SCREENING OF NEW DRUG CANDIDATES WITH ANTITUMOR ASSAYS

by Gizem Sarıbıyık

Submitted to the Institute of Graduate Studies in Science and Engineering in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Biotechnology

Yeditepe University 2012

SCREENING OF NEW DRUG CANDIDATES WITH ANTITUMOR ASSAYS

APPROVED BY:

Prof. Dr. Işıl AKSAN KURNAZ (Thesis Supervisor)

Asst. Prof. Dr. Barkın BERK (Thesis Co-Supervisor)

Prof. Dr. Hülya AKGÜN

Prof. Dr. Ece GENÇ

.....

ienn

DATE OF APPROVAL:/..../....

This thesis is dedicated to my family...

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, I would like to thank to my supervisor Prof. Dr. Işıl Aksan Kurnaz for her guidance, tolerance and motivation throughout all stages of my thesis. I would like to express gratitude to Asst. Prof. Barkın Berk for providing employment for me and advising me during this study.

Members of Axan Lab, Berrak Çağlayan, Uğur Dağ, Burcu Erdoğan, Başak Şentürk, Göksu Alpay, Elif Kon, Oya Arı, Perihan Ünver, deserve special thanks for their friendship and help in PCR experiments.

I am grateful to Prof. Dr. Hülya Akgün, İrem Karamelekoğlu and Çiğdem Selvi for providing the drug candidates used in this study and also I would like to thank to Asst.Prof. Filiz Esra Önen for her help.

I would also like to thank to Meltem Dağdelen, Merve Erdem, Nihan Kılınç, Melis Uslu, Gülhas Solmaz, Özgür Albayrak and Melis Başer for their suggestions and unconditional support.

Last but not the least, I am thankful to my parents, Nurcihan Sarıbıyık, Ali Sarıbıyık, my brother Sertaç Sarıbıyık, and my cousin Burcu Menteş Yıldırım for their unconditional love, trusting me, understanding, and support.

ABSTRACT

SCREENING OF NEW DRUG CANDIDATES WITH ANTITUMOR ASSAYS

Drug development process consists of discovery and research, preclinical studies, clinical trials and approval phases. During discovery and research process, one of the main issues is pharmacological activity determination of either synthesized, proposed or screened compounds. During our study, selected candidates having chemical structures that were 4-(1,3-dioxoisoindolin-2-yl) benzenesulfonamide and 4-(4,5,6,7-tetrafluoro-1,3dioxoisoindolin-2-yl) benzenesulfonamide structured thalidomide derivatives, 4phenylpiperidine derivatives for sigma receptor ligands, 1-(naphthalen-2-ylmethyl) piperazine derivatives synthesized in Yeditepe University, Faculty of Pharmacy were screened for their anti-tumor activity by using SH-SY5Y human neuroblastoma cell line, HT29 human colon cancer cell line, MDA-MB-231 human breast cancer cell line. As a healthy control, cytotoxic effects of compounds were assed using L929 mouse fibroblast cell line by MTT experiment. The results showed that some compounds belonging to all three of these groups have significant anti-tumor activity that may qualify them to be suitable candidates for clinical use. In order to understanding the mode of action of these putative drug candidates, examination of expression levels of different genes in cells' DNA after the exposure has been carried out; our preliminary work has at this stage concentrated on RT-PCR analysis of common cell cycle-related genes such as p21, cyclin D1, c-fos and elk-1. However, further detailed molecular analysis will be required to get an in-depth understanding of the molecular mechanisms.

ÖZET

ANTİ TÜMÖR DENEYLERİYLE YENİ İLAÇ ADAYLARININ TARANMASI

İlaç geliştirme süreci, keşif ve araştırma, klinik öncesi çalışmalar, klinik çalışmalar ve onay olmak üzere dört ana fazdan oluşur. Keşif ve araştırma süreci boyunca ele alınan temel konulardan biri sentezlenmiş ya da taranmış bileşiklerin farmokolojik aktivitelerinin belirlenmesidir. Çalışmamız sırasında Yeditepe Üniversitesi Eczacılık Fakültesi tarafından sentezlenen, 4-(1,3-dioksiisoindolin-2-yl) benzensülfonomid ve 4-(4,5,6,7-tetrafloro-1,3dioksiizoindolin-2-yl) benzensulfonamid kimyasal yapısındaki talidomid türevleri, 4fenilpiperidin türevi olan sigma reseptör ligandları, 1-(naftalin-2-ylmetil) yapısındaki piperazin türevleri, SH-SY5Y insan nöroblastoma hücre hattı, HT29 insan kolon kanseri hücre hattı, MDA-MB-231 insan meme kanseri hücre hatları kullanılarak anti-tümor akitivitelerinin belirlenmesi için taranmıştır. Bileşiklerin sitotoksik etkileri sağlıklı fare fibroblast hücresi olan L929 hücre hattı üzerinde MTT deneyleri ile taranmıştır. Elde edilen sonuçlar bu üç gruptan bazı bileşiklerin klinik kullanımlar için uygun olarak nitelendirilebilecek önemli antitumor aktiviteye sahip olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu ilaç adaylarının etki mekanizmasını anlamak için, hücrelere uygulandıktan sonra hücrelerin DNAsındaki çeşitli genlerin ekspresyon seviyeleri incelenmiştir. Bu aşamada ön çalışma olarak p21, cyclinD-1, c-fos and elk-1 gibi belli başlı hücre döngüsü genlerinin PZR analizlerine odaklanılmıştır. Ancak moleküler mekanizmaların detaylı bir şekilde anlaşılabilmesi için daha kapsamlı moleküler analizler gerekmektedir. Bu aşamada ön çalışma olarak p21, cyclinD-1, c-fos and elk-1 gibi belli başlı hücre döngüsü genlerinin PZR analizlerine odaklanılmıştır. Ancak moleküler mekanizmaların detaylı bir şekilde anlaşılabilmesi için daha kapsamlı moleküler analizler gerekmektedir.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iv
ABSTRACT	v
ÖZET	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
LIST OF TABLES	xii
LIST OF SYMBOLS/ABBREVIATIONS	xiii
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. THE GENERAL PROCESS OF DRUG DEVELOPMENT	1
1.2. CLINICAL TRAILS	4
1.2.1. Phase I	4
1.2.2. Phase II	4
1.2.3. Phase III	5
1.2.4. Phase IV	5
1.3. DRUG SCREENING FOR POTENTIAL NEW ANTI-CANCER	
COMPOUNDS	6
1.3.1. Cell free assays	6
1.3.2. Cell based assays	6
1.4. CELL CULTURE MODEL SYSTEMS	7
1.4.1. 3-(4,5-Dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide	8
(MTT) assay	
1.5. CANDIDATE COMPOUNDS ANALYZED IN THIS STUDY	9
1.5.1. Thalidomide derivatives	9
1.5.2. Sigma Receptor Ligands	11
1.5.3. Piperazine derivatives	14
2. MATERIALS	15
2.1. CELL LINES	15
2.2. REAGENTS AND COMMERCIAL KITS	15
2.3. CELL CULTURE	15

ORA	TORY TECHNICAL EQUIPMENT		16
D S			17
ASS	SAY		17
ERS	E TRANSCRIPTASE POLYMERASED CHAIN	REACTION	
ERIN	1ENTS		18
ERIN	1ENTS		

3.2. REVERSE TRANSCRIPTASE POLYMERASED CHAIN REACTION		
EXPERIMENTS	18	
3.2.1. Total RNA Isolation	18	
3.2.2. Synthesis of cDNA by Reverse Transcription	18	
3.2.3. PCR Reaction	19	
4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	21	
4.1. RESULTS OF CELL VIABILITY	21	
4.1.1. Thalidomide derivatives	21	
4.1.2. Sigma receptor ligands	29	
4.1.3. Piperazine derivatives	33	
5. CONCLUSION	39	
APPENDIX A: CHEMICAL STRUCTURES OF ANALYZED COMPOUNDS	49	
REFERENCES		

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1.	Shematic flowchart of molecular docking	3
Figure 1.2.	General process for highthroughput drug discovery	3
Figure 1.3.	Various stages of drug development	5
Figure 1.4.	Basis of MTT assay	8
Figure 1.5.	The chemical structure of Thalidomide	9
Figure 1.6.	Proposed mechanism of thaidomide in myeloma	11
Figure 1.7.	Structural model for the $\sigma 1$ receptor	12
Figure 1.8.	Example of sigma receptor ligands	13
Figure 1.9.	Molecular structure of piperazine	14
Figure 4.1	The effects of a range of concentration of synthetic compounds T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, T6, T7 and T8 on cell viability in SH-SY5Y and L929 cells	22
Figure 4.2.	The effects of a range of concentration of synthetic compounds T9, T10, T11, T12, T13, T14 and T15 on cell viability in SH-SY5Y and L929 cells	24
Figure 4.3	The effects of a range of concentration of compounds T10, T12, T13, T14 and T15 on cell viability in SH-SY5Y and L929 cells with upper concentration	26

Figure 4.4.	The effects of synthetic compounds T10, T12, T13, T14 and T15 on cell viability in MDA-MB-231 cells	27
Figure 4.5.	The effects of synthetic compounds T10, T12, T13, T14 and T15 on cell viability in HT29 colon carcinoma cells	28
Figure 4.6.	The effects of synthetic compounds S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6 and S7 on cell viability in SH-SY5Y and L929 cells	30
Figure 4.7.	The effects of synthetic compounds S3 and S4 on cell viability in SH SY5Y and L929 cells with upper concentration	31
Figure 4.8.	The effects of compound S3-S4 on cell viability in MDA-MB-231 cells.	32
Figure 4.9.	The effect of compound S3-S4 on cell viability in HT29 cells	32
Figure 4.10.	The effects of compound P5, P6, P7, P8, P9, P10, P11, P14, P16, P17 and P18 on cell viability in L929 cells	34
Figure 4.11.	The effects of compound P5- P18 on cell viability in MDA-MB-231 and HT29 cells	36
Figure 4.12.	RT-PCR results for comparing the expression levels of cell cycle related genes on SH-SY5Y cells which were exposured with P compounds	40
Figure 4.13.	RT-PCR results for comparing the expression levels of cell cycle related genes on SH-SY5Y cells which were exposured with T compounds	40
Figure 4.14.	RT-PCR results for comparing expression levels of <i>cyclinD-1</i> and <i>gapdh</i> gene on L929 cells which were exposured with P compounds	40

