

Design and synthesis of novel saponin–triazole derivatives in the regulation of adipogenesis

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Design and synthesis of novel saponin-triazole derivatives in the regulation of adipogenesis

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ABSTRACT

Saponins associated with *Panax notoginseng* (*P. notoginseng*) demonstrate significant therapeutic efficacy across multiple diseases. However, certain high-yield saponins face limited clinical applications due to their reduced pharmacological efficacy. This study synthesized and evaluated 36 saponin-1,2,3-triazole derivatives of ginsenosides Rg1/Rb1 and notoginsenoside R1 for anti-adipogenesis activity *in vitro*. The research revealed that the ginsenosides Rg1-1,2,3-triazole derivative **a17** demonstrates superior adipogenesis inhibitory effects. Structure-activity relationships (SARs) analysis indicates that incorporating an amidyl-substituted 1,2,3-triazole into the saponin side chain *via* Click reaction enhances anti-adipogenesis activity. Additionally, several other derivatives exhibit general adipogenesis inhibition. Compound **a17** demonstrated enhanced potency compared to the parent ginsenoside Rg1. Mechanistic investigations revealed that **a17** exhibits dose-dependent inhibition of adipogenesis *in vitro*, accompanied by decreased expression of preadipocytes. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ (PPAR γ), fatty acid synthase (FAS), and fatty acid binding protein 4 (FABP4) adipogenesis regulators. These findings establish the ginsenoside Rg1-1,2,3-triazole derivative **a17** as a promising adipocyte differentiation inhibitor and potential therapeutic agent for obesity and associated metabolic disorders. This research provides a foundation for developing effective therapeutic approaches for various metabolic syndromes.

1. Introduction

Obesity represents a significant global health challenge¹. This condition serves as a primary contributor to numerous metabolic disorders, including type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM), non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD), hypertension, cardiovascular diseases (CVDs), and cancer²⁻⁷. The World Health Organization (WHO) projects that the global population of overweight or obese adults will exceed 3 billion by 2030^{8,9}. Current commercial anti-obesity medications have demonstrated limited efficacy and raised substantial safety concerns¹⁰. Consequently, the development of cost-effective, highly efficient anti-obesity medications with minimal adverse effects has become increasingly urgent.

Natural products serve as essential resources for human health maintenance, accounting for 63.1% of FDA-approved small molecule drugs between 1981 and 2019^{11,12}. Research in natural products encompasses both direct application and the development of drug lead compounds¹³. Studies focusing on lead compound derivation have examined the relationship between structural characteristics and therapeutic activity. *Panax notoginseng*

(*P. notoginseng*), an Araliaceae family member indigenous to Yunnan, China, represents a significant medicinal plant¹⁴. This species contains bioactive ginsenoside components that demonstrate efficacy in promoting blood circulation, resolving stasis, reducing swelling, and alleviating pain¹⁵⁻¹⁸. Scientists have isolated more than 80 triterpenoid saponins from *P. notoginseng*, with notoginsenoside R1 and ginsenosides Rg1, Re, Rb1, and Rd constituting the primary saponins in the plant root¹⁹. *P. notoginseng* saponins demonstrate significant pharmacological effects on adipogenesis inhibition and exhibit regulatory effects on obesity and lipid metabolism^{20,21}. These saponins inhibit adipogenesis by downregulating fatty acid synthase (FAS), sterol regulatory element-binding protein-1c (SREBP-1c), and stearoyl-CoA desaturase 1 (SCD1) through the adenosine 5'-monophosphate-activated protein kinase (AMPK) signaling pathway, thereby reducing white adipose tissue (WAT) weight and decreasing diabetic mice body weight²². Additionally, *P. notoginseng* saponins inhibit lipase protein expression in NAFLD and reduce WAT lipolysis, thus decreasing hepatic lipid accumulation²³. Research on individual notoginsenoside monomers reveals that ginsenoside Rg1 increases uncoupling protein 1 (UCP1) expression and mitochondrial biogenesis in subcutaneous white adipose cells in 3T3-L1 and C57BL/6 mice, promoting adipocyte browning and exerting anti-obesity effects through AMPK pathway activation²⁴. Similarly, ginsenoside Rb1 induces browning of 3T3-L1 cells and peri-

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renal WAT (PWAT) via AMPK, demonstrating anti-obesity effects²⁵. Furthermore, ginsenoside Rb1 enhances abnormal hepatic glucose metabolism in T2DM patients through STAT3-dependent mechanisms, suggesting potential therapeutic applications²⁶. Current pharmacological research on *P. notoginseng* saponins and notoginsenoside monomers has primarily addressed CVDs, central nervous system disorders, and anti-cancer activities. Rare ginsenosides such as Rh2 and Rg5, present in minimal quantities in *P. notoginseng* saponins, demonstrate high bioactivity. Conversely, the primary components, including ginsenosides Rg1, Rb1, and notoginsenoside R1, exhibit relatively lower pharmacological activity²⁷⁻³⁰ (Fig. 1). This study aims to enhance these saponins' practical value through structural modification.

Over the past three decades, molecular hybridization techniques have significantly contributed to targeted drug discovery across various diseases^{31, 32}. Bioorthogonal coupling reactions have recently emerged as a powerful tool in drug development, providing advantages in lead compound screening, small molecule design strategies, and expanding the range of designed compounds³³⁻³⁷. Current research emphasizes the synthesis of multi-functional compounds containing 1,2,3-triazole structures through Click chemistry applications³⁸⁻⁴⁷. The triazole unit serves as a particularly valuable scaffold in medicinal chemistry, especially in addressing obesity and diabetes treatment⁴⁸⁻⁵⁰ (Fig. 1). Building upon our previous research on natural product-like hybrids⁵¹⁻⁵⁸, this study examines the synthesis of 1,2,3-triazole derivatives of *P. notoginseng* saponin. The research evaluates their inhibitory activity in adipocyte differentiation and investigates structure-activity relationships (SARs). This represents the first reported synthesis and biological activity assessment of saponin-1,2,3-triazole derivatives. The study establishes cocktail-induced 3T3-L1 adipocytes to evaluate regulatory effects and presents a preliminary anti-obesity mechanism using Western blotting and molecular docking (Fig. 1).

2. Results and discussion

2.1. Chemistry

As illustrated in Scheme 1, the high polarity of saponins, due to their sugar moieties, significantly affects separation and reac-

tion post-treatment. Therefore, protecting the saponin hydroxyl groups is essential. Starting with commercially available ginsenosides Rg1 (**a1**), ginsenosides Rb1 (**b1**), and notoginsenoside R1 (**c1**), the hydroxyl groups underwent complete protection through acetylation with acetic anhydride, using 4-dimethylaminopyridine (DMAP) as a catalyst, producing acetylated products **a2**, **b2** and **c2**. The double bonds in compounds **a2**, **b2**, and **c2** were then cleaved by ozone at -78°C , followed by sodium borohydride reduction to generate alcohols **a3**, **b3**, and **c3**. Using triethylamine as a base, compounds **a3**, **b3**, and **c3** underwent esterification with methanesulfonyl chloride (MsCl) to form methanesulfonate esters. Under reflux conditions with sodium iodide in acetone solvent, iodine substitution products **a4**, **b4**, and **c4** were produced. Compounds **a5**, **b5**, and **c5** were obtained through nucleophilic substitution reactions with sodium azide (NaN_3) at 60°C . Finally, through Click reactions using anhydrous copper (II) acetate and sodium ascorbate as catalysts, the target derivative products ginsenoside Rg1-triazole **a6-a17**, ginsenoside Rb1-triazole **b6-b17**, and notoginsenoside R1-triazole **c6-c17** were synthesized using various terminal alkynes, achieving 57%–85% yields. Table 1 presents the structures and yields of these new 1,2,3-triazole derivatives.

