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Drug Annotation

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> J. Med. Chem., Just Accepted Manuscript • Publication Date (Web): 16 Nov 2017 Downloaded from http://pubs.acs.org on November 16, 2017

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Journal of Medicinal Chemistry is published by the American Chemical Society. 1155 Sixteenth Street N.W., Washington, DC 20036

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Discovery of Tropifexor (LJN452), a Highly Potent Non-Bile Acid FXR Agonist for the Treatment of Cholestatic Liver Diseases and Nonalcoholic Steatohepatitis (NASH)

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KEYWORDS Farnesoid X Receptor, FXR Agonist, cholestasis, dyslipidemia, nonalcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH)

ABSTRACT: The farnesoid X receptor (FXR) is a nuclear receptor that acts as a master regulator of bile acid metabolism and signaling. Activation of FXR inhibits bile acid synthesis and increases bile acid conjugation, transport, and excretion, thereby protecting the liver from the harmful effects of bile accumulation, leading to considerable interest in FXR as a therapeutic target for the treatment of cholestasis and non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. We identified a novel series of highly potent non-bile acid FXR agonists that introduce a bicyclic nortropine-substituted benzothiazole carboxylic acid moiety onto a trisubstituted isoxazole scaffold. Herein, we report the discovery of 1 (tropifexor, LJN452) a novel and highly potent agonist of FXR. Potent in vivo activity was demonstrated in rodent PD models

measuring the induction of FXR target genes in various tissues. Tropifexor has advanced into Phase 2 human clinical trials in patients with NASH and PBC.

INTRODUCTION AND BIOLOGICAL RATIONALE

The farnesoid X receptor (FXR) is a ligand-activated nuclear receptor that is highly expressed in the liver, gall bladder, intestines and kidney, and acts as a key regulator of bile acid production, conjugation, and transport.¹ Bile acids are resorbed in the ileum and activate FXR, which leads to increased expression of bile acid binding proteins and FGF19, a key metabolic regulator. In the liver, FXR activation modulates expression of genes involved in bile acid transport and metabolism, as well as glucose and lipid metabolism. Specifically, activation of FXR directly increases the expression of enzymes responsible for bile acid detoxification and canalicular and basolateral bile acid efflux, while also inhibiting bile acid synthesis and basolateral bile acid uptake by hepatocytes.² Activation of FXR can repress bile acid synthesis by either of two complementary mechanisms. In the liver, FXR activation induces SHP (NR0B2) which is a negative regulator of CYP7A1 expression, an enzyme which catalyzes the rate limiting step of the neutral bile acid biosynthetic pathway.³ Activation of FXR in the intestines induces transcription of the endocrine hormone FGF19, which is secreted into portal circulation and subsequently binds to the FGFR4 receptor in the liver, which in turn activates a MAPK signalling pathway that results in the downregulation of CYP7A1 expression, thereby inhibiting bile acid synthesis.⁴

Cholestasis is a pathological condition in which bile flow from the liver to the intestine is reduced or interrupted due either to impaired secretion by hepatocytes, or to obstruction of bile flow through the bile ducts. The consequence of the accumulation of bile salts is disruption of cellular membranes, which results in injury to the affected tissues, whereby the liver is typically most affected. Primary biliary cholangitis (PBC) is a chronic and progressive cholestatic

Journal of Medicinal Chemistry

disease, presumed to be autoimmune in origin, which results from the progressive destruction of intrahepatic bile ducts.⁵ Decreased FXR expression and mutations of the FXR target genes ABCB11 (encoding BSEP) or ABCB4 (encoding MDR3) are observed in hereditary forms of human cholestasis and lead to a severe form of cholestasis known as progressive familial intrahepatic cholestasis (PFIC-2 and -3).^{6.7} In addition, loss-of-function mutations in the NR1H4 gene that encodes FXR have been determined to be the cause for a neonatal form of PFIC.⁸ Ursodeoxycholic acid (UDCA) is a naturally occurring primary bile acid, and though not an FXR agonist, is currently the standard of care for the treatment of PBC. Obeticholic acid (OCA), a synthetic bile-acid FXR agonist, recently received accelerated approval for the treatment of PBC in combination with UDCA for patients who do not respond adequately to UDCA therapy alone.⁹

In addition to its role in bile acid metabolism and signaling, FXR is also involved in regulation of triglyceride metabolism and lipogenesis. FXR activation suppresses the activity of SREBPlc, a key transcription factor that regulates triglyceride synthesis by inducing enzymes involved in lipogenesis. Non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH) is a condition characterized by the accumulation of fat in the liver (steatosis), inflammation, hepatocyte ballooning, and fibrosis. NASH is a leading cause of cirrhosis and liver transplantation, and cases are expected to rise due to the increased prevalence worldwide of obesity and type 2 diabetes. It is hypothesized that FXR activation can reduce the liver steatosis, inflammation and fibrosis in patients with NASH by suppressing lipogenesis and promoting triglyceride oxidation and clearance.

