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Discovery of LOU064 (Remibrutinib), a Potent and Highly Selective Covalent Inhibitor of Bruton's Tyrosine Kinase

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Abstract. Bruton's tyrosine kinase (BTK), a cytoplasmic tyrosine kinase, plays a central role in immunity and is considered an attractive target for treating autoimmune diseases. The use of currently marketed covalent BTK inhibitors is limited to oncology indications based on their suboptimal kinase selectivity. We describe the discovery and preclinical profile of LOU064 (remibrutinib, 25), a potent, highly selective covalent BTK inhibitor. LOU064 exhibits an exquisite kinase selectivity due to binding to an inactive conformation of BTK and has the potential for a best-in-class covalent BTK inhibitor for the treatment of autoimmune diseases. It

demonstrates potent *in vivo* target occupancy with an EC_{90} of 1.6 mg/kg and dose-dependent efficacy in rat collagen-induced arthritis. LOU064 is currently being tested in Phase 2 clinical studies for chronic spontaneous urticaria and Sjoegren's Syndrome.

INTRODUCTION

Bruton's tyrosine kinase (BTK) is a cytoplasmic tyrosine kinase selectively expressed in a subset of immune cells, including macrophages, mast cells, basophils, platelets and B cells, but not in mature plasma cells and T cells.^{1,2} BTK is activated by membrane recruitment via its pleckstrin homology domain and phosphorylation of the activation loop Tyr551 by SYK and SRC family kinases, resulting in autophosphorylation of Tyr223 in the SH3 domain.^{1,2} BTK is an essential node and rheostat for the signaling of the antigen receptor in B cells (BCR) and of activating Fc receptors for IgG and IgE (FcyR, FccR) in macrophages and mast cells.^{3–5} While inborn BTK deficiency does not affect the development of many immune cells, it results in severely impaired B cell development and antibody production.^{6–8} In humans BTK deficiency is the most frequent cause of the primary immunodeficiency X-linked agammaglobulinemia (XLA), a condition that if untreated is associated with an increased bacterial infection risk.⁹ Today XLA is treated by immunoglobulin replacement therapy suggesting that the main risk factor for infections is the absence of protective immunoglobulins rather than the deficiency in cellular BTK function.¹⁰ The role of BTK appears not to be critical for B cell survival once the B cells have developed, suggesting that BTK inhibition after infancy may not lead to acute B cell and antibody depletion.6

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The potential role of BTK in autoimmunity, allergy and chronic inflammatory conditions is supported by genetic validation in many rodent models for arthritis, systemic lupus erythematosus and anaphylaxis.^{3,11–13} More recently, the functional relevance of BTK has also been validated by pharmacological inhibition in various clinical trials and is testament for the activities across many pharmaceutical companies to identify and develop BTK inhibitors, both covalent and reversible.^{14–22}

The kinase domain of BTK contains Cys481 in a position conserved in a group of eleven kinases including the closely related TEC family kinases BMX, TEC, ITK and TXK, as well as in EGFR, ERBB2, ERBB4, JAK3, BLK and MKK7.^{23,24} These conserved cysteines have been targeted in the development of covalent inhibitors of BTK, EGFR, JAK3 and MKK7. The concept of selective targeted covalent kinase inhibitors has received more attention due its potential for sustained target inhibition, uncoupled from sustained and high systemic drug exposure. This special pharmacologic feature of covalent inhibitors may lead to high efficacy and an improved safety profile.^{25,26}

The covalent BTK inhibitors ibrutinib (1) and acalabrutinib (2) (Figure 1, a)) have shown efficacy and an attractive risk-benefit profile leading to their approval in several B cell malignancies including chronic lymphocytic leukemia and mantle cell lymphoma.²⁷ Due to its binding to BTK in its active conformation, ibrutinib (1) not only potently inhibits BTK, but irreversibly inhibits all kinases which carry a Cys at the same position as BTK, and in addition inhibits reversibly several other kinases.^{14,28,29} While the clinical efficacy of **1** is of significant benefit in difficult to treat oncologic indications, its side effect profile precludes its use in rheumatologic indications.^{30–34} It is likely that its off-target activity is associated with the clinical risk for skin rash and diarrhea (well established for EGFR inhibitors³⁵), or platelet disfunction

(shown for TEC and SRC kinases^{36,37}). Second generation clinical-stage covalent inhibitors such as acalabrutinib (**2**), tirabrutinib (**3**), evobrutinib (**4**) and branebrutinib (**5**) (Figure 1, a)) retain a similar binding mode to BTK as **1** and therefore, despite offering an overall improved kinase selectivity profile, still inhibit several Cys-containing kinases.^{18,22,38–40}



Figure 1. a) Selected examples of covalent BTK inhibitors (1-5); b) Structure of CGI-1746 (6), the first reported compound binding to an inactive BTK conformation.

Reversible BTK inhibitors with high kinase selectivity have been described^{15,16,21,41} and CGI-1746 (6) (Figure 1, b)) was the first compound reported to bind to an inactive conformation

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of BTK resulting in an excellent kinase selectivity. This binding mode prevents the phosphorylation of Tyr551in the activation loop of BTK by upstream kinases and possibly contributes to higher cellular potency.⁴² In contrast to covalent inhibitors, reversible inhibitors require continuous systemic drug exposure over the entire dosing interval in order to maintain a high degree of target inhibition. In order to achieve this, intensive efforts were necessary to optimize the profile of **6**, including ADME properties, potency, and safety, while maintaining the specific binding mode, finally leading to GDC-0853 (fenebrutinib), a selective reversible BTK inhibitor currently in Phase 2 clinical trials.²¹

We were attracted by the concept of covalent BTK inhibition as it allows the optimization of compounds for a potent and sustained pharmacodynamic effect without the need for extended and high systemic compound exposure.²⁵ At the same time, we wanted to differentiate from competitor molecules by aiming for a very high selectivity to minimize kinase off-target reversible and covalent binding. Therefore we selected the strategy of combining the advantages of the covalent MoA with targeting the inactive conformation of BTK.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The concept of combining a reversible BTK inhibitor binding to an inactive conformation of BTK with a warhead leading to highly selective, covalent BTK inhibitors has been recently published by us and others. ^{43,44} We disclosed the discovery of a series of pyrrolopyrimidines. Using compound **7** (BTK enzyme IC₅₀ of $0.013 \pm 0.0078 \mu$ M, Figure 2) as starting point, a reversible BTK inhibitor binding to the same inactive BTK conformation as **6**, we designed inhibitors forming a covalent bond with Cys481. The compounds of this series, represented by **8**

(BTK enzyme IC_{50} of 0.0009 ± 0.0005 μ M, Figure 2), are potent inhibitors of BTK *in vitro* and we were able to demonstrate BTK occupancy after oral dosing in a PK/PD model. However, the pyrrolopyrimidine series suffered from very high *in vivo* clearance, making it challenging to achieve *in vivo* efficacy at low doses. Thorough investigation of the pyrrolopyrimidine SAR did not lead to a significantly improved PK profile. Therefore, we decided to explore alternative hinge binders with the aim of improving the ADME properties, while keeping the key interactions with BTK, as displayed in the X-ray cocrystal structure of **7** (Figure 3). Replacing the pyrrolopyrimidine moiety by 6-aminopyrimidine as hinge binder motif provided **9** (Figure 2) as a reversible prototype. Figure 3 shows the model of the aminopyrimidine **9** bound to the inactive conformation of BTK based on the solved crystal structure with **7**. In the model, the aminopyrimidine scaffold forms the same key interactions with BTK as the pyrrolopyrimidine **7** with the exception of the contacts at the entrance of the ATP binding pocket. The removed phenyl at position **6** of compound **7** is nicely sandwiched between the side chains of Leu408 and Gly480. For that reason, some loss of affinity was expected.



Figure 2. Morphing of the pyrrolopyrimidine scaffold to an aminopyrimidine scaffold. BTK enzyme inhibition in Caliper assay, IC_{50} shown.



Figure 3. Crystal structure of **7** (PDB 6S90; in cyan) in complex with human BTK overlaid with the binding model of compound **9**. H-bonds of the pyrrolopyrimidine and 6-aminopyrimidine scaffold (in purple) to Met477 and a water molecule (red sphere) are highlighted (black dashed lines), as well as the hydrogen bond between the carbonyl of the amide of the ligand and Lys430 side chain.