2.2. Anti-adipogenesis activities of ginsenosides Rg1, Rb1, and notoginsenoside R1 derivatives

The 3T3-L1 preadipocyte cell line serves as a well-established cellular model for studying fat metabolism, capable of differentiating into mature white adipocytes under specific conditions⁵⁹. To evaluate the inhibitory effects on adipocyte differentiation, 36 synthesized 1,2,3-triazole derivatives of ginsenoside Rg1 (**a6-a17**), ginsenoside Rb1 (**b6-b17**), and notoginsenoside R1 (**c6-c17**) were tested on 3T3-L1 preadipocyte differentiation. The study employed LiCl as a positive control, while differentiation was induced using a combination of isobutylmethylxanthine (IBMX), dexamethasone (DEX), insulin (INS), and rosiglitazone (ROSI)^{60, 61}. The preadipocyte differentiation process during the induction period is illustrated in Fig. 2A. After completing the differentiation process, lipid content in the 3T3-L1 cells was evaluated using Oil Red O staining for visualization and quantific-

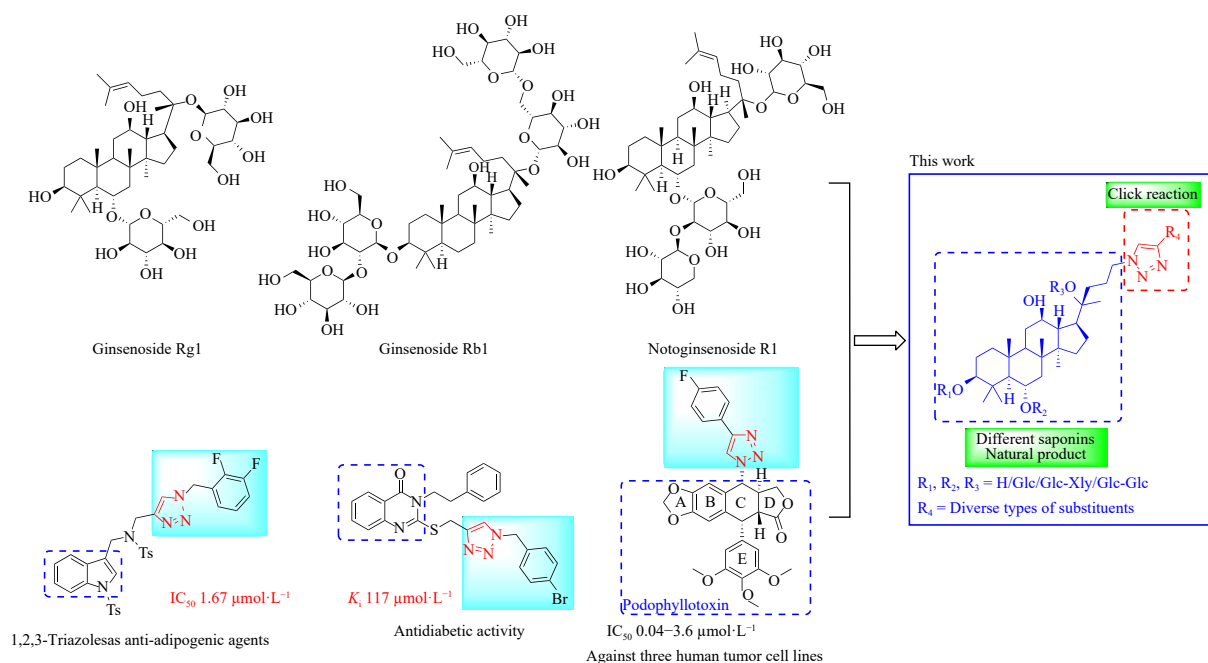
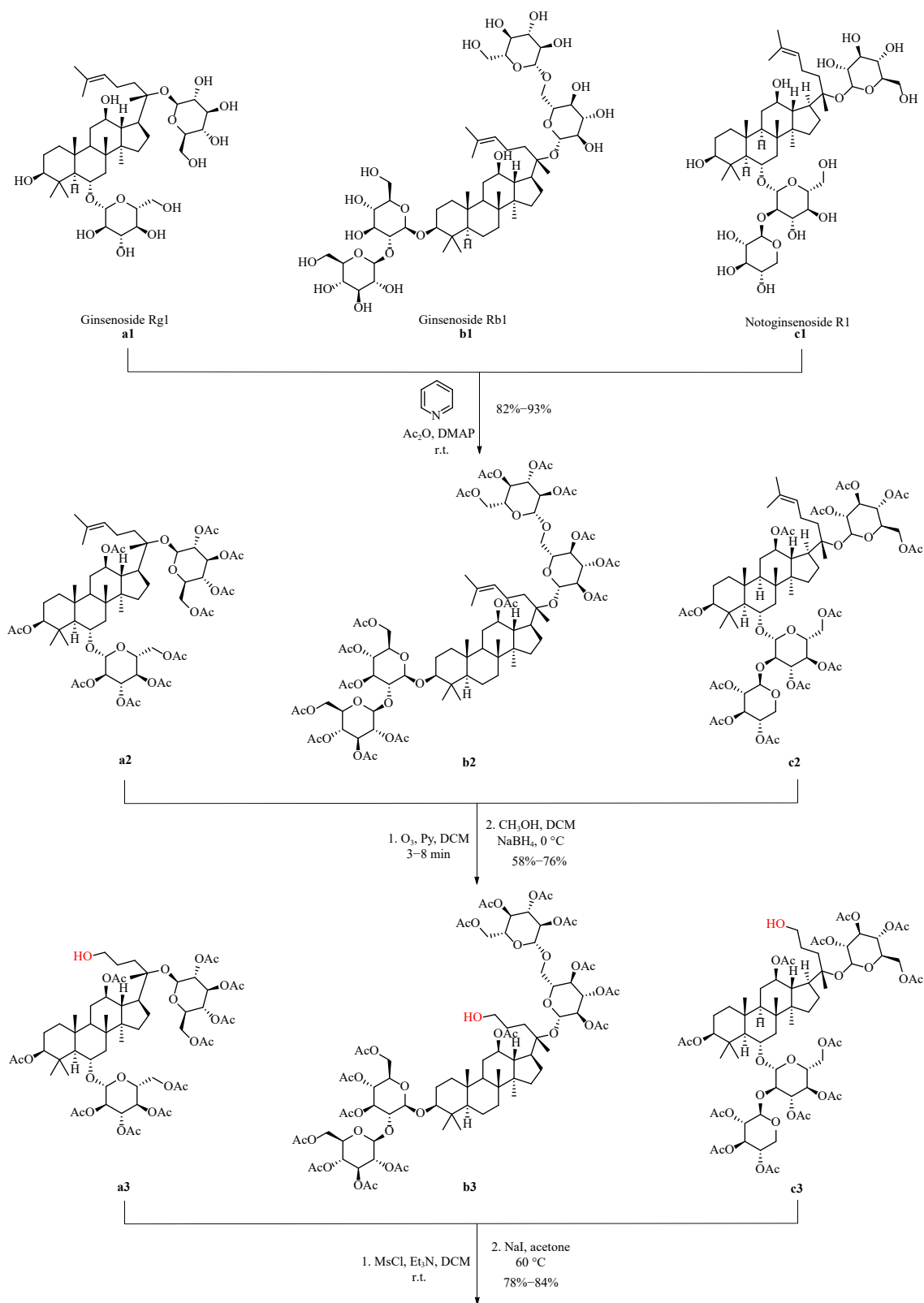