Figure 4.15.	RT-PCR results for comparing expression levels of <i>cyclin D1</i> and <i>gapdh</i> gene on L929 cells which were exposured with T compounds	41
Figure 4.16.	RT-PCR results for comparing expression levels of <i>elk-1</i> gene on L929. cells which were exposured with P and T compounds	41
Figure 4.17.	RT-PCR results for comparing expression levels of <i>c-fos</i> gene on L929 . cells which were exposured with P and T compounds	41
Figure 4.18.	RT-PCR results for comparing expression levels of <i>p21</i> gene on L929 cells which were exposured with P and T compounds	42
Figure 4.19.	The ratios of <i>p21</i> gene expression / house-keeping genes expression in SH-SY5Y cells treated with P and T compounds	42
Figure 4.20.	The ratios of <i>cyclin D1</i> gene expression / house-keeping genes expression in SH-SY5Y cells treated with P and T compounds	43
Figure 4.21.	The ratios of <i>elk 1</i> gene expression / house-keeping genes expression in SH- SY5Y cells treated with P and T compounds	44
Figure 4.22.	The ratios of <i>c</i> -fos gene expression / house-keeping genes expression in SH- SY5Y cells treated with P and T compounds	45
Figure 4.23.	The ratios of <i>cyclinD-1</i> gene expression / housekeeping genes in L929 cells treated with P and T compounds	46

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1.	Comparative Features of Cell- Free and Cell-Based Screening Models	7
Table 3.1.	The content for PCR mixtures	19
Table 3.2.	The program for PCR reaction	19
Table 3.3.	Sequences of designed forward and reverse primers for house keeping and cell cycle related genes	20
Table 4.1.	List of IC ₅₀ values for tested compounds on all cell lines	38
Table A.1.	Chemical Sturctures of Thalidomide Derivatives	50
Table A.2.	Chemical structure of Sigma Receptor Ligands	51

LIST OF SYMBOLS / ABBREVIATIONS

ADME	Absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion
ATCC	American Type Culture Collection
cDNA	Complementary deoxyribonucleic acid
DHEA	Dehydroepiandrosterone
DMEM	Dulbecco's Minimal Eagle Medium
DMSO	Dimethylsulfoxide
DMT	Dimethlytryptamine
ECG	Electrocardiogram
EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetracetic acid
EMA	European Medicine Agency
FBS	Fetal Bovine Serum
FDA	Food and Drug Administration
FITM	First in man study
GAPDH	Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase
HT29	Human Colon Adenocarcinoma Cell Line
IMIDs	Imminomodulatory drugs
L929	Mouse Fibroblast Cell Line
MDA-MB-231	Human Breast Adenocarcinoma Cell Line
ml	Milliliters
μl	Microliters
mM	Millimolar
MTT	3-(4,5-Dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium Bromide
NCI	National Cancer Institute
NMR	Nuclear Magnetic Resonance
RNA	Ribonucleic acid
SH-SY5Y	Human Neuroblastoma Cell Line
TM	Transmembrane
VEGF	Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor
UV	Ultraviole

1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to identify anti-proliferative and anti-tumorigenic properties of potential novel drug candidates through a preliminary cell-based screening. This step is only the beginning of overall drug development process, therefore, a detailed explanation of both conventional design and high throughput screening processes will be reviewed before detailing our approach to this study.

1.1. THE GENERAL PROCESS OF DRUG DEVELOPMENT

Drug development is a long process that includes different phases in which a new drug is launched to the market. The length of the whole process, from the discovery of a single drug to its regulatory approval takes approximately 12 to 15 years according to data taken from US Food and Drug Administration (FDA). In pharmaceutical industry, the overall spent costs during this process estimated from US\$ 802 million to 1 billion per year [1]. The challenge about this process is only 1/10 drugs enter clinical trials will make it to the market. The rate of success for therapeutic areas ranging from 20% in cardiovascular drugs to only 5–8% for oncology and central nervous system disorder drugs in an average of approximately 11% overall [2]. Medical requirements and general existence of the disease are the factors that determine therapeutic areas for discovering new drugs [3].

After selecting the therapeutic area, the second step of the drug development process is target identification and validation. Targets can be enzymes, receptors, particular components of intracellular signaling cascades, or components with in gene expression systems [4].

The next step in drug development project is development of an activity assay for screening of new compounds and eliminating the inactive ones. Two main assay types are available for screening: low throughput and high throughput. Low throughput assays run on cells, tissues, organs and animals involving detailed procedures that take several weeks to months [5]. The term "high throughput screening" is testing a large number of various chemical structures against disease targets to identify "hits" [6]. This technique based on

interaction with selected targets, which allow the researcher to check affinity/activity of large libraries of compounds very quickly [7]. Advances in proteomic research provide an understanding of the physiological and metabolic pathways of cells [8]. Using the knowledge gained through sequencing of DNA various functions of several molecular targets have been identified. In addition, cellomics and metabolomics enable detailed pictures of cells under complex parameters. All of these advances accelerate the high throughput techniques used in the pharmaceutical industry [9].

Drug screening panel of 60 tumor cell lines conducted by National Cancer Institute (NCI) is an example of high throughput screening. In 1989 the NCI designed 'disease oriented' screening panel includes 60 cell lines derived from different human solid tumors. Compounds with different concentrations are screening for their antitumor effects [10].

On the other hand a technique opposes high throughput screening is virtual screening. This process is a computational technique and involves the rapid *in silico* screening of potential drug candidates. Molecular docking is the most frequently used structure-based virtual screening method [11]. In docking, with the structure of protein targets obtained from either X-ray or NMR, a library of ligands are virtually "brought" to the proximity of the specific binding site of the target and followed by applying a scoring function to estimate the possibility that the ligand in question will bind to the protein with acceptable affinity [12].



Figure 1.1. Schematic flow chart of virtual screening [13]

After finding the hits, next step is confirming their activity and estimating potency. This step includes different steps such as re-testing using the same conditions, such as drug concentration –response assay, specificity of the drug candidate to different targets, etc. Lead optimization step aims to investigate analogs with improved potency, such as more selective compounds, or compounds with suitable pharmaceutical properties such as absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion (ADME) through modification of chemical structure [14,15].



Figure 1.2. General process for high throughput drug discovery [16]

In vitro activity experiment follows toxicological studies in animals to determine the maximum tolerated dose and likely areas of toxicity [17].

Reproductive toxicology in male and female animals (required prior to testing in women of childbearing potential) and long-term carcinogenicity testing must be performed before clinical trials [18].

1.2. CLINICAL TRAILS

In clinical trials, newly synthesized experimental drugs tested over human volunteers for their activities and adverse effects before launchment as therapeutic agents. There are four phases of clinical trials each having their own regulations for safety measures and efficiency. Experimental protocols belonging to these phases must be approved by regulatory agencies specialized in medicines such as Food and Drug administration (FDA) in USA and European Medicines Agency (EMA) in Europe before prior to use [19].

1.2.1. Phase I

Phase I trials are designed to evaluate the tolerability and safety of a single dose of a potential lead [20]. This phase starts with the first administration of the new medicinal product to humans, which involves healthy volunteers with the exception of cytotoxic drugs (e.g. oncology drugs) [21]. A first in man study (FTIM) involves small number of volunteers (usually 20 to 100) who monitored very closely. In Phase I studies the pharmacodynamic effect of the drug on the body, e.g. effect on heart rate, blood pressure, electrocardiogram (ECG), etc and pharmacokinetic effect of the body on the drug, i.e. absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion, are monitored [22].

1.2.2. Phase II

Once the drug's safety, pharmacokinetics and dose selection are established in healthy volunteers, the next step is to investigate some preliminary data on the effectiveness of the drug for a particular indication or indications in patients with the disease or condition [23]. This phase can also measure the short-term side effect and risks associated with the drug.

Phase IIa trials are generally interested in assessment of safety and tolerability of the new drug in the target patient population. **Phase IIb** follows to determine the minimally effective or non-effective dose and to decide the optimal dose for phase III trials [24].

1.2.3. Phase III

This is the last step of drug development prior to registration, and intended to gather additional information about effectiveness and safety that is needed to evaluate the overall benefit-risk relationship of the drug. Phase III studies are usually expensive and include several hundred to several thousand patients depending on the protocol and design of the study [25].

1.2.4. Phase IV

Phase IV is the post-marketing surveillance that include several thousand people, therefore conducted after a drug is approved by FDA. The aim of this phase is to obtain data for long-term effectiveness and safety, to monitor the impact of the drug on patients, to observe any other side effects, and to investigate new therapeutic areas. This phase of the clinical trial may result in commercially available drug to be restricted for use or removal from market [26].



Figure 1.3. Various stages of drug development [13]

1.3. DRUG SCREENING FOR POTENTIAL NEW ANTI-CANCER COMPOUNDS

Cancer is one of the most common diseases in the world. In developing and advanced countries, cancer remains the second leading cause of death after heart disorders [27, 28]. Although many anti-cancer agents have been investigated for cancer therapy over the years, their long-term use is generally restricted and only a small proportion of the anti-cancer drugs in the market have success in treatment. Thus discovering new anti-cancer agents remains critically important [29, 30].

A successful approach for anti-cancer drug discovery generally covers either cell-free or cell-based assays.

1.3.1. Cell-free assays

These assays based on molecular targeted assays such as screening of enzyme or receptor inhibitors (e.g gyrase inhibitors, kinase inhibitors, etc). Although these assays are simple and biochemically precise, they eventually require cell- based assays, as *in vitro* and *in vivo* effects of compounds can disagree dramatically. In fact, most of the drug candidates identified in cell free assays do not exhibit any significant effect in subsequent cell culture assays for lack of cellular uptake or metabolic conversion prior to reaching their intracellular target [31].

1.3.2. Cell-based assays

These screens make it possible to assess *in vivo* activity of a candidate compound, intracellular target specificity, target-unrelated cytotoxicity, metabolic stability and bioavailability [32]. However, cell-based screening assays also require validation experiments such as polymerase chain reaction (PCR), Western blotting to understand the molecular mechanism of drug's action against target, as well as further animal studies in order to confirm activity in live organisms. In most recent studies, cell-free and cell based assays are complementary to each other.

Cell-Based Assays	Cell-Free Assays
Reflect cellular metabolism	Simple
Predictive model of in vivo	Accurate
Modelling cellular uptake	Conformable to viable assay types
Candidate drug require secondary	Candidate drug imply additional cell-
experiment to understand the	based assays
mechanism of target action	

Table 1.1. Comparative Features of Cell-Free and Cell-Based Screening Models [6]

Although cell–based assays depend on several essential elements, cell culture model is the most important component. For providing flexibility in the choices of assay chemistry and instrumentation, culture model must be a good representation of events to analyze. In development of the cell-based assays for anti-cancer drug screening, a number of important criteria have to be addressed such as choosing the type of cells, culture conditions, cells concentration, concentration of the test compound, positive and negative controls, the exposure time of the test compound and assay safety etc [33].