Indeed, compound **9** inhibited BTK in an enzymatic assay with an IC_{50} of $7.3 \pm 0.35 \mu M$, confirming our morphing idea. Similarly to what we described for the pyrrolopyrimidine scaffold,⁴³ we envisaged to generate potent and selective covalent inhibitors by introducing a linker with a warhead at position 5 of the pyrimidine moiety to reach Cys481. We started with acrylamide warheads, as they have been used successfully in covalent BTK inhibitors such as **1** and **4**.⁴⁵

SAR: Optimizing *in vivo* **BTK Occupancy.** We first investigated alkene based linkers between the pyrimidine core and the warhead providing a somewhat rigidified exit vector. Introducing a three carbon linker (10) and a four carbon linker (11) led to moderately potent

compounds in the BCR/CD69 assay in blood (Table 1). However, 10 and 11 suffered from very high clearance in rat liver microsomes (CL_{int} 924 and 815 µL/min/mg, respectively). Replacing the carbon linkers with 3-oxypyrrolidine (12) was not tolerated with respect to BTK inhibition, but the metabolic stability significantly increased (CL_{int} 135 µL/min/mg). Switching to a 3-oxyazetidine linker (13) led to an improvement of blood BCR/CD69 potency and good metabolic stability (CLint 25 µL/min/mg). Having successfully combined these two properties, we sought to assess the *in vivo* PD effect of **13** by measuring BTK occupancy in rat spleen after a single oral dose (Experimental Section). Administration of **13** (10 mg/kg po) provided 36 % BTK occupancy and blood levels of 13 nM 5 h post dose. A rat PK of 13 revealed a bioavailability of only 5 %, likely limited by the low permeability. Therefore we set out to optimize the permeability, since improved oral absorption should subsequently increase target occupancy. We envisioned that introducing a fluoro substituent ortho to the amide on the phenyl ring occupying the H3 pocket could form an internal hydrogen bond in solution, masking the amide NH and leading to improved permeability.⁴⁶ The fluoro substituent was tolerated with respect to potency and 14 indeed displayed improved permeability by more than one log unit compared to 13. This led to a higher bioavailability of 51 % in a rat PK study and resulted in 96 % target occupancy after a 10 mg/kg po dose. Lowering the dose of 14 to 3 mg/kg po and 1 mg/kg po still provided BTK occupancy of 79 % and 44 %, respectively. In an effort to further improve the potency we investigated two alternative moieties in the H3 pocket, which in previous studies on a related reversible series (not shown) had provided a positive effect on the potency. Surprisingly, replacing the cyclopropyl substituent in 14 with 2-hydroxypropanyl (15) led to a decreased potency in the blood BCR/CD69 assay. Introducing a second fluoro substituent (16) recovered the blood potency, however the permeability of 16 was poor,

translating into a modest target occupancy of only 32 % after a dose of 3 mg/kg po. Based on the promising results of 14 in the BTK occupancy assay, we profiled the compound more broadly. However, the stability of 14 in human plasma turned out to be low ($t_{1/2}$ 35 min). Plasma instability could be an indication of an undesired covalent binding to plasma proteins or enzymatic cleavage, therefore we used this assay to optimize our scaffold.







	R ₁	R ₂	BTK IC ₅₀ [nM] ^a	FcγR/IL8 IC ₅₀ [nM] ^b	BCR/CD69 IC ₅₀ [nM] ^c	Permeability logPe pH 6.8 ^d	BTK occupancy [%] (Dose [mg/kg]) ^e
10	N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N		3.8 ± 0.32	11 ± 6	106 ± 51	-5.0	n.t.
11			1.8 ^e	15 ± 4	223 ± 18	-4.6	n.t.
12	×° √N √°		3651 ± 3619	1437 ± 309	n.t.	-6.2	n.t.
13	V, O L N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N		3.6±0.66	17 ± 3	95 ± 4	<-6.7	36 (10)
14	V CN	F	4.5 ± 1.6	20 ± 13	86 ± 30	-5.2	96 (10) 79 (3) 44 (1)
15	V CN	HO	23 ± 10	108 ± 78	250 ± 0	-6.6	n.t.
16	V, O LN O	HO F F	2.3 ± 1.1	24 ± 7	55 ± 29	<-6.6	32 (3)

a) BTK enzyme inhibition in Caliper assay IC_{50} shown as means \pm SD ($n \ge 2$); b) Fc γ R induced IL8 IC₅₀ shown as means \pm SD ($n \ge 2$); c) anti-IgM/IL-4 induced CD69 expression on human blood B cells IC₅₀ shown as means \pm SD ($n \ge 2$); d) PAMPA permeability, logPe at pH 6.8; e) BTK occupancy in rat spleen homogenate 5 h after po dose of compounds compared to vehicle control, determined as mean (n = 3); e) n = 1; f) n.t.: not tested.

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We sought to investigate the linker to the warhead more broadly with the goal to increase the plasma stability and in addition to further improve blood potency and *in vivo* PD. We combined various linkers with the most attractive H3 pocket moiety, the fluorinated cyclopropylphenyl tail. The propenyl linker (17) led to a two fold increase in potency in the blood BCR/CD69 assay compared to 14 and good plasma stability (Table 2). However, the increased blood potency did not translate into an improved PD effect, 17 performed similarly to 14 in vivo, providing 77 % BTK occupancy, probably due to the high *in vivo* clearance (307 ml/min/kg). The oxygen linked open-chain analogue 18 was in the same potency range as 14, and gave high target occupancy of 84 % despite its only moderate permeability. Replacing the linker oxygen by a nitrogen (19) was not tolerated leading to a roughly 10-fold loss of potency in the human blood assay. Despite a more than two-fold reduced blood potency compared to 14, introduction of a piperidine linker gave similar target occupancy, due to high exposure (207 nM 5 h post dose). Whereas the (R)pyrrolidine linker (21) was not tolerated with respect to BTK inhibition, the (S)-derivative 22 potently inhibited the blood BCR/CD69 assay and BTK occupancy of 90 % was achieved. However, 22 suffered from a strong hERG flag (hERG dofetilide binding IC_{50} 49 ± 12 nM (n = 2)). Replacing the pyrrolidine moiety by an azetidine provided 23, which achieved 80 % BTK occupancy. However, as in the case of azetidine 14, plasma stability of 23 was low. An enhanced reactivity of N-acryloyl azetidines towards cysteines has been reported and might explain the low plasma stability of compounds 14 and 23.47 The corresponding (R)-azetidine 24 was less potent than 23 in the blood assay. The N-methylated analogue of 18 (25) was nearly 5-fold more potent than 14 in the blood BCR/CD69 assay and displayed 94 % BTK occupancy. Increasing the length of the open chain linker to three carbons led to 26 which was significantly less potent than 25 in the blood assay. Modifying the N-methyl substituent on the acrylamide to an ethyl

group provided 27, which was comparable to 25 with respect to blood potency and target occupancy. However, 27 had a higher logP compared to 25 (3.6 vs 2.9) and interestingly inhibited CYP2D6 with an IC₅₀ of 1.26 μ M. Overall, 27 did not seem to offer any advantage over 25. With the exception of azetidine acrylamide 23 all compounds from Table 2 tested for stability in human plasma showed plasma half-lives of >120 min.



 Table 2.
 Linker modifications.



	R_1	BTK IC ₅₀ (nM) ^a	$\frac{Fc\gamma R/IL8}{IC_{50} (nM)^{b}}$	BCR/CD69 IC ₅₀ (nM) ^c	Permeability logPe pH 6.8 ^d	Stability in human plasma, t _{1/2} [min]	BTK occupancy [%] after a 3 mg/kg dose ^e
17	N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N	1.9 ± 1.2	11 ± 3	44 ± 4	-4.5	>120	77
18	N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N	8.7 ± 4.6	18 ± 13	105 ± 13	-5.4	>120	84
19	N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N	51 ± 38	671 ± 690	1245 ± 350	-5.8	n.t.	n.t.
20	V N N	3.7 ± 4.5	12 ± 2	201 ± 63	-4.5	>120	77
21		1290 ± 916	1869 ± 87	n.t.	-3.9	n.t.	n.t.
22		1.4 ± 0.4	9 ^f	57 ± 8	-4.1	>120	90
23		3.1 ± 0.5	5 ^f	50 ± 3	-3.9	42	80
24		7.5 ± 6.3	60 ± 14	354 ± 59	-4.1	n.t.	n.t.

