Design and synthesis of selective inhibitors of poly(ADP-ribose)polymerase-2

submitted by

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The research work in this thesis has been carried out in the Department of Pharmacy and Pharmacology, under the supervision of Dr Michael D. Threadgill and Dr Andrew Thompson.

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Abstract

The poly(ADP-ribose) polymerases (PARPs) are a family of enzymes that catalyse the transfer of ADP-ribose polymers onto acceptor proteins. The biology and biochemistry of PARP-1 has been extensively studied and, for many years, this was thought to be the sole protein responsible for poly(ADP-ribosyl)ation reactions. However, the functions of the remaining members of the PARP family remain unclear. PARP-2 is responsible for 10-15% of the poly(ADP-ribosyl)ation reactions in the cell and, like PARP-1, is activated by damage to DNA. Recently, the biological importance of PARP-2 has been illustrated by studies using knockout mice and antisense RNA. The protein has been shown to have an important role in DNA repair, telomeric integrity, inflammation and cellular differentiation; but the picture is cloudy. There is currently a major requirement for isoform-selective inhibitors of PARP-2 to use as tools to study the functions of the enzyme. This work focuses upon the design and synthesis of these molecules and their biological evaluation.

Three sets of target compounds were proposed, based on the structure of the murine PARP-2 active site with our lead compound 5-AIQ docked. An initial series of 5-substituted 5-AIQs with carboxylic acids tethered were prepared by alkylation of 5-AIQ or Heck reaction with 5-iodoisouquinolin-1-one but these molecules did not show selectivity for PARP-2 over PARP-1. A further set of 5-acylaminoisouquinolin-1-ones were prepared by treating 5-AIQ with the appropriate acid chloride and were more promising. 5-benzamidoisouquinolinone displayed a 9-fold selectivity for PARP-2 over PARP-1 in our assays. This was in contrast to the best literature compound which had a ca. 3-fold selectivity for PARP-2 in our system (reported 60-fold selectivity).

3-substituted compounds were initially prepared using the established chemistry of the Hurtley reaction but two new routes were developed. The first of these involved an initial Friedel-Crafts reaction of 5-nitrosocoumarin and rearrangement followed by decarbonylation / decarboxylation. The second is likely to become the most efficient way to synthesise 3-aryl-5-nitrosocoumarin-1-ones and involves Suzuki reaction with 3-
chloro-1-methoxyisoquinoline as the key step. The 3-substituted compounds were generally highly potent against PARP-1/2 in comparison with 5-AIQ but were not selective.

Several approaches were explored in the synthesis of 4-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones but by far the most successful were palladium-catalysed couplings with protected 4-bromo-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-ones. The most promising 4-substituted compound was 5-amino-4-(4-trifluromethyl)isoquinolin-1-one which was ca. 8-fold selective for PARP-2.

A series of 3,5- and 4,5-disubstituted 5-AIQs was generated using previously developed chemistry. Biological evaluation showed these compounds were not significantly active against either PARP isoform.

A new synthesis of our lead compound 5-AIQ was developed in which the only purification steps were filtration and recrystallisation. This has become by far the most efficient way to synthesise this important molecule.
Acknowledgements

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Finally, thanks to all my friends and family for their help during this degree, especially Dad for proof-reading.
We are all in the gutter, but some of us are looking at the stars. Oscar Wilde
Contents

Abstract
Acknowledgements
Contents
List of Figures, Schemes and Tables
Abbreviations

Chapter 1   Introduction

1.1   The PARP superfamily
1.2   PARP-1
1.2.1   Molecular Structure
1.2.2   DNA Repair
1.2.3   Mitosis
1.2.4   Transcriptional regulation
1.2.5   Inflammation and inflammatory diseases
1.2.6   Asthma
1.2.7   Ischaemia-reperfusion injury
1.2.8   Inflammatory bowel diseases
1.2.9   Arthritis
1.3   PARP-2
1.3.1   Molecular Structure
1.3.2   PARP-2 targets, partners and functions
1.3.3   DNA Repair
1.3.4   Telomeric integrity
1.3.5   Inflammation
1.3.6   Cellular differentiation
1.3.7   T Lymphocytes
1.3.8   Germ Cells
1.3.9   Adipocytes
1.4 PARP-3
1.5 PARP-4
1.6 PARP-5 and 6a, the tankyrases
1.7 PARP-7, PARP-12 and PARP-13
1.8 PARP-9, PARP-14 and PARP-15
1.9 PARP-10
1.10 Other PARPs
1.11 PARGs
1.12 Inhibitors of PARPs
1.12.1 Early inhibitors
1.12.2 Benzamides
1.12.3 Benzimidazole-4-carboxamides and benzoxazole-4-carboxamides
1.12.4 Quinazolinones and phthalazin-1-ones
1.12.5 Isoindolines
1.12.6 Dihydroisoquinolinones and isoquinolinones
1.12.7 Clinical trial development of PARP inhibitors
1.12.8 PARP-2 inhibitors reported in the literature

Chapter 2 Research aims and objectives

Chapter 3 Results and discussion

3.1 Molecular modelling
3.2 PARP-1 Assay
3.3 PARP-2 Assay
3.4.1 5-Substituted isoquinolinones
3.4.2 Synthesis of 5-AIQ
3.4.3 Alkylations of 5-AIQ
3.4.4 Synthesis and Heck reaction of 5-iodoisoquinolin-1-one
3.4.5 Synthesis of 1-Oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinoline-5-carboxylic acid
3.4.6 New synthesis of 5-bromoisoquinolin-1-one
3.4.7 Attempted synthesis of 2-(1-oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)acetic acid
3.4.8 Initial SAR with 5-Substituted isoquinolinones
3.4.9 Further modifications at the 5-position of 5-AIQ
3.4.10 Further SAR with 5-Substituted isoquinolinones
3.5 3-Substituted Isoquinolin-1-ones
3.5.1 Hurtley reaction
3.5.2 Friedel-Crafts reaction
3.5.3 Initial SAR with 3-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones
3.5.4 A novel route to 5-amino-3-arylisoquinolin-1-ones
3.5.5 Further SAR with 3-arylisoquinolin-1-ones
3.6 4-Substituted Isoquinolin-1-ones
3.6.1 Alkylations and condensations of 2,6-dicyanotoluene
3.6.2 Attempted iodination and successful bromination of 5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one
3.6.3 Attempted palladium and copper-catalysed cross-couplings with 4-bromo-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one
3.6.4 Synthesis of 4-bromo-1-methoxy-5-nitroisoquinoline
3.6.5 Lithiations of 4-bromo-1-methoxy-5-nitroisoquinoline
3.6.6 Palladium-catalysed cross-couplings with 4-bromo-1-methoxy-5-nitroisoquinoline
3.6.7 Stille cross-coupling with 4-bromo-1-methoxy-5-nitroisoquinoline
3.6.8 SAR with 4-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones
3.6.9 Buchwald-Hartwig cross-coupling
3.7 Crystal structures
3.8 Disubstituted Isoquinolin-1-ones

Chapter 4 MTS Cell proliferation assay
4.1 Background to MTS assay
4.2 Biological results
Chapter 5  Conclusions and future work

5.1  Conclusions
5.2  Future work

Chapter 6  Experimental
List of Figures, Schemes and Tables

Figures

Figure 1. The domain structures of PARP-1
Figure 2. The structure of the PARP inhibitor 3-AB 1a.
Figure 3. The structures of the alkylating agents HN2 2, MMS 3 and MNU 4.
Figure 4. The structure of 5-AIQ 5.
Figure 5. The structure of TNBS 6 and DNBS 7.
Figure 6. The domain structure of PARP-2.
Figure 7. The molecular structure of PARP-3.
Figure 8. The structures of 5-methylnicotinamide 8a, nicotinamide 8b and benzamide 1b.
Figure 9. A selection of the benzamides reported by Purnell and Whish106 and Banasik.107
Figure 10. The disubstituted benzamides 1i, 1j, and 1k.
Figure 11. The structure of the 3,4-dihydroisoquinolin-1-one 9.
Figure 12. Structures of some benzimidazole-4-carboxamides, benzoxazole-4-carboxamides and tricyclic PARP inhibitors.
Figure 13. Some simple quinazolin-1-ones and phthalazin-1-ones.
Figure 14. A selection of phthalazin-1-ones developed by Kudos Pharmaceuticals.
Figure 15. The homopiperazine derivatives 14i, 14j and 14k
Figure 16. The structure of the clinical candidate 14l developed by Kudos Pharmaceuticals
Figure 17. Isoindoline PARP inhibitors.
Figure 18. Structures of the isoquinolin-1-one PARP inhibitors 16, 17 and 18.
Figure 19. PARP SAR to date.
Figure 20. Structures of the PARP inhibitors 19 and 12c and 14l.
Figure 21. Structures of the PARP inhibitors 23, 1e and 13d.
Figure 22. The PARP-1 selective quinazolinone 13e
Figure 23. Observed interactions and distances between 13d and the PARP-1 active site; all distances are in Ångstroms.
Figure 24. Model of the catalytic fragment of PARP-2 with 13d docked.
Figure 25. Structures of isoquinolin-1-ones with carboxylic acids tethered to the 5-position; a) n = 1,2; b) n = 1-3.

Figure 26. Partial HMBC spectrum of 62.

Figure 27. The carboxylic acid targets 28, 63 and 27.

Figure 28. Possible binding modes of 62 in the PARP-1 active site.

Figure 29. The PARP-2 selective ester 99 and proposed amide 101, and the unselective PJ34 100.

Figure 30. Target 3-aryl and 3-alkylisoquinolin-1-ones.

Figure 31. The secondary 3-substituted targets.

Figure 32. Ligands for the Buchwald-Hartwig reaction. 211 = XPhos, 185 = SPhos, 212 = BuXPhos, 213 = JohnPhos.

Figure 33. Large crystals of 1-methoxy-5-nitro-4-phenylisoquinoline 194 shown on a ruler.

Figure 34. X-ray crystallographic structure of 194.

Figure 35. X-ray crystallographic structure of 201.

Figure 36. X-ray crystallographic structure of 204.

Figure 37. X-ray crystallographic structure of 214.

Schemes

Scheme 1. PAR-generating reactions catalysed by PARPs. a) Generation of cyclic oxonium ion following weakening of the C–N bond. b) Initiation, the cation is quenched by a nucleophilic glutamate residue from an acceptor protein. c) Branching, via the 2′′-OH of the nicotinamide-ribose. d) Elongation, via the 2′-OH of the adenine-ribose.

Scheme 2. Structures of selective PARP-1 and PARP-2 inhibitors discovered by random screening.

Scheme 3. Reported synthesis of 5-AIQ via Polonowski rearrangement of 51. (i) AcOH, H₂O₂; (ii) Ac₂O, heat; (iii) Pd/C, H₂.

Scheme 4. Synthesis of 5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one via radical bromination of 52. (i) Br₂, (PhCO₂)₂, CCl₄, hv, reflux; (ii) Et₄NCN, MeCN; (iii) DIBAL-H.
Scheme 5. Synthesis of 5-nitroisocoumarin via enamine formation. (i) DMFDMA, DMF, reflux; (ii) SiO₂.

Scheme 6. Preferred route to 5-AIQ. (i) MeOH, H⁺, reflux, 84%; (ii) DMFDMA, DMF, reflux, SiO₂, 42%; (iii) NH₃, 2-methoxyethanol, reflux, 71%; (iv) H₂, 10% Pd/C, EtOH, H⁺, 66%.

Scheme 7. Synthesis of 59 via an alkylation of 5-AIQ. (i) diisopropylethylamine, ethyl bromoacetate, 19%; (ii) aq. HCl, 87%.

Scheme 8. Attempted synthesis of 60 which gave 61, hydrolysis yielded 62. (i) NaH, methyl propenoate 67%; (ii) aq. HCl, 85%.

Scheme 9. Attempted synthesis of 5-iodoisoquinolin-1-one via Curtius rearrangement of 72. (i) EtCN, Pd(OAc)₂, propenoic acid, Et₃N; (ii) SOCl₂; (iii) NaN₃, H₂O; (iv) Heat, (MeOCH₂CH₂OCH₂CH₂O).

Scheme 10. Synthesis of the targets 27 and 26 via Heck reaction of 5-iodoisoquinolin-1-one. (i) Pd/C, H₂, 89%; (ii) NaNO₂, HCl, KI, 58%; (iii) NH₃, 2-methoxyethanol, 62%; (iv) Propenoic acid, Et₃N, Pd(II) acetate, 97%; (v) Pd/C, H₂, 66%.

Scheme 11. Synthesis of 1-oxoisooquinoline-5-carboxylic acid 28. (i) KOBu, ethyl formate, 76 14%, 77 13%; (ii) KOH, EtOH, 83%.

Scheme 12. Synthesis of 5-cyanoisoquinolin-1-one 76 via Pinner-type reaction of 41. (i) DMFDMA, 3 d, 71%; (ii) MeOH, HCl, 55%.

Scheme 13. General outcomes of the Pinner reaction.

Scheme 14. Expected pathways when 78 is subjected to Pinner conditions.

Scheme 15. Proposed mechanism for the formation of 76 from 78.

Scheme 16. New, higher-yielding synthesis of 5-bromoisoquinolin-1-one 64. (i) Br₂, 65%; (ii) AcOH/H₂O, 70%.

Scheme 17. Attempted synthesis of the ester 93 via palladium-catalysed coupling of 64 and ethyl acetoacetate. (i) Pd(OAc)₂, P′Bu₃, K₃PO₄, toluene.

Scheme 18. Attempted synthesis of 93 via palladium-catalysed couplings with diethyl malonate.

Scheme 19. Proposed synthesis of 98 via Stille reaction to form 96. (i) Pd₂(dba)₃, SPhos, trimethylallyl tin, toluene; (ii) O₃; (iii) PCC.
Scheme 20. Acylation of 5-AIQ with various acid chlorides. (i) Pyridine, 90°C, 16 h, 55-86%.

Scheme 21. Hg$^{2+}$-catalysed cyclisation of methyl 3-nitro-2-phenylethynylbenzoate 30 to give 5-nitro-3-phenylisocoumarin 31 which can be converted into the corresponding isoquinolin-1-one 32 by reaction with ammonia. (i) (Ph$_3$P)PdCl$_2$, CuI, ethynylbenzene; (ii) HgSO$_4$, H$_2$SO$_4$, acetone; (ii) 2-methoxyethanol, NH$_3$; (iv) Pd/C, H$_2$.

Scheme 22. Hurtley reaction of 2-bromo-3-nitrobenzoic acid with β-diketones (left to right) and reaction of methyl 2-iodo-3-nitrobenzoate with arylethynes under Castro-Stevens conditions (right to left), to give 3-aryl-5-nitroisocoumarins, precursors to isoquinolin-1-ones. (i) NaOEt, Cu; (ii) Pyridine, heat; (iii) 2-methoxyethanol, NH$_3$; (iv) Pd/C, H$_2$.

Scheme 23. Formation of 3-arylisocoumarins by Hurtley reaction of 34 or 122, followed by deacylation. (i) Cu, KOBu', 2-methylpropan-2-ol; (ii) NaCl, 170°C.

Scheme 24. Synthesis of 34 by mercuration followed by bromination. (i) NaOH, Hg(OAc)$_2$, AcOH, (ii) AcOH, Br$_2$, NaBr, 74% (overall).

Scheme 25. Synthesis of β-diketones via Claisen-condensation-type reactions. (i) BF$_3$.(AcOH)$_2$, 68-84%.

Scheme 26. The different tautomers of 128 evidenced by $^1$H NMR. The intramolecular hydrogen bonds offer increased stability.

Scheme 27. Two possible products are possible depending upon whether the Hurtley intermediate 136 undergoes debenzoylation or deacylation.

Scheme 28. Synthesis of 3-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones via Hurtley reaction. (i) Cu, KOBu', 2-methylpropan-2-ol, 12-33%; (ii) NH$_3$, 2-methoxyethanol, 24-80%; (iii) Pd/H$_2$, HCl, 42-79%.

Scheme 29. Resonance forms of the lactams 142 and 143.

Scheme 30. Probable products formed if Friedel-Crafts alkylations or acylations were attempted directly on 5-AIQ.

Scheme 31. Friedel-Crafts acylations of 38. (i) Ac$_2$O, H$,^+$, 36%; (ii) PhCOCl, AlCl$_3$, 26%.

Scheme 32. $^{13}$C-Labeling study.
Scheme 33. Proposed mechanism for the formation of 31 following Friedel-Crafts reaction of 5-nitroisocoumarin 56.

Scheme 32. Retrosynthetic analysis for 167.

Scheme 35. Synthesis of 158 via Suzuki coupling with 171. (i) HNO₃/H₂SO₄, 91%; (ii) MeOH, Na, 92%; (iii) Pd₂(db), SPhos, K₃PO₄, 3-MePh(OH)₂, toluene, 67%; (iv) HBr, 85%; (v) Pd/C, H₂, 69%; overall yield 33%.

Scheme 36. Synthesis of 5-cyano-4-methylisocoumarin 177, 5-cyanoisoquinolin-1-one 178 and 5-cyanoisocoumarin 177 from 2,6-dicyanotoluene 41. (i) KOBu', ethyl formate, 76 14%, 77 13%; (ii) DMFDMA, 71%; (iii) MeOH, HCl, 55%; (iv) KOBu', ethyl formate, 0%; (v) DMFDMA, 0%; (vi) DMFDMA, TsOH, 12%; (vii) diisopropylamine, 13%.

Scheme 37. Proposed mechanism for the formation of the aldehyde 176.

Scheme 38. Bromination of 2-methyl-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one 180, as reported by Horning.¹⁷¹

Scheme 39. Bromination of 38 to form 49 and reduction of the nitro function. (i) Br₂, AcOH; (ii) Sn(II)Cl₂, EtOH; (iii) Heat.

Scheme 40. Attempted Suzuki cross-couplings of 49 (R = NO₂) and 184 (R = NH₂).

Scheme 41. Synthesis of 4-bromo-1-methoxy-5-nitroisoquinoline 46. (i) DMF, oxalyl chloride, 89%; (ii) MeOH, Na, 82%.

Scheme 42. Synthesis of 190 via lithiation of 46. (i) n-BuLi, THF; (ii) MeI, 9%.

Scheme 43. Reported synthesis of the hindered biaryl 193 via Suzuki cross-coupling.¹⁷² (i) Pd₂(db), SPhos, K₃PO₄, toluene, 93%.

Scheme 44. Synthesis of 195 and 197. (i) Pd₂(db), SPhos, K₃PO₄, ArB(OH)₂, toluene, 194 86% and 198 81%; (ii) HBr, 196 65% and 199 65%; (v) Pd/C, H₂, 195 51% and 197 53%.

Scheme 45. Synthesis of 200. (i) BnOH, NaH, DMF, 201 71% and 202 12%; (ii) Pd₂(db), SPhos, K₃PO₄, 4-MeOPhB(OH)₂, toluene, 61%; (iii) Pd/C, H₂, 47%.

Scheme 46. Synthesis of the hindered 205. (i) Pd₂(db), SPhos, K₃PO₄, phenanthren-9-yllboronic acid, toluene, 42%; (iii) Pd/C, H₂.

Scheme 47. Synthesis of 207 via Stille cross-coupling. (i) Me₄Sn, Pd₂(db), SPhos, toluene, 72%; (ii) HBr, 70%; (iii) Pd/C, H₂, HCl, 65%.
Scheme 48. Attempted Buchwald-Hartwig couplings with 46. (i) Pd$_2$(dba)$_3$, SPhos, K$_3$PO$_4$, PhXH, toluene. 208 34%, 209 0%, 210 0%.

Scheme 49. Synthesis of disubstituted isoquinolin-1-ones. (i) ArCOCl, pyridine.

Scheme 50. A novel synthesis of 5-AIQ. (i) HNO$_2$/H$_2$SO$_4$, 92%; (ii) AcOH/H$_2$O, 82%; (iii) Pd/C, H$_2$, 70%.

**Tables**

Table 1. Inhibition of the activities of PARP-1 and PARP-2 by 5- and 2-(ω-carboxyalkyl)isoquinolin-1-ones; data for 5-AIQ 5 are shown for comparison.

Table 2. Inhibition of the activities of PARP-1 and PARP-2 by 5-amidoisoquinolin-1-ones; data for 5-AIQ 5, 5-benzoyloxyisoquinolin-1-one 99 and 2-(4-chlorophenyl)quinoxaline-5-carboxamide 22 are shown for comparison.

Table 3. Outcomes of reactions of acyl chlorides with 5-nitroisocoumarin 56 under various Friedel-Crafts conditions

Table 4. Comparison of the chemical yields obtained when various isocoumarins are synthesised by either the Hurtley route or the Friedel-Crafts route.

Table 5. Inhibition of the activities of PARP-1 and PARP-2 by 3,5-disubstituted isoquinolin-1-ones and isocoumarins; data for 5-AIQ 5 are shown for comparison.

Table 6. Chemical yields obtained when 157, 158 and 161 were synthesised via Friedel-Crafts reaction of 56.

Table 7. Inhibition of the activities of PARP-1 and PARP-2 by isomeric 3-(methylphenyl)-5-AIQs and by 3-(4-iodophenyl)-5-AIQ; data for 5-AIQ 5 are shown for comparison.

Table 8. Inhibition of the activities of PARP-1 and PARP-2 by 4-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones; data for 5-AIQ 5 are shown for comparison.

Table 9. Chemical yields obtained when reactions conditions were varied in Buchwald-Hartwig couplings of 46 with aniline.

Table 10. Acylation yields and inhibition of the activities of PARP-1 and PARP-2 by 5-benzamido-3-substituted and -4-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones; data for 5-AIQ 5 are shown for comparison.
Table 11. Cytotoxicity of selected isoquinolin-1-ones against HT29 human colon carcinoma cells.
### Abbreviations

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<th>Abbreviation</th>
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<tr>
<td>Ac</td>
<td>acetyl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIF</td>
<td>apoptosis-mediating factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-AIQ</td>
<td>5-aminoisquinolin-1-one</td>
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<td>breast cancer susceptibility protein</td>
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<td>breast cancer susceptibility protein, C-terminus</td>
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<td>CREB-binding protein</td>
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iNOS  inducible nitric oxide
Me   methyl
MMS  methyl methanesulfonate
MNU  N-methyl-N-nitrosothea
MVP  major vault protein
NAD⁺  nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide
NBS  N-bromosuccinimide
NIS  N-iodosuccinimide
NHEJ  non-homologous end joining
PAR  poly(ADP-ribose)
NLS  nuclear localisation signal
PARG  poly(ADP-ribose) glycohydrolase
PARP  poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase
PMN  polymorphonuclear leukocyte
PPARγ  peroxisome proliferator activated receptor-γ
RNS  reactive nitrogen species
ROS  reactive oxygen species
SSB  single strand breaks
SSBR  single strand break repair
SPhos  2-(2',6'-dimethoxybiphenyl)-dicyclohexylphosphine
TCDD  2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin
TCR  T-cell receptor
TEF-1  transcription enhancer factor-1
TEP-1  telomerase associated protein
TNBS  trinitrobenzenesulfonic acid
TRF-1  telomeric repeat binding factor-1
TRF-2  telomeric repeat binding factor-2
Tankyrase-1  TRF1-interacting, ankyrin-related ADP-ribose
VRNA  vault RNA
WAT  white adipose tissue
XRCC1  X-ray repair cross complementing I
1. Introduction

1.1 The PARP superfamily

The poly(ADP-ribosyl)ation of proteins involves the transfer of multiple ADP-ribose units onto glutamic acid residues of the targets, resulting in the formation of polymers. The formation of poly(ADP-ribose) (PAR) was first reported in 1963 and, since then, there has been an intense research focus into both the functions of the polymer and of the family of enzymes behind its synthesis, the poly(ADP-ribose) polymerases (PARPs).

1.2 PARP-1

1.2.1 Molecular Structure

The PARPs are found in most eukaryotes, with the notable exception of yeasts. The first isoform to be discovered and characterised was poly(ADP-ribose)polymerase-1 (PARP-1). The human gene for PARP-1 comprises 23 exons and is located on chromosome 1 at position q41-q42, contained within 43 Kb of DNA. Initial proteolytic studies of the enzyme revealed three main functional domains, which have been further subdivided into the six domains as shown in Figure 1.

![Figure 1. The domain structures of PARP-1](image-url)
Four domains from the six depicted have now been designated with a function. The DNA-binding domain (DBD) is found close to the N terminus and was originally thought to contain just two zinc-binding sites but a third zinc finger structure was reported in 2008. The initially discovered zinc-binding domains are essential for DNA binding, unlike their newly discovered counterpart, which appears to have a role in protein-protein interactions and the DNA-dependent activation of PARP-1, although the role of this third zinc finger is still controversial.

Domain B, the nuclear localisation signal (NLS), contains the PARP nuclear-homing sequence which is essential for nuclear translocation. Also present in the domain is a cleavage site for a number of apoptotic proteases. Amongst these, caspase-3 has been identified as being primarily responsible for the breakdown of PARP-1 during programmed cell death.

The Automodification domain, or domain D, contains a breast-cancer susceptibility sequence (BRCA1), C-terminus (BRCT) motif which is found in numerous proteins involved in cell-cycle control and DNA repair and recombination. It is known that proteins possessing the ca. 100-amino-acid motif can form heterodimers and, therefore, its presence in PARP-1 provides a platform for protein-protein interactions and for dimerisation. In lower organisms, such as Drosophila, a leucine zipper has been found in domain D and it has been postulated that this motif is responsible for protein-protein interactions in such species. Interestingly the leucine zipper is poorly conserved in vertebrates, suggesting that the presence of the BRCT domain has rendered it redundant.

Close to the carboxy terminus lies domain F, the catalytic domain. Alignment and comparison of the amino-acid sequences of PARP-1 from multiple species shows that domain F has been highly conserved throughout evolution. Analysis of the crystal structure of the chicken PARP-1 catalytic fragment revealed common features with the active sites of some bacterial toxins, which are mono-ADP-ribosyl transferases, and random mutagenesis of residues in the active site has demonstrated that the conserved
E988 is essential for elongation of the PAR chain. Scheme 1 shows the reactions catalysed by PARPs containing the catalytic fragment.

**Scheme 1.** PAR-generating reactions catalysed by PARPs. a) Generation of cyclic oxonium ion following weakening of the C–N bond. b) Initiation, the cation is quenched by a nucleophilic glutamate residue from an acceptor protein. c) Branching, *via* the 2″-OH of the nicotinamide-ribose. d) Elongation, *via* the 2″-OH of the adenine-ribose.

The first step of the PARP-catalysed reaction is removal of the nicotinamide as a leaving group. This is facilitated by a trio of strong hydrogen bonds to the primary amide, which stretches and weakens the glycosidic C–N bond. This process generates the intermediate highly electrophilic oxonium ion (Scheme 1). The “Initiation” then involves the
nucleophilic attack of the anionic γ-carboxylate of a glutamate residue from an acceptor protein at the α-face of the anomic carbon of the cyclic oxonium ion. Elongation and branching rely on the same chemistry, quenching of the oxonium ion via an oxygen nucleophile but supplied by a 2'-hydroxy group of a ribose of the growing polymer. Each molecule of NAD$^+$ contains two ribose units and these are identified as either the adenine-ribose or the nicotinamide-ribose, depending on their relative positions. If the adenine-ribose 2'-OH is utilised to quench the cyclic oxonium ion, elongation of the PAR chain occurs. Quenching by the nicotinamide-ribose 2'-hydroxy creates a branch-point in the chain, which occurs approximately once in every thirty-to-fifty ADP-ribose units polymerised.  

Automodification of the enzymes themselves is the principal regulator of PARP activity, as the process ultimately leads to termination of catalytic activity due to electrostatic repulsion between the poly(ADP)ribosylated enzyme and DNA.

The PAR polymer has a short biological half-life of less than one minute in vivo, owing to degradation by the enzyme poly(ADP-ribose) glycohydrolase (PARG). PARG hydrolyses the glycosidic (1″ → 2′) linkages in linear and the (1″ → 2″) linkages in branched PAR to produce ADP-ribose.  

Following the actions of PARG, one ADP-ribose unit is left, linked through a carboxylate group on a glutamate residue to the acceptor protein. ADP-ribose protein lyase is the enzyme responsible for the removal of this last residue via hydrolysis of the ester bond between the protein and the ADP-ribose monomer.

1.2.2 DNA Repair

The major heterologous acceptors of PAR generated by PARP-1 are proteins involved in nuclear functions, including DNA repair and replication, transcription and chromatin-structure modulation, suggesting that PARP-1 is involved in the regulation of these processes. The poly(ADP-ribosyl)ation of histones is thought to be particularly important as the build up of anionic charge leads to a relaxation of chromatin structure, allowing components of the DNA-repair pathway access to the DNA.  

PARP-1 interacts directly
(through the BRCT motif) with multiple components of the base excision repair (BER) and single-strand-break repair (SSBR) pathways.

The crucial role of PARP-1 in DNA repair is also evidenced by the hypersensitivity of cells to DNA-damaging agents which have been treated with PARP-1 inhibitors\textsuperscript{19}. For example, Huet and Laval\textsuperscript{20} showed Chinese Hamster Ovary (CHO) cells had decreased DNA repair and decreased survival when treated with bleomycin in combination with 3-aminobenzamide 1a, rather than with bleomycin alone. Another group\textsuperscript{21} used X-rays as the DNA-damaging agent and showed that co-treatment with 1a resulted in diminished survival in V79-B310H cells.

Until highly PARP-1-selective inhibitors are available, perhaps a better strategy to investigate the importance of PARP-1 alone in DNA repair is to use PARP-1 antisense mRNA.\textsuperscript{22} Stevnsner and co-workers\textsuperscript{23} used nitrogen mustard 2 (HN2) to damage DNA in HeLa S3 cells expressing PARP-1 antisense mRNA and showed that these cells displayed decreased gene specific repair and survival. Similar observations were made by Ding \textit{et al.}\textsuperscript{24, 25} who used methyl methanesulfonate 3 (MMS) as an alternative DNA damaging agent.

![Structure of 1a](image)

\textbf{Figure 2.} The structure of the PARP inhibitor 3AB 1a.

In addition, studies on PARP-1-knockout mice (which develop normally and are fertile) have shown markedly increased sensitivity to ionising radiation and alkylating agents.\textsuperscript{22} When PARP-1\textsuperscript{-/-} mice were exposed to \(\gamma\)-rays (8 Gy), the majority died within 4-6 days, whereas approximately 50\% of the wild-type mice survived an identical exposure for three weeks.\textsuperscript{26} In a different experiment, using the alkylating agent N-methyl-N-
nitrosourea 4 (MNU), the authors reported that all PARP-1 deficient mice had died four weeks after intraperitoneal injection. In contrast, 60% of the control mice survived and lived for over eight weeks post-injection. Interestingly, it has been shown that PARP-1 knockouts do not recruit the scaffold protein X-ray repair cross complementing I (XRCC1) to single strand breaks (SSB) and have delayed SSBR, suggesting a possible mechanism for their hypersensitivity to DNA-damaging agents.

![Figure 3. The structures of the alkylating agents HN2 2, MMS 3 and MNU 4.](image)

PARP-1 plays a major role in the initial stages of SSBR, which are outlined below.

1) The SSBR pathway begins with the detection of SSBs and this is achieved by PARP-1 (and possibly other PARP isoforms) binding to the damaged site through its zinc fingers.

2) The DNA-bound PARP-1 is activated resulting in PAR production and chromatin relaxation following histone poly(ADP-ribosyl)ation (note that this process is transient as the PAR polymers are rapidly degraded by PARG).

3) With the chromatin in a relaxed state, PARP-1 interacts with and recruits XRCC1 to the site of damage. This protein acts as a molecular scaffold and allows the assembly of the SSBR complex through interaction with the multiple components involved (most importantly DNA polymerase and DNA ligase).

4) In order that the final two stages of SSBR can take place, the damaged 3’ and 5’ ‘ends’ of DNA must be restored to their original undamaged state. Multiple enzymes are involved in this process including XRCC1, PNKP and APTX.

5) Gap filling is the penultimate stage of SSBR and involves the replacement of a single lost nucleotide (short-patch repair) or two or more nucleotides
(long-patch repair). DNA polymerases perform this insertion and Pol β has been shown to be of particular importance.\textsuperscript{29}

6) The final stage of SSBR is ligation of the inserted nucleotide(s). Short-patch repair sites are generally ligated by DNA ligase 3 whereas DNA ligase 1 is important in the ligation step of long-patch repair.

PARP-2 is also implicated in these processes and this will be discussed in a later section. The role of PARP-1 in the repair of double-strand breaks (DSBs) is unclear. The two major mechanisms for the repair of DSBs are homologous recombination (HR) and non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) and there is evidence to suggest that PARP-1 is not required for the efficient running of these processes.\textsuperscript{30} However, Audebert et al.\textsuperscript{31} showed that DSB repair was slowed in PARP-1 deficient cells and in cells pre-treated with a PARP-1 inhibitor; suggesting that there may be a PARP-1 dependant DSB pathway.

Ataxia telangiectasia mutated (ATM) is a protein kinase that is crucial in DSB repair, phosphorylating several key proteins in the pathway. Ku86 is part of the Ku heterodimer\textsuperscript{32} which is thought to bind to damaged DNA ends and recruit essential factors in the DSB repair pathway.\textsuperscript{33} The fact that PARP-1/ATM and PARP-1/Ku86 double knockouts are not viable has been attributed to the loss of SSBR through loss of PARP-1 activity and DSB repair through the loss of ATM or Ku86. The above evidence points to a minor role for PARP-1 in DSB repair but a crucial role in SSBR.

1.2.3 Mitosis

The initial stages of mitosis involve chromosomal segregation and this occurs at a structure known as the spindle, which is based on microtubules. Several PARPs localise to the spindle. The work of Chang et al.\textsuperscript{34} showed that PAR is enriched in the spindle and also required for its assembly and structure, as hydrolysis of PAR led to inhibition of the formation and maintenance of the spindles.
The Aurora kinases were discovered in 1995\textsuperscript{35} and are involved in the regulation of many processes involved in mitosis. Aurora-B is part of the chromosomal passenger complex (CPC) that plays an essential role in guiding the stage-to-stage progress through and completion of mitosis. In order that duplicated DNA can be segregated in mitosis, the chromosomes must first be condensed. The key mediator in this process is histone 3. Aurora-B regulates the activity of histone 3 via phosphorylation at serines 10 and 28\textsuperscript{36} and PARP-1 has been shown to interact specifically with Aurora-B through the BRCT domain.\textsuperscript{37} Damage to DNA during mitosis would result in poly(ADP-ribosylation) of the kinase, subsequent deactivation and a reduction in phosphorylation at serines 10 and 28 on histone 3. This is significant as the likely result is prevention of chromosomal condensation and a subsequent halting of progression of metaphase. This suggests a regulatory role of PARP-1 in mitosis. Additionally, PARP-1 has been found localised both to the centrosomes (the major microtubule organising centres) and the chromosomes in the interphase and cytokinesis (cell division) phases of mitosis.\textsuperscript{38}

\textbf{1.2.4 Transcriptional regulation and NF-κB}

PARP-1 is involved in transcriptional regulation and acts either through direct interactions with transcription factors or by modifications of chromatin structure. Numerous transcription factors and co-factors are stimulated by PARP-1 including b-Myb, transcription enhancer factor-1 (TEF-1), nuclear factor (NF)-κB,\textsuperscript{39} activator protein-2 (AP-2) and PAX6.\textsuperscript{40}

\textit{NF-κB}

The term NF-κB covers a family of inducible transcription factors that are important in the regulation of various genes involved in inflammation and the immune response, the most studied form of NF-κB is a heterodimer consisting of two subunits, p50 and p65. In order for NF-κB to promote the expression of genes, several co-factors are required and the two most important of these are the histone acetyltransferases p300 and cAMP response element-binding protein (CREB)-binding protein (CBP). PARP-1 has also been
shown to act as a co-factor for NF-κB, interacting with both subunits. Hassa et al. obtained some clues to the possible molecular mechanisms at work when they showed PARP-1 is acetylated by p300/CBP and that this was required for the association of PARP-1 with p50 and subsequent activation of NF-κB. The potential importance of the PARP-1/p50 interaction was demonstrated by Tulin and Spradling who showed that Drosophila mutants with diminished levels of the protein displayed a similar phenotype, consisting of immune-system defects, as mice lacking the p50 gene. This research also shows that the PARP-1 mediated regulation of NF-κB has been conserved throughout evolution.

In DNA repair, the poly(ADP-ribosyl)ation of histones by PARP-1 results in a relaxation of chromatin structure and this may also occur in transcription. Chromatin exists in a number of different structural states that have differing levels of transcriptional activity; for example, metaphase chromosomes are highly condensed whereas interphase chromosomes are much more disperse. Kim et al. showed that PARP-1 binds to the functional unit of chromatin, the nucleosome, and that activation of the enzyme, followed by removal, was required for transcription to occur. The group also showed that PARP-1 was activated in the absence of DNA damage (by using nick-free, circular DNA templates) but the mechanism of this activation remains an open question. Another group showed that poly(ADP-ribosyl)ation was required for the formation of long-term memory in Aplysia and postulated that a PARP-1-mediated decondensation of chromatin structure allowed the high level of transcription required (for the formation of long term memory), to take place.

1.2.5 Inflammation and inflammatory diseases

As mentioned above, PARP-1 is involved in the regulation of NF-κB and AP-1, which are important transcription factors involved in controlling the expression of pro-inflammatory mediators; therefore, the protein has a role in inflammation. In addition, a key feature of inflammatory disease is oxidative stress. This is an imbalance of the antioxidant / pro-oxidant species in the cell, favouring oxidation. Once the normal
cellular protective systems are exhausted (e.g. glutathione redox cycle) there is a build up of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species. These species damage DNA and therefore cause activation of PARP-1 and, when in excess, overactivation. This overactivation can lead to cell death and this has been shown to be important in many disease states, which involve inflammation. The role of PARP-1 in cell death can be explained by two mechanisms. Firstly, depletion of cellular NAD⁺ causes a depletion of ATP as the cell attempts to resynthesise and replenish stores of the lost NAD⁺. The loss of ATP will lead to cellular death by necrosis. The second pathway is mediated through apoptosis-mediating factor (AIF). Persistent poly-ADP-ribosylation reactions have been shown to cause the relocation of AIF from the mitochondria to the nucleus, where subsequent DNA fragmentation occurs; this leads to cell death by apoptosis.⁴⁷ PARP-1 is a target of caspases 3 and 7 during apoptosis and these proteases break down PARP-1 into two fragments: p24 and p89. This fragmentation inactivates PARP-1 and can be seen as a marker for the occurrence of apoptosis.

1.2.6 Asthma

Activation of PARP-1 was directly linked to asthma by Boulares et al. in 2003.⁴⁸ The group used a mouse model of asthma, which was induced by ovalbumin. The detection of PAR was used as evidence of PARP-1 activation and 3-aminobenzamide 1a (3-AB) was used to inhibit PARP-1. Administration of 3-AB diminished PAR to undetectable levels, reduced the expression of inducible nitric oxide (iNOS) and reduced cell migration. In order to validate the results (3-AB is a weak and non-selective PARP inhibitor), PARP-1⁻/⁻ mice were also investigated and the phenotype provided protection from the disease in the model. A similar model (but in guinea pigs) was used by Suzuki et al.,⁴⁹ who showed that administration of 3-AB or 5-aminoisoquinolin-1-one 5 (5-AIQ) reduced the severity of cough and occurrence of dyspnoea in the animals.
Figure 4. The structure of 5-AIQ 5.

These studies suggest that PARP-1 plays a crucial role in asthma but the results of experiments using knockout mice in asthma must be viewed with caution. There are two stages to creating an animal model of asthma: sensitisation, which involves priming the animal with the antigen, and elicitation, where the inflammatory response is triggered in the presensitised animal. As knockout mice will never possess a particular gene, both stages of the model will be influenced. Therefore further studies are required using selective inhibitors of PARP-1 and, indeed, other PARP isoform-selective inhibitors to determine the role of PARP-1 and of the other PARP isoforms in asthma.

1.2.7 Ischaemia-reperfusion injury

Occlusion of blood vessels supplying oxygenated blood to tissues will result in those tissues becoming ischaemic. Rapid reperfusion of these tissues with oxygenated blood results in the generation of free radicals (oxygen is an oxidising diradical $\cdot \cdot$O=$\cdot \cdot$) and other oxidants. The generated species then cause SSBs in DNA and other cellular damage (such as modifications of lipids and proteins), resulting in activation of PARP-1. If the level of PARP-1 activation is great, then its substrate, NAD$^+$, is consumed. The cell will then attempt to resynthesise NAD$^+$ from nicotinamide, utilising ATP. The resultant cellular deficiency in NAD$^+$ and ATP negatively impacts processes such as glycolysis, which ultimately leads to cell death by necrosis, unless the balance is redressed. The rationale for the use of PARP-1 inhibitors in ischaemia-reperfusion injury is to prevent depletion of cellular NAD$^+$ and, therefore, cell death, which ultimately results in protection of the organ concerned.

Inhibitors of PARP-1 have been shown to be of excellent therapeutic benefit when administered in animal models of ischaemia-reperfusion injury of various organs including the kidney, liver and heart (i.e. myocardial infarction). In a rat model of
myocardial infarction which involved coronary artery occlusion followed by reperfusion, 5-AIQ was shown to cause a significant, dose-related reduction in infarct size. The doses of 5-AIQ required in this study were low, ranging from 0.03-0.3 mg kg\(^{-1}\), this is in contrast to similar studies with the lipophilic PARP inhibitor 3-AB 1a which required a significantly higher dose (> 10 mg kg\(^{-1}\)) to produce similar effects.\(^{51,52}\)

Another study\(^ {53}\) used a separate rat model of shock / resuscitation and assessed liver microcirculation and function both with and without pre-treatment with 5-AIQ. The group found that the controls suffered from compromised liver function and that 5-AIQ ameliorated this effect. The dose of 5-AIQ used in this study was 3 mg kg\(^{-1}\) and lower dosing schedules were not attempted in this work. In order to assess the protective effects of 5-AIQ on renal injury caused by ischaemia-reperfusion, Chatterjee et al.\(^ {54}\) used hydrogen peroxide to induce oxidative stress in rat renal proximal tubular cells and incubated the cells with varying concentrations of the PARP inhibitor. In addition, the researchers tested the efficacy of 5-AIQ in vivo by subjecting rats to renal bilateral ischaemia-reperfusion both with and without treatment with 5-AIQ. 5-AIQ was found to significantly reduce cell injury and death caused by oxidative stress in the isolated tissue and also in the in vivo models. In the rat model 5-AIQ also showed extreme promise in protecting rats from multiple organ injury and dysfunction caused by haemorrhage and resuscitation.\(^ {55}\) In this study, the i.v. dose of 5-AIQ required was 30 \(\mu g\) kg\(^{-1}\), some 330-fold lower than that of the benchmark inhibitor at the time 3-AB 1a (10 mg kg\(^{-1}\)).