1.4. CELL CULTURE MODEL SYSTEMS

Studies on both anti-proliferation and cytotoxicity mainly rely on cell lines derived from tumors, which refers as "cancer lines" throughout this text.

A cancer cell line is a permanently established cell culture that will proliferate indefinitely when given appropriate fresh medium and space. Those cell lines are easily propagated and genetically manipulated, pure and in theory should give the same results under the same assay conditions. Results obtained from cell lines assumed to resemble tumors in vivo, although the tests validated and confirmed using primary tumor cells prior to testing the compounds in animal assays [34].

Cell-based assays mainly depend on cell viability/cytotoxicity or cell death. Testing the compounds with cell viability assays are based on the ability of the cell population to proceed to divide and proliferate [35]. Counting the number of cells using a counter or

microscope is dependable but it is a time consuming procedure. Advanced procedures are based on measurement with markers that reflect the total biomass or cell growth, such as measuring cell membrane integrity, events related to DNA synthesis, selective staining (e.g trypan blue, calcein-AM, sulforhodamine B, neutral red and others) or viability markers (tetrozolium reduction assays, aminopeptidase markers, ATP assays etc) indicating active metabolism [36-38]. In our study, we have routinely used the MTT assay for viability/cytotoxicity.

1.4.1. 3-(4,5-Dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) Assay

Measuring cell viability with metabolic markers commonly used in screening studies [39]. The aim of the MTT assay is to detect active cell metabolism as a marker for cell viability by supplying the cells with a substrate molecule that only converted into a detectable product by viable cells [40].



Figure 1.4. Basis of MTT assay [41]

MTT (3-[4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl]-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide) is a yellow colored water soluble tetrazolium salt, which has the ability to enter the cells by endocytosis [42]. The mitochondrial reductase enzymes cleave the tetrazolium ring and convert MTT to an insoluble purple formazan, which can be quantified by recording changes in absorbance at 540 nm.wavelengths [43].

1.5. CANDIDATE COMPOUNDS ANALYZED IN THIS STUDY

In anti-cancer screening, we collaborated with Yeditepe University's Faculty of Pharmacy department by analyzing the bioactivity assays of their newly synthesized compounds in cell based systems.

These compounds are categorized into three major groupsaccording to their chemical structure;

- 4-(1,3-dioxoisoindolin-2-yl)benzenesulfonamide and 4-(4,5,6,7-tetrafluoro-1,3dioxoisoindolin-2-yl)benzenesulfonamide structured thalidomide derivatives synthesized for antimicrobial, anti-inflammatory and antitumoral purposes.
- 4-phenylpiperidine derivatives for sigma receptor ligands.
- 1-(naphthalen-2-ylmethyl)piperazine derivatives for antitumoral activities.

1.5.1. Thalidomide derivatives

Thalidomide (phthalimidoglutarimide) is a synthetic glutamic acid derivative and is formulated as a racemic mixture of two active enantiomers, S(-) and R(+) [44]. Initially, the S(-) isoform was thought to be the enantiomer primarily responsible for the teratogenic effects and the R(-) isoform for the sedative properties. Thalidomide and its metabolites quickly eliminated in the urine, with a mean elimination half-life of 5 hour [45].



Figure 1.5. The chemical structure of thalidomide [46]

Thalidomide introduced to the drug market in 1957 for the treatment of epilepsy. Due to its insufficient efficacy as an anti-epileptic, its marketing strategy eventually changed as a sleep aid and widely used as an antiemetic during pregnancy. It was used as a sedative in many countries until 1963 and withdrawn from the market due to its teratogenic and neuropathic effects [47]. Thousands of infants were born with arm and leg malformations since pregnant women used it in the late 1950s. Even a single dose of thalidomide taken during pregnancy can cause severe birth defects or death of the unborn baby. The teratogenicity of the drug is due to its ability to inhibit angiogenesis and neovascularization.

Although its teratogenic effects have shown in zebrafish, chickens, rabbits and primates, it reviwed for some interest as an antitumor agent in 1990s. Currently thalidomide is being used to treat various cancers and inflammatory diseases. Thalidomide is an anti-angiogenic drug which inhibits the secretion of Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor (VEGF) and basic Fibroblast Growth Factor (bFGF) from the tumor cells resulting in reduced endothelial cell migration and adhesion [48]. Thalidomide has been shown to be effective in the treatment of multiple myeloma, prostate, renal cell carcinoma and Kaposi's sarcoma. Thalidomide was approved for the treatment of multiple myeloma in May 2006.

Thalidomide and its many analogs are immunomodulatory drugs (IMiDs) that show a multitude of biologic effects on cytokine and cell-mediated responses [49]. Thalidomide and derivatives induce immune response by the induction of T cells and natural killer cells (NK cells), thus increasing IL-2 and IFN- γ secretion which leads to lysis of multiple myeloma cells [50]. In addition, thalidomide derivatives inhibit IL-6 production which in turn inhibits the proliferation of the tumor cells. Thalidomide derivatives also inhibit TNF- α , which is a proinflammatory cytokine produced by monocytes, macrophages and lymphocytes. These effects are largely responsible for the clinical efficacy seen in conditions such as lupus erythematosis, apthous ulcers that occur in human immunodeficiency virus and Behcet's disease, ENL, graft versus host disease and others [51].



Figure 1.6. Proposed mechanism of action of thalidomide in cancer illustrated using myeloma as an example [46]

1.5.2. Sigma Receptors Ligands

Sigma receptors were discovered in 1976 and first classified as a subtype of opioid receptors [52,53]. After its binding affinity to various drugs, they are recognized as a distinct class of receptors [54]. Two major subclasses of sigma receptors, sigma-1 (σ 1) and sigma-2 (σ 2), differ in their molecular weights, tissue distributions, and pharmacological profiles.



Figure 1.7. A structural model for the σ1 receptor. This model contains two transmembrane (TM) segments as determined by TM homology plots. The NH₂ and COOH termini are shown on the intracellular side of the membrane [55]

The sigma (σ) receptor and its agonists implicated in a many of cellular functions, biological processes and diseases in central nervous, endocrine, motor, and immune systems. Sigma receptors are also widely distributed throughout the brain, particularly in the motor regions including cerebellum, brainstem, motor nuclei, and substantia nigra. Besides, high levels of both subtypes of sigma receptors expressed in tumor cell lines such as neuroblastomas, glioma, melanoma, as well as cell lines derived from breast, prostate, and lung carcinomas [56]. These observations lead to the development of sigma ligands that can be used as molecular probes for diagnosis, molecular-targeted therapy and augmentation of standard cancer therapy.



Figure 1.8. Example of sigma receptor ligands [57]

The sigma-1 receptor ($\sigma_1 R$) modulates calcium signaling through the Inositol trisphosphate (IP3) receptor. Dimethyltryptamine (DMT) and neuroactive steroids such as dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) and pregnenolone, are ligands of the sigma 1 receptor [58].

Calcium takes an important role in cell proliferation. An increase of calcium release causes activation of enzymes such as proteases and nucleases, and this leads to degradation of key components and subsequently cell death. In recent studies selective sigma-2 receptor agonist or selective sigma-1 receptor antagonist (exp:haloperidol and IPAG) cause Ca⁺² release to cytosol in different cancer cell lines. This free intracellular modulation affects to protein kinase C activity and leads to apoptosis of cancer cells [59].

In addition, different sigma ligands disrupt lipid rafts by cholesterol depletion [60]. This disruption leads to an increase of ceramide, which is a second manager of spingomyelin, also involved in induction of apoptosis [61].

1.5.3. Piperazine Derivatives

Piperazine is an organic compound that consists of a six-membered ring with two nitrogen atoms located oppositely. The name of piperazine is coming from the pepper plant from which the compound is extracted [62].



Figure 1.9. Molecular structure of piperazine [62]

Piperazine and its derivatives primarily used in treatment of motion sickness and vertigo and suppression of nausea and vomiting [63]. Because of its small and rigid heterocyclic backbone acting on various pharmacological targets, these agents are widely present in several drugs such as calcium channel blockers, histamine antagonists, and anticancer agents [64]. The studies of National Cancer Institute (NCI) have demonstrated that lead piperazines suppress and eliminate tumors in small-animal models. Recent experiments showed that the piperazine analogues have potent anti-proliferative activity against breast, colon, prostate, lung and leukemia tumors not also inhibition of cell cycle progression and angiogenesis but induction of apoptosis [65].

In addition, piperazine derivatives were found to induce apoptosis by down regulation of Bcl-2 protein and G2/M arrest, thereby to inhibit the growth of various types of human cancers [66].

2. MATERIALS

2.1. CELL LINES

- SH-SY5Y Human Neuroblastoma Cell Line (ATCC number: CRL-2266)
- MDA-MB-231 –Human Breast Adenocarcinoma Cell Line (ATCC number: HTB-26)
- HT29 –Human Colon Adenocarcinoma Cell Line (ATCC number: HTB-38)
- L929-Mouse Fibroblast Cell Line (ATCC number: CCL-1)

2.2. REAGENTS AND COMMERCIAL KITS

- MTT Cell Growth Assay Kit (Millipore CTO1, USA)
- The PureLink RNA Mini Kit (Invitrogen 12183-018A, USA)
- DyNAmo cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo Scientific F-470L, USA)
- DNA Ladder (1 Kb and 100 Bp) (Invitrogen 15628-050, USA)
- 5X Loading Dye (Sigma G7654, USA)
- Agarose (Sigma A9539, USA)

2.3. CELL CULTURE

- Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM)- high glucose (Invitrogen 31966-047, USA)
- Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) low glucose (Invitrogen 10567-14, USA)
- Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS) (Sigma F9665, USA)
- Penicilin/Streptomycin Solution (100X) (Biochrom A2213, Germany)
- 0.05 % Trypsin-EDTA Solution (Thermo Scientific SH30042-01, USA)
- Phosphate Buffered Saline (PBS) (Invitrogen 14190-136, USA

2.4. LABORATORY TECHNICAL EQUIPMENT

- Cell culture flasks, T-25, T-75, T-150 and cell culture plates, 6-well, 96-well, (TPP, Switzerland or Grenier-Bio, Germany)
- Cryovials (TPP, Switzerland)
- Micro pipettes 1000, 200, 100, 10, 2.5 µl (Thermo Scientific, USA)
- Polypropylene centrifuge tubes, 50 ml, 15 ml, 2 ml, 1 ml, 0.5 ml (Isolab, Germany)
- Serological pipettes 25, 10, 5, 2 ml (Lp Italiana Spa, Italy or Axygen, USA)
- CO₂ incubator (Thermo Scientific EW-39320-08, USA)
- Inverted Microscope (Eclipse TC 100 Nikon, USA)
- Hemocytometer (Hausser Bright-Line, USA)
- PCR Thermal Cycler (Biorad MyCycler, USA)
- -80 °C freezer (Nuare ULT Freezer, USA)
- ELISA plate reader (Bio-Tek Elx800, USA)
- Vortex (Stuart SA8, UK)

3. METHODS

3.1. MTT Assay

In our study MTT assay was used for measuring antiproliferative and cytotoxic effects of the synthetic compounds. Cell lines SH-SY5Y, MDA-MB-231, HT29 and L929 cell line were used for antiproliferative activity and cytotoxicity assays respectively. Cells were cultured in a humidified atmosphere of 5% of CO_2 and 95% air at 37°C in a minimum essential medium supplemented with fetal bovine serum. The cell were used during their exponential growth phase.