25	N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N	1.3 ± 0.9	2.5 ± 0.7	18 ± 5	-4.3	>120	94
26	v, ° v v v v v v v v v v v v v v v v v v	3.6 ± 1.3	17 ± 6.5	91 ± 9	-4.0	n.t.	n.t.
27		0.9 ± 0.2	5 ^f	28 ± 4	-4.2	>120	93

a) BTK enzyme IC₅₀ shown as means \pm SD (n \geq 2); b) Fc γ R induced IL8 IC₅₀ shown as means \pm SD (n \geq 2); c) anti-IgM/IL-4 induced CD69 expression on human blood B cells IC₅₀ shown as means \pm SD (n \geq 2); d) PAMPA permeability, logPe at pH 6.8; e) BTK occupancy in rat spleen homogenate 5 h after po dose of compounds compared to vehicle control, determined as mean (n = 3); f) n = 1; g) n.t.: not tested.

Having identified the highly potent acrylamide **25**, we wanted to assess if an alternative warhead could provide an overall advantage. Generally, a highly reactive moiety could lead to increased binding to off-targets, whereas too low intrinsic reactivity could lower the reaction rate to the Cys of interest. To probe the intrinsic reactivity of different warheads we investigated the stability of the compounds towards an excess of glutathione (GSH) as a surrogate for Cyscontaining nucleophiles and proteins (Table 3). In the presence of GSH, **25** showed a slow decrease with 68.5 % remaining parent after 24 h. For the sterically hindered methyl substituted acrylamide **28**, a significantly decreased reactivity towards GSH was observed. However, **28** was also significantly less active in the blood BCR/CD69 assay. The 4-(dimethylamino)but-2-enamide **29** showed a slow decrease in the presence of GSH over 24 h, similar to **25**. However, the permeability of **29** was very low (log Pe pH 6.8 <-6.5) and together with the reduced blood BCR/CD69 potency compared to **25** we did not pursue this compound further. The propynamide **30** was highly unstable in the presence of GSH with complete disappearance of the parent within 24 h. In addition, only limited stability (t_{1/2} 96 min) in human plasma was observed. For the but-

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2-yneamide **31**, decrease of parent was slow, but due to the decreased blood BCR/CD69 assay potency this compound was also not considered further. In summary, compound **25** (LOU064, remibrutinib) exhibited the best overall profile and was selected for further characterization.







	R ₁	BTK IC ₅₀ (nM) ^a	$\frac{Fc\gamma R/IL8}{IC_{50} (nM)^{b}}$	BCR/CD69 IC ₅₀ (nM) ^c	Stability in presence of GSH at 24 h ^d
25	N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N	1.3 ± 0.9	2.5 ± 0.7	18 ± 5	68.5
28	N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N	104 ± 77	263 ± 119	983 ± 617	95.8
29		11 ± 5	76 ± 3	151 ± 69	60.8
30	N N N	1.8 ± 0.2	6.5 ± 2	49 ± 23	0.1
31	N N N	5.2 ± 2	32 ± 7	161 ± 44	79.6
32		1'300 ± 424	>10'000	>20'000	n.t.

a) BTK enzyme IC₅₀ shown as means \pm SD (n \geq 2); b) Fc γ R induced IL8 IC₅₀ shown as means \pm SD (n \geq 2); c) anti-IgM/IL-4 induced CD69 expression on human blood B cells IC₅₀ shown as means \pm SD (n \geq 2); d) The stability in the presence of GSH is given as ratio area (analyte/internal standard) in %; e) n.t.: not tested.

The melting point of crystalline LOU064 is 194 °C. It has a low thermodynamic solubility of <0.003 g/L at pH 6.8, but solubility increases to >1.5 g/L at pH 1. The permeability is high (PAMPA: log Pe pH 6.8 -4.3; Caco Papp(A-B) 15.9, Papp(B-A) 10.2) suggesting good absorption. The half-maximum inhibition of the CYP enzymes 3A4, 2C9 and 2D6 was \geq 5 μ M (see Supporting Information). LOU064 showed some activity in an *in vitro* PXR reporter gene assay (EC₅₀ >5.48 μ M and E_{max} 94.7 %) indicating a risk for CYP induction and drug-drug interactions.

LOU064 Binds Covalently to BTK. The covalent character of BTK inhibition by LOU064 was confirmed in a series of studies. First, the kinetics of BTK inhibition were assessed in an enzyme dilution experiment.⁴⁸ The biochemical BTK enzyme assay (Supporting Information) was modified to include a one hour preincubation of BTK protein at a concentration of 4.7 µM with a 10 % molar excess of compound. The compound/enzyme mixture was then diluted into kinase assay buffer containing ATP and peptide substrate to reach a final concentration of 1 nM BTK and 1.1 nM compound and enzyme activity was monitored by measuring substrate phosphorylation (Figure 4). The increase in phosphorylated substrate peptide over time indicated recovery of BTK kinase activity by the dilution step for the DMSO solvent control, the reversible BTK inhibitor staurosporine, as well as the inactive non-covalent ethylamide analog **32** (Table 3). In line with expectations for a covalent binder, LOU064 showed no recovery of BTK activity after the dilution step.



Figure 4. Rescue of BTK enzymatic activity by dilution. The increase of phosphorylated substrate peptide over time after the dilution step is indicated for the DMSO solvent control (black dash and triangles), for the reversible BTK inhibitor staurosporine (blue dash and triangles), for the non-covalent ethylamide analog **32** (red dash and empty circles) and for LOU064 (red line and filled circles).

Secondly, we assessed covalent binding of LOU064 to the BTK kinase domain by analysis with LC/MS (Experimental details see Supporting Information), which revealed the presence of a main peak with 32'222.3 Da mass, closely corresponding to the predicted BTK/LOU064 1:1 adduct (based on the masses of 507.5 and 31'714.5 Da, respectively for LOU064 and the kinase domain construct). This provided further evidence for a specific and single covalent modification of BTK by LOU064 (Figure 5).

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Figure 5. Deconvoluted mass spectrum of covalent BTK kinase domain (encompassing amino acids 386-659) adduct with LOU064. The peak with a corresponding mass of 32222.3 Da is indicative of the presence of one covalent adduct of LOU064 (507.5 Da) to the BTK kinase domain (31'714.5 Da).

Thirdly, solving the complex structure revealed the atomic details of LOU064 binding to BTK and confirmed the design hypothesis. As expected, the inhibitor is covalently attached to Cys481 (Figure 6), with the carbonyl of the acrylamide making a hydrogen bond with the NH of the backbone of Cys481. The amino-pyrimidine moiety forms a bidentate hydrogen bonding interaction with the backbone of Met477 of the kinase hinge region. The phenyl group of LOU064 at position 4 of the 6-aminopyrimidine scaffold makes hydrophobic contacts with the Val416 side chain while the fluorine makes a multipolar interaction with the carbonyl of Gly409 of the Glyrich loop (Figure S-1, Supporting Information).⁴⁹ The fluoro-phenyl-cyclopropyl-group occupies the H3 pocket and stabilizes it in an inactive state. The H3 pocket¹⁶ is formed by the side chains of Gln412, Phe413 (both Gly-rich loop), Asp521, Asn526 (both part of the catalytic loop), Asp539 (DFG), Leu542, Ser543, Val546, and Tyr551 (belonging to the activation loop) (Figure S-1). The

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fluorine in this pocket points towards the cavity, instead of towards the NH of the amide of the ligand, most likely to avoid the unfavorable vicinity to the carbonyl of Asn526 (Figure S-1).



Figure 6. X-ray complex structure of BTK kinase domain bound to LOU064 (PDB 6TFP, protein chain A with ligand chain L). The molecular surface of LOU064 is colored in orange and key residues lining up the binding site are shown as labelled stick model. The main polar interactions between protein and inhibitor are indicated with dotted green lines. For improved clarity water molecules are omitted.

Selectivity of LOU064. Our aim was to combine covalent BTK binding and the high selectivity associated with binding to the inactive BTK conformation. The selectivity of LOU064 was assessed not only in a selected panel of enzymatic kinase assays, but also in a competition binding

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assay⁵⁰ against 395 human non-mutant kinases and 61 atypical, mutant or pathogen kinases. In this screen (KINOMEscanTM, DiscoverX), LOU064 at a concentration of 1 μ M showed full inhibition of probe binding to BTK (0.25 % remaining probe binding) and partial inhibition of TEC (24 % remaining probe binding) and BMX (53 % remaining probe binding), indicating an excellent kinase selectivity profile (TREE*spot*TM Kinase Dendogram of LOU064 (Figure S-2) and KINOMEscan data in Supporting Information).