1.2.8 Inflammatory bowel diseases

Although the precise aetiology of inflammatory bowel diseases is currently unknown, numerous animal and clinical studies have demonstrated the importance of the formation of reactive nitrogen species (RNS) and reactive oxygen species (ROS) in the development of the disorders. For example, polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs) derived from patients with ulcerative colitis have increased levels of oxygen free radicals, in comparison with those derived from healthy patients.\(^ {56}\) As the generation of free
radicals is linked to activation of PARP-1, the role of this enzyme has been examined in such disorders.

Zingarelli et al.\textsuperscript{57} induced colitis in PARP-1\textsuperscript{-/-} and wild-type mice using trinitrobenzenesulfonic acid (TNBS). The group observed that whilst the wild-type mice displayed symptoms of ulceration and chronic erosion for up to seven days, the PARP-1 knockout mice were completely recovered within six days. Symptoms of colitis were associated with an increase in intercellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1), infiltration by neutrophils, peroxidation of lipids and nitrosative damage, which were diminished in the mutant mice, indicating a role for PARP-1 in the activation of these processes. Similar results were obtained in the work of Cuzzocrea et al.\textsuperscript{58} who examined the value of the PARP inhibitors 5-AIQ and 3-AB in a dinitrobenzene sulfonic acid (DNBS)-induced model of colitis. Here, PARP-1 inhibition (evidenced by a reduction in PAR staining) caused a diminution in myeloperoxidase activity, ICAM-1 up-regulation and colon injury.

It is, therefore, unsurprising that researchers have examined the role of PARP-1 and other isoforms in such disorders and several groups have established a link between increased PARP activity and colitis in rodent models.\textsuperscript{59-61}

\textbf{1.2.9 Arthritis}
The chronic inflammation in rheumatoid arthritis has been linked to superoxide anions which would suggest a potential role for PARP-1 in the disease. Additionally, autoantibodies against PARP-1 have been found to be present in patients with rheumatoid arthritis and other autoimmune diseases. \(^{62, 63}\) Peroxynitrite (ONOO\(^{-}\)) is the cytotoxic product formed when superoxide reacts with nitric oxide and (mainly due to its capability to cross cell membranes and long half-life) is thought to be the primary mediator of DNA damage in inflammatory diseases, \textit{in vivo}.\(^{64}\) The work of Pacher \textit{et al.}\(^{65}\) demonstrated that a reduction in PARP activity by pre-treatment with an inhibitor or by introducing the PARP-1\(^{-/-}\) phenotype, protected fibroblasts from peroxynitrite-induced injury. The authors also found that oral treatment with a PARP inhibitor resulted in delayed clinical signs of arthritis and improved histological status (a sign of reduced tyrosine nitration) in a collagen-induced model of arthritis in mice. These data point to a possible clinical application of PARP-1/2 inhibitors in the treatment of arthritis but further studies are required.

### 1.3 PARP-2

#### 1.3.1 Molecular Structure

The PARP-2 gene encodes for a 62 kDa protein and is localised at chromosome 14 at position q11.2 in humans and C1 in mouse.\(^{66}\) The mouse protein consists of three functional domains (Figure 6).

**PARP-2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Sequence</th>
<th>Color</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Brown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NLS</td>
<td></td>
<td>Green</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Automodification domain</td>
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<td>Purple</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catalytic domain</td>
<td></td>
<td>Blue</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 6.** The domain structure of PARP-2.

**Figure 7.** Domain structure of PARP-2
The DNA-binding domain (Figure 6, residues 1-64) of PARP-2 is distinct from the corresponding PARP-1 domain and, interestingly, lacks the zinc fingers that are essential for binding to DNA by this latter isoform of the enzyme. This domain is, however, rich in basic amino-acids (ca. 25% Lys or Arg) and these residues probably play a major role in binding to DNA. The differences in structure of the DNA domains of PARPs 1 and 2 may also reflect the differences in the DNA structures which the two enzymes recognize and the fact that PARP-2 binds to SSBs less efficiently than does PARP-1. The PARP-2 DBD contains both a NLS and a nucleolar localisation Signal (NoLS). Lying between the DBD and domain E, there is a DNRD (AspAsnArgAsp) caspase-3/7 cleavage site. Domain E is the site responsible for the protein-protein interactions that PARP-2 shares with various partners which include PARP-1, XRCC1 and DNA ligase 3. In addition, this domain acts as the automodification domain in PARP-2. Domain F, or the catalytic domain, of mouse and human PARP-2 are highly conserved and both show high homology with the human PARP-1 catalytic domain domain (69% in the case of human PARP-2).

1.3.2 PARP-2 targets, partners and functions

PARP-2 is significantly less active in terms of catalytic activity, compared with PARP-1, and accounts for approximately 5-10% of the total cellular PARP activity. The enzyme has been shown to heterodimerise with PARP-1 and shares many of its functions and targets; however, it has emerged that PARP-2 has some different protein targets and potential functions to PARP-1.

1.3.3 DNA Repair

PARP-2, like PARP-1, is activated by DNA damage and is considered to be a sensor of DNA strand breaks. The two proteins heterodimerise and homodimerise in vivo in addition to poly(ADP-ribosyl)ating each other. However, the major heterologous target of PAR synthesised by PARP-2 is the core histone, H2B, rather than H1, but the significance of this difference has not yet been elucidated. The precise role of PARP-2 in
SSBR and BER is not yet clear. The protein interacts through its E domain with several key players in BER, including XRCC1, DNA pol B and DNA ligase III, which would suggest that it is somehow involved in the process of BER. In addition to accepting PAR synthesised by PARP-2, XRCC1 is also a negative regulator of the activity of the enzyme (as it is with PARP-1\(^6\)). The mechanism of this negative regulation is to reduce the rate of automodification of the enzymes by binding to the automodification domain. This results in the PARP isoforms remaining at the DNA lesion rather than becoming detached and available for further rounds of DNA repair. It is likely that this negative feedback loop is in place to prevent excessive XRCC1 recruitment by PARPs 1 and 2.

Schreiber et al.\(^1\) showed that PARP-2\(^{-/-}\) mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) display a delay in the repair of alkylated bases following treatment with \(N\)-methyl-\(N\)-nitrosourea (MNU) and the importance of PARP-1 in BER has been outlined above. Interestingly, the authors noted that the loss of PARP-2 had a similar impact to the loss of PARP-1, even though PARP-1 is expressed in increased levels, suggesting that perhaps it is the PARP-1/2 heterodimer that is important for efficient BER.

Somewhat contradictory results were obtained by Fisher et al.\(^6\) who used hydrogen peroxide to induce SSBRs in human A549 cells and depleted PARP-1 and PARP-2 using siRNA. Although the authors found that a reduction in PARP-1 significantly reduced the rate of SSBR, a reduction in PARP-2 had only a minor effect, even when PARP-1 was also knocked down. A possible explanation for this unexpected result is an incomplete knock down of the proteins but further studies are required to clarify the role of PARP-2 in SSBR and selective inhibitors of PARP-2 would be valuable tools for this purpose.

### 1.3.4 Telomeric integrity

Telomeres are the complexes of protein and DNA found at the ends of the chromosomes, which contain multiple duplex \(T_2AG_3\) repeats. Telomeres have a protective role, preventing the progressive loss of the chromosome ends with each round of replication and also preventing the ends from being processed as DSBs, which would lead to non-
homologous end-joining or homologous recombination. The classical view of telomeres was that they were arranged as linear double-stranded repeats but Griffith et al.\textsuperscript{70} showed that the telomeric DNA loops back on itself, forming a lasso structure termed a t-loop (telomere-loop). This process requires a single-strand 3’ overhang and is mediated by telomeric repeat binding factor-2 (TRF2) which also has a role in telomere protection through association with various DNA-repair and damage signalling factors.\textsuperscript{71, 72} PARP-2 has been shown to interact with TRF2\textsuperscript{73} and affects its ability to bind DNA through both a non-covalent interaction of PAR with the DNA binding domain of TRF2 and a covalent modification at the dimerisation domain. These interactions and modifications would open up the t-loop structure and, much in the same way PARP-1 facilitates the repair of DNA, allow access of the DNA-repair enzymes to the site of damage. An alternative telomeric structure was proposed by de Lange,\textsuperscript{74} in which the DNA forms dimers and tetramers involving G-quadruplexes; it is possible that both structures co-exist.

Dantzer \textit{et al.}\textsuperscript{73} showed that PARP-2\textsuperscript{−/−} mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) displayed normal telomere length and telomerase activity when compared to wild-type cells. However, these cells showed increased numbers of chromatid and chromosome breaks and of chromosome ends that lacked detectable T\textsubscript{2}AG\textsubscript{3} repeats. These results from knockout mice suggest that PARP-2 has a functional role in the maintenance of telomeres but further work using selective inhibitors of this isoform are required to gain insights into the precise molecular mechanisms at work.

\textbf{1.3.5 Inflammation}

As mentioned above, PARP-1 is implicated in inflammation due to its regulation of NF-κB and the fact that its over-activation by pro-inflammatory mediators leads to cell death by necrosis. It is unlikely that the over-activation of PARP-2 alone will deplete cellular NAD\textsuperscript{+} levels, as it accounts for only \textit{ca.} 10\% of the total PARP activity in the cell. At present, little is known about the role of PARP-2 in the regulation of genes involved in inflammation but some lines of evidence suggest a possible role. Firstly, administration of the PARP-2 antisense oligonucleotide (ISIS 110251) in the interleukin-
10-deficient mouse (an animal model of colitis) resulted in a marked improvement in colonic inflammatory disease in this model and, in addition, a subsequent normalisation of colonic function was observed.\textsuperscript{75}

Secondly, PARP-2-knockout mice were also protected from focal cerebral ischaemia relative to wild-type controls. In global ischaemic insult, the mutants had worse outcomes than PARP-1\textsuperscript{-/-} mice (which showed neuroprotection) in the hippocampus but with no effect in the cortex.\textsuperscript{76} Further studies are required to deduce the molecular mechanisms involved in these responses and the precise role that PARP-2 plays in inflammation, highlighting the immediate requirement for isoform-selective inhibitors of PARP-2.

1.3.6 Cellular differentiation

The study of PARP-2 knockout mice has provided evidence for specific roles of the isoform (i.e. PARP-1 independent) in cellular differentiation, which include the development of T lymphocytes,\textsuperscript{77} germ cells\textsuperscript{15} (specifically spermatogenesis) and adipocytes (adipogenesis).\textsuperscript{78}

1.3.7 T Lymphocytes

Yelamos \textit{et al.}\textsuperscript{77} reported that the deletion of PARP-2 but not of PARP-1 led to a significant diminution in CD4\textsuperscript{+}CD8\textsuperscript{+} double-positive (DP) thymocytes, which was associated with a decrease in DP cell survival. The authors also noted an increased expression of the pro-apoptotic protein, Noxa, in the PARP-2\textsuperscript{-/-} thymocytes, which also showed a reduced expression of T-cell receptor (TCR). These results suggest that PARP-2 has a role in survival of T-cells during the process of thymopoiesis and may regulate the programmed cell death (apoptosis) of thymocytes. Elucidation of the precise molecular mechanisms at work will require more studies and the use of PARP-2-selective inhibitors.
1.3.8 Germ Cells

PARP-2 is widely expressed in the seminiferous epithelium and is evenly distributed across the seminiferous tubules, this is in contrast to PARP-1 where expression is limited to the peripheral cell layer which contains rapidly dividing spermatogonia. This differing expression pattern for the two isoforms suggests distinct roles in spermatogenesis and perhaps a more prominent role for PARP-2.

The multistage process of spermatogenesis involves one round of mitosis and two rounds of meiosis and results in the formation of haploid gametes from diploid spermatogonium. PARP-2-knockout mice display a phenotype which suggests an important role of the protein in the development of sperm cells. The mice display hypofertility and irregularities at numerous stages in the progression of spermatogenesis. Firstly, X- and Y- linked genes are upregulated, as meiotic chromosome deactivation is not fully effective. Secondly, nuclear elongation is delayed, which adversely affects spermatogenesis. Finally, chromosome mis-segregation at metaphase 1 is observed, associated with a loss of centromeric heterochromatin integrity. Interestingly, PARP-1-knockout mice do not display hypofertility. These data would suggest a crucial role for PARP-2 but not PARP-1, in the development of sperm cells and it is possible that defects in the normal functioning of the enzyme are a cause of hypo-fertility in humans.

1.3.9 Adipocytes

PARP-2 knockout mice display lipodystrophy, with decreased weight of white adipose tissue (WAT) and disorders in the differentiation of preadipocytes to adipocytes, when compared with wild-type mice. A proposed mechanism for this phenotype is that PARP-2 regulates the expression of peroxisome proliferator activated receptor-γ (PPARγ) as part of the RXR-PPARγ transcription complex. Evidence for this theory was provided by Bai et al. who showed that PARP-2 siRNA diminished ligand-dependant activation and the basal activity of PPARγ. The group also showed, by chromatin immunoprecipitation, that PARP-2 interacted with the PPARγ/RXR complex, forming a
heterodimer. PPARγ plays a vital part in the function of WAT by controlling the expression of several WAT proteins. These interesting results require further investigation, pointing to a role of PARP-2 in obesity and a potential role for PARP-2 inhibitors as novel treatments for this increasingly important condition.

1.4 PARP-3

The gene for human PARP-3 is located on chromosome 3 at position p21.1-p22.2. The protein contains 540 amino acids and consists of three domains. The N-terminal domain is unique to PARP-3 and contains a concise targeting motif in exon 1, responsible for its function of localising the enzyme to the centrioles. The centrioles reside within the centrosome, a structure that forms near the nucleus during interphase and is important in the processing of microtubules. PARP-3 preferentially locates to the daughter centriole and a splicing variant lacking the targeting motif leads to accumulation in the nucleus. An E domain is present in PARP-3, the function of which has not been elucidated. The 489-amino-acid catalytic domain shares ca. 35% sequence similarity with the other PARP catalytic domains and has 61% similarity with the human PARP-1 domain.

**PARP-3**

![Figure 7. The molecular structure of PARP-3.](image)

Although no automodification domain is present, the protein is capable of automodification in the presence of biotinylated NAD⁺, as illustrated by Western blot analysis. Currently, the functions of PARP-3 are unclear but it has been reported that over-expression of the protein interferes with the G1/S cell cycle progression but not with centrosomal duplication or amplification. PARP-3 may, therefore, function in the maturation of the preferred daughter centriole until the G1-S restriction point (the cell-
cycle checkpoint between G1 and S phase). The crystal structure of the human PARP-3 catalytic domain has recently become available, allowing the rational design of selective PARP-3 inhibitors. This will aid in the elucidation of any specific functions. The catalytic domains of PARPs 1 and 3 contain some key differences, which could potentially be exploited in the quest for selective inhibitors. In PARP-3, the pocket between the donor site and the N-terminal α-helix bundle is slightly opened in comparison to PARP-1 as the D-loop is four amino acids shorter. Additional differences also exist in a loop near the PARP signature motif and in a loop near the active site.

1.5 PARP-4

PARP-4 or vault PARP (V-PARP) is the largest member of the PARP family with a molecular weight of 192.6 kDa. It is found located in the vault complex in the cytoplasm and also in the nucleus and at the mitotic spindle (not associated with the vault complex). The gene for PARP-4 is located on chromosome 13q11, with 34 exons coding for its 1724 amino acids. In mammals, vault particles are barrel-shaped ribonucleoprotein complexes found in the cytoplasm, consisting of PARP-4, major vault protein (MVP), telomerase associated protein (TEP-1) and an untranslated vault RNA (VRNA).

The functions of the vault particles are currently unknown but they are highly conserved throughout evolution, suggesting a fundamental role in cellular survival. A role in cellular transport was proposed by Kickhoefer et al. in 1996. MVP is over-expressed in numerous non-P-glycoprotein-expressing tumour cell lines and it has been linked to multidrug resistance.

Unusually, the catalytic domain of PARP-4 is found at the N-terminus rather than at the C-terminus as with the other PARPs discovered so far. The presence of a BRCT domain points to a possible role of the protein in DNA repair and, supporting this theory, PARP-
4-knockout mice show an increased susceptibility to both N,N-dimethylhydrazine-induced colon tumourigenesis and urethane-induced lung tumourigenesis (although to a lesser extent).\textsuperscript{86}

1.6 PARP-5 and 6, the tankyrases

PARP-5 or TRF1-interacting, ankyrin-related ADP-ribose (tankyrase-1) was discovered as a partner of the human telomeric repeat binding factor 1 (TRF-1) in a two-hybrid screen carried out by Smith \textit{et al.}\textsuperscript{87} in 1998. The 142 kDa protein consists of four domains. At the N-terminus lies the HPS domain, named after the continuous repeats of histidine, proline and serine; the function of this domain is currently unknown. The ankyrin (ANK) domain spans 842 amino-acids and contains 24 repeats of the ANK motif, important in protein-protein interactions and placing PARP-5 into the ANK family. The ANK family of proteins have a structural role and link membrane based proteins to those found in the cytoplasm.\textsuperscript{88} Uniquely to PARP-5 the ANK domain is further divided into five ARC (ANK repeat cluster) subunits, steve which each act as a TRF-1 binding site. A sterile alpha module (SAM) is responsible for the reversible polymerisation of PARP-5 (i.e. to form a polyprotein)\textsuperscript{89} and is found adjacent to the catalytic domain.

PARP-6 or tankyrase-2 is closely related to PARP-5. The 127 kDa protein lacks the HPS domain but the other three domains are present and show high homology with PARP-5. It is of interest to note that PARP-5 or PARP-6a single-knockouts are viable but the double knockout is embryonic lethal.\textsuperscript{90} This indicates, similarly to PARPs -1 and –2, that the enzymes share redundant functions but that tankyrase activity is absolutely required for normal development.

The telomeres were introduced above, in relation to PARP-2. Telomeres are not completely replicated and gradually shorten over time, however, they are resynthesised by the enzyme telomerase. This is a ribonucleoprotein reverse transcriptase consisting of two subunits, the human telomerase RNA component (hTERC) and the human telomerase reverse transcriptase (hTERT) catalytic portion. TRF-1 acts as a negative
regulator of telomerase activity through the recognition of specific DNA sequences in telomeres. The tankyrases poly(ADP-ribosyl)ate TRF-1 and the build up of negative charge is likely to block the binding of TRF-1 to telomeric DNA (as has been shown in vitro\(^1\)). Therefore activation of the tankyrases will lead to elongation of telomeres; the mechanism of activation is currently unknown but Cook et al. showed that tankyrase-1 is not activated by DNA damage.\(^2\)

In normal cells, the level of telomerase activity is low but most cancer cells have high levels,\(^2\) which probably contributes to their immortality. It is possible to indirectly inhibit telomerase by stabilising the telomeric DNA in a G-quadruplex structure thus preventing the initial elongation step by the enzyme.\(^3\) Alternatively, the hTERT\(^4\) or hTERC\(^5\) subunits can be directly inhibited. Regardless of the mechanism, inhibition of telomerase leads to the shortening of telomeres and cellular senescence or apoptosis, which suggests that specific inhibitors may be of value in cancer therapy.

One problem associated with the direct inhibition of telomerase is that shorter telomeres have fewer TRF-1-binding sites and, therefore, fewer molecules of TRF-1, enhancing the apparent activity of any non-inhibited telomerase. Alternative approaches would be the direct inhibition of TRF-1 or the use of selective inhibitors of the tankyrases, which would decrease the access of telomerase to its substrate by blocking the poly(ADP-ribosylation)ation of TRF-1. TRF-2, another telomeric binding protein involved in telomere protection, was introduced in relation to PARP-2. Currently, it is not known if there is any interaction between the tankyrases and TRF-2 but it would seem that PARP-2 has a more prominent role in its regulation. Again, selective inhibition of the relevant PARP isoform is required to help to answer the many open questions in this area. Until these tools are available, the generation of PARP-2/PARP-5 and PARP-2/PARP-6 double knockouts would, if viable, give further insights into the biological roles of these isoforms.

1.7 PARP-7, PARP-12 and PARP-13
PARP-12, PARP-13 and PARP-7 (ti-PARP) all have a similar domain structures containing CCCH (CysCysCysHis) zinc fingers close to the N-terminus, a central WWE (TrpTrpGlu) domain and a catalytic F domain.\(^{96}\) The WWE domain is probably a site for protein-protein interactions, whilst the zinc fingers differ in structure to those found in PARPs 1 and 2 and may bind to RNA rather than DNA. The transcription of PARP-12 is induced by 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin (TCDD) and this is controlled by the dioxin-bound aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AHR).\(^{97}\)

Interestingly one isoform of PARP-13 was initially identified as ZAP,\(^{98}\) a protein found in rats associated with resistance to retroviral infection, which binds to viral RNA. It is not currently known if the PARP-13 isoform containing the F domain also has a role in viral immunity.

**1.8 PARP-9, PARP-14 and PARP-15**

PARPs 9, 14 and 15 all share common structural features with one to three macro domains being linked to a catalytic PARP domain.\(^{96}\) The macro domain was first discovered in macroH2A (a histone variant) and is important in chromosomal inactivation and transcriptional repression.\(^{99}\) The macro domain of PARP-9 can bind to PAR\(^{100}\) and may have phosphoesterase activity, which suggests the protein may function as a regulator of the size of the polymer.

**1.9 PARP-10**

PARP-10 contains an RNA-recognition motif (RRM) near to the N-terminus, then a glycine-rich domain before the catalytic domain.\(^{101}\) The isoform is known to interact with c-Myc, an important regulator of transcription, controlling cell proliferation. Both the RRM and the glycine-rich domain present in PARP-10 have been found to be of importance in RNA-binding nucleolin, a partner of c-Myc. PARP-10 has been shown to inhibit the cellular transformation caused by c-Myc and Ha-Ras. The protein also
poly(ADP-ribosyl)ates histone H2A, suggesting a role in the regulation of chromatin structure.

1.10 Other PARPs

Very little is currently known about the remaining PARPs - PARP-6, 8, 11 and 16. Other than a WWE sequence in PARP-11, no domains of note have been discovered in these PARPs, so their possible functions are also unknown.

1.11 PARGs

The PARGs are responsible for breaking down PAR into free ADP-ribose molecules and possess both endo- and exoglycosidase activity. Mammalian PARG genes encode a minimum of four isoforms. PARGs-102, 99 and 59/60 are found in high abundance in the cytoplasm, whilst PARG-110/111 is found in low abundance in the nucleus. Unsurprisingly, PARG-110/111 contains two nuclear localisation signals in exon 1, the other PARG isoforms lack exon 1 and this probably explains their differing primary locations. Mice with deletions of exons 2 and 3, resulting in a loss of PARG-110, 102 and 99, have normal phenotypes but have an increased susceptibility to streptozotocin-induced diabetes. The mice are also more susceptible to alkylating agents and ionising radiation than are wild type mice. The deletion of all four PARG isoforms is embryonic-lethal and fibroblast cells lacking PARG activity are also hypersensitive to cytotoxic DNA-damaging agents.

1.12 Inhibitors of PARPs

In the early years of research into inhibitors of the PARPs, it was assumed there was only a single isoform of the enzyme which is now known as PARP-1.
1.12.1 Early PARP inhibitors

It was rationalised that the nicotinamide portion of NAD$^+$ was required for ‘PARP’ inhibition and the first competitive inhibitors were 5-methylnicotinamide 8a and nicotinamide$^{103}$ 8b. However, it was soon shown that these molecules were not specific (for example, nicotinamide is also an inhibitor of adenosine 3',5'-cyclic monophosphate phosphodiesterase, mono(ADP-ribosyl)transferases$^{104}$ and SIRT-1). Additionally, the presence of the ring nitrogen meant that these compounds were substrates for NAD-metabolising enzymes. This problem was circumvented in 1975 when Shall first reported benzamide 1b as an inhibitor of PARP$^{105}$ but the hydrophobic nature and low solubility of this compound meant that it was not suitable for in vivo testing.

![Figure 8. The structures of 5-methylnicotinamide 8a, nicotinamide 8b and benzamide 1b.](image)

1.12.2 Benzamides

Purnell and Whish$^{106}$ examined a series of 3-substituted benzamides, amongst other compounds, in 1980. It was rationalised that the introduction of polar substituents would improve water-solubility compared with the parent compound. The compounds were assessed for activity against PARP by measuring percentage inhibition at a concentration of 50 µM and also by measuring the amount of NAD$^+$ incorporated into an acid insoluble fraction. The authors found that all the benzamides were more potent than nicotinamide in their system and that the most potent benzamides were the unsubstituted compound 1b and 3-methoxybenzamide 1c. Percentage inhibition (at 50 µM) was above 90%, except in the case of 3-nitrobenzamide 1d.
In a comprehensive study of over one hundred and thirty compounds, Banasik reported the IC$_{50}$ values of a series of substituted benzamides.$^{107}$ From the values reported, it was clear that 3-substitution was well tolerated; 3-aminobenzamide 1a (IC$_{50}$ = 33 µM), 3-methylbenzamide 1e (IC$_{50}$ = 19 µM) and 3-chlorobenzamide 1f (IC$_{50}$ = 22 µM) were examples of potent 3-substituted benzamide inhibitors. Substitution in the 2- or 4-positions caused a drop in potency; the 2-Cl 1g (IC$_{50}$ = 1000 µM) and 4-Cl 1h (IC$_{50}$ = 300 µM) analogues were relatively weak inhibitors. Disubstitution was not favoured; the difluoro- 1i (IC$_{50}$ = 180 µM) was moderate but disubstitution with larger groups in 1j (IC$_{50}$ = 1200 µM) and 1k (IC$_{50}$ = 2500 µM) led to a dramatic drop in potency.

The importance of the carboxamide with at least one amide proton for PARP inhibitory activity was demonstrated early on as thioamides$^{108}$ and N-alkylated$^{109}$ derivatives suffered from a dramatic loss of activity.

More potent inhibitors were discovered by Suto$^{110}$ and by Banasik$^{104}$ who reported the 3,4-dihydroisoquinolinones in which the carboxamide is fixed in conformation by the ethano bridge.
These compounds were found to be several times more potent than conformationally free PARP inhibitors, with the 3,4-dihydroisoquinolin-1-one 9 proving to be over 50-fold more potent than 3-AB 1a. The authors concluded that maintenance of the carboxamide in the *anti* conformation was crucial for potent activity.

Many different classes of PARP inhibitors have since been synthesised in which the carboxamide function is held in the required conformation as part of a heterocyclic ring, *e.g.* isoquinolin-1-ones, tricyclic benzimidazoles, quinazolin-4-ones.

### 1.12.3 Benzimidazole-4-carboxamides and benzoazole-4-carboxamides

An interesting approach was developed by a group at the University of Newcastle who used an intramolecular hydrogen bond to hold the carboxamide in the active conformation in their series of benzimidazole-4-carboxamides\textsuperscript{111} and benzoazole-4-carboxamides.\textsuperscript{109}
This strategy proved successful and the compounds generally had potencies far superior to similar molecules lacking the hydrogen bond. The compounds were tested in a cell-based assay and the most potent examples were found to be the 2-phenyl compounds. In general the benzimidazoles e.g. 10b (EC$_{50}$ = 990 nM) performed better than the corresponding benzoxazoles e.g. 11b (EC$_{50}$ = 2100 nM). Particular potency in their assay system was the 4-fluorophenyl derivative 10c (EC$_{50}$ = 60 nM). Several groups have trapped the amide bond in the required confirmation by means of a covalent bond, in a tricyclic system.\textsuperscript{112, 113} Again, in general, the 2-phenyl-substituted compounds showed increased potency; for example, Agouron found that whilst the parent compound 12a had a $K_i$ of 38 nM, the 4-fluorophenyl derivative 12b was several times more potent with a $k_i$ of 4 nM. Substitution at other positions of the molecule such as the lactam ring in general did not lead to increased potency in this series.

1.12.4 Quinazolinones and phthalazin-1-ones

Banasik\textsuperscript{104} reported that quinazolin-4-one 13a had IC$_{50}$ = 9.5 $\mu$M but substitution at the 2-position increased potency, for example 13b and 13c have IC$_{50}$ values of ca. 200 nM.\textsuperscript{113} 8-substituted analogues have also been investigated and hydroxy or methyl groups are better than a methoxy group at this position.
Phthalazin-1-one 14a was also reported as an inhibitor by Banasik. Its IC₅₀ was moderate and it was not until Kudos Pharmaceuticals began substituting in the 4-position of this heterocycle that potency began to improve significantly. The simple 4-benzylphthalazin-1-one 14b had IC₅₀ = 770 nM in their assay but, when the benzene ring was meta-substituted, potency increased and the N-phenylpropionamide 14c was particularly potent (IC₅₀ = 20 nM) but was not a suitable drug candidate, owing to concerns over pharmacokinetics. PF₅₀ was used as a measure of cellular potency and this potentiation factor was calculated as the ratio of the IC₅₀ growth curve of HeLa B cells treated with MMS divided by the IC₅₀ of the growth curve of cells treated with both MMS and PARP inhibitor. In the cell based assays, test compounds were used at a fixed concentration of 200 nM. In order to increase metabolic stability, the group modified the anilide group to a lactam ring in 14d (IC₅₀ = 120 nM) but this also resulted in a drop in potency. This drop was reversed by the introduction of a second carbonyl group to the lactam in 14e (IC₅₀ = 13 nM) but cellular potency was poor (PF₅₀ = 1.94). Both PARP-1 inhibitory potency and cellular potency were increased by the introduction of a fluorine atom in the para position of the benzyl moiety in 14f (IC₅₀ = 5 nM, PF₅₀ = 5.62). Interestingly, 14f was also tested against other PARP isoforms and showed a similar level of activity against PARP-1 but was ca. 100-fold less potent against PARPs -4 and -5.
Indeed the introduction of a $p$-fluoro substituent seemed to generally increase general potency in the 4-benzyl series. A further increase in cellular activity was noted with 14g ($IC_{50} = 3.8$ nM, $PF_{50} = 18.2$) in which a methyl group was introduced $\alpha$ to the imide carbonyl. It was proposed that this increase was possibly due to enhanced cellular penetration due to increasing lipophilicity but when a geminal dimethyl functionality was introduced in 14h ($IC_{50} = 9.8$, $PF_{50} = 2.9$) a drop in cellular potency was noted.

Other structural modifications at the $m$-position of the benzyl moiety, such as introducing a homopiperazine ring, also gave rise to highly potent PARP-1 inhibitors. For example, the homopiperazines 14i, 14j and 14k are single-digit nanomolar inhibitors of the enzyme.115
Figure 16. The structure of the clinical candidate 14l developed by Kudos Pharmaceuticals

However, it was found that the acylpiperazine 14l was not only a highly potent inhibitor (IC$_{50}$ = 5 nM) but also possessed the best pharmacokinetic profile, was orally active and active in vivo in an SW620 colorectal cancer xenograft model. Due to these factors 14l was selected for clinical development for the treatment of BRCA1- and BRCA2-deficient cancers.¹¹⁶

1.12.5 Isoindolines

The unsubstituted isoindoline 15a is a relatively poor inhibitor of PARP-1, as are the simple 5-substituted analogues (EC$_{50}$ > 10 µM) in a cell-protection assay. However, more complex substitution at the 5-position, for example an adenosine group attached via an alkyl chain 15b, significantly improves potency. It should be noted that many classes of inhibitor are not potent in this type of assay, due to poor uptake across the cell membrane and not necessarily poor inhibition of PARP.
1.12.6 Dihydroisoquinolinones and Isoquinolinones

This research centres on the isoquinolinones and structure-activity relationships (SAR) will be discussed in more detail below but a brief introduction is given here. Following the initial report of isoquinolin-1-one as an inhibitor of PARP (IC$_{50}$ = 6.2 µM) by Banasik,\textsuperscript{104} Suto\textsuperscript{110} investigated the SAR of various 5-substituted analogues. Elaboration at this position proved successful, with the 5-hydroxy analogues proving to be most potent with IC$_{50}$s of 140 nM and 100 nM for the 3,4-unsaturated 17 and 3,4-saturated 18 compounds, respectively.

![Figure 18. Structures of the isoquinolin-1-one PARP inhibitors 16, 17 and 18.](image)

Suto\textsuperscript{110} also reported 5-AIQ 5 as a PARP inhibitor for the first time with an IC$_{50}$ of 260 nM. This was notable as, upon conversion to its HCl salt, the compound became highly water-soluble. Although Suto did not investigate the compound further, the fact that he had synthesised a water-soluble PARP inhibitor was highly significant as the in vivo potency of the compound would be greatly increased by this modification (see above for comparisons with lipophillic PARP inhibitors in in vivo models of disease). It is unsurprising that the vast majority of inhibitors up to this point were not water-soluble as the required planar benzamide pharmacophore is also a molecular signature for lipophilicity. The huge promise shown by 5-AIQ and the lack of 3- and 4-substituted analogues in the literature led us to select it as our lead compound for this research (see below).
A summary of the structure-activity relationships deduced thus far is presented in Figure 19.

![Figure 19. PARP inhibitor SAR to date.](image)

1.12.7 Clinical trial development of PARP inhibitors

Recently, a group at Abbott Laboratories\(^{117}\) have identified a series of substituted pyrazolo[1,5-\(a\)]quinazolin-5(4H)-ones as potent inhibitors of PARP-1, with their lead pre-clinical candidate \(^{119}\) showing excellent enzymatic and cellular potency and cross-species oral bioavailability. The PARP inhibitor AG-014699\(^{118}\) 12c has recently completed a Phase 2 clinical trial in combination with temozolomide in patients with metastatic malignant melanoma; of the 40 evaluable patients, seven partial responses were seen. The compound developed by Kudos Pharmaceuticals \(^{141}\) KU-0059436/AZD2281 was shown to selectively inhibit BRCA1\(^{-119}\) and BRCA2-deficient mammary cell growth, in combination with platinum drugs and as stand alone therapy.\(^{116}\)

The compound has entered Phase 2 clinical trials as monotherapy in BRCA-deficient ovarian or breast cancer patients and in combination with a variety of cytotoxic drugs for a range of tumours.
1.12.8 PARP-2 inhibitors reported in the literature

There are very few selective PARP-1 or PARP-2 inhibitors reported in the literature at present. Perkins et al.\textsuperscript{121} developed an assay for PARPs 1 and 2, based on the observation that heterologous expression of either isoform in cells of the yeast \textit{Saccharomyces cerevisiae} resulted in growth inhibition; therefore, the endpoint of the assay was reversal of this inhibition. The authors used this assay to identify the compounds ICX56290675 \textsuperscript{20} and ICX56258231 \textsuperscript{21} with eight-fold selectivity for PARP-1 and three-fold selectivity for PARP-2 respectively (note that \textsuperscript{21} is possibly a hydrolytically activated prodrug for the corresponding phthalazinone \textsuperscript{14b}). Iwashita et al.\textsuperscript{122} discovered an inhibitor FR261529 \textsuperscript{22} with five-fold selectivity for PARP-2 over PARP-1; these discoveries were made through random screening of compound libraries or by chance in the search for PARP-1 inhibitors rather than by rational drug design.
Scheme 2. Structures of selective PARP-1 and PARP-2 inhibitors discovered by random screening.

In 2004, the crystal structure of the catalytic fragment of murine PARP-2 was solved at 2.8 Å resolution, seven years after the data for the chicken PARP-1 catalytic fragment were made available. The high degree of homology of the PARP catalytic domain between different species means PARP inhibitors are unlikely to show a wide species-difference in their inhibitory activity between chicken, mouse and human PARPs, although any differences in important residues must be noted.

The key residues involved in PARP-1 inhibitor binding were deduced by Ruf et al. who studied the co-crystals of PARP-1 chicken catalytic fragment with the inhibitors 20, 4ANI 23, 3MBA 1c and NU1025 13d bound. The authors identified hydrogen bonding between Gly863-NH, Gly863-O, and Ser904-OH and the lactam or amide group of the bound inhibitors; additionally, hydrophobic interactions were identified between PD128763 and Tyr907. The two key hydrogen-bonding residues in chicken PARP-1 are conserved in both human and mouse PARP-2 (Gly405 and Ser446) as is the tyrosine residue (Tyr449).

Figure 21. Structures of the PARP inhibitors 23, 1c and 13d.
Ishida et al.\textsuperscript{125} attempted to rationalise the selectivity of the quinazolinone \textit{13e} for PARP-1 (10-fold over PARP-2) and \textit{22} for PARP-2 (5-fold over PARP-1 see above) by a combination of X-ray structural study \textit{via} PARP-1 co-crystals and homology modelling using murine PARP-2 as a template.

\textbf{Figure 22.} The PARP-1 selective quinazolinone \textit{13e}

The expected three hydrogen bonds between the lactam/carboxamide function of the inhibitors and Gly863/Ser904 in PARP-1 and Gly405/Ser446 in PARP-2 were seen. Additionally, a $\pi-\pi$ interaction between the heterocyclic aromatic core of \textit{13e} and Tyr907/Tyr869 in PARP-1 and Tyr449/438 in PARP-2 was observed. The 4-phenyltetrahydropyridine moiety of \textit{13e} lay in a hydrophobic pocket lined by the residues Leu769, Ile879 and Pro881 in PARP-1. In PARP-2, Leu769 is replaced by Gly314 and this single amino-acid difference resulted in a loss of hydrophobicity in the pocket and, hence, a loss of potency of \textit{13e} against PARP-2.

The non-hydrogen-bonded nitrogen of the quinoxaline ring in \textit{22} formed favourable contacts with the carboxylate of Glu988 in PARP-1; this residue is conserved in PARP-2 (Glu534), suggesting that the binding mode was also conserved. The authors speculated that the replacement of Asp766 and Glu763 in human PARP-1 with Glu311 and Gln308 in human PARP-2 resulted in more favourable interactions with the chlorophenyl moiety of \textit{22} and therefore the observed increase in potency.

The small changes in the amino-acid sequence between the murine PARP-2 catalytic fragment and the chicken PARP-1 active site make the design of selective inhibitors feasible as the above authors have suggested. On initial inspection of the two structures
two key differences can be noted, firstly the hydrophobic binding pocket is larger in PARP-2 (and maybe lacking hydrophobicity around Gly314 – see above) suggesting that more three dimensional bulk will be tolerated in this area. The second key difference is the replacement of the neutral polar Gln308 in chicken PARP-1 with the basic Lys308 in murine PARP-2, which could be exploited by building an acidic function to an inhibitor which would sit close in space to the residue in the PARP-2 active site.
2. Research aims and objectives

The functions of PARP-2 remain unclear, although tools such as knockout mice and antisense RNA offer some clues. Additionally, the effects of PARP-2 (and PARP-1) are mediated via two mechanisms, the catalytic activity of the enzyme and also through protein-protein interactions. As PARP-2-knockout mice would never express the protein, both mechanisms are knocked out, whereas, with a pharmacological inhibitor, only the enzymatic activity would be lost.

There is currently a major need for potent and selective inhibitors of PARP-2 to study the function of the enzyme and the effect of inhibiting catalytic activity alone. The inhibitors discovered thus far have been found by random screening of PARP-1 inhibitor libraries and the current selectivity is modest; by using rational drug design significant improvements should be possible in terms of potency and selectivity.

5-AIQ is a potent inhibitor of PARP-1 with excellent in vivo activity in animal models of disease and will serve as a template for our designed inhibitors.

The major aim of this research is to develop isoform-selective inhibitors of PARP-2. In order to exploit the differences between the catalytic sites of PARP-1 and PARP-2, a bulky aromatic substituent will be introduced at the 3- or 4-position of the 5-AIQ to fit into the larger hydrophobic pocket in PARP-2. Therefore sets of 3- and 4-substituted 5-AIQs will be prepared.

An acidic function will be introduced at the 5-position of the molecule; this will be either tethered to the exocyclic 5-amine of 5-AIQ through CH₂ units or directly attached at the 5-position of isoquinolin-1-one. Other synthetic modifications at the 5-position will be considered, if appropriate.

All synthesised inhibitors will be evaluated for PARP-1 and PARP-2 inhibitory activity by KuDOS Pharmaceuticals and IC₅₀ values will be generated where possible.

The key objective of the work is to design and synthesise inhibitors of PARP-2 with a higher degree of isoform-selectivity than any published compound. Obtaining samples of literature compounds and assessing them in our assays will measure this.
3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Molecular modelling

Using the crystal structures of PARP-1 (PDB code 4PAX, chicken PARP I with NU1025 13d (inhibitor, Ruf et al.\textsuperscript{124}) and PARP-2 (PDB code 1GSO, murine PARP-2, Oliver et al.\textsuperscript{123}) as starting structures, the binding pocket was established (by eye) and compared. This was achieved by uploading the relevant PDB files in UCSF Chimera (Version 1) and locating the known key substrate-binding residues in the active sites of the two isoforms.

![Image of molecular structure]

**Figure 23.** Observed interactions and distances between 13d and the PARP-1 active site; all distances are in Ångstroms.

Initial studies with PARP-1 involved measuring and mapping the binding pocket, together with key interactions between the bound NU1025 13d inhibitor and the pocket. Comparisons were also made to PARP-1 without an inhibitor present by uploading the PDB file 2PAW (corresponding to the catalytic fragment of chicken PARP-1 with no inhibitor bound) into UCSF Chimera. This was to establish and confirm previous observations that the receptor binding pocket is relatively rigid and does not change conformation upon binding the substrate or an inhibitor ligand. The observed significant
interactions and distances in the PARP-1 model are shown in Figure 23, these distances would be used when docking 5-AIQ into PARP-2. Comparison of the binding pocket with and without a bound inhibitor showed little significant difference.

