



Plant-Derived Alkaloids in Neuropharmacology: Molecular Targets, Mechanistic Insights, and Translational Drug Development for Neurological Disorders

Charlotte Anne Whitmore ^{1*}, Oliver James Bennett ², Amelia Rose Sinclair ³, Thomas Edward Callaghan ⁴

¹ Institute of Pharmaceutical Science, King's College London, London

² Centre for Drug Delivery Research, University of Nottingham, Nottingham, UK

³ Division of Cancer Nanotechnology, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK

⁴ School of Pharmacy and Biomolecular Sciences, University of Brighton, Brighton, UK

* Corresponding Author: **Charlotte Anne Whitmore**

Article Info

ISSN (online): 3107-393X

Volume: 01

Issue: 01

January – February 2024

Received: 07-11-2023

Accepted: 09-12-2023

Published: 11-01-2024

Page No: 24-31

Abstract

Plant-derived alkaloids represent a pharmacologically diverse class of nitrogen-containing natural products that have profoundly shaped modern neuropharmacology and central nervous system (CNS) drug discovery. These structurally complex secondary metabolites interact with a wide array of neuronal targets, including neurotransmitter receptors, ion channels, transporters, and intracellular signaling pathways, thereby modulating synaptic transmission, neuroplasticity, and neuroprotection. Alkaloids such as morphine, galantamine, vincristine, and caffeine have achieved clinical validation as approved neurotherapeutics, while numerous others are progressing through preclinical and clinical development pipelines for neurological and neuropsychiatric disorders including pain, neurodegenerative diseases, epilepsy, and mood disorders. This review examines the neuropharmacological profiles of major alkaloid classes—including indole, isoquinoline, tropane, pyrrolidine, quinoline, and purine derivatives—with emphasis on their molecular mechanisms of action, structure-activity relationships, and CNS target selectivity. We discuss critical translational considerations including blood-brain barrier permeability, pharmacokinetic optimization, safety profiles, and addiction liability. Furthermore, we explore the role of alkaloids as privileged scaffolds for semi-synthetic analog development and rational drug design. Despite their therapeutic promise, challenges remain in optimizing CNS drug-likeness, minimizing off-target effects, and navigating complex regulatory pathways. Emerging strategies integrating computational modeling, target-based screening, and precision medicine approaches are expected to accelerate the translation of alkaloid-based lead compounds into next-generation neurotherapeutics for unmet clinical needs in neurology and psychiatry.

DOI:

Keywords: Plant alkaloids; neuropharmacology; CNS drug discovery; molecular targets; neurological disorders; translational neuroscience

1. Introduction

Neurological and neuropsychiatric disorders represent a major global health burden, affecting over one billion individuals worldwide and contributing substantially to disability-adjusted life years ^[1]. Despite significant advances in neuroscience, therapeutic options for many CNS conditions remain limited by inadequate efficacy, poor tolerability, and incomplete understanding of disease pathophysiology ^[1]. The identification of novel molecular targets and pharmacologically active

compounds is therefore critical to advancing CNS drug discovery. Plant-derived alkaloids have historically served as invaluable sources of neuropharmacological agents, with many becoming foundational drugs in modern medicine [1]. These nitrogen-containing secondary metabolites exhibit remarkable structural diversity and evolutionary optimization for biological target interaction [4]. Alkaloids such as morphine, atropine, cocaine, quinine, and strychnine were among the first pure compounds isolated from plants and pharmacologically characterized, establishing the foundations of neuropharmacology as a scientific discipline [5].

Contemporary neuropharmacological research has elucidated the precise molecular mechanisms by which alkaloids modulate CNS function, revealing their interactions with specific neurotransmitter receptors, voltage-gated and ligand-gated ion channels, monoamine transporters, and intracellular signaling cascades [6][7]. This mechanistic understanding has enabled rational optimization of alkaloid scaffolds for improved CNS drug-likeness, including enhanced blood-brain barrier (BBB) penetration, target selectivity, and favorable pharmacokinetic profiles [8].

The translational potential of plant-derived alkaloids extends beyond their direct therapeutic applications. Many alkaloids serve as privileged structures for semi-synthetic derivatization and as templates for analog-based drug design, yielding compounds with optimized neuropharmacological properties [9]. Furthermore, alkaloids provide valuable chemical probes for target validation and mechanistic investigation in neuroscience research [10].

This review provides a comprehensive analysis of plant-derived alkaloids as neuropharmacological agents, with emphasis on molecular mechanisms, therapeutic applications in neurological disorders, and translational drug development. We examine major alkaloid classes, their CNS molecular targets, structure-activity relationships, and the challenges and opportunities in advancing alkaloid-based neurotherapeutics from bench to bedside.