Based on this kinome-wide screen, the selectivity of LOU064 was further assessed and compared to clinical covalent BTK inhibitors. As the determination of IC₅₀ values in biochemical enzyme assays for covalent inhibitors suffers from time-dependent effects⁴⁸ we determined the binding constants (K_d) in a competition binding assay^{50,51} for a set of Cys-containing kinases (Table 4). LOU064 showed very potent affinity to BTK with a subnanomolar K_d of 0.63 nM and with a selectivity of 175 fold against TEC (K_d of 110 nM) and 857 fold against BMX (K_d of 540 nM). LOU064 did not show binding to ITK, EGFR, ERBB2, ERBB4 and JAK3 up to 10 µM. By contrast, ibrutinib (1) showed similar high affinity for BTK, but poor selectivity against BMX. TEC, EGFR, ERBB2 and ERBB4. Of note, acalabrutinib (2), tirabrutinib (3) and evobrutinib (4) are significantly less potent than LOU064 on BTK and less selective. Branebrutinib (5) displayed high affinity for BTK, comparable to LOU064 and ibrutinib, with an improved selectivity profile compared to ibrutinib, however inferior to LOU064, potently inhibiting BMX and TEC. These binding data are in line with recent publications in other assay systems³⁹ and our data in biochemical enzyme assays (not shown). Overall, in addition to being amongst the most potent inhibitors for BTK, LOU064 differentiates with its excellent, best-in-class kinase selectivity from other clinical-stage covalent inhibitors.

		BTK	BMX	TEC	ITK	EGFR	ERBB2	ERBB4	JAK3
25	K _d	0.63	540	110	>10000	>10000	>10000	>10000	>10000
(LOU064)	Fold	1	857	175	>15873	>15873	>15873	>15873	>15873
1	K _d	1.9	1.6	1.7	57	6.9	1.2	2.4	37
(ibrutinib)	Fold	1	0.6	0.9	30	3.6	0.6	1.3	19
2	K _d	21	610	14	>10000	5600	7.4	140	>10000
(acalabrutinib)	Fold	1	29	0.7	>476	267	0.4	6.7	>476
3	K _d	14	47	6.2	>10000	>10000	610	>10000	>10000
(tirabrutinib)	Fold	1	3.4	0.4	>714	>714	44	>714	>714
4	K _d	16	31	4.5	3700	7100	>10000	5600	>10000
(evobrutinib)	Fold	1	1.9	0.3	231	443	>625	350	>625
5	K _d	0.56	22	0.99	320	>10000	>10000	2500	1300
(branebrutinib)	Fold	1	39	1.8	571	>17857	>17853	4464	2321

Table 4. Binding constants (K_d in nM) of covalent BTK inhibitors for selected kinases containing a conserved cysteine and selectivity vs off-target kinases ($K_{d, off-target}/K_{d, BTK}$).

We evaluated the cellular selectivity of LOU064 in a panel of culture systems with primary human cells representative for several tissues, including fibroblasts, epithelial cells, keratinocytes and immune cells (BioMAP Diversity plus panel, DiscoverX).⁵² LOU064 was tested at concentrations of 270, 900, 3000 and 10000 nM, all concentrations well above its cellular BTK inhibition in cell culture conditions (Figure S-3, Supporting Information). The main activity

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detected was in the BT panel, and represents the intended inhibition of cellular BTK function in B cells stimulated via the B cell receptor and in the presence of T cell co-stimulatory pathways, resulting in the inhibition of several inflammatory readouts such as TNF- α , IL-17A, IL-6 and IL-2, as well as inhibition of B cell proliferation (indicated by the gray arrow in the BT panel). The response was not concentration dependent as all concentrations tested were well above maximal cellular BTK inhibition. Of note is the absence of a peak in the EGFR signal in the HDF3CGF panel, clearly indicating the lack of any activity of LOU064 in the dermal fibroblast system, an effect which has been shown for BTK inhibitors with off-target effects on EGFR, such as ibrutinib (Figure S-4, Supporting Information).²² Across all these cellular systems, LOU064 showed no cytotoxicity. In addition to the expected effects on B cell proliferation, LOU064 exerted effects on fibroblast proliferation at concentrations of 270 and 10000 nM (gray arrow in the HDF3CGF panel).

Furthermore, the high selectivity of LOU064 was confirmed by testing against a broad panel of *in vitro* assays (in binding or in functional mode) comprising 85 G-protein coupled receptors, transporters, nuclear receptors, enzymes and ion channels (Supporting Information). LOU064 did not show binding, inhibition, or activation in any of these assays at concentrations up to 10 μ M, with the exception of PIK4CB (IC₅₀ 3.1 μ M) and Bile Salt Export Pump (BSEP, IC₅₀ 6.6 μ M), thus establishing a more than 2000-fold selectivity for BTK over these off-targets. In the *in vitro* hERG patch clamp assay an IC₅₀ of 1.4 μ M was measured. In preclinical invasive and non-invasive dog telemetry studies after single and long-term dosing, no effect on any cardiovascular parameter was detected. As the non-covalent analog **32** showed very similar activity on BSEP (IC₅₀ 3.7 μ M) and hERG (IC₅₀ 2.9 μ M in Qpatch assay), it is likely that the interaction of LOU064 with these off-target proteins is non-covalent. No significant inhibition of other cardiac

ion channels (Nav1.5, Cav1.2, KCNQ1) was observed and LOU064 was found negative in genotoxicity and mutagenicity assays (*in vitro* Ames, *in vitro* and *in vivo* micronucleus tests). Similarly, LOU064 was negative in the 3T3 NRU phototoxicity assay.

Preclinical PK Profile of LOU064. The *in vitro* clearance of LOU064 in microsomes was moderate in rat, and high in mouse and dog (Table 5). The *in vivo* pharmacokinetic properties of LOU064 were assessed in rat, mouse and dog (Table 5). In rats, the compound displayed a moderate clearance, a low volume of distribution, a short half-life, and a moderate bioavailability. LOU064 was mainly cleared via oxidative metabolism and elimination of unchanged LOU064 was not a major pathway in rat. In mice, LOU064 displayed a similar PK profile as for rats with high CL, a low volume of distribution and a short half-life. In dogs, the clearance was high, in the range of the hepatic blood flow, the volume of distribution was low, the half-life was short and the bioavailability was low. Formulations were developed which enabled preclinical toxicology studies to be carried out (not shown).

	Rat	Mouse	Dog
<i>In vitro</i> CL int (µL/min/mg)	33	325	146
Hepatic extraction (%)	52	93	87
In vivo	Female Lewis	Female C57BL/6	Male Beagle
Dose	1 mg/kg iv	1 mg/kg iv	1 mg/kg iv

Table 5. *In vitro* and *in vivo* pharmacokinetic parameters of LOU064 in rat, mouse and dog

	3 mg/kg po	3 mg/kg po	3 mg/kg po	
CL (mL / min / kg)	44 ± 12	97 ± 11	29 ± 4	
V _{ss} (L / kg)	1.4 ± 0.3	1.0 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.1	
t _{1/2} (h)	0.5 ± 0.03	1.0 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.1	
C _{max} d.n. (nM)	148 ± 33	53 ± 14	19	
T _{max} (h)	0.3	0.3 ± 0.1	0.8	
F (%)	29 ± 3	16 ± 4	5	
AUC po d.n. (nM · h)	225 ± 27	54 ± 15	55	

In essence, the preclinical ADME properties of LOU064 are characterized by excellent permeability, high clearance and fast elimination.

In vitro **BTK Inhibition Kinetics.** To further characterize the mechanism of BTK inhibition by LOU064, we tested the kinetics of enzymatic inhibition. In biochemical assays of enzymatic activity with recombinant full-length human BTK, LOU064 showed very fast inhibition of BTK (Figure S-5, Supporting Information). LOU064 showed potent BTK inhibition starting from the earliest time-point and no indication of a time-dependent shift in IC₅₀ over the timeframe that allowed reliable detection of BTK activity or inhibition. The very fast binding kinetics of LOU064 to purified BTK prevented the determination of accurate and meaningful biochemical reaction parameters.

We therefore assessed the engagement of cellular BTK in a clinically relevant matrix - human blood. Blood from healthy volunteers was mixed with serial dilutions of LOU064, incubated at

room temperature to allow binding to cellular BTK and at given time points, aliquots of blood were sampled and analyzed for covalent binding of LOU064 to BTK with immunoassays for free BTK (i.e. not covalently occupied by compound) and total BTK protein (see Supporting Information). LOU064 showed very rapid covalent binding to cellular BTK in human blood at concentrations as low as 300 nM (Figure 7, left panel).