The distances observed in the PARP-1 study (Figure 23) were then used to dock a minimised and charged (Gastieger + Hückel) 5-AIQ into the binding pocket of PARP-2. This was achieved by transferring the protein structures from UCSF Chimera into Hyperchem (Version 7.5). Once docked (by eye), the structure was transferred back into UCSF Chimera and restraints were added (as observed in the PARP-1 model) and the ligand was subjected to molecular dynamics (300 K for 5 ps, the last 1 ps was then averaged) and then re-minimised. The binding pocket and ligand (5.0 Å from ligand) were then subjected to molecular dynamics (300 K for 5 ps, the last 1 ps was then averaged) and the complete complex (enzyme and 5-AIQ) was minimised to give the final model.
In this model, Lys308 sat relatively close in space (3.08 Å) to the 5-amino function in 5-AIQ. The side chain of this residue was mobile but a stronger interaction between the acidic function and the lysine occurs when the two groups are close in space. Therefore, our CH\textsubscript{2} tether was short (1-2 units from the amine or 1-3 units if attached directly to the carbocyclic ring).
It was observed that the hydrophobic pocket in PARP-2 had a larger volume than the corresponding space in PARP-1, in our model. The pocket lies south of the 3- and 4-positions in the docked 5-AIQ core and this difference will be exploited by functionalising these positions with bulky substituents.

### 3.2 PARP-1 Assay

There are numerous PARP-1 assays reported in the literature and many of them rely on the use of radiolabelled substrate, either $^3$H- or $^{32}$P-labelled NAD$^+$. The assay developed by Purnell and Whish$^{106}$ used nuclei isolated from the thymus of a freshly slaughtered pig, rather than pure enzyme. The authors calculated percentage inhibition of PARP activity by measuring the amount of $[^3\text{H}]$adenosine-NAD$^+$ incorporated into an acid-insoluble fraction, following initiation of the PARP reaction, when no inhibitor was present. This was then compared with the value when an inhibitor was present.

The assay reported by Cheung and Zhang$^{127}$ involves the use of biotinylated NAD$^+$ in addition to $^3$H-NAD$^+$. The PAR polymers produced bind to avidin-SPA beads also present in the reaction mixture, resulting in excitation of the scintillant and amplification of the signal. The signal produced from the free $[^3\text{H}]$adenosine-NAD$^+$ dissipates in aqueous solution, therefore the free ligands and complexes do not need to be separated, which greatly increases throughput.
An alternative ELISA-based assay was developed by Decker et al.\textsuperscript{127} PARP activity is measured using UV absorption and no radioisotopes are required. The assay is highly sensitive but the frequent washing steps required in ELISA assays decreases throughput and renders them prone to operator error.

Another assay bypassing the use of radioisotopes has been reported by Trevigen Inc. and is commercially available. The assay uses biotinylated NAD\textsuperscript{+} in wells coated with histone acceptor proteins. The extent of incorporation of biotin into the PAR polymers and, therefore, activity of the enzyme is measured using a conjugated streptavidin detection system which gives a colorimetric readout. A similar minaturised assay, based on the same principles, has been developed by Lee et al.\textsuperscript{128}

KuDOS Pharmaceuticals Ltd. kindly agreed to screen the compounds for PARP-1 activity though an established collaboration. This company has developed a FlashPlate scintillation proximity assay\textsuperscript{129} for the high-throughput screening of compound libraries. The principles of the assay briefly follow. PARP-1 is purified from HeLa nuclear extracts in-house and 96-well FlashPlates (NEN) are coated with scintillant. After the incubation of the inhibitor with PARP-1, the reagents (NAD\textsuperscript{+}, \textsuperscript{3}H-NAD\textsuperscript{+} and DNA) are added to the wells to initiate the PARP-catalysed reaction. Column 11 is a positive control which does not contain test compound and column 12 is a negative control lacking DNA. As a result of the PARP reaction, PARP-1 will automodify itself and the resulting structures will contain \textsuperscript{3}H-labelled adenine. Following termination of the reaction (cold AcOH), the PARP-1-\textsuperscript{3}H-ADP-ribose complexes will come into close proximity with the FlashPlate walls which leads to signal amplification. Unreacted \textsuperscript{3}H-NAD\textsuperscript{+} will remain free in solution and therefore less likely to come close enough to the well walls to be amplified. The assay plates are read on a TopCount scintillation counter.

In order to obtain IC\textsubscript{50} values, eight different concentrations of inhibitor were used in a range surrounding the expected value. The recorded counts for TopCount are then transferred to the program ActivityBase which calculates the mean positive and negative
counts per minute (cpm) from columns 11 and 12. The percentage inhibition is calculated using the following equation:

\[
\text{% Inhibition} = 100 - \left[ \frac{(\text{cpm of well} - \text{mean -ve cpm})}{\text{mean +ve cpm} - \text{mean -ve cpm}} \times 100 \right]
\]

Percentage inhibition can then be plotted against enzyme concentration and the IC\text{50} of the inhibitor can be calculated.

### 3.3 PARP-2 Assay

To date, there are very few assays of PARP-2 activity reported in the literature. Perkins et al.\[^{121}\] developed a novel cell based screen in yeast. The assay relies on the fact that PARP-2 enzymatic activity causes growth inhibition in the organism; therefore reversal of this effect is a measure of PARP-2 inhibitory activity.

KuDOS Pharmaceuticals Ltd. evaluated the compounds for inhibition of PARP-2 catalytic using their ELISA based assay, developed in-house. The principles of the assay are as follows. 96-Well plates (Fisher Scientific) are coated with rabbit anti-PARP-2 polyclonal antibody (Abcam Nunc-Immuno MaxiSorp) to which murine PARP-2 (Alexis Biochemicals) is bound. Column 11 of the plates is a positive control containing no test inhibitor and column 12 is a negative control containing no PARP-2 protein. Following incubation with test inhibitors, the plates are washed and scintillation fluid is added; they can then be read on a TopCount scintillation counter.

The mean counts per minute (cpm) for all wells can then be obtained using the program ActivityBase. From these values, percentage inhibition can be calculated using the following equation:

\[
\text{% Inhibition} = 100 - \left[ \frac{(\text{cpm of well} - \text{mean -ve cpm})}{\text{mean +ve cpm} - \text{mean -ve cpm}} \times 100 \right]
\]
Percentage inhibition can then be plotted against enzyme concentration and the IC$_{50}$ of the inhibitor can be calculated.

### 3.4 5-Substituted Isoquinolinones

The initial synthetic targets were the secondary amines with the general structure 25 which could be feasibly synthesised from 5-AIQ and suitable two- or three-carbon electrophiles carrying a (masked) o-carboxylic acid. It was envisaged that alkylations at the nucleophilic amino group would proceed smoothly and this was the case when a weak base was used in combination with ethylbromoacetate.

#### 3.4.1 Synthesis of 5-AIQ

Three different routes to 5-AIQ have been reported in the literature. Wenkert *et al.*$^{130}$ first reported the synthesis of 5-AIQ in 1964. This route starts from the complete isoquinoline core already carrying a nitrogen substituent at the 5- position and is simply a series of adjustments of the oxidation levels. Commercially available 50 was N-oxidised to 51 in good yield. Polonowski rearrangement of this N-oxide with acetic anhydride generated 38 which was subsequently reduced to the target 5-AIQ 5.

![Scheme 3. Reported synthesis of 5-AIQ via Polonowski rearrangement of 51. (i) AcOH, H$_2$O$_2$; (ii) Ac$_2$O, heat; (iii) Pd/C, H$_2$.](image-url)
In our laboratory, the rearrangement step has been found to be low yielding and unreliable\textsuperscript{131} and this led us to examine other routes.

An alternative novel synthesis was recently developed by Woon \textit{et al.}\textsuperscript{132} In this route, the 3-carbon and the ring-nitrogen are introduced as nucleophilic cyanide. Radical bromination of the Ar-Me group of the ester 52 led to the mono-brominated product 53. Nucleophilic displacement of bromide with cyanide gave the nitrile 54. Interestingly, this step could only be achieved with the expensive tetrethylammonium cyanide but not with simple alkali metal cyanides, even in the presence of phase-transfer catalysts. Selective reduction of 54 with DIBAL-H at -78°C furnished the imine, which cyclised \textit{in situ} to the key intermediate 38. This was again converted to 5-AIQ by reduction of the nitro group. Unfortunately the yields of the displacement and reductive cyclisation steps were low, resulting in a poor overall yield of only 8%.

\begin{center}
\begin{tikzpicture}
\node[below] at (0,0) \{\textbf{Scheme 4.} Synthesis of 5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one \textit{via} radical bromination of 52. (i) Br$_2$, (PhCO)$_2$O, CCl$_4$, hv, reflux; (ii) Et$_4$NCN, MeCN; (iii) DIBAL-H.\};
\end{tikzpicture}
\end{center}

The final route reported\textsuperscript{155} also involved introduction of the 3-carbon. This was achieved through formation of the enamine 55 \textit{via} condensation of 52 with dimethylformamide dimethyl acetal (DMFDMA). Immediate passage of the crude reaction mixture of 55 down a silica gel chromatography column provided enough acidity to protonate the basic enamine nitrogen, catalysing the hydrolysis of 55 to an intermediate aldehyde. The enol form of this aldehyde cyclised \textit{in situ}. This cyclisation meant that 5-nitroisocoumarin 56 was both formed and purified in one step.
Saturation of a solution of 56 in 2-methoxyethanol with ammonia and boiling under reflux, followed by palladium-catalysed hydrogenation of the nitro group yielded 5 in an overall yield of 17%. Although this yield was not ideal, it was nearly double that of the only other reliable published synthesis (via radical bromination of 52) and could be performed on scales of up to 8 g. This method was therefore chosen to obtain starting material for the synthesis of the initial 5-substituted targets.

3.4.2 Alkylations of 5-AIQ

The one-carbon CH₂ tether was introduced by alkylating the exocyclic amino-nitrogen of 5-AIQ with ethyl bromoacetate, using N,N-diisopropylethylamine as base. The function of the base was to free the amine from its salt; as a weak base was chosen, lactam proton abstraction would not occur. The yield obtained for this step to form 58 was somewhat disappointing (19%) but, as only a small amount of compound was required for
biological testing, the reaction conditions were not optimised. Hydrolysis with aqueous hydrochloric acid gave the first target \textit{59} as the hydrochloride salt in good yield in a final convenient step. An attempt to grow crystals of \textit{59}, in order to confirm its structure by X-ray crystallography, resulted in formation of the methyl ester due to the use of methanol as the recrystallisation solvent (discussed in a later section).

\begin{center}
\begin{tikzpicture}
\node [draw] (1) at (0,0) {\textit{5}};
\node [draw] (2) at (1,0) {\textit{58}};
\node [draw] (3) at (2,0) {\textit{59}};
\draw [->] (1) -- (2) node [midway, above] {\textit{(i) diisopropylethylamine, ethyl bromoacetate, 19\%;}};
\draw [->] (2) -- (3) node [midway, above] {\textit{(ii) aq. HCl, 87\%}};
\end{tikzpicture}
\end{center}

\textbf{Scheme 7.} Synthesis of \textit{59} via an alkylation of 5-AIQ. \textit{(i) diisopropylethylamine, ethyl bromoacetate, 19\%; (ii) aq. HCl, 87\%}.

In order to attach a two-carbon tether, it was assumed the amino group of 5-AIQ would act as a Michael donor when reacted with the Michael acceptor, methyl propenoate. Sodium hydride was used to catalyse the reaction and, upon initial inspection of the NMR spectrum of \textit{60}, it was assumed the desired ester \textit{61} had been formed in 67\% yield. Some doubt was cast upon this assumption by the chemical shift of the protons adjacent to the amine nitrogen, at 4.09ppm. This value appears somewhat downfield for -CH$_2$NAr protons and would be more appropriate for protons adjacent to a lactam. It was feasible that the strong base, sodium hydride had removed the lactam proton in addition to forming the free amine at the 5-position. The resultant anion would be more nucleophilic than the aromatic amino group and, therefore, more likely to react with methyl propenoate forming methyl 3-(5-amino-1-oxoisquinolin-2(1H)-yl)propanoate \textit{60} rather than the expected ester \textit{61}. Upon acid-hydrolysis, the resultant carboxylic acid \textit{62} was subject to analysis using Heteronuclear Multiple Quantum Correlation (HMQC) and Heteronuclear Multiple Bond Connectivity (HMBC) NMR experiments. HMQC experiments show strong proton-carbon couplings and therefore which protons are directly connected to particular carbons. HMBC experiments inform about weaker proton-carbon couplings and therefore which protons are separated from the carbons in
question by two to three bonds. The partial HMBC spectrum of 62 is shown below, along with assignments (full assignment of 62 can be found in the experimental section). Two key lines of evidence for the proposed structure are strong three-bond HMBC couplings between the 1-C and the NCH$_2$ alkyl protons and also between the 3-C and the same protons. If the alkylation had taken place at the 5-amino position, these protons would be five bonds away and highly unlikely to couple strongly to the 1- and 3- carbons.

**Figure 26.** Partial HMBC spectrum of 62.
Therefore, treatment of 5-AIQ with sodium hydride and methyl propenoate did not give the expected 61. Instead, the lactam proton was removed and alkylation took place at 2-N yielding 60.

Scheme 8. Attempted synthesis of 60 which gave 61, hydrolysis yielded 62. (i) NaH, methyl propenoate 67%; (ii) aq. HCl, 85%.

3.4.3 Synthesis and Heck reaction of 5-iodoisoquinolin-1-one

The next targets were the acids 28, 63 and 27, with the carboxylic acid or carbon tether attached directly to the ring.

Figure 27. The carboxylic acid targets 28, 63 and 27.

To attach a two-carbon tether directly to the aromatic ring, it was planned to use palladium-catalysed chemistry and the Heck reaction of either 5-bromoisoquinolin-1-one 64 or 5-iodoisoquinolin-1-one 65. Initially discovered in the 1970s, the Heck reaction was independently reported by both Heck and Mizoroki and involves the
palladium(0)-catalysed arylation or alkenylation of alkenes by aryl or alkenyl halides (or 
*pseudo*-halides) in the presence of base. The mechanism of the Heck reaction is not fully 
understood but is best represented by a catalytic cycle; the reaction involves four key 
steps.

- Oxidative addition
- Migratory insertion (carbopalladation)
- β–hydride elimination
- Reductive elimination

Before the Heck reaction could be attempted, the starting aryl halide was required and 
this was either 5-bromoisoquinolin-1-one 64 or 5-iodoisoquinolin-1-one 65. Berry *et al.*\textsuperscript{135} reported the synthesis of 5-bromoisoquinoline via a one-pot Curtius rearrangement of 
3-(2-bromophenyl)propenoyl azide and *trans*→*cis* isomerism and cyclisation of the 
intermediate isocyanate at high temperature. The starting acyl azide was prepared in two 
steps from 2-bromiodobenzene 69, using an iodine-selective Heck coupling reaction 
described by Plevyak *et al.*\textsuperscript{136} but using propanenitrile rather than acetonitrile as solvent; 
the higher boiling solvent allowed the avoidance of the use of a sealed tube to perform 
the reaction at 100°C to form *E*-2′-bromocinnamic acid 70. This was readily converted to 
the acyl chloride 71 by reaction with thionyl chloride. The acyl azide 72 was formed by 
reaction with sodium azide in water. However, the thermal Curtius rearrangement / 
isomerisation / cyclisation in tetraglyme proved troublesome, with little or none of the 
desired isoquinolin-1-one 64 formed (by TLC and/or MS analysis). In contrast to Curtius 
reactions which usually occur at <120°C,\textsuperscript{137, 138} *trans*→*cis* isomerisms require much 
higher temperatures to take place. The difficulties encountered in this synthesis of 64 
were therefore probably due to problems maintaining the very high temperature (260°C) 
required for the isomerisation / cyclisation step to occur. Similar attempts to cyclise 3-(2- 
idoophenyl)propenoyl azide to form 5-iodoisoquinolin-1-one also failed.
Scheme 9. Attempted synthesis of 5-iodoisouquinolin-1-one via Curtius rearrangement of 72. (i) EtCN, Pd(OAc)₂, propenoic acid, Et₃N; (ii) SOCl₂; (iii) NaN₃, H₂O; (iv) Heat, (MeOCH₂CH₂OCH₂CH₂)₂O.

An alternative approach was therefore investigated. The preferred starting material was the 5-iodo compound 65 as iodine is a better leaving group than bromine therefore aryl iodides tend to perform better in palladium-catalysed couplings. It was envisaged that the 5-iodo function could be introduced via diazotisation of the amino group in 5-aminoisocoumarin 74 or 5-aminoisouquinolin-1-one 5, followed by displacement with iodide ion. The isocoumarin 56 was made as usual and palladium-catalysed reduction of the nitro group furnished the corresponding amine. Close monitoring of this reaction by TLC was essential, as a slower reduction of the 3,4-double bond was also possible under the conditions. The diazotisation step was achieved with sodium nitrite and hydrochloric acid in water and subsequent nucleophilic displacement with potassium iodide (KI) gave 5-iodoisocoumarin 75 in moderate yield. The established procedure (a number of alternatives are reported in the literature but this is by far the most straightforward and efficient) of saturation with ammonia and reflux in 2-methoxyethanol was used to convert 75 to the isouquinolin-1-one 65.

The method of Watson et al.¹³¹ was then employed for the Heck reaction, using propanenitrile as solvent, triethylamine as base and palladium(II) acetate as catalyst or, more accurately, precatalyst. This gave 26 in excellent yield and palladium-catalysed
hydrogenation of the alkene, in methanol, also went smoothly to form the target intermediate 5-iodoisoquinolinone 27.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{NO}_2 & \quad 56 \quad \xrightarrow{(i)} \quad \text{NH}_2 \quad 74 \quad \xrightarrow{(ii)} \quad \text{I} \quad 75 \\
\text{COOH} & \quad 27 \quad \xrightarrow{(v)} \quad \text{NH} \quad 26 \quad \xrightarrow{(iv)} \quad \text{NH} \quad 65
\end{align*}
\]

**Scheme 10.** Synthesis of the targets 27 and 26 via Heck reaction of 5-iodoisoquinolin-1-one. (i) Pd/C, H\(_2\), 89%; (ii) NaNO\(_2\), HCl, KI, 58%; (iii) NH\(_3\), 2-methoxyethanol, 62%; (iv) Propenoic acid, Et\(_3\)N, Pd(II) acetate, 97%; (v) Pd/C, H\(_2\), 66%.

3.4.4 Synthesis of 1-Oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinoline-5-carboxylic acid

1-Oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinoline-5-carboxylic acid 28 is a known compound and is accessible by hydrolysis of 5-cyanoisoquinolin-1-one 76.\(^{131}\) Compound 76 was originally synthesised in low yield by Wenkert et al.\(^{130}\) by condensation of 2,6-dicyanotoluene 41 with ethyl formate under basic conditions, then acidic workup. When this procedure was followed, a small amount of the isocoumarin 77 was also recovered in low yield.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{CN} & \quad 41 \quad \xrightarrow{(i)} \quad \text{NH} \quad 76 \quad \xrightarrow{} \quad \text{O} \quad 77
\end{align*}
\]
Scheme 11. Synthesis of 1-oxoisooquinoline-5-carboxylic acid 28. (i) KOBu, ethyl formate, 76 14%, 77 13%; (ii) KOH, EtOH, 83%.

An alternative synthetic method was developed by Watson et al. and this method was also followed. Thus, the enamine 78 was formed, following condensation of 2,6-dicyanotoluene 41 with DMFDMA, as originally reported by Ponticello and Baldwin. Then Pinner-type reaction gave 76 in moderate yield.

Scheme 12. Synthesis of 5-cyanoisoquinolin-1-one 76 via Pinner-type reaction of 41. (i) DMFDMA, 3 d, 71%; (ii) MeOH, HCl, 55%.

The Pinner reaction involves the treatment of nitriles e.g. 79 with anhydrous hydrochloric acid in the presence of alcohols resulting in a condensation to form imino ether hydrochloride salts 80. These salts are unstable and there are a number of possible products depending upon the workup conditions, for example treatment with weak base would result in the formation of the imino ether 81 whereas using aqueous acid would furnish the ester 82.
The planned Pinner-type reaction of the enamine 78 involved treatment of the starting material, in an excess of anhydrous methanol, with dry hydrogen chloride gas followed by aqueous workup. If the reaction was to follow a typical Pinner pathway, the formation of one or two products could be expected, depending on whether one or two of the cyano groups was converted to the methyl ester. If a single cyano group reacted, one would expect the intermediate ester 84 to cyclise to form 5-cyanoisocoumarin 77. Therefore, conversion of both cyano groups would give the intermediate ester 85 which would lead to the isocoumarin 86.
However, Watson et al.\textsuperscript{131} reported that the only isolable product from Pinner reaction of 78 was 5-cyanoisoquinolin-1-one 76. The formation of this product could be rationalised by an intramolecular attack of the nitrogen lone pair of the imino ether on to the dimethyl iminium ion in 87, which could be formed by protonation and rearrangement of 88. The loss of dimethylamine from 89 would give 76. This would take place in anhydrous conditions and therefore before any of the expected methyl esters could form.
The overall yield of this second route was much better than the previous synthesis but a major disadvantage was the prolonged reaction times (>3 d) required to form the enamine. As only a small amount of 28 was needed for biological evaluation, the prolonged reaction times required to form the enamine in the second route were avoided and Wenkert’s more expedient but less efficient synthesis was chosen. With 76 in hand, the last remaining step was hydrolysis of the cyano group. The published vigorous base-catalysed hydrolysis gave the target compound 28 in good yield.

3.4.5 Novel synthesis of 5-bromoisoquinolin-1-one 64

Several methods were considered in order to introduce a single CH$_2$ unit, followed by a carboxylic acid, to the isoquinolin-1-one core. All the approaches relied upon the use of a 5-haloisocoumarin or 5-haloisoquinolin-1-one as starting material. A more efficient route to these compounds was required, as the current multistep approach was low yielding (16% overall yield from the starting 2-methyl-3-nitrobenzioic acid) and time consuming.
Isoquinolin-1-ones could be accessed by hydrolysis of 1-chloroisooquinolines; there are examples of such conversions (or similar) in the literature.\textsuperscript{141-143} Therefore, 5-bromo-1-chloroisooquinoline is a simple functional group interconversion (FGI) away from the required 5-bromoisoquinolin-1-one \textit{64} and the aim was to synthesise this precursor. The key step in a short synthesis would be the installation of bromine in the 5-position of the isoquinoline core. Gordon and Pearson\textsuperscript{144} reported that isoquinoline could be brominated selectively in the 5-position using a technique they termed the “swamping catalyst method” in which gaseous bromine was added to a mixture of molten aluminium chloride and isoquinoline over a sintered condenser. Some years later, Braye \textit{et al.}\textsuperscript{145} used the same technique to brominate the commercially available 1-chloroisooquinoline \textit{90} selectively in the 5-position to give \textit{91} which was exactly the conversion required in the present work. This chemistry was found to be both high yielding (ca. 65\%) and reproducible, with the added bonus of avoiding column chromatography. As predicted, conversion to 5-bromoisoquinolin-1-one was straightforward and was achieved in a mixture of acetic acid and water at 100\,°C. This new route to \textit{64} required fewer steps and had a far greater overall yield (46\%) than all other previous published syntheses.

\begin{scheme}
\centering
\begin{tikzpicture}[auto, node distance=1.5cm, every node/.style={align=center}]
  \node (1) at (0,0) {\begin{tikzpicture}[scale=0.5]
    \draw[fill=black] (0,0) circle (0.2cm);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (0.5,0);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (-0.5,0);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (0,-0.5);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (0,0.5);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (0.5,0.5);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (-0.5,-0.5);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (0.5,-0.5);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (-0.5,0.5);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (0.5,0.5);
    \node at (0.25,0.25) {Cl};
    \node at (-0.25,-0.25) {Cl};
    \node at (0,-0.5) {N};
    \node at (0.5,0) {N};
    \node at (0.75,0) {\textcolor{red}{\textit{90}}};
    \node at (-0.75,-0.75) {\textcolor{red}{\textit{90}}};
  \end{tikzpicture}};
  \node (2) at (3,0) {\begin{tikzpicture}[scale=0.5]
    \draw[fill=black] (0,0) circle (0.2cm);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (0.5,0);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (-0.5,0);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (0,-0.5);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (0,0.5);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (0.5,0.5);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (-0.5,-0.5);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (0.5,-0.5);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (-0.5,0.5);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (0.5,0.5);
    \node at (0.25,0.25) {Cl};
    \node at (-0.25,-0.25) {Br};
    \node at (0,-0.5) {N};
    \node at (0.5,0) {N};
    \node at (0.75,0) {\textcolor{red}{\textit{91}}};
    \node at (-0.75,-0.75) {\textcolor{red}{\textit{91}}};
  \end{tikzpicture}};
  \node (3) at (6,0) {\begin{tikzpicture}[scale=0.5]
    \draw[fill=black] (0,0) circle (0.2cm);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (0.5,0);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (-0.5,0);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (0,-0.5);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (0,0.5);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (0.5,0.5);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (-0.5,-0.5);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (0.5,-0.5);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (-0.5,0.5);
    \draw[thick] (0,0) -- (0.5,0.5);
    \node at (0.25,0.25) {\textcolor{red}{O}};
    \node at (-0.25,-0.25) {\textcolor{red}{NH}};
    \node at (0,-0.5) {Br};
    \node at (0.5,0) {Br};
    \node at (0.75,0) {\textcolor{red}{\textit{64}}};
    \node at (-0.75,-0.75) {\textcolor{red}{\textit{64}}};
  \end{tikzpicture}};
  \node[align=center] at (1,-1) {\textbf{(i)} \textcolor{red}{Br}_2, 65\%; \textbf{(ii)} \textit{AcOH/H}_2\textit{O}, 70\%};
\end{tikzpicture}
\caption{New, higher-yielding synthesis of 5-bromoisoquinolin-1-one \textit{64}. (i) \textit{Br}_2, 65\%; (ii) \textit{AcOH/H}_2\textit{O}, 70\%.}
\end{scheme}

\subsection*{3.4.6 Attempted synthesis of 2-(1-oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)acetic acid \textit{63}}

The next step was to attempt direct attachment of a \textit{CH}_2\textit{CO}_2\textit{Et} unit at the 5-position of the isoquinolin-1-one and the first approach was a palladium-catalysed coupling reaction of 5-bromoisoquinolin-1-one \textit{64} and the enolate of ethyl acetoacetate \textit{92} in the presence of base, followed by \textit{in situ} deacetylation.
Paluki and Buchwald developed this type of chemistry and originally reported the palladium(II) catalysed α-arylation of ketones in 1997\textsuperscript{146} using aryl halides and ketones in the presence of base, catalyst and ligand. The authors suggested that the reaction proceeded by the \textit{in situ} generation of palladium as the coordinatively unsaturated and reactive 14 electron oxidation state (usually coordinated to two ligands but represented as Pd(0)L\textsubscript{n}) and oxidative addition with the aryl halide. Substitution of the halide with the enolate of the ketone and reductive elimination would furnish the α-aryl ketone and regenerate the catalyst. The authors were keen to extend this protocol to esters, as many important drug molecules (e.g. Non-Steroidal Anti-Inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs)) are derivatives of α-aryl esters. The same group reported the successful palladium-catalysed α-arylation of esters in 2001,\textsuperscript{147} which, in the case of the more readily enolised β-keto esters, were decacylated under the reaction conditions. Unfortunately, the protocol could not be extended to 5-haloisoquinolin-1-ones and, despite prolonged efforts with a range of reaction conditions including variation of solvent, catalyst, ligand and base,\textsuperscript{148} only starting material was recovered from the reaction mixture. Seeking an explanation for this unexpected lack of reactivity, it was speculated that the use of 5-haloisoquinolin-1-ones was perhaps an issue, as these compounds have limited solubility in many organic solvents and can also co-ordinate to palladium, possibly diminishing the catalytic activity of the metal. The reaction was therefore repeated using the isocoumarin 75 but again only starting material was recovered. Finally, the catalyst was varied, switching to a copper(I) iodide-catalysed reaction\textsuperscript{149} but no improvement in reactivity was achieved.

\begin{center}
\textbf{Scheme 17.} Attempted synthesis of the ester 93 via palladium-catalysed coupling of 64 and ethyl acetoacetate. (i) Pd(OAc)\textsubscript{2}, P\textsubscript{t}Bu\textsubscript{3}, K\textsubscript{3}PO\textsubscript{4}, toluene.
\end{center}
Scheme 18. Attempted synthesis of 93 via palladium-catalysed couplings with diethyl malonate.

Özdemir et al.\textsuperscript{150} have reported the successful synthesis of arylacetic acid derivatives from diethyl malonate 95 and various aryl halides catalysed by a palladium(1,3-dialkylimidazolidin-2-ylidene) species formed \textit{in situ}. The group noted that the arylations in their study generally required milder reaction conditions than had previously been reported.\textsuperscript{151} In the present work, this reaction was investigated using the starting 5-bromoisoquinolin-1-one 64 or 5-idoisocoumarin 75 under a variety of conditions but the only isolable products were the starting aryl halide with traces of dehalogenated starting materials. The formation of the latter indicates that there is some formation of the aryl-Pd species but that this fails to react with the enolate.

The earlier success of the Heck reaction led us back to more conventional palladium-catalysed chemistry and the Stille reaction. In 1978, Kerdesky and Stille\textsuperscript{152} first used palladium-catalysed reactions of organotin compounds and acid chlorides to synthesise ketones. Stille developed this chemistry\textsuperscript{153, 154} and the Pd(0)-catalysed coupling of an alkyl, aryl or alkenyl halide and an organostannane is now known as the Stille cross-coupling. It was planned to couple allyltributylstannane with 75, anticipating the formation of 96, as allyl groups are known to be transmetallated selectively from allyltributylstannanes in preference to the alkyl groups. This approach introduces a three-carbon unit but the terminal carbon could be cleaved oxidatively by ozonolysis (or osmium tetroxide / sodium periodate), followed by oxidation of the intermediate aldehyde 97 to give 98. The Stille reaction gave a complex mixture of products and mass
spectrometric analysis showed that none of the desired 5-allylisocoumarin had been formed.

![Diagram of molecular structures](image)

**Scheme 19.** Proposed synthesis of 98 via Stille reaction to form 96. (i) Pd$_2$(dba)$_3$, SPhos, trimethylallyl tin, toluene; (ii) O$_3$; (iii) PCC.

As none of these approaches were successful, the synthetic efforts were paused in favour of obtaining biological data to guide future synthesis. The benchmark inhibitor 5-AIQ was tested to serve as a reference point for potency and selectivity.

### 3.4.8 Initial SAR of 5-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones

Ideally, compounds would be tested using the same assay for each PARP isoform but Kudos were unable to extend the protocol used in their Flashplate PARP-1 assay to PARP-2. The initial IC$_{50}$ values of the early targets, obtained using the assays developed by Kudos Pharmaceuticals, are presented in Table 1.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cpd. No.</th>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>PARP-1 IC&lt;sub&gt;50&lt;/sub&gt; (µM)</th>
<th>PARP-2 IC&lt;sub&gt;50&lt;/sub&gt; (µM)</th>
<th>Selectivity (IC&lt;sub&gt;50&lt;/sub&gt; (PARP-1) / IC&lt;sub&gt;50&lt;/sub&gt; (PARP-2))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Structure 5" /></td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Structure 59" /></td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>2.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Structure 62" /></td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Structure 28" /></td>
<td>&gt;25</td>
<td>&gt;25</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Structure 26" /></td>
<td>6.58</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>1.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Structure 27" /></td>
<td>8.45</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>2.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As expected, 5-AIQ did not discriminate between the two PARP isoforms to a significant extent and had an IC<sub>50</sub> of ca. 1 µM for each. The secondary amine 59 was slightly PARP-2 selective (2.85 fold) whilst remaining moderately potent for each isoform. When the amine function is replaced with a CH<sub>2</sub> in 27, activity against both isoforms is reduced by approximately 6-fold. A possible explanation for this reduction in potency is that the amine NH in 59 forms favourable contacts with residues in the active sites of both isoforms and these are lost in 27. Interestingly, it has been proposed that a water-
mediated hydrogen bond between the amino group of 5-AIQ and the Glu988 carboxylate contributes to the increased potency of the inhibitor.\textsuperscript{155} The more rigid alkene 26 showed a minor increase in potency for PARP-1 and was slightly less potent towards PARP-2 than its saturated counterpart. However the differences observed are too small to suggest that free rotation about the alkane plays a significant role in activity against either isoform.

The propionic acid 62 retained activity for both isoforms and was slightly PARP-1 selective. In fact, 62 was the most potent PARP-1 inhibitor of the series evaluated. This result was somewhat unexpected given that the vast majority of SAR studies with PARP-1 inhibitors show that one amide proton is absolutely required, in order that the three key hydrogen bonds with Gly863 and Ser904 in the PARP-1 catalytic site are formed. It is feasible that 62 could bind to the active sites of PARP-1 (and -2) in two different ways. Firstly, the amide carbonyl could form two hydrogen bonds, one with the Gly863 NH and a second with the Ser904, in the traditional way. The third contact could be achieved thanks to the flexibility of the propionic acid side chain, with the carboxylic acid hydroxy replacing the amide hydrogen. However it is likely that the acid would be deprotonated at physiological pH, therefore this binding mode is not probable.

Alternatively, the compound could fit into the PARP-1 active site in a different manner. The carboxylate carbonyl could form two hydrogen bonds with Gly863 and Ser904 and an amine proton could participate in the final bond. These two possible binding modes are shown in Figure 28.

![Figure 28. Possible binding modes of 62 in the PARP-1 active site.](image)
Interestingly, Eltze et al.\textsuperscript{156} have recently reported a selection of imidazoquinolinone, imidazopyridine and isoquinolinindione compounds which lack an amide NH but possess other binding motifs. Many of these were potent PARP-1/2 inhibitors.

It was surprising that the carboxylic acid \textbf{28} showed an apparent lack of activity as Watson et al.\textsuperscript{131} had shown this compound was a moderately potent PARP inhibitor, inhibiting PARP activity by 79\% at a concentration of 13.2 µM, in comparison with a control. This result illustrates that caution must be exercised when comparing compounds tested in different assays as very different results can be obtained.

\textbf{3.4.9 Further modifications at the 5-position of 5-AIQ}

The modest selectivity and potency of the initial targets led us to consider other modifications at the 5-position of 5-AIQ. Interestingly, while these modifications were being considered, Pellicciari \textit{et al.}\textsuperscript{157} published a paper reporting the synthesis and biological evaluation of a series of 5-benzoyloxyisoquinolin-1-ones and also some saturated (\textit{i.e.} 3,4-dihydro) analogues. Initially, the group screened the compounds at a concentration of 10 µM against bovine PARP-1 and murine PARP-2 and calculated percentage activity, compared to control. The more promising compounds (in terms of apparent selectivity) were taken forward for further biological characterisation. The methods developed by Banakis \textit{et al.}\textsuperscript{107} were then used to assay the compounds, again using bovine PARP-1 and murine PARP-2. Thus PARP activity was assessed by measuring the radioactivity of \[^3\text{H}\text{adenosine-NAD}^+\] incorporated into acid insoluble material, following the PARP reaction. The group reported that 5-benzoyloxyisoquinolin-1-one \textbf{99} showed a 60-fold selectivity for PARP-2 over PARP-1 using this assay. In addition, \textbf{99} and the potent PARP-1 (and 2) inhibitor PJ34 \textbf{100} were tested in whole cells using fibroblasts derived from PARP-1 knockout mice or wild-type controls. The vast majority of the PARP-catalytic activity in the PARP-1\textsuperscript{−} cells would be due to PARP-2, whereas, in the wild-type cells, PARP-1 would account for 85-90\% and PARP-2 10-15\%. It was shown that PJ34 caused a 76\% drop in PARP(1 + 2) activity (when compared with
control) in the wild-type cells whereas 99 only caused a 9% drop. In the PARP-1−/− cells, PJ34 100 caused a 76% reduction in PARP(-2) activity whilst treatment with 99 resulted in a 90% drop. The authors claim that these data show PJ34 inhibits PARPs 1 and 2 but 99 only inhibits PARP-2.

![Figure 29. The PARP-2 selective ester 99 and proposed amide 101, and the unselective PJ34 100](image)

A potential problem with use of the Pellicciari compound 99 is the presence of a phenyl ester group, which one would expect to be easily hydrolysed under physiological conditions, therefore limiting its usefulness in in vivo experiments. With this in mind, it was planned to synthesise a series of benzamides, with the general structure shown in Scheme 20, in which the tethering amide bond would be much more stable in vivo than the isosteric ester in Pellicciari’s series.

In order to generate the series, 5-AIQ was treated with various commercially available acid chlorides using pyridine as solvent. The functions of the pyridine were twofold, firstly to act as a base to quench the HCl formed in the reaction and secondly to act a nucleophilic catalyst, activating the acid chloride. In general, the acylations worked well and the isolation of products was achieved by evaporation of solvent and recrystallisation.
Scheme 20. Acylation of 5-AIQ with various acid chlorides. (i) Pyridine, 90°C, 16 h, 55-86%.

3.4.10 Further SAR of 5-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones

Table 2 shows the relevant yields and IC<sub>50</sub> values of the compounds in this series. Additionally, the IC<sub>50</sub> values of Pellicciari’s<sup>157</sup> compound 99 and the quinoxaline 22 (claimed by Iwashita et al<sup>122</sup> to be 5-fold selective for PARP-2) obtained in the assays are shown as small amounts were available to us for testing. Before comparing the results obtained in this study with other studies, it should be noted that the species from which the enzymes are isolated from or accessed by recombinant DNA technology, may vary. Pellicciari compared bovine PARP-1 with murine PARP-2, Iwashita did not disclose the assay conditions and Kudos Pharmaceuticals compare human PARP-1 with murine PARP-2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cpd No.</th>
<th>5-substituent</th>
<th>Yield</th>
<th>PARP-1 IC&lt;sub&gt;50&lt;/sub&gt; (µM)</th>
<th>PARP-2 IC&lt;sub&gt;50&lt;/sub&gt; (µM)</th>
<th>Selectivity (IC&lt;sub&gt;50&lt;/sub&gt; (PARP-1) / IC&lt;sub&gt;50&lt;/sub&gt; (PARP-2))</th>
<th>Reported selectivity (IC&lt;sub&gt;50&lt;/sub&gt; (PARP-1) / IC&lt;sub&gt;50&lt;/sub&gt; (PARP-2))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>H&lt;sub&gt;2&lt;/sub&gt;N-(5-AIQ)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101</td>
<td>PhCONH-</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>102</td>
<td>4-BrPhCONH</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>103</td>
<td>4-Me-PhCONH</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Substitution</td>
<td>Yield (%)</td>
<td>pKa</td>
<td>LogD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>104</td>
<td>4-I-PhCONH-</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>105</td>
<td>4-O₂N-PhCONH-</td>
<td>71%</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>106</td>
<td>4-F₃C-PhCONH-</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>107</td>
<td>4-F-PhCONH-</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>108</td>
<td>4-Cl-PhCONH-</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>109</td>
<td>2-I-PhCONH-</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110</td>
<td>2-Me-PhCONH-</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>111</td>
<td>(thiophen-3-y1)CONH-</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>112</td>
<td>cHexCONH-</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>&gt;80</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>&gt;2.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>113</td>
<td>Bu'CONH-</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>&gt;100</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>114</td>
<td>(adamantan-1-y1)-CONH-</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>&gt;50</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>&gt;2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>99</td>
<td>PhCO₂-</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>60&lt;sup&gt;157&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>[2-(4-ClPh)-quinoxaline-5-CO NH₂]</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>4.71&lt;sup&gt;122&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In general, better yields were achieved with aromatic (61-86%) over aliphatic acid chlorides (59-69%). Substitution of the aromatic ring led to lower yields. Electron-neutral substituents in the para-position were better tolerated than electron-withdrawing groups and, as expected, ortho-substitution caused a significant reduction in yield.

In terms of selectivity, the most promising compound was N-(1-oxo-1,2-dihydro-isoquinolin-5-yl)benzamide 101, which was 9.3-fold selective for PARP-2 over PARP-1. Substitution of the benzene ring in the acyl group generally reduced potency towards both isoforms but the effect on PARP-2 activity was generally more pronounced, so the
compounds became less selective. However, the most potent inhibitor of PARP-2 was 4-iodo-N-(1-oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)benzamide 104 with an IC₅₀ value of 1.3 µM; unfortunately, this compound also showed an increased potency towards PARP-1 and as a consequence, was only 5.8-fold selective. A bulkier electron-withdrawing group increased potency towards PARP-1, as illustrated by 106 (IC₅₀ = 10.7 µM) and the most potent PARP-1 inhibitor 105 (IC₅₀ = 3.0 µM); PARP-2 activity was only moderately affected. A smaller electron-withdrawing group decreased PARP-1 activity and 4-fluoro-N-(1-oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)benzamide 107 had an IC₅₀ value of 18.0 µM. Switching to the corresponding thiophene-2-carboxamide 111 led to a ca. 2-fold drop in PARP-1 activity but a ca. 5-fold drop in PARP-2 activity and therefore a drop in selectivity. The alkyl carboxamides 112 and 113 suffered from a dramatic loss in PARP-1/2 activity but again the effect was more pronounced for PARP-2 so the compounds became less selective for this isoform. The same was true for 114 which was synthesised to test the effect of steric bulk with aromaticity.

With these promising data in hand, the next stage in the research would be the synthesis of a series of 3- and 4-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones and evaluation of these molecules as inhibitors of PARP-1/2. The purpose of the preparation of these compound sets would be to test if structural modifications in the 3- and 4- positions had a similar impact on PARP-1/2 inhibitory activity, as modifications in the 5-position. It was hoped that a bulky substituent in one of these positions would lead to an increased inhibitory potency against PARP-2 over PARP-1, owing to the larger hydrophobic-binding pocket (in comparison with PARP-1) in this isoform.