In a recent clinical trial in patients with NASH, treatment with OCA led to improvements in serum transaminases and liver histology,¹⁰ however, higher rates of pruritus were experienced by patients treated with OCA compared to placebo-treated patients.^{10,11} Pruritus, or severe itch, is a

common symptom associated with cholestatic disorders, and recent clinical trials have demonstrated that OCA therapy in patients with PBC further exacerbates pruritus, which may ultimately limit the clinical utility of OCA in susceptible patient populations.^{11,12} OCA also caused adverse effects on serum lipid profiles including elevated LDL cholesterol and total cholesterol in heathy volunteers and in patients with NASH, which is a concern in a patient population with an elevated risk for cardiovascular disease.^{10–13}

Our efforts to discover safe and more effective therapies for the treatment of cholestatic disorders have focused on the development of novel FXR agonists to improve upon the efficacy, safety, and tolerability of the current standard of care. To achieve this goal, the intended target drug candidate profile was for a highly potent and selective, non-bile acid, FXR agonist that would be effective at low systemic exposures. As FXR is expressed predominantly in the liver and intestines, the desire to limit the oral bioavailability and avoid high systemic exposures stemmed from the wish to avoid the prolonged systemic activation of FXR. Herein, we report our discovery of a novel series of highly potent non-bile acid FXR agonists that features a bicyclic [3.2.1] tropane linker ring as the key component responsible for the exceptional potency. This series potently and selectively activates FXR in vitro, and optimized analogs potently regulate FXR target genes in vivo at very low systemic exposures in preclinical pharmacodynamic models. The most advanced compound from this series (1) has progressed into Phase II clinical trials for the treatment of patients with PBC¹⁴ and NASH.¹⁵

BACKGROUND

Researchers at Glaxo-SmithKline (GSK) previously described the biological and pharmacological activity of the synthetic FXR agonist GW4064 ($\mathbf{2}$).¹⁶ Since this initial report, there have been extensive optimization efforts by several groups to overcome liabilities of this

scaffold class such as low aqueous solubility and overall poor ADME and PK properties.^{17–22} Detailed accounts of much of this research has been thoroughly summarized in recent review articles.^{23,24} Researchers at GSK demonstrated that the stilbene moiety of **2** could be replaced with a fused biaryl ring system such as the isoquinoline in GSK2324 (**3**, EC₅₀ = 50 nM, 102% efficacy).¹⁸ This additional conformational restraint retained potent in vitro activity with full efficacy; however such analogs likely lacked the necessary physicochemical properties and PK to progress into development. More recently, researchers at Eli Lilly reported that the central phenyl ring could be replaced by a piperidine ring exemplified by **4** (LY2562175, EC₅₀ = 193 nM, 41% efficacy).²⁵ The replacement of the extended conjugated aromatic system with a piperidine linker resulted in an improvement in overall drug-like properties, despite resulting in a loss of potency and only partial FXR agonist activity relative to **2** and **3**.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Early in our efforts to identify a novel full FXR agonist with improved potency and PK, we discovered that replacement of the indole moiety of the partial FXR agonist **4** with a 2-substituted benzothiazole-6-carboxylic acid resulted in a dramatic improvement in potency and exhibited full agonist efficacy in a cellular assay.^{26,27} The ligand-induced interaction with a coactivator protein is a critical step in transcriptional activation by FXR, and this is determined in the FXR-HTRF biochemical assay that measures the interaction between FXR and the Steroid Receptor Coactivator-1 (SRC1). Benzothiazole **5** was determined to have an EC₅₀ = 8.3 nM with 96% efficacy relative to **2**, the most commonly used comparator FXR agonist (Table 1). The potent functional activity of **5** translates well in the FXR BSEP-luc reporter gene cellular assay, which is designed to measure cellular transcriptional activity of full length FXR on the BSEP

promoter driving a luciferase reporter gene. Compound **5** has an $EC_{50} = 9.5$ nM in this cellular assay and activates FXR as a full agonist with 118% efficacy relative to **2**.

The pharmacokinetics in rats was determined, and **5** exhibited high plasma clearance and low oral bioavailability (F = 6%) (Table 2). In vitro metabolic stability in rat and human liver microsomes (RLM, HLM) showed moderate to high extraction ratios, (Table 1) which was consistent with the observed in vivo rat clearance, and suggested that oral bioavailability was limited by the high in vivo clearance. Furthermore, in vitro metabolite ID studies in liver microsomes suggested oxidative metabolism on the 2,6-dichlorophenyl ring as the primary route for metabolic clearance, which was not surprising due to the highly lipophilic nature of that moiety.

Having identified that benzothiazole moiety provides a significant improvement in potency versus **4** with full agonist efficacy, this carboxylic acid-bearing pharmacophore was fixed while exploring the SAR in other regions of the scaffold for further optimization. In order to reduce address the metabolic liability, replacement of the 2,6-dichlorophenyl group was explored in the attempt to improve the metabolic clearance and aqueous solubility. Replacement of the 2,6-dichlorophenyl with either 2,6-difluorophenyl (**6**) or 2-trifluoromethylphenyl (**7**) resulted in a modest loss of FXR agonist activity, and metabolic stability in RLM was not improved, although the HLM stability showed some improvement compared to **5**. In contrast, the 2-trifluoromethoxyphenyl group (compound **8**) proved to be highly beneficial in several respects. Compound **8**, in addition to improve FXR agonist activity (EC₅₀ = 19 nM) and full efficacy (100%), showed a notable improvement in metabolic stability, with low extraction ratios in rat and human liver microsomes. The improvement in the in vitro metabolic stability translated

Journal of Medicinal Chemistry

nicely in vivo, as **8** had significantly improved rat pharmacokinetics versus the 2,6-dichloro analog **5**, with moderate clearance (24 mL/min/kg) and modest oral bioavailability (F = 37%).

Next, we examined the SAR involving replacements for the piperidine ring which serves as the framework linking the essential trisubstituted isoxazole pharmacophore to the aryl carboxylic acid moiety. A decrease in ring size to the azetidine (9) or pyrrolidine (10) was not tolerated, and resulted in a substantial loss of FXR agonist activity (>100-fold). Conversely, an increase in ring size to the racemic azepane (11) afforded a modest improvement in potency compared to piperidine 8. However, despite this improvement in FXR potency versus the piperidine 8, the azepane analog 11 was undesirable due to its poor metabolic stability in liver microsomes, and displayed high extraction ratios in both RLM and HLM (0.75, 0.89).

In the continued effort to optimