Original Article Development of triazole-based PKC-inhibitors to overcome resistance to EGFR inhibitors in EGFR-mutant lung cancers

Pei-Chih Lee^{1,2,3*}, Vathan Kumar^{4,5*}, Govindan Sivakumar^{4,5,6*}, Tzu-Yu Tseng^{1,2,3}, Yi-Chuan Li⁷, Yu-Cyuan Jiang^{1,2,3}, Yu-Chun Hsiao^{1,2,3}, Hsiang-Wen Lin^{4,5}, Chih-Shiang Chang^{4,5}, Mien-Chie Hung^{1,2,3,8,9}

¹Graduate Institute of Biomedical Sciences, China Medical University, Taichung, Taiwan; ²Research Center for Cancer Biology, China Medical University, Taichung, Taiwan; ³Cancer Biology and Precision Therapeutics Center, China Medical University, Taichung, Taiwan; ⁴School of Pharmacy, College of Pharmacy, China Medical University, Taichung, Taiwan; ⁵Drug Development Center, China Medical University, Taichung, Taiwan; ⁶Graduate Institute of Biomedical Engineering, National Chung Hsing University, Taichung, Taiwan; ⁷Department of Biological Science and Technology, College of Life Sciences, China Medical University, Taichung, Taiwan; ⁸Institute of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, College of Life Sciences, China Medical University, Taichung, Taiwan; ⁹Center for Molecular Medicine, China Medical University Hospital, China Medical University, Taichung, Taiwan. *Equal contributors.

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Abstract: Protein kinase C delta (PKCδ) is prominently expressed in the nuclei of EGFR-mutant lung cancer cells, and its presence correlates with poor survival of the patients undergoing EGFR inhibitor treatment. The inhibition of PKCδ has emerged as a viable approach to overcoming resistance to EGFR inhibitors. However, clinical-grade PKCδ inhibitors are not available, highlighting the urgent needs for the development of effective drugs that target PKCδ. In this study, we designed and synthesized a series of inhibitors based on the chemical structure of a pan PKC inhibitor sotrastaurin. This was achieved by incorporating a triazole ring group into the original sotrastaurin configuration. Our findings revealed that the sotrastaurin derivative CMU-0101 exhibited an elevated affinity for binding to the ATP-binding site of PKCδ and effectively suppressed nuclear PKCδ in resistant cells in comparison to sotrastaurin. Furthermore, we demonstrated that CMU-0101 synergistically enhanced EGFR TKI gefitinib sensitivity in resistant cells. Altogether, our study provides a promising strategy for designing and synthesizing PKCδ inhibitors with improved efficacy, and suggests CMU-0101 as a potential lead compound to inhibit PKCδ and overcome TKI resistance in lung cancers.

Keywords: Protein kinase C, PKC inhibitor, EGFR, resistance, lung cancer

Introduction

Lung cancer is characterized by a heterogeneous disease, marked by significant genomic instability and diversity. The epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) gene frequently undergoes mutations in non-small cell lung cancers (NSCLCs), making EGFR-activating mutations pivotal oncogenic drivers. This has led to a biomarker-guided treatment approach for advanced-stage NSCLC patients through the use of EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs) [1]. Despite their initial success, TKIs are hampered by the emergence of heterogeneous resistance mechanisms within lung tumors, ultimately undermining their efficacy over time [2]. Individual patients often manifest diverse resistance mechanisms, such as the acquisition of additional EGFR mutations and upregulation of multiple receptor tyrosine kinases (RTKs). This diversity renders the combination therapy of a single RTK inhibitor with TKIs ineffective [3-5]. The emergence of resistance to TKIs remains a significant challenge in the treatment of NSCLCs.

Protein kinases are vital enzymes that regulate various cellular processes by phosphorylating their substrates. Protein kinase C (PKC) is a family of serine/threonine kinases that play important roles in signal transduction, cell proliferation, differentiation, and apoptosis [6, 7]. In lung cancers, the nuclear localization of PKC delta (nPKC\delta) has emerged as a common resistant mediator across various known TKIresistant pathways [8]. nPKCo is actively expressed in a significant portion of TKI-resistant patients and is associated with poor survival in EGFR-mutant patients treated with TKIs [8]. The nPKCδ-mediated pathway, including AKT [9] and NF-kB [10], has been implicated in promoting resistance to EGFR inhibitors by activating alternative survival signaling pathways that bypass the blocked EGFR signaling and bolster tumor growth. Our research has demonstrated that specific shRNA-mediated inhibition of nPKCδ sensitizes TKI-resistant cells to TKIs [8]. Additionally, commercially available pan-PKC inhibitors like sotrastaurin have been employed as proof-of-concept treatments to surmount TKI resistance in preclinical models [8]. Consequently, targeting nPKC_δ presents a promising way for addressing the heterogeneous mechanisms of TKI resistance in NSCLCs.

Despite this progress, clinical-grade PKCo inhibitors are currently lacking, resulting the urgent need for drugs designed to effectively target PKCo, potentially overcoming TKI resistance in lung cancers. In this study, we adopted a hybridization strategy [11] to synthesize and develop novel small molecule PKC inhibitors based on the sotrastaurin structure. This involved combining two or more bioactive pharmacophores such as indole, guinazoline, and triazole moieties. As a result, we synthesized five sotrastaurin derivatives CMU-0101, 0102, 0103, 0104, and 0105, and assessed their anti-cancer efficacy. Our investigations disclosed that among these derivatives, CMU-0101 exhibited the most potent inhibition of nPKCδ. Notably, the combination of CMU-0101 with EGFR TKIs synergistically suppressed cell growth in TKI-resistant lung cancer cells. Our study highlights the potential of the guinazolinyl-indolyl-triazole based hybrid molecules as a promising strategy for developing potent PKC inhibitors. Importantly, we demonstrated that CMU-0101 effectively counteracted resistance to TKI in EGFR-mutant lung cancer cells.