3.5 3-Substituted isoquinolin-1-ones

The strategy to synthesise the series of 3-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones was to follow literature precedent but novel routes would also be investigated as required.
Figure 30. Target 3-aryl and 3-alkylisoquinolin-1-ones.

The first eight compounds required were the 3-arylisoquinolin-1-ones 33 and 115-118 and the 3-alkylisoquinolin-1-ones 119, 120 and 121. Three of these examples were chosen to test the effect of varying alkyl chain length (119-121) on PARP inhibitory activity. The other five molecules were designed to test the effect of varying the electronics of the 3-phenyl ring: 117 is highly electron-rich, 118 is electron-rich to a lesser extent, 116 is electron-deficient and 33 and 115 are electron neutral.

There are currently a number of routes to 3-arylisoquinolin-1-ones in the literature including Hg\(^{2+}\)-catalysed cyclisation of methyl 3-nitro-2-phenylethynylbenzoate 30.\(^{158}\)

Scheme 21. Hg\(^{2+}\)-catalysed cyclisation of methyl 3-nitro-2-phenylethynylbenzoate 30 to give 5-nitro-3-phenylisocoumarin 31 which can be converted into the corresponding isoquinolin-1-one 32 by reaction with ammonia. (i) (Ph\(_3\)P)\(_2\)PdCl\(_2\), CuI, ethynylbenzene; (ii) HgSO\(_4\), H\(_2\)SO\(_4\), acetone; (ii) 2-methoxyethanol, NH\(_3\); (iv) Pd/C, H\(_2\).

Other routes include Hurtley reaction of 2-bromo-3-nitrobenzoic acid 34 with ß-diketones\(^{158}\) and reaction of methyl 2-iodo-3-nitrobenzoate 36 with arylethylenes under
Scheme 22. Hurtley reaction of 2-bromo-3-nitrobenzoic acid with β-diketones (left to right) and reaction of methyl 2-iodo-3-nitrobenzoate with arylethenes under Castro-Stevens conditions (right to left), to give 3-aryl-5-nitroisocoumarins, precursors to isoquinolin-1-ones. (i) NaOEt, Cu; (ii) Pyridine, heat; (iii) 2-methoxyethanol, NH₃; (iv) Pd/C, H₂.

The mercury catalysed cyclisation could only be applied to methyl 3-nitro-2-phenylethynylbenzoate and not other arylethenes; this meant it was only useful for the synthesis of 5-nitro-3-phenylisocoumarin 31. The second literature route was limited to phenyl, 4-methylphenyl and 4-methoxyphenyl arylethenes and therefore the corresponding 3-arylisocoumarins. Far more versatile was the final route utilising the Hurtley reaction, as a range of 3-aryl and 3-alkylisocoumarins could be accessed and this pathway was chosen.
3.5.1 Hurtley reaction

Hurtley\textsuperscript{159} first reported the condensation of 2-bromobenzoic acid 122 with a range of β-diketones with either copper (II) acetate or copper powder as catalyst and in the presence of ethanolic sodium ethoxide. Further investigations by Cirrigotis et al.\textsuperscript{160} showed that the carboxylic acid was essential and switching to analogues such as esters caused the reaction to fail. The group also showed that the reaction proceeded with 2-iodobenzoic-acid, albeit in much lower yield and that a source of copper was essential. Two years later, Ames et al.\textsuperscript{161} reported the formation of the isocoumarin 123 by Hurtley coupling of 2-bromo-3-nitrobenzoic acid 34 with pentane-2,4-dione 124, followed by deacylation of the intermediate 125 and ring-closure with sodium chloride at 170°C.

\begin{center}
\begin{tikzpicture}
  \node (a) at (0,0) {\chemfig{\(\text{R} = \text{NO}_2\)} \(\text{Br}\)}; \\
  \node (b) at (1,0) {\chemfig{\(\text{R} = \text{H}\)} \(\text{O}\)}; \\
  \node (c) at (2,0) {\chemfig{\(\text{O}\) \(\text{O}\) \(\text{O}\) \(\text{O}\) \(\text{Ac}\) \(\text{Ac}\)}}}; \\
  \node (d) at (3,0) {\chemfig{\(\text{R}\) \(\text{O}\)} \(\text{Ac}\)}; \\
  \node (e) at (4,0) {\chemfig{\(\text{O}\) \(\text{O}\) \(\text{R}\)}}; \\
  \node (f) at (5,0) {\chemfig{\(\text{O}\) \(\text{O}\) \(\text{R}\)}};
\end{tikzpicture}
\end{center}

Scheme 23. Formation of 3-arylisocoumarins by Hurtley reaction of 34 or 122, followed by deacylation. (i) Cu, KOBu', 2-methylpropan-2-ol; (ii) NaCl, 170°C.

The work of Woon\textsuperscript{162} significantly extended the scope of the use of the Hurtley reaction to form 5-nitro-3-substituted isocoumarins from 2-bromo-3-nitrobenzoic acid and β-diketones. The main findings of the research are summarised below.

- It was possible to form 5-nitro-3-substituted isocoumarins in a single step using Hurtley’s original conditions but β-diketone cleavage side products were also formed.
- The use of a potassium t-butoxide/t-butanol system abolished the formation of β-diketone cleavage side products.
- Copper powder was an effective catalyst.
- The use of unsymmetrical β-diketones lead to the formation of two products.
As quantities of 33, 117, 120 and 121 were available from a previous project, these compounds were evaluated directly. In the meantime, the method of Woon\textsuperscript{162} was followed in synthesising 2-bromo-3-nitrobenzoic acid and the β-diketones required as starting materials for the Hurtley reaction. The ortho-bromo acid 34 was prepared from 3-nitrophthalic acid 126 in good yield (74%) by regioselective mercuration / decarboxylation and electrophilic bromination of 127.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{NO}_2 \quad \text{OH} \\
\text{NO}_2 \quad \text{Hg} \\
\text{NO}_2 \quad \text{Br}
\end{array}
\]

Scheme 24. Synthesis of 34 by mercuration followed by bromination. (i) NaOH, Hg(OAc)\textsubscript{2}, AcOH, (ii) AcOH, Br\textsubscript{2}, NBr, 74% (overall).

Heptane-2,4-dione 124 was commercially available and the remaining β-diketones 128-130 were synthesised by acylating the corresponding acetophenones 131-133 with acetic anhydride 134 using a boron trifluoride-acetic acid complex.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{R} \\
\text{Cl} \\
\text{CF}_3 \\
\text{Me}
\end{array}
\quad
\begin{array}{c}
\text{O} \\
\text{O} \\
\text{O} \\
\text{O}
\end{array}
\quad
\begin{array}{c}
\text{R} \\
\text{Cl} \\
\text{CF}_3 \\
\text{Me}
\end{array}
\quad
\begin{array}{c}
\text{O} \\
\text{O} \\
\text{O} \\
\text{OH}
\end{array}
\]

Scheme 25. Synthesis of β-diketones via Claisen-condensation-type reactions. (i) BF\textsubscript{3}.(AcOH)\textsubscript{2}, 68-84%

The desired products were obtained in moderate to good yields (68-84%) and in each case there was evidence of the presence of both the keto and enol form in the \textsuperscript{1}H NMR spectrum. For example, the signals at δ 6.13 and 16.09 in the \textsuperscript{1}H NMR spectrum of 1-(4-chlorophenyl)butane-1,3-dione 128 are characteristic of enol alkene and hydroxy protons respectively, whereas the signal at δ 4.07 is due to the keto CH\textsubscript{2} protons.
Scheme 26. The different tautomers of 128 evidenced by $^1$H NMR. The intramolecular hydrogen bonds offer increased stability.

The most prevalent tautomer was the enol form (generally >90%); this is unsurprising as intramolecular hydrogen bonding leads to the formation of a stable six-membered ring in this form.

With the starting materials in hand, the Hurtley reactions could be attempted. As expected, Hurtley reaction of the unsymmetrical β-diketones led to two products. The major product was the required 3-aryliso coumarin (e.g. 135) and was probably formed by deacetylation of the Hurtley intermediate (e.g. 136), whilst the minor product 3-methyl-5-nitroiso coumarin 123 was most likely formed by debenzoxylation of the same intermediate.

Scheme 27. Two possible products are possible depending upon whether the Hurtley intermediate 136 undergoes debenzoxylation or decylation.

It is interesting that the 3-aryliso coumarin is the major product as electronically debenzoxylation is favoured over deacetylation due to the fact that benzoyl carbonyl carbons are less electrophillic than their acetyl counterparts. This suggests that steric effects dominate and the smaller acetyl group is preferentially lost. In line with the reported
synthesis, the yields were low, ranging from 12% to 33%, but optimisation was not important at this stage.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Scheme 28. Synthesis of 3-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones via Hurtley reaction. (i) Cu, KOBu}^t, 2-
\text{methylpropan-2-ol, 12-33%; (ii) NH}_3, 2\text{-methoxyethanol, 24-80%; (iii) Pd/H}_2, \text{HCl, 42-79%}. 
\end{align*}
\]

With the synthesis of the 5-nitro-3-aryliso coumarins achieved, all that remained was to convert these to the corresponding isoquinoline-1-ones and then reduce the nitro function. These steps were achieved in good yields using the established procedures of saturation with ammonia and reflux in 2-methoxyethanol followed by palladium-catalysed hydrogenation of the nitro function.
3.5.2 Friedel-Crafts reaction

Attention was then turned to the synthesis of 4-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones. It was rationalised that the most nucleophilic carbon of isoquinolin-1-ones is at the 4-position due to mesomeric donation of the lone pair of the nitrogen in the amide.

![Scheme 29. Resonance forms of the lactams 142 and 143.](image)

The first strategy to exploit this electronic difference was electrophilic substitution via Friedel-Crafts alkylation or acylation. These reactions involve the Lewis-acid catalysed introduction of a keto or alkyl group on to an aromatic by reaction with an alkyl halide (or alkene) or acyl halide (or anhydride), respectively. The presence of the nucleophilic amino group on 5-AIQ meant it was not feasible to attempt Friedel-Crafts acylation reactions directly on this molecule as this would result in acylation of the amine. In addition the amine would act as an $o$-/$p$-directing group in the Friedel-Crafts alkylation, activating the carbo cyclic ring and causing substitution in the 6- and 8-positions. In order to avoid this issue, 5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one 38 was chosen as the starting material; although the nitro group in this molecule is sterically larger than the amino function in 5-AIQ, possibly hindering substitution in the neighbouring 4-position, it deactivates the carbo cyclic ring and is not itself nucleophilic.

![Scheme 30. Probable products formed if Friedel-Crafts alkylations or acylations were attempted directly on 5-AIQ](image)
Benzoyl chloride was chosen as both reactant and solvent; its high boiling point allowed that a range of temperatures could be studied and an excess of electrophile was unlikely to affect the path of the reaction. The strong Lewis acid, aluminium chloride (AlCl₃) was used as a catalyst for the first series of experiments, which involved gradually increasing the temperature from room temperature until product was formed (as shown by TLC analysis). No reaction occurred until the temperature reached 150°C and a product significantly less polar than the starting material was formed in low yield after 3 days. Unfortunately, upon analysis by ¹H and ¹³C NMR, this molecule was not the desired 4-benzoyl-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one but the N-substituted 2-benzoyl-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one 145, in low yield (26%). It is likely that steric crowding at the 4-position led to the formation of this product.

A Friedel-Crafts alkylation was attempted with benzyl chloride in nitrobenzene, again using AlCl₃ as catalyst, but no reaction occurred even at temperatures up to 180°C. Efforts were therefore focused on acylation reactions from this point.

For the next experiments, a less sterically demanding electrophile was chosen, formed from acetic anhydride under Brønsted acid-catalysis. A range of temperatures was again investigated. The desired product, 4-acetyl-5-nitroisoquinolin-1(2H)-one 146 formed at 100°C and the reaction went to completion after 22 h. Interestingly, none of the N-substituted product was formed under these conditions, probably due to the change in catalyst from a Lewis to a Brønsted acid affecting the nucleophilicity at this position. A Lewis acid is likely to form a complex here whereas a Brønsted acid would simply protonate the attacking electrophile rendering it more reactive. The IR spectrum of 146 was interesting in that the ketone carbonyl absorption 1761 cm⁻¹ is unusually high for an
aryl ketone. The probable cause of this is that the ketone is forced out of plane and orthogonal to the isoquinolin-1-one by the peri nitro group. The resultant loss of conjugation would cause the change in IR absorption. Initial attempts to reduce the ketone with sodium borohydride resulted in a complex mixture. In a further attempt to introduce a benzoyl group to the 4-position, benzoic anhydride was used as the electrophile under Brønsted acid catalysis but no reaction occurred, even under forcing conditions.

Following the failure of the attempts to benzoylate the 4-position of 38, focus was turned to the more reactive 5-nitroisocoumarin 56, as the switch to the lactone would prevent substitution occurring at the 2-position. Initially, 56 was treated with benzoyl chloride in a range of solvents, gradually increasing the temperature and using AlCl₃ as catalyst. The reaction proceeded slowly (Table 3 entry B) at 100°C with nitromethane as solvent; a single product was formed in poor yield, as shown by TLC. Preliminary analysis of this product by ¹H NMR showed the characteristic doublet, triplet, doublet coupling pattern of the 6-H, 7-H and 8-H of the isocoumarin and also the presence of a phenyl group, pointing to formation of the expected 4-benzoyl-5-nitroisocoumarin. However, further analysis by ¹³C NMR revealed that only one carbonyl group was present with a signal at δ 160.3, corresponding to the lactone carbonyl in isocoumarins. This observation was confirmed by IR, as only one carbonyl absorption at 1739 cm⁻¹ was present in the IR spectrum of the product. The MS also showed the MW to be 28 Da lower than that of the intended product. Further characterisation of the product by HMBC and HMQC NMR experiments revealed the product to be 5-nitro-3-phenylisocoumarin 31 and this was confirmed by comparison of the NMR spectrum and melting point with an authentic sample and by co-elution by TLC.

The chemistry of this new reaction was interesting and a series of experiments was designed to test the effects of solvent, Lewis acid and temperature on it. A strong Lewis acid such as AlCl₃ or SnCl₄ (entries C and F) was essential and no reaction occurred with the weaker Lewis acids ZnCl₂ and Zn(OTf)₂ (entries H and I), even under forcing conditions for extended reaction times. The effect of temperature is compared in Entries C, D and E (100°C, 150°C and 180°C). The reaction rate was increased at 150°C; this
temperature also gave the greatest yield (42%); increasing the temperature to 180°C led to a lower yield, probably owing to degradation of reactants or intermediates.
The greatest yields and shortest reaction time were achieved with nitrobenzene as solvent. Comparison with use of nitromethane (Entries C and J) at 100°C suggested that the nature of the solvent had only a minor effect and the reaction temperature was paramount. However nitromethane and nitrobenzene are oxidising agents, so an experiment was conducted in the non-oxidising, high-boiling solvent pentachloroethene (Entry K); some product 31 was formed but in poor yield. Having optimised the conditions (Entry D), the generality of this new reaction was tested by using a range of acid chlorides. The presence of an electron-donating group in the aromatic acid chloride

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Entry</th>
<th>Acyl chloride</th>
<th>Lewis acid</th>
<th>Solvent</th>
<th>Reaction temp. (°C)</th>
<th>Reaction time (d)</th>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Yield (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>PhCOCl</td>
<td>AlCl₃</td>
<td>DCM</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>SM⁹</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>PhCOCl</td>
<td>AlCl₃</td>
<td>MeNO₂</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>SM⁹</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
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<td>PhNO₂</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
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<td>PhNO₂</td>
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<td>SnCl₄</td>
<td>PhNO₂</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>PhCOCl</td>
<td>AlCl₃</td>
<td>PhNO₂</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>PhCOCl</td>
<td>Sn(OTf)₂</td>
<td>PhNO₂</td>
<td>150</td>
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<td>PhNO₂</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>SM⁹</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>PhCOCl</td>
<td>Zn(OTf)₂</td>
<td>PhNO₂</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>SM⁹</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>MeNO₂</td>
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<td>17</td>
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<td>C₂HCl₅</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>13</td>
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<tr>
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<td>PhNO₂</td>
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<td>27</td>
<td>39</td>
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<td>PhNO₂</td>
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<td>34</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>4-F₂CC₆H₄COCl</td>
<td>SnCl₄</td>
<td>PhNO₂</td>
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<td>P</td>
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<td>PhNO₂</td>
<td>150</td>
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<td>36</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>4-MeC₆H₄COCl</td>
<td>SnCl₄</td>
<td>PhNO₂</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>3-MeC₆H₄COCl</td>
<td>SnCl₄</td>
<td>PhNO₂</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>4-FC₆H₄CH₂COCl</td>
<td>SnCl₄</td>
<td>PhNO₂</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>⁹</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Me(CH₂)₃COCl</td>
<td>SnCl₄</td>
<td>PhNO₂</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>⁹</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Only 56 recovered. \(^{b}\) Mixture of decomposition products
(Entry O) prevented any reaction but the 3-arylisocoumarin products were formed when electron-withdrawing groups were present (Entries M and N), although the yield was adversely affected. Groups with little electronic effect gave the expected products in satisfactory yields (Entries P, Q and R). The reaction did not proceed with aliphatic acid chlorides and only mixtures of decomposition products were obtained.

Our initial investigations into this reaction gave some clues as to the possible mechanism by which the 3-aryl products were formed. The strong Lewis acidity and forcing conditions required suggested that the primary step might be the formation of the Friedel-Crafts 4-acylated product and the poor yield with the non-oxidising pentachloroethane indicated that an oxidation step was possibly involved. In order to gain further insights into the mechanism, a $^{13}$C labelling study using $^{13}$C-carbonyl-labelled benzoyl chloride was conducted under the optimum conditions, which yielded 148.

![Scheme 32. $^{13}$C-Labelling study.](image)

The $^1$H NMR spectrum of 148 contained a broad doublet at $\delta$ 7.87 ppm with a coupling constant of 5.5 Hz, corresponding to 4-H. In the unlabelled product 31, the corresponding signal is a broad singlet. These data confirm that the $^{13}$C from the labelled acid chloride has been incorporated into the product at position 8a, 5, 4a or 3, as the coupling constant is only consistent with $^2J_{C-H}$ or $^3J_{C-H}$ but not $^1J_{C-H}$ which would be much greater (>100 Hz). The exact location of the $^{13}$C was proved by $^{13}$C NMR spectrum, primarily by the greatly enhanced peak at $\delta$ 156.8 which had previously been assigned as corresponding to 3-C following HMBC and HMQC experiments. This was supported by the observation of one-bond carbon-carbon couplings between the 3-C and adjacent carbons with $^1J_{C-C} = 68$.
Hz between 3-C and 1'-C and $J_{C,C} = 75$ Hz between 3-C and 4-C. Additionally, longer range two- and three-bond couplings were observed with $J$ values between 0 and 5 Hz and, as anticipated, the $3J$ values were larger.

![Diagram of chemical structures and reaction mechanism](image)

Scheme 33. Proposed mechanism for the formation of 31 following Friedel-Crafts reaction of 5-nitroisocoumarin 56.

Having proved that the carbon framework of the benzoyl group was incorporated intact rather than the carbonyl detaching from the phenyl group, it was possible to propose a
mechanism for the reaction path, following our previous observations. The initial Friedel-Crafts product 149 is formed as shown by the requirement for forcing conditions and strong Lewis acidity. Next, a nucleophile in the reaction mixture, which could be a triflate or a chloride ion, attacks the ester carbonyl of the isocoumarin giving rise to the enol 150 which can tautomerise to the enol 151. After cyclisation, the product 31 could be formed either by direct decarbonylation of 152 or by oxidation to the corresponding carboxylic acid 153 and decarboxylation. In view of the literature reports that 6,8-dihydroxy-4-formyl-3-methylisocoumarin is stable in hot aqueous formic acid\textsuperscript{163} and that decarboxylations of isocoumarin-4-carboxylic acids have been used synthetically to obtain isocoumarins,\textsuperscript{164, 165} a direct decarbonylation is unlikely and initial oxidation then loss of the carboxylic acid unit is more likely. This view is supported by the low yield obtained with the non-oxidising solvent, pentachloroethane (Entry K).

Although serendipity had played a part in the discovery of this novel route to 5-nitro-3-arylisocoumarins it was, nevertheless, synthetically useful despite moderate yields. The table below compares the yields obtained with this new reaction with those obtained using the Hurtley route.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3-Substituent and compound number</th>
<th>Yield (% Hurtley from 34)</th>
<th>Yield (% Friedel-Crafts from 56)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ph 31</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-MePh 138</td>
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<td>37</td>
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<tr>
<td>4-F\textsubscript{3}CPh 137</td>
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<td>11</td>
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<td>4-ClPh 135</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-NO\textsubscript{2}Ph 154</td>
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<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-MeOPh 156</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-Me 123</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In general, the two routes have similar yields from the starting bromobenzoic acid or isocoumarin but differences exist in the substituents which are tolerated; for example it is
not possible to synthesise 5-nitro-3-(4-nitrophenyl)isocoumarin 154 using the Hurtley route but the Friedel-Crafts route allows this. Conversely, the Hurtley route tolerates alkyl substituents and electron-rich aromatics whereas the new route does not.

3.5.3 Initial SAR with 3-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones

The IC₅₀ values of the first series of 3-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones tested are shown in the table below along with the values obtained for 5-AIQ for comparison.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cpd. No.</th>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>PARP-1 IC₅₀ (µM)</th>
<th>PARP-2 IC₅₀ (µM)</th>
<th>Selectivity (IC₅₀ (PARP-1) / IC₅₀ (PARP-2))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td><img src="https://via.placeholder.com/150" alt="Structure Image" /></td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td><img src="https://via.placeholder.com/150" alt="Structure Image" /></td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>115</td>
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<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>116</td>
<td><img src="https://via.placeholder.com/150" alt="Structure Image" /></td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>117</td>
<td><img src="https://via.placeholder.com/150" alt="Structure Image" /></td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>118</td>
<td><img src="https://via.placeholder.com/150" alt="Structure Image" /></td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The first point to note is that the 3-substituted compounds were generally some 10-fold more potent against both PARPs -1 and -2 than the 5-substituted series and also 2-10-fold more potent than 5-AIQ, except in the case of 5-amino-3-pentylisoquinolin-1-one 122, where all activity was lost. The most potent compound was the 3-(4-methylphenyl)-substituted 118 which was slightly PARP-1 selective and ca. 10-fold more potent than the 3-phenyl 33. Adjusting the electronic configuration of the phenyl ring did not have a significant impact on potency and electron-neutral substituents were preferred. The electron-deficient 116 was slightly more potent than the electron-rich 117 but the 3-(4-chlorophenyl)-substituted 115 showed the greatest potency of the three. It is tempting to speculate that the 3-arylisoquinolin-1-ones show increased potency over 5-AIQ thanks to the bulky aryl substituent occupying a lipophilic-binding pocket in the PARP1/2 active sites. However, the smaller 3-alkyl substituted compounds (3-Me and 3-Et) show a similar level of activity and this casts doubt on the requirement for a sterically large hydrophobic group in this position.

Unfortunately, the series showed very little selectivity for either isoform; however, the significant increase in potency was promising. It was decided that some further examples would be examined; as potent non-isoform-selective PARP inhibitors are useful molecules in their own right and it was plausible that selectivity could be gained by subsequent modifications in other positions.

The most potent PARP-1/2 inhibitor synthesised thus far was 5-amino-3-(4-methylphenyl)isoquinolin-1-one 118. In order to ascertain if the position of the methyl group on the aromatic ring had any effect on potency or selectivity, the o- 157 and m- 158 analogues were prepared. In addition, 5-nitro-3-(4-iodophenyl)isocoumarin 159 and the corresponding isoquinolin-1-ones 160 and 161 would be synthesised; the iodo-phenyl function would serve as a starting point for further modifications, if required, through palladium-catalysed chemistry.
The now established Friedel-Crafts-like procedure was used to prepare the next set of isocoumarins. Reaction with ammonia in the usual way gave the isoquinolin-1-ones. Pd/C mediated hydrogenation was used to reduce the nitro group in 162 and 164. In order to prevent any reductive de-iodination of 160, tin (II) chloride in EtOH was used as the reducing system, rather than H$_2$Pd/C. The yields for the three steps are shown in Table 6.

### Table 6. Chemical yields obtained when 157, 158 and 161 were synthesised via Friedel-Crafts reaction of 56.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3-substituent and compound number</th>
<th>% Yield (Friedel-Crafts reaction)</th>
<th>% Yield (Reaction with ammonia)</th>
<th>% Yield (Reduction of Nitro group)</th>
<th>% Overall yield (from 56)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>157</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>158</td>
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<td>59</td>
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<tr>
<td>161</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The new compounds were sent for biological evaluation and attention was turned to developing a more efficient route to 3-arylisoquinolin-1-ones as the overall yields for the current routes were poor.
3.5.4 A novel route to 5-amino-3-arylisoquinolin-1-ones

From earlier work, it was known that 1-chloroisoquinolines were precursors to isoquinolin-1-ones. Therefore, compounds with the general structure of 166 would be only two (functional group interconversions) FGIs away from the target 3-aryl 5-AIQs 167. These compounds would be accessible by palladium-catalysed couplings and disconnection of the aryl group would give the dihalide 168. However, this could present a problem; palladium-catalysed coupling onto this compound may give the disubstituted product 169, as both halogens are activated by being adjacent to the ring nitrogen. In fact, the two chlorines in 1,3-dichloroisoquinolines show an inherent difference in reactivity and it is reported to be possible to perform selective Suzuki couplings on such molecules to give 1-aryl-3-chloroisoquinolines 170. Of course, this is opposite to the required regioselectivity of coupling.

Scheme 34. Retrosynthetic analysis for 167.
This difference in coupling reactivity was highly likely to remain in 5-nitro-1,3-dichloroisouquinolines however; it may be expected to translate into differences in electrophilic reactivity and thus could be exploited to protect selectively the 1-chloro position as the methoxy lactim 171. The final disconnection would be the 5-nitro group and we were encouraged by reports that nitration of 1-chloroisouquinoline gave 1-chloro-5-nitroisouquinoline as the sole product in very good yield that selective nitration in the 5-position would be possible.\textsuperscript{167,168} Therefore, the forward synthesis was attempted. Classical nitration of 172 with concentrated nitric and sulfuric acids, ensuring that the isouquinoline was fully protonated in the reaction mixture to deactivate the heterocyclic ring, gave a single product 168, in excellent yield. The double-doublet, triplet, double-doublet coupling pattern in the 1\textsuperscript{H} NMR spectrum of the product provided evidence that nitration had occurred in either the 8- or 5-positions. The absence of a Nuclear Overhauser Enhancement Spectroscopy (NOESY) interaction between the 4-H and any other protons pointed to the absence of a proton in the 5-position and that electrophilic substitution had occurred here.

Scheme 35. Synthesis of 158 via Suzuki coupling with 171. (i) HNO\textsubscript{3}/H\textsubscript{2}SO\textsubscript{4}, 91%; (ii) MeOH, Na, 92%; (iii) Pd\textsubscript{2}(dba)\textsubscript{3}, SPhos, K\textsubscript{3}PO\textsubscript{4}, 3-MePhB(OH)\textsubscript{2}, toluene, 67%; (iv) HBr, 85%; (v) Pd/C, H\textsubscript{2}, 69%; overall yield 33%.

Pleasantly, reaction with sodium methoxide, formed in situ in methanol, displaced only the 1-Cl and gave 3-chloro-1-methoxy-5-nitroisouquinoline 171 as the sole product in good yield; none of the unwanted 1,3-dimethoxy-5-nitroisouquinoline or 1-chloro-3-methoxy-5-nitroisouquinoline were formed. This protected 3-chloro-5-nitroisouquinolin-1-one was a suitable substrate upon which to perform palladium-catalysed couplings. An initial Stille coupling with tetramethyltin and tetrakis(triphenylphosphine) palladium in DMF failed and attentions were turned to the Suzuki-coupling.
In order to evaluate this new route in comparison with the previously developed Friedel-Crafts-type synthesis, it was decided that 158 would be synthesised and the overall yields would be compared. Compound 171 was treated with 3-methylphenylboronic acid in refluxing toluene using a Pd$_2$(dba)$_3$/SPhos catalyst system with K$_3$PO$_4$ as base. The sole product was 173, which was obtained in 67% yield. Aqueous hydrobromic acid was chosen to deprotect the lactim to furnish the isoquinolin-1-one, as a literature report had outlined a similar demethylation using this reagent. The deprotection was achieved in excellent yield and the remaining nitro-reduction had been performed previously. The overall yield for the synthesis of 158 from commercially available starting material was 33%, an eight-fold improvement on the Friedel-Crafts-type route. Therefore, a second novel and efficient route has been developed for the synthesis of 3-arylisoquinolin-1-ones in this work. Both routes introduce diversity at a relatively late stage in the synthesis, which is important as the number of repetitive steps is reduced when producing libraries of compounds. It is likely that the route based on the Suzuki coupling will tolerate a wider range of functionality than all other routes (for example, electron-rich, electron-deficient and sterically hindered boronic acids), such is the versatility of this reaction.

3.4.10 Further SAR with 3-arylisoquinolin-1-ones

The biological data for the 3-arylisoquinolin-1-ones 157, 158 and 161 are shown in Table 7, along with 118 and 5-AIQ for comparison.

| Cpd. No. | Structure | PARP-1 IC$_{50}$ (µM) | PARP-2 IC$_{50}$ (µM) | Selectivity ($IC_{50}$ (PARP-1) / ($IC_{50}$ (PARP-2))
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td><img src="image5.png" alt="Structure" /></td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>118</td>
<td><img src="image118.png" alt="Structure" /></td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>157</td>
<td><img src="image157.png" alt="Structure" /></td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td>10.78</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>158</td>
<td><img src="image158.png" alt="Structure" /></td>
<td>6.15</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>2.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Somewhat unexpectedly, the position of the methyl group on the 3-phenyl ring had a dramatic effect on potency and the \( o \) - and \( m \) - derivatives 157 and 158 were some 100-fold less potent against PARP-1 than was 118. The \( p \)-iodophenyl 161 showed a similar level of activity against PARP-1 as 5-AIQ but increased potency against PARP-2 rendering it \( ca. \) 3-fold selective. When compared to the \( p \)-chlorophenyl derivative 115, the larger halogen causes a near 6-fold drop in PARP-1 activity and only a 2-fold drop in PARP-2 activity. This suggests that increase bulk in the \( p \)-phenyl group in the 3-position may be better tolerated in PARP-2. However the 3-\( p \)-methoxyphenyl 117 and 3-\( p \)-methylphenyl 118 analogues are slightly PARP-1 selective which contradicts this proposal. A possible explanation for the drop in activity in 157 and 158 is that the lipophilic binding pocket in PARP-1/2 is long and narrow and will therefore tolerate \( p \)-phenyl-substituents but not \( o \)- or \( m \)-.

Due to the lack of selectivity of the 3-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones it was decided that no further examples would be prepared and focus was turned back to the 4-substituted targets.

### 3.6 4-Substituted isoquinolin-1-ones

Various strategies were employed to attempt to introduce bulky lipophilic substituents to the 4-position of 5-AIQ. The first of these, electrophilic substitution via the Friedel-Crafts reaction, was unsuccessful and has been discussed above.

#### 3.6.1 Alkylations and condensations of 2,6-dicyanotoluene
The two literature routes to 5-cyanoisoquinolin-1-one 76 have been discussed above; both of these involve condensations of 2,6-dicyanotoluene 41 and could feasibly be modified, by extension of the methyl group of the substrate, to give 4-alkyl-5-cyanoisoquinolin-1-ones. The first route to be examined was condensation of 41 with ethyl formate and it was postulated that substitution at the benzylic position of the starting dicyano compound, and subsequent reaction under the same conditions, would give the desired products. The methyl group of 41, which is activated by the flanking nitriles, was deprotonated with lithium bis(trimethylsilyl)amide; this anion was methylated with iodomethane, based on a procedure by Mao and Boekelheide.170 This process proceeded smoothly in excellent yield; however, the resulting 2,6-dicyanoethylbenzene 174 failed to condense with ethyl formate, even under more forcing conditions.
The second synthesis of 76 involved condensation of 41 with DMFDMA to form an intermediate enamine 78. It was attempted to cause the ethyl analogue 174 to react with DMF/DMA under the same conditions, anticipating the formation of enamine 175; however, NMR and TLC analysis showed that, despite prolonged reaction times, the starting material remained unchanged. In order to increase the electrophilicity of the “carbonyl” carbon in DMFDMA, a catalytic amount of acid was added to the reaction and the mixture was stirred for a further two days. Separation and analysis of the resulting complex mixture of products by chromatography revealed that, although none of the expected enamine 175 was formed, the corresponding aldehyde 176 was obtained, but in very low yield (12%).
It is likely that the aldehyde is formed from the intermediate enamine by hydrolysis on the slightly acidic silica. This process is analogous to the formation of 5-nitroisocoumarin 56 from methyl 2-(2-dimethylaminoethenyl)-3-nitrobenzoate 55 by passage through a silica column. However, the enol of the aldehyde 176 does not cyclise by nucleophilic attack on the adjacent nitrile carbon, in contrast to the cyclisation of the enol methyl 2-(2-hydroxyethenyl)-3-nitrobenzoate into the adjacent ester carbonyl.

![Scheme 37. Proposed mechanism for the formation of the aldehyde 176.](image)

It was anticipated that formation of the enolate of 176 would result in cyclisation to the isocoumarin 177 upon aqueous workup. This was the case, treatment of 176 with diisopropylamine gave 177 but, again, the yield was disappointing (13%). The $^1$H NMR spectrum of 177 was interesting, as an allylic coupling was observed between 3-H and the methyl group, with a $^J$ value of 1.2 Hz. Attempts to convert 177 to the isoquinolin-1-one using the standard protocol failed and alternative routes to the 4-substituted targets were investigated.
3.6.2 Attempted iodination and successful bromination of 5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one

The 4-position of 5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one is the most nucleophilic (see above). This electronic difference had already been exploited in forming 4-acyl-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one and it was feasible that other electrophilic substitution reactions, such as acid-catalysed bromination or iodination, would be possible. As the ultimate aim was to perform palladium-catalysed couplings upon the 4-halo-isoquinolinone, the preferred 4-substituent was iodine as this is a potentially better leaving group than is bromine. Unfortunately, treatment of \( \text{56} \) with iodine in acetic acid gave only starting material, even after heating at 100°C for 24 h, and the same was true when the more electrophilic N-iodosuccinimide was employed as the iodinating agent. At this point, a switch to bromine was considered; bromine is more electrophilically reactive than is iodine and Horning \text{et al.}^{171} \) had reported that treatment of 2-methyl-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one \( \text{180} \) with one molar equivalent of bromine at room temperature gave a 1:1 mixture of 4-bromo-2-methyl-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one \( \text{181} \) and the bromohydrin 4-bromo-3-hydroxy-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one \( \text{182} \), upon aqueous workup.

![Scheme 38. Bromination of 2-methyl-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one 180, as reported by Horning.\(^{171}\)](image)

The group noted that \( \text{182} \) could be dehydrated to \( \text{181} \) when heated to its melting point. As it was unlikely that substitution at the 1-position would affect the reaction pathway (all Horning’s reactions were conducted using N-alkylated isoquinolin-1-ones), the reaction of 5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one \( \text{38} \) with bromine under the same conditions was attempted.
This gave the anticipated mixture of 4-bromo-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one 49 and 4-bromo-3-hydroxy-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one 183, upon aqueous workup. Upon heating the bromohydrin 183 to its melting point, 49 was obtained and the overall yield was a satisfactory 53%.

![Chemical structures and reactions](image)

**Scheme 39.** Bromination of 38 to form 49 and reduction of the nitro function. (i) Br₂, AcOH; (ii) Sn(II)Cl₂, EtOH; (iii) Heat.

A slight variation in reaction conditions (heating a concentrated solution at 60°C for 16 h) resulted in precipitation of the desired product 49 upon cooling, whilst the bromohydrin remained in solution. This variation caused the overall yield to increase to 66% and the vast majority of 49 was isolated without the need for column chromatography.

### 3.6.3 Attempted palladium and copper-catalysed cross-couplings with 4-bromo-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one

The following cross-couplings were now attempted:

- Suzuki
- Stille
- Ullman
The first of these was the Suzuki coupling; compound 49 was treated with phenylboronic acid in DMF, with sodium carbonate as base and tetrakis(triphenylphosphine)palladium (Pd(Ph$_3$P)$_4$) as catalyst, over a range of temperatures (80-150°C). Only starting material was recovered and it was reasoned that the bulky nitro group, adjacent to the bromine, was causing sufficient steric hindrance to prevent the coupling from taking place. Therefore, the nitro function was reduced to the leaner amino group using tin(II) chloride, prior to performing the coupling reactions. The use of hydrogen in the presence of palladium metal was avoided in order to avoid any reductive debromination of 49. The Suzuki reaction was then repeated with 184 as starting material but this compound also failed to react.

![Scheme 40. Attempted Suzuki cross-couplings of 49 (R = NO$_2$) and 184 (R = NH$_2$).](image)

A change in conditions was required and Barder et al.$^{172}$ had reported a series of Suzuki couplings using extremely hindered aryl halides and phenyl boronic acids, in high yields. The group attributed the success of these transformations to the use of the novel ligand, 2-(2’,6’-dimethoxybiphenyl)-dicyclohexylphosphine (SPhos) 185. Encouraged by these reports, the Suzuki reaction was repeated using Barder’s conditions. 49 or 184 were stirred with tris(dibenzylideneacetone)dipalladium (Pd$_2$dba$_3$)/SPhos, potassium phosphate (K$_3$PO$_4$) and two equivalents of phenyl boronic acid, in DMF or toluene. No reaction took place and, as a result, our attentions turned to the Stille cross-coupling. 49 and 184 were both treated with tetraphenyltin and catalytic Pd[Ph$_3$P]$_4$ in DMF but the only products isolated were the starting aryl halides or small quantities of debrominated material.

The Ullmann reaction involves the condensation of two aryl halides in the presence of an excess of copper powder or copper (II) salts at high temperature. The exact mechanism for the reaction is unknown but it is likely the process involves the formation of a Ar-
Cu(I) species which undergoes oxidative addition with one equivalent of aryl halide and then reductive elimination to give the biaryl. It was hoped that the high temperature required for the Ullmann coupling would render the 4-bromoisoquinolin-1-ones 49 and 184 reactive. However, no coupling took place and only a mixture of debrominated and starting material was recovered even after heating to 180°C for 3 d.

The failure of 49 or 184 to undergo organometallic cross-couplings meant that an alternative approach must be sought and the first of these was via lithiation of a protected derivative of 49.

3.6.4 Synthesis of 4-bromo-1-methoxy-5-nitroisoquinoline

It was rationalised that 49 could undergo lithium-for-bromine exchange, allowing the formation of 4-substituted compounds by treatment with appropriate electrophiles. However, the presence of an exchangeable lactam proton was a concern, as it was conceivable that self-quenching could occur, depending on the relative rates of lithium-bromine exchange versus proton abstraction. In order to circumvent this problem, the protection of the lactam as a methoxy-lactim was proposed. A report in the literature outlined the conversion of 4-bromoisoquinolin-1-one 186 to 4-bromo-1-methoxyisoquinoline 187 by treatment of 186 with Vilsmeier’s reagent to form the 1-chloro derivative 188, followed by treatment with sodium methoxide (the final conversion was also very similar to the conversion of 1,3-dichloro-5-nitroisoquinoline to 3-chloro-1-methoxy-5-nitroisoquinoline which had earlier been achieved in high yield).
Pleasingly, it was found that this protocol could be extended to the 5-nitro analogues and 4-bromo-1-chloro-5-nitroisoquinoline 189 was formed in very good yield (89%) following the reported procedure. Displacement of the chlorine with methoxide to 46 was unexpectedly slow (3 d) and low yielding (56%) when sodium methoxide was added as a solid to the reaction mixture. A significant reduction in reaction time (16 h) and yield (82%) was achieved when sodium methoxide was formed in situ, as per the earlier synthesis of 3-chloro-1-methoxy-5-nitroisoquinoline 171.

3.6.5 Lithiations of 4-bromo-1-methoxy-5-nitroisoquinoline

The protected lactam 46 was treated with butyllithium (BuLi) at -78°C in order to form the anion at the 4-position; this carbanion was quenched with iodomethane. 1H NMR and TLC analysis of the crude material showed a complex mixture of products which were purified by column chromatography. It was possible to isolate the desired 1-methoxy-4-methyl-5-nitroisoquinoline 190 in very low yield (9%).
Unfortunately, the protocol could not be extended to the use of other electrophiles and this, along with the poor yield of the first reaction, led us to examine other routes.

### 3.6.6 Palladium-catalysed cross-couplings with 4-bromo-1-methoxy-5-nitroisoquinoline

It had initially been proposed that steric hindrance had prevented any palladium-catalysed cross-coupling involving 49 from taking place. However, there are numerous examples in the literature of high-yielding Suzuki cross-coupling reactions between extremely hindered substrates. One example is the reaction of the boronic acid 191 with the aryl halide 192 to form 193, which was achieved in 93% yield.172

![Scheme 43. Reported synthesis of the hindered biaryl 193 via Suzuki cross-coupling.](image)

Therefore, it was thought that the protected lactam 46 may be a suitable candidate for Suzuki coupling and that the change in electronic distribution and solubility compared to 49 may bring a change in reactivity.

This was the case, as 49 was caused to react with phenylboronic acid under the now standard Suzuki reaction conditions (Pd$_2$(dba)$_3$, SPhos, K$_3$PO$_4$, toluene, 100°C) and gave 194 as the sole product in very good 86% yield. Conversion to the 5-aminoisoquinolin-1-one 195 was straightforward in two steps using the established procedures of
demethylation with hydrobromic acid to give 196 then palladium-catalysed reduction of the nitro function with hydrogen.

![Scheme 44. Synthesis of 195 and 197. (i) Pd₂(db₃), SPhos, K₃PO₄, ArB(OH)₂, toluene, 194 86% and 198 81%; (ii) HBr, 196 65% and 199 65%; (v) Pd/C, H₂, 195 51% and 197 53%.