2. Plant-Derived Alkaloids as Neuropharmacological Agents

2.1. Structural Classification and Biosynthetic Diversity

Plant alkaloids comprise over 21,000 structurally characterized compounds, classified according to their core nitrogen-containing heterocyclic scaffolds [11]. Major classes relevant to neuropharmacology include indole alkaloids (e.g., reserpine, ibogaine, vinblastine), isoquinoline alkaloids (e.g., morphine, berberine, galantamine), tropane alkaloids (e.g., atropine, scopolamine, cocaine), pyrrolidine and piperidine alkaloids (e.g., nicotine, coniine), quinoline alkaloids (e.g., quinine, camptothecin), and purine alkaloids (e.g., caffeine, theobromine) [11][11].

These structural classes arise from diverse biosynthetic pathways involving amino acid precursors including tryptophan, tyrosine, ornithine, lysine, and nicotinic acid [14]. The evolutionary conservation of alkaloid biosynthesis across plant taxa reflects their adaptive roles in chemical defense, with many alkaloids specifically targeting neuronal receptors and ion channels in herbivores and insects [15]. This evolutionary optimization has yielded compounds with inherent neuropharmacological activity and favorable

binding profiles for mammalian CNS targets.

2.2 Pharmacophore Features and CNS Drug-Likeness

The structural features of alkaloids confer several advantages for CNS drug development. Most alkaloids contain protonatable nitrogen atoms that facilitate receptor binding through ionic and hydrogen bonding interactions [16]. Their moderate molecular weights and lipophilicity often satisfy Lipinski's rule of five and related CNS-specific drug-likeness criteria, including appropriate polar surface area and hydrogen bond donor/acceptor counts for BBB permeability [17].

However, alkaloid scaffolds also present challenges for CNS optimization. Many naturally occurring alkaloids exhibit complex stereochemistry, multiple chiral centers, and structural features that may limit metabolic stability or oral bioavailability [18]. Furthermore, certain alkaloid classes show promiscuous binding to multiple receptor subtypes, necessitating structural modifications to improve target selectivity and minimize off-target effects [19].

3. Molecular Targets and Mechanisms of Action

3.1. Neurotransmitter Receptor Modulation

Alkaloids interact with virtually all major neurotransmitter receptor families, functioning as agonists, antagonists, or allosteric modulators [20]. Morphine and related opium alkaloids are prototypical μ -opioid receptor agonists, producing analgesia through inhibition of nociceptive signaling in the spinal cord and brain [21]. The isoquinoline alkaloid galantamine acts as an allosteric potentiating ligand at nicotinic acetylcholine receptors while simultaneously inhibiting acetylcholinesterase, providing dual mechanisms for cognitive enhancement in Alzheimer's disease [21].

Tropane alkaloids exemplify receptor subtype selectivity, with atropine and scopolamine functioning as competitive antagonists at muscarinic acetylcholine receptors [21]. Scopolamine selectively blocks M1 muscarinic receptors in the CNS, producing amnesia and sedation, while showing therapeutic utility in motion sickness and as a preoperative antisialagogue [24]. The indole alkaloid ibogaine interacts with multiple neurotransmitter systems, including antagonism at N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptors and σ_2 receptors, mechanisms implicated in its anti-addictive properties [25].

3.2. Ion Channel Interactions

Voltage-gated and ligand-gated ion channels represent critical alkaloid targets for neurological therapeutics [26]. Nicotine from *Nicotiana* species acts as an agonist at neuronal nicotinic acetylcholine receptors, particularly $\alpha_4\beta_2$ and α_7 subtypes, modulating synaptic plasticity and neurotransmitter release [27]. Cocaine blocks voltage-gated sodium channels in addition to its well-characterized inhibition of monoamine transporters, contributing to its local anesthetic properties [28].

The quinoline alkaloid quinine modulates voltage-gated potassium channels and has been investigated for treatment of nocturnal leg cramps, although its primary clinical use remains in antimalarial therapy [29]. Strychnine, a highly toxic indole alkaloid, functions as a competitive antagonist at glycine receptors in the spinal cord, producing characteristic convulsant effects through disinhibition of motor neurons [30].

3.3. Neurotransmitter Transporter Inhibition

Monoamine transporter inhibition represents a major mechanism for alkaloid psychoactivity and therapeutic effects^[31]. Cocaine potently inhibits dopamine, norepinephrine, and serotonin transporters (DAT, NET, and SERT), with its abuse liability primarily attributed to DAT blockade in mesolimbic reward circuitry^[31]. This mechanism has guided development of selective DAT inhibitors with reduced abuse potential for treatment of attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder and cocaine addiction^[31].

The indole alkaloid reserpine irreversibly inhibits vesicular monoamine transporter 2 (VMAT2), depleting neuronal monoamine stores and producing antipsychotic and antihypertensive effects^[34]. While reserpine itself has been largely superseded by safer alternatives, it remains an important pharmacological tool and has inspired development of reversible VMAT2 inhibitors for movement disorders^[35].