Material and methods

Cell culture

Human NSCLC HCC827 cell line were obtained from ATCC and were grown in RPMI medium supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). HCC827 gefitinib-resistant cells (GR cells) were in standard RPMI medium in the presence of 1 μ M gefitinib. All the cells have been tested for mycoplasma contamination and were validated by short tandem repeat (STR) DNA fingerprinting as described previous-ly [8].

Cell viability assays

Cellular responses to the treatments were estimated by MTT assay or Crystal violet staining as described previously [8]. The median inhibitory concentration for each drug was determined from the dose-effect relationship and the interactions of two drug treatments were evaluated by the Chou-Talalay combination indices [12] using the CompuSyn software (version 1.0.1; CompuSyn, Inc.).

Confocal microscopy analysis

Confocal microscopy analysis was performed as described previously [8]. Briefly, drug-treated cells were washed with PBS and fixed in cold 100% methanol for 20 min. Cells were then subjected to permeabilization with 3% bovine serum albumin overnight at 4°C. After that, cells were incubated with primary antibodies overnight at 4°C, washed with PBS and further incubated with the appropriate secondary antibody. Nuclei were counterstained with 4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) before mounting. Confocal fluorescence images were captured and the fluorescence intensity were analyzed by ImageXpress Micro confocal system (Molecular Devices).

WB analysis and antibodies

The Western blot (WB) analysis was conducted as described previously [13]. In summary, cells were subjected to two washes with PBS, followed by lysis in lysis buffer. Subsequently, proteins were separated using SDS electrophoresis on polyacrylamide gels. These proteins were then transferred onto Immun-Blot PVDF membrane (Bio-rad). Following an incubation with the primary antibody, the blots underwent a thorough washing step before being exposed to secondary antibodies. The developed blots were visualized using an iBright imaging system (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The following were the antibodies used: anti-mouse tubulin (Genetex, GTX27291), anti-rabbit Histone-H3 (Proteintech, 17168-1-AP), anti-rabbit PKCo (Abcam, ab182126), anti-rabbit phospho-PKCδ (Thr505) (Cell signaling, 9374), anti-rabbit phospho-PKCɛ (Ser729) (Genetex, GTX1339-37), anti-rabbit phospho-PKCŋ (Thr655) (Genetex, GTX25798), anti-rabbit phospho-PKCθ (Thr538) (Cell signaling, 9377).

Molecular docking of PKCδ and ligands

Prediction of PKC δ structure was accomplished by AlphaFold version 2.3.2. [14, 15]. The model with highest pLDDT score was used for docking analysis [16]. The crystal structure of PKC α in complex with sotrastaurin with resolution 2.80 Å (PDB ID: 3IW4 [17]) was obtained from the Protein Data Bank (https://www.rcsb.org/). We aligned PKC α to PKC δ using PyMOL Molecular Graphics System, version 2.3 Schrödinger, LL and identified the sotrastaurin binding site with a radius of 8.0 Å.

The 3D structures of sotrastaurin and CMU-0101 were downloaded and drew from the PubChem database (https://pubchem.ncbi. nlm.nih.gov/accessed on 29 December 2022), respectively, and were converted into MOL files using Online SMILES Translator and Structure File Generator (https://cactus.nci.nih.gov/ translate/). Docking tasks were performed using AutoDock Vina software [18]. After docking, the conformation with the lowest binding energy was chosen for analysis. Protein structure graphic figures were generated by PyMOL Molecular Graphics System, version 2.3 Schrödinger, LL. Docking results were visualized using LigPlot⁺ v.2.2.5 [19].

Synthesis and development of triazole-based PKC-inhibitors

To synthesize and develop the new sotrastaurin derivatives by combining two or more bioactive pharmacophores (including indole, quinazoline, and triazole moieties), triazole-based derivatives was considered as the most efficient and appropriate compounds. Compounds 4a-c were synthesized following some parts of the reported methods [20, 21].

Ethyl 3-((2-chloroquinazolin-4-yl) ethynyl)-1Hindole-1-carboxylate (7a): A 25 mL round bottom flask was charged with 5a (0.13 g, 0.43 mmol), bis(triphenylphosphine)palladium(II) chloride (35 mg, 0.5 mmol) and copper iodide (5 mg, 0.03 mmol) and placed under argon. A 3 mL solution of 6:1 (v/v) Et₃N/DMF was added, followed by 1 mL increments of DMF until complete dissolution. A sample of 2,4-dichloroquin-

azoline (0.2 g, 10.1 mmol) was dissolved in 0.5 mL DMF and added to the reaction mixture. and the resulting solution was warmed at 45°C. After 3 h, the reaction mixture became a heterogeneous opaque orange color, at which point the reaction was removed from heat and collected over a Celite pad. The residue was washed with EtOAc before being dissolved and filtered through the Celite with CH₂Cl₂. The filtrate was concentrated under reduced pressure to give 6a as a white powder 62% yield. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, d-d_c) δ 1.45 (t, J = 7.2 Hz, 3H), 4.52 (gr, J = 7.2 Hz, 2H), 7.44-7.52 (m, 2H), 7.84(d, 7.48 Hz, 1H), 7.89 (t, J = 7.44 Hz, 1H), 7.98 (d, J = 8.4 Hz, 1H), 8.12-8.16 (m, 2H), 8.53 (d, J = 8.2 Hz, 1H), 8.59 (s, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, DMSO-d_c) δ 14.51, 64.68, 89.05, 94.07, 100.75, 115.77, 120.22, 123.49, 124.76, 126.49, 127.24, 127.85, 129.46, 129.96, 134.42, 134.62, 136.74, 150.02, 151.80, 154.89, 156.45.



