amine oxidase [29, 30] or the purified aminoaldehyde products exhibit antimalaria activity [31].

Thus it is most likely that anthraquinone skeletons composed of aminoalkylamino or polyamino side chains should represent promising antimalarial model compounds.

In the light of the growing problem of drug resistant malarial parasites, the development of new drugs is of primary importance. In the present study we tested the effect of various anthraquinone derivatives on the growth and DNA synthesis of the malarial parasite (*P. falciparum*).

Materials and methods

Table 1 shows the structure of the substituted anthraquinones investigated in this study. The preparation of these compounds has been described elsewhere [18].

Parasites. Plasmodium falciparum (FCR 3TC) was cultured according to the candle jar method [32]. Parasites were synchronized by the combination of sorbitol lysis [33] and gelatin sedimentation [34]. Parasitemias and stage distribution were estimated from Giemsa stained smears by counting 5×10^3 erythrocytes and 5×10^2 infected cells, respectively.

Hypoxantine incorporation. Cultures of P. falciparum with an initial parasitemia of 10-12% ring form stage, were distributed into 96 microculture trays ($100~\mu\text{L}/\text{well}$) incubated with the drugs dissolved in RPMI-1640 medium (GIBCO) at final concentrations of 1, 10 and $100~\mu\text{M}$. After 22-24 hr [34] hypoxanthine was added to each well ($1~\mu\text{C}$ i per well sp. radioactivity $10~\text{Ci}/\mu\text{mol}$, New England Nuclear, Boston, MA) and incubation continued for another 7 hr. Thereafter, cultures were harvested by a Microtiter Dynateck Autowash cell Harvester, using 934-H glass filters. Filters were dried and radioactivity was determined by liquid scintillation counting.

Distribution of different stages. P. falciparum parasites were grown as above with an initial parasitemia of 1.5–2.0%. When cultures reached the mature trophozoite stage, drugs at final concentrations of 10 and 100 µM were added to each microwell. After 24 hr, the distribution of different

Table 1. Structure of substituted anthraquinones studied

$$R_{\mathbf{5}}$$

Anthraquinone

 $R_{\mathbf{1}}$
 $R_{\mathbf{2}}$
 $R_{\mathbf{3}}$
 $R_{\mathbf{4}}$
 $R_{\mathbf{5}}$
 $R_{\mathbf{5}}$
 $R_{\mathbf{5}}$
 $R_{\mathbf{5}}$
 $R_{\mathbf{5}}$
 $R_{\mathbf{5}}$
 $R_{\mathbf{5}}$
 $R_{\mathbf{5}}$
 $R_{\mathbf{5}}$

Compound No.	Substituted	Code	
1.	$R_1 = HN(CH_2)_2N(CH_3)_2; R_2 = R_4 = R_5 = H; R_8 = CI$	1-C ₂ DM 8Cl	
2.	$R_1 = HN(CH_2)_2NH(CH_2)_2NH_2; R_2 = R_4 = R_5 = R_8 = H$	1-C2C2	
3.	$R_1 = HN(CH_2)_2NH(CH_2)_3NH_2$, $R_2 = R_4 = R_5 = R_8 = H$	1-C2C3	
4.	$R_1 = HN(CH_2)_3NH(CH_2)_2NH_2; R_2 = R_4 = R_5 = R_8 = H$	1-C3C2	
5.	$R_1 = HN(CH_2)_3NH(CH_2)_3NH_2; R_2 = R_4 = R_5 = R_8 = H$	1-C3C3	
6.	$R_1 = HN(CH_2)_4NH_2$; $R_2 = R_4 = R_5 = R_8 = H$	1-C4	
7.	$R_1 = R_4 = HN(CH_2)_2N(CH_3)_2; R_2 = R_5 = R_8 = H$	1,4-C2DM	
8.	$R_1 = R_4 = HN(CH_2)_2NH(CH_2)_2OH; R_2 = R_5 = R_8 = H$	1,4-C2NHE	
9.	$R_1 = R_5 = HN(CH_2)_2(2PYR); R_2 = R_4 = R_8 = H$	1,5-C2PYR2	
10.	$R_1 = R_5 = HN(CH_2)_2N(CH_3)_2$; $R_2 = R_4 = R_8 = H$	1,5-C2DM	
11.	$R_1 = R_5 = HN(CH_2)_3N(CH_2CH_2OH)_2; R_2 = R_4 = R_8 = H$	1,5-C3NHDE	
12.	$R_1 = R_5 = HN(CH_2)_2NH(CH_2)_2OH$, $R_2 = R_4 = R_8 = H$	C2NHE	
13.	$R_1 = R_8 = HN(CH_2)_2NH(CH_2)_2OH; R_2 = R_4 = R_5 = H$	C2NHE	
14.	$R_2 = HN(CH_2)_2NH_2$; $R_1 = R_4 = R_5 = T_8 = H$	2-C2	

INHIBITION OF NUCLEIC ACID SYNTHESIS

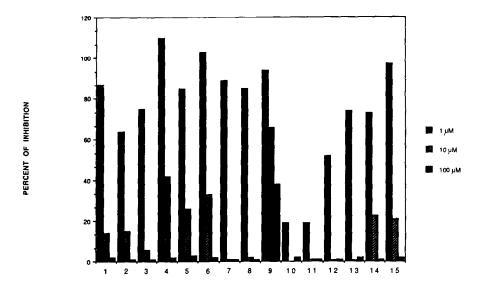


Fig. 1. Effect of substituted anthraquinones on nucleic acid synthesis by *Plasmodium falciparum*. The compounds tested were those listed in Table 1, except that 1,8-pentaethylene glycol was added as No. 15. Results are expressed as percent of [³H]hypoxanthine incorporated into malarial nucleic acids. Value for untreated controls (100%) was 53,000 counts/min/well.