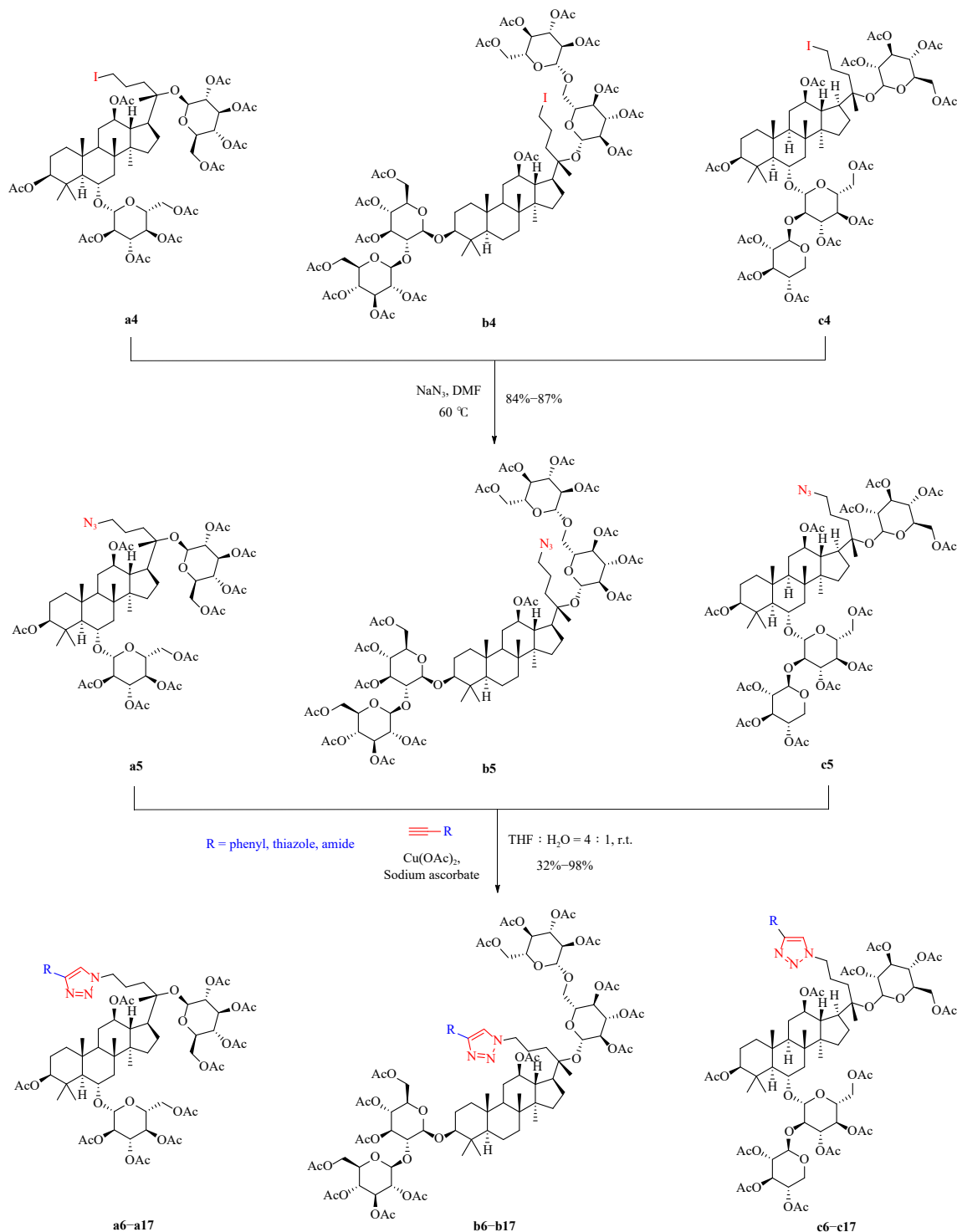
Fig. 1 Structures of ginsenosides Rg1, Rb1, and notoginsenoside R1, 1,2,3-triazole-containing hybrids as leads in medicinal chemistry and the design of saponin derivatives.

ation. The results indicated that ginsenoside Rg1-1,2,3-triazole derivative **a17** decreased lipid accumulation in adipocytes at 30 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$. Quantification of intracellular lipid content aligned with Oil Red O staining observations (Fig. 2B). Among all tested compounds, **a17** demonstrated the highest inhibitory activity (Fig. 2C). Based on these findings regarding activity and stability, compound **a17** was selected for further investigation of its effects on preadipocyte viability and molecular mechanisms in adipogenesis regulation.

2.3. SARs

The structural characteristics of ginsenosides Rg1, Rb1, and notoginsenoside R1 derivatives demonstrating significant inhibitory activity represent crucial factors in controlling cell differentiation and maturation of 3T3-L1 preadipocytes. Through the introduction of the 1,2,3-triazole pharmacophore *via* Click reaction, ginsenoside Rg1 derivatives **a6–a17**, ginsenoside Rb1 derivatives **b6–b17**, and notoginsenoside R1 derivatives **c6–c17** exhibit





Scheme 1 Synthesis of 1,2,3-triazole derivatives of ginsenosides Rg1 (**a6–a17**), Rb1 (**b6–b17**) and notoginsenoside R1 (**c6–c17**).

ited enhanced inhibitory activity compared to their parent compounds. The inhibition rates ranged from 16.6% to 45.7%. Among these compounds, ginsenoside Rg1 derivative **a17** demonstrated the highest efficacy in inhibiting adipocyte differentiation and maturation. Subsequent investigations focused on examining the effects of the optimal compound **a17** on preadipocyte viability and elucidating the molecular mechanisms underlying its dose-dependent inhibition of differentiation, maturation, and adipogenesis regulation in white adipocytes.

Regarding the structural characteristics of saponin, ginsenoside Rb1 derivatives **b6–b17** contain more glycosidic bonds than ginsenoside Rg1 derivatives **a6–a17** and notoginsenoside R1 de-

derivatives **c6–c17**, potentially resulting in increased molecular weight of the ginsenoside Rb1 derivatives and decreased cell membrane permeability and fat solubility. The inhibitory effect of the Rb1 derivatives **b6–b17** was marginally lower than that observed for ginsenoside Rg1 derivatives **a6–a17** and notoginsenoside R1 derivatives **c6–c17**.

Examining R group substituents on the 1,2,3-triazole ring, electron-withdrawing groups ($\text{R} = \text{NO}_2, \text{F}, \text{Cl}$ and Br , **a8/b8/c8**, **a10/b10/c10**, **a11/b11/c11**, **a12/b12/c12**) demonstrated higher inhibitory activity, with inhibition rates of 26.0%–41.9%. For electron-donating groups ($\text{R} = \text{NH}_2, \text{OMe}$ and CH_3 , **a7/b7/c7**, **a9/b9/c9** and **a13/b13/c13**), inhibitory activity was lower, ran-

Table 1 Structures and yields of 1,2,3-triazole derivatives of ginsenosides Rg1, Rb1, and notoginsenoside R1.