3.4. Enzyme Modulation and Intracellular Signaling

Alkaloids modulate CNS function through direct enzyme inhibition and regulation of intracellular signaling pathways^[36]. Galantamine and huperzine A (a lycopodium alkaloid) reversibly inhibit acetylcholinesterase, enhancing cholinergic neurotransmission and providing symptomatic benefit in Alzheimer's disease^[37]. Berberine, an isoquinoline alkaloid, activates AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) and modulates multiple metabolic and neuroprotective pathways, showing promise in neurodegenerative disease models^[38].

The vinca alkaloids (vinblastine, vincristine) from *Catharanthus roseus* bind to tubulin and disrupt microtubule dynamics, producing neurotoxicity as a dose-limiting side effect in cancer chemotherapy but also suggesting potential applications in neurological disorders characterized by aberrant cytoskeletal dynamics^[39]. Harmine and related β -carboline alkaloids inhibit monoamine oxidase A and dual-specificity tyrosine phosphorylation-regulated kinase 1A (DYRK1A), mechanisms implicated in neuroprotection and neurogenesis^[40].

4. Therapeutic Applications in Neurological Disorders

4.1. Pain Management

Opium alkaloids remain the gold standard for moderate to severe pain, with morphine, codeine, and semi-synthetic derivatives (hydromorphone, oxycodone) widely used clinically^[41]. These μ -opioid receptor agonists produce dose-dependent analgesia but are limited by tolerance, physical dependence, and respiratory depression^[41]. Efforts to develop alkaloid-based analgesics with improved safety profiles include peripheral-restricted opioids, biased agonists favoring G-protein over β -arrestin signaling, and mixed-mechanism compounds combining opioid activity with complementary analgesic mechanisms^[41].

The indole alkaloid mitragynine from *Mitragyna speciosa* (kratom) exhibits partial μ -opioid receptor agonism with reduced respiratory depression compared to traditional opioids, although concerns regarding abuse potential and safety have limited clinical development^[44]. Structure-based optimization of mitragynine analogs aims to retain analgesic efficacy while minimizing adverse effects^[45].

4.2. Neurodegenerative Diseases

Cholinesterase inhibitors derived from plant alkaloids represent first-line pharmacotherapy for Alzheimer's disease

^[46]. Galantamine from *Galanthus* species provides dual mechanisms through acetylcholinesterase inhibition and allosteric potentiation of nicotinic receptors, improving cognitive function and activities of daily living^[47]. Huperzine A, though not yet approved in all jurisdictions, shows superior blood-brain barrier penetration and longer duration of action compared to synthetic cholinesterase inhibitors^[48]. Berberine demonstrates neuroprotective effects in preclinical models of Parkinson's disease and Alzheimer's disease through multiple mechanisms including antioxidant activity, mitochondrial protection, anti-inflammatory effects, and modulation of amyloid-beta and tau pathology^[49]. Clinical trials are investigating berberine and its derivatives for cognitive enhancement and disease modification in neurodegenerative disorders^[50].

4.3. Epilepsy and Movement Disorders

While most contemporary antiepileptic drugs are synthetic, alkaloid pharmacophores have influenced their development^[51]. The GABA transaminase inhibitor vigabatrin was inspired by structural features of naturally occurring alkaloids, demonstrating how alkaloid scaffolds inform rational drug design^[51].

Tetrabenazine, a semi-synthetic derivative inspired by reserpine, selectively inhibits VMAT2 and is approved for treatment of chorea associated with Huntington's disease^[51]. Deutetabenazine, incorporating deuterium substitution for improved pharmacokinetics, represents further refinement of this alkaloid-derived therapeutic^[54].

4.4. Psychiatric and Cognitive Disorders

Alkaloids targeting monoaminergic systems have therapeutic relevance in depression and anxiety disorders^[55]. While direct clinical use of reserpine has declined, its mechanism inspired development of modern antipsychotics targeting monoamine neurotransmission^[56]. Caffeine, the most widely consumed psychoactive alkaloid, enhances cognitive performance through adenosine A1 and A2A receptor antagonism and is being investigated for neuroprotection in Parkinson's disease^[57].

Emerging psychopharmacological research has renewed interest in psychedelic indole alkaloids including psilocybin and N, N-dimethyltryptamine (DMT) as rapid-acting antidepressants^[58]. These serotonin 5-HT_{2A} receptor agonists produce sustained mood improvements in treatment-resistant depression, likely through promotion of neuroplasticity and network-level changes in brain connectivity^[59].

5. Drug Development and Translational Considerations

5.1. Lead Identification and Optimization

Contemporary alkaloid-based CNS drug discovery employs target-based screening, phenotypic assays, and reverse pharmacology approaches^[60]. High-throughput screening of alkaloid libraries against specific molecular targets enables identification of lead compounds with desired neuropharmacological activities^[61]. Phenotypic screening in neuronal cell cultures and disease-relevant animal models identifies alkaloids with functional activity regardless of mechanism, facilitating discovery of compounds with novel or multi-target mechanisms^[61].