Figure 7. Time- and concentration-dependent *in vitro* engagement of cellular BTK by LOU064 and related inhibitors in human blood. Left panel shows data for LOU064 from two independent experiments with different blood donors (solid lines show non-linear one-phase association curve fits). Right panel shows the association kinetics for a concentration of 300 nM for each compound (solid lines show non-linear one-phase association curve fits). Individual data from two independent experiments with different blood donors.

We compared the binding characteristics of LOU064 to related covalent BTK inhibitors in the same type of assay at a concentration of 300 nM (Figure 7, right panel). In contrast to the rapid and complete BTK binding of LOU064, the other covalent BTK inhibitors, with exception of branebrutinib, showed slower binding kinetics. A comparison of the enzymatic and cellular

potency of LOU064 to these covalent BTK inhibitors across several assays confirmed the very high potency of LOU064 (Table 6). These data suggest that LOU064 has very fast reaction kinetics and rapidly reaches full BTK inhibition in relevant matrices such as human blood.

	BTK IC ₅₀ (nM) ^a	FcγR/IL8 IC ₅₀ (nM) ^b	BCR/CD69 IC ₅₀ (nM) ^c	FcεR/CD63 IC ₅₀ (nM) ^d
LOU064 (25)	1.3 ± 0.9	2.5 ± 0.7	18 ± 5	67 ± 54
Ibrutinib (1)	2.3 ± 2	16 ± 14	66 ± 57	230 ± 210
Acalabrutinib (2)	19 ± 22	24 ± 24	203 ± 77	747 ± 75
Tirabrutinib (3)	5.2 ± 5	26 ± 16	132 ± 46	363 ± 200
Evobrutinib (4)	62 ± 4	61 ± 37	320 ± 74	1182 ± 819
Branebrutinib (5)	0.1 ± 0.05^{18}	6.0 (n = 1)	18 ± 4	40 ± 10

Table 6. Comparative potency of LOU064 and covalent BTK inhibitors

a) BTK enzyme inhibition in Caliper assay IC₅₀ shown as means \pm SD (n \geq 2); b) Fc γ R induced IL8 IC₅₀ shown as means \pm SD (n \geq 2); c) anti-IgM/IL-4 induced CD69 expression on human blood B cells IC₅₀ shown as means \pm SD (n \geq 2); d) anti-IgE-induced degranulation and CD63 expression on human blood basophils.

In vivo **BTK Engagement.** For a covalent inhibitor of BTK, the PD effects are determined by the extent and duration of BTK target occupancy. The initial inactivation of BTK by LOU064 binding is primarily determined by the systemic exposure of the drug. Once the drug is eliminated from systemic circulation the duration of BTK inhibition becomes independent from drug exposure and is determined by the turnover of the inactive drug/protein complex by synthesis of new BTK protein.⁵³ For BTK, the turnover of inactivated protein by newly synthesized protein has been described in preclinical models and ranges from 20 - 40 % of BTK protein being resynthesized after 24 h.^{18,22,54}

We set out to determine the detailed PK/PD relationship of LOU064 in rats by using BTK occupancy as the primary PD readout. A series of studies were performed in rats to determine the dose range leading to varying degrees of BTK occupancy in spleen (Figure 8). To minimize the impact of circulating LOU064, the animals were killed 5 hours after oral dosing and tissues were sampled. BTK occupancy in spleen homogenates was measured relative to vehicle controls. A dose-response curve fit indicates an EC_{50} of 0.6 mg/kg (EC_{90} 1.6 mg/kg). The analysis of LOU064 in blood from these animals showed that for the 1 mg/kg dose, resulting in an average of 78 % BTK occupancy, the systemic exposure was 49.1 nM at 0.5 hours post dose (5.6 nM at 5 hours). This suggests that very low and transient systemic exposures of LOU064 are sufficient for BTK inhibition.



Figure 8. Spleen BTK occupancy relative to vehicle controls was measured 5 hours after oral dosing in female rats combined from two separate studies (with 3 animals per each dose group). Open triangles show the BTK occupancy levels in the combined vehicle dosed animals. Filled

circles show the BTK occupancy of LOU064 treated animals. The dotted line shows a doseresponse curve fit.

Preclinical Efficacy in SRBC and CIA Models. To extend the preclinical PK/PD relationship to repeated dosing regimen, we examined the efficacy of LOU064 in a model of B cell dependent antibody formation following immunization with sheep red blood cells (SRBC).⁵⁵ Female rats were immunized with SRBC and treated for 4 days with one daily oral dose of LOU064 starting on the day of immunization. On day 5, SRBC antibody formation was assessed *ex vivo* on splenocytes, as well as BTK occupancy in the same tissue (Figure 9, left panel). The IgM antibody response was maximally inhibited (by 96 %) at a dose of 3 mg/kg q.d.. This level of IgM response inhibition was correlated to a spleen BTK occupancy at the 24 h trough of 71.5 % (Figure 9, right panel). Doses as low as 0.3 mg/kg demonstrated a partial, but significant inhibitory effect on SRBC specific antibody response (with a trough BTK occupancy in spleen of 31 %).



Figure 9. IgM response inhibition by LOU064 in the rat model of B cell response to SRBC immunization. Left panel: inhibition of anti-IgM response: open triangles show vehicle (V), open circles cyclosporine A (CsA) and closed circles LOU064 treated animals, respectively. The group means are shown as the central bars and the standard deviations are shown as whisker error bars. Statistical significance (ANOVA, followed by Dunnett's test) is shown as *** for p < 0.001. Right panel: BTK occupancy in spleen 24 hours after the last dose of LOU064: open triangles show vehicle (V), open circles cyclosporine A (CsA) and closed circles LOU064 treated animals relative to the average of the vehicle group. Group means are shown as central bars and standard deviations as whisker error bars. Statistical significance (ANOVA, followed by Dunnett's test) is shown as *** for p < 0.001.

Next we assessed the effects of LOU064 in the inflammatory model of collagen-induced arthritis (CIA) in rats.^{56,57} Collagen-specific B- and T-lymphocytes are important in the pathogenesis of CIA, with the peak of the T-cell response occurring around the time of disease onset.^{57,58} Female Lewis rats were immunized with porcine collagen and LOU064 oral dosing, once daily, was started after the onset of arthritis, continuing until day 26 after immunization. The animals treated with LOU064 showed a fast onset of action and within a few days paw swelling was fully reduced (Figure 10, left panel). This was evident in the three highest doses of 3, 10 and 30 mg/kg, whereas the 0.3 mg/kg dose was largely inactive (no 1 mg/kg dose group was included in the study).



Figure 10. Efficacy of LOU064 in the rat model of collagen-induced arthritis. Left panel: Paw swelling scores are shown as means \pm SEM. LOU064 treatment once daily with doses of 0.3, 3, 10 and 30 mg/kg from day 12 to 25 post immunization. Statistical significance (ANOVA, followed by Dunnett's test) is shown as ** p < 0.01. Right panel: BTK occupancy in spleen 24 hours after the last dose of LOU064. Triangles show vehicle (V) and circles represent LOU064 treated animals relative to the average of the vehicle group. Group means are shown as central bars and standard deviations as whiskers. Statistical significance (ANOVA, followed by Dunnett's test) is shown as *** p < 0.001.

Histopathological analysis of the 3 and 10 mg/kg groups showed that bone and cartilage erosion, as well as inflammatory cell infiltration, were all significantly inhibited by LOU064 (Figure 11). Dose proportional levels of BTK occupancy in spleen were found on day 26 at trough, 24 hours after the last dose (Figure 10, right panel). Occupancy levels of 80 % (for the 3 mg/kg dose) and higher were associated with significant inhibition of paw swelling.



Figure 11. Histopathological analysis of arthritis in rat CIA model. Left panel: Histology scores combined for the hind paws of each animal show inflammatory cell infiltrate, joint damage and proteoglycan loss (average +/- SEM of 6 animals per group, ANOVA, followed by Dunnett's test ** for p < 0.01). Right panel: Photomicrographs of paw sections stained with Giemsa (left column) and Safranin O (right column) illustrate joint tissue inflammation and preservation of joint cartilage, respectively. LOU064 significantly reduced join inflammation and damage as well as proteoglycan loss at 3 and 10 mg/kg q.d. po.