When the cells reached confluency, they were detached with Tyripsin (0,05%)-EDTA treatment for few minutes at 37° C. After detachment, tyripsin was deactiveted with fresh growth medium. Cell suspension (10 μ L) was placed on the hemocytometer chamber and covered with a cover slip and completely filled the hemocytometer chamber by capillary action. Further, cells on the multiple squares of the hemocytometer were counted by inverted microscope and the average of 3 count were taken and calculated.

For anti-proliferative activity assays, the cell lines were plated at 50 x 10^3 cell per well for SH-SY5Y cells and 5x 10^3 cell per well for MDA-MB-231 and HT29 cells with 100 μ L of growth medium. Control wells were plated with growth medium without any cells. After 24 h incubation the cells were treated with the synthetized compounds. The synthetized compounds were dissolved in less than 0,1% DMSO. These compounds were diluted in the range of 10⁻⁴ M to 10⁻⁹M. Each experiment was carried out 3 times. After 24 h incubation the MTT reagent were added to each wells and the cells were incubated 4 h for color formation than color change in 96-well plates were detected with Elisa plate reader at 540nm. Cell viability was expressed as the percent absorbance relative to that obtained for cells not exposed to synthetic compounds.

In measuring cytotoxicity effect we used L929 cell line at a concentration of $3x \ 10^3$ cell /well. The procedure was the same with anti-proliferative activity assay.

3.2. REVERSE TRANSCRIPTASE POLYMERASED CHAIN REACTION EXPERIMENTS

3.2.1. Total RNA isolation

SH-SY5Y and L929 cells were cultured in 10 mm cell culture petri dishes as $1,4 \ge 10^6$ cell per one dish. After 24 h incubation, synthetic compounds were administrated into the petri dishes in 100 µl volume in order to achieve10⁻⁴ M drug concentration. This concentration was chosen as the most effective synthetic sample concentration.

After 24 h incubation with synthetic compounds, cells were prepared for total RNA isolation. RNA isolation was done with Invitrogen RNA Mini kit according to the manifacturer instructions. Basically cells were trypsinized in (0,05%). Tryripsin-EDTA and Lysis buffer was added to cell pellets. Cells were vortexed and collected in spin coloumn tubes with silico semi membrane provided with the kit. Ethanol was added to perform precipitation of RNA. Samples in spin coloumns were washed several times with wash buffers and centrifugated in 12000 g. Then with adding elution buffer RNA was eluated and collected in collection tubes. Total RNA concentration was calculated with Nanodrop spectrophotometer using 260/280 wavelength.

3.2.2. Synthesis of cDNA by reverse transcription

cDNA was synthesized from isolated RNA using Finnzymes DyNamo cDNA synthesis kit according to the manufacturer's instructions. Total RNA, oligo DT and nuclease free water was added to eppendorf tubes and incubated at 65 ° C for 15 min. After then tubes were incubated with reaction buffer and RNase H ⁺ reverse transcriptase (includes RNase inhibitor) enzyme at room temprature for 10 minute and 37° C for 2 h respectively. Final incubation period was at 65° C for 5 minute. Synthesized c DNA were stored at -20° C for further use.

For PCR reactions, dNTP, distilated water, 10X buffer, forward and reverse primers, template and I –Tag DNA Polymerase enzyme were mixed in an eppendorf tube. Primers and template DNA concentrations varied according to optimization with GAPDH (Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase) and β - actin which are a house keeping gene for normalization of the data. Total reaction volume was 50 µl and the PCR program was carried out.

Component	Volume	Final Concentration
Template	Varies	varies
10X buffer	5 µl	1X
10Mm dNTP	1µl	0,5 mM
Forward Primer	0,4 μl	0,2 μΜ
Reverse Primer	0,4 µl	0,2 µM
DNA polymerase	0,2 μl	
dH ₂ O	Up to 50 µl	

Table 3.1. The content for PCR mixtures

Table 3.2. The program for PCR reaction

Predenaturation	95° C	2 min
Denaturation	95° C	30 second
Annealing	varies	30 second
Extension	72° C	2 min
Last extension	72° C	5 min

Gene	Forward primer	Reverse primer
Name		
elk- 1	5' CCT TGC GGT ACT ACT ATG AC 3'	5' GGC TGC GGC TGC AGA GAC
		TG 3'
c-fos	5' GAATTAACCTGGTGCTGG 3'	5' CAG AAC ATT CAG ACC ACC
		3'
p21	5' TGC CCA AGC TCT ACC T 3'	5' TCT GCC GCC GTT TTC G 3'
cyclinD 1	5' GCC CTC TGT GGC ACA GAT GT 3'	5' CTG CTG GGC CTG GCG CAG
		GC 3'
β -actin	5' AGC GAG CAT CCC CCA AAG TT 3'	5' GGG CAC GAA GGC TCA TCA
		TT 3'
gapdh	5'TGA TGA CAT CAA GAA GGT GGT	5' TCC ACC ACC CTG TTG CT 3'
	GAA G 3'	

Table 3.3. Sequences of designed forward and reverse primers

The PCR samples checked on 1.5% agarose gel prepared with TAE buffer and agarose staining with ethidium bromide. Samples were run at 100 volt for 30 minutes using electrophoresis system and gel was visualized under ultraviolet with Biorad[®] Gel Imager.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. RESULTS OF CELL VIABILITY

SH-SY5Y human neuroblastoma, MDA-MB-231 human metastatic breast cancer, and HT 29 human colon adenocarcinoma cell lines used for for anti-cancer lines and L929 mouse fibroblast cell line as control. SH-SY5Y are widely used human neurablastoma cell lines which are derived from SK-N-SH cells taken from bone marrow biopsy of a neuroblastoma patient. MDA-MB-231 cell lines are the epithelial cell lines of the mammary gland tissue. Since these cell lines have the aggressive metastatic properties of breast adenocarcinoma cells they are widely used in anti-cancer studies. HT29 colon adenocarcinoma cell lines is often used as a model for colorectal cancer studies.

In our study, we used three different group of synthetic drugs with different chemical and structural properties;

- 4-(1,3-dioxoisoindolin-2-yl)benzenesulfonamide and 4-(4,5,6,7-tetrafluoro-1,3dioxoisoindolin-2-yl)benzenesulfonamide structured thalidomide derivatives synthesised for antimicrobial, antiinflammatory, antitumoral purposes
- 4-phenylpiperidine derivatives for sigma receptor ligands
- 1-(naphthalen-2-ylmethyl)piperazine derivatives for antitumoral activities.

4.1.1. Thalidomide Derivatives

Thalidomide derivatives consists of 15 different compounds and their anti-tumor activities first tested in SH-SY5Y neuroblastoma cell line.



Figure 4.1. The effects of a range of concentration of synthetic compounds T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, T6, T7 and T8 on cell viability in SH-SY5Y and L929 cells

As shown in Figure 4.1, these compounds did not showed significant reduction on SH-SY5Y cells. Also they showed decrease in cell viability on L929 cell lines except T1. Compound T2, T5 and T6 reduced the viability of SH-SY5Y cell in the ratio of 20% on average where they reduced viability of L929 cell line in the ratio of 30% (p<0.05). Moreover, a cytotoxic effect was observed in T5 besides its anti-proliferative effect (p<0.05). T8 increased the cell viability in SH-SY5Y cells furthermore reducing the cell viability in L929 cells in the ratio of 20%. According to these results, none of the compounds this series selected for further evaluation.


Figure 4.2. The effects of a range of concentration of synthetic compounds T9, T10, T11, T12, T13, T14 and T15 on cell viability in SH-SY5Y and L929 cells

As shown in Figure 4.2., all of these compounds showed anti-proliferative effect except T9 and T11. T9 showed little effect on SH-SY5Y and L929 cells where T11 showed better effect on L929 cells. Compound T10 showed reduction on SH-SY5Y with the ratio of 40% but it did not showed cytotoxic effect on L929 cells (p<0.05). T12 showed 70% reduction in SH-SY5Y cells same time with its reduced cell viability down to 60% in L929 cells (p<0.05). Although T14 and T15 showed the same effect on L929 and SH-SY5Y cells with the ratio of 50%, they are the most potent candidates in this group because while they reduced the viability with the ratio of 70% in SH-SY5Y cells, it showed little effect on control cells (p<0.05). When we compared the compounds chemically, one explanation of why T12 compound is more active than T14 compound could be the presence of additional methyl groups. Thus the lipophilicity may be increased and the cellular uptake may be increased also (although our studies do not address the issue of cellular uptake at this point). When we compared T10 and T11, in T10 replacement of pyrimidin with phenyl group may be leading to more anti-proliferative activity than T11.



Figure 4.3. The effects of a range of concentration of compounds T10, T12, T13, T14 and T15 on cell viability in SH-SY5Y and L929 cells with upper concentration

We tested the higher concentration of the potential compounds in series T. The increase in concentration causes an additional 20% reduction in cell viability in SH-SY5Y whereas an insignificant decrease occurred in L929 cell lines. In compound T12, SH-SY5Y cell viability decreased from 30 % to 20 %, on the other hand in L929 cell lines, no remarkable change was observed. T13 caused a slight change in SH-SY5Y cell viability but raised the cell viability in L929 cells (p<0.05). Based on these results, compound T10, T12, T15 can potentially be used as an anti-tumor drug candidate at this higher concentration.