Ethyl 3-(5-(2-chloroquinazolin-4-yl)-2H-1,2,3triazol-4-yl)-1H-indole-1-carboxylate (8a): A solution of 6a (0.05 g, 1.32 mmol) in DMSO (5 mL) at room temperature was treated with sodium azide (0.013 g, 2.03 mmol) for 3 h. After the completion of the reaction, as indicated by TLC, the reaction mixture was diluted with water and extracted with ethyl acetate. The combined organic layer was washed with brine and dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄. The organic layer was concentrated and purified by flash column chromatography, using Ethylacetate-hexane (30%) to afford the pure product as a pale yellow solid 7a in 96% yield. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-d_e) δ 1.43 (t, J = 7.12 Hz, 3H), 4.48 (qr, J = 7.12 Hz, 2H), 7.29-7.33 (m, 1H), 7.36-7.40 (m, 1H), 7.75-7.79 (m, 1H), 7.95-7.97 (m, 1H), 8.02-8.06 (m, 1H), 8.18 (d, J = 8.16 Hz, 1H), 8.27 (d, J = 7.72 Hz, 1H), 8.81 (s, 1H), 9.15 (d, *J* = 7.96 Hz, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, DMSO-d_g) δ 14.71, 63.80, 112.63, 114.90, 121.82, 122.89, 123.53, 125.14, 126.25, 127.57, 128.66, 129.64, 129.72, 135.27, 135.56, 139.77, 140.17, 150.77, 150.88, 155.97, 163.30.



4-(5-(1H-indol-3-yl)-2H-1,2,3-triazol-4-yl)-2-(4methylpiperazin-1-yl)quinazoline (10a, CMU-0101): A using ethyl3-(5-(2-chloroquinazolin-4-yl)-2H-1,2,3-triazol-4-yl)-1H-indole-1-carboxvlate (7a, 0.042 g, 0.1 mmol), N-methylpiperazine (0.011 g, 0.11 mmol) in isopropylalcohol (5 mL) at room temperature. The reaction mixture was refluxed for overnight. After the completion of the reaction, as indicated by TLC, the reaction mixture was concentrated, and the resulting crude mass was diluted with water and extracted with ethyl acetate. The combined organic layer was washed with brine and dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄. The organic layer was concentrated crud product (8a) was taken into the next step hydrolyzed of an ester group by using LiOH (26 mg, 0.12 mmol) in methanol (5 mL) at room temperature. The reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 12 h. After the completion of the reaction, as indicated by TLC, the reaction mixture was concentrated, and the resulting crude mass was diluted with water and extracted with ethyl acetate. The combined organic layer was washed with brine and dried over anhydrous Na SO. The organic layer was concentrated and purified by flash column chromatography, using Methanol-DCM (2:8) to afford the pure product as a pale yellow solid 9a in 88% yield. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, $CD_{2}OD$) δ 2.17 (d, J = 4.4 Hz, 4H), 2.23 (s, 3H), 3.55 (brs, 4H), 6.90-6.94 (m, 1H), 7.11-7.15 (m, 2H), 7.24-7.28 (m, 1H), 7.42-7.44 (m, 1H), 7.56 (s, 1H), 7.60 (d, J = 8.16 Hz, 1H), 7.69-7.74 (m, 1H), 8.48 (dd, J = 0.92 Hz, J = 0.96 Hz, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CD₂OD) δ 42.74, 44.54, 54.07, 103.73, 111.36, 117.80, 119.37, 119.57, 121.79, 122.57, 124.66, 125.37, 125.41, 127.48, 133.80, 136.68, 137.87, 140.02, 153.46, 157.94, 160.49. MS (m/z) 411 (M++1).



Ethyl 5-fluoro-3-iodo-1H-indole-1-carboxylate (3b): Yield 75%, ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 1.47 (t, J = 7.12 Hz, 3H), 4.49 (q, J = 7.12 Hz, 2H), 7.05-7.13 (m, 2H), 7.63-7.80 (m, 1H), 8.10 (brs, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 14.37, 63.75, 65.19, 65.23, 107.20, 107.45, 113.34, 113.59, 116.23, 116.32, 131.22, 133.40, 149.76, 158.64, 161.03.



Ethyl 5-fluoro-3-((trimethylsilyl)ethynyl)-1H-indole-1-carboxylate (4b): Yield 78%, ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 0.29 (t, J = 3.6 Hz, 9H), 1.46 (t, J = 7.2 Hz, 3H), 4.48 (q, J = 7.2 Hz, 2H), 7.06-7.11 (m, 1H), 7.31 (dd, J = 2.8 Hz, 2.8 Hz, 1H), 7.83 (s, 1H), 8.08-8.11 (m, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 0.03, 14.33, 63.75, 95.78, 99.02, 104.01, 104.05, 105.80, 106.04, 113.18, 113.43, 116.24, 116.33, 130.89, 131.58, 131.68, 150.16, 158.59, 160.98.