Structure-activity relationship (SAR) studies guide medicinal chemistry optimization of alkaloid scaffolds^[61]. Modifications to improve CNS drug-likeness include

adjusting lipophilicity and polar surface area for optimal BBB permeability, introducing metabolic blocking groups to enhance stability, and modifying substituents to improve target selectivity^[64]. Semi-synthetic approaches leverage the complex core structures of natural alkaloids while enabling systematic modification of peripheral functional groups^[65].

5.2. Blood-Brain Barrier Permeability and CNS Exposure

Achieving adequate CNS penetration while minimizing peripheral exposure represents a critical challenge in alkaloid-based neurotherapeutic development^[66]. Most neuroactive alkaloids possess physicochemical properties conducive to passive BBB permeability, including molecular weights below 500 Da and appropriate hydrogen bonding capacity^[67]. However, many alkaloids are substrates for efflux transporters including P-glycoprotein (P-gp) and breast cancer resistance protein (BCRP), which actively extrude compounds from the CNS^[68].

Strategies to overcome efflux limitations include structural modification to reduce transporter recognition, co-administration with transporter inhibitors, and development of prodrugs that undergo BBB-permeable transport followed by CNS bioactivation^[69]. Advanced formulation approaches including nanoparticle delivery systems and receptor-mediated transcytosis are being explored to enhance CNS exposure of alkaloid therapeutics^[70].

5.3. Safety, Tolerability, and Addiction Liability

Many naturally occurring alkaloids exhibit narrow therapeutic indices due to off-target effects, cardiovascular toxicity, or CNS adverse events^[71]. Systematic toxicological profiling including *in vitro* safety pharmacology panels (hERG channel, cytochrome P450 inhibition, receptor selectivity) and *in vivo* toxicity studies guide identification of liabilities requiring structural optimization^[71].

Abuse and addiction potential represents a critical concern for alkaloids acting on reward-related neurotransmitter systems, particularly opioids and psychostimulants^[71]. Preclinical assessment using self-administration paradigms, conditioned place preference, and intracranial self-stimulation models predicts abuse liability and informs risk management strategies^[74]. Development of alkaloid derivatives with reduced reinforcing properties while retaining therapeutic efficacy remains an active area of translational research^[75].

5.4. Clinical Translation and Regulatory Pathways

Successful translation of alkaloid-based neurotherapeutics requires comprehensive preclinical efficacy and safety data, appropriate clinical trial design, and navigation of complex regulatory requirements^[76]. Botanical drug products containing defined alkaloid constituents face additional challenges related to standardization, quality control, and demonstration of batch-to-batch consistency^[77].

Regulatory frameworks vary internationally, with agencies including the U.S. Food and Drug Administration, European Medicines Agency, and others providing guidance specific to botanical and alkaloid-derived drugs^[78]. Companion diagnostic development, biomarker validation, and patient stratification strategies may facilitate precision medicine approaches for alkaloid therapeutics in genetically or phenotypically defined patient populations^[79].

6. Challenges and Future Perspectives

6.1. Sustainable Sourcing and Biosynthetic Engineering

Many medicinally important alkaloids occur in low concentrations in source plants, and some species face conservation concerns due to overharvesting^[80]. Sustainable production strategies include cultivation optimization, cell and tissue culture systems, and heterologous biosynthetic engineering in microbial hosts^[81]. Recent advances in metabolic engineering have enabled production of complex alkaloids including opioids and vinca alkaloids in engineered yeast strains, potentially providing scalable and sustainable sources^[81].

6.2. Polypharmacology and Multi-Target Drug Design

The inherent multi-target activity of many alkaloids presents both challenges and opportunities^[81]. While off-target interactions can produce adverse effects, rationally designed multi-target alkaloid derivatives may provide superior efficacy for complex neurological disorders involving dysregulation of multiple neurotransmitter systems and pathways^[84]. Network pharmacology approaches and computational modeling facilitate prediction and optimization of beneficial polypharmacology while minimizing detrimental promiscuity^[85].

6.3. Emerging Technologies and Precision Medicine

Integration of advanced technologies is accelerating alkaloid-based CNS drug discovery^[86]. Artificial intelligence and machine learning enable prediction of alkaloid-target interactions, optimization of pharmacokinetic properties, and identification of patient populations most likely to benefit from specific alkaloid therapeutics^[87]. Structural biology techniques including cryo-electron microscopy provide high-resolution insights into alkaloid-receptor complexes, facilitating structure-based drug design^[88].

Pharmacogenomic profiling may identify genetic variants influencing alkaloid metabolism, target expression, or treatment response, enabling precision medicine approaches^[89]. Integration of patient-derived induced pluripotent stem cell models and brain organoid systems provides human-relevant platforms for alkaloid screening and mechanistic investigation^[90].