Also required was the p-trifluoromethylphenyl derivative 197 and this was to be prepared using the same three-step synthesis. It was pleasing that the yield of the Suzuki reaction was only slightly affected (reduced by 5%) when the electron-deficient 4-trifluoromethylphenylboronic acid was employed as reactant. As electron-deficient boronic acids are less nucleophilic than their electron-rich counterparts, they undergo transmetallation more slowly. Additionally, they are more prone to homocoupling.¹⁷³

The final 4-aryl compound to be synthesised in this series was the electron-rich p-methoxyphenyl analogue 200. It would not be possible to prepare this by the route that had been developed, as the deprotection step would also result in the demethylation of the methoxy substituent. A different form of protection was required and the formation of the benzyloxy lactim was preferred. This would allow deprotection of the lactam and reduction of the nitro group in one step via catalytic hydrogenation. The lactim was prepared by first forming the anion of benzyl alcohol with sodium hydride in DMF then adding 189 in solution in DMF and refluxing for 16 h.
The benzyl ether 201 was formed in good 71% yield and a small amount of the side product 202 was also isolated. It is likely that this was formed from dimethylamine, itself formed by decompositon of DMF, reacting at the electrophilic 1-C in 189. The Suzuki coupling to 203 was effective and the deprotection / reduction proceeded in 47% yield, which was adequate especially as two transformations were achieved in a single step.

Following the success of the Suzuki couplings using the novel protected lactam substrates 46 and 201, it was speculated as to why such difficulties had been encountered with the unprotected molecule 49. One explanation is that the lactam carbonyl may coordinate to the palladium, rendering it catalytically inactive. Alternatively, the main factor determining reactivity may be solubility in organic solvents. The lactam function renders the molecule much more polar and intramolecular hydrogen bonding reduces solubility in the solvents used in cross-coupling reactions. When this is masked as a lactim, polarity is decreased and solubility in organic solvents is increased.

One factor that was initially considered to be of high importance in determining whether or not a cross-coupling reaction would occur was steric hindrance. It was proposed that...
the highly hindered 204 would be synthesised to test the scope of the reaction in terms of larger substrates.

![Scheme 46. Synthesis of the hindered 205. (i) Pd$_2$(dba)$_3$, SPhos, K$_3$PO$_4$, phenanthren-9-ylboronic acid, toluene, 42%; (ii) Pd/C, H$_2$.]

Although the yield was significantly lower than for the couplings of the less hindered phenylboronic acids, coupled product 204 was formed in acceptable yield. This was pleasing as the peri nitro group is likely to cause significant crowding at the 4-position of the product when adjacent to a group as bulky as a phenanthryl. The selection of couplings performed thus far illustrates the versatility of the Suzuki cross coupling with 46 in that electron-deficient, electron-rich, electron-neutral and now severely sterically hindered boronic acid substrates are tolerated. Crystals were grown in order to confirm the 3D structure of the molecule and this is discussed in a later section.

The deprotection / reduction step appeared to result in conversion to the amine 205, as shown by mass spectrometry and tlc analysis. However, 205 was insoluble in all solvents suitable for NMR spectroscopic analysis, so full characterisation was not possible. This also meant that the molecule was not suitable for biological evaluation as the PARP-1/2 assays were performed in DMSO.
3.6.7 Stille cross-coupling with 4-bromo-1-methoxy-5-nitroisoquinoline

The low yields and unpredictability of the lithiation reactions of 46 meant that a more efficient route was required for the synthesis of 5-nitro-4-alkylisoquinolin-1-ones was required. Following the success of the Suzuki-coupling, the alkyl version of this reaction was considered but earlier attempts to introduce a benzyl substituent at the 4-position by this method had failed, therefore Stille coupling of 46 with tetramethyltin was attempted. The same tris(dibenzylideneacetone)dipalladium(0)/SPhos catalyst and toluene solvent system (the Stille coupling does not require a base) as the Suzuki reaction were employed. Due to the low boiling point of tetramethyltin (74-75°C), the reaction was conducted at 70°C.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{NO}_2 & \quad \text{Br} & \quad 46 \\
\text{OMe} & \quad \text{N} & \quad \text{(i)} \\
\text{NO}_2 & \quad \text{NH} & \quad \text{O} & \quad \text{NO}_2 & \quad \text{NH} & \quad \text{NH} & \quad \text{207} \\
\text{NH} & \quad \text{206} & \quad \text{205} & \quad \text{204} & \quad \text{203} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Scheme 47. Synthesis of 207 via Stille cross-coupling. (i) Me$_4$Sn, Pd$_2$(dba)$_3$, SPhos, toluene, 72%; (ii) HBr, 70%; (iii) Pd/C, H$_2$, HCl, 65%.

TLC analysis showed the reaction proceeded very slowly and there was incomplete conversion to product after 7 d. Upon workup, only a small amount of starting material was isolated and the yield of 72% was obtained. Conversion to 206 and then the final amino 207 compound was straightforward using the previously established methods.

Although time pressures prevented further investigation of this novel route to 4-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones, it is likely that numerous other aryl, alkenyl, alkyl and allyl substituents will be tolerated as couplings with tetramethyltin are generally more difficult to perform than with other organotin reagents.
3.6.8 SAR with 4-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones

Table 8 shows the biological data for the 4-substituted-5AIQs and 5-AIQ for comparison.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cpd. No.</th>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>PARP-1 IC$_{50}$ (µM)</th>
<th>PARP-2 IC$_{50}$ (µM)</th>
<th>Selectivity (IC$<em>{50}$ (PARP-1) / IC$</em>{50}$ (PARP-2))</th>
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<td><img src="image" alt="Structure 200" /></td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>2.16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Not evaluated owing to solubility problems

205 and 207 were not evaluated due to solubility problems in the solvent (DMSO) the assays were performed in. The 4-bromo derivative 184 showed increased potency over both isoforms than 5-AIQ and was slightly (2.5 fold) selective for PARP-2. The 5-nitro-4-phenyl derivative 196 showed activity against both isoforms and was approximately 3-fold less potent than was 5-AIQ; this was expected, as electron withdrawing groups in the 5-position of isoquinolin-1-ones are known to reduce potency. Conversely, 195 was 2-fold more potent than was 5-AIQ against both isoforms. An electron-donating substituent reduced potency against both isoforms but activity against PARP-1 was affected more therefore 200 was ca. 2-fold selective for PARP-2. An electron-withdrawing group only reduced activity against PARP-2 very slightly, whilst reducing activity against PARP-1 by a factor of eight, meaning that 197 was 7.6-fold selective for PARP-2.

3.6.9 Buchwald-Hartwig cross-coupling

To investigate further the scope of the cross-coupling reactions possible with 46, a series of Buchwald-Hartwig reactions were attempted. Thus 46 was treated with a range of phenol derivatives under the standard conditions. The anticipated products would be precursors to compounds that were broadly isosteric to 4-benzylisoquinolin-1-ones which would be of interest as potentially selective PARP-2 inhibitors.
The sole successful coupling was that between 46 and aniline in low yield. A report\textsuperscript{174} that the Pd-ligand and the solvent could have a dramatic effect on the outcome of Buchwald-Hartwig reactions was encouraging and these adjustment of these variables was investigated. The structures of the various ligands that were studied are shown in Figure 32.

The nature of the base can also have a significant influence on outcome of the Buchwald-Hartwig reaction and the use of potassium $t$-butoxide (KOBu\textsuperscript{t}) was investigated. None of the variations allowed that 209 or 210 could be formed but it was possible to increase the yield of 208.
Table 9 shows the yields obtained when Buchwald-Hartwig reaction conditions with 46 were varied.

<p>| Table 9. Chemical yields obtained when reactions conditions were varied in Buckwald-Hartwig couplings of 46 with aniline. |
|--------------------------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ligand</th>
<th>Toluene / K$_3$PO$_4$</th>
<th>DMF / K$_3$PO$_4$</th>
<th>Dioxane / K$_3$PO$_4$</th>
<th>Toluene / KOBu$^t$</th>
<th>DMF / KOBu$^t$</th>
<th>Dioxane / KOBu$^t$</th>
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<td>36</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>32</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>38</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>34</td>
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<td>BuXPhos 212</td>
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</table>

The ligand JohnPhos was ineffective and this was perhaps due to the fact that this compound is relatively electron-poor in comparison with the other ligands used in this synthesis. Electron-rich ligands tend to hasten the ‘oxidative addition’ step in palladium-catalysed coupling and tend to perform better in difficult syntheses. BuXPhos was not as effective as SPhos and XPhos and the strong base KOBu$^t$ performed better than K$_3$PO$_4$. The optimum conditions were an SPhos/Pd$_2$(dba)$_3$ catalyst system with KOBu$^t$ as base and dioxane as solvent; these conditions resulted in a 45% yield.

3.7 X-ray crystallography of 1-methoxy-5-nitro-4-phenylisoquinoline (194), 1-(benzyloxy)-4-bromo-5-nitroisoquinoline (201) and 1-(benzyloxy)-5-nitro-4-(phenanthren-9-yl)isoquinoline (204) and methyl 2-(1-oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-ylamino)acetate (214)

A hexane / EtOAc system was used to grow large crystals of 194, shown in Figure 39.
Figure 33. Large crystals of 1-methoxy-5-nitro-4-phenylisoquinoline 194 shown on a ruler.

The X-ray crystallographic structure of 194 is shown in Figure 38.
The obtained structure confirms the successful Suzuki coupling of 46 with phenylboronic acid despite previous failures with the unprotected lactone 49. The molecule exists as a monomer in this crystal structure due to the absence of sufficient H-bond donor/acceptor groups. It can be seen that the phenyl ring remains in plane with the isoquinoline core and this would be expected in order that conjugation could occur. The peri nitro group is, however, bent out of plane illustrating the steric crowding at the 4,5-positions. As one would expect, the methoxy group points away from the molecule.

The X-ray crystallographic structure of 201 is shown in Figure 35.
Figure 35. X-ray crystallographic structure of 201.

The structure confirms the successful protection of 46 as the benzyloxylactim. The molecule is essentially planar with the benzyloxy function pointing away from the core. Again, the nitro group is peri to a large group in the 4-position (bromine). This results in the nitro function bending out of the plane of the isoquinoline core to a similar degree as observed in the crystal structure of 194 when the 4-substituent was a phenyl group. Akin to 194, the molecule exists as a monomer in crystalline form.

The X-ray crystallographic structure of 204 is shown in Figure 36.
This crystal proves the structure of 204 and confirms the successful Suzuki coupling of 201 with the bulky phenanthren-9-ylboronic acid. The severe steric crowding in 204 can be observed in the X-ray crystallographic structure. The presence of the extremely bulky 4-substituent has a profound effect. Both the phenanthrenyl group and the peri nitro group are twisted out of plane to the isoquinoline and are parallel to one another. This is in contrast to 194 where the smaller phenyl ring remains in plane and most probably conjugated with the isoquinolinone core but the nitro group is twisted out of plane. It can be observed from the crystal that free rotation of the phenanthrene group is highly unlikely and this would suggest that the molecule exists as a pair of atropisomers. The benzyloxy function points away from the isoquinoline and the molecule is monomeric in this crystalline form.

The X-ray crystallographic structure of 214 is shown in Figure 37.
Crystals of compound 59 were grown in methanol in order to confirm its structure. Unfortunately this resulted in esterification, probably catalysed by residual HCl in the sample, and formation of the methyl ester 214. However, the two structures are very similar and it can be observed that in the X-ray crystallographic structure of 214 the compound is a dimer due to the presence of two intermolecular hydrogen bonds. The two lactam hydrogens act as hydrogen bond donors whilst the ring carbonyls act as acceptors. It is likely that these H-bonds are present in most isoquinolin-1-ones and contribute to the high melting points and crystalline structure of these molecules. No H-bonding is observed ester portion of the molecule. The ester groups point away from the isoquinolin-1-one core but remain broadly in plane.
3.8 Disubstituted isoquinolin-1-ones

In general, substituting at the 3- and 4-positions of 5-AIQ had caused an increase in potency against PARP-1/2 and benzylation at the 5-position had caused an increase in selectivity for PARP-2 over PARP-1. It was hoped that a combination of these modifications in the same molecule would lead to a potent and selective inhibitor of PARP-2. Four compounds would be prepared the 3-methyl-5-benzoyl 215, 3-phenyl-5-benzoyl 216, 4-phenyl-5-benzoyl 217 and, to test if substitution in the p-position of the benzyol phenyl ring had any biological effect, 218 would also be synthesised. This set would be screened for activity and further examples prepared, if required.

3.8.1 Synthesis of disubstituted isoquinolin-1-ones

The 3- or 4-substituted isoquinoline-1-one core of the molecule would be prepared using the methods established. Therefore 5-amino-3-methlyisoquinolin-1-one 119 was prepared by Hurtley reaction of pentane-1,4-dione with 34, reaction with ammonia and reduction of the nitro group in the standard way (Pd/C and H₂). The 3-phenyl analogue 33 was prepared by Friedel-Crafts reaction of 56 with benzoyl chloride then conversion to the final amine in the usual way. Finally, the 5-amino-4-phenylisoquinolin-1-one 195 was prepared by Suzuki reaction of 46 with phenyl boronic acid followed by deprotection / reduction as discussed above.

The substituted 5-AIQs were then benzyolated in pyridine using the standard protocol except for 216 were column chromatography was required for purification.
Scheme 49. Synthesis of disubstituted isoquinolin-1-ones. (i) ArCOCl, pyridine.

3.8.2 SAR of disubstituted isoquinolin-1-ones

The chemical yields and biological data for the disubstituted compounds are presented in Table 10.

Table 10. Acylation yields and inhibition of the activities of PARP-1 and PARP-2 by 5-benzamido-3-substituted and -4-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones; data for 5-AIQ 5 are shown for comparison.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cpd. No.</th>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>Acylation yield</th>
<th>PARP-1 IC$_{50}$ (µM)</th>
<th>PARP-2 IC$_{50}$ (µM)</th>
<th>Selectivity (IC$<em>{50}$ (PARP-1) / IC$</em>{50}$ (PARP-2))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Structure" /></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>215</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Structure" /></td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>216</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Structure" /></td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>&gt;100</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>&gt;2.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The yields obtained following the synthesis of the disubstituted compounds were generally good when using the standard procedure (reaction of the 3- or 4-aryl 5-aminoisoquinoline-1-one with the relevant acid chloride in pyridine). Purification issues caused a drop in the yield of 217 as problems were encountered when attempting to recrystallise the compound and column chromatography was required.

A drastic drop in potency towards PARP-1 was observed with the disubstituted compounds. Unfortunately, this drop was mirrored with PARP-2, although to a lesser extent in 215, 216 and 218, which were approximately 3-fold selective for this isoform. The 4,5-disubstituted 217 was devoid of activity against either isoform.

The disappointing lack of potency or significant selectivity of this compound set meant that no further examples were prepared.

### 3.9 A novel and highly efficient synthesis of 5-AIQ

It has been detailed above that the current routes to 5-AIQ are unsatisfactory. The Polonovski rearrangement is unreliable and low yielding in our hands. The DMFDMA condensation is limited by the necessity for column chromatography, restricting the scale of the reaction and resulting in a low overall yield of 18%. The reductive cyclisation route is multistep; requiring column chromatography at many stages and has a poor overall yield of 9%.
Towards the end of this work, the synthetic route to 5-AIQ was modified, significantly increasing the overall yield and eliminating the need for chromatography. In designing a new and efficient synthesis for 5-AIQ from commercially available starting material, the order of events was important. 1-Chloroisooquinoline 90 can be converted to the corresponding isoquinolin-1-one via hydrolysis. The most nucleophilic carbon in isoquinolin-1-one is C4, therefore nitration at the lactam stage would give 4-nitroisoquinolin-1-one and with this in mind we chose to nitrate 90 in which the heterocyclic ring is deactivated by the chloro-substituent and electrophilic attack is favoured at C5.

This first step proceeded smoothly in the desired 5-position giving 219 in 92% yield. Conversion to the isoquinolin-1-one 38 was achieved by hydrolysis with acetic acid and water. Then catalytic hydrogenation with 10% Pd/C in EtOH and HCl gave 5AIQ:HCl in an overall yield of 53%. The only purification steps required in this synthesis are filtration and recrystallisation, allowing for large scale preparation of this important molecule.

**Scheme 50.** A novel synthesis of 5-AIQ. (i) HNO$_2$/H$_2$SO$_4$, 92%; (ii) AcOH/H$_2$O, 82%; (iii) Pd/C, H$_2$, 70%.

### 4. MTS Cell proliferation assay
4.1 Background to MTS assay

The MTS cell proliferation assay is a colorimetric assay which is used as a rapid means of assessing the cytotoxicity of a particular compound. The brief principles of the assay are that (3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-5-(3-carboxymethoxyphenyl)-2-(4-sulfophenyl)-2H-tetrazolium) (MTS), when incubated with phenozine metosulphate and living cells is reduced by mitochondrial reductases to formazan. Formazan is UV active and therefore its concentration can be measured. Cytotoxic compounds reduce the amount of formazan formed and IC\textsubscript{50} values can be generated by screening a range of concentrations and plotting the data obtained.

4.2 Biological results

A selection of the PARP inhibitors synthesised were screened using the MTS assay and the results are presented in Table 10.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound No.</th>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>IC\textsubscript{50} (µM)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td><img src="structure5.png" alt="Structure" /></td>
<td>&gt;500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>120</td>
<td><img src="structure120.png" alt="Structure" /></td>
<td>&gt;500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>116</td>
<td><img src="structure116.png" alt="Structure" /></td>
<td>&gt;500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
None of the 5-substituted compounds tested were active in the assay. Of the 4-substituted compounds only \textbf{195} (IC$_{50}$ = 17.9) was active. Over half of the 3-substituted compounds showed activity and the 3-phenyl \textbf{33} (IC$_{50}$ = 2.2) was highly active. Substitution of the phenyl ring caused a reduction in activity and the $p$-trifluoromethylphenyl \textbf{117} was inactive. The 3-ethyl \textbf{120} was not active but extension of the alkyl chain to 3-pentyl \textbf{121} (IC$_{50}$ = 34.0) rendered the molecule active. Activity in the MTS assay did not correspond with PARP-1 or PARP-2 activity which suggests an off-target effect.
5. Conclusions and future work

5.1 Conclusions

The initial aims and objectives of this project were to synthesise a series of 5-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones with carboxylic acids tethered to the 5-position and series of 3- and 4-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones with bulky lipophilic groups in the relevant positions. All synthesised inhibitors would be evaluated for PARP-1 and PARP-2-inhibitory activity. During the course of the work, a further set of 5-substituted compounds were required, based around a selective PARP-2 inhibitor reported in the literature. A final set of disubstituted targets were proposed in the hope that the combined functionalities would lead to potent and selective PARP-2 inhibitors.

The first 5-substituted target isoquinolinone-5-NHCH$_2$CO$_2$H 59 was synthesised in acceptable yield by alkylation of 5-AIQ with ethyl bromoacetate, followed by hydrolysis. Problems were encountered in the synthesis of the homologue 61; treatment of 5-AIQ with methyl propenoate in the presence of sodium hydride resulted in abstraction of the lactam proton and alkylation at the 2-position forming 60. The isoquinolinone-5-propenoic acid 26 was prepared in excellent yield using the Heck reaction of 65 with propenoic acid. Reduction to the alkane using Pd/C and H$_2$ provided another initial target 27. The acid 28 was prepared following literature precedent by hydrolysis of 76. Several methods were attempted to synthesise 63 including palladium-catalysed coupling of 75 with either diethyl malonate or ethylacetocetate and Stille reaction 75 with trimethylallyltin. None of these were successful but the requirement for quantities of 5-bromoisoquinolin-1-one 64 meant that a new synthesis for this molecule was developed. The key step involved the selective installation of bromine in the 5-position of 1-chloroisooquinoline using the swamping catalyst method. This new synthesis was significantly more reliable and efficient than all other published syntheses of 64.
The initial 5-substituted compounds were evaluated for activity against PARPs-1 and -2. Surprisingly, the most potent PARP-1 inhibitor was 60 which lacked an amide NH. In general, the inhibitors were not selective for either isoform, although 59 and 27 showed a ca. 3-fold selectivity for PARP-2 over PARP-1. A further series of 5-acylaminooisoquinolin-1-ones was generated in good yields by treating 5-AIQ with the appropriate acid chloride in pyridine. The biological results from this series were more promising and the inhibitor which showed the highest degree of selectivity (ca. 9-fold) for PARP-2 was the unsubstituted 5-benzamidoisoquinolinone 101. The PARP-2 selective inhibitors 22 and 99 that have been reported in the literature were also evaluated. It was interesting that 22 was 3-fold PARP-1 selective (reported selectivity 4.71 for PARP-2) in our assays. 99 showed ca. 3-fold selectivity for PARP-2 in our system, in contrast to the reported 60-fold selectivity.

The initial 3-alkyl and 3-arylisooquinolin-1-ones were prepared using the established route of Hurtley reaction of 34 with the appropriate β-diketone to form the isocoumarin, followed by reaction with ammonia and then palladium-catalysed reduction to the amine. A novel route to 3-aryl-5-nitroisocoumarins by Friedel-Crafts reaction of 56 with various acid chlorides was developed. The reaction was optimised for Lewis acid (SnCl₄), reaction temperature (150°C) and solvent (PhNO₂). The scope of the reaction was found to be limited to electron-deficient or electron-neutral acid chlorides. Reaction of 56 with [¹³C]-carbonyl benzoyl chloride gave 148 in which the ¹³C is located in the 3-position of the heterocycle, proving that the benzoyl carbon framework is incorporated intact. The yields of this new synthesis were comparable with the Hurtley route and therefore it is synthetically useful. In addition, the Friedel-Crafts route allows for the synthesis of 3-aryl-5-nitroisocoumarins with electron-withdrawing substituents on the phenyl ring (e.g. 154), whereas the Hurtley route does not. However, the Hurtley route allows access to 3-alkyl-5-nitroisocoumarins and the Friedel-Crafts route does not. The Friedel-Crafts route was used to prepare the remaining 3-aryl compounds. A novel route to 158 was developed following the synthesis of 3-chloro-1-methoxy-5-nitroisoquinoline 171 which served as an ideal intermediate for Suzuki coupling with 3-methylphenylboronic acid. The overall yield of this synthesis was much greater than that of the Friedel-Crafts route.
It is likely that this route will allow for later synthesis of a diverse range of 5-amino-3-arylisoquinolin-1-ones due to the versatility of the Suzuki reaction. An attempt to introduce a 3-methyl substituent to 171 using the Stille reaction failed.

The synthesised 3-substituted compounds were assayed for activity against the two PARP isoforms studied. In general both the 3-alkyl and 3-aryl the compounds were between 2- and 10-fold more potent than 5-AIQ against both PARP isoforms but there were some exceptions. All activity was lost with 121 and the position of the methyl group on the 3-phenyl ring had a dramatic effect on potency; the o- and m- derivatives 157 and 158 were some 100-fold less potent against PARP-1 than 118. The p-iodophenyl derivative 161 was 3-fold selective for PARP-2 but none of the compounds showed any major selectivity.

Several approaches were investigated for the synthesis of 4-substituted 5-aminoisoquinolin-1-ones. Friedel-Crafts reaction of 38 with benzoyl chloride and AlCl₃ gave the undesired 2-substituted 145. A switch to a Brønsted acid catalyst and acetic anhydride gave the desired 4-substituted 146 but all attempts to reduce the ketone failed. Methylation of the carbanion derived from 2,6-dicyanotoluene 41, followed by condensation with DMFDMA, gave the aldehyde 176 which cyclised to the isocoumarin 177 upon formation of the enolate with diisopropylamine. However, the yields were very low and conversion to the isoquinolin-1-one did not occur when standard protocol was followed. Following the improved synthesis of 4-bromo-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one 49, both palladium and copper-catalysed coupling reactions were attempted. These reactions failed, probably owing to poor solubility in the reaction medium, and the protected derivative 46 was prepared. It was possible to form the 4-methyl analogue 190 by lithiation of 46 and treatment with methyl iodide. This procedure did not extend to other electrophiles and the yield was poor. A much higher yield of 190 was obtained following Stille coupling of 46 with tetramethyltin and conversion to the target isoquinolin-1-one was straightforward. The Suzuki reaction of 46 was employed to synthesise the 4-substituted 195 and 197 in high yields and the structure of 195 was confirmed by X-ray crystallography. Standard Suzuki conditions of Pd₂(dba)₃, SPhos,
potassium phosphate and toluene were developed. For the synthesis of 200, a different protected intermediate was required. This was prepared by reaction of 189 with sodium benzyloxide and the structure of the formed 201 was confirmed by X-ray crystallography. The coupling of 201 and 4-methoxyphenylboronic acid was successfully performed and deprotection and reduction of the nitro group were achieved in acceptable yield in a single step. The scope of the reaction for sterically hindered substrates was tested by the preparation of 204 which was formed in moderate yield. The X-ray crystallographic structure of 204 showed that the 4-substituent and the peri nitro group were twisted out of plane to the isoquinoline. A series of Buchwald-Hartwig reactions were attempted with 46 but the only success was with aniline, forming 208. The reaction was optimised for ligand (SPhos), base (KOBu') and solvent (1,4-dioxane).

The 4-arylisoquinolin-1-ones were assessed for activity against PARP-1 and PARP-2. Compound 195 was 2-fold more potent than was 5-AIQ against both isoforms and was therefore not selective. A drop in potency against PARP-1 was observed with 200 and also 197 which was ca. 8-fold selective for PARP-2.

A short series of 3,5- and 4,5-disubstituted 5-AIQs was generated utilising the chemistry that had been developed throughout this work. Upon biological evaluation it was observed that these modifications caused a drastic drop in potency towards both PARP isoforms. The disappointing biological data meant that no further disubstituted compounds were prepared.

A selection of the synthesised compounds was tested in the MTS cell proliferation assay (HT29 human colon carcinoma cells). Some of the 3-substituted compounds showed low micromolar activity but the 4- and 5-substituted compounds were not active. Activity in this assay was not correlated with PARP-1 or PARP-2-activity, which suggests an off-target effect.

Finally, a new three-step synthesis of 5-AIQ was developed in which the only purification procedures required were filtration and recrystallisation. The overall yield of
this route was considerably higher than all other published routes. In addition, it was also reliable (unlike the Polonowski rearrangement of 51) and could be performed on large scales (unlike the formation of 56 by reaction of 52 with DMFDMA).

In this work, the chemistry of isoquinolin-1-ones has been significantly advanced. Novel and synthetically useful routes to 3-, 4- and 5-substituted isoquinolin-1-ones have been developed. Biological evaluation of the compounds showed that five had a better selectivity profile for PARP-2 over PARP-1 than the best literature compound 99, in our assays. It would appear that modifications at the 4- and 5-positions of 5-AIQ are of paramount importance for selectivity.

5.2 Future work

The promising biological activity of many of the compounds synthesised in this project warrants further investigation. Ideally, the compounds should be tested in the same assay systems when comparing inhibitory activity against different PARP isoforms. Therefore, future work could focus on the development of a Flash Plate assay for PARP-2 or, if this was not possible, an ELSIA based assay for PARP-1. It would also be of interest to test the most selective inhibitors of PARP-2 from this project in vivo, for example comparing the effect of the inhibitors on PARP activity in cells derived from PARP-1 and PARP-2 knockout mice and also from wild-type mice. These further biological tests would give insights into the true selectivity of the compounds.

It would appear that modifications at the 4- and 5-positions of 5-AIQ are of paramount importance for selectivity. 5-substituted 5-AIQs have been extensively studied and future work could focus on the synthesis of 5-amino-4-arylisoquinolin-1-ones in which the phenyl ring is decorated with electron-withdrawing substituents. Additionally, as only one example has been studied, a further selection of 4-alkyl 5-AIQs could be prepared by Stille reaction of 46 with suitable substrates followed by deprotection and reduction.
The palladium-catalysed chemistry to prepare 3-arylisoquinolin-1-ones from 171 also deserves further investigation as this is likely to be the most efficient and versatile route to these compounds. The activity of some of the 3-arylisoquinolin-1-ones in the MTS assay is interesting and this potential off-target effect could be investigated. It is possible that inhibition of a different PARP isoform causes the observed cytotoxicity, therefore testing this series and further examples in other isoform-specific assays would be of interest.

As the effect of 3,4-disubstitution in isoquinolin-1-ones on PARP inhibitory activity has not been investigated, these compounds could be prepared in future work. This could possibly be achieved by selective bromination of protected 3-alkyl or 3-arylisoquinolin-1-ones followed by palladium catalysed coupling chemistry.

Finally, although the 3,5-disubstituted compounds suffered from a dramatic drop in potency against both PARP isoforms, it was possible to retain some activity against PARP-2 whilst almost abolishing activity against PARP-1. For this reason, a small number of further examples could be prepared in an attempt to improve the potency and selectivity of this series.
6. Experimental

General Procedures

All melting points were determined using a Reichert-Jung Thermo Galen Kofler block and are uncorrected. IR spectra were recorded on a Perkin-Elmer RXI FT-IR spectrometer, either as a liquid (film) or as a KBr disc (KBr). $v_{\text{max}}$ values are given in cm$^{-1}$. NMR spectra were recorded on either JEOL-Varian GX 270 (270.05 MHz $^1$H; 67.8 MHz $^{13}$C) or Varian Mercury EX 400 (399.65 MHz $^1$H; 100.4 MHz $^{13}$C; 376.05 MHz $^{19}$F) spectrometers. Tetramethysilane was used as an internal standard for samples dissolved in CDCl$_3$ and (CD$_3$)$_2$SO. Multiplicities are indicated as follows; s (singlet), br (broad singlet), d (doublet), dd (doublet doublet), dt (doublet triplet), t (triplet), q (quartet) and m (multiplet). Coupling constants ($J$) are expressed in Hz. Where indicated, 2-D experiments were used to assign $^1$H NMR and $^{13}$C NMR signals. Mass spectra were Electrospray (ES) at the University of Bath Mass Spectrometry Service using a VG 7070 Mass Spectrometer, the University of Bath Department of Pharmacy and Pharmacology High Resolution Mass Spectrometry Service using a Bruker microOTOF™. Elemental analysis (CHN) was carried out at the School of Pharmacy, University of London, Microanalysis Service. Thin layer chromatography (TLC) was performed on silica gel 60 F$_{254}$-coated aluminium sheets (Merck) and visualisation was accomplished by UV light (254 nm). Flash column chromatography was performed using silica gel 60 (0.040-0.063 mm, Merck) as the stationary phase.

Reagents were purchased from Aldrich, Lancaster or Acros chemical companies and were used without further purification. Solutions in organic solvents were dried over magnesium sulfate and solvents were evaporated under reduced pressure. Experiments were conducted at ambient temperature, unless otherwise stated.
5-Aminoisoquinolin-1-one hydrochloride (5)

\[ \begin{align*} & \text{NH}_2 \text{HCl} \\
& \text{5} \end{align*} \]

To 5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one 38 (1.6 g, 8.4 mmol) in EtOH (100 mL) and aq. HCl (34%, 4 mL), a slurry of 10% Pd on charcoal (1.0 g) in EtOH (20 mL) was added. The mixture was stirred under H\textsubscript{2} for 2 h. The suspension was then filtered through Celite\textsuperscript{®}. The Celite\textsuperscript{®} pad and residue were suspended in water (600 mL) and heated. The hot suspension was filtered through a second Celite\textsuperscript{®} pad. Evaporation of the solvent and drying gave 5 (1.1 g, 66%) as white crystals: mp 248-252°C (decomp.) (lit.\textsuperscript{130} 250-260°C (decomp.)); \textsuperscript{1}H NMR (D\textsubscript{2}O) \delta 6.76 (1 H, d, J = 7.5 Hz, 4-H), 7.39 (1 H, d, J = 7.5 Hz, 3-H), 7.59 (1 H, t, J = 8.0 Hz, 7-H), 7.79 (1 H, d, J = 8.0 Hz, 6-H), 8.27 (1 H, d, J = 8.0 Hz, 8-H).

E-3-(1-Oxoisooquinolin-5-yl)propenoic acid (26)

\[ \begin{align*} & \text{COOH} \\
& \text{E-3-(1-Oxoisooquinolin-5-yl)propenoic acid (26)} \\
& \text{5-Iodoisoquinolin-1-one 65 (200 mg, 0.74 mmol), propenoic acid (0.06 mL, 70 mg, 0.49 mmol), palladium (II) acetate (16 mg, 74 \mu mol) and triethylamine (0.26 mL, 186 mg, 1.84 mmol) in propanenitrile (0.6 mL) were heated under reflux for 1 h. Hydrochloric acid (2 M, 20 mL) was added and the precipitate was collected and dried to give 26 (152 mg, 97%) as a pale green solid; R\textsubscript{f} = 0.05 (hexane / ethyl acetate, 1:1); mp 314-318°C (lit.\textsuperscript{131} 315-318°C); \textsuperscript{1}H NMR ((CD\textsubscript{3})\textsubscript{2}SO) \delta 6.58 (1 H, d, J = 15.8 Hz, \text{-CHCO\textsubscript{2}}), 6.74 (1 H, d, J = 7.3 Hz, 4-H), 7.30 (1 H, d, J = 7.3, Hz, 3-H), 7.52 (1 H, t, J = 7.7 Hz, 7-H), 8.10
(1 H, d, $J = 15.8$ Hz, ArCH=), 8.12 (1 H, d, $J = 7.7$ Hz, 8-H), 8.27 (2 H, d, $J = 7.7$ Hz, 6-H), 11.47 (1 H, br s, NH), 12.60 (1 H, br s, CO$_2$H).

3-(1-Oxoisoquinolin-5-yl)propanoic acid (27)

![Structure of 3-(1-Oxoisoquinolin-5-yl)propanoic acid (27)](image)

To the alkene 26 (160 mg, 8.4 mmol) in EtOH (20 mL) and aq. HCl (34%, 4 mL), a slurry of 10% Pd on charcoal (100 mg) in EtOH (5 mL) was added. The mixture was stirred under H$_2$ for 2 h and then filtered through Celite®. Evaporation of the solvent from the filtrate and drying gave 27 (105 mg, 66%) as white crystals: mp 260-263°C; $^1$H NMR ((CD$_3$)$_2$SO) δ 2.54 (2 H, t, $J = 7.8$ Hz, ArCH$_2$), 3.09 (2 H, t, $J = 7.8$ Hz, CH$_2$COOH), 3.17-3.42 (1 H, br, CO$_2$H), 6.62 (1 H, d, $J = 7.4$ Hz, 4-H), 7.21 (1 H, br d, $J = 7.8$ Hz, 3-H), 7.38 (1 H, t, $J = 7.4$ Hz, 7-H), 7.55 (1 H, d, $J = 7.4$ Hz, 6-H), 8.07 (1 H, d, $J = 7.4$ Hz, 8-H), 11.29 (1 H, br s, NH); $^{13}$C NMR δ 27.4, 34.8, 100.7, 125.1, 125.9, 126.5, 128.9, 132.2, 136.1, 136.3, 162.0, 173.7. MS (ESI +ve) $m/z$ 240.0682 (M + Na) (C$_{12}$H$_{11}$NaNO$_3$ requires 240.0637); 218.0819 (M + H) (C$_{16}$H$_{15}$N$_2$O requires 218.0817).

1-Oxoisoquinoline-5-carboxylic acid (28)

5-Cyanoisoquinolin1-one 76 (427 mg, 2.5 mmol) was heated under reflux with potassium hydroxide in ethanol (20% w/v, 12 mL), under nitrogen, until the production of ammonia ceased (3 d). The mixture was acidified with concentrated hydrochloric acid and the solvent was evaporated. The residue was taken up into methanol and filtered. Concentration of the filtrate gave 28 (0.394 g, 83%) as a white solid; R$_f$ = 0.2
(chloroform / methanol / acetic acid, 100:10:1); mp >300°C (lit.\textsuperscript{131} >300°C); \textsuperscript{1}H NMR (CD\textsubscript{3}OD) δ 7.28 (1 H, d, J = 7.7 Hz, 4-H), 7.56 (1 H, t, J = 7.7 Hz, 7-H), 7.76 (1 H, d, J = 7.7 Hz, 3-H), 8.42 (1 H, d, J = 7.7 Hz, 8-H), 8.58 (1 H, d, J = 7.7 Hz, 6-H).

5-Nitro-3-phenylisocoumarin (31)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{NO}_2 \\
\text{SnCl}_4
\end{array}
\]

SnCl\textsubscript{4} (148.5 mg, 0.57 mmol) was added to 56 (100 mg, 0.52 mmol) in PhNO\textsubscript{2} (1.0 mL). After 30 min, benzoyl chloride (140.5 mg, 1.04 mmol) was added and the mixture was stirred at 150°C under Ar for 3 d. The cooled mixture was quenched with ice-water (2.0 mL) and extracted with EtOAc (2 × 20 mL). The combined extracts were washed (NaOH, brine) and dried (MgSO\textsubscript{4}). Evaporation and chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 15:1) gave 31 (40 mg, 42%) as a pale yellow solid; R\textsubscript{f} = 0.57 (hexane/EtOAc 4:1); mp 145-146°C (lit.\textsuperscript{158} mp 142-143°C); IR ν\textsubscript{max} 1739 (C=O), 1626 (C=C), 1525 & 1341 (NO\textsubscript{2}) cm\textsuperscript{-1}; \textsuperscript{1}H NMR δ 7.48-7.51 (3 H, m, Ph 3,4,5-H\textsubscript{3}), 7.59 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.85 (1 H, brs, 4-H), 7.92 (2 H, m, Ph 2,6-H\textsubscript{2}), 8.48 (1 H, dd, J = 8.2, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 8.61 (1 H, ddd, J = 8.2, 1.2, 0.8 Hz, 8-H); \textsuperscript{13}C NMR δ 96.3, 122.3, 125.9, 127.1, 129.0, 131.1, 131.2, 131.6, 131.9, 135.8, 144.2, 156.8, 160.3.

2-Hydroxymercuri-3-nitrobenzoic acid (127)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{NO}_2 \\
\text{Hg}
\end{array}
\]
2-Bromo-3-nitrobenzoic acid (34)

3-Nitrophthalic acid (10.5 g, 50 mmol) in hot aqueous NaOH (10%, 40 mL) was added to Hg(OAc)$_2$ (17.5 g, 55 mmol) in hot AcOH (2.5 mL) and H$_2$O (70 mL). The mixture was heated at 170°C for 70 h and was then filtered. The precipitate was washed (H$_2$O, then EtOH) and dried to give 2-hydroxymercuri-3-nitrobenzoic acid 127 as a cream solid. Compound 134 was then heated under reflux in aqueous NaOH (3.5%, 250 mL). Aqueous HCl (2 M, 6 mL) was then slowly added, with vigorous stirring, and the solution was allowed to cool to room temperature. AcOH (3 mL) was then added. The cream precipitate dissolved upon addition of a mixture of NaBr (6.0 g, 59 mmol) and Br$_2$ (9.5 g, 60 mmol) in H$_2$O (10 mL). The solution was heated under reflux for 24 h, cooled and neutralised with aqueous NaOH. It was then filtered and acidified (aq. HCl (9 M)). The precipitate formed was filtered, dried and recrystallised (EtOH) to give 34 (9.1 g, 74%) as a white solid: R$_f$ = 0.24 (hexane / EtOAc 1:4); mp 183-185°C (lit.\textsuperscript{162} mp 187-188°C); $^1$H NMR ((CD$_3$)$_2$SO) $\delta$ 7.70 (1 H, t, $J = 7.9$ Hz, 5-H), 7.93 (1 H, dd, $J = 7.9$, 1.5 Hz, 4-H), 8.08 (1 H, dd, $J = 7.9$, 1.5 Hz, 6-H).

5-Nitroisoquinolin-1-one (38)

Method A:

Compound 56 (1.5 g, 7.9 mmol) in 2-methoxyethanol (45 mL) was saturated with NH$_3$ and boiled under reflux for 2 h. The solvent and excess reagent were evaporated until 10 mL remained. The concentrate was stored at 4°C for 16 h and the precipitated crystals
were filtered, washed (H₂O, then EtOH) and recrystallised (EtOH) to give 38 (1.1 g, 73%) as pale yellow crystals: Rₗ = 0.49 (hexane / EtOAc 2:3); mp 244–246°C (decomp.) (lit. mp 247-249°C); ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂SO) δ 6.97 (1 H, dd, J = 7.7, 0.7 Hz, 4-H), 7.45 (1 H, dd, J = 7.7, 1.8 Hz, 3-H), 7.66 (1 H, t, J = 7.7 Hz, 7-H), 8.46 (1 H, dd, J = 7.7, 1.5 Hz, 6-H), 8.58 (1 H, ddd, J = 7.7, 1.5, 0.7 Hz, 8-H), 11.80 (1 H, brs, NH).

Method B:

1-Chloro-5-nitroisoquinoline 212 (5.00g, 24 mmol) was added to aq AcOH (100 mL) and the mixture was stirred at 100°C for 40 h. The cooled suspension was then poured onto ice; the precipitated crystals were filtered, washed (H₂O) and recrystallised (EtOH) to give 38 (3.74 g, 82%) as pale yellow crystals; data as above.

4-Bromo-1-methoxy-5-nitro-isoquinoline (46)

Method A:

Compound 189 (0.78 g, 2.70 mmol) and NaOMe (0.28 g, 4.9 mmol) were heated under reflux in dry MeOH (20 mL) for 3 d. The excess solvent was evaporated until 5 mL remained; the residue was diluted with H₂O and extracted (CHCl₃). Evaporation of the solvent and drying gave 46 (0.43 g, 56%) as a yellow solid: Rₗ = 0.68 (hexane / EtOAc 5:1); mp 154-157°C; ¹H NMR (CDCl₃) δ 4.18 (3 H, s, OMe), 7.63 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.88 (1 H, dd, J = 7.8, 1.1 Hz, 6-H), 8.29 (1 H, s, 3-H), 8.48 (1 H, dd, J = 7.8, 1.1 Hz, 8-H); ¹³C NMR δ 54.6, 104.2, 110.0, 121.9, 126.3, 126.9, 128.5, 146.2, 147.0, 160.3; Anal. Found: C, 42.43; H, 2.63; N, 9.69. Calc. For for C₁₀H₇BrN₂O₃: C, 42.43; H, 2.49; N, 9.90%.
Method B:

To 189 (5.0 g, 17.4 mmol) in dry MeOH (90 mL) was added finely divided sodium (0.70 g, 31 mmol) and the mixture was heated under reflux for 16 h. The excess solvent was then evaporated until 20 mL remained and the residue was diluted with H₂O and extracted (CHCl₃). Evaporation of the solvent and drying gave 46 (4.0 g, 82%): data as above.