Ethyl 3-ethynyl-5-fluoro-1H-indole-1-carboxylate (5b): Yield 78%, ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 1.47 (t, J = 7.2 Hz, 3H), 3.26 (s, 1H), 4.50 (q, J = 7.2 Hz, 2H), 7.07-7.12 (m, 1H), 7.33 (dd, J = 2.8 Hz, 2.8 Hz, 1H), 7.86 (s, 1H), 8.09-8.12 (m, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 14.36, 63.84, 74.95, 81.35, 102.87, 102.90, 105.69, 105.94, 113.30, 113.55, 116.33, 116.42, 130.77, 130.88, 131.50, 131.60, 150.12, 158.62, 161.02.



Ethyl 3-((2-chloroquinazolin-4-yl)ethynyl)-5-fluoro-1H-indole-1-carboxylate (7b): Yield 83%, ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 1.52 (t, J = 7.2 Hz, 3H), 4.56 (q, J = 7.2 Hz, 2H), 7.15-7.20 (m, 1H), 7.52 (dd, J = 2.4 Hz, 2.4 Hz, 1H), 7.75-7.79 (m, 1H), 7.96-8.02 (m, 2H), 8.18-8.20 (m, 2H), 8.39-8.42 (m, 2H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 14.34, 64.38, 89.01, 92.81, 101.69, 105.90, 106.15, 113.99, 114.24, 116.78, 116.87, 123.47, 126.55, 128.05, 128.72, 130.71,

130.81, 131.13, 133.31, 135.53, 149.82, 152.03, 154.88, 157.13, 158.88, 162.29.



Ethyl 3-(5-(2-chloroquinazolin-4-yl)-2H-1,2,3triazol-4-yl)-5-fluoro-1H-indole-1-carboxylate (8b): Yield 95%, ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 1.43 (t, J = 7.2 Hz, 3H), 4.49 (q, J = 7.2 Hz, 2H), 7.26-7.31 (m, 1H), 7.82-7.86 (m, 2H), 8.05 (d, J = 8 Hz, 1H), 8.11-8.15 (m, 1H), 8.17-8.20 (m, 1H), 8.81 (m, 1H), 8.84 (brs, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 14.62, 64.26, 107.75, 113.16, 113.41, 116.46, 116.55, 121.74, 127.95, 128.59, 129.01, 129.48, 131.72, 136.31, 150.40, 153.04, 155.64, 161.88.



Ethyl 3-iodo-5-methyl-1H-indole-1-carboxylate (3c): Yield 82%, ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 1.47 (t, *J* = 7.2 Hz, 3H), 4.48 (q, *J* = 7.2 Hz, 2H), 7.19 (d, *J* = 7.2 Hz, 2H), 7.73 (s, 1H), 8.01 (d, *J* = 8 Hz, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 14.42, 21.35, 63.47, 66.09, 114.73, 121.42, 126.96, 129.70, 132.19, 133.01, 133.32, 150.06.



Ethyl 5-methyl-3-((trimethylsilyl)ethynyl)-1H-indole-1-carboxylate (4c): Yield 85%, ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 0.30 (s, 9H), 1.46 (t, *J* = 7.2 Hz, 3H), 2.48 (s, 3H), 4.47 (q, *J* = 7.2 Hz, 2H), 7.18 (dd, *J* = 1.2 Hz, 1.2 Hz, 1H), 7.45 (s, 1H), 7.78 (s, 1H), 8.01 (d, *J* = 8 Hz, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 0.12, 14.37, 21.34, 63.47, 96.70, 98.25, 103.84, 114.80, 120.04, 126.76, 129.17, 130.63, 132.77, 133.13, 150.42.



Ethyl 3-ethynyl-5-methyl-1H-indole-1-carboxylate (5c): Yield 98%, ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 1.47 (t, J = 7.2 Hz, 3H), 2.47 (s, 3H), 3.25 (s, 1H), 4.49 (q, J = 7.2 Hz, 2H), 7.19 (dd, J = 1.6 Hz, 1.6 Hz, 1H), 7.47 (t, J = 0.4 Hz, 1H), 7.81 (s, 1H), 8.02 (d, J = 8 Hz, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 14.37, 21.31, 63.56, 75.76, 80.77, 102.69, 114.88, 119.94, 126.84, 129.55, 130.62, 132.75, 133.25, 150.40.



Ethyl 3-((2-chloroquinazolin-4-yl)ethynyl)-5-methyl-1H-indole-1-carboxylate (7c): Yield 79%, ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 1.51 (t, J = 7.2 Hz, 3H), 2.53 (s, 3H), 4.55 (q, J = 7.2 Hz, 2H), 7.25-7.27 (m, 1H), 7.65 (t, J = 0.8 Hz, 1H), 7.23-7.77 (m, 1H), 7.94-8.01 (m, 2H), 8.07 (d, J = 8.4 Hz, 1H), 8.11 (s, 1H), 8.42-8.45 (m, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 14.37, 21.41, 64.07, 88.70, 94.19, 101.54, 115.18, 120.13, 123.55, 126.74, 127.44, 127.99, 128.55, 129.83, 132.15, 132.96, 133.97, 135.41, 150.10, 151.98, 155.17, 157.16.



Ethyl 3-(5-(2-chloroquinazolin-4-yl)-2H-1,2,3triazol-4-yl)-5-methyl-1H-indole-1-carboxylate (8c): Yield 96%, ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 1.42 (t, *J* = 7.2 Hz, 3H), 2.41 (s, 3H), 4.47 (t, *J* = 7.2 Hz, 2H), 7.23 (dd, *J* = 1.6 Hz, 1.6 Hz, 1H), 7.80-7.84 (m, 1H), 7.93 (brs, 1H), 8.01-8.05 (m, 2H), 8.08-8.12 (m, 1H), 8.70 (s, 1H), 8.89 (d, *J* = 8.4 Hz, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 14.71, 21.60, 63.75, 114.57, 121.85, 122.64, 126.42, 127.60, 128.81, 129.56, 129.74, 132.52, 133.48, 135.72, 139.66, 150.75, 152.84, 155.93, 163.32.