7. Conclusion

Plant-derived alkaloids represent a pharmacologically rich and structurally diverse resource for neuropharmacology and CNS drug discovery. Through precise molecular interactions with neurotransmitter receptors, ion channels, transporters, and intracellular signaling pathways, alkaloids modulate neuronal function and provide therapeutic benefit across a spectrum of neurological and neuropsychiatric disorders. Clinically validated alkaloid-based neurotherapeutics including morphine, galantamine, and caffeine demonstrate the translational potential of this natural product class, while numerous alkaloids in preclinical and clinical development promise to expand the therapeutic armamentarium for unmet neurological needs.

Successful development of alkaloid-based neurotherapeutics requires systematic optimization of CNS drug-likeness properties, including blood-brain barrier permeability, target selectivity, metabolic stability, and safety profiles. Semi-synthetic derivatization and analog-based drug design

leverage the privileged structures of natural alkaloids while enabling rational modification for improved pharmacological properties. Emerging technologies including biosynthetic engineering, computational drug design, and precision medicine approaches are accelerating the identification and optimization of alkaloid leads. Despite significant progress, challenges remain in sustainable alkaloid sourcing, management of complex polypharmacology, and navigation of regulatory pathways for botanical-derived drugs.

Continued integration of advanced neuroscience, medicinal chemistry, and translational research methodologies will be essential to fully realize the potential of plant-derived alkaloids as next-generation neurotherapeutics. As our understanding of CNS molecular targets and disease mechanisms deepens, alkaloids will undoubtedly continue to serve as invaluable sources of neuropharmacological innovation and therapeutic discovery.

Table 1: Major Plant-Derived Alkaloids, Botanical Sources, and Neuropharmacological Activities

Alkaloid Class	Representative Compound	Botanical Source	Primary Molecular Target(s)	Neuropharmacological Activity	Clinical Status
Isoquinoline	Morphine	Papaver somniferum	μ -Opioid receptor	Analgesia, sedation	Approved
Isoquinoline	Galantamine	Galanthus spp.	AChE, nAChR (allosteric)	Cholinergic enhancement	Approved (AD)
Isoquinoline	Berberine	Berberis spp.	AMPK, multiple targets	Neuroprotection, cognition	Investigational
Indole	Reserpine	Rauwolfia serpentina	VMAT2	Monoamine depletion	Approved (limited use)
Indole	Ibogaine	Tabernanthe iboga	NMDA receptor, σ 2 receptor	Anti-addiction	Investigational
Indole	Psilocybin	Psilocybe spp.	5-HT2A receptor	Antidepressant, neuroplasticity	Clinical trials (Phase II/III)
Tropane	Atropine	Atropa belladonna	Muscarinic receptor (antagonist)	Anticholinergic	Approved
Tropane	Scopolamine	Hyoscyamus niger	M1 muscarinic receptor	Amnesia, antiemetic	Approved
Tropane	Cocaine	Erythroxylum coca	DAT, NAT, SERT, Na ⁺ channels	Psychostimulant, local anesthetic	Approved (topical only)
Pyrrolidine	Nicotine	Nicotiana tabacum	nAChR (α 4 β 2, α 7)	Cognitive enhancement, addiction	Approved (cessation therapy)
Purine	Caffeine	Coffea arabica	Adenosine A1/A2A receptors	Psychostimulant, neuroprotection	Approved (OTC)
Quinoline	Quinine	Cinchona spp.	K ⁺ channels, multiple targets	Antimalarial, muscle relaxant	Approved
Vinca	Vincristine	Catharanthus roseus	Tubulin	Antineoplastic (neurotoxicity)	Approved (oncology)

Abbreviations: AChE, acetylcholinesterase; nAChR, nicotinic acetylcholine receptor; AMPK, AMP-activated protein kinase; VMAT2, vesicular monoamine transporter 2; NMDA, N-methyl-D-aspartate; 5-HT2A, serotonin receptor 2A; DAT, dopamine transporter; NAT, norepinephrine transporter; SERT, serotonin transporter; AD, Alzheimer's disease; OTC, over-the-counter.