4-Bromo-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one (49)

(±)-4-Bromo-3-hydroxy-5-nitro-3,4-dihydroisoquinolin-1-one (183)

Method A:

Br₂ (0.84 g, 5.3 mmol) in AcOH (1 mL) was slowly added to a suspension of 38 (1.0 g, 5.3 mmol) in AcOH (30 mL). After 2 h, the cooled mixture was poured onto ice H₂O (60 mL) and stirred for 5 min. Extraction (CH₂Cl₂), drying, evaporation and chromatography (hexane/EtOAc 6:1) gave 49 (0.53 g, 37%) as a pale orange solid: Rf = 0.54 (hexane / EtOAc 1:1); mp 229-232°C (lit.¹⁷⁵ mp 233-235°C); ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂CO) δ 7.73 (1 H, s, 3-H), 7.77 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 8.10 (1 H, dd, J = 7.8, 1.6 Hz, 6-H), 8.61 (1 H, dd, J = 8.6, 1.9 Hz, 8-H).
Further elution gave 183 (0.24 g, 30%) as a pale yellow solid: mp 170-172°C (lit.175 mp 175-177°C); ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂CO) δ 5.52 (1 H, dd, J = 5.7, 1.2 Hz, 3-H), 6.73 (1 H, d, J = 5.9 Hz, 4-H), 7.82 (1 H, t, J = 7.9 Hz, 7-H), 8.00 (1 H, dd, J = 7.9, 1.5 Hz, 6-H), 8.30 (1 H, dd, J = 7.7, 1.5 Hz, 8-H), 8.55 (1 H, br, NH).

**Method B:**

Br₂ (5.0 g, 31.8 mmol) in AcOH (5 mL) was slowly added to a suspension of 38 (6.0 g, 32 mmol) in AcOH (15 mL). The mixture was heated to 60°C and stirred for 16 h, then cooled and poured onto ice H₂O (60 mL). The precipitate was collected, washed (MeOH) and dried to give 49 (4.5 g, 52%). Also isolated was 183 (2.4 g, 26%) as a pale yellow solid: data as above.

**Methyl 2-methyl-3-nitrobenzoate (52).**

![Methyl 2-methyl-3-nitrobenzoate (52)](image)

2-Methyl-3-nitrobenzoic acid 57 (10.0 g, 55 mmol) was heated under reflux in MeOH (200 mL) and conc. H₂SO₄ (1 mL) for 48 h, then poured into ice-water (300 mL). The precipitate was filtered, washed (H₂O) and recrystallised (MeOH) to give 52 (10.2 g, 94%) as white crystals; mp 63-64°C (lit.162 mp 65-66°C); IR νₓ max 1724 (C=O), 1522 & 1363 (NO₂) cm⁻¹; ¹H NMR δ 2.63 (3 H, s, ArMe), 3.94 (3 H, s, OMe), 7.38 (1 H, t, J = 8.0 Hz, 5-H), 7.85 (1 H, d, J = 7.9 Hz, 4-H), 7.99 (1 H, d, J = 7.7 Hz, 6-H).
5-Nitroisocoumarin (56)

The ester 52 (5.00 g, 25.6 mmol) was heated with dimethylformamide dimethyl acetal (2.5 g, 21 mmol) in DMF (30 mL) at 150°C for 16 h. Evaporation, chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 10:1) and recrystallisation (EtOH) gave 56 (2.6 g, 53%) as pale yellow crystals: Rf = 0.34 (hexane / EtOAc 10:1); mp 171–172°C (lit.162 mp 171-172°C); IR vmax 1732 (C=O), 1618 (C=C), 1522 & 1342 (NO2) cm⁻¹; ¹H NMR δ 7.39 (1 H, dd, J = 6.0, 0.5 Hz, 4-H), 7.44 (1 H, d, J = 6.0 Hz, 3-H), 7.68 (1 H, t, J = 8.0 Hz, 7-H), 8.50 (1 H, dd, J = 8.0, 1.3 Hz, 6-H); 8.64 (1 H, ddd, J = 8.0, 1.3, 0.5 Hz, 8-H).

Ethyl 2-(1-oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-ylamino)acetate (58).

Compound 5 (1.0 g, 4.4 mmol), Pr₂NEt (1.4 g, 11 mmol), ethyl bromoacetate (885 mg, 5.3 mmol) and NaI (100 mg, 0.7 mmol) were stirred at 80°C in DMF (60 mL) for 16 h. Evaporation and recrystallisation (MeOH) gave 58 (121 mg, 19%) as buff crystals: Rf = 0.25 (EtOAc / hexane 4:1); mp 199-201°C; IR vmax 3437 (NH), 1728 (C=O), 1654 (C=O) cm⁻¹; ¹H NMR ((CD3)2SO) δ 1.19 (3 H, t, J = 7.2 Hz, Me), 4.01 (2 H, d, J = 4.9 Hz, CH₂N), 4.12 (2 H, q, J = 7.2 Hz, OCH₂), 6.44 (1 H, t, J = 4.9 Hz, CH₂NH), 6.56 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 4-H), 6.72 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 3-H), 7.11 (1 H, m, 6-H), 7.22 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.46 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 8-H), 11.2 (1 H, br, NH); ¹³C NMR δ 14.1, 44.8, 60.4, 99.2, 110.5, 114.4, 125.5, 126.8, 126.9, 127.0, 143.1, 162.0, 171.1. MS (ES +ve) m/z
269.0911 (M + Na) (C$_{13}$H$_{14}$N$_2$O$_3$Na requires 269.0902), 247.1136 (M + H) (C$_{13}$H$_{15}$N$_2$O$_3$ requires 247.1083).

5-(Carboxymethylamino)isoquinolin-1-one hydrochloride (59).

![5-(Carboxymethylamino)isoquinolin-1-one hydrochloride (59)](image)

The ester 58 (94.0 mg, 0.39 mmol) was heated under reflux in aq. HCl (17%, 4.0 mL) for 3 h. Evaporation gave 59 (86 mg, 87%) as an amber solid: $R_f = 0$ (EtOAc); mp 275-280°C (decomp.); IR $\nu_{\text{max}}$ 3134 (NH), 2523 (OH), 1737 (C=O), 1608 (C=O) cm$^{-1}$; $^1$H NMR ((CD$_3$)$_2$SO) $\delta$ 3.91 (2 H, s, CH$_2$), 5.23-6.22 (3 H, m, OH, NH$_2$), 6.58 (1 H, dd, $J = 7.9$, 0.8 Hz, 4-H), 6.72 (1 H, d, $J = 7.6$ Hz, 3-H), 7.10 (1 H, brd, $J = 7.0$ Hz, 6-H), 7.22 (1 H, t, $J = 8.2$ Hz, 7-H), 7.45 (1 H, d, $J = 7.9$ Hz, 8-H), 11.21 (1-H, brs, NH); $^{13}$C NMR $\delta$ 44.8, 99.2, 110.4, 110.5, 114.2, 135.5, 126.9, 127.0, 143.2, 162.0, 172.5. MS $m/z$ 219.0757 (M + H) (C$_{11}$H$_{11}$N$_2$O$_3$ requires 219.0770).
Methyl 3-(5-amino-1-oxoisoquinolin-2(1H)-yl)propanoate (60)

NaH (80 mg, 3.5 mmol) was added to 5 (0.40 g, 1.8 mmol) in dry THF (40 mL), followed by methyl propenoate (0.17g, 1.9 mmol) and the mixture was stirred for 2 h. Evaporation and recrystallisation (MeOH) gave 60 (0.30g, 67%) as pale buff crystals: R$_f$ = 0.35 (EtOAc); mp 188-190°C; IR $\nu$ max 3465 (NH), 1715 (C=O), 1674 (C=O) cm$^{-1}$; $^1$H NMR ((CD$_3$)$_2$SO) $\delta$ 2.67 (2 H, t, J = 7.0 Hz, CH$_2$CO$_2$), 4.09 (2 H, t, J = 7.0 Hz, NCH$_2$), 4.36 (3 H, s, CH$_3$), 5.62-5.91 (2 H, br, NH$_2$), 6.72 (1 H, d, J = 7.5 Hz, 4-H), 6.84 (1 H, d, J = 7.5 Hz, 6-H), 7.16 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.31 (1 H, d, J = 7.4 Hz 3-H), 7.41 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz 8-H); $^{13}$C NMR (HMBC / HMQC) $\delta$ 33.1 (CH$_2$CO$_2$), 44.9 (NCH$_2$), 53.9 (OCH$_3$), 100.3 (4-C), 114.1 (6-C), 114.8 (8-C), 123.8 (4a-C), 126.4 (8a-C), 127.2 (7-C), 130.6 (3-C), 144.3 (5-C), 161.2 (1-C), 172.6 (COOMe); MS (ES +ve) m/z 269.0922 (M + Na) (C$_{13}$H$_{14}$N$_2$O$_3$Na requires 269.0902), 247.1168 (M + H) (C$_{13}$H$_{15}$N$_2$O$_3$ requires 247.1083).

3-(5-amino-1-oxoisoquinolin-2(1H)-yl)propanoic acid (62)

The ester 60 (302 mg, 1.23 mmol) was heated under reflux in aq. HCl (17%, 4.0 mL) for 24 h. Evaporation gave 62 (281 mg, 85%) as an amber solid: R$_f$ = 0 (EtOAc); mp 199-201°C; IR $\nu$ max 3240 (NH), 2580 (O-H), 1721 (C=O), 1638 (C=O) cm$^{-1}$; $^1$H NMR ((CD$_3$)$_2$SO) $\delta$ 2.68 (2 H, t, J = 7.0 Hz, CH$_2$CO$_2$), 4.10 (2 H, t, J = 7.0 Hz, NCH$_2$), 5.62-5.91 (2 H, br, 2 × NH), 6.72 (1 H, d, J = 7.4 Hz, 4-H), 6.84 (1 H, dd, J = 7.8, 1.1 Hz, 6-H), 7.16 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.31 (1 H, d, J = 7.4 Hz 3-H), 7.41 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz 8-H); $^{13}$C NMR (HMBC / HMQC) $\delta$ 33.1 (CH$_2$CO$_2$), 44.9 (NCH$_2$), 53.9, 100.3 (4-C), 114.1 (6-C), 114.8 (8-C), 123.8 (4a-C), 126.4 (8a-C), 127.2 (7-C), 130.6 (3-C), 144.3 (5-C), 161.2 (1-C), 172.6 (COOH).MS m/z 230.0927 (M + H) (C$_{12}$H$_{13}$N$_2$O$_3$ requires 233.0936).
5-Bromoisoquinolin-1-one (64)

![Structure of 5-Bromoisoquinolin-1-one](image)

5-Bromo-1-chloroisoquinoline 91 (3.0 g, 12 mmol), AcOH (50 mL) and H₂O (50 mL) were heated to 100°C and allowed to reflux for 48 h. The solution was then allowed to cool and the precipitate was washed (H₂O) and dried to give 64 (1.9g, 70%) as a white solid: Rf = 0.14 (hexane / EtOAc 1:1); mp 240-242°C (lit. 242-244°C); ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂SO) δ 6.66 (1 H, d, J = 7.2 Hz, 4-H), 7.38 (1 H, d, J = 7.1 Hz, 7-H), 7.42 (1 H, d, J = 7.2 Hz, 3-H), 8.02 (1 H, d, J = 7.1 Hz, 6-H), 8.21 (1 H, d, J = 7.1 Hz, 8-H), 11.56 (1 H, br s, NH).

5-Iodoisoquinolin-1-one (65)

![Structure of 5-Iodoisoquinolin-1-one](image)

Compound 75 (600 mg, 2.2 mmol) in 2-methoxyethanol (100 mL) was saturated with NH₃ and boiled under reflux for 2 h, then the solvent and excess reagent were evaporated until 5 mL remained. The concentrate was stored at 4°C for 16 h and the precipitated crystals were filtered, washed (H₂O, then EtOH) and recrystallised (acetone) to give 65 (182 mg, 62%) as pale buff crystals: Rf = 0.36 (hexane / EtOAc 2:3); mp 236–244°C (decomp.) (lit. 238-244°C); ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂SO) δ 6.54 (1 H, d, J = 7.3 Hz, 4-H), 7.24 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.32 (1 H, d, J = 7.3 Hz, 3-H), 8.23 (2 H, m, 6,8-H₂), 11.54 (1 H, br s, NH).

E-3-(2-bromophenyl)acrylic acid (70)
Compound 69 (14.1 g, 50 mmol) was heated under reflux with propenoic acid (4.7 g, 66 mmol), Pd(OAc)$_2$ (111 mg, 0.49 mmol), Et$_2$N (12.6 g, 124 mmol) in propanenitrile (200 mL) for 1.5 h. HCl (2 M, 800 mL) was then added to the cooled mixture. Filtration of a solution of the resulting precipitate gave the acid 70 (8.5 g, 76%) as a white solid: mp 198-200$^\circ$C (lit.$^{135}$ 202-204$^\circ$C); $^1$H NMR $\delta$ 6.58 (1 H, d, $J$ = 16.2 Hz, 2-H), 7.35 (1 H, dt, $J$ = 7.7, 1.5 Hz, Ar 4-H), 7.44 (1 H, t, $J$ = 7.7 Hz, Ar 5-H), 7.72 (1 H, dd, $J$ = 7.7, 1.5 Hz, Ar 6-H), 7.83 (1 H, d, $J$ = 16.2 Hz, 3-H), 7.91 (1 H, dd, $J$ = 7.7, 1.5 Hz, Ar 3-H), 12.65 (1 H, br, CO$_2$H).

$E$-3-(2-bromophenyl)acryloyl chloride (71)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Br} \\
\text{C} & \text{O} \\
\text{Cl}
\end{array}
\]

$E$-3-(2-bromophenyl)acryloyl azide (72)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Br} \\
\text{C} & \text{O} \\
\text{N}_3
\end{array}
\]

5-Bromoisoquinolin-1-one (64)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Br} \\
\text{N}
\end{array}
\]

Compound 70 (3.3 g, 15 mmol) was stirred with thionyl chloride (10 mL) and DMF (0.05 mL) for 16 h then the excess reagents were removed by evaporation. The residue (crude 71) in 1,4-dioxane (5 mL) was added to sodium azide (2.9 g, 44 mmol) in water (6 mL) and 1,4-dioxane (6 mL) over 15 min. The mixture was stirred for 45 min and then diluted
with H₂O (11 mL) extracted with DCM. The dried extract was evaporated to give a residue (crude 64) which, in DCM (10 mL), was added to boiling bis(2-(2-methoxyethoxy)ethyl) ether (12 mL) in portions. The solution was heated under reflux for 1 h and then cooled. The resulting solid was recrystallised (acetone) to give 64 (0.3 g, 9%) as white crystals: data as above.

5-Aminoisocoumarin (74)

![5-Aminoisocoumarin (74)](image)

To 5-nitroisocoumarin 56 (1.00 g, 5.23 mmol) in THF (100 mL), a slurry of 10% Pd on charcoal (125 mg) in THF (20 mL) was added. The mixture was stirred under H₂ for 2 h. The suspension was then filtered through Celite®. Concentration of the filtrate and drying gave 74 (0.75 g, 89%) as yellow crystals: mp 186-188°C (lit. 176 185-187°C); ¹H NMR (CDCl₃) δ 4.02 (2 H, br s, NH), 6.45 (1 H, dd, J = 8.0, 0.5 Hz, 4-H), 7.04 (1 H, dd, J = 8.0, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 7.26 (1 H, d, J = 8.0 Hz, 3-H), 7.34 (1 H, t, J = 8.0 Hz, 7-H), 7.77 (1 H, ddd, J = 8.0, 1.2, 0.5 Hz, 8-H).

5-Iodoisocoumarin (75)

![5-Iodoisocoumarin (75)](image)

Sodium nitrite (370 mg, 5.33 mmol) in H₂O (30 mL) was added to 5-aminoisocoumarin 74 (1.0 g, 6.2 mmol) in aq. HCl (4.5 M, 36 mL) at 0°C. A solution of KI (1.4 g, 8.6 mmol) in H₂O (35 mL) was then added over 10 min. The mixture was stirred for 2 h then extracted with EtOAc. Evaporation and chromatography (hexane/EtOAc 4:1) gave 75 (0.98 g, 58%) as pale yellow crystals: Rf = 0.68 (hexane / EtOAc 4:1); mp 155–156°C (lit. 177 mp 155-156°C); ¹H NMR CDCl₃ δ 7.31 (1 H, d, J = 6.3 Hz, 4-H), 7.36 (1 H, d, J =
6.3 Hz, 3-H), 7.60 (1 H, t, J = 8.2 Hz, 7-H), 8.41 (1 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, 6-H), 8.56 (1 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, 8-H).

5-Cyanoisoquinolin-1-one (76)

5-Cyanoisocoumarin (77)

2,6-Dicyanotoluene 41 (1.0 g, 7 mmol) in freshly distilled ethyl formate (25 ml) was stirred at 0-5°C with potassium tert-butoxide (4.4 g, 38 mmol) for 25 min. Addition of Et₂O caused a yellow precipitate to form, which was filtered off. The yellow solid was dissolved in water and the solution was acidified with acetic acid, saturated with sodium chloride and extracted with chloroform. The organic extract was dried and the solvent was evaporated. Chromatography (twice) (CHCl₃ / EtOAc, 2:1, hexane / EtOAc, 4:1) yielded 5-cyanoisocoumarin 77 (0.33 g, 14%) as colourless crystals: Rₕ = 0.85 (CHCl₃ / EtOAc, 2:1); mp 213-215°C (lit.¹³¹ 212-214°C); ¹H NMR (CDCl₃) δ 6.89 (1 H, d, J = 5.7 Hz, 4-H), 7.46 (1 H, d, J = 5.7 Hz, 3-H), 7.66 (1 H, t, J = 7.7 Hz, 7-H), 8.04 (1 H, d, J = 7.7 Hz, 6-H), 8.52 (1 H, d, J = 7.7 Hz, 8-H). Further elution gave 5-cyanoisoquinolin-1-one 76 (0.15 g, 6.5%) as a pale yellow solid: Rₕ = 0.22 (chloroform / ethyl acetate, 2:1); mp 292-294°C (lit.¹³¹ 296-300°C); ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂SO) δ 6.60 (1 H, J = 7.0 Hz, 4-H), 7.47 (1 H, d, J = 7.0 Hz, 3-H), 7.63 (1 H, t, J = 7.7 Hz, 7-H), 8.26 (1 H, d, J = 7.7 Hz, 6-H), 8.47 (1 H, d, J = 7.7 Hz, 8-H), 11.72 (1 H, bs, NH).

5-Bromo-1-chloroisooquinoline (91)
AlCl₃ (5.0 g, 37 mmol) and 1-chloroisooquinoline 90 (4.0 g, 24 mmol) were heated to 160°C until molten. Br₂ (5.9 g, 37 mmol) was then added, slowly over 5 h through a sintered condenser. The mixture was allowed to stir for a further 30 min, then allowed to cool and poured onto ice. Extraction (Et₂O), drying and evaporation and washing (MeOH) gave 91 (3.8 g, 65%) as an off-white solid: R₉ = 0.68 (hexane/EtOAc 9:1); mp 158-160°C (lit. 145 159-160°C; δH NMR (CDCl₃) 7.54 (1 H, t, J = 8.2 Hz, 7-H), 7.98 (1 H, d, J = 5.9 Hz, 4-H), 8.01 (1 H, d, J = 8.0 Hz, 6-H), 8.34 (1 H, d, J = 8.0 Hz, 8-H), 8.37 (1 H, d, J = 5.9 Hz, 3-H).

N-(1-Oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)benzamide (101)

To 5AIQ.HCl 5 (50 mg, 0.25 mmol) in pyridine (2.0 mL) was added benzoyl chloride (0.03 mL, 39 mg, 0.28 mmol). The mixture was stirred at 90°C for 16 h; Evaporation and recrystallisation (EtOAc) gave 101 (57 mg, 86%) as an off-white solid: R₉ = 0.16 (EtOAc); mp >310°C (decomp.); δH NMR ((CD₃)₂SO) 6.52 (1 H, d, J = 7.4 Hz, 4-H), 7.18 (1 H, dd, J = 7.4, 5.5 Hz, 3-H), 7.50-7.61 (4 H, m, 7,3’,4’,5’-H₄), 7.75 (1 H, d, J = 7.6 Hz, 6-H), 8.04 (2 H, d, J = 7.0 Hz, 2’,6’-H₂), 8.13 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 8-H), 10.33 (1 H, s, PhCONH), 11.32 (1 H, d, J = 4.7 Hz, 2-NH); 13C NMR δ 100.6, 124.8, 125.9, 127.0, 127.8 (C₂), 128.5 (C₂), 128.9, 130.5, 131.8, 133.2, 134.1, 134.2, 161.6, 166.0; MS (ESI +ve) m/z 287.0801 (M + Na) (C₁₆H₁₂NaN₂O₂ requires 287.0796); 265.0952 (M + H)
(C₁₆H₁₃N₂O₂ requires 265.0977); Anal. Found: C, 72.67; H, 4.48; N, 10.42. Calc. for C₁₆H₁₂N₂O₂: C, 72.72; H, 4.58; N, 10.60%.

4-Bromo-N-(1-oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)benzamide (102)

![Chemical structure](image)

To 5AlQ.HCl 5 (50 mg, 0.25 mmol) in pyridine (2.0 mL) was added 4-bromobenzoyl chloride (61 mg, 0.28 mmol). The mixture was stirred at 90°C for 16 h. Evaporation and recrystallisation (EtOAc) gave 102 (86 mg, 81%) as a yellow solid: R₆ = 0.18 (EtOAc); mp 258-260°C; ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂SO) δ 6.51 (1 H, d, J = 7.4 Hz, 4-H), 7.18 (1 H, dd, J = 7.4, 5.7 Hz, 3-H), 7.52 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.71 (2 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, Ar 3,5-H₂), 7.74 (1 H, d, J = 7.4 Hz, 6-H), 7.99 (2 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, Ar-2,6-H₂), 8.13 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 8-H), 10.40 (1 H, s, ArCONH) 11.34 (1 H, d, J = 5.1 Hz, 2-NH); ¹³C NMR 99.9, 125.0, 125.9, 127.0, 128.7, 128.5, 128.9, 129.7, 130.4, 132.9, 132.9, 135.2, 136.6, 161.5, 165.2; MS (ESI +ve) m/z 345.0026 (M + H) (C₁₆H₁₂₁⁸¹Br₁₂N₂O₂ requires 345.0062), 343.1414 (M + H) (C₁₆H₁₁Br₁₂N₂O₂ requires 343.0082); Anal. Found: C, 55.85; H, 3.14; N, 8.02. Calc. for C₁₆H₁₁BrN₂O₂: C, 56.00; H, 3.23; N, 8.16%.
4-Methyl-N-(1-oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)benzamide (103)

To 5AIQ.HCl 5 (50 mg, 0.25 mmol) in pyridine (2.0 mL) was added 4-methylbenzoyl chloride (0.04 mL, 43 mg, 0.28 mmol). The mixture was stirred at 90°C for 16 h; Evaporation and recrystallisation (EtOAc) gave 103 (57 mg, 82%) as an off-white solid: R_f = 0.19 (EtOAc); mp 297-300°C; 1H NMR δ 2.40 (3 H, s, CH_3), 6.50 (1 H, d, J = 7.0 Hz, 4-H), 7.18 (1 H, dd, J = 7.2, 6.7 Hz, 3-H), 7.35 (2 H, d, J = 7.6 Hz, 3’, 5’-H_2), 7.51 (1 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz), 7.72 (2 H, d, J = 7.6 Hz, 2’, 6’-H_2), 8.11 (1 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, 8-H), 10.25 (1 H, s, ArCONH), 11.31 (1 H, br s, 2-NH); 13C NMR δ 21.0, 100.6, 124.7, 127.0, 127.8, 128.8, 129.0, 130.5, 131.3, 133.2, 134.2, 141.8, 161.6, 165.9; MS (ESI +ve) m/z 301.0941 (M + Na) (C_{17}H_{14}N_2O_2 requires 301.0953); 279.1119 (M + H) (C_{17}H_{14}N_2O_2 requires 279.1134); Anal. Found: C, 73.23; H, 4.98; N, 10.22. Calc. for C_{17}H_{14}N_2O_2: C, 73.37; H, 5.07 10.07.

4-Iodo-N-(1-oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)benzamide (104)

To 5AIQ.HCl 5 (50 mg, 0.25 mmol) in pyridine (2.0 mL) was added 4-iodobenzoyl chloride (74 mg, 0.28 mmol). The mixture was stirred at 90°C for 16 h. Evaporation and recrystallisation (EtOAc) gave 104 (74 mg, 76%) as a pale grey solid: R_f = 0.18 (EtOAc); mp >290°C; 1H NMR ((CD_3)_2SO) δ 6.51 (1 H, d, J = 7.4 Hz, 4-H), 7.18 (1 H, dd, J = 7.4, 5.7 Hz, 3-H), 7.51 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.74 (1 H, d, J = 7.4 Hz, 6-H), 7.82 (2 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, Ar 3,5-H_2), 7.95 (2 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, Ar 2,6-H_2), 8.14 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 8-H), 10.39 (1 H, s, ArCONH) 11.33 (1 H, d, J = 5.1 Hz, 2-NH); 13C NMR δ 99.5, 100.6,
124.9, 125.9, 127.0, 128.9, 129.7, 130.4, 132.9, 133.6, 134.2, 137.4, 161.6, 165.4; MS (ES +ve) m/z 390.9950 (M + H) (C₁₆H₁₂IN₂O₂ requires 390.9944); Anal. Found: C, 49.16; H, 2.78; N, 7.32. Calc. for C₁₆H₁₁IN₂O₂: C, 49.25; H, 2.84; N, 7.18%.

4-Nitro-N-(1-oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)benzamide (105)

To 5AIQ.HCl 5 (50 mg, 0.25 mmol) in pyridine (2.0 mL) was added 4-nitrobenzoyl chloride (52 mg, 0.28 mmol). The mixture was stirred at 90 °C for 16 h. Evaporation and recrystallisation (EtOAc) gave 105 (55 mg, 71%) as an orange solid: \(R_f = 0.15\) (EtOAc); mp >190°C (decomp.); \(^1\)H NMR ((CD₃)₂SO) \(\delta 6.55\) (1 H, d, \(J = 7.5\) Hz, 6-H), 7.20 (1 H, dd, \(J = 7.5, 5.2\) Hz, 3-H), 7.53 (1 H, t, \(J = 7.9\) Hz, 7-H), 7.79 (1 H, d, \(J = 7.2\) Hz, 4-H), 8.16 (1 H, d, \(J = 7.9\) Hz, 8-H), 8.26 (2 H, d, \(J = 8.5\) Hz, Ar 3,5-H₂), 8.40 (2 H, d, \(J = 8.54\) Hz, Ar 2,6-H₂), 10.66 (1 H, s, ArCONH), 11.36 (1 H, d, \(J = 5.2\) Hz, 2-NH); \(^{13}\)C NMR \(\delta 100.46\) (5-C), 123.6, 125.2, 126.0, 129.1, 129.3, 130.4, 132.6, 134.1, 139.9, 143.2, 149.3, 161.6, 164.6; MS (ESI +ve) m/z 332.0639 (M + Na) (C₁₆H₁₁NaN₃O₄ requires 332.0647), 310.0827 (M + H) (C₁₆H₁₂N₃O₄ requires 310.0828); Anal. Found: C, 61.96; H, 3.38; N, 13.22. Calc. for C₁₆H₁₁N₃O₄: C, 62.14; H, 3.58; N, 13.59%.

N-(1-Oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)-4-(trifluoromethyl)benzamide (106)
To 5AIQ.HCl 5 (50 mg, 0.25 mmol) in pyridine (2.0 mL) was added 4-
trifluoromethylbenzoyl chloride (70 mg, 0.28 mmol). The mixture was stirred at 90 °C for
16 h. Evaporation and recrystallisation (EtOAc) gave 106 (60 mg, 72%) as a pale orange
solid: R_f = 0.15 (EtOAc); mp 319-321 °C; ^1H NMR ((CD_3)_2SO) δ 6.54 (1 H, d, J = 7.3 Hz,
4-H), 7.19 (1 H, dd, J = 7.3, 4.9 Hz, 3-H), 7.53 (1 H, t, J = 7.7 Hz, 7-H), 7.77 (1 H, d, J =
7.7 Hz, 6-H), 7.94 (1 H, d, J = 7.7 Hz, 8-H), 8.15 (2 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, Ar 3,5-H_2), 8.23 (2
H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, Ar 2,6-H_2), 10.56 (1 H, s, ArCONH) 11.35 (1 H, d, J = 4.9 Hz, 2-NH);
^{13}C NMR (HMBC / HMQC) δ 100.5 (4-C), 125.1 (8-C), 125.9 (q, J = 31.5 Hz, Ph 3,5-
C_2), 126.8 (7-C), 126.9 (8a-C), 128.9 (Ph 2,6-C_2), 130.3 (6-H), 130.9 (q, J = 31.5 Hz, Ph
4-C), 132.6 (5-C), 134.0 (4a-C), 137.9 (CF_3), 149.5 (Ph 1-C), 161.5 (1-C); MS (ESI +ve)
m/z 355.0666 (M + Na) (C_{17}H_{11}F_{3}NaN_{2}O_2 requires 355.0670), 333.0844 (M + H)
(C_{17}H_{11}F_{3}N_{2}O_2 requires 333.0851); Anal. Found: C, 61.23; H, 3.68; N, 8.66. Calc. for
C_{17}H_{11}F_{3}N_{2}O_2: C, 61.45; H, 3.34; N, 8.43%.

4-Fluoro-N-(1-oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)benzamide (107)
To 5AIQ.HCl 5 (50 mg, 0.25 mmol) in pyridine (2.0 mL) was added 4-fluorobenzoyl chloride (0.04 mL, 46 mg, 0.28 mmol). The mixture was stirred at 90 °C for 16 h. Evaporation and recrystallisation (EtOAc) gave 107 (71 mg, 68%) as a pale orange solid: Rf = 0.16 (EtOAc); mp 302-305 °C; 1H NMR ((CD3)2SO) δ 6.54 (1 H, d, J = 7.4 Hz, 4-H), 7.18 (1 H, dd, J = 7.4, 6.2 Hz, 3-H), 7.33 (2 H, dd, J = 9.0, 8.6 Hz, Ar 3,5-H), 7.54 (1 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, 7-H), 7.69 (1 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, 6-H), 8.03 (2 H, dd, J = 9.0, 5.0 Hz, Ar 2,6-H2), 8.14 (1 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, 8-H), 10.44 (1 H, br s, ArCONH), 11.33 (1 H, br, 2-NH); 13C NMR δ 102.1, 116.3, 116.5, 126.1, 127.3 (m, CF3), 129.5, 131.2 (m, Ar 4-C), 131.3, 131.8, 133.6, 135.2, 163.0, 166.7; MS (ESI +ve) m/z 305.0710 (M + Na) (C16H11FN2O2 requires 305.0702), 283.0889 (M + H) (C16H12FN2O2 requires 283.0883) Anal. Found: C, 67.98; H, 3.68; N, 9.62. Calc. for C17H11F3N2O2: C, 68.05; H, 3.92; N, 9.92%.

4-Chloro-N-(1-oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)benzamide (108)

\[
\text{Cl} \quad \text{NH} \\
\text{O} \quad \text{NH} \\
\text{O}
\]

To 5AIQ.HCl 5 (50 mg, 0.25 mmol) in pyridine (2.0 mL) was added 4-chlorobenzoyl chloride (0.04 mL, 49 mg, 0.28 mmol). The mixture was stirred at 90 °C for 16 h. Evaporation and recrystallisation (EtOAc) gave 108 (58 mg, 77%) as a pale orange solid: Rf = 0.17 (EtOAc); mp 347-349 °C; 1H NMR ((CD3)2SO) δ 6.51 (1 H, J = 7.5 Hz, 4-H), 7.18 (1 H, dd, J = 7.5, 5.2 Hz, 3-H), 7.51 (1 H, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.63 (2 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, Ar 3,5-H2), 7.74 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 6-H), 8.04 (2 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, Ar 2,6-H2), 8.13 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 8-H), 10.41 (1 H, s, ArCONH), 11.34 (1 H, d, J = 4.6 Hz, 2-NH); 13C NMR δ 100.6, 125.0, 125.9, 127.0, 128.5, 127.0, 128.5 (C2), 128.9, 129.7 (C2), 130.4, 132.9, 132.9, 134.2, 136.6, 161.6, 165.0; MS (ESI +ve) m/z 323.0334 (M + Na) (C16H11ClNaN2O2 requires 323.0337) 321.0399 (M + Na) (C16H11ClNaN2O2 requires 321.0397).
requires 321.0407), 299.0584 (M + H) (C_{16}H_{12}ClN_{2}O_{2} requires 299.0587); Anal. Found: C, 64.23; H, 3.68; N, 9.32. Calc. for C_{16}H_{11}ClN_{2}O_{2}: C, 64.33; H, 3.71; N, 9.38%.

2-Iodo-N-(1-oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)benzamide (109)

![Chemical structure](image)

To 5AIQ.HCl 5 (50 mg, 0.25 mmol) in pyridine (2.0 mL) was added 2-iodobenzoyl chloride (74 mg, 0.28 mmol). The mixture was stirred at 90°C for 16 h. Evaporation and recrystallisation (EtOAc) gave 109 (60 mg, 61%) as a pale brown solid: R_f = 0.19 (EtOAc); mp 317-320°C; ^1H NMR ((CD_3)_2SO) δ 6.77 (1 H, d, J = 7.9 Hz, 4-H), 7.20 (1 H, t, J = 7.9, 5.6 Hz, 3-H), 7.25 (1 H, dt, J = 7.6, 1.8 Hz, Ar 4-H), 7.54-7.63 (3 H, m, 7-H and Ar 3,5-H_2), 7.90 (1 H, d, J = 7.9 Hz, 6-H), 7.96 (1 H, d, J = 7.9 Hz, 8-H), 8.12 (1H, d, J = 7.6 Hz, Ar 6-H), 10.41 (1 H, s, ArCONH), 11.34 (1 H, d, J = 5.6 Hz, 2-NH); ^13C NMR δ 93.6, 100.5, 124.6, 125.9, 127.1, 128.1, 128.2, 128.7, 129.2, 131.0, 132.5, 133.2, 139.0, 161.5, 166.4; MS (ES +ve) m/z 390.9952 (M + H) (C_{16}H_{11}ClN_{2}O_{2} requires 390.9944) Anal. Found: C, 49.12; H, 2.66; N, 7.26. Calc. for C_{16}H_{11}ClN_{2}O_{2}: C, 49.25; H, 2.84; N, 7.18%.

2-Methyl-N-(1-oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)benzamide (110)

![Chemical structure](image)
To 5AIQ.HCl 5 (50 mg, 0.25 mmol) in pyridine (2.0 mL) was added 4-methylbenzoyl chloride (0.04 mL, 43 mg, 0.28 mmol). The mixture was stirred at 90 °C for 16 h. Evaporation and recrystallisation (EtOAc) gave 110 (57 mg, 63%) as an off-white solid: R_f = 0.17 (EtOAc); mp 310-313°C; 1H NMR ((CD_3)_2SO) δ 2.54 (3 H, s, Me), 6.62 (1 H, d, J = 7.5 Hz, 4-H), 7.21 (1 H, dd, J = 7.5, 5.2 Hz, 3-H), 7.29-7.33 (2 H, m, Ar 3,5-H), 7.41 (1 H, t, J = 7.4 Hz, Ar 4-H), 7.51 (1 H, t, J = 7.4 Hz, 7-H), 7.58 (1 H, d, J = 7.4 Hz, 6-H) 7.82 (1 H, d, J = 7.4 Hz, Ar 6-H), 8.10 (1 H, d, J = 7.4 Hz, 8-H), 10.24 (1 H, s, ArCHNH), 11.32 (1 H, d, J = 5.1 Hz, 2-NH); ^13C NMR δ 19.5, 100.4, 124.5, 125.6, 125.9, 127.0, 127.4, 128.9, 129.7, 130.6, 131.0, 132.9, 133.6, 135.4, 136.8, 161.6, 168.6. MS (ESI +ve) m/z 301.0956 (M + N\textsubscript{2}) (C_{17}H_{13}N_{2}N\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2} requires 301.0953), 279.1130 (M + H) (C_{17}H_{14}N_{2}O_{2} requires 279.1133); Anal. Found: C, 73.33; H, 5.02; N, 10.11. Calc. for C_{17}H_{14}N_{2}O_{2}: C, 73.37; H, 5.07 10.07%.

N-(1-Oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)thiophene-2-carboxamide (111)

To 5AIQ.HCl 5 (50 mg, 0.25 mmol) in pyridine (2.0 mL) was added thiophene-2-carbonyl chloride (0.03 mL, 41 mg, 0.28 mmol). The mixture was stirred at 90°C for 16 h. Evaporation and recrystallisation (EtOAc) gave 111 (34 mg, 51%) as an off-white solid: R_f = 0.14 (EtOAc); mp 288-291°C; 1H NMR ((CD_3)_2SO) δ 6.51 (1 H, d, J = 7.4 Hz, 4-H), 7.19 (1 H, dd, J = 7.4, 5.4 Hz, 3-H), 7.23 (1 H, dd, J = 4.9, 3.6 Hz, Ar 4-H), 7.52 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.70 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 6-H), 7.83 (1 H, d, J = 4.9 Hz, Ar 5-H), 8.03 (1 H, d, J = 3.6 Hz, Ar 3-H), 8.13 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 8-H), 10.41 (1 H, s, ArCONH), 11.33 (1 H, d, J = 5.4 Hz, 2-NH); ^13C NMR δ 100.2, 125.5, 126.6, 127.2, 128.7, 129.3, 129.9, 131.2, 132.3, 132.9, 134.7, 139.4, 161.2, 162.2; MS (ESI +ve) m/z 293.0347 (M + Na) (C_{14}H_{16}N_{2}NaO_{2}S requires 293.0361), 271.0529 (M + H)
(C_{14}H_{11}N_{2}O_{2}S \text{ requires } 271.0541); \text{ Anal. Found: C, 61.11; H, 3.55; N, 10.62. Calc. for } C_{14}H_{10}N_{2}O_{2}S: C, 62.21; H, 3.73; N, 10.36%.

**N-(1-Oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)cyclohexanecarboxamide (112)**

![N-(1-Oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)cyclohexanecarboxamide](image)

To 5AIQ.HCl 5 (50 mg, 0.25 mmol) in pyridine (2.0 mL) was added cyclohexanecarbonyl chloride (0.04 mL, 41 mg, 0.28 mmol). The mixture was stirred at 90°C for 16 h. Evaporation and recrystallisation (EtOAc) gave 112 (46 mg, 68%) as an off-white solid: R_{f} = 0.18 (EtOAc); mp 302-305°C; \textsuperscript{1}H NMR ((CD_{3})_{2}SO) \delta 1.23 (1 H, ca. q, J = 12.5 Hz, CH_{x}, 4_{ax}-H), 1.30 (2 H, ca. q, J = 12.6 Hz, CH_{x}, 3_{ax}, 5_{ax}-H_{2}), 1.43 (2 H, dq, J = 12.1, 2.3 Hz, CH_{x}, 2_{ax}, 6_{ax}-H_{2}), 1.66 (1 H, brd, J = 12.1 Hz, CH_{x}, 4_{eq}-H), 1.77 (2 H, ca. d, J = 12.5 Hz, CH_{x}, 3_{eq}, 5_{eq}-H_{2}), 1.87 (2 H, ca. d, J = 12.5 Hz, CH_{x}, 2_{eq}, 6_{eq}-H_{2}), 2.50 (1 H, m, CH_{x}, 1-H). 6.57 (1 H, d, J = 7.5 Hz, 4-H), 7.18 (1 H, dd, J = 7.3, 6.2 Hz, 3-H). 7.42 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.76 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 6-H), 8.02 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 8-H), 9.66 (1 H, s, cHexCONH), 11.30 (1 H, d, J = 5.1 Hz, 2-NH); \textsuperscript{13}C NMR δ 25.3 (C_{2}), 25.4, 29.3 (C_{2}), 44.2, 100.0, 123.6, 125.8, 126.9, 128.5, 128.6, 132.6, 133.1, 161.6, 174.8; MS (ESI +ve) m/z 563.2616 (2 M + Na) (C_{32}H_{36}N_{4}NaO_{4} requires 563.2634), 541.2798 (2 M + H) (C_{32}H_{37}N_{4}O_{4} requires 541.2815) 293.1248 (M + Na) (C_{16}H_{18}N_{2}NaO_{2} requires 293.1266), 271.1140 (M + H) (C_{16}H_{19}N_{2}O_{2} requires 271.1147); Anal. Found: C, 71.31; H, 6.52; N, 10.17. Calc. for C_{16}H_{18}N_{2}O_{2}: C, 71.09; H, 6.71 10.36%.

**2,2-Dimethyl-N-(1-oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)propanamide (113)**

![2,2-Dimethyl-N-(1-oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)propanamide](image)
To 5AIQ·HCl 5 (50 mg, 0.25 mmol) in pyridine (2.0 mL) was added 2,2-dimethylpropanoyl chloride (0.03 mL, 34 mg, 0.28 mmol). The mixture was stirred at 90°C for 16 h. Evaporation and recrystallisation (EtOAc) gave 113 (46 mg, 68%) as an off-white solid: Rf = 0.21 (EtOAc); 1H NMR ((CD3)2SO) δ 1.28 (9 H, s, 3 × Me), 6.38 (1 H, d, J = 7.4 Hz, 4-H), 7.18 (1 H, dd, J = 7.4, 4.3 Hz, 3-H), 7.45 (1 H, t, J = 7.6 Hz, 7-H), 7.53 (1 H, d, J = 7.6 Hz, 6-H), 8.08 (1 H, d, J = 7.6 Hz, 8-H), 9.36 (1 H, s, Bu'CONH), 11.29 (1 H, br, 2-NH); 13C NMR δ 27.4 (C3), 40.1, 100.5, 124.6, 125.8, 126.9, 128.7, 130.7, 133.4, 134.5, 161.7, 177.1; MS (ESI +ve) m/z 267.1109 (M + N) (C14H16N2O2 requires 267.1109), 245.1291 (M + H) (C14H17N2O2 requires 245.1290); Anal. Found: C, 68.68; H, 6.46; N, 11.31. Calc. for C14H16N2O2: C, 68.83; H, 6.60, 11.47%.