 N^{1} -(4-(5-(1H-indol-3-yl))-2H-1,2,3-triazol-4-yl) quinazolin-2-yl)- N^{2} , N^{2} -dimethylethane-1,2-diamine (10b, CMU-0102): Yield 86%, ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CD_3OD) δ 2.58 (brs, 6H), 2.87 (brs, 2H), 3.54 (brs, 2H), 6.97 (t, J = 7.72 Hz, 1H), 7.12-7.22 (m, 2H), 7.41-7.43 (m, 2H), 7.58-7.62 (m, 2H), 7.70-7.74 (m, 1H), 8.11 (brs, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CD_3OD) δ 37.96, 44.32, 57.39, 103.95, 112.28, 118.92, 120.18, 120.51, 122.24, 122.79, 125.90, 126.60, 127.94, 134.54, 136.54, 139.16, 159.13, 161.93. MS (m/z) 399 (M⁺+1).



 N^{1} -(4-(5-(1*H*-indol-3-yl))-2*H*-1,2,3-triazol-4-yl) quinazolin-2-yl)- N^{3} , N^{3} -dimethylpropane-1,3-diamine (10c, *CMU*-0103): Yield 87%, ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CD₃OD) δ 1.80 (brs, 2H), 2.39 (s, 6H), 2.63 (t, *J* = 14.4 Hz, 2H), 3.38 (brs, 2H), 6.94 (t, *J* = 7.88 Hz, 1H), 7.09-7.13 (m, 2H), 7.38-7.43 (m, 2H), 7.52 (s, 1H), 7.56 (d, *J* = 8.44 Hz, 1H), 7.65-7.69 (m, 1H), 8.04 (d, *J* = 7.92 Hz, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CD₃OD) δ 26.04, 38.10, 42.92, 55.75, 111.17, 118.46, 119.39, 119.43, 121.58, 122.25, 124.37, 124.63, 125.57, 127.89, 134.22, 136.56, 138.46, 152.80, 159.18, 163.20. MS (*m*/*z*) 413 (M⁺+1).



4-(5-(5-fluoro-1H-indol-3-yl)-2H-1,2,3-triazol-4yl)-2-(4-methylpiperazin-1-yl)quinazoline (10d, CMU-0104): Yield 87%, ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CD₃OD) δ 2.25 (s, 7H), 3.63 (brs, 4H), 6.89-6.98 (m, 2H), 7.22-7.26 (m, 1H), 7.38 (dd, J = 4.4 Hz, 4.4 Hz, 1H), 7.59 (s, 1H), 7.59 (s, 1H), 7.62 (s, 1H), 7.68-7.72 (m, 1H), 8.39 (dd, J = 0.4 Hz, 0.8 Hz, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CD₃OD) δ 42.89, 44.64, 54.22, 104.23, 104.47, 104.59, 104.64, 109.81, 110.07, 112.09, 112.18, 117.88, 122.59, 125.39, 125.96, 126.07, 126.46, 127.45, 133.15, 133.84, 138.44, 139.77, 153.43, 156.84, 157.98, 159.16, 160.77. MS (m/z) 429 (M⁺+1).



4-(5-(5-methyl-1H-indol-3-yl)-2H-1,2,3-triazol-4yl)-2-(4-methylpiperazin-1-yl)quinazoline (10e, CMU-0105): Yield 78%, ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 2.23 (s, 10H), 3.65 (brs, 4H), 6.47 (brs, 1H), 6.88 (d, J = 8.8 Hz, 1H), 7.06-7.13 (m, 2H), 7.27 (s, 2H), 7.58 (d, J = 3.6 Hz, 2H), 8.35 (d, J = 8 Hz, 1H), 8.98 (brs, 1H). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 21.47, 29.71, 43.14, 45.49, 54.44, 104.63, 111.15, 118.21, 119.99, 122.91, 124.18, 124.83, 125.92, 127.82, 129.70, 134.00, 134.38, 139.18, 140.49, 153.50, 158.14, 160.63. MS (m/z) 425 (M*+1).



Solvents and chemicals were purchased from the available commercial sources and used without further purification. Thin-layer chromatography was performed using pre-coated plates contained from E. Merck (TLC silica gel 60 F254). TLC plates were visualized by being exposed to ultraviolet light (UV). The column chromatography was performed on silica gel (200-400 mesh) using a mixture of ethyl acetate/hexane and methanol/dichloromethane as an eluent. The NMR spectra were recorded on Bruker AVANCE NEO 400 NMR spectrometer, and Mass spectra were measured on Liquid Chromatograph-Tandem Mass Spectrometer and Electrospray Ionization ESI method.

Statistical analysis

All experiments were repeated at least three times unless otherwise indicated. Error bars represent standard deviation (SD). Student's t test was used to compare two groups of independent samples. A p value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.