Entry	Compound No.	Saponins	R	Molecular formula	Yields/%
1	a6	Ginsenoside Rg1	Pyridine	C ₆₆ H ₉₂ N ₄ O ₂₄	36
2	a7	Ginsenoside Rg1	Aniline	C ₆₇ H ₉₄ N ₄ O ₂₄	72
3	a8	Ginsenoside Rg1	Fluorobenzene	C ₆₇ H ₉₂ FN ₃ O ₂₄	81
4	a9	Ginsenoside Rg1	Methoxybenzene	C ₆₈ H ₉₅ N ₃ O ₂₅	78
5	a10	Ginsenoside Rg1	Chlorobenzene	C ₆₇ H ₉₂ ClN ₃ O ₂₄	80
6	a11	Ginsenoside Rg1	Bromobenzene	C ₆₇ H ₉₂ BrN ₃ O ₂₄	74
7	a12	Ginsenoside Rg1	Nitrobenzene	C ₆₇ H ₉₂ N ₄ O ₂₆	81
8	a13	Ginsenoside Rg1	Toluene	C ₆₈ H ₉₅ N ₃ O ₂₄	62
9	a14	Ginsenoside Rg1	Benzene	C ₆₇ H ₉₃ N ₃ O ₂₄	85
10	a15	Ginsenoside Rg1	Naphthalene	C ₇₁ H ₉₅ N ₃ O ₂₄	86
11	a16	Ginsenoside Rg1	Thiophene	C ₆₅ H ₉₁ N ₃ O ₂₄ S	98
12	a17	Ginsenoside Rg1	Acetamide	C ₆₂ H ₉₀ N ₄ O ₂₅	62
13	b6	Ginsenoside Rb1	Pyridine	C ₈₈ H ₁₂₂ N ₄ O ₃₈	36
14	b7	Ginsenoside Rb1	Aniline	C ₈₉ H ₁₂₄ N ₄ O ₃₈	32
15	b8	Ginsenoside Rb1	Fluorobenzene	C ₈₉ H ₁₂₂ FN ₃ O ₃₈	74
16	b9	Ginsenoside Rb1	Methoxybenzene	C ₉₀ H ₁₂₅ N ₃ O ₃₉	62
17	b10	Ginsenoside Rb1	Chlorobenzene	C ₈₉ H ₁₂₂ ClN ₃ O ₃₈	88
18	b11	Ginsenoside Rb1	Bromobenzene	C ₈₉ H ₁₂₂ BrN ₃ O ₃₈	76
19	b12	Ginsenoside Rb1	Nitrobenzene	C ₈₉ H ₁₂₂ N ₄ O ₄₀	75
20	b13	Ginsenoside Rb1	Toluene	C ₉₀ H ₁₂₅ N ₃ O ₃₈	89
21	b14	Ginsenoside Rb1	Benzene	C ₈₉ H ₁₂₃ N ₃ O ₃₈	81
22	b15	Ginsenoside Rb1	Naphthalene	C ₉₃ H ₁₂₅ N ₃ O ₃₈	85
23	b16	Ginsenoside Rb1	Thiophene	C ₈₇ H ₁₂₁ N ₃ O ₃₈ S	83
24	b17	Ginsenoside Rb1	Acetamide	C ₈₄ H ₁₂₀ N ₄ O ₃₉	40
25	c6	Notoginsenoside R1	Pyridine	C ₇₅ H ₁₀₄ N ₄ O ₃₀	57
26	c7	Notoginsenoside R1	Aniline	C ₇₆ H ₁₀₆ N ₄ O ₃₀	71
27	c8	Notoginsenoside R1	Fluorobenzene	C ₇₆ H ₁₀₄ FN ₃ O ₃₀	72
28	c9	Notoginsenoside R1	Methoxybenzene	C ₇₇ H ₁₀₇ N ₃ O ₃₁	76
29	c10	Notoginsenoside R1	Chlorobenzene	C ₇₆ H ₁₀₄ ClN ₃ O ₃₀	85
30	c11	Notoginsenoside R1	Bromobenzene	C ₇₆ H ₁₀₄ BrN ₃ O ₃₀	79
31	c12	Notoginsenoside R1	Nitrobenzene	C ₇₆ H ₁₀₄ N ₄ O ₃₂	73
32	c13	Notoginsenoside R1	Toluene	C ₇₇ H ₁₀₇ N ₃ O ₃₀	68
33	c14	Notoginsenoside R1	Benzene	C ₇₆ H ₁₀₅ N ₃ O ₃₀	79
34	c15	Notoginsenoside R1	Naphthalene	C ₈₀ H ₁₀₇ N ₃ O ₃₀	84
35	c16	Notoginsenoside R1	Thiophene	C ₇₄ H ₁₀₃ N ₃ O ₃₀ S	69
36	c17	Notoginsenoside R1	Acetamide	C ₇₁ H ₁₀₂ N ₄ O ₃₁	65

ging from 16.6%–29.1%. With pyridine as the substituent group, the inhibitory activity of **a6/b6/c6** decreased due to electron-withdrawing effects, showing inhibition rates of 17.1%–32.2%. The naphthalene ring substituent introduced significant steric hindrance, with **a15/b15/c15** showing inhibition rates of 23.6%–40.8%. The heterocyclic thiophene ring substituent in **a16/b16/c16** produced moderate inhibitory activity (23.8%–34.5%). Notably, amide substitution enhanced conjugation effects, with amide derivatives **a17/b17/c17** exhibiting optimal inhibitory activity (31.5%–45.7%).

The findings indicate that incorporating amide-substituted 1,2,3-triazole derivatives in a ginsenoside Rg1 Click reaction significantly inhibited adipocyte differentiation and maturation. The preliminary SARs for the derivatives are summarized in Scheme 2.

2.4. Dose dependence in **a17** inhibited adipogenesis

The 3T3-L1 cell line serves as a standard *in vitro* cellular model for examining adipocyte development and function. This

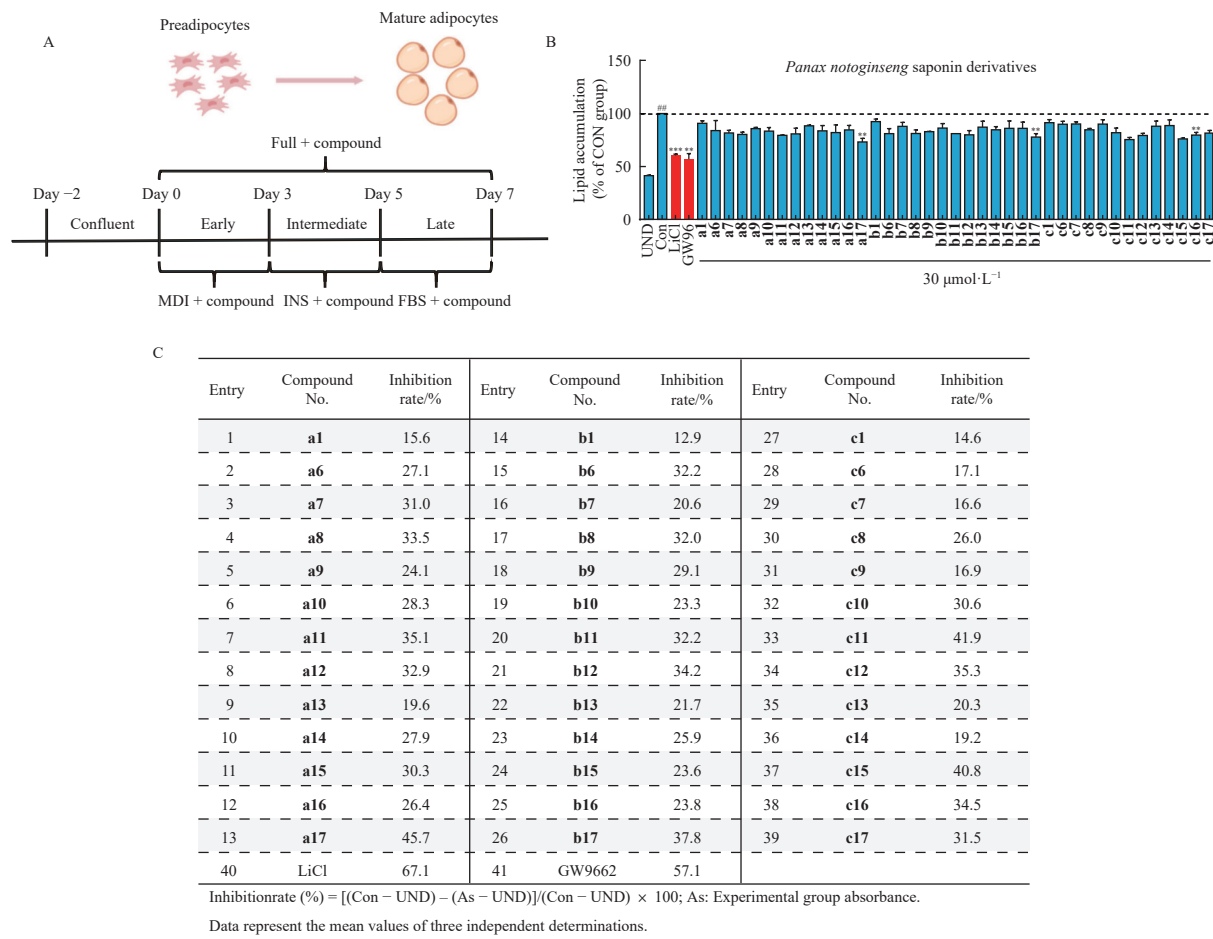


Fig. 2 Activity screening of saponin-triazole derivatives on anti-adipogenesis and the predicted binding mode of the protein-ligand complex. (A) Schematic of the protocol for induction of adipocyte differentiation and administration of ginsenosides Rg1, Rb1, and notoginsenoside R1 derivatives. (B) Normalized quantification of lipids in adipocytes by measuring Oil Red O intensity of the cells. Ginsenosides Rg1 (30 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$), Rb1 (30 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$), notoginsenoside R1 (30 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$), GW9662 (50 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) and LiCl (20 $\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) were used as positive controls. (C) Inhibition rate of ginsenosides Rg1, Rb1, and notoginsenoside R1 derivatives (**a6**–**a17**, **b6**–**b17**, and **c6**–**c17**) *in vitro*. The data were presented as mean \pm SEM ($n = 3$). $^{##}P < 0.01$ vs the UND group; $^{*}P < 0.05$ and $^{**}P < 0.01$ vs the CON group.

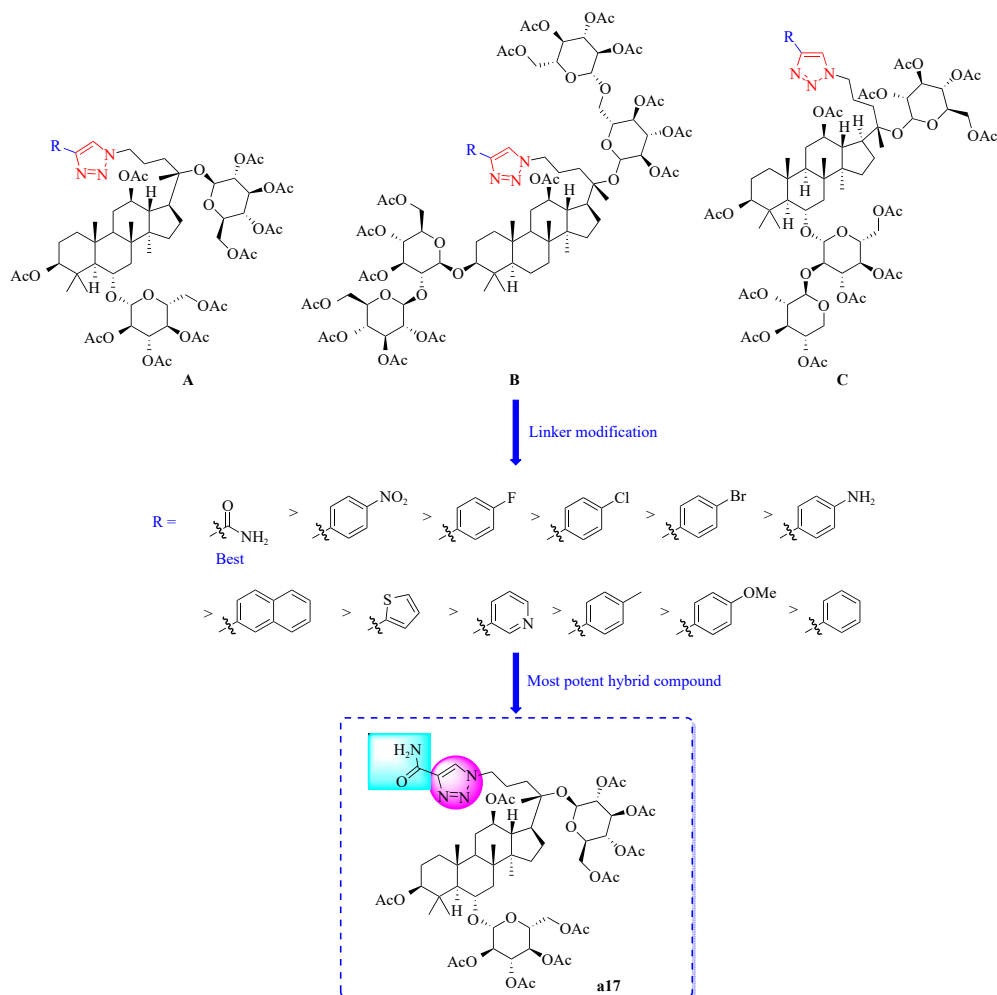
cell line provides an optimal model system for investigating the regulation of differentiation-related genes during adipocyte differentiation⁶². During differentiation, preadipocytes activate multiple adipogenic genes through transcription factor regulation, initiating complex physiological and biochemical processes that culminate in mature adipocyte formation. Excessive differentiation leads to adipocyte proliferation, contributing to adipose tissue expansion associated with obesity development and progression. Therefore, inhibiting preadipocyte differentiation represents a potential strategy for obesity prevention. In this investigation, **a17** was administered (at concentrations of 3.75, 7.5, 15, 30, 60, and 90 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) to the medium during adipocyte differentiation, producing varying effects on the differentiation process. Microscopic examination revealed decreased intracellular lipid droplets with increasing **a17** concentration. Additionally, higher **a17** concentrations corresponded to an increased proportion of cells displaying a non-lipid droplet phenotype (Fig. 3A). The quantification of lipid droplet dissolution appears in Fig. 3B. At the conclusion of induction differentiation on day seven, adipocytes treated with sequential **a17** concentrations showed decreased lipid content by -0.1%, 10%, 22.1%, 53.0%, 65.4%, and 75.3% compared to the CON. Based on Fig. 3B results, Prism software analysis determined the half-maximal inhibitory concentration (IC_{50}) value of **a17** on adipocyte differentiation as 29.78 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ (Fig. 3C).

The MTS assay was utilized to evaluate **a17**'s effect on cell viability by exposing preadipocytes to concentrations of 15, 30, 60, 120, and 160 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ **a17** for 24 h. Results shown in Fig. 3D in-

dicate that even the highest **a17** concentration (160 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) did not produce significant cytotoxicity, indicating that the inhibition of white adipocyte differentiation is not attributable to cytotoxic effects. These results demonstrate that **a17** inhibited adipocyte differentiation in a dose-dependent manner within a safe concentration range.

2.5. Regulation of adipogenesis by **a17** in the middle stage of differentiation

As 3T3-L1 preadipocytes undergo differentiation, the expression of adipocyte-specific genes increases significantly, establishing the molecular foundation for terminal maturation. Key transcriptional regulators such as peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ (PPAR γ) and CCAAT/enhancer-binding proteins (C/EBPs) play central roles in determining adipocyte fate⁶³⁻⁶⁵. Additionally, fatty acid synthase (FAS) and fatty acid-binding protein 4 (FABP4) are pivotal in lipid anabolism, promoting lipid synthesis and storage⁶⁶. Based on prior findings indicating that **a17** modulates adipogenesis in a concentration-dependent manner, we further investigated its effect on the expression of these adipogenic markers at the protein level. GW9662, a selective PPAR γ antagonist known to inhibit adipocyte differentiation, was used as a positive control. In the untreated differentiation control group (CON), the expression levels of PPAR γ , FAS, and FABP4 were markedly increased. Treatment with **a17** at concentrations of 15, 30, 60, and 90 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ led to a dose-dependent downregulation of these proteins. In contrast, the expression of



Scheme 2 Structure-activity relationship of ginsenosides Rg1, Rb1, and notoginsenoside R1 derivatives.

C/EBP β , an early adipogenic transcription factor, remained unaffected by **a17** (Fig. 4A). These findings are further supported by the data presented in Figs. 4B–4E, reinforcing the notion that **a17** selectively attenuates late-stage adipogenic signaling without interfering with early-stage differentiation regulators.