This study shows that LOU064 potently inhibits a chronic arthritic inflammation *in vivo* in a therapeutic treatment setting with a fast onset of action. Since we timed the treatment to start

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after immunization phase, the fast onset of action suggests that the anti-inflammatory effect is due to the inhibition of inflammatory macrophages and of immune complexes in the paws.

Synthesis of LOU064 (25). The synthesis of 25 is outlined in Schemes 1 and 2. Scheme 1 shows the synthesis of the upper portion of the molecule, intermediate **38**. Borylation of 1bromo-5-fluoro-2-methyl-3-nitrobenzene (33) with bis(pinacolato)diboron in the presence of Pd(dppf)Cl₂ DCM and potassium acetate gave boronic ester **34** which upon catalytic hydrogenation provided aniline 35. Suzuki reaction of methyl 4-bromo-2-fluorobenzoate (36) and cyclopropylboronic acid gave cyclopropyl intermediate 37. Boronic ester 38 was then accessed via a NaHMDS mediated amide formation of aniline 35 and ester 37. The synthesis of LOU064 was completed as outlined in Scheme 2. The lower portion of the molecule was assembled starting from 2,4-dichloro-3-methoxypyrimidine (39). Treatment with ammonia in a pressure reactor resulted in aminopyrimidine 40, which was subjected to boron tribromide treatment to give amino-pyrimidinol 41. The linker moiety was introduced via a Mitsunobu reaction with N-Boc-N-methyl-2-hydroxyethylamine in the presence of DIAD and Smopex-301, a convenient polymer supported version of triphenylphosphine, to obtain 42. Boc protected intermediate 43 was assembled via Suzuki coupling of 42 and 38. Finally, Boc deprotection of 43 followed by amide coupling with acrylic acid in the presence of propylphosphonic anhydride (T3P) provided LOU064 (25).

The experimental details are provided in the Experimental Section. For the synthesis of analogues the schemes and synthetic details are provided in the Supporting Information.

Scheme 1. Synthesis of boronic ester 38.^a



^{*a*}Reagents and conditions: (a) BISPIN, Pd(dppf)Cl₂·DCM, KOAc, dioxane, 100 °C, 3.5 h, 92 %; (b) H₂, Pd/C, MeOH, RT, 7 h, 93 %; (c) cyclopropylboronic acid, Pd(OAc)₂, tricyclohexylphosphine, K₃PO₄, water, toluene, 100 °C, overnight, 99 %; (d) **35**, NaHMDS (1 M in THF), THF, RT, 4 h, 76 %.

Scheme 2. Synthesis of LOU064.^a



^aReagents and conditions: (a) NH₄OH, 2-propanol, 70 °C, 48 h, 94 %; (b) BBr₃, DCM, 40 °C, 3 h, 59 %; (c) N-Boc-N-methyl-2-hydroxyethylamine, DIAD, Smopex-301, THF, 60 °C, 2 h, 53 %; (d) **38**, Pd(PPh₃)₂Cl₂, aq. Na₂CO₃, DME, water, microwave, 110 °C, 25 min, 74 %; (e) TFA, DCM, RT, 12 h; (f) acrylic acid, DIPEA, T3P (50 % in DMF), DMF, RT, 2 h, 45 % over 2 steps.

Conclusions

In summary, we have discovered a covalent BTK inhibitor, LOU064 (remibrutinib, **25**), that

shows excellent selectivity and potency with potential for best-in-class in vivo profile. By a

structure-based approach, starting from a selective, reversible BTK binder, we successfully morphed the hinge binder moiety and introduced a linker with a warhead leading to selective, covalent BTK inhibitors. The drug discovery efforts focused on the optimization of potency, ADME properties and PK/PD using an *in vivo* target occupancy assay.

The preclinical pharmacokinetic data of LOU064 is favorable for a covalent inhibitor with the potential for once daily dosing. Based on the singular PK/PD profile of a covalent inhibitor LOU064 showed potent BTK occupancy with an EC₉₀ of 1.6 mg/kg after single oral dose with transient low exposure. In addition, the *in vivo* efficacy on B cell response and the potent inhibition of rat arthritis with a fast onset of action suggest that the compound could have utility in treating autoimmune diseases. The compound displayed a good preclinical tolerability and safety profile in two species at different doses and these findings encouraged us to progress LOU064 into clinical studies in autoimmune diseases. In phase I studies, healthy and atopic subjects have been exposed to LOU064 at doses ranging from 0.5 mg to 600 mg.⁵⁹ Administration of LOU064 in healthy subjects did not raise any safety signals in any of these studies. With favorable phase I results, LOU064 entered phase 2 clinical studies in several immune disorders including chronic spontaneous urticaria and Sjoegren's Syndrome. Further details and clinical results will be reported in due course.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Experimental Details

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All chemicals were used directly as received from commercial suppliers. ¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR spectra were recorded on Bruker 400 or 600 spectrometers. Chemical shifts are expressed in δ ppm referenced to the residual solvent peak (DMSO-d6: $\delta = 2.50$ ppm; CDCl₃: $\delta = 7.27$ ppm; CD₃OD: $\delta = 3.30$ ppm). Abbreviations used in describing peak signals are: br = broad signal, v = very, s = singlet, d = doublet, dd = doublet of doublets, t = triplet, q = quartet, m = multiplet. All final compounds were purified to > 95% by reverse phase high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), supercritical fluid chromatography (SFC) or normal phase silica gel column chromatography. The purity was assessed by reverse phase UPLC with a gradient of 5-98 % acetonitrile in water (with either acid or base modifier) and monitored by UV absorption at 210-450 nM. Purity of all final compounds is \geq 95 %. Low-resolution mass spectra were recorded on liquid chromatography-mass spectrometer in electrospray positive (ES+) and negative (ES-) mode. The HR-MS analyses were performed by using electrospray ionization in positive ion modus after separation by liquid chromatography (Nexera from shimadzu). The elemental composition was derived from the mass spectra acquired at the high resolution of about 30'000 on an LTQ Orbitrap XL mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific). The high mass accuracy below 1 ppm was obtained by using a lock mass.

N-(3-(6-Amino-5-(2-(N-methylacrylamido)ethoxy)pyrimidin-4-yl)-5-fluoro-2-

methylphenyl)-4-cyclopropyl-2-fluorobenzamide (**25**, LOU064). Step 1: To a solution of **43** (6.5 g, 11.74 mmol) in DCM (100 mL) was added TFA (9.05 mL, 117 mmol). The reaction mixture was stirred at RT for 12 h. The mixture was concentrated under reduced pressure. The residue was dried in vacuo to obtain the crude amine **44** as TFA salt. [ES-MS] (ESI+): m/z calcd for $C_{24}H_{26}F_2N_5O_2$ [M + H]+, 454.2; found, 454.3.

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Step 2: To a solution of acrylic acid (1.10 g, 15.26 mmol) in DMF (50 mL) was added DIPEA
(6.15 mL, 35.2 mmol) followed by T3P (50 % in DMF, 7.54 mL, 12.91 mmol). The mixture was
stirred at RT for 30 min to form the active ester. The mixture was added dropwise to a solution of
crude 44 and DIPEA (6.15 mL, 35.2 mmol) in DMF (50 mL) at 0 °C. The reaction mixture was
stirred at RT for 2 h. The mixture was diluted with EtOAc and washed with water (2x) and brine.
The organic layer was dried over MgSO ₄ , filtered and concentrated. The residue was purified by
column chromatography (SiO ₂ ; (DCM containing 2 % NH ₃)/MeOH gradient) to afford 2.80 g of
25 as a white solid. Yield: 45 % over 2 steps. [ES-MS] (ESI+): m/z calcd for $C_{27}H_{28}F_2N_5O_3$ [M +
H]+, 508.2; found, 508.3. ¹ H NMR (500 MHz, DMSO-d ₆) rotamers δ 9.79 and 9.57 (2s, total 1H),
8.22 and 8.19 (2s, total 1H), 7.78 – 7.72 and 7.71 – 7.65 (2m, total 1H), 7.63 – 7.52 (m, 1H), 7.15
- 7.03 (m, 4H), 7.03 - 6.96 (m, 1H), 6.71 - 6.57 (m, 1H), 6.14 - 6.02 (m, 1H), 5.65 - 5.56 (m,
1H), 3.63 – 3.54 (m, 2H), 3.54 – 3.45 (m, 2H), 2.81 and 2.51 (overlapping with DMSO) (2s, total
3H), 2.10 – 2.00 (m, 1H), overlapping with 2.03 and 1.98 (2s, total 3H), 1.11 – 1.03 (m, 2H), 0.86
- 0.78 (m, 2H). ¹³ C NMR (151 MHz, DMSO-d ₆) rotamers δ 165.58, 165.54, 162.65, 162.40,
160.66, 160.50, 160.16, 160.04, 159.01, 158.85, 158.72, 158.56, 158.44, 153.84, 153.44, 153.35,
152.93, 151.06, 151.01, 150.82, 150.77, 138.75, 138.69, 138.34, 138.28, 137.85, 137.78, 137.70,
136.08, 135.23, 130.55, 130.36, 128.35, 128.32, 127.10, 126.89, 126.20, 126.05, 121.65, 121.59,
120.43, 120.34, 119.99, 119.90, 112.83, 112.78, 112.72, 112.63, 112.57, 112.22, 112.06, 111.86,
70.23, 68.69, 48.25, 47.36, 35.41, 32.80, 15.16, 14.23, 14.19, 10.55, 10.52. HRMS (ESI+): m/z
calcd for $C_{27}H_{28}F_2N_5O_3$ [M + H] ⁺ , 508.21547; found, 508.21582.