Figure 1. Synthetic scheme for triazole-based PKC inhibitors. A. Compound examples of bioactive indolocarbazole alkaloids, quinazolinones, and triazoles. B. Synthesis for heteroarylindolytriazole scaffolds. Reagents and conditions: (i) iodine, KOH, DMSO, 2 h; (ii) ethyl chloroformate, Et₃N, CH₂Cl₂, 0°C - rt, 3 h; (iii) trimethylsilylacetylene, PdCl₂(PPh₃)₂, Cul, Et₃N/DMF (5:1), 40°C, 1 h; (iv) 1.0 M Bu₄NF, THF, 0°C, 1 h; (v) 2,4-dichloroquinazoline, PdCl₂(PPh₃)₂, Cul, Et₃N/DMF (5:1), 40°C, 1 h; (vi) NaN₃, DMSO, rt, 3 h. C. Scope of primary aliphatic amines. Reagents and conditions: (i) *N*-methylpiperazine, 2-propanol, 100°C, 2 h, 79-82%; (ii) LiOH, MeOH, 12 h, rt, 86-91%.

Results

Heterocyclic scaffolds, which are organic compounds containing one or more rings with at least one non-carbon atom, are commonly used for designing protein kinase inhibitors [22]. These inhibitors mimic the structure of the adenine ring of adenosine triphosphate (ATP) and compete at the ATP-binding site of protein kinases, including PKC [22, 23]. Some examples of these scaffolds are indolocarbazole alkaloids, quinazolines, and triazoles [23]. Among them, indolocarbazole moiety is present in some well-known and commercially-available broad-spectrum PKC inhibitors, such as staurosporine, K252a, GF109203X, as well as sotrastaurin (**Figure 1A**). However, the ATP-binding pocket of PKC is highly conserved among different PKC isoforms and therefore, the heterocyclic scaffolds can potentially inhibit multiple PKC isoforms with similar binding sites. Modulating size of the heterocyclic moieties could assist in bringing selectivity.

We have previously demonstrated that treatment of sotrastaurin improved TKI resistance

in EGFR-mutant lung cancer in preclinical models [8]. However, sotrastaurin exhibits nonselectivity towards PKCo and demonstrates a lower inhibitory efficacy for this isoform compared to other novel PKC isoforms, such as PKC0 (with Ki values of 2.1 nM for PKCo and 0.22 nM for PKC0) [24]. This may limit its efficacy and specificity for targeting nPKCo in TKI-resistant tumors. Therefore, we sought to develop more potent inhibitors for PKCo based on the structure of sotrastaurin. We aimed to improve the inhibitory efficacy of sotrastaurin for PKCo, especially for nPKCo which causes TKI resistance in lung cancer, by modifying its structure. Based on our experimental learning from sotrastaurin and other pan PKC inhibitors such as GF109203X (Figure 1A), we replaced the maleimide group of sotrastaurin with a triazole ring which is smaller and mimics hydrogen bond accepting properties of maleimide [25]. The preparation of the desired triazolebased PKCo inhibitors is illustrated in Figure 1B. Iodination of indole followed by immediate methyl carbamate protection of the sensitive indole providing N-acetyl-3-iodoindole (1) with trimethylsilylacetylene under Sonogashira coupling in the presence of 20 mol% Pd(PPh_)_Cl_, TEA:DMF (3:1) at reflux 1 h followed by cleavage of trimethylsillyl group using TBAF in THF to give N-acetyl-3-ethynylindole (5) [20]. The coupled with 2,4-dichloroquinazoline (6) using 20 mol% Pd(PPh_)_Cl_, TEA:DMF (3:1) at reflux 3 h followed by workup to give quinazolineindole compound 7, which was using a [3+2] cycloaddition reaction with sodium azide, DMSO at room temperature for 3 h underwent smooth cycloaddition to afford a heteroarylindolytriazole (8) [21]. It then underwent nucleophilic aromatic substituted reaction with N-methylpiperazine to replace the chloro group to afforded the compounds 9 (79-82%) followed by hydrolysis of an ester using LiOH at room temperature for 12 h to afford the anticipated products 10 (CMU compounds) in 86-91% yields (Figure 1C). In this way, using the functionalized indole and quinazoline derivatives, we synthesized five triazole-based sotrastaurin derivatives CMU-0101, CMU-0102, CMU-0103, CMU-0104, and CMU-0105 as proof-of-concept PKC inhibitor candidates accordingly (Figure 2A and **2B**).

In our previous study, we generated several acquired gefitinib-resistant (GR) clones from EGFR-mutant HCC827 NSCLC cells by single-cell isolation [8]. We characterized these clones

and found that they were highly resistant to three first-line TKIs, gefitinib, afatinib, and osimertinib, for EGFR-mutant NSCLC [8, 26]. We also discovered that all these clones generally exhibited nuclear translocation of PKCo (nPKCδ), but not their parental cells. Inhibition of PKCδ by shRNA reversed TKI sensitivity in GR cells [8]. To test the most effective triazolebased PKC inhibitor candidates for sensitizing GR cells to TKIs, we performed a synthetic lethality screen using gefitinib with the five candidate inhibitors. We evaluated the cell viability of GR10 cells after treating them with gefitinib and each inhibitor for three days. Our analysis revealed that CMU-0101 was the most effective inhibitor in enhancing gefitinibinduced cell death in GR10 cells (Figure 3A) compared to other four derivatives (Figure **3B-E**). To assess and compare the anti-cancer effects of CMU-0101 and sotrastaurin in TKIresistant cells, we conducted a growth inhibitory analysis. Identical concentrations of CMU-0101 and sotrastaurin were administered, both with and without gefitinib. Our results revealed significant reductions in cell growth upon single treatment with CMU-0101 compared to sotrastaurin in both GR6 and GR10 cells (Figure 4A and 4B). To explore the potential of CMU-0101 to enhance the anticancer activity of TKI in TKI-resistant cells, we performed a combination treatment study. GR6 and GR10 cells were exposed to combinations of CMU-0101/gefitinib and sotrastaurin/gefitinib, using identical concentrations of each compound. Cell killing activity was assessed via crystal violet staining. Our findings demonstrate that the CMU-0101/gefitinib combination exerts more potent growth inhibition compared to the sotrastaurin/ gefitinib combination in both GR cell lines (Figure 4B and 4C). To quantitatively evaluate the synergistic effects of the CMU-0101/gefitinib combination, we calculated the combination index (CI) employing the Chou-Talalay method (Figure 4D). Cl serves as a numerical representation of the extent of synergy or antagonism between two drugs. A CI value below 1 signifies synergy, while a value equal to 1 indicates an additive effect, and a value above 1 suggests antagonism. Our results indicate that CMU-0101 treatment (at concentrations of 1-8 μ M) synergistically enhances the anticancer potency of gefitinib in both GR6 and GR10 cells (Figure 4D, CI = 0.46-0.85 and 0.25-0.87, respectively).