Figure 4.4. The effects of synthetic compounds T10, T12, T13, T14 and T15 on cell viability in MDA-MB-231 cells

As shown in figure 4.4. drugs that are effective on SH-SY5Y cells did not show significant reduction in cell viability on MDA-MB-231 cells. Compound T10 caused a decrease of 10% in cell viability; whereas T12, T13 and T14 caused a decrease of 20% in average. When we look T15, no anti-proliferative effect was observed. Therefore, these compounds do not present a viable drug candidate for medical use in breast cancer.



Figure 4.5. The effects of synthetic compounds T10, T12, T13, T14 and T15 on cell viability in HT29 colon carcinoma cells.

As shown in figure 4.5. these drugs did not showed significant reduction on viability in HT29 cell lines except T14. T14 caused a decrease 60% in HT29 cell line. While T10 and T12 showed a decrease of 12%; T15 showed a 20% decrease in cell viability. T13 did not show any anti-proliferative effect. Although T14 showed significant reduction in SH-SY5Y cells and HT29 cells, it showed cytotoxic effect on L929 cell lines. Therefore T14 cannot be regarded as an ideal drug candidate.

In recent years, thalidomide and derivatives have gained significance in drug development research not only with their anti-inflammatory effects but also with their anti-tumor effects. Thalidomide is approved to be a treatment for multiple myeloma. At the same time it is realized to be effective on prostate and renal cell carcinoma. Therefore, in our study we decided to test our thalidomide smilar derivatives on different cell lines. When compared to HT29 and MDA-MB-231 cell lines we can say that these drug candidates showed the most anti-proliferative effect on SH-SY5Y cell line. Thalidomide is a derivative of glutamic acid and due to its neurotransmitter feature in neurons, cellular uptake of drug candidates in SH-SY5Y cell lines may be easier than other cell lines. In a recent study, thalidome showed more antiproliferative activity on SH-SY5Y cells than on MDA-MB-231 cells [67]. It is seen that in xenograft model of human neurobalstoma, thalidomide showed anti-angiogenic effect by blocking VEGF and induced apoptosis in another study [68]. In synthesized thalidomide derivatives, because of the less cytotoxicity on L929 cell lines and selective anti- proliferative effects on SH-SY5Y cell lines, T13 can be considered as a serious anti-cancer drug candidate on neuroblastoma.

4.1.2. Sigma receptor ligand

This part covers some compounds possessing sigma receptor ligand activities. These compounds were screened on SH-SY5Y, HT29, MDA-MB-231 and L929 cell lines.



Figure 4.6. The effects of S1-S7 compounds on cell viability in SH-SY5Y and L929 cells

As shown in Figure 4.6. no significant cytotoxicity was observed in S1, S2, S3 class of drugs. Although S4, S5, S6 showed little cytotoxicity, (viability around 80%) values were in acceptable range. However, increased cytotoxicity was observed in compound S7 (p<0.05).

When the compounds tested for their effect of in SH-SY5Y human neuroblastoma cell lines S1, S5, S6 and S7 showed no effect on the viability of these cells. Altough S7 increased the cell viability, S3 and S4 showed significant reduction on cell viability (p<0.05). So these drugs can be drug candidate because of their anti-proliferative activity. When we compare S3 and S4, S4 is more effective on SH-SY5Y cells but this drug showed cytotoxicity on L929 cell lines. Although S3 showed less reduction of viability on SH-SY5Y cell line (p<0.05). Therefore, S3 selected as potential candidate.

All S series compounds contain cylopentanone ring as S4 contains cylohexanone ring. This change in structure may increase lipofility of the compound where this can lead to an effective cell penetration through membrane. As a result, antiproliferative effect of S4 can be expected to be higher than the other members of this series. As the carbonil group changes into hydroxyphenyl on cyclopentananone ring of S7; cytotoxic effect increases while antiproliferative effect disappears.



Figure 4.7. The effects of compound S3 and S4 on cell viability in SH-SY5Y and L929 cells with upper concentration

Compound S3 and S4 with upper concentrations, which are the most effective compounds of this series, were tested again. Both of the compounds showed significant reduction on SH-SY5Y at the highest concentration but at the same time showed more cytotoxicity on control cells. An increase of concentration may lead to loss of selectivity to SH-SY5Y cells and from the results, we can say that the suitable concentration of both drugs is 10⁻⁴ M.



Figure 4.8. The effects of compound S3 and S4 on cell viability of MDA-MB-231 cells

In Figure 4.8., S3 and S4 showed approximately 20% reduction on cell viability at the highest concentration. They cannot be considered as potential drugs for MDA-MB-231 cells.



Figure 4.9. The effect of compound S3 and S4 on cell viability in HT29 cells

As shown in Figure 5.8., S3 showed some decrease the cell viability (viability around 60%) when S4 showed positive effect on the viability. Since S4 cannot be drug candidate for HT29 cells, H3 can.

Recent studies showed that sigma receptors are highly expressed in various cancer cells. When we compare all of sigma receptor ligands on SH-SY5Y, MDA-MB-231 and HT29 cells, the most effective reduction on viability was observed in SH-SY5Y cells. This can be commended as sigma receptor ligands may show more selectivity to SH-SY5Y cells. Sigma α -1 receptors are well characterized in the central nervous system thus it may involved in nervous system disease. Sigma ligands that we used in this study are sigma α -1 selective ligands. This situation might be the answer why these compounds are more selective to neuroblastoma cells.

4.1.3. Piperazine derivatives

Ten compounds from this group tested on HT29 and MDA-MB-231 cell lines for antiproliferative activity where L929 cell line used as control.



Figure 4.10. The effects of compound P5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14, 16, 17 and 18 on cell viability in L929 cells

In this figure the compound P5, P6, P17 and P11 showed reduction in cell viability in the ratio of 10-20%. However, P7 caused 50% reduction on cell viability in L929 cells. But when we compared with others, P8 is the most cytotoxic compound in L929 cell line and reduced the cell viability around to 30%. However P9, P14, P16 and P18 showed positive effect on L929 cell viability. When we compare all the compounds of this series, all of these drugs except P8 and P7 can be potential drug candidate because of their less cytotoxicity on control cells



Figure 4.11. The effects of compound P7 - P18 on cell viability in MDA-MB-231 and HT29 cells

As shown in Figure 4.11., this group of compounds showed anti-proliferative activity on HT29 cells except P11 and P17. P8 and P7 are the most effective drugs in HT29 cells.

When we looked at MDA-MB-31 cells P8 and P7 again showed significant reduction on cell viability. However, P16 and P17 showed proliferative effect. On the other hand P18 and P14 showed no effect on MDA-MB-231 cells.

When we compared HT29 and MDA-MB-231 cell lines, they seemed to be more effective on HT29 cells showing cytotoxic effect on L929 cells. As a result, this cytotoxic effect decreased the potential of the compounds for medical use. On the other hand compound P5 is both effective on HT29 and MDA-MB-231 cells, and furthermore it did not showed cytotoxic effect on L929 cells. Thus, it can be considered as a potent anti-tumor drug candidate.

Since piperazine has a small and stable structure, it is usually combined with many drugs. Recent studies showed that when it is combined with other active substances, such as epoxide in epoxide containing piperazines, they are effective on MCF-7 and prostate cancers [69]. In another study a new flavonoid with a piperezine substitution, YG-202, induces p53 and p21 expression leading to apotosis [70]. As a conclusion, it is possible that piperazine substituents can be potent anti-tumor drug. And they can be applied to other cancer types.

IC ₅₀ VALUES FOR TESTED COMPOUNDS ON ALL CELL LINES				
Compound	SH-SY5Y	L929 cells	MDA-MB-231	HT29 cells
	cells		cells	
T1	>100µM	>100 µM	-	-
T2	>100 µM	>100 µM	-	-
T3	>100 µM	>100 µM	-	-
T4	>100 µM	>100 µM	-	-
T5	>100 µM	>100 µM	-	-
T6	>100 µM	>100 µM	-	-
T7	>100 µM	>100 µM	-	-
T8	>100 µM	>100 µM		
Т9	>100 µM	>100 µM	-	-
T10	>100 µM	>100 µM	>100 µM	>100 µM
T11	>100 µM	>100 µM	-	-
T12	10,2 µM	>100 µM	>100 µM	>100 µM
T13	39,8 µM	>100 µM	>100 µM	>100 µM
T14	33,1 µM	>100 µM	>100 µM	79,4 µM
T15	>100 µM	44,6 µM	>100 µM	>100 µM
S1	>100 µM	>100 µM	-	-
S2	>100 µM	>100 µM	-	-
S 3	53,7 µM	>100 µM	>100 µM	>100 µM
S4	42,6 µM	>100 µM	>100 µM	>100 µM
S5	>100 µM	-	-	-
\$6	>100 µM	-	-	-
S7	>100 µM	-	-	-
P5	-	>100 µM	>100 µM	74,1 μM
P6	-	>100 µM	>100 µM	>100 µM
P7	-	>100 µM	57,5 μM	51,1 µM
P8	-	77,6 µM	47,8 μΜ	47,8 μM
P9	-	>100 µM	>100 µM	>100 µM

Table 4.1. List of IC_{50} values for tested compounds on all cell lines

P11	-	>100 µM	>100 µM	>100 µM
P14	-	>100 µM	>100 µM	>100 µM
P16	-	>100 µM	>100 µM	>100 µM
P17	-	>100 µM	>100 µM	>100 µM
P18	-	>100 µM	>100 µM	53,7 μM

Table 4.1. List of IC₅₀ values for tested compounds on all cell lines (continue)

 $IC_{50 \text{ value}}$ is determined as a concentration of 50% growth inhibition effect of compounds on cell lines. In this project the maximum treatment concentration of compounds were 100µM. IC_{50} values of some compounds cannot be calculated because they could not inhibit 50% growth of cells even in 100 µM.

4.2. ANALYSIS OF CELL CYCLE RELATED GENE EXPRESSION IN RESPONSE TO TREATMENT WITH COMPOUNDS STUDIED

We first isolated total RNA from SH-SY5Y and L929 cells which were treated with compounds and then we synthesized cDNA and used them in PCR experiments. The control cells were exposed to 0,1% DMSO solution. Drugs were applied at appropriate concentration.

For normalising RT-PCR datas, primers of *gapdh* and β -*actin* 'house- keeping genes' assumed to be expressed in all cell types to similar levels are used to equalize cDNAs of all samples.