N-(1-Oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)adamantane-1-carboxamide (114)

To 5AIQ·HCl 5 (50 mg, 0.25 mmol) in pyridine (2.0 mL) was added adamantane-1-carbonyl chloride (56 mg, 0.28 mmol). The mixture was stirred at 90°C for 16 h. Evaporation and recrystallisation (EtOAc) gave 114 (48 mg, 59%) as an off-white solid: Rf = 0.23 (EtOAc); mp 303-306°C; 1H NMR ((CD3)2SO) δ 1.73 (6 H, m, 3 × CH2), 1.97 (6 H, m, 3 × CH2), 2.04 (3 H, m, 3 × CH), 6.36 (1 H, d, J = 7.4 Hz, 4-H), 7.18 (1 H, dd, J = 7.4, 6.2 Hz, 3-H), 7.42 (1 H, t, J = 7.7 Hz, 7-H), 7.52 (1 H, d, J = 7.7 Hz, 6-H), 8.07 (1 H, d, J = 7.7 Hz, 8-H), 9.29 (1 H, s, adamantaneCONH), 11.29 (1 H, d, J = 4.9 Hz, 2-NH); 13C NMR δ 27.7 (C3, CH), 36.1 (C6, CH2), 38.5, 38.6 (C6, CH2), 100.5, 124.5, 125.8, 126.9, 128.7, 130.7, 133.4, 134.4, 161.7, 176.6; MS (ESI +ve) m/z 345.1574 (M + Na) (C20H22N2NaO2 requires 345.1579), 323.1769 (M + H) (C20H23N2O2 requires 323.1768); Anal. Found: C, 69.46; H, 6.46; N, 11.31. Calc. for C20H22N2O2: C, 69.55; H, 6.42; N, 8.11%.
5-Amino-3-(4-chlorophenyl)isoquinolin-1-one hydrochloride (115)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{O} & \\
\text{NH} & \\
\text{N} & \\
\text{Cl} & \\
\text{Cl} & \\
\text{NH}_3\text{Cl} & \\
\text{O} & \\
\end{align*}
\]

To 139 (170 mg, 0.57 mmol) in EtOH (10 mL) and aq. HCl (34%, 0.4 mL), a slurry of 10% Pd on charcoal (80 mg) in EtOH (5 mL) was added. The mixture was stirred under H\(_2\) for 2 h. The suspension was then filtered through Celite\textsuperscript{®}. The Celite\textsuperscript{®} pad and residue were suspended in water (100 mL) and heated. The hot suspension was filtered through a second Celite\textsuperscript{®} pad. Evaporation of the solvent and drying gave 115 (90 mg, 52%) as a pale buff solid: R\(_f\) = 0.74 (MeOH); mp >350°C (lit.\textsuperscript{162} mp >350°C); \(^1\)H NMR ((CD\(_3\))\textsubscript{2}SO) \(\delta\) 7.08 (1 H, s, 4-H), 7.14 (1 H, dd, \(J = 7.8, 1.2\) Hz, 6-H), 7.28 (1 H, t, \(J = 7.8\) Hz, 7-H), 7.56 (2 H, d, \(J = 9.0\) Hz, Ar 3,5-H\(_2\)), 7.64 (1 H, dd, \(J = 7.8, 1.2\) Hz, 8-H), 7.83 (2 H, d, \(J = 9.0\) Hz, Ar 2,6-H\(_2\)), 11.50 (1 H, brs, NH).

5-Amino-3-(4-trifluoromethylphenyl)isoquinolin-1-one hydrochloride (116)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{O} & \\
\text{NH} & \\
\text{N} & \\
\text{Cl} & \\
\text{CF}_3 & \\
\text{NH}_3\text{Cl} & \\
\text{O} & \\
\end{align*}
\]
To 140 (140 mg, 0.42 mmol) in EtOH (10 mL) and aq. HCl (34%, 0.4 mL), a slurry of 10% Pd on charcoal (70 mg) in EtOH (5 mL) was added. The mixture was stirred under H₂ for 2 h. The suspension was then filtered through Celite®. The Celite® pad and residue were suspended in water (100 mL) and heated. The hot suspension was filtered through a second Celite® pad. Evaporation of the solvent and drying gave 116 (60 mg, 42%) as a pale buff solid: Rᵢ = 0.76 (MeOH); mp >350°C (lit.¹⁶² mp >350°C); ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂SO) δ 7.14 (1 H, dd, J = 7.8, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 7.18 (1 H, s, 4-H), 7.31 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.63 (1 H, dd, J = 7.8, 1.2 Hz, 8-H), 7.85 (2 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, Ar 3,5-H₂), 8.01 (2 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, Ar 2,6-H₂), 11.60 (1 H, br s, NH); ¹⁹F NMR ((CD₃)₂SO) δ -59.50 (3 F, s, CF₃).

5-Amino-3-(4-methylphenyl)isoquinolin-1-one hydrochloride (118)

![5-Amino-3-(4-methylphenyl)isoquinolin-1-one hydrochloride](image)

To 141 (160 mg, 0.57 mmol) in EtOH (10 mL) and aq. HCl (34%, 0.4 mL), a slurry of 10% Pd on charcoal (80 mg) in EtOH (5 mL) was added. The mixture was stirred under H₂ for 2 h. The suspension was then filtered through Celite®. The Celite® pad and residue were suspended in water (100 mL) and heated. The hot suspension was filtered through a second Celite® pad. Evaporation of the solvent and drying gave 118 (129 mg, 79%) as a pale buff solid: Rᵢ = 0.72 (MeOH); mp >350°C (lit.¹⁶² mp >350°C); ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂SO) δ 2.23 (3 H, s, Me), 6.48 (1 H, s, 4-H), 7.31 (2 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, Ar 3,5-H₂), 7.36 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.61 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 6-H), 7.75 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 8-H), 7.96 (2 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, Ar 2,6-H₂), 11.47 (1 H, br s, NH).

1-(4-Chlorophenyl)butane-1,3-dione (128)

![1-(4-Chlorophenyl)butane-1,3-dione](image)
4-Chloroacetophenone 131 (2.3 g, 15 mmol) in Ac₂O (6.2 g, 62 mmol) was added to BF₃.(AcOH)₂ (8.6 g, 46 mmol) at 0°C. The mixture was stirred for 30 min and allowed to stand at room temperature for 24 h. The mixture was then poured into aq. NaOAc (13%, 50 mL) and boiled under reflux for 1 h. Extraction (Et₂O), evaporation and chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 4:1) afforded 128 (2.5 g, 84%) as pale orange crystals: Rᵣ = 0.54 (hexane / EtOAc 4:1); mp 56-58°C (lit.¹⁶² mp 58-59°C); ¹H NMR (CDCl₃) δ 2.20 (2.85 H, s, enol-form CH₃), 2.30 (0.15 H, s, keto-form CH₃), 4.07 (0.1 H, s, keto-form CH₂), 6.13 (0.95 H, s, enol-form =CH), 7.40 (1.9 H, d, J = 8.6 Hz, enol-form Ar 3,5-H₂), 7.43 (0.1 H, d, J = 8.6 Hz, keto-form Ar 3,5-H₂), 7.79 (1.9 H, d, J = 8.6 Hz, enol-form Ar 2,6-H₂), 7.87 (0.1 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, keto-form Ar 2,6-H₂), 16.09 (0.95 H, br s, enol-form OH).

1-(4-Trifluoromethylphenyl)butane-1,3-dione (129)

F₃C

4-(Trifluoromethyl)acetophenone 132 (2.5 g, 13 mmol) in Ac₂O (5.5 g, 54 mmol) was added to BF₃.(AcOH)₂ (7.6 g, 40 mmol) at 0°C. The mixture was stirred for 30 min and allowed to stand at room temperature for 24 h. The mixture was then poured into aq. NaOAc (13%, 100 mL) and boiled under reflux for 1 h. Extraction (Et₂O), evaporation and chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 7:3) gave 129 (2.1 g, 68%) as pale orange crystals: Rᵣ = 0.57 (hexane / EtOAc 4:1); mp 48-50°C (lit.¹⁶² mp 48-49°C); ¹H NMR (CDCl₃) δ 2.23 (2.88 H, s, enol-form CH₃), 2.32 (0.12 H, s, keto-form CH₃), 4.13 (0.08 H, s, keto-form CH₂), 6.19 (0.96 H, s, enol-form =CH), 7.68 (2 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, enol-form Ar 3,5-H₂), 7.71 (0.08 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, keto-form Ar 3,5-H₂), 7.95 (2 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, enol-form Ar 2,6-H₂), 8.04 (0.08 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, keto-form Ar 2’,6’-H₂), 15.98 (1 H, br s, enol-form OH); ¹⁹F NMR (CDCl₃) δ –63.62 (3 F, s, CF₃).
1-(4-Methylphenyl)butane-1,3-dione (130)

4-Methylacetophenone 133 (2.0 g, 14.9 mmol) in Ac$_2$O (6.2 g, 61 mmol) was added to BF$_3$·(AcOH)$_2$ (8.5 g, 45 mmol) at 0°C. The mixture was stirred for 30 min and allowed to stand at room temperature for 24 h. The mixture was then poured into aq. NaOAc (13%, 100 mL) and boiled under reflux for 1 h. Extraction (Et$_2$O), evaporation and chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 20:1) afforded 130 (2.1 g, 80%) as a colourless oil: R$_f$ = 0.40 (hexane / EtOAc 20:1); $^1$H NMR (CDCl$_3$) $\delta$ 2.20 (2.67 H, s, enol-form COCH$_3$), 2.30 (0.33 H, s, keto-form COCH$_3$), 2.41 (2.67 H, s, enol-form ArCH$_3$), 2.59 (0.33 H, s, keto-form ArCH$_3$), 4.08 (0.22 H, s, keto-form CH$_2$), 6.16 (0.89 H, s, enol-form =CH), 7.24 (2 H, d, $J = 8.2$ Hz, Ar 3,5-H$_2$), 7.78 (2 H, d, $J = 8.2$ Hz, Ar 2,6-H$_2$), 16.22 (0.89 H, br s, enol-form OH).

5-Nitro-3-(4-Chlorophenyl)isocoumarin (135)
Method A:

To a stirred solution of 34 (7.1 g, 36 mmol) and potassium t-butoxide (1.7 g, 15 mmol) in 2-methylpropan-2-ol (50 mL) was added 128 (1.8 g, 7.3 mmol) and Cu powder (47 mg, 0.7 mmol). The mixture was boiled heated reflux for 16 h, then poured into H₂O (350 mL) and acidified with aq. HCl (2 M). Extraction (Et₂O), evaporation and chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 8:1) gave 135 (720 mg, 33%) as pale yellow crystals; Rᵣ = 0.64 (hexane / EtOAc 8:1); mp 203-205°C; (lit.₁⁶² mp 204-205°C); ¹H NMR δ 7.47 (2 H, d, J = 6.6 Hz, Ar 3,5-H₂), 7.62 (1 H, t, J = 8.0 Hz, 7-H), 7.87 (2 H, d, J = 6.9 Hz, Ar 2,6-H₂), 7.88 (1 H, brs, 4-H), 8.50 (1 H, dd, J = 8.3, 1.9 Hz, 6-H), 8.63 (1 H, brd, J = 8.0 Hz, 8-H).

Method B:

SnCl₄ (148.5 mg, 0.57 mmol) was added to 56 (100 mg, 0.52 mmol) in PhNO₂ (1.0 mL). After 30 min, 4-chlorobenzoyl chloride (217.0 mg, 1.04 mmol) was added and the mixture was stirred at 150°C under Ar for 3 d. The cooled mixture was quenched with ice-water (2.0 mL) and extracted with EtOAc (2 x 20 mL). The combined extracts were washed (NaOH, brine) and dried (MgSO₄). Evaporation and chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 15:1) gave 135 (34.5 mg, 29%) as a pale yellow solid; data as above.

5-Nitro-3-(4-trifluorophenyl)isocoumarin (137)
Method A:

To a stirred solution of 34 (3.6 g, 16 mmol) and potassium t-butoxide (700 mg, 6.3 mmol) in 2-methylpropan-2-ol (50 mL) was added 129 (760 mg, 3.1 mmol) and Cu powder (20 mg, 0.3 mmol). The mixture was heated under reflux for 16 h, then poured into H₂O (350 mL) and acidified with aq. HCl (2 M). Extraction (Et₂O), evaporation and chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 9:1) gave 137 (125 mg, 12%) as yellow crystals: Rᵣ = 0.52 (hexane / EtOAc 4:1); mp 162-163°C (lit.¹⁶⁻¹⁶₂ mp 163-164°C); IR νₘₚₓ 1724 (C=O), 1626 (C=C), 1537 & 1344 (NO₂) cm⁻¹;¹HNMR δ 7.67 (1 H, t, J = 8.2 Hz, 6-H), 7.75 (2 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, Ar 3,5-H₂), 7.93 (1 H, d, J = 0.8 Hz, 4-H), 8.03 (2 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, Ar 2,6-H₂), 8.51 (1 H, dd, J = 8.2, 1.6 Hz), 8.57 (1 H, ddd, J = 8.2, 1.6, 0.8 Hz, 8-H);¹⁹FNMR δ -63.54 (3 F, s, CF₃).

Method B:

SnCl₄ (149 mg, 0.57 mmol) was added to 56 (100 mg, 0.52 mmol) in PhNO₂ (1.0 mL). After 30 min, 4-trifluoromethylbenzoyl chloride (217 mg, 1.04 mmol) was added and the mixture was stirred at 150°C under Ar for 3 d. The cooled mixture was quenched with ice-water (2.0 mL) and extracted with EtOAc (2 × 20 mL). The combined extracts were washed (NaOH, brine) and dried (MgSO₄). Evaporation and chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 15:1) gave 137 (11.2 mg, 11%) as a pale yellow solid: data as above.

3-(4-Methylphenyl)-5-nitroisocoumarin (138)
Method A:

To a stirred solution of 34 (22.7 g, 0.1 mol) and potassium t-butoxide (5.8 g, 52 mmol) in 2-methylpropan-2-ol (50 mL) was added 130 (6.3 g, 26 mmol) and Cu powder (170 mg, 2.7 mmol). The mixture was heated under reflux for 16 h, then poured into H₂O (350 mL) and acidified with aq. HCl (2 M). Extraction (Et₂O), evaporation and chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 10:1) gave 138 (1.5 g, 20%) as pale yellow crystals: R₆ = 0.49 (hexane / EtOAc 4:1); mp 181-182°C (lit.¹⁶² mp 181-182°C); ¹H NMR δ 2.42 (3 H, s, Me), 7.29 (2 H, d, J = 8.6 Hz, Ar 3,5-H₂), 7.57 (1 H, t, J = 8.2 Hz, 7-H), 7.82 (1 H, s, 4-H), 7.83 (2 H, d, J = 8.4 Hz, Ar 2,6-H₂), 8.48 (1 H, brd, J = 8.2 Hz, 6-H), 8.61 (1 H, brd, J = 8.5 Hz, 8-H).

Method B:

SnCl₄ (148.5 mg, 0.57 mmol) was added to 56 (100 mg, 0.52 mmol) in PhNO₂ (1.0 mL). After 30 min, 4-methylbenzoyl chloride (161 mg, 1.04 mmol) was added and the mixture was stirred at 150°C under Ar for 3 d. The cooled mixture was quenched with ice-water (2.0 mL) and extracted with EtOAc (2 × 20 mL). The combined extracts were washed (NaOH, brine) and dried (MgSO₄). Evaporation and chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 15:1) gave 138 (24.2 mg, 23%) as a pale yellow solid; data as above.

3-(4-Chlorophenyl)-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one (139)
A solution of 135 (180 mg, 0.6 mmol) in 2-methoxyethanol (50 mL) was saturated with NH$_3$, boiled under reflux for 4 h, then evaporated until 10 mL remained. The concentrate was stored at 4°C for 16 h and the precipitated crystals were filtered, washed (H$_2$O, then EtOH) and recrystallised (MeOH) to give 139 (460 mg, 64%) as bright yellow crystals: R$_f$ = 0.33 (hexane / EtOAc 1:4); mp 231-233°C (decomp.) (lit.$^{162}$ mp 231-232°C (decomp.)); $^1$H NMR ((CD$_3$)$_2$SO) $\delta$ 7.22 (1 H, d, $J$ = 0.8 Hz, 4-H), 7.59 (2 H, d, $J$ = 8.6 Hz, Ar 3,5-H$_2$), 7.65 (1 H, t, $J$ = 8.2 Hz, 7-H), 7.79 (2 H, d, $J$ = 8.6 Hz, Ar 2,6-H$_2$), 8.47 (1 H, dd, $J$ = 8.2, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 8.58 (1 H, ddd, $J$ = 8.2, 1.2, 0.8 Hz, 8-H), 12.13 (1 H, br s, NH).

5-Nitro-3-(4-trifluoromethylphenyl)isoquinolin-1-one (140)

A solution of 137 (280 mg, 0.84 mmol) in 2-methoxyethanol (25 mL) was saturated with NH$_3$, boiled under reflux for 4 h and then evaporated until 10 mL remained. The concentrate was stored at 4°C for 16 h and the precipitated crystals were filtered, washed (H$_2$O, then EtOH) and recrystallised (MeOH) to give 140 (67 mg, 24%) as yellow crystals: R$_f$ = 0.43 (hexane / EtOAc 1:4); mp 228-230°C (lit.$^{162}$ mp 230-231°C); $^1$H NMR ((CD$_3$)$_2$SO) $\delta$ 7.28 (1 H, s, 4-H), 7.68 (1 H, t, $J$ = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.88 (2 H, d, $J$ = 8.2 Hz, Ar 3,5-H$_2$), 7.97 (2 H, d, $J$ = 8.2 Hz, Ar 2,6-H$_2$), 8.47 (1 H, dd, $J$ = 7.8, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 8.58 (1 H, d, $J$ = 7.8, 1.2 Hz, 8-H), 12.21 (1 H, br s, NH); $^{19}$F NMR ((CD$_3$)$_2$SO) $\delta$ -61.84 (3 F, s, CF$_3$).

3-(4-Methylphenyl)-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one (141)
A solution of 138 (250 mg, 0.89 mmol) in 2-methoxyethanol (30 mL) was saturated with NH₃, boiled under reflux for 4 h, then evaporated until 10 mL remained. The concentrate was stored at 4°C for 16 h and the precipitated crystals were filtered, washed (H₂O, then EtOH) and recrystallised (MeOH) to give 141 (199 mg, 80%) as bright yellow crystals: Rₚ = 0.23 (hexane / EtOAc 3:2); mp 175-176°C; (lit. mp 174-175°C); ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂SO) δ 2.37 (3 H, s, Me), 7.20 (1 H, d, J = 0.8 Hz, 4-H), 7.32 (2 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, Ar 3,5-H₂), 7.62 (1 H, t, J = 8.2 Hz, 7-H), 7.66 (2 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, Ar 2,6-H₂), 8.45 (1 H, dd, J = 8.2, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 8.56 (1 H, ddd, J = 8.2, 1.2, 0.8 Hz, 8-H), 12.03 (1 H, br s, NH).

2-Benzoyl-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one (145)

AlCl₃ (70.6 mg, 0.53 mmol) was added to 38 (100 mg, 0.53 mmol) in benzoyl chloride (3.1 g, 22.3 mmol) and the mixture was stirred at 100°C under Ar for 3 d. The cooled mixture was quenched with ice-water (5.0 mL) and extracted with EtOAc (2 × 20 mL). The combined extracts were washed (aq. NaOH, brine) and dried. Evaporation, chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 4:1) and recrystallisation gave 145 (40 mg, 26%) as pale yellow crystals: Rₚ = 0.61 (hexane / EtOAc 2:3); mp 151-153°C; IR νmax 1668 (C=O), 1662 (C=O) 1626 (C=C), 1519 & 1340 (NO₂) cm⁻¹; ¹H NMR δ 7.41 (1 H, dd, J = 8.2, 0.9 Hz, 4-H), 7.50 (2 H, t, J = 8.7 Hz, Ph 3,5-H₂), 7.59-7.65 (3 H, m, 3,7-H₂, Ph 4-H), 7.81 (2 H, d, J = 8.7 Hz, Ph 2,6-H₂), 8.44 (1 H, dd, J = 8.2, 1.1 Hz, 8-H), 8.66 (1 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, 6-H); ¹³C NMR δ 101.8, 126.6, 127.6, 128.6, 128.8, 129.2, 130.4, 138.9, 131.0, 131.2, 132.4, 134.2, 134.4, 145.2, 160.2, 170.1. MS (ES +ve) m/z 317.0524 (M + Na) (C₁₆H₁₀N₂O₄Na requires 317.0538).
4-Acetyl-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one (146)

Compound 38 (80 mg, 0.42 mmol) in Ac₂O (3 mL) and conc. H₂SO₄ (50 µL) were heated at 100°C for 22 h. Evaporation, chromatography (acetone) and recrystallisation (EtOH) gave 146 (36 mg, 36%) as yellow crystals: Rₓ = 0.63 (EtOAc); mp 303-305 °C; IR νₓₘₓ 3436 (NH), 1761 (C=O), 1661 (C=O), 1518 & 1315 (NO₂) cm⁻¹; ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂SO) δ 2.47 (3 H, s, Me), 7.73 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 8.19 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 3-H), 8.26 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 6-H), 8.52 (1 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, 8-H) 12.86 (1 H, brs, NH); ¹³C NMR (HMBC / HMQC) δ 27.4 (2'-C), 125.9 (4δ-C), 127.5 (7-C), 129.4 (8a-C), 129.6 (6-C), 132.0 (8-C), 133.3 (4-C), 137.9 (3-C), 146.9 (5-C), 160.5 (1-C), 196.1 (1'-C); Anal. Found: C, 56.38; H, 3.26; N, 12.26. Calc. for C₁₁H₈N₂O₄: C, 56.90; H, 3.47; N, 11.86%.

5-Nitro-3-phenyl-3-[¹³C]-isocoumarin (148)

SnCl₄ (148.5 mg, 0.57 mmol) was added to 56 (100 mg, 0.52 mmol) in PhNO₂ (1.0 mL). After 30 min, [Carbonyl-¹³C]-benzoyl chloride (140.5 mg, 1.04 mmol) was added and the mixture was stirred at 150°C under Ar for 3 d. The cooled mixture was quenched with ice-water (2.0 mL) and extracted with EtOAc (2 × 20 mL). The combined extracts were washed (NaOH, brine) and dried (MgSO₄). Evaporation and chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 15:1) gave 148 (37 mg, 39%) as a pale yellow solid: Rₓ =0.57 (hexane/EtOAc 4:1); mp 145-146°C (lit.¹⁵⁸ 142-143°C for unlabelled compound); ¹H NMR δ 7.49-7.51 (3 H, m, Ph 3,4,5-H₃), 7.60 (1 H, t, J = 8.2 Hz, 7-H), 7.87 (1 H, brd, J = 5.5 Hz, 4-H),
7.94 (2 H, m, Ph 2,6-H), 8.49 (1 H, dd, J = 8.2, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 8.61 (1 H, ddd, J = 7.8, 1.2, 0.8 Hz, 8-H); 13C NMR (HMBC / HMQC) δ 96.3 (d, J = 75.1 Hz, 4-C), 122.3 (d, J = 3.8 Hz, 4a-C or 8a-C), 125.9 (d, J = 1.5 Hz, Ph 2,6-C or Ph 3,5-C), 127.1 (CH, s), 129.0 (CH, d, J = 4.6 Hz), 131.1 (d, J = 68.2 Hz, Ph 1-C), 131.2 (s, CH), 131.6 (s, CH), 131.9 (s, 8a-C or 4a-C), 135.8 (s, 8-C), 144.3 (d, J = 5 Hz, 5-C), 158.3 (s, 3-C), 156.8 (d, J = 75.9 Hz, 3-C for 3,4-13C2 isotomer), 156.8 (d, J = 67.5 Hz, 3-C for 1',3-13C2 isotomer), 160.3 (d, J = 3.1 Hz, 2-C); MS (ES +ve) m/z 559.1052 (2 M + Na) (13C212C28H18N2Na4O8 requires 559.1028), 537 (2 M + H), 291.0476 (M + Na) (13C12C14H9N1Na1O4 requires 291.0463), 269 (M + H).

5-Nitro-3-(4-nitrophenyl)isocoumarin (154)

SnCl4 (148.5 mg, 0.57 mmol) was added to 56 (100 mg, 0.52 mmol) in PhNO2 (1.0 mL). After 30 min, 4-nitrobenzoyl chloride (193 mg, 1.04 mmol) was added and the mixture was stirred at 150°C under Ar for 3 d. The cooled mixture was quenched with ice-water (2.0 mL) and extracted with EtOAc (2 × 20 mL). The combined extracts were washed (NaOH, brine) and dried (MgSO4). Evaporation and chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 15:1) gave 154 (9.8 mg, 12%) as a pale yellow solid: Rf =0.54 (hexane/EtOAc 4:1); mp 211-214 °C; IR νmax 1724 (C=O), 1626 (C=C), 1537 & 1344 (NO2) cm⁻¹; 1H NMR δ 7.70 (1 H, d, J = 8.0 Hz, 7-H), 8.03 (1 H, brs, 4-H), 8.11 (2 H, d, J = 7.2 Hz, Ar 2,6-H2), 8.36 (2 H, d, J = 7.2 Hz, Ar 3,5-H2), 8.54 (1 H, dd, J = 8.3, 1.1 Hz, 6-H), 8.67 (1 H, brd, J = 8.2 Hz, 8-H); 13C NMR (HMBC / HMQC) δ 99.2 (4-C), 122.8 (Cq), 124.3 (2',6'-C2), 126.7 (3',5'-C2), 128.5 (CH), 131.0 (Cq), 131.2 (Cq), 131.4 (CH), 135.9 (CH), 137.0 (Cq), 149 (Cq), 154 (Cq), 159 (1-C); MS m/z 335.0288 (M + Na) (C15H9N2NaO6 requires 335.0280); Anal. Found: C, 57.64; H, 2.51; N, 8.79. Calc. for C15H9N2O6: C, 57.70; H, 2.58; N, 8.97%.
3-(3-Methylphenyl)-5-nitroisocoumarin (155)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{O} \\
\text{NO}_2 \\
\text{SnCl}_4
\end{array}
\]

SnCl\(_4\) (148.5 mg, 0.57 mmol) was added to \(\text{SnCl}_4\) (100 mg, 0.52 mmol) in PhNO\(_2\) (1.0 mL). After 30 min, 3-methylbenzoyl chloride (161 mg, 1.04 mmol) was added and the mixture was stirred at 150°C under Ar for 3 d. The cooled mixture was quenched with ice-water (2.0 mL) and extracted with EtOAc (2 × 20 mL). The combined extracts were washed (aq. NaOH, brine) and dried (MgSO\(_4\)). Evaporation and chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 15:1) gave 155 (21.3 mg, 21%) as a pale yellow solid: R\(_f\) =0.53 (hexane:EtOAc; mp 152-154°C; IR \(\nu_{\text{max}}\) 1731 (C=O), 1621 (C=C), 1518 & 1337 (NO\(_2\)) cm\(^{-1}\); \(^1\)H NMR \(\delta\) 2.43 (3 H, s, Me) 7.30 (1 H, d, \(J = 7.4\) Hz, Ar 4-H), 7.40 (1 H, t, \(J = 7.7\) Hz, Ar 5-H), 7.58 (1 H, t, \(J = 8.0\) Hz, 7-H), 7.71 (1 H, d, \(J = 7.7\) Hz, Ar 6-H), 7.73 (1 H, s, Ar 2-H), 7.83 (1 H, s, 4-H), 8.47 (1 H, d, \(J = 8.2\) Hz, 6-H), 8.61 (1 H, d, \(J = 7.7\) Hz, 8-H); MS \(m/z\) 282.0761 (M + H) (C\(_{16}\)H\(_{12}\)NO\(_4\) requires 282.0766); Anal. Found: C, 68.58; H, 4.07; N, 4.79. Calc. for C\(_{16}\)H\(_{12}\)NO\(_4\): C, 68.32; H, 3.94; N, 4.98%.

5-Amino-3-(2-methylphenyl)isoquinolin-1-one hydrochloride (157)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{NH} \\
\text{O} \\
\text{NH}_3\text{Cl}
\end{array}
\]

To 158 (200 mg, 0.71 mmol) in EtOH (10 mL) and aq. HCl (34%, 0.4 mL), a slurry of 10% Pd on charcoal (80 mg) in EtOH (5 mL) was added. The mixture was stirred under H\(_2\) for 2 h. The suspension was then filtered through Celite\(^\circledR\). The Celite\(^\circledR\) pad and residue were suspended in water (100 mL) and heated. The hot suspension was filtered through a second Celite\(^\circledR\) pad. Evaporation of the solvent and drying gave 157 (161 mg, 52%) as a
buff solid: $R_f = 0.36$ (MeOH); mp >350°C (decomp); $^1$H NMR ((CD$_3$)$_2$SO) $\delta$ 2.32 (3 H, s, Me), 6.61 (1 H, s, 4-H), 7.16 (1 H, t, $J = 7.2$ Hz, 7-H), 7.32-7.38 (5 H, m, 6-H and Ar-, 3,4,5,6-H$_4$), 7.66 (1 H, d, $J = 7.2$ Hz, 8-H), 11.40 (1 H, s, NH); $^{13}$C NMR $\delta$ 19.7, 99.9, 123.1, 124.1, 125.8, 126.6, 127.4, 129.5, 130.3, 132.4, 133.6, 135.3, 135.4, 136.1, 155.2; MS (ESI +ve) $m/z$ 273.1001 (M + Na) (C$_{16}$H$_{14}$NaN$_2$O requires 273.1004); 251.1191 (M + H) (C$_{16}$H$_{15}$N$_2$O requires 251.1184).

5-Amino-3-(3-methylphenyl)isoquinolin-1-one (159)

![5-Amino-3-(3-methylphenyl)isoquinolin-1-one (159)](image)

To 155 (320 mg, 1.14 mmol) in EtOH (30 mL), a slurry of 10% Pd on charcoal (160 mg) in EtOH (10 mL) was added. The mixture was stirred under H$_2$ for 2 h. The suspension was then filtered through Celite®. Evaporation of the solvent from the filtrate and drying gave 159 (177 mg, 62%) as a pale buff solid: $R_f = 0.12$ (hexane / EtOAc 1:4); mp 340-342°C; $^1$H NMR ((CD$_3$)$_2$SO) $\delta$ 2.39 (3 H, s, Me), 5.76 (2 H, br s, NH$_2$), 6.88 (1 H, d, $J = 7.6$ Hz, 6-H), 7.09 (1 H, s, 4-H), 7.18 (1 H, d, $J = 7.6$ Hz, 8-H), 7.24 (1 H, t, $J = 7.6$ Hz, 7-H), 7.34-7.38 (1 H, d, Ar 4-H), 7.42 (1 H, t, $J = 7.4$ Hz, Ar 5-H), 7.63 (1 H, d, $J = 7.4$ Hz, Ar 6-H), 7.68 (1 H, s, Ar 2-H) 11.25 (1 H, br s, NH); $^{13}$C NMR $\delta$ 21.0, 98.5, 113.9, 115.2, 124.5, 125.6, 126.8, 127.0, 127.1, 129.3, 130.7, 134.3, 137.6, 138.2, 144.7, 163.0; MS (ESI +ve) $m/z$ 273.0987 (M + Na) (C$_{16}$H$_{14}$NaN$_2$O requires 273.1104); 251.1182 (M + H) (C$_{16}$H$_{15}$N$_2$O requires 251.1184).

5-Nitro-3-(4-iodophenyl)isocoumarin (159)
SnCl₄ (148.5 mg, 0.57 mmol) was added to 56 (100 mg, 0.52 mmol) in PhNO₂ (1.0 mL). After 30 min, 4-iodobenzoyl chloride (277.1 mg, 1.04 mmol) was added and the mixture was stirred at 150°C under Ar for 3 d. The cooled mixture was quenched with ice-water (2.0 mL) and upon standing a precipitate developed which was collected by filtration. Washing (EtOAc) and drying gave 156 (76.0 mg, 34%) as a pale yellow solid: R_f = 0.66 (hexane / EtOAc 10:1); mp 211-213°C; ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂SO) δ 7.24 (1 H, s, 4-H), 7.62 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.66 (2 H, d, J = 8.4 Hz, Ar 3,5-H₂), 7.88 (2 H, d, J = 8.4 Hz, Ar 3,5-H₂), 8.50 (1 H, dd, J = 7.8, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 8.65 (1 H, dd, J = 7.8, 1.2 Hz, 8-H); ¹³C NMR δ 90.7, 96.6, 127.3, 127.5, 128.3, 128.5, 131.5, 135.8, 137.9, 138.3, 143.4, 144.9, 152.4. MS (ESI +ve) m/z 415.9390 (M + Na) (C₁₅H₈N₂INO₄ requires 415.9396); 393.9581 (M + H) (C₁₅H₉N₂O₄ requires 393.9576).

3-(4-Iodophenyl)-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one (160)

A solution of 159 (360 mg, 1.2 mmol) in 2-methoxyethanol (80 mL) was saturated with NH₃ and boiled under reflux for 4 h. The solvent and excess reagent were evaporated until 10 mL remained. The concentrate was stored at 4°C for 16 h and the precipitated crystals were filtered, washed (H₂O, then EtOH) and recrystallised (MeOH) to give 160 (198 mg, 59%) as bright yellow crystals: R_f = 0.31 (hexane / EtOAc 1:4); mp 254-256°C; ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂SO) δ 7.26 (1 H, s, 4-H), 7.60 (2 H, d, J = 8.4 Hz, Ar 3,5-H₂), 7.69 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.92 (1 H, d, J = 8.4 Hz, Ar 2,6-H₂), 8.47 (1 H, dd, J = 7.8, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 8.60 (1 H, dd, J = 7.8, 1.2 Hz, 8-H), 12.12 (1 H br s, NH); ¹³C NMR δ 97.2, 97.4,
5-Amino-3-(4-iodophenyl)isoquinolin-1-one (161)

A mixture of 160 (588 mg, 1.5 mmol) and SnCl₂ (870 mg, 4.6 mmol) in EtOH (40 ml) was heated at 70°C for 4 h, then poured into ice-H₂O (200 ml). The resulting suspension was made alkaline (aq. NaOH) and the precipitate was filtered. Extraction of the filtrate (EtOAc), evaporation and recrystallisation (hexane, EtOAc) gave 161 (277 mg, 51%) as a pale buff powder: Rₜ = 0.26 (hexane / EtOAc 1:4); mp 238-241°C; ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂SO) δ 5.81 (2 H, br s, NH₂) 7.26 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 6-H), 7.39 (1 H, s, 4-H), 7.14 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 8-H), 7.39 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.64 (2 H, d, J = 8.4 Hz, Ar 3,5-H₂), 7.83 (2 H, d, J = 8.4 Hz, Ar 2,6-H₂) 11.89 (1 H, br s, NH); ¹³C NMR δ 99.0, 99.9, 113.7, 115.2, 128.4, 129.8, 130.1, 133.0, 135.9, 137.3, 137.9, 144.6, 145.0, 164.8; MS (ESI +ve) m/z 384.9808 (M + Na) (C₁₅H₁₁INaN₂O requires 384.9814); 369.9987 (M + H) (C₁₅H₁₁IN₂O requires 362.9994).

3-(2-Methylphenyl)-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one (162)
A solution of 163 (360 mg, 1.2 mmol) in 2-methoxyethanol (80 mL) was saturated with NH₃ and boiled under reflux for 4 h. The solvent and excess reagent were evaporated until 10 mL remained. The concentrate was stored at 4°C for 16 h and the precipitated crystals were filtered, washed (H₂O, then EtOH) and recrystallised (MeOH) to give 162 (198 mg, 59%) as bright yellow crystals: R_f = 0.31 (hexane / EtOAc 1:4); mp 254-256°C; ¹H NMR ((CD3)₂SO) δ 2.33 (3 H, s, Me), 7.34 (2 H, t, J = 8.0 Hz, Ar 4,5-H₂), 7.40 (2 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, Ar 3,6-H₂), 7.67 (1 H, t, J = 8.0 Hz, 7-H), 8.48 (1 H, dd, J = 8.0, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 8.61 (1 H, dd, J = 8.0, 1.2 Hz, 8-H); ¹³C NMR δ 19.5, 99.0, 125.6, 125.9, 126.6, 129.3, 129.6, 129.7, 130.5, 133.2, 134.5, 134.5, 136.0, 144.6, 145.0, 160.9; MS (ESI +ve) m/z 303.0752 (M + Na) (C₁₆H₁₂NaN₂O₃ requires 303.0746), 281.0922 (M + H) (C₁₆H₁₃N₂O₃ requires 281.0926).

3-(2-Methylphenyl)-5-nitroisocoumarin (163)

SnCl₄ (148.5 mg, 0.57 mmol) was added to 56 (100 mg, 0.52 mmol) in PhNO₂ (1.0 mL). After 30 min, 2-methylbenzoyl chloride (161 mg, 1.04 mmol) was added and the mixture was stirred at 150°C under Ar for 3 d. The cooled mixture was quenched with ice-water (2.0 mL) and extracted with EtOAc (2 × 20 mL). The combined extracts were washed (NaOH, brine) and dried (MgSO₄). Evaporation and chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 15:1) gave 163 (37 mg, 25%) as a bright yellow solid: R_f = 0.51 (hexane / EtOAc 4:1); mp 132-134°C; ¹H NMR (CDCl₃) δ 2.54 (3 H, s, Me), 7.29-7.34 (2 H, m, Ar 4,5-H₂), 7.40 (1 H, dt, J = 7.2, 1.6 Hz, Ar 3-H), 7.52 (1 H, d, J = 0.8 Hz, 4-H), 7.57 (1 H, dd, J =
7.2, 1.6 Hz, Ar 6-H), 7.64 (1 H, t, J = 8.0 Hz, 7-H), 8.51 (1 H, dd, J = 8.0, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 8.67 (1 H, ddd, J = 8.0, 1.2, 0.8 Hz, 8-H); $^{13}$C NMR $\delta$ 20.9, 100.6, 100.6, 122.2, 126.3, 127.4, 129.4, 130.6, 131.4, 131.5, 131.8, 132.1, 135.8, 137.0, 144.3, 158.9, 160.6; MS (ESI +ve) m/z 304.0581 (M + Na) (C$_{16}$H$_{11}$NaNO$_4$ requires 304.0586); 251.0769 (M + H) (C$_{16}$H$_{12}$NO$_4$ requires 282.0766).

5-Nitro-3-(3-methylphenyl)isoquinolin-1-one (164)

![NMR spectrum](image)

**Method A:**

A solution of 155 (360 mg, 1.2 mmol) in 2-methoxyethanol (80 mL) was saturated with NH$_3$ and heated under reflux for 4 h. The solvent and excess reagent were evaporated until 10 mL remained. The concentrate was stored at 4°C for 16 h and the precipitated crystals were filtered, washed (H$_2$O, then EtOH) and recrystallised (MeOH) to give 164 (198 mg, 59%) as bright yellow crystals: R$_f$ = 0.31 (hexane / EtOAc 1:4); mp 325-328°C; $^1$H NMR ((CD$_3$)$_2$SO) $\delta$ 2.46 (3 H, s, Me), 7.22 (1 H, s, 4-H), 7.34 (1 H, d, J = 7.4 Hz, Ar 4-H), 7.42 (1 H, t, J = 7.4 Hz, Ar 5-H), 7.57 (1 H, d, J = 7.5, Ar 6-H), 7.62 (1 H, s, Ar 2-H), 7.65 (1 H, t, J = 7.9 Hz, 7-H), 8.47 (1 H, dd, J = 7.8, 1.1 Hz, 6-H), 8.59 (1 H, dd, J = 7.8, 1.1 Hz, 8-H); $^{13}$C NMR $\delta$ 20.9, 97.0, 124.3, 125.2, 126.5, 127.6, 128.8, 129.7, 130.7, 130.9, 133.1, 133.4, 138.2, 144.3, 144.7, 161.3; MS (ESI +ve) m/z 281.0922 (M + H) (C$_{16}$H$_{13}$N$_2$O$_3$ requires 281.0926).

**Method B:**
Compound 173 (250 mg, 0.8 mmol) was stirred in ag. HBr (78 %, 40 mL) at 80°C for 4 h. Evaporation and recrystallisation gave 155 (195 mg, 85%) as bright yellow crystals: data as above.

1,3-Dichloro-5-nitroisoquinoline (168)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Cl} \\
\text{N} \\
\text{Cl} \\
\text{NO}_2
\end{array}
\]

To a cooled solution of 1,3-dichloroisoquinoline 172 (1.00 g, 5.05 mmol) in conc. H₂SO₄ (5 mL) was added aq. HNO₃ (70%, 0.43 g, 6.7 mmol) in conc. H₂SO₄ (3 mL) dropwise at 0-5°C. The mixture was stirred at 0°C for 2 h, then poured onto ice. The precipitate was collected, washed (H₂O), dried under vacuum and recrystallised (EtOAc / hexanes) to give 168 (1.12 g, 91%) as pale yellow needles: mp 175-177°C (lit.¹⁷⁸ mp 168-170°C); \(^1\)H NMR \(\delta\) 7.79 (1 H, t, \(J = 7.8\) Hz, 7-H), 8.53 (1 H, s, 4-H), 8.61 (1 H, dd, \(J = 7.8, 0.8\) Hz, 6-H), 8.70 (1 H, dd, \(J = 7.8, 0.8\) Hz, 8-H).