2.6. Molecular docking

To elucidate the mechanism underlying the high activity of compound **a17**, molecular docking analysis was conducted using Autodock vina. Fig. 5A illustrates the binding sites of compound **a17** in the protein, where the glucose side chain of the **a17** molecule is embedded within the structure. As depicted in Fig. 5B, compound **a17** established 4 hydrogen bonds with the residues. The amide nitrogen atom of **a17** formed 2 hydrogen bonds with residues SER225. Furthermore, the oxygen atom on the glucose side chain of the saponin parent nucleus and the acetyl protection group formed 2 strong hydrogen bonds with residue SER342. Two additional residues, PRO227 and GLY284, contributed to the docking interaction. The residues SER225 and SER342 were identified as crucial amino acids for inhibitor binding.

Molecular docking analyses were also performed for compounds **b17** and **c17** using the same computational parameters. Both compounds exhibited measurable binding affinity toward the target protein, but their binding modes differed significantly. In Fig. 5E, the glucose side chain of compound **c17** was able to insert into the binding pocket of the protein, similar to the conformation observed for compound **a17**. However, in Fig. 5C, shows that for compound **b17**, the glucose side chain projected

outward, while the triazole moiety instead inserted into the pocket. Compound **b17** formed a single hydrogen bond with residue SER342 (Fig. 5D), whereas no hydrogen bonding was observed in the docking pose of compound **c17** (Fig. 5F). This lack of specific interactions may partially explain the lower biological activity of compound **c17** compared to **b17**.

To investigate the influence of different substituents on biological activity, molecular docking operations were conducted on all compounds of the A series. Ten models were generated, and the optimal model was selected for comparative analysis.

Compound **a17** achieved the second-highest docking score. Notably, while the electron-withdrawing nitro group exhibited the highest score, its biological activity was not optimal. The electron-withdrawing groups (R = F, Cl, Br) demonstrated comparable scores. The electron-donating groups (R = NH₂, OCH₃, CH₃) showed considerable score variation. Compound **a9** (R = OCH₃) achieved the third highest score despite its limited biological activity. Heterocyclic structures, including pyridine and naphthalene, showed moderate scores, consistent with their biological activity data. Compound **a16**, containing a thiophene substituent, maintained moderate biological activity despite its lowest docking score. Overall, the molecular docking scores demonstrated a correlation with the biological activity test results.

3. Conclusion

A series of novel *P. notoginseng* saponin-1,2,3-triazole derivatives have been synthesized, demonstrating significant inhibition of adipocyte differentiation. The synthesis included various

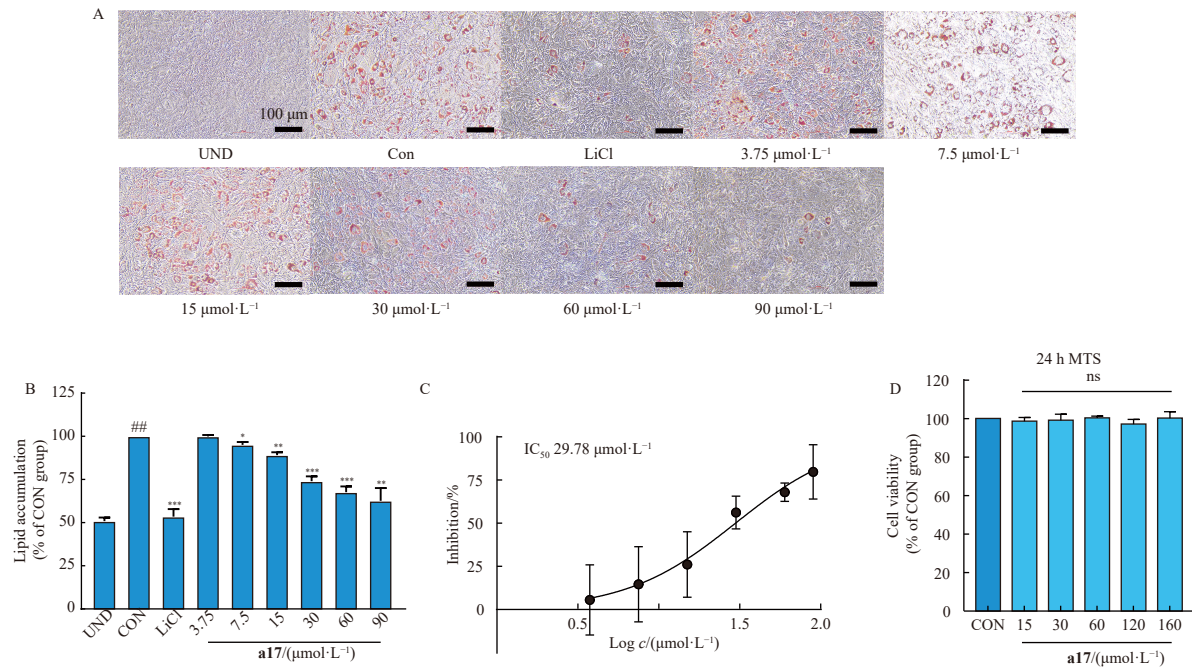


Fig. 3 **a17** suppressed the differentiation of adipocytes and related protein expressions. (A) Representative Oil Red O-stained images of 3T3-L1 adipocytes treated with increasing concentrations of **a17** (3.75–90 μmol·L⁻¹). Scale bar = 100 μm. (B) Quantification of intracellular lipid accumulation based on Oil Red O absorbance. (C) IC₅₀ value of **a17** for adipogenesis inhibition, calculated using GraphPad Prism. (D) Cell viability of 3T3-L1 preadipocytes treated with **a17** (15–160 μmol·L⁻¹) for 24 h, assessed by MTS assay. Data are presented as mean ± SEM (n = 3). **P < 0.01 vs the UND group; *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, and ***P < 0.001 vs the CON group; ns: no significance compared to the CON group.

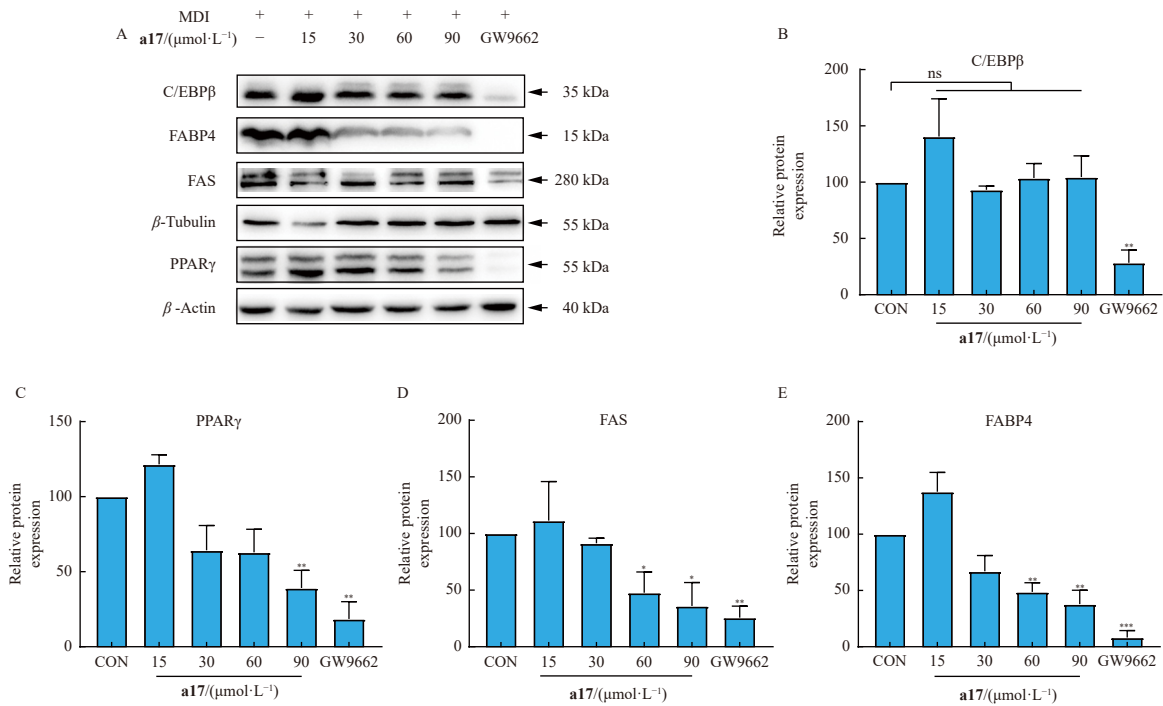


Fig. 4 (A) Images of Western blotting bands showing the expression levels of C/EBPβ, PPARγ, FAS, and FABP4 in 3T3-L1 adipocytes treated with varying concentrations of **a17**. (B–E) Quantified and normalized protein expression levels of C/EBPβ, PPARγ, FAS, and FABP4, respectively. The data were presented as mean ± SEM (n = 3). *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01 and ***P < 0.001 vs the CON group; ns: no significance compared to the CON group.