Figure 2. Five sotrastaurin derivatives. A. Chemical structures of CMU-0101, CMU-0102, CMU-0103, CMU-0104, and CMU-0105. B. 1 H (400 MHz, CD₃OD) and 13 C (100 MHz, CD₃OD) NMR spectra of CMU-0101.

Next, we tested whether our sotrastaurin derivatives that restored TKI sensitivity could inhibit nPKC δ in GR cells. We focused on CMU-0101, which showed the synergy with gefitinib in reducing GR cell viability. We treated GR10

cells with various concentrations of CMU-0101 or sotrastaurin for 24 h and stained the cells for PKC δ (Figure 5A). The stained cells were then analyzed by a confocal-based imaging system (ImageXpress Micro confocal system, Molecular



Figure 3. Synthetic lethality screen of gefitinib (gef) with five sotrastaurin derivatives in EGFR-mutant TKI-resistant lung cancer cells. Gefitinib-resistant (GR10) cells were treated with CMU-0101 (A), CMU-0102 (B), CMU-0103 (C), CMU-0104 (D), and CMU-0105 (E) at the indicated concentrations in combination with single dose gef (1 μ M) for 3 days and subjected to cell viability assay by crystal violet staining. Data represent mean \pm SD from at least three independent experiments. Comparisons between each single treatment groups with its combination group were analyzed using Student's t test. *P < 0.05.

Devices) that automatically focuses on nuclear level of the cells, captures multiple images per well, and quantifies the nuclear intensity of PKC₀ staining. Our results showed that CMU-0101 suppressed nPKCδ in a dose-dependent manner (Figure 5B). Moreover, at 20 µM, CMU-0101 was significantly more effective than sotrastaurin in inhibiting nPKCδ (Figure 5B). Furthermore, we conducted an extensive evaluation of nuclear PKC_δ (nPKC_δ) expression through western blot analysis. This evaluation encompassed both nuclear extracts (NE) and cytoplasm extracts (CE) of GR cells subjected to CMU-0101 treatment. Our findings indicated a dose-dependent reduction in nuclear PKCo levels in both GR6 and GR10 cells upon exposure to CMU-0101 (Figure 5C). To assess the selectivity of CMU-0101 towards PKCo, we examined its inhibitory effects on the activation statuses of both PKCo and three additional PKC isoforms, all 4 PKCs belonging to the novel PKC subfamily. To conduct this evaluation, we treated GR10 cells with CMU-0101 and subsequently subjected the cell lysates to Western

blot analysis. During this analysis, we employed specific antibodies targeting the phosphorylation of PKC δ , PKC ϵ , PKC η , and PKC θ in order to discern their activation statuses. Our results confirmed that CMU-0101 treatment suppressed the phosphorylation of PKC δ (Figure 5D). Interestingly, this suppression had no observable impact on the activation of the other three novel PKC isoforms, namely ϵ , η , and θ (Figure 5D). These results suggest that CMU-0101 demonstrates a relatively selective influence on PKC δ . Together, these data indicated that CMU-0101 is a potent inhibitor of nPKC δ and a potential drug candidate for overcoming TKI resistance in NSCLC cells.

To understand how our novel inhibitor CMU-0101 inhibits PKCδ, we used molecular docking, a computational technique that predicts how a small molecule binds to a protein target. We analyzed the docking poses (**Figure 6A** and **6B**) and binding energy (**Figure 6C**) of CMU-0101 and sotrastaurin for PKCδ. The result indicated that PKCδ has higher affinity to CMU-

Novel PKC inhibitor overcomes EGFR TKI resistance



Figure 4. Synergistic effects of CMU-0101 with gefitinib in TKI-resistant cells. (A) Dose response of CMU-0101 and sotrastaurin (sotra) in GR6 and GR10 cells. (B) *P*-values indicating statistical significances of cell growth inhibition at indicated concentrations. Comparisons between CMU-0101 and sotra treatment groups were analyzed using Student's t test. (C) Combination effects of gefitinib (gef) with CMU-0101 and sotra in GR6 and GR10 cells. The cells were treated with CMU-0101 and sotra in combination with gef at the indicated concentrations for 6 days. Cell viability was assayed by crystal violet staining. (D) Quantitation of CMU-0101 and gef from (C) with drug combination indexes (Cl). Cl < 1, synergy; Cl = 1, additive; Cl > 1.1, antagonism.