9. Figures

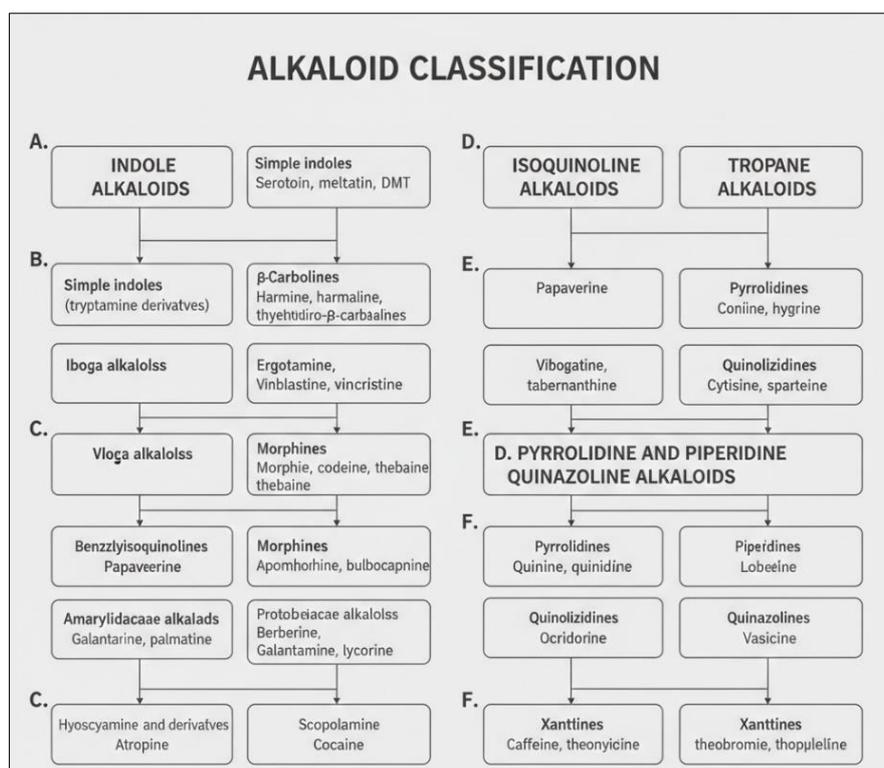


Fig 1: Classification of Neuroactive Plant-Derived Alkaloids

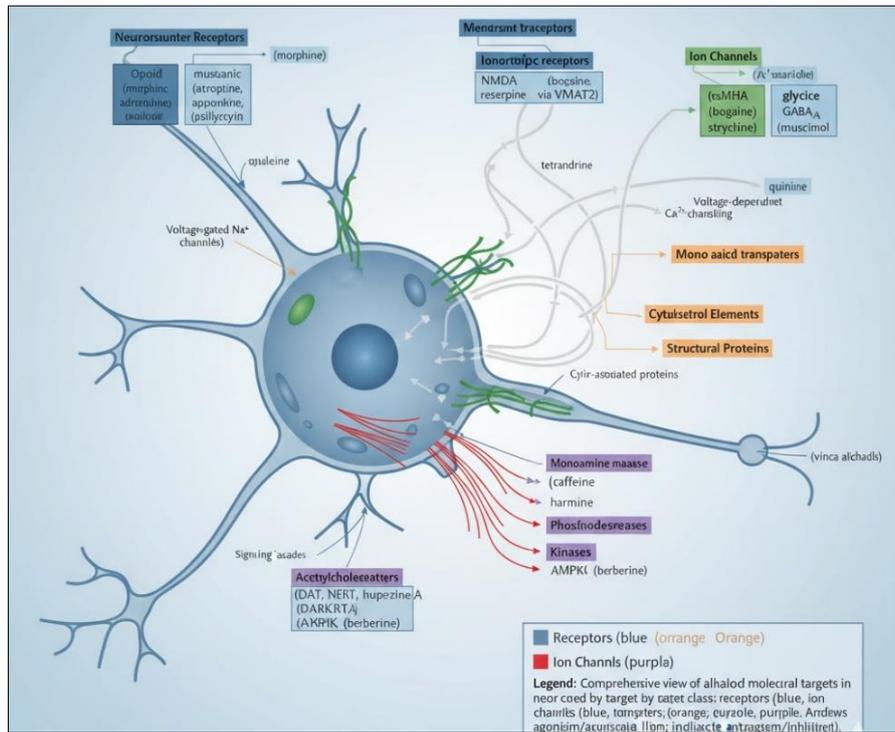


Fig 2: CNS Molecular and Cellular Targets of Alkaloids

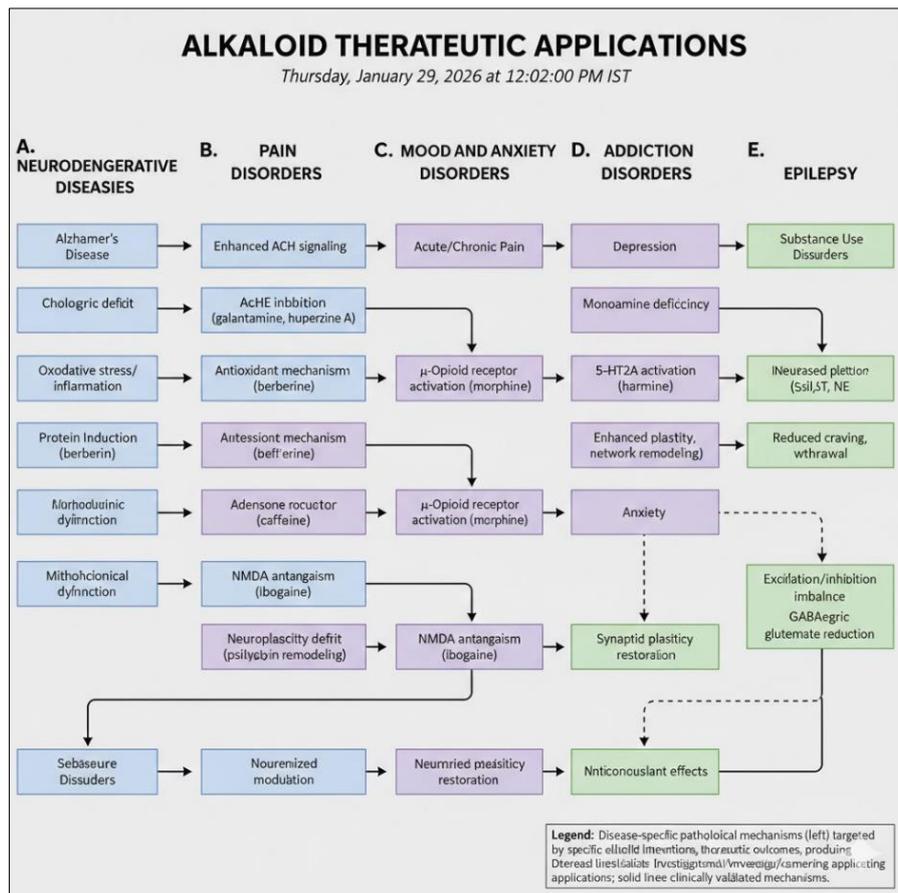