1,2,3-triazole derivatives of ginsenoside Rg1, ginsenoside Rb1, and notoginsenoside R1, which exhibited substantial inhibitory activity against adipocyte differentiation and maturation. Analysis revealed that incorporating electron-withdrawing substituent groups on the 1,2,3-triazole derivatives via Click reaction enhanced their effectiveness in inhibiting adipocyte differentiation and maturation. The ginsenoside Rg1 derivative **a17** containing an amide substitution group demonstrated superior inhibition

(45.7%). Additionally, **a17** showed dose-dependent inhibition of adipocyte differentiation within safe concentration parameters. The effects of **a17** included downregulation of adipogenic transcription factors crucial for promoting adipogenesis and maintaining adipocyte differentiation, specifically targeting PPARγ, FAS, and FABP4. These results indicate that the Rg1-1,2,3-triazole derivative **a17** represents a promising lead compound for adipogenesis inhibition. Subsequent research will focus on

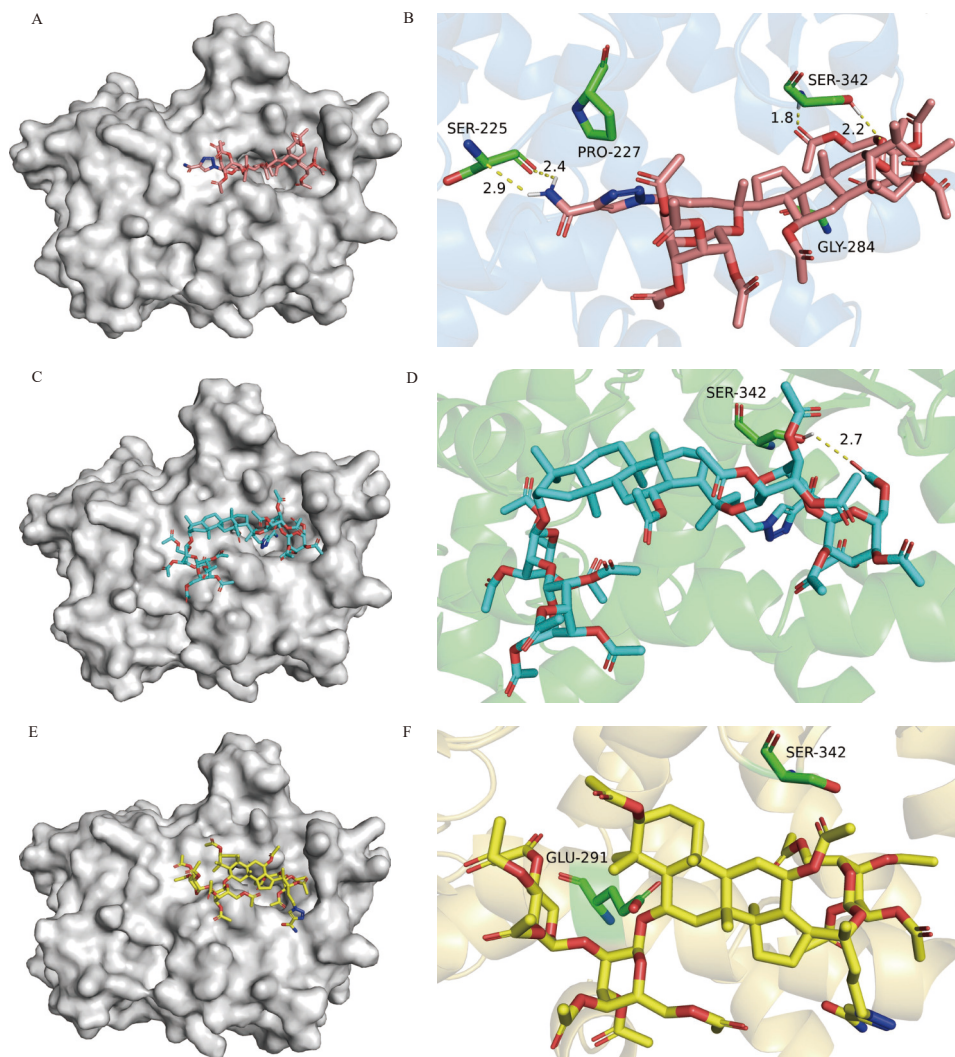


Fig. 5 Predicted binding modes of PPAR γ with compounds **a17**, **b17**, and **c17**. (A, C, E) Overall docking poses of PPAR γ in complex with compound **a17** (orange sticks), **b17** (cyan sticks), and **c17** (yellow sticks), respectively. (B, D, F) Enlarged views of the ligand-receptor binding interface. Hydrogen bonds are shown as yellow dashed lines.

comprehensive structural modifications and mechanistic studies, advancing the development of more effective and economical anti-obesity medications.

4. Experimental

4.1. Materials

Melting points were determined and uncorrected using a Haineng melting-point apparatus (MP430, Jinan, China). Proton nuclear magnetic resonance (^1H NMR) spectra were obtained on Bruker Avance 400 and Bruker Avance 600 spectrometers (Bruker, MA, USA) at 400 MHz and 600 MHz. Carbon-13 nuclear magnetic resonance (^{13}C NMR) was recorded on Bruker Avance 400 spectrometer at 100 MHz and Bruker Avance 600 spectrometer at 150 MHz (Bruker, MA, USA). Chemical shifts are expressed as δ values relative to tetramethylsilane (TMS) for all recorded NMR spectra. High-resolution mass spectra were acquired using an Agilent LC-MSO/TOR mass spectrometer (Agilent Technologies, CA, USA). Silica gel (200–300 mesh) for column chromatography and silica GF₂₅₄ for TLC were obtained from Qingdao Marine Chemical Company (Qingdao, China). All air- or moisture-sensitive reactions were performed under an argon atmosphere. Starting materials and reagents were sourced commercially from TCI, Adamas, Aladdin, and Bidepharm and used

without further purification, unless specified otherwise.

4.2. Synthesis of compounds **a2/b2/c2**

To a solution of ginsenoside Rg1 (**a1**, 4.0 g, 5.0 mmol) in pyridine (30 mL) was added acetic anhydride (Ac₂O, 9.45 mL, 100.0 mmol) and 4-dimethylaminopyridine (DMAP, 0.12 g, 1.0 mmol). The reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 12 h, then quenched with 4.0 mol·L⁻¹ aqueous HCl (100 mL). The mixture was extracted with ethyl acetate (EtOAc, 3 × 150 mL), and the combined organic layers were washed successively with saturated aqueous NaHCO₃ (150 mL) and brine (150 mL), dried over Na₂SO₄, and concentrated under reduced pressure. The crude product was purified by silica gel column chromatography using a gradient of DCM:EtOAc, 5:1 to 2:1, yielding **a2** as a white powder (93% yield).