COMPOUND No.

Table 2. Effect of substituted anthraquinones on the cell cycle of cultured Plasmodium falciparum parasite

		Relative distribution of parasite stage in presence of anthraquinone						
		100 μΜ			10 μΜ			
		Ring	Tropozoite	Schizont	Ring	Tropozoite	Schizont	
1.	1-C2DM-8Cl	0	0	0	0	6	4	
2.	1-C2C2	0	0	0	26	0	5	
3.	1-C2C3	0	6	0	0	10	0	
4.	1-C3C2	0	0	0	0	0	10	
5.	1-C3C3	0	0	0	0	5	5	
6.	1-C4	27		3	30	0	4	
8.	1,4-C2NHE	0	0	0	0	0	0	
9.	1,5-C2PYR2	0	0	0	33	0	3	
14.	2-C2	0	0	0	0	6	4	
15.	1,8 pentaethylen glycol	0	0	0	12	0	8	
Control		36	0	4	37	0	4	

stages was determined by examining Giemsa-stained smears. Results are expressed as number of parasites per field (average of five fields, approximately 400 erythrocytes per field).

Results and discussion

Hypoxanthine is a purine precursor and is incorporated into DNA and RNA of malarial parasites. The exposure of parasites to the drugs at a concentration of 100 µM for 7 hr led to a significant reduction in nucleic acid synthesis (Fig. 1). The most active compounds were compounds Nos 10, 11 and 12 which caused a significant inhibition at a $10 \,\mu\text{M}$ concentration and a moderate effect even at $1 \,\mu\text{M}$. It should be noted that all of these compounds lack a primary amino group. All of them are substituted at positions 1 and 5 and are either amino-alcohols or dimethylamino derivatives. It is also of interest that substituent as 2-N-dimethyl-amino-ethylamino groups at positions 1 and 5 caused a better inhibition of nucleic acid synthesis than in positions 1 and 4 (compare compounds 10 and 7).

Of the monosubstituted anthraquinones compound No. 3 was most active. It appears that the asymmetrical derivative containing an N-aminopropyl group (compound No. 3) was more active than the symmetrical derivative (compound No. 2) which consisted of a 2-N-aminoethyl,1,2 diaminoethane derivative. The addition of a chlorine atom at position 8 (compound No. 1) did not result in a significant antimalarial activity.

In the host, P. falciparum multiplies rapidly, producing up to 32 merozoites within 48 hr. The cell cycle of the malarial parasites can be divided into three major stages. The first, the ring (R) stage is followed by the second trophozoite (T) stage at the end of which DNA synthesis is initiated. The final stage in the cell cycle is the schizont (S) stage. At the end of this stage the infected erythrocyte bursts and the released merozoites infect other erythrocytes.

If a drug inhibits DNA synthesis, then the development of the parasites should be arrested at the end of the trophozoite or at the schizont stage and the number of new ring form should be reduced. Table 2 shows that in the untreated culture most of the parasites reached the ring stage. A similar process took place when compounds No. 6 (1-C4) or 9 (1,5-C2PYR2) were added to the cultures. Data presented in Fig. 1 also show that compound No. 9 only slightly inhibited the synthesis of malarial nucleic acids.

The most active compound was compound No. 8 which inhibited the growth of the parasites even at a concentration

of $10 \,\mu\text{M}$. It should be noted that this compound was not the best inhibitor of the synthesis of nucleic acid (cf. Fig. 1). This suggests that the antimalarial activity of this compound is not exclusively due to inhibition of nucleic acid

Of the anthraquinones substituted at position 1, compounds Nos 1, 3, 4 and 5 gave similar results. None of the parasites reached the ring stage and all of them were arrested at the trophozoite or schizont stage. These compounds also inhibited nucleic acid synthesis (cf. Fig. 1). On the other hand compound Nos 2 and 6, which inhibited nucleic acid synthesis failed to block the development of the parasites and ring forms appeared as in the untreated controls (Table 2).

Compound Nos 2 and 3, which inhibit the synthesis of malarial nucleic acids (Fig. 1) are not substrates of serum amine oxidases [21] and therefore do not yield toxic oxidation products. It thus appears that the antimalarial activity of the anthraquinone derivatives resides in their ability to intercalate DNA. It is conceivable that the aminoalkyl side chains which resemble polyamines and diamines in their structure, facilitate a better interaction between the anthraquinone moiety and the bihelical DNA.

It should be stressed that many of the antiparasitic drugs such as chloroquine, quinacrine, imidocarb, berenil and pentamidine resemble polyamines in their structure [35] but contain tertiary amines. The addition of aminoalkyl groups to the anthraquinone moiety may provide a new line of antiparasitic drugs.

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