Figure 4.12. RT-PCR results for comparing the expression levels of cell cycle related genes on SH-SY5Y cells which were exposured with P compounds



Figure 4.13. RT-PCR results for comparing the expression levels of cell cycle related genes on SH-SY5Y cells which were exposured with T compounds



Figure 4.14. RT-PCR results for comparing expression levels of *cyclin D1* and *gapdh* gene on L929 cells which were exposured with P compounds



Figure 4.15. RT-PCR results for comparing expression levels of *cyclin D1* and *gapdh* gene on L929 cells which were exposured with T compounds

As seen in Figures we cannot equalize the house keeping gene expression levels of all samples due to high toxicity of the compounds (not enough cells = not enough RNA). After normalizing the data to the best of our ability, gene expression ratios was calculated according to the ratio of interested gene density / house keeping gene density of control cells (not exposed to the synthetic compounds).



Figure 4.16. RT-PCR results for comparing expression levels of *elk-1* gene on L929 cells which were exposured with P and T compounds



Figure 4.17. RT-PCR results for comparing expression levels of *c-fos* gene on L929 cells which were exposured with P and T compounds



Figure 4.18. RT-PCR results for comparing expression levels of p21 gene on L929 cells which were exposured with P and T compounds

As seen in Figure 4.16., 4.17. and 4.18.; we cannot observe any bands on the gel we cannot calculated the ratio of gene expressions of *c-fos*, *elk-1* and *p21* on L929 cells. Although these genes are uniquitous, they were not detected in L929 cells. Primer degradation might be an explanation of these results.



Figure 4.19. The ratios of *p21* gene expression / house-keeping genes expression in SH-SY5Y cells treated with P and T compounds (control sample were considered as 100% of gene expression ratio)

As shown in Figure 4.19, P compounds generally decreased the p21 gene expression levels. It is observed that compound P6 and P15 did not alter this gene expression level. However P5 showed the most significant reduction, down to nearly 70 % of control. As for T compounds, it is seen that all variations of the series, especially T15 increased p21 expression levels to almost 130 % of control.



Figure 4.20. The ratios of *cyclin D1* gene expression/house keeping genes expression in SH-SY5Y cells treated with P and T compounds (control sample were considered as 100% of gene expression ratio)

In Figure 4.20., it is clearly seen that P compounds except p15 generally reduced the p21 gene expression levels. P6 compound did not significantly change the expression level of *cyclin D1*. Nevertheless in cells treated with T series, p21 expression levels rised .to around 120% ratio.



Figure 4.21. The ratios of *elk 1* gene expression / house-keeping genes expression in SH-SY5Y cells treated with P and T compounds (control sample were considered as 100% of gene expression ratio)

As shown in Figure 4.21, in the cells treated with P compounds, decrease in the level of *elk1* expression was not significant. As for T series, except for effect of T14, a little increase of *elk-1* expression level were observed, but it did not go beyond around 110 %. The significance of this increase needs to be confirmed.

.



Figure 4.22. The ratios of *c-fos* gene expression / house-keeping genes expression in SH-SY5Y cells treated with P and T compounds (control sample were considered as 100% of gene expression ratio)

In Figure 4.22., T series especially T13, increased the *c-fos* expression level to 30-50%. In contrast, in P series only P6 increased the expression level of *c-fos* to 10%. Other compounds showed reduction on *c-fos* expression levels.



Figure 4.23. The ratios of *cyclinD1* gene expression / house keeping genes expression in L929 cells treated with P and T compounds (control sample were considered as 100% of gene expression ratio)

In figure 4.23, all of the compounds except P17 and T15 decreased the *cyclin D1* expression levels. However, P17 increased *cyclinD1* expression to 20%.

p21 has a role in cell cycle arrest and DNA repair. It inhibits several cyclin / CDK complexes and cause a pause in G1-S phase transition of the cell cycle through p53 tumor suppressor gene [71]. If there is a significant damage that could not be repaired, it will lead to activation of pro-apoptotic genes such as Noxo, Puma and Bax and inhibits anti-apoptotic genes such as Bcl-2 and Bcl-xL [72].

In our results, p21 expression levels were reduced in P series and increased in T series. Hence, it could be that during the experiments (which rely on non-synchronous population of cells) we may not have treated the cells all at the same phase of the cell cycle, therefore may not have observed proper regulation of p21 expression at the onset of G1/S phase. As our treatment lasts 24 hours, P series may have already initiated apoptosis in these cells, and by the time we have obtained RNA there may have remained no adequate living cells to compare expression levels of the gene. Another reason of this effect might be that these drugs do not act through the p21 gene and may be using as yet unidentified pathways. c-Fos is a cellular proto-oncogene and a member of immediate early gene family of transcription factors. Binding to c-Jun protein, it forms the AP-1 transcription factor which upregulates transcription of a diverse range of genes involved in everything from proliferation and differentiation to defense against invasion and cell damage [73].

c-Fos and c-Jun proteins are the first proteins transcribed in G0/S phase and it is seen that they also initiate the cell cycle. C-Jun / c-Fos complex binds to specific promoter regions of DNA and trigger DNA transcription [74].

It is expected to observe a reduction in gene expression of c-Fos. However, in our results, T series increased the expression levels of *c-fos*. This can be explained that the compounds leaded to cell death and little amount of remaining cells increased the *c-fos* expressions to rise their survivals. Another alternative idea might be that these drug concentrations are not sufficient to decrease the expression levels of the gene.

elk1 (E twenty-six (ETS)-like transcription factor 1) which belongs to ETS oncogene family is a protooncogene and functions as a transcription activator. It has significant role in various diseases such as Alzheimer's disease, Down syndrome, cancer, drug addiction and depression and also in long-term memory formation. One of the downstream target of *elk*-1 is the gene for the *c-fos* proto-oncogene [75].

Some of the compounds we tested in this PCR analysis showed a cytotoxic effect on SH-SY5Y cells. Due to the cytotoxic effect on SH-SY5Y cells I expected a decrease in *elk-1* expression levels as well. However the compounds did not decrease elk-1 expression. One explanation could be that these drugs did not inhibit the proliferation by targeting this gene.

In P series except P6 and P16, the expression levels of *c-fos* and *elk 1* are decreased. It could be suggested that P series compounds could inhibit cell proliferation by targeting these protooncogenes. Reduction in expression levels of *cyclinD-1* and *p21* could be due to the initiation of cell death pathways (either necrotic or apoptotic) already before it could be detected in our assays by the expression of genes analyzed.

cyclinD-1 is a protein which specific to G1/S in cell cyle and protein expressed by this gene is the member of cyclin family which characterized being in large amount in throughout the cell cycle. Mutations and overexpression of this gene constantly observed in different tumor types and may contribute to tumorigenesis [76]. It is expected that the compounds exhibiting a high anti-proliferative effect might decrease *cyclinD-1* expression. Nevertheless, in our results we could not observe a significant decrease in the expression SH-SY5Y cells. Hence, it is suggested that the cells could die because of necrosis or they undergo apoptosis already before it could be detected in G1/S checkpoint. This circumstance may also affect the results of other gene expression analyses, since we have incubated the cells for 24 hours with the compounds. Incubation period of 6h and 12 h respectively could be included in the assay so as to provide more detailed analysis and to possibly get data at earlier expression time points.

Another explanation of these results could be that these compounds might bind or interact with the *cyclinD-1* and other proteins instead of regulating gene expression. Therefore, studies at the protein level could also be conducted in the long term.

In Figure 4.23., we observed that compounds generally decreased the *cyclinD-1* expression levels. It is expected that the cytotoxic compounds might decrease the expression. Although P6, T10, and T13 did not show cytotoxic effect on L929 cells, they decreased *cyclinD-1* expression. The reduced levels of *cyclinD-1* of P6, T10 and T13 does not necessarily mean the less amount of proteins, the efficiency of translation of *cyclinD-1* mRNA to protein might have been diminished. In contrast, the translation efficiency could have decreased in the cells treated by as P18, whose *cyclinD1* expression appears to be relatively higher. In this case, the protein levels ought to be measured by Western Blotting or mRNA levels should be tested more precisely by Real Time PCR in order to compare the effects of the drugs in more details.

5. CONCLUSION

The objective of this study was to screen the anti-proliferative activity of new synthesized compounds. For this purpose we first tested activities on cell viability with MTT assays. According to the results it can be concluded that S3, S4 compounds in sigma receptor ligands; P5, P6, P7, P8, P9, P11, P14, P16, P17 and P18 in piperazine derivatives (unpublished results) and T10, T12, T13, T14 and T15 in thalidomide derivatives have specific anti-proliferative activities on neuroblastoma cell line so that they can be used for anticancer drug development processes. In addition, P10 and P13 showed proliferative effect on L929 healthy fibroblast control cells and can be used for drug development process for wound healing in the long term.

The aim of the second part of this study was to understand the mechanism of action of these compounds. To that end, we compared the expression levels of some of the cell cycle related genes using RT-PCR experiments. This was a preliminary study, and so far our results have been largely inconclusive. However, most of these cell cycle-related genes are actually regulated at the protein level, therefore future experiments should address the effect of these compounds on the protein level of these genes. Additionally, as part of the drug development process, these drug candidates should be screened on primary tumor cells, followed by *in vivo* tumor growth assays in animals.