3-Chloro-1-methoxy-5-nitroisoquinoline (171)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{OMe} \\
\text{N} \\
\text{Cl} \\
\text{NO}_2
\end{array}
\]

To 168 (6.0 g, 25 mmol) in anhydrous MeOH (90 mL) was added finely divided sodium (0.7 g, 31.5 mmol) and the mixture was heated under reflux for 16 h. The excess solvent was then evaporated until 20 mL remained and the residue was diluted with H₂O and extracted (CHCl₃). Evaporation of the solvent and drying gave 171 (4.8 g, 82%) as a yellow solid: \(R_f = 0.54\) (hexane / EtOAc 10:1); mp 172-174°C; \(^1\)H NMR \(\delta\) 4.04 (3 H, s, OMe), 7.60 (1 H, t, \(J = 8.0\) Hz, 7-H), 8.22 (1 H, s, 3-H), 8.51 (1 H, dd, \(J = 8.0, 1.2\) Hz, 6-H), 8.58 (1 H, dd, \(J = 8.0, 1.2\) Hz, 8-H); \(^{13}\)C NMR \(\delta\) 55.1, 109.8, 119.4, 119.4, 125.0,
129.3, 131.5, 131.9, 147.4, 160.9; MS m/z 239.0216 (M + H) (C_{10}H_{8}^{35}ClN_{2}O_{3} requires 239.0223).

**1-Methoxy-3-(3-methylphenyl)-5-nitroisoquinoline (173)**

![Structure of 1-Methoxy-3-(3-methylphenyl)-5-nitroisoquinoline](image)

Compound 171 (0.84 g, 3.53 mmol), Pd$_2$(dba)$_3$ (0.18 g, 0.35 mmol), SPhos (0.14 g, 0.70 mmol), K$_3$PO$_4$ (1.5g, 7.06 mmol) and 3-methylphenylboronic acid (0.72g 5.30 mmol) were placed in a dry flask. Degassed toluene (20 mL) was added and the mixture was stirred at 100°C for 16 h. Evaporation and chromatography (hexane/EtOAc 15:1) gave 173 (0.70 g, 67%) as yellow crystals: R$_f$ = 0.69 (hexane / EtOAc 10:1); mp 166-169°C; $^1$H NMR (CDCl$_3$) $\delta$ 2.36 (3 H, s, ArMe), 4.11 (3 H, s, OMe), 7.13 (1 H, d, $J$ = 7.8 Hz, Ar 4-H), 7.27 (1 H, t, $J$ = 7.8 Hz, Ar 5-H), 7.36 (1 H, t, $J$ = 7.4 Hz, 7-H), 7.83 (1 H, s, Ar 2-H), 7.85 (1 H, d, $J$ = 7.6 Hz Ar 6-H), 8.23-8.26 (2 H, m, 6-H and 4-H), 8.39 (1 H, d, $J$ = 7.4 Hz 8-H); $^{13}$C NMR (HMBC / HMQC) $\delta$ 21.6 (ArMe), 54.0 (OMe), 104.9 (4-C), 124.2 (Ar 6-C), 124.2 (7-C), 127.6 (Ar 2-C) 128.5 (6-C), 128.6 (Ar 5-C), 130.1 (Ar 4-C), 131.1 (8-C), 131.3 (C$_q$), 138.2 (Ar 1-C), 138.5 (C$_q$),151.8 (3-C), 151.9 (5-C), 160.3 (1-C); MS m/z 295.1076 (M + H) (C$_{17}$H$_{15}$N$_2$O$_3$ requires 295.1083).

**2,6-Dicyanoethylbenzene (174)**

LiN(SiMe$_3$)$_2$ in dry THF (1.0 M, 15.4 mL, 15.4 mmol) was added to 2,6-dicyanotoluene 41 (2.0 g, 14 mmol) in dry THF (30 mL) at -78°C under N$_2$. After 30 min, MeI (2.1 mL, 2.39 g, 16.8 mmol) was added; the mixture allowed to warm to room temperature and was stirred for a further 2 h. The reaction mixture was quenched with ice-water and extracted with CHCl$_3$. Evaporation and recrystallisation gave 174 (1.7 g, 78%) as pale
yellow crystals: $R_f = 0.91$ (hexane / EtOAc 4:1); mp 115-117°C (lit.$^{170}$ mp 116-118°C);
$^1$H NMR δ 1.36 (3 H, t, $J = 7.6$ Hz, Me), 3.06 (2 H, q, $J = 7.6$ Hz, CH$_2$), 7.42 (1 H, t, $J = 7.7$ Hz, 4-H), 7.82 (2 H, $J = 7.7$ Hz, 3,5-H$_2$).

(±)-3-Cyano-2-(1-methyl-2-oxoethyl)benzonitrile (176)

![Chemical Structure](image_url)

Compound 174 (1.0 g, 6 mmol) was boiled under reflux in dimethylformamide dimethyl acetal (10.0 g, 84 mmol) under N$_2$ for 5 d. 4-Methylbenzenesulfonic acid monohydrate (100 mg, 0.53 mmol) was added and the mixture was stirred for a further 2 d. Evaporation and chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 3:2) gave 176 (136 mg, 12%) as a yellow solid: $R_f = 0.77$ (hexane / EtOAc 4:1); mp 229-232°C; $^1$H NMR δ 1.80 (3 H, d, $J = 7.7$ Hz, Me), 4.24 (1 H, q, $J = 7.4$ Hz, CH), 7.56 (1 H, t, $J = 7.8$ Hz, 5-H), 7.92 (2 H, d, $J = 7.8$ Hz, 4,6-H$_2$), 9.84 (1 H, s, CHO); $^{13}$C NMR δ 14.3, 51.1, 114.8, 116.2, 128.8, 137.5, 146.4, 197.5. MS (ES +ve) m/z 185.0720 (M + H) (C$_{11}$H$_9$N$_2$O requires 186.0555).

5-Cyano-4-methylisocoumarinn (177)

![Chemical Structure](image_url)

Compound 176 (100 mg, 0.54 mmol) was stirred with Pr$_2$NH (60 mg, 0.59 mmol) in THF (10 mL) for 24 h. Evaporation and chromatography (hexane/EtOAc 6:1) gave 177 (13 mg, 13%) as a white solid: $R_f = 0.61$ (hexane / EtOAc 4:1); mp 237-239°C; $^1$H NMR δ 2.52 (3 H, d, $J = 1.2$ Hz, Me), 7.17 (1 H, q, $J = 1.2$ Hz, 3-H), 7.62 (1 H, t, $J = 7.8$ Hz, 7-H), 8.08 (1 H, dd, $J = 7.8$, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 8.57 (1 H, dd, $J = 7.8$, 1.2 Hz); $^{13}$C NMR δ 15.4, 107.8, 111.7, 122.8, 128.2, 135.1, 135.2, 137.4, 141.7, 143.8, 160.8. MS (ES +ve) m/z
186.0552 (M + H) (C_{11}H_{8}NO \text{ requires 186.0555}) 208.0372 (M + Na) (C_{11}H_{7}NNaO_{2}) \text{ requires 208.0374.}

5-Amino-4-bromoisoquinolin-1(2H)-one (184)

![5-Amino-4-bromoisoquinolin-1(2H)-one](image)

A mixture of 49 (0.27 g, 1.0 mmol) and SnCl\textsubscript{2} (0.65 g, 3.2 mmol) in EtOH (10 mL) was heated at 80° C for 4 h, then poured into ice-H\textsubscript{2}O (40 mL). The resulting suspension was made alkaline with aq. NaOH and the precipitate was filtered. Extraction of the filtrate (EtOAc), evaporation and chromatography (EtOAc:hexane 4:1) gave 189 (0.14 g, 54%) as a buff solid: R\textsubscript{f} = 0.33 (EtOAc:hexane 1:4); mp 213-216°C \text{ (lit}\textsuperscript{175} 210-212°C); \textsuperscript{1}H NMR ((CD\textsubscript{3})\textsubscript{2}SO) \delta 5.91 (2 H, br s, NH\textsubscript{2}), 7.74 (1 H, s, 3-H), 7.02 (1 H, dd, J = 8.4, 1.5 Hz, 6-H), 7.20 (1 H, s, 3-H), 7.26 (1 H, t, J = 8.4 Hz, 7-H), 7.54 (1 H, dd, J = 8.0, 1.4 Hz, 8-H), 11.34 (1 H, br s, NH)

4-Bromo-1-chloro-5-nitro-isoquinoline (189)

![4-Bromo-1-chloro-5-nitro-isoquinoline](image)

Vilsmeier’s reagent was prepared by adding oxalyl chloride (5.3 mL, 7.67 g, 60.4 mmol) dropwise over 30 min to DMF (4.7 mL, 4.4 g, 60.4 mmol) in 1,2-dichloroethane (35 mL) at 0°C. The suspension was stirred at room temperature for 10 min, then 49 (7.3 g, 27.3 mmol) was added. The mixture was then heated at 80°C for 6 h, allowed to cool and diluted with CH\textsubscript{2}Cl\textsubscript{2}. Washing (H\textsubscript{2}O), drying and evaporation of solvent gave 189 (7.0 g, 89%) as a yellow solid: mp 164-166°C; \textsuperscript{1}H NMR (CDCl\textsubscript{3}) \delta 7.82 (1 H, t, J = 7.6 Hz, 7-H), 8.01 (1 H, dd, J = 7.6, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 8.62 (1 H, s, 3-H), 8.65 (1 H, dd, J = 7.6, 1.2 Hz,
8-H; $^{13}$C NMR $\delta$ 112.4, 127.1, 127.8, 128.2, 128.6, 131.0, 147.4, 147.6, 152.0; MS (ESI +ve) m/z 240.0682 (M + Na) (C$_{12}$H$_{11}$NaNO$_3$ requires 240.0637); 218.0819 (M + H) (C$_{16}$H$_{15}$N$_2$O requires 218.0817).

1-Methoxy-4-methyl-5-nitroisoquinoline (190)

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\begin{array}{c}
\text{O}
\end{array}
\]

Method A:

To 46 (100 mg, 0.35 mmol) in dry THF (9 mL) was added n-BuLi in THF (1.6 M, 0.24 mL, 0.38 mmol) at -78°C. The suspension was stirred for 20 min. Iodomethane (55.4 mg, 0.39 mmol) in THF (1 mL) was added and the mixture allowed to warm to room temperature over 1 h. The reaction was quenched with H$_2$O and extracted (CH$_2$Cl$_2$).

Evaporation and chromatography (hexane/EtOAc 15:1) gave 190 (7 mg, 9%) as a yellow-orange solid: R$_f$ = 0.54 (hexane / EtOAc 5:1); mp 90-93°C; $^1$H NMR (CDCl$_3$) $\delta$ 2.91 (3 H, s, 4-Me), 4.09 (3 H, s, OMe), 7.50 (1 H, t, $J$ = 8.6 Hz, 7-H), 7.75 (1 H, d, $J$ = 7.4 Hz, 8-H), 7.87 (1 H, s, 3-H) 8.42 (1 H, d, $J$ = 7.4 Hz, 6-H); $^{13}$C NMR (HMBC / HMQC) $\delta$ 16.00 (4-Me), 53.94 (OMe), 120.00 (4-C), 125.02 (7-C), 125.34 (4a-C), 125.66 (8-C), 128.34 (6-C), 128.91 (8a-C), 143.24 (5-C), 143.58 (3-C), 159.99 (1-C); MS (ES +ve) m/z 241.0582 (M + Na) (C$_{10}$H$_{10}$N$_2$NaO$_3$ requires 241.0589), 219.0772 (M + H) (C$_{10}$H$_{11}$N$_2$O$_3$ requires 219.0770).

Method B:
Compound 46 (1.00 g, 3.52 mmol), Pd$_2$(dba)$_3$ (0.18 g, 0.35 mmol), SPHOS (0.14 g, 0.70 mmol) and SnMe$_4$ (0.95 g, 5.28 mol) were placed in a dry flask. Degassed toluene (20 mL) was added and the mixture was stirred at 100°C for 7 d. Evaporation and chromatography (hexane/EtOAc 15:1) gave 190 (0.77 g, 72%) as a yellow-orange solid: data as above.

4-Phenyl-1-methoxy-5-nitroisoquinoline (194)

![4-Phenyl-1-methoxy-5-nitroisoquinoline](image)

Compound 46 (1.00 g, 3.53 mmol), Pd$_2$(dba)$_3$ (0.18 g, 0.35 mmol), SPhos (0.14 g, 0.70 mmol), K$_3$PO$_4$ (1.5g, 7.06 mmol) and benzeneboronic acid (0.64g 5.30 mmol) were placed in a dry flask. Degassed toluene (40 mL) was added and the mixture was stirred at 100°C for 16 h. Evaporation and chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 10:1) gave 194 (0.85 g, 86%) as yellow crystals: R$_f$ = 0.79 (hexane / EtOAc 1:1); mp 118-120°C; $^1$H NMR (CDCl$_3$) $\delta$ 4.20 (3 H, s, OMe), 7.27-7.31 (2 H, m, Ph 2,6-H$_2$), 7.38-7.43 (3 H, m, Ph 3,4,5-H$_3$), 7.62 (1 H, t, $J$ = 8.0 Hz, 7-H), 7.97 (1 H, dd, $J$ = 8.0, 1.2 Hz, 6-H or 8-H), 8.06 (1 H, s, 3-H), 8.60 (1 H, dd, $J$ = 8.0, 1.2 Hz, 8-H or 6-H); $^{13}$C NMR $\delta$ 54.4, 120.7, 124.5, 125.5, 127.4, 127.7, 127.8, 128.1, 128.4, 129.1, 137.5, 144.7, 147.6, 160.3; MS (ES +ve) m/z 303.0740 (M + Na) (C$_{16}$H$_{11}$NaN$_2$O$_3$ requires 303.0746); 281.0915 (M + H) (C$_{16}$H$_{12}$N$_2$O$_3$ requires 281.0926); Anal. Found: C, 68.50; H, 4.26; N, 10.19. Calc. for C$_{16}$H$_{12}$N$_2$O$_3$: C, 68.57; H, 4.32; N, 10.00%.

5-Amino-4-phenylisoquinolin-1-one (195)
To 196 (46 mg, 0.17 mmol) in EtOH (10 mL), a slurry of 10% Pd on charcoal (50 mg) in EtOH (5 mL) was added. The mixture was stirred under H₂ for 6 h. The suspension was then filtered through Celite®. Evaporation of the solvent and drying gave 195 (21 mg, 51%) as a pale yellow solid: Rᵣ = 0.47 (hexane / EtOAc, 1:1); mp 236-240°C; ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂SO) δ 4.45 (2 H, s, NH₂), 6.70 (1 H, brs, 3-H), 6.86 (1 H, dd, J = 7.8, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 7.23 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.36 (2 H, dd, J = 7.3, 1.2, Ph 2,6-H₂), 7.41-7.47 (3 H, m, Ph 3,4,5-H₃), 7.60 (1 H, d, J = 7.8, 1.2 Hz, 8-H), 11.20 (1 H, br, NH); ¹³C NMR (HMBC / HMQC) δ 116.2 (8-C), 118.40 (6-C), 122.6 (4a-C) 125.4 (4-C), 127.4 (3-C), 128.0 (7-C), 128.3 (Ph 4-C), 129.1 (Ph 3,5-C₂), 130.2 (8a-C), 130.3 (Ph 2,6-C₂), 141.1 (Ph 1-C), 142.3 (5a-C), 160.1 (1-C); MS (ES +ve), m/z 259.0841 (M + Na) (C₁₅H₁₁NaN₂O requires 259.0847), m/z 237.1017 (M + H) (C₁₅H₁₂N₂O requires 237.1022); Anal. Calcd. for C₁₅H₁₁NaN₂O: C, 76.26; H, 5.12; N, 11.37. Found: C, 76.68; H, 5.46; N, 11.43.

5-Nitro-4-phenylisoquinolin-1-one (196)

Compound 194 (182 mg, 0.65 mmol) was stirred in aq. HBr (48 %, 30ml) at 50°C for 4 h. Evaporation and recrystallisation (hexane / EtOAc) gave 196 (112 mg, 65%) as yellow crystals solid: Rᵣ = 0.34 (hexane / EtOAc 1:1); mp 211-214°C; ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂SO) δ 7.20 (3 H, m, 3-H and Ph 2,6-H₂), 7.32 (3 H, m, Ph 3,4,5-H₃), 7.70 (1 H, t, J = 7.6 Hz, 7-
H), 8.14 (1 H, dd, J = 7.8, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 8.58 (1 H, dd, J = 7.8, 1.2 Hz, 8-H); $^{13}$C NMR δ 113.5, 126.4, 127.2, 127.6, 128.0, 128.2, 128.5, 129.0, 131.6, 133.1, 136.7, 147.0, 159.7; MS (ES +ve) m/z 289.0598 (M + Na) (C$^{15}$H$^{10}$NaN$_{2}$O$_{3}$ requires 289.0589); 267.0761 (M + H) (C$^{15}$H$_{11}$N$_{2}$O$_{3}$ requires 267.0770); Anal. Found: C, 68.60; H, 3.48; N, 10.49. Calc. for C$^{15}$H$^{10}$N$_{2}$O$_{3}$: C, 67.67; H, 3.59; N, 10.52%.

5-Amino-4-(4-trifluoromethylphenyl)isoquinolin-1-one (197)

To 199 (56 mg, 0.18 mmol) in EtOH (10 mL), a slurry of 10% Pd on charcoal (50 mg) in EtOH (5 mL) was added. The mixture was stirred under H$_2$ for 6 h. The suspension was then filtered through Celite®. Evaporation of the solvent and drying gave 197 (29 mg, 53%) as a pale yellow solid: R$_f$ = 0.52 (hexane / EtOAc, 1:1); mp 265-267°C; $^1$H NMR ((CD$_3$)$_2$SO) δ 4.37 (2 H, s, NH$_2$), 6.81 (1 H, brs, 3-H), 6.93 (1 H, dd, J = 7.8, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 7.27 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.57 (2 H, d, J = 7.6 Hz, Ar 2,6-H$_2$), 7.63 (1 H, dd, J = 7.8, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 7.77 (1 H, d, J = 7.6 Hz, 8-H), 11.31 (1 H, brs, NH); $^{13}$C NMR δ 112.9, 114.7, 115.8, 118.2, 120.9, 124.9 (m, Ph 3,5-C$_2$), 127.5, 127.8, 127.9 (m, CF$_3$), 128.8 (m, Ph C-4), 130.2, 130.5, 143.0, 144.2, 161.5; MS (ES +ve) m/z 327.0729 (M + Na) (C$_{17}$H$_{11}$F$_{3}$NaN$_{2}$O requires 327.0712), 305.0905 (M + H) (C$_{17}$H$_{12}$F$_{3}$N$_{2}$O requires 305.0902); Anal. Calcd. for C$_{17}$H$_{11}$F$_{3}$N$_{2}$O: C, 63.16; H, 3.64; N, 9.21. Found: C, 63.21; H, 3.69; N, 9.30%

1-Methoxy-5-nitro-4-(4-trifluoromethylphenyl)isoquinoline (198)
Compound 46 (1.00 g, 3.53 mmol), Pd$_2$(dba)$_3$ (0.18 g, 0.35 mmol), SPhos (0.14 g, 0.70 mmol), K$_3$PO$_4$ (1.5g, 7.06 mmol) and (4-trifluoromethylphenyl)boronic acid (1.00 g, 5.30 mmol) were placed in a dry flask. Degassed toluene (40 mL) was added and the mixture was stirred at 100°C for 16 h. Evaporation and chromatography (hexane/EtOAc 10:1) gave 198 (1.00 g, 81%) as yellow crystals; R$_f$ = 0.76 (hexane / EtOAc 1:1); mp 95-97°C; $^1$H NMR (CDCl$_3$) $\delta$ 4.25 (3 H, s, OMe), 7.43 (2 H, d, J = 8.8 Hz, Ar 2,6-H$_2$), 7.68-7.72 (3 H, m, 7-H and Ar 3,5-H$_3$), 8.05 (1 H, dd, J = 8.4, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 8.07 (1 H, s, 3-H), 8.66 (1 H, dd, J = 8.4, 1.2 Hz, 8-H); $^{13}$C NMR $\delta$ 54.5, 120.7, 123.1, 125.4 (q, J = 3.7 Hz, Ar 3.5-C$_2$), 125.8, 127.3 (m, CF$_3$), 127.6, 128.3, 129.4, 130.0 (m, Ar 4-C), 141.2, 145.0, 160.8; MS (ES +ve) m/z 371.0631 (M + Na) (C$_{17}$H$_{11}$F$_3$NaN$_2$O$_3$ requires 371.0619), 349.0805 (M + H) (C$_{17}$H$_{12}$F$_3$N$_2$O$_3$ requires 349.0800); Anal. Calcd. for C$_{17}$H$_{11}$F$_3$NaN$_2$O$_3$: C, 58.63; H, 3.18; N, 8.05. Found: C, 58.47; H, 3.23; N, 7.96.

5-Nitro-4-(4-trifluoromethylphenyl)isoquinolin-1-one (199)
Compound 198 (182 mg, 0.65 mmol) was stirred in aq. HBr (48%, 30 mL) at 50°C for 4 h. Evaporation and recrystallisation gave 199 (112 mg, 65%) as yellow crystals: \( R_f = 0.37 \) (hexane / EtOAc 1:1); mp 283-285°C; \(^1\)H NMR ((CD\(_3\))\(_2\)SO) \( \delta \) 7.34 (1 H, d, \( J = 6.5 \) Hz, 3-H), 7.46 (2 H, d, \( J = 7.8 \) Hz, Ar 3,5-H\(_2\)), 7.70 (2 H, d, \( J = 7.8 \) Hz, Ar 2,6-H\(_2\)), 7.73 (1 H, t, \( J = 8.2 \) Hz, 7-H), 8.22 (1 H, dd, \( J = 8.2, 1.2 \) Hz, 6-H), 8.61 (1 H, dd, \( J = 8.2, 1.2 \) Hz, 8-H), 12.09 (1 H, d, \( J = ca. 5.5 \) Hz, NH); \(^{13}\)C NMR \( \delta \) 112.0, 125.1 (q, \( J = 3.8 \) Hz, Ar 3,5-C\(_2\)), 126.7, 127.7, 128.0, 128.1, 128.2, 129.3, 131.9 (m, Ar 4-C), 134.0 (m, CF\(_3\)), 141.1, 146.7, 159.8; Anal. Calc. for C\(_{16}\)H\(_9\)F\(_3\)N\(_2\)O\(_3\): C, 57.50; H, 2.71; N, 8.38. Found: C, 57.14; H, 2.67; N, 8.04 %.

5-Amino-4-(4-methoxyphenyl)isoquinolin-1-one (200)

To 203 (100 mg, 0.26 mmol) in EtOH (15 mL), a slurry of 10% Pd on charcoal (80 mg) in EtOH (8 mL) was added. The mixture was stirred under \( \text{H}_2 \) for 16 h. The suspension was then filtered through Celite\(^\text{®}\). Evaporation of the solvent and drying gave 200 (32 mg, 47%) as a pale buff solid: \( R_f = 0.55 \) (hexane / EtOAc, 1:1); mp 240-243°C; \(^1\)H NMR ((CD\(_3\))\(_2\)SO) \( \delta \) 4.03 (3 H, s, Me), 4.62 (2 H, br s, NH\(_2\)), 6.85 (1 H, dd, \( J = 7.8, 1.2 \) Hz, 6-H), 6.93 (2 H, d, \( J = 8.6 \) Hz, Ar 3,5-H\(_2\)), 7.34 (2 H, d, \( J = 8.6 \) Hz, Ar 2,6-H\(_2\)), 7.39 (1 H,
To NaH (300 mg, 12.5 mmol) in anhydrous DMF (10 mL) was added BnOH (680 mg, 6.3 mmol) and the mixture was stirred for 30 min. 189 (1.5 g, 5.2 mmol) in anhydrous DMF (30 mL) was added and the suspension was heated at 100°C for 48 h. The excess solvent was then evaporated until 5 mL remained and the residue was diluted with H2O and extracted (CHCl3). Evaporation and chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 15:1) gave 201 (1.3 g, 71%) as a yellow solid: mp 106-108°C; Rf = 0.67 (hexane / EtOAc 10:1); 1H NMR (CDCl3) δ 5.58 (2 H, s, CH2), 7.40 (3 H, m, Ph 3,4,5-H3), 7.52 (2 H, d, J = 7.1 Hz, Ph 2,6-H2), 7.62 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.90 (1 H, dd, J = 7.1, 1.2 Hz, 8-H), 8.33 (1 H, s, 3-H), 8.55 (1 H, dd, J = 7.1, 1.2 Hz, 6-H); 13C NMR (CDCl3) δ 68.96 (CH2), 104.5, 122.0, 126.3, 126.9, 127.0, 128.2, 128.3, 128.5, 128.6, 136.1, 146.2, 147.1, 159.7; MS (ESI +ve) m/z 382.9826 (C16H1181BrNaN2O3 requires 382.9830); 380.9860 (M + Na) (C16H1179BrNaN2O3 requires 380.9851), 359.0039 (M + H) (C16H1279BrN2O3 requires 359.0031).
Further elution gave **202** (184 mg, 12%) as a red-orange solid mp 127-130°C; R<sub>f</sub> = 0.37 (hexane / EtOAc 10:1); <sup>1</sup>H NMR (CDCl<sub>3</sub>) δ 3.14 (6 H, s, NMe<sub>2</sub>), 7.52 (1 H, t, J = 7.6 Hz, 7-H), 7.88 (1 H, dd, J = 7.6, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 8.26 (1 H, dd, J = 7.6, 1.2 Hz, 8-H), 8.30 (1 H, s, 3-H); <sup>13</sup>C NMR (CDCl<sub>3</sub>) (HMBC / HMQC) δ 43.06 NMe<sub>2</sub>, 103.28 (4-C), 122.78 (8a-C), 124.21 (4-C), 126.38 (6-C), 127.95 (4a-C), 130.65 (8-C), 147.04 (3-C), 147.42 (5-C), 160.87 (1-C); MS (ESI +ve) m/z 319.9840 (M + Na) (C<sub>11</sub>H<sub>10</sub>BrN<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub> requires 319.9834); 317.9848 (M + Na) (C<sub>11</sub>H<sub>10</sub>BrNaN<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub> requires 317.9854).

1-Benzylbenzoyl-(4-methoxyphenyl)-5-nitroisoquinoline (203)

![Chemical structure](image)

Compound **201** (500 mg, 1.4 mmol), Pd<sub>2</sub>(dba)<sub>3</sub> (72 mg, 0.14 mmol), SPhos (168 mg, 0.70 mmol), K<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> (594 mg, 2.8 mmol) and 4-methoxyphenylboronic acid (317 mg, 2.1 mmol) were placed in a dry flask. Degassed toluene (20 mL) was added and the mixture was stirred at 100°C for 16 h. Chromatography (hexane / EtOAc, 20:1) gave **203** (330 mg, 61%) as a yellow solid; R<sub>f</sub> = 0.74 (hexane / EtOAc, 20:1); mp 162-164°C; <sup>1</sup>H NMR (CDCl<sub>3</sub>) δ 3.85 (3 H, s, OMe), 5.64 (2 H, s, CH<sub>2</sub>), 6.93 (2 H, d, J = 8.6 Hz, Ar 3,5-H<sub>2</sub>), 7.21 (2 H, d, J = 8.6 Hz, Ar 2,6-H<sub>2</sub>), 7.36-7.45 (3 H, m, Ph 3,4,5-H<sub>3</sub>), 7.55 (2 H, d, J = 7.5 Hz, Ph 2,6-H<sub>2</sub>), 7.60 (1 H, t, J = 8.2 Hz, 7-H), 7.95 (1 H, d, J = 7.4 Hz, 6-H or 8-H), 8.04 (1 H, s, 3-H), 8.63 (1 H, d, J = 7.4 Hz, 8-H or 6-H); <sup>13</sup>C NMR (HMBC / HMQC) δ 55.2 (Me), 68.6 (CH<sub>2</sub>), 108.7, 113.8 (Ar 3,5-C<sub>2</sub>), 120.7 (8a-C), 124.4 (Ar 1-C), 125.4 (7-C), 127.2 (6-C), 128.0 (Ph 4-C), 128.1 (4a-C), 128.2 (Ph 3.5-C<sub>2</sub>), 128.6 (Ph 2,6-C<sub>2</sub>), 129.0 (8-C), 129.3 (Ar 2,6-C<sub>2</sub>), 129.8 (4-C), 131.5 (Ar 4-C), 136.7 (Ph 1-C), 147.7 (3-C), 159.2 (5-C), 159.5 (1-C); MS (ES +ve) m/z m/z 409.1164 (M + Na) (C<sub>23</sub>H<sub>17</sub>N<sub>2</sub>NaO<sub>4</sub>
requires 409.1164), 387.1366 (M + H) (C_{23}H_{18}N_{2}O_{4} requires 387.1345); Anal. Calc. for C_{23}H_{18}N_{2}O_{4}: C, 71.49; H, 4.70; N, 7.25. Found: C, 71.56; H, 4.82; N, 7.31%.

1-(Benzyloxy)-5-nitro-4-(phenanthren-9-yl)isoquinoline (204)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{O}\text{Bn} \\
\text{O}_2\text{N} \\
\text{N} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Compound 201 (1.26 g, 3.53 mmol), Pd_2(dba)_3 (0.18 g, 0.35 mmol), SPhos (0.14 g, 0.70 mmol), K_3PO_4 (1.5 g, 7.06 mmol) and benzeneboronic acid (1.00 g 5.30 mmol) were placed in a dry flask. Degassed toluene (50 mL) was added and the mixture was stirred at 100°C for 16 h. Evaporation and chromatography (hexane/EtOAc 20:1) gave 204 (0.67 g, 42%) as yellow-orange crystals: R_f = 0.72 (hexane / EtOAc 10:1); mp 102-105°C; ^1H NMR (CDCl_3) δ 7.41 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, Ph 4-H), 7.47 (2 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, Ph 3,5-H_2), 7.52 (1 H, td, J = 7.8, 1.2 Hz, Ar 3 or 6-H), 7.56 (1 H, s, Ar 9-H), 7.60-7.65 (3 H, m, Ph 2,6-H_2 and 7-H), 7.66-7.71 (2 H, m.), 7.82 (2 H, t, J = 7.4 Hz, Ar 2,7-H_2), 7.85 (1 H, dd, J = 7.6, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 8.71 (1 H, dd, J = 7.6, 1.2 Hz, 8-H), 8.74 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, Ar 4 or 5-H), 8.79 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, Ar 4 or 5-H); ^13C NMR δ 68.8 (CH_2), 120.8, 122.1 (Ar 1-C), 122.7 (Ar ), 123.1, 125.6, 126.4 (Ar 2 or 7-C), 126.6, 126.8, 127.0 (8-C), 127.0, 128.2 (Ph 2,6-C_2), 128.3 (Ph 4-C), 128.4, 128.7, 128.8 (Ph 3,5-C_2), 129.0 (Ar 2 or 7-C), 129.2, 130.3, 130.6, 131.0, 131.4, 132.7, 136.7 (Ph 1-C), 145.8 (3-C), 147.7 (5-C), 160.0 (1-C); MS (ES +ve) m/z 479.1360 (M + Na) (C_{30}H_{20}N_{2}O_{3} requires 479.1372), 457.1571 (M + H) (C_{30}H_{21}N_{2}O_{3} requires 457.1552).
5-Amino-4-(phenanthren-9-yl)isoquinolin-1-one (205)

![Structural formula of 5-Amino-4-(phenanthren-9-yl)isoquinolin-1-one (205)](image)

To 204 (200 mg, 0.44 mmol) in EtOH (10 mL), a slurry of 10% Pd on charcoal (100 mg) in EtOH (10 mL) was added. The mixture was stirred under H₂ for 40 h. The suspension was then filtered through Celite® and the precipitate was collected to give 205 (39 mg, 26%) as a buff solid.

This compound could not be fully characterised due to solubility issues.

MS (ES +ve) m/z 359.1196 (M + Na) (C_{23}H_{16}NaN₂O requires 359.1160), m/z 337.1331 (M + H) (C_{23}H₁₇N₂O requires 337.1341).

4-Methyl-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one (206)

![Structural formula of 4-Methyl-5-nitroisoquinolin-1-one (206)](image)

Compound 190 (200 mg, 0.92 mmol) was stirred in aq. HBr (48 %, 30 mL) at 80°C for 4 h. Evaporation and recrystallisation (hexane / EtOAc) gave 206 (131 mg, 70%) as a pale buff solid mp: R_f = 0.34 (hexane / EtOAc 1:1); mp 211-214°C (lit. mp 209-211°C); \(^1\)H NMR ((CD₃)₂CO) δ 2.02 (3 H, s, Me), 7.22 (1 H, d, J = 5.1 Hz, 3-H), 7.66 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 8.13 (1 H, dd, J = 7.8, 1.3 Hz, 6-H), 8.50 (1 H, dd, 7.8, 1.3 Hz, 8-H), 11.64 (1 H, br, NH).

5-Amino-4-methylisoquinolin-1-one hydrochloride (207)
To 206 (116 mg, 0.56 mmol) in EtOH (10 mL) and aq. HCl (34%, 0.4 mL), a slurry of 10% Pd on charcoal (0.1 g) in EtOH (4 mL) was added. The mixture was stirred under H₂ for 2 h. The suspension was then filtered through Celite®. The Celite® pad and residue were suspended in water (100 mL) and heated. The hot suspension was filtered through a second Celite® pad. Evaporation of the solvent and drying gave 207 (78 mg, 65%) as a pale buff solid: mp 225-228°C (lit.¹⁷⁵ mp 227-229°C); ¹H NMR (D₂O) δ 2.37 (3 H, s, Me), 6.94 (1 H, s, 3-H), 7.42 (1 H, t, J = 8.2 Hz, 7-H), 7.63 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 6-H), 8.14 (1 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, 8-H).

1-Methoxy-5-nitro-4-phenylaminoisoquinolinine (208)

Compound 46 (1.00 g, 3.53 mmol), Pd₂(dbâ)_3 (0.18 g, 0.35 mmol), SPhos (0.14 g, 0.70 mmol), potassium tert-butoxide (0.79 g, 7.06 mmol) and aniline (0.49 g, 5.30 mmol) were placed in a dry flask. Degassed dioxane (40 mL) was added and the mixture was stirred at 100°C for 16 h. Evaporation and chromatography (hexane / EtOAc 10:1) gave 208 (0.47 g, 45%) as a deep red solid; mp 124-126°C; ¹H NMR (CDCl₃) δ 4.17 (3 H, s, OMe), 5.56 (1 H, s, NH), 6.61 (2 H, dd, J = 7.4, 1.1 Hz, Ph 2,6-H₂), 6.79 (1 H, t, J = 7.4 Hz, Ph 4-H), 7.14 (2 H, t, J = 7.4 Hz, Ph 3,5-H₂), 7.59 (1 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, 7-H), 7.80 (1 H, dt, J = 8.2, 1.2 Hz, 8-H), 8.14 (1 H, d, J = 1.1 Hz, 3-H), 8.51 (1 H, dd, J = 8.2, 1.2 Hz, 6-H); ¹³C NMR δ 54.3, 114.2, 119.5, 121.2, 124.7, 125.8, 126.3, 127.8, 128.7, 129.3,
N-(3-Methyl-1-oxo-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)benzamide (215)

To 5AIQ:HCl 5 (53 mg, 0.25 mmol) in pyridine (2.0 mL) was added benzoyl chloride (0.03 mL, 39 mg, 0.28 mmol). The mixture was stirred at 90°C for 16 h; Evaporation and recrystallisation (EtOAc) gave 215 (38 mg, 72%) as an off-white solid: R_f = 0.19 (EtOAc); mp >310°C (decomp.); ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂SO) δ 2.12 (3 H, s, Me), 6.33 (1 H, s, 4-H), 7.42 (1 H, t, J = 7.8 Hz, 7-H), 7.55 (2 H, t, J = 7.9 Hz, Ar 3,5-H₂), 7.62 (1 H, t, J = 7.9 Hz, Ar 4-H), 7.69 (1 H, dd, J = 7.8, 1.2 Hz, 6-H), 8.04-8.09 (3 H, m, Ar 2,6-H₂ and 8-H), 10.28 (1 H, s, PhCONH), 11.35 (1 H, s, 2-NH); ¹³C NMR δ 19.0, 98.7, 124.7, 124.9, 125.1, 127.8, 128.4, 130.6, 131.7, 132.5, 134.2, 134.6, 138.5, 162.3, 166.0; MS (ES +ve) m/z 301.0948 (M + Nδ) (C₁₇H₁₄N₂O₂ requires 301.0953), m/z 279.1142 (M + H) (C₁₇H₁₃N₂O₂ requires 279.1134); Anal. Caled. for C₁₇H₁₄N₂O₂: C, 73.37; H, 5.07; N, 10.07. Found: C, 73.42; H, 5.06; N, 10.13%.

N-(1-Oxo-3-phenyl-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)benzamide (216)

To 5AIQ:HCl 5 (68 mg, 0.25 mmol) in pyridine (2.0 mL) was added benzoyl chloride (0.03 mL, 39 mg, 0.28 mmol). The mixture was stirred at 90°C for 16 h; Evaporation and recrystallisation (EtOAc) gave 216 (54 mg, 64%) as an off-white solid: R_f = 0.22 (EtOAc); mp >325°C (decomp.); ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂SO) δ 6.82 (1 H, s, 4-H), 7.45-7.58 (7-
4-Iodo-N-(1-oxo-3-phenyl-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)benzamide (218)

N-(1-Oxo-4-phenyl-1,2-dihydroisoquinolin-5-yl)benzamide (217)

![Chemical structure](image)

To 5AIQ:HCl 5 (68 mg, 0.25 mmol) in pyridine (2.0 mL) was added benzyol chloride (0.03 mL, 39 mg, 0.28 mmol). The mixture was stirred at 90°C for 16 h; Evaporation and chromatography (EtOAc then EtOAc / MeOH 4:1) gave 217 (31 mg, 36%) as a pale pink solid: R_f = 0.22 (EtOAc); mp >230-232°C (decomp.); ^1H NMR (CD_3OD) δ 7.10-7.16 (3 H, m, Ph 3,4,5-H), 7.24 (1 H, s, 3-H), 7.26-7.36 (4 H, m, 7-H and COPh 3,4,5-H), 7.62 (2 H, d, J = 7.2 Hz, Ph 2,6-H), 7.71 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 6-H), 7.78 (1 H, d, J = 7.4 Hz, COPh 2,6-H), 8.42 (1 H, d, J = 7.8 Hz, 8-H); ^13C NMR δ 119.5, 127.7, 127.6, 128.4, 128.6, 128.9, 129.2, 129.4, 129.9, 130.3, 130.9, 131.8, 133.0, 134.6, 140.2, 164.1, 168.3; MS (ES +ve) m/z 363.1133 (M + Na) (C_{22}H_{16}NaN_2O_2 requires 363.1109), m/z 341.1312 (M + H) (C_{17}H_{13}N_2O_2 requires 341.1290).
To 5AIQ·HCl 5 (68 mg, 0.25 mmol) in pyridine (2.0 mL) was added 4-iodobenzoyl chloride (75 mg, 0.28 mmol). The mixture was stirred at 90°C for 16 h; Evaporation and recrystallisation (EtOAc) gave 218 (72 mg, 64%) as an off-white solid: R_f = 0.23 (EtOAc); mp >325°C (decomp.); 1H NMR ((CD_3)_2SO) δ 6.82 (1 H, s, 4-H), 7.48-7.50 (3 H, m, Ph 3,4,5-H), 7.54 (1 H, t, J = 7.6 Hz, 7-H), 7.51 (2 H, dd, J = 8.0, 1.2 Hz, Ph 2,6-H), 7.72 7.82 (2 H, d, J = 8.2 Hz, Ar 3,5-H2), 7.83-7.86 (3 H, m, Ar 2,6-H2 and 6-H), 8.17 (1 H, d, J = 7.6 Hz, 8-H), 10.42 (1 H, s, PhCONH), 11.63 (1 H, d, J = 4.7 Hz, 2-NH); 13C NMR δ 99.0, 99.4, 124.6, 125.8, 125.9, 126.8, 128.8, 129.3, 129.8, 130.3, 133.3, 133.5, 133.8, 134.1, 137.3, 139.9, 162.5, 165.6; MS (ES +ve) m/z 467.0267 (M + H) (C_{22}H_{16}IN_{2}O_{2} requires 467.0256); Anal. Calcd. for C_{22}H_{15}IN_{2}O_{2}: C, 56.67; H, 3.24; N, 6.01. Found: C, 56.51; H, 3.38; N, 6.13%.

1-Chloro-5-nitroisoquinoline (219)
To a cooled solution of 1-chloroisoquinoline 90 (2.00g, 12.2 mmol) in conc. H$_2$SO$_4$ (10 mL) was added aq. HNO$_3$ (70%, 0.85g, 13.4 mmol) in conc. H$_2$SO$_4$ (5 mL) dropwise at 0-5°C. The mixture was stirred at 0°C for 2 h, then poured onto ice. The precipitate was collected, washed (H$_2$O), dried under vacuum and recrystallised (EtOAc / hexanes) to give 219 (2.34g, 92%) as pale yellow crystals: mp 181-183°C (lit. 179 mp 183-184°C); $^1$H NMR (CDCl$_3$) □ 7.81 (1 H, t, $J$ = 8.2 Hz, 7-H), 8.41 (1 H, dd, $J$ = 6.3, 1.2 Hz, 4-H), 8.49 (1 H, d, $J$ = 6.3 Hz, 3-H), 8.56 (1 H, dt, $J$ = 8.2, 1.2 Hz, 8-H) 8.75 (1 H, dd, $J$ = 8.2, 1.2 Hz, 6-H),
References


15. Schreiber, V.; Ame, J. C.; Dolle, P.; Schultz, I.; Rinaldi, B.; Fraulob, V.; Menissier-de Murcia, J.; de Murcia, G. Poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase-2 (PARP-2) is