2-(5-Fluoro-2-methyl-3-nitrophenyl)-4,4,5,5-tetramethyl-1,3,2-dioxaborolane (34). To a solution of 1-bromo-5-fluoro-2-methyl-3-nitrobenzene (463 g, 1978 mmol) in dioxane was added bis(pinacolato)diboron (755 g, 2973 mmol) followed by potassium acetate (681 g, 6939 mmol)

and PdCl₂(dppf) DCM adduct (85 g, 104 mmol). The reaction mixture was refluxed at 110 °C for 3.5 h. After cooling to RT the mixture was diluted with EtOAc and washed with saturated aqueous NaHCO₃ solution. The aqueous layer was back-extracted with EtOAc (2x). The combined organic layers were washed with brine, dried over MgSO₄, filtered and concentrated. The residue was purified by column chromatography (SiO₂; heptane/EtOAc 9:1) to obtain 513 g of 34 as a beige solid. Yield: 92 %. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 7.93 (dd, 1H), 7.62 (dd, 1H), 2.50 (s, 3H, overlapping with DMSO), 1.32 (s, 12H). 5-Fluoro-2-methyl-3-(4,4,5,5-tetramethyl-1,3,2-dioxaborolan-2-yl)aniline (35).

solution of **34** (509 g, 1811 mmol) in MeOH (4.6 L) in an autoclave was added Pd-C 10 % (50 g). The mixture was evacuated and purged with hydrogen. The reaction mixture was stirred at RT under a hydrogen atmosphere for 7 h. The mixture was filtered through a suction filter and the filter cake was washed with MeOH. The filtrate was concentrated. The residue was purified by column chromatography (SiO₂; heptane/EtOAc gradient) to afford batch 1 (435 g) and batch 2 (5.4 g) of **35**. Batch 1 of **35** (435 g) was dissolved in hexane (1400 mL) under reflux and was allowed to cool to RT over 2 h while stirring. The precipitate was filtered off and washed with cold hexane, then dried in vacuo to afford 387 g of **35** as a white solid. The mother liquor was concentrated and combined with batch 2 of **35** (5.4 g). The residue was recrystallised from hexane (100 mL) as described above to afford 36 g of **35** as a white solid. The two batches were combined. Yield: 93 %. [ES-MS] (ESI+): m/z calcd for $C_{13}H_{20}BFNO_2$ [M + H]⁺, 252.2; found, 252.2. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 6.52 – 6.45 (m, 2H), 5.09 (s, 2H), 2.17 (s, 3H), 1.28 (s, 12H).

Methyl 4-cyclopropyl-2-fluorobenzoate (37). A solution of methyl 4-bromo-2-fluorobenzoate (20.00 g, 84 mmol) and cyclopropylboronic acid (9.68 g, 109 mmol) in toluene was purged with argon for 5 min. Then, tricyclohexylphosphine (2.36 g, 8.41 mmol) and water (1.82 mL, 101

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mmol) were added. The mixture was purged with argon for an additional 10 min. Pd(OAc)₂ (0.944 g, 4.21 mmol) was added and the reaction mixture was stirred at 100 °C overnight. The mixture was partitioned between EtOAc and water. The black suspension was filtered over a pad of Celite. The layers of the now clear mixture were separated. The aqueous layer was back-extracted with EtOAc. The combined organic layers were washed with saturated aqueous NaHCO₃ solution and brine, dried over MgSO₄, filtered and concentrated. The residue was purified by column chromatography (SiO₂; cyclohexane/EtOAc gradient) to obtain 17.00 g (purity 95 %) of **37** as a brown oil. Yield: 99 %. [ES-MS] (ESI+): m/z calcd for C₁₁H₁₂FO₂ [M + H]⁺, 195.1; found, 195.1. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 7.79 – 7.69 (m, 1H), 7.04 (s, 1H), 7.03 – 6.99 (m, 1H), 3.81 (s, 3H), 2.06 – 1.95 (m, 1H), 1.10 – 1.00 (m, 2H), 0.85 – 0.73 (m, 2H).

4-Cyclopropyl-2-fluoro-N-(5-fluoro-2-methyl-3-(4,4,5,5-tetramethyl-1,3,2-dioxaborolan-

2-y1)pheny1)benzamide (38). To a suspension of **35** (17.00 g, 64.3 mmol) and **37** (16.24 g, 84.0 mmol) in THF (300 mL) at 0 °C was added NaHMDS (1 M in THF, 96 mL, 96.0 mmol) dropwise. The reaction mixture was stirred at RT for 1 h, then more NaHMDS (1 M in THF, 20 mL, 20.0 mmol) was added. The reaction mixture was stirred at RT for 1 h. Then, a third batch of NaHMDS (1.0 M in THF, 20 mL, 20.0 mmol) was added and the reaction mixture was stirred at RT for another 2 h. The mixture was diluted with EtOAc and washed with saturated aqueous NaHCO₃ solution. The aqueous layer was back-extracted with EtOAc. The combined organic layers were washed with brine, dried over MgSO₄, filtered and concentrated. The residue was suspended in EtOAc and dried in vacuo to afford a first batch of **38** (17.8 g) as a beige solid. The filtrate was concentrated and the residue was suspended in EtOAc. The suspension was stirred at RT for 20 min. The resulting solid was filtered off, washed with EtOAc and dried in vacuo to afford a first batch of **38** (3.4 g) as a

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beige solid. The two batches were combined. Yield: 76 %. [ES-MS] (ESI+): m/z calcd for $C_{23}H_{27}BF_2NO_3$ [M + H]⁺, 414.2; found, 414.2. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 9.72 (d, J = 2.9 Hz, 1H), 7.67 – 7.59 (m, 1H), 7.52 (d, br, J = 9.9 Hz, 1H), 7.21 (dd, J = 8.7, 2.9 Hz, 1H), 7.10 – 7.03 (m, 2H), 2.38 (s, 3H), 2.08 – 1.97 (m, 1H), 1.32 (s, 12H), 1.10 – 1.01 (m, 2H), 0.83 – 0.75 (m, 2H).

6-Amino-4-chloro-5-methoxypyrimidine (**40**). To a solution of 4,6-dichloro-5methoxypyrimidine (5.00 g, 27.9 mmol) in 2-propanol (40 mL) in an autoclave was added ammonium hydroxide (26 % in water, 5.0 mL, 33.5 mmol). The autoclave was sealed and the reaction mixture was stirred at 70 °C for 48 h. After cooling the mixture the precipitate was filtered off and washed with *n*-pentane and diethylether. The residue was dried in vacuo to obtain 4.40 g of **40** as a white solid. Yield: 94 %. [ES-MS] (ESI+): m/z calcd for C₅H₇ClN₃O [M + H]⁺, 160.0; found, 160.1. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, Chloroform-d) δ 8.12 (s, 1H), 5.29 (s, 2H), 3.89 (s, 3H).