Fig 3: Mechanistic Pathways Modulated by Alkaloids in Neurological and Neuropsychiatric Disorders

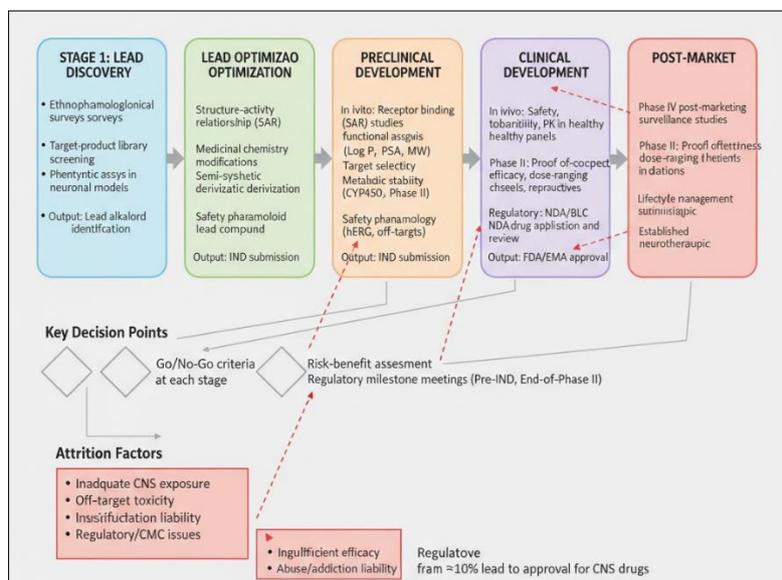


Fig 4: Translational Pipeline of Alkaloid-Based Neurotherapeutics from Discovery to Clinic