APPENDIX A: CHEMICAL STRUCTURES OF ANALYZED COMPOUNDS

Table A.1. Chemical Sturctures of Thalidomide Derivatives

Code	Compound Name	Structure
T1	N-([4-(1,3-Dioxoisoindolin-2- yl)phenyl]sulfonyl)acetamide	
T2	N-benzoyl-4-(1,3-dioxoisoindolin-2-yl)benzene sulfonamide	
Τ3	N-benzoyl-4-(1,3-Dioxoisoindolin-2- yl)benzenesulfonamide	
T4	N-(4,6-Dimethylpyrimidin-2-yl)-4-(1,3- dioxoisoindolin-2-yl)benzene sulfonamide	
T5	4-(1,3-Dioxoisoindolin-2-yl)-N-(2- thiazolyl)benzenesulfonamide	
T6	4-(1,3-Dioxoisoindolin-2-yl)-N-(5-methylisoxazole-3- yl)benzene sulfonamide	$ \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ H \\ H \\ H \\ H \\ H \\ H \\ H \\ H \\ H \\$
T7	4-(1,3-Dioxoisoindolin-2-yl)-N-(4-methylpyrimidin-2- yl)benzene sulfonamide	

Code	Compound Name	Structure
T9	N-([4-(4,5,6,7-Tetrafluoro-1,3-dioxoisoindolin-2- yl)phenyl]sulfonyl)acetamide	
T10	N-benzoyl-4-(4,5,6,7-Tetrafluoro-1,3-dioxo- isoindolin-2-yl)benzenesulfonamide	F = O = H = O = O = O = O = O = O = O = O
T11	4-(4,5,6,7-Tetrafluoro-1,3-dioxo-isoindolin-2-yl)-N- pyrimidin-2-yl-benzenesulfonamide	
T12	N-(4,6-Dimethylpyrimidin–2-yl)-4-(4,5,6,7- tetrafluoro-1,3-dioxoisoindolin-2- yl)benzenesulfonamide	
T13	4-(4,5,6,7-Tetrafluoro-1,3-dioxo-isoindolin-2-yl)-N- (2-thiazolyl)benzenesulfonamide	
T14	N-(5,6–Dimethoxypyrimidin-4-yl)-4-(4,5,6,7- tetrafluoro-1,3–dioxoisoindolin-2- yl)benzenesulfonamide	$F = O = H_3CO = OCH_3$ $F = O = H_N = N$ $F = O = O = O$
T15	N-(5-methylisoxazol-3-yl)-4-(4,5,6,7-tetrafluoro-1,3- dioxoisoindolin-2-yl)benzenesulfonamide	

Table A.1. Chemical Stuructures of Thalidomide Derivatives (continue)

Code	Compound Name	Structure
S1	2[2-oxo-2-(4-phenyl-1-piperidyl)- ethyl]cyclopentanone	
S2	2-(2-(4-benzilpiperidin-1-il)-2-oksoetil)siklopentanon	
S 3	2-((4-phenylpiperidinil)carbonyl)cyclopentanone	
S4	2-((4-Phenylpiperidinil)carbonyl)cyclohexanone	
S5	2-(4-acetyl-4-phenylpiperidin-1- carbonyl)cyclopentanone	H ₃ C ⁻ O
S6	2-(2-(4-acetyl-4-phenylpiperidin-1-il)-2-oxoethyl cyclopentanone	
S7	2-(2-hydroxy-2-phenylcyclopentyl)-1-(4- phenylpiperidin-1-yl)ethanone	

Table A.2. Chemical structure of Sigma Receptor Ligands

REFERENCES

- Dimassi, J. A., R. W. Hansen, and H. G. Grabowski, "The Price of Innovation: New Estimates of Drug Development Costs", *Journal of Health Economics*, Vol. 22, pp. 151-185, 2003.
- Kola, I. and J. Landis, "Can the Pharmaceutical Industry Reduce Attrition Rates?" Nature Reviews Drug Discovery, Vol. 13, pp. 711-715, 2004.
- Nihad, A. M. and P. Ellis, "Drug Development: From Concept to Marketing!" Nephron Clinical Practice, Vol. 133, pp. 125-131, 2009.
- 4. Sharon, P. M. Crouch and K. J. Slater, "High-throughput Cytotoxicity Screening: Hit and Miss", *Drug Discovery Today*, Vol. 6, pp. 48-53, 2001.
- Sittampalam, G. S., S. D. Kahl and P. W. Janzen, "High- throughput screening:advance in assay technologies", *Current Opinion in Chemical Biology*, Vol. 10, pp. 384-391, 1997.
- 6. Wiliams, D. and T. Lemke, *Foye's principle in medical chemistry*, Lippincott Wiliams and Wilkins, Philedelphia, 2007.
- 7. Gribbon, P. and S. Andreas, "High-throughput Drug Discovery: What Can We Expect from HTS?", *Drug Discovery Today*, Vol. 12, pp. 17-22, 2005.
- Crespo, B. and J. L. López, "A Better Understanding of Molecular Mechanisms Underlying Human Disease", *Proteomic- Clinical Applications*, Vol. 1, pp. 983-1003, 2007.
- Hong, J., J. B. Edel and A. J. DeMello, "Micro and Nanofluidic Systems for Hightroughput Biological Screening", *Drug Discovery Today*, Vol. 14, pp. 134-136, 2008.

- Takimoto, Chris H, "Anticancer Drug Development at the US National Cancer Institute", *Cancer Chemotherapy and Pharmacology*, Vol. 52, pp. 29-33, 2003.
- Yang, T., Johnny C. Wu, Chunli Yan, Yuanfeng Wang, Ray Luo, Michael B. Gonzales, Kevin N. Dalby and P. Ren., "Virtual Screening Using Molecular Stimulations.", *Proteins:Structure, Function and Bioinformatics*, Vol. 79, pp. 1940-1951, 2011
- Kroemer, R. T., "Structure-Based Drug Design: Docking and Scoring" *Current* Protein and Peptide Science, Vol. 8.4, pp. 312-328, 2007
- 13. Shoichet, B. K., "Design and Experimental Testing of Docking Algorithms", http://shoichetlab.compbio.ucsf.edu/docking.php [retrieved 15 December 2002].
- Houghten, R. A., Wilson, D. B., Pinilla, C. "Drug discovery and vaccine development using mixturebased synthetic combinatorial libraries.", *Drug Discovery Today*, Vol 5, pp. 276-285, 2000.
- 15. Li, A. P., "Screening for human ADME/Tox drug properties in drug discovery", *Drug Discovery Today*, Vol. 6, pp. 357, 2001.
- Shoemaker, R. H., D. A. Scudiero, G. Melillo, M. J. Currens, A. P. Monks, A. A. Rabow, D. G. Covell and E. A. Sausville, "Application of High Throughput, Molecular Targeted Screening to Anticancer Drug Discovery.", *Current Topics in Medicinal Chemistry*, Vol. 2, pp. 229-246, 2002.
- Duncan, R., "Drug Development and Regulation", *The American Journal of Medicine*, Vol. 36, pp. 369-376, 2008.
- Tweats, D. J., Scales M. D. C, *Toxicity testing; in Griffin JP and O'Grady J (eds): The Textbook of Pharmaceutical Medicine*, BMJ Books, London, 2002.

- Philstrom, B. L. and M. L. Barnett, "Design, Operation and Interpretation of Clinical Trials", *Journal of Dental Research*, Vol. 89, pp. 759-772, 2010.
- 20. Pocock, S. J., *Clinical trials: a practical approach.*, John Wiley, New York, 2007.
- 21. Christopher, P. A. and V. B. Van, "New Drug Development: Estimating Entry from Human Clinical Trials.", *FTC Bureau of Economics*, pp. 262, 2003.
- Behr, S., "New Drug Development: Design, Methodology, and Analysis by J. R. Turner.", *Biometrics*, Vol. 64.1, pp. 313-14, 2008.
- 23. Stallard, N., "Group-Sequential Methods for Adaptive Seamless Phase II/III Clinical Trials", *Journal of Biopharmaceutical Statistics*, Vol. 21, pp. 787-801, 2011.
- Brown, S. R., W. M. Gregory, C. J. Twelves, M. Buyse, F. Collinson, M. Parmar, MT. Seymour, J. M. Brown, "Designing Phase II Trials In Cancer: A Systematic Review And Guidance", *British Journal of Cancer*, Vol. 105, pp. 194-199, 2011.
- 25. Mol, L., M. Koopman, P. B. Ottevanger and P. J. Punt, "A prospective monitoring of fatal serious adverse events (SAEs) in a Dutch Colorectal Cancer Group (DCCG) phase III trial (CAIRO) in patients with advanced colorectal cancer.", *Annals of Oncology*, Vol. 21, pp. 415-418, 2010.
- Betteridge, J., "Pitavastatin- Results From Phase III&IV", Atherosclerosis Supplements, Vol. 11, pp. 8-14, 2010.
- 27. Eckhardt, S., "Current Medical Chemistry", Anti-Cancer Agents, Vol. 2, No. 3, 2002
- Lee, C. W, Hong, D. H, Han, S. B., and Jong, S.-H. ". A novel stereo-selective sulfonylurea, 1-[1-(4-aminobenzoyl)-2,3-dihydro-1H-indol-6-sulfonyl]-4-phenyl-imidazolidin -2-one, has antitumor efficacy in in vitro and in vivo tumor models" *Biochemical. Pharmacology*, Vol. 64, pp. 473-480, 2002.

- Garsky, Victor M., P. K. Lumma, D. M. Feng, J. Wai, H. G. Ramjit, M. K. S. A. Oliff, R. E. Jones, D. DeFeo-Jones and R. M. Freidinger. "The Synthesis of a Prodrug of Doxorubicin Designed to Provide Reduced Systemic Toxicity and Greater Target Efficacy." *Journal of Medicinal Chemistry*, Vol. 44, pp. 4216-4224, 2001.
- Valeria, G. and M. Fussenegger. "In Vitro Assays for Anticancer Drug Discovery? a Novel Approach Based on Engineered Mammalian Cell Lines" *Anti-Cancer Drugs*, Vol. 16.3, pp. 223-228, 2005.
- 31. Beverly, A. T., *Tumor Models in Cancer Research*, New Jersey, 2002.
- Hung, P., J. P. Lee, P. Sabounchi, R. Lin, L. P. Lee, "Continuous Perfusion Microfluidic Cell Culture Array for High-Throughput Cell-Based Assays", *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, Vol. 89, pp. 1-8, 2005.
- Terry L. Riss, R. A. Moravec, and A. L. Niles., "Assay Development for Cell Viability and Apoptosis for High-Throughput Screening", *CRC Press*, 2010.
- Staveren, V., W. C. G., D.Y. W. Solís, A. Hébrant, V. Detours, J. E. Dumont, and C. Maenhaut. "Human Cancer Cell Lines: Experimental Models for Cancer Cells in Situ? For Cancer Stem Cells?" *Biochimica Et Biophysica Acta (BBA) Reviews on Cancer*, pp. 92-103, Vol. 175.2, 2009.
- Essodaïgui, M., H. J. Broxterman, A. and Garnier-Suillerot, "Kinetic Analysis of Calcein and Calcein–Acetoxymethylester Efflux Mediated by the Multidrug Resistance Protein and P-Glycoprotein", *Biochemistry*, Vol. 37, pp. 2243-2250, 1998.
- Kwok, A. K. H, "Effects of Trypan Blue on Cell Viability and Gene Expression in Human Retinal Pigment Epithelial Cells", *British Journal of Ophthalmology*, Vol. 88, pp. 590-1594, 2004.