Ginsenoside Rb1 (**b1**, 5.5 g, 5.0 mmol) was treated under identical conditions using pyridine (30 mL), acetic anhydride (14.18 mL, 150.0 mmol), and DMAP (0.12 g, 1.0 mmol). After 12 h of stirring at room temperature and standard aqueous work-up, the product was purified by silica gel chromatography using a DCM:EtOAc gradient from 3:1 to 1:1, affording compound **b2** as a white powder (82% yield).

Notoginsenoside R1 (**c1**, 4.66 g, 5.0 mmol) was dissolved in pyridine (30 mL) and reacted with acetic anhydride (11.34 mL, 120.0 mmol) and DMAP (0.12 g, 1.0 mmol) under the same condi-

tions. Following quenching, extraction, and purification by column chromatography (DCM:EtOAc, 3:1 to 1:1), compound **c2** was obtained as a white powder in 93% yield. Complete physical and spectroscopic characterization data for compounds **a2**, **b2**, and **c2** are provided in the Supporting information.

4.3. Synthesis of compounds **a3–a5/b3–b5/c3–c5**

To a solution of compound **a2** (4.88 g, 4.0 mmol)/**b2** (6.96 g, 4.0 mmol)/**c2** (5.75 g, 4.0 mmol) in DCM (30.0 mL), a few drops of pyridine were added. The resulting mixture was stirred and cooled at -78°C for several minutes before introducing ozone for 3–8 min (monitored by TLC). Upon reaction completion, the solution was transferred to an ice water bath. MeOH (5 mL) was added to the round bottom flask, followed by a slow addition of NaBH_4 (454 mg, 12 mmol). After removing the ice bath, the solution was stirred for 2 h at room temperature before quenching with NH_4Cl (1 mL, sat. aq.) and concentrating *in vacuo*. Column chromatography purification of the residue (silica gel, DCM:EA, 1:1) afforded **a3/b3/c3** in 58%–76% yield (two steps) as white powder (Physical and spectral data of **a3/b3/c3** are included in the Supporting information).

To a solution of compound **a3** (2.63 g, 2.2 mmol)/**b3** (3.77 g, 2.2 mmol)/**c3** (3.10 g, 2.2 mmol) in DCM (30.0 mL), MsCl (340 μL , 4.4 mmol) and Et_3N (612 μL , 4.4 mmol) were added. The mixture was stirred at room temperature for 12 h before quenching with H_2O (30 mL). After separating the layers, the organic layer underwent extraction with CH_2Cl_2 (3×30 mL), drying over (Na_2SO_4) and concentration *in vacuo*. The residue was dissolved in acetone (30 mL), treated with NaI (989 mg, 6.6 mmol) and stirred at 60°C for 12 h before quenching with H_2O (30 mL) and diluting with EtOAc (30 mL). Following layer separation, the organic layer was extracted with EtOAc (3×30 mL), dried over (Na_2SO_4) and concentrated *in vacuo*. Column chromatography purification of the residue (silica gel, DCM:EA, 3:1) yielded **a4/b4/c4** in 78%–84% yield (two steps) as white or yellow powder (Physical and spectral data of **a4/b4/c4** are included in the Supporting information).

To a solution of compound **a4** (2.22 g, 1.7 mmol)/**b4** (3.10 g, 1.7 mmol)/**c4** (2.59 g, 1.7 mmol) in DMF (30.0 mL), NaN_3 (221 mg, 3.4 mmol) was added. The mixture was stirred at 80°C for 12 h before being quenched with H_2O (30 mL) and diluted with EtOAc (30 mL). The layers were separated, and the organic layer was extracted with EtOAc (3×30 mL), dried (Na_2SO_4) and concentrated *in vacuo*. The residue underwent purification by column chromatography (silica gel, DCM:EA, 3:1) to yield **a5/b5/c5** at 84%–87% as white powder (Physical and spectral data of **a5/b5/c5** are included in the Supporting information).

4.4. Synthesis of compounds **a6–a17/b6–b17/c6–c17**

To a solution of compound **a5/b5/c5** (0.05 mmol) in THF (4.0 mL), alkyne (0.1 mmol), $\text{Cu}(\text{OAc})_2$ (0.075 mmol), sodium ascorbate (0.1 mmol) and water (1 mL) were sequentially added. The mixture was stirred at room temperature for 12 h and concentrated *in vacuo*. The residue underwent purification by column chromatography (silica gel, DCM:EA, 5:1 to 1:1) to yield **a6–a17/b6–b17/c6–c17** at 32%–98% as white or brown powder (Physical and spectral data of **a6–a17/b6–b17/c6–c17** are included in the Supporting information).

4.5. Cell, differentiation, and treatment

Mouse 3T3-L1 preadipocytes were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, USA) and cultured in a 5% CO_2 humidified incubator at 37°C (Phcbi, Tokyo, Japan). Cells were maintained in high-glucose Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medi-

um (DMEM) supplemented with 10% newborn bovine serum and 1% penicillin-streptomycin (P/S). Upon reaching complete confluency (designated as day 0), differentiation was induced by treating the cells with an adipogenic induction cocktail consisting of $1 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ DEX, $0.5 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ IBMX, $1 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ROSI, and $1 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ INS in DMEM containing 10% FBS. This induction phase was maintained for 3 d. On day 3, the induction medium was replaced with DMEM containing 10% FBS and $1 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ insulin, and the cells were cultured for additional 2 d. Subsequently, the medium was changed to DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS alone, and the cells were incubated for another 2 d to complete the differentiation process.

4.6. Oil Red O staining

Following adipocyte differentiation induction, the cells underwent the following procedures: washing three times with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and fixation in 10% formalin at room temperature for 1 h. The cells were then rinsed twice with distilled water, once with 60% isopropanol, and maintained for 3 min. Subsequently, staining occurred with Oil Red O working solution for 15 min, followed by four rinses with distilled water. The cells were photographed using a Nikon inverted microscope and a Nikon digital camera system (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan). For quantitative analysis, Oil Red O staining was performed, and the stain was eluted with 100% isopropanol. Absorbance measurements were conducted at 492 nm.

4.7. Cell viability assay

Cell viability was assessed using the MTS method. Initially, 3T3-L1 preadipocytes were seeded in 96-well plates at a density of 1×10^5 cells $\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ and incubated for 2 d. Distilled water was added to the peripheral wells as a control, while the remaining wells received 150 μL of culture medium. Various concentrations of **a17** were administered and incubated for 24 h at 37°C . Following incubation, the cell culture medium was removed, and MTS solution was added to each well. The plates were incubated for an additional 2 h at 37°C . The absorbance was then measured at 492 nm using a microplate reader (Thermo, MA, USA) to determine cell viability.

4.8. Whole-cell extracts and Western blotting analysis

Prior to harvesting, both untreated and **a17** treated cells were washed twice with pre-chilled PBS. The cells were then lysed in RIPA lysis buffer containing $2 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ PMSF (Med Chem Express, China). Cell lysates were obtained by scrapping the cells for 15 min on ice, followed by centrifugation at $10\,000 g$ for 10 min at 4°C to collect the supernatant. Total protein concentration was determined using a BCA protein assay kit. The protein samples were denatured by heating at 100°C for 10 min. Equal amounts of protein were separated using 8%–13% sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and transferred onto polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membranes. The membranes were blocked with PBS-T ($1 \times$ PBS and 0.1% Tween-20, pH 7.6) containing 5% non-fat dry milk for 1 h on a shaker. The membranes were then incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies. After washing, the secondary antibody was added and incubated for 2 h at room temperature. Bands were visualized using enhanced chemiluminescent reagents and an imaging system (5200 Multi, Tanon, China), and photographs were captured. Quantitative analysis of band grayscale values was conducted using MetaMorph software.

4.9. Statistical analysis

All data were expressed as mean \pm standard error of the

mean (SEM). To compare the differences between the two groups, an unpaired *t*-test was performed using GraphPrism 9.5 software. *P* < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

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Availability of supporting information

Supporting information for this study can be obtained by contacting the corresponding authors via E-mail.

Declaration of competing interest

These authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

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