0101 than sotrastaurin, meaning that CMU-0101 associates more strongly with the ATPbinding pocket of PKCδ. This finding was further supported by the total number of formed hydrogen bonds, which are important for stabilizing the ligand-protein interaction. While sotrastaurin formed a single hydrogen bond with the backbone of PKCδ residue K357 (**Figure 6A**), CMU-0101 formed two hydrogen bonds with N478 and D491 (**Figure 6B**). These data suggest that PKCδ prefers CMU-0101 over sotrastaurin in terms of energy-driven binding. Interestingly, despite the structural similarity of CMU-0101 and sotrastaurin, the docking result shows that PKCδ binds to these two inhibitors with different poses (**Figure 6A** and **6B**). Together, our findings support that our chemical modification strategy of sotrastaurin is effective to produce more hydrogen bonds with nearby acceptors, enhance binding affinity to PKCō, and inhibit nPKCō in the resistant cells.

Discussion

Although PKC has been associated with various diseases, it constitutes a diverse family of at least 12 isoforms, each carrying out distinct functions and exhibiting different tissue distributions [27]. Initially, PKC isoforms were perceived as oncogenes that drive cancer growth



Figure 5. Inhibition of PKC δ by CMU-0101. A. Confocal microscopy analysis of PKC δ nuclear localization in GR10 cells by immunofluorescence staining (green). The cells were treated with CMU-0101 for 24 h and subjected to immunofluorescence staining for PKC δ (green). Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI (blue). B. Quantification analysis of nPKC δ expression in GR10 cells treated with CMU-0101 and sotrastaurin (sotra) at the indicated concentrations. ImageXpress Micro confocal system analyzed fluorescence intensity of PKC δ in nuclei of GR10 cells after the treatments. C. PKC δ expression by western blot analysis in both nuclear extracts (NE) and cytoplasm extracts (CE) of GR6 and GR10 cells treated with CMU-0101 for 24 h. Relative PKC δ levels are indicated below the blot. D. Western blot analysis of phosphorylation of PKC δ , PKC ϵ , PKC η , and PKC θ in GR10 cells treated with CMU-0101 (20 µM) for 24 h. Relative expression levels are indicated below the blot.

and survival. However, subsequent research uncovered loss-of-function mutations in specific PKC isoforms within tumors, revealing their role as tumor suppressors by inhibiting cancer formation and dissemination [28, 29]. The dual or opposing roles of PKC isoforms appear to be contingent upon their unique regulation and expression patterns, displaying a cell-type dependency. Notably, PKCō, one such isoform, has been identified as overexpressed or activated across various cancer types. Within EGFR-mutant lung cancers, our research underscores PKCδ's role as an oncogene, fostering resistance to TKIs [8].

Strategically inhibiting protein kinases, such as PKC δ , by competing with their binding to ATP, emerges as a promising approach for treating relevant cancers. The adenine ring, a pivotal component of ATP, engages with several residues at the base of the PKC catalytic domain's ATP-binding pocket [30]. Consequently, the



Figure 6. Molecular docking analysis of sotrastaurin and CMU-0101 with PKCδ ATP-binding site (A-C). (A) 3D visualization of sotrastaurin binding to PKCδ, forming a single hydrogen bond with K357. (B) 3D visualization of CMU-0101 binding to PKCδ, forming two hydrogen bonds with N478 and D491. Hydrogen bonds are shown as yellow dashed lines. (C) Binding energy of sotrastaurin (sotra) and CMU-0101 with PKCδ.

design of PKC inhibitors often involves heterocyclic compounds mimicking the adenine ring. These compounds obstruct PKC activation by disrupting ATP binding to the ATP-binding domain of PKC [22, 23]. However, it's noteworthy that the ATP-binding domain is conserved across diverse PKC isoforms, rendering most commercially available drugs non-selective towards any specific isoform. This can potentially lead to undesired effects in cancer patients due to the varying roles of PKC isoforms in cancer development and progression [31].

To confer selectivity, modifying existing pan-PKC inhibitors to augment their binding affinity to PKC₀ stands as a rational and pragmatic strategy. Our chemical modification approach, exemplified by CMU-0101, involved introducing a triazole ring group into sotrastaurin, thereby reducing the maleimide moiety from 4.5 Å to 2.3 Å. This alteration is speculated to empower CMU-0101 with the capacity to explore more potential binding poses within the ATP-binding pocket of PKCo. Subsequently, it can find the optimal pose for interaction with surrounding residues, a feature markedly distinct from sotrastaurin. Indeed, our results demonstrated that CMU-0101 exhibits a considerably stronger binding affinity to PKCo's ATP-binding site than sotrastaurin. This suggests CMU-0101's potential efficacy in inhibiting PKCδ by competing ATP binding. Demonstrating its impact, CMU-0101 treatment effectively suppressed nPKCδ in TKI-resistant cells and synergistically collaborated with EGFR TKI to suppress cell growth. Therefore, our data showed a promising strategy for synthesizing and developing potential PKC inhibitors and supported that CMU-0101 is a leading compound for treating EGFR-mutant TKI-resistant lung cancers.

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Disclosure of conflict of interest

None.

Address correspondence to: Mien-Chie Hung and Pei-Chih Lee, Graduate Institute of Biomedical Sciences, China Medical University, No. 100, Sec. 1, Jingmao Rd., Beitun Dist., Taichung, Taiwan. Tel: +886-4-22057153; Fax: +886-4-22952121; Email: mhung@cmu.edu.tw (MCH); Tel: +886-4-22053366; Fax: +886-4-22060248; E-mail: antiolde333@gmail.com (PCL); Hsiang-Wen Lin and Chih-Shiang Chang, School of Pharmacy, College of Pharmacy, China Medical University, Taichung, Taiwan. Tel: +886-4-22053366; E-mail: hsiangwl@ gmail.com (HWL); chihshiang@mail.cmu.edu.tw (CSC)

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