6-Amino-4-chloro-5-pyrimidinol (41). To a solution of **40** (2.30 g, 13.69 mmol) in DCM (100 mL) at RT was slowly added boron tribromide (6.5 mL, 68.5 mmol) and the reaction mixture was stirred at 40 °C for 3 h. The mixture was quenched by slowly adding MeOH (50 mL) at -10 °C, stirred at RT for 12 h, then concentrated under reduced pressure. The residue was taken up in water and EtOAc. The mixture was basified with aqueous sodium carbonate solution (2 M) to pH 9-10. The aqueous layer was washed with EtOAc (discarded), acidified to pH 5-6 with aqueous HCl solution (5 M), then extracted with EtOAc (1x) and DCM (1x). The combined organic layers were washed with brine, dried over MgSO₄, filtered and concentrated to afford 1.30 g (purity 90 %) of **41** as a beige solid. Yield: 59 %. [ES-MS] (ESI+): m/z calcd for C₄H₅ClN₃O [M + H]⁺, 146.0; found, 146.0. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 9.57 (s, 1H), 7.78 (s, 1H), 6.89 (s, 2H).

tert-Butyl (2-((4-amino-6-chloropyrimidin-5-yl)oxy)ethyl)(methyl)carbamate (42). To a solution of 41 (2.00 g, 13.7 mmol) in THF (120 mL) was added a solution of N-Boc-N-methyl-2-hydroxyethylamine (6.74 g, 38.5 mmol) in THF (5 mL) followed by Smopex-301 (1 mmol/g) (34.4 g, 34.4 mmol) and a solution of DIAD (6.68 mL, 34.4 mmol) in THF (15 mL). The reaction mixture was stirred at 60 °C for 2 h. The mixture was filtered through a pad of Celite. The filtrate was concentrated to afford a yellow oil. The residue was treated with EtOAc and sonicated to provide a suspension which was allowed to stand at RT for 1 h. The precipitate was filtered off and dried in vacuo to obtain 2.33 g (purity 95 %) of **42** as a white solid. Yield: 53 %. [ES-MS] (ESI+): m/z calcd for $C_{12}H_{20}CIN_4O_3$ [M + H]⁺, 303.1; found, 303.0. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-d₆) rotamers δ 7.97 (s, 1H), 7.27 (s, br, 2H), 4.04 – 3.89 (m, 2H), 3.59 – 3.48 (m, 2H), 2.97 – 2.81 (m, 3H), 1.47 – 1.30 (m, 9H).

tert-Butyl (2-((4-amino-6-(3-(4-cyclopropyl-2-fluorobenzamido)-5-fluoro-2-methylphenyl)pyrimidin-5-yl)oxy)ethyl)(methyl)carbamate (43). The reaction was carried out using a Masterwave BTR microwave reactor with a 1000 mL vial. DME and water were purged with argon. To a solution of 42 (17.0 g, 56.2 mmol) and 38 (25.5 g, 61.8 mmol) in DME (264 mL) and water (38 mL) was added PdCl₂(PPh₃)₂ (1.971 g, 2.81 mmol) followed by aqueous Na₂CO₃ solution (1 M, 168 mL, 168 mmol). The reaction mixture was heated at 110 °C under microwave irradiation for 15 min. More 38 (1.4 g, 3.4 mmol) and PdCl₂(PPh₃)₂ (0.28 g, 0.40 mmol) were added. The reaction mixture was heated at 110 °C under microwave irradiation for an additional 10 min. The mixture was diluted with EtOAc (850 mL) and saturated aqueous NaHCO₃ solution (710 mL) and transferred into a separatory funnel. The layers were separated, the aqueous layer was back-extracted with EtOAc (425 mL). The combined organic layers were washed with brine, dried over Na₂SO₄, filtered and concentrated. The residue was triturated with EtOAc and the

mixture was stirred at RT for 30 min. The precipitate was filtered off and washed with EtOAc to afford 24.13 g (purity 97 %) of **43** as a light grey solid. Yield: 74 %. [ES-MS] (ESI+): m/z calcd for $C_{29}H_{34}F_2N_5O_4$ [M + H]⁺, 554.3; found, 554.3. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-d₆) rotamers δ 9.74 (s, br, 1H), 8.18 (s, 1H), 7.69 – 7.62 (m, 1H), 7.62 – 7.55 (m, 1H), 7.10 – 7.03 (m, 2H), 7.03 – 6.90 (m, 3H), 3.57 – 3.47 (m, 2H), 3.28 – 3.22 (m, 2H), 2.58 (s, 3H), 2.09 – 1.97 (m, 1H) overlapping with 2.04 (s, 3H), 1.33 and 1.29 (2s, br, total 9H), 1.10 – 1.01 (m, 2H), 0.84 – 0.75 (m, 2H).

Kinase Binding Assays

The kinase-binding assays in screening or K_d determination modes have been described^{50,51} and were as follows: recombinant DNA-tagged kinase proteins were produced from kinase-tagged T7 phage strains or by producing the kinase protein in HEK-293 cells with subsequent tagging with DNA for qPCR detection. Streptavidin-coated magnetic beads were treated with biotinylated small molecule ligands for 30 minutes at room temperature to generate affinity resins for kinase assays. The liganded beads were blocked with excess biotin and washed with blocking buffer (SeaBlock (Pierce), 1% BSA, 0.05% Tween 20, 1 mM DTT) to remove unbound ligand and to reduce nonspecific binding. Binding reactions were assembled by combining kinases, liganded affinity beads, and test compounds in 1x binding buffer (20% SeaBlock, 0.17x PBS, 0.05% Tween 20, 6 mM DTT). Test compounds were prepared as 111X stocks in 100% DMSO. K_{ds} were determined using an 11-point 3-fold compound dilution series with three DMSO control points. All compounds for K_d measurements are distributed by acoustic transfer (non-contact dispensing) in 100% DMSO. The compounds were then diluted directly into the assays such that the final concentration of DMSO was 0.9%. All reactions were performed in polypropylene 384-well plates in a final volume of 0.02 ml. The assay plates were incubated at room temperature with shaking

for 1 hour and the affinity beads were washed with wash buffer (1x PBS, 0.05% Tween 20). The beads were then re-suspended in elution buffer (1x PBS, 0.05% Tween 20, 0.5 μ M non-biotinylated affinity ligand) and incubated at room temperature with shaking for 30 minutes. The kinase concentration in the eluates was measured by qPCR.

Binding constants (K_d) were calculated with a standard dose-response curve using the Hill equation:

$$Response = Background + \frac{Signal - Background}{1 + (\frac{Kd^{Hill Slope}}{Dose^{Hill Slope}})}$$

The Hill Slope was set to -1 and curves were fitted using a non-linear least square fit with the Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm

BTK Occupancy

Covalent binding of compounds to BTK was determined with immunoassays for free BTK (i.e. not covalently occupied by compound) and total BTK protein. For free BTK measurements, samples were incubated with a biotinylated covalent BTK probe,⁴³ then samples were added to streptavidin ELISA plates to allow binding of probe-bound BTK. The binding of the probe to BTK is mutually exclusive with compound binding to BTK. Plate-bound BTK was detected with an anti-BTK antibody (D3H5, Cell Signaling Technology). For total BTK measurements, an ELISA plate was coated with D3H5 anti-BTK to capture total BTK. An anti-BTK antibody (#53, BD Biosciences) directed to a different epitope was then used to detect captured BTK. The respective free BTK levels for each sample were normalized to the total BTK level in the same sample and these ratios were expressed as percentage of the vehicle control samples.

Animal Studies

All animal studies described here were performed according to Swiss animal welfare laws and specifically according to animal licences BS-1182, BS-1151 and BS-1244 issued by the Basel-Stadt Cantonal Veterinary Office.

BTK Occupancy PK/PD model

To assess the PK/PD profile of the covalent BTK inhibitors, we measured BTK occupancy from tissue samples of animals treated with compounds. Female OFA-1 rats were dosed orally with compounds formulated at the indicated doses. Blood samples at 0.5, 2 and 5 hours after compound dosing were taken into EDTA tubes under deep anaesthesia for PK analysis. Five hours after dosing the animals were killed and the spleen removed to determine BTK target occupancy as described above (BTK occupancy assay).

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publication website at DOI: Synthesis of compounds **9-24**, **26-32**; structural biology data; *in vitro* ADME profile of LOU064; biology data; animal studies; references (PDF)

Molecular formula strings (CSV)

Accession Codes

Authors will release the atomic coordinates and experimental data upon article publication. PDB ID accession codes 6S90, 6TFP.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ADME, absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion; BCR, B-cell receptor; BTK, Bruton's tyrosine kinase; CIA, collagen-induced arthritis; CL, clearance; CsA, cyclosporin; GSH, glutathione; IgM, immunoglobulin M; IL-4, interleukin-4; IL-8, interleukin-8; PAMPA, parallel artificial membrane permeability assay; PD, pharmacodynamic; PK, pharmacokinetic; SAR, structure-activity relationship; SRBC, sheep red blood cells; XLA, X-linked agammaglobulinemia.

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