10. References

- Feigin VL, Vos T, Nichols E, *et al.* The global burden of neurological disorders: translating evidence into policy. *Lancet Neurol.* 2020;19(3):255–65.
- Cummings JL, Morstorf T, Zhong K. Alzheimer's disease drug-development pipeline: few candidates, frequent failures. *Alzheimers Res Ther.* 2014;6(4):37.
- Newman DJ, Cragg GM. Natural products as sources of new drugs over the nearly four decades from 01/1981 to 09/2019. *J Nat Prod.* 2020;83(3):770–803.
- Aniszewski T. *Alkaloids: Chemistry, Biology, Ecology, and Applications.* 2nd ed. Amsterdam: Elsevier; 2015.
- Schmitz R. Friedrich Wilhelm Sertürner and the discovery of morphine. *Pharm Hist.* 1985;27(2):61–74.
- Wink M. Modes of action of herbal medicines and plant secondary metabolites. *Medicines (Basel).* 2015;2(3):251–86.
- Heinrich M, Mah J, Amirkia V. Alkaloids used as medicines: structural phytochemistry meets biodiversity. *Molecules.* 2021;26(7):1836.
- Rankovic Z. CNS drug design: balancing physicochemical properties for optimal brain exposure. *J Med Chem.* 2015;58(6):2584–608.
- Atanasov AG, Zotchev SB, Dirsch VM, Supuran CT. Natural products in drug discovery: advances and opportunities. *Nat Rev Drug Discov.* 2021;20(3):200–16.
- Carlier PR, Du DM, Han Y, *et al.* Huperzine A and its analogs as neuronal nicotinic receptor probes. *Bioorg Med Chem.* 1999;7(2):351–7.
- Facchini PJ. Alkaloid biosynthesis in plants: biochemistry, cell biology, molecular regulation, and metabolic engineering applications. *Annu Rev Plant Physiol Plant Mol Biol.* 2001;52:29–66.
- O'Connor SE, Maresh JJ. Chemistry and biology of monoterpene indole alkaloid biosynthesis. *Nat Prod Rep.* 2006;23(4):532–47.
- Hagel JM, Facchini PJ. Benzyloisoquinoline alkaloid metabolism: a century of discovery and a brave new world. *Plant Cell Physiol.* 2013;54(5):647–72.
- De Luca V, Salim V, Atsumi SM, Yu F. Mining the biodiversity of plants: a revolution in the making. *Science.* 2012;336(6089):1658–61.
- Wink M. Evolution of secondary metabolites from an ecological and molecular phylogenetic perspective. *Phytochemistry.* 2003;64(1):3–19.
- Ritchie TJ, Macdonald SJ. The impact of aromatic ring count on compound developability. *Drug Discov Today.* 2009;14(21–22):1011–20.
- Pajouhesh H, Lenz GR. Medicinal chemical properties of successful central nervous system drugs. *NeuroRx.* 2005;2(4):541–53.
- Lachance H, Wetzal S, Kumar K, Waldmann H. Charting, navigating, and populating natural product chemical space for drug discovery. *J Med Chem.* 2012;55(13):5989–601.
- Hopkins AL, Mason JS, Overington JP. Can we rationally design promiscuous drugs? *Curr Opin Struct Biol.* 2006;16(1):127–36.
- Wess J, Eglen RM, Gautam D. Muscarinic acetylcholine receptors: mutant mice provide new insights for drug development. *Nat Rev Drug Discov.* 2007;6(9):721–33.
- Pasternak GW, Pan YX. Mu opioids and their receptors: evolution of a concept. *Pharmacol Rev.* 2013;65(4):1257–317.
- Maelicke A, Samochocki M, Jostock R, *et al.* Allosteric sensitization of nicotinic receptors by galantamine, a new treatment strategy for Alzheimer's disease. *Biol Psychiatry.* 2001;49(3):279–87.
- Caulfield MP, Birdsall NJ. International Union of Pharmacology. XVII. Classification of muscarinic acetylcholine receptors. *Pharmacol Rev.* 1998;50(2):279–90.
- Renner UD, Oertel R, Kirch W. Pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics in clinical use of scopolamine. *Ther Drug Monit.* 2005;27(5):655–65.
- Mash DC, Kovera CA, Pablo J, *et al.* Ibogaine: complex pharmacokinetics, concerns for safety, and preliminary efficacy measures. *Ann N Y Acad Sci.* 2000;914:394–401.

26. Bagal SK, Brown AD, Cox PJ, *et al.* Ion channels as therapeutic targets: a drug discovery perspective. *J Med Chem.* 2013;56(3):593–624.
27. Gotti C, Clementi F, Fornari A, *et al.* Structural and functional diversity of native brain neuronal nicotinic receptors. *Biochem Pharmacol.* 2009;78(7):703–11.
28. O'Leary ME, Chahine M. Cocaine binds to a common site on open and inactivated human heart (Na(v)1.5) sodium channels. *J Physiol.* 2002;541(Pt 3):701–16.
29. Katzung BG. *Basic and Clinical Pharmacology.* 14th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill Education; 2018.
30. Lynch JW. Molecular structure and function of the glycine receptor chloride channel. *Physiol Rev.* 2004;84(4):1051–95.
31. Torres GE, Gainetdinov RR, Caron MG. Plasma membrane monoamine transporters: structure, regulation and function. *Nat Rev Neurosci.* 2003;4(1):13–25.
32. Howell LL, Kimmel HL. Monoamine transporters and psychostimulant addiction. *Biochem Pharmacol.* 2008;75(1):196–217.
33. Newman AH, Ku T, Jordan CJ, *et al.* New drugs, old targets: tweaking the dopamine system to treat psychostimulant use disorders. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol.* 2021;61:609–28.
34. Scherman D, Jaudon P, Henry JP. Characterization of the monoamine carrier of chromaffin granule membrane by binding of [²-³H]dihydrotrabenazine. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.* 1983;80(2):584–8.
35. Jankovic J, Clarence-Smith K. Trabenazine for the treatment of chorea and other hyperkinetic movement disorders. *Expert Rev Neurother.* 2011;11(11):1509–23.
36. Zhang HY, Tang XC. Neuroprotective effects of huperzine A: new therapeutic targets for neurodegenerative disease. *Trends Pharmacol Sci.* 2006;27(12):619–25.
37. Marco-Contelles J, León R, de Los Ríos C, *et al.* Recent advances in the development of dual AChE/BuChE inhibitors. *Curr Top Med Chem.* 2013;13(14):1635–60.
38. Ye M, Fu S, Pi R, He F. Neuropharmacological and pharmacokinetic properties of berberine: a review of recent research. *J Pharm Pharmacol.* 2009;61(7):831–7.
39. Jordan MA, Wilson L. Microtubules as a target for anticancer drugs. *Nat Rev Cancer.* 2004;4(4):253–65.
40. Bain J, Plater L, Elliott M, *et al.* The selectivity of protein kinase inhibitors: a further update. *Biochem J.* 2007;408(3):297–315.