- Karaszi, E., K. Jakab, L. Homolya, G. Szakacs, Z. Hollo, B. Telek, A. Kiss, L. Rejto,
 S. Nahajevszky, B. Sarkadi and J. Kappelmayer, "Calcein Assay for Multidrug Resistance Reliably Predicts Therapy Response and Survival Rate in Acute Myeloid Leukaemia", *British Journal of Haematology*, Vol. 112, pp. 308-314, 2001.
- Rhedi, A. S., U. Tidefelt, K. Jönsson, A. Lundin and C. Paul, "Comparison of a Bioluminescence Assay with Differential Staining Cytotoxicity for Cytostatic Drug Testing in Vitro in Human Leukemic Cells", *Leukemia Research*, Vol. 17, pp. 271-276, 1993.
- 39. Zund, G., Q. Ye., S. P. Hoerstruo, A. Schoeberlein, A. C. Schmid, J. Grunenfelder, P. Vogt, .M. Turina, "Tissue engineering in cardiovascular surgery :MTT a rapid and reliable quantitative method to asses the optimal human cell seeding on polymeric meshes", *European Journal of Cardio –thoraric Surgery*, pp. 519-524, 1999.
- 40. Abby, C. C. and C. A. Pritsos, "The Mitochondrial Uncoupler Dicumarol Disrupts the MTT Assay", *Biochemica Pharmacology*, Vol. 66, pp. 281-287, 2003.
- Lawrence, N. J., D. Rennison, A. T. McGown, S. Ducki, L. A. Gul, J. A. Hadfield and N. Khan, "Linked Parallel Synthesis and MTT Bioassay Screening of Substituted Chalcones", *Journal of Combinatorial Chemistry*, Vol. 3, pp. 421-426, 2001.
- Datki, Z., A. Juhász, M. Gálfi, K. Soós, R. Papp, D. Zádori and B. Penke, "Method for Measuring Neurotoxicity of Aggregating Polypeptides with the MTT Assay on Differentiated Neuroblastoma Cells, "*Brain Research Bulletin*, Vol. 62, pp. 223-229, 2003.
- Fotakis,G. and J. A. Timbrell, "In Vitro Cytotoxicity Assays: Comparison of LDH, Neutral Red, MTT and Protein Assay in Hepatoma Cell Lines following Exposure to Cadmium Chloride", *Toxicology Letters*, Vol. 160, pp. 171-177, 2006.
- 44. Randall, T.,"Thalidomide has 37-year history", *The Journal of American Medical Association*, Vol. 263, pp. 1474, 1990.

- 45. Medwin, G., N. J. Smith and R. J. Powell, "Clinical Experience with Thalidomide in he Management of Severe Oral and Genital Ulceration in Conditions Such as Behcet's Disease: Use of Neurophysiological Studies to Detect Thalidomide Neuropathy", *Annals of the Rheumatic Diseases*, Vol. 53, pp. 828-832, 1994.
- Melchert, M. and A. List, "The Thalidomide Saga", *The International Journal of Biochemistry & Cell Biology*, Vol. 39, pp. 1489-1499, 2007.
- Mcbride, W, "Thalidomide And Congenital Abnormalities", *The Lancet*, Vol. 278, pp. 1358, 1961.
- 48. D'Amato, R. J., "Thalidomide Is an Inhibitor of Angiogenesis.",*Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, Vol. 91, pp. 4082-4085, 1994.
- 49. Richardson, P., "Immunomodulatory Analogs of Thalidomide: An Emerging New Therapy in Myeloma", *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, Vol. 22, pp. 3212-3214, 2004.
- 50. Teo, S. K., "Properties of Thalidomide and its Analogues: Implications for Anticancer Therapy", *AAPS Journal*, Vol. 7, No. 1, pp. 14-19, 2005.
- 51. Perri III A. J., S. Hsu., "A review of thalidomide's history and current dermatological applications", *Dermatology Online Journal*, Vol. 9, No. 3, 2003.
- Guy, D. and C. Montigny, "Modulation of nmda and dopaminergic neurotransmissions by sigma ligands: Possible implications for the treatment of psychiatric disorders", *Life Sciences*, Vol. 58, pp. 721-734, 1996.
- 53. Martin, W. R., C. G. Eades, J. A. Thompson, R. E. Huppler, P. E. Gilbert, "The effects of morphine- and nalorphine-like drugs in the nondependent and morphine-dependent chronic spinal dog", *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics*, Vol. 197, pp. 517-532, 1976.

- Quirion, R., W. D. Bowen, Y. Itzhak, J. L. Junien, J. M. Musacchio, R. B. Rothman, T. P. Su, S. W. Tam, D. P. Taylor, "A proposal for the classification of sigma binding sites", *Trends in Pharmacological Sciences*, Vol. 13, pp. 85-86, 1992.
- Aydar, E., C. Palmer, V. Klachko, M. Jackson., "Sigma receptor as a ligandmodulated auxiliary potassium channel subunit", *Neuron*, Vol. 34, pp. 399-410, 2002.
- Megalizzi, V., M. L. Mercier and C. Decaestecker, "Sigma receptors and their ligands in cancer biology: overview and new perspectives for cancer therapy", *Medicinal Research Reviews*, Vol. 16, pp. 3519-3537, 2010.
- 57. Gund, T. M., J. Floyd, D. Jung, "Molecular modeling of _1 receptor ligands: a model of binding conformational and electrostatic considerations", *Journal of Molecular Graphics and Modelling*, Vol. 22, No. 3, pp. 221-230, 2004.
- Fontanilla, D., M. Johannessen, A. R. Hajipour, N. V. Cozzi, M. B. Jackson, A. E. Ruoho, "The hallucinogen N,N-Dimethyltryptamine (DMT) is an endogenous sigma-1 receptor regulator", *Science*, Vol. 323, No. 5916, pp. 934–937, 2009.
- 59. Guitart, X., C. X, M. X, "Sigma receptors: Biology and therapeutic potential", *Psychopharmacology*, Vol. 174, pp. 301-319, 2004.
- Yaqoob, P., "The nutritional significance of lipid rafts", *Annual Review of Nutrition*, Vol. 29, pp. 257-282, 2009.
- Palmer, C. P., R. Mahen, E. Schnell, M. B. Djamgoz, E. Aydar., "Sigma-1 receptors bind cholesterol and remodel lipid rafts in breast cancer cell lines", *Cancer Research*, Vol. 67, pp. 11166-11175, 2007.
- Sampson, J. J., I. O. Donkor, T. L. Huang, S. E. Adunyah, "Novel piperazine induces apoptosis in U 937 cells", *International Journey of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology*, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 78-88, 2011.
- 63. Ghasi, S. and O. Odurukwe, "The Effects of Sub-chronic Piperazine Treatment on the Liver Status of A Rat Model", *Pharmacologia*, Vol. 9, pp. 259-264, 2011.
- Kamal, A., R., D. R. Reddy, M. K. Reddy, G. Balakishan, T. B. Shaik, M. Chourasia, G. N. Sastry, "Remarkable enhancement in the DNA-binding ability of C2-fluoro substituted pyrrolo[2,1-c][1,4]benzodiazepines and their anticancer potential", *Bioorganic & Medicinal Chemistry*, Vol. 17, pp. 1557-1572, 2009.
- Kumar, C. S. A., S. N. Swamy, N. R. Thimmegowda, S. B. B. Prasad, G. W. Yip, K. S. Rangappa., "Synthesis and evaluation of 1-benzhydryl-sulfonylpiperazine derivatives as inhibitors of MDA-MB-231human breast cancer cell proliferation", *Medicinal Chemstryl Research*, Vol. 16, pp. 179-187, 2007.
- Lee, Y. B., Y. D. Gong, H. Yoon, C. H. Ahn, M. K. Jeon, "Synthesis and anticancer activity of new 1-[(5 or 6-substituted 2-alkoxyquinoxalin-3-yl)aminocarbonyl]-4-(hetero)arylpiperazine derivatives", *Bioorganic & Medicinal Chemistry*, Vol. 18, pp. 7966-7974, 2010.
- Marks, M. G., S. H. I. Jiandong, M. O. Fry, Z. Xiao, M. Trzyna, V. Pokala, M. A. Ihnat and P. K. Li, "Effects of putative hydroxylated thalidomide metabolites on blood vessel density in the chorioallantoic membrane (CAM) assay and on tumor and endothelial cell proliferation", *Bioogicall and Pharmaceutical. Bulletin.*, Vol. 25, No. 5, pp. 597-604, 2002.
- Kaicker, S., K. W. McCrudden, L. Beck, T. New, J. Huang, J. S. Frischer, A. Serur, A. Kadenhe-Chiweshe, A. Yokoi, J. J. Kandel, D. J. Yamashiro., "Thalidomide is anti-angiogenic in a xenograft model of neuroblastoma", *International Journal of Oncology*, Vol. 23, No. 6, pp. 1651-1655, 2003.
- 69. Eilon, G. F., J. Gu, L. M. Slater, K. Hara, J. W. Jacobs, "Tumor apoptosis induced by epoxide-containing piperazines, a new class of anti-cancer agents", *Cancer Chemotheaphy and Pharmacology*, Vol. 45, pp. 183-191, 2000.

- 70. Liu, W, Q. Dai, N. Lu, L. Wei, J. Ha, J. Rong, R. Mu, Q. You, Z. Li, and Q. Guo, "LYG-202 inhibits the proliferation of human colorectal carcinoma HCT-116 cells through induction of G1/S cell cycle arrest and apoptosis via p53 and p21WAF1/Cip1 expression", *Biochemistry and Cell Biology*, Vol. 89, pp. 287-298, 2011.
- 71. Andrel, L. and A. L. Tyner, "The Role of the Cyclin-dependent Kinase Inhibitor p21in Apoptosis 1", *Molecular Cancer Therapeutics*, Vol. 1, pp. 639-649, 2002.
- 72. Abbas, T. and A. Dutta, "p21 in cancer: intricate networks and multiple activities", *National Review Cancer*, Vol. 9, pp. 400-414, 2009.
- 73. Sagar, S. M., F. R. Sharp, "Expression of c-fos protein in brain: metabolic mapping at the cellular level", *Science 3*, Vol. 240, pp. 1328-1879, 1988.
- Shaulian, E., "AP1- The Jun Proteins :Oncogenes or tumor suppressors in disguise?", *Cellular Signalling*, Vol. 22, pp. 894-899, 2010.
- Macleod, K., D. Leprince, D. Stehelin, "The ets gene family", *Trends in Biochemical Sciences*, Vol. 17, pp. 251-256, 1992.
- Musgrove, E. A., C. E. Caldon, J. Barraclough, A. Stone, R. L. Sutherland, "Cyclin d as a therapeutic target in cancer.", *Natural Review of Cancer*, Vol. 11, pp. 558-572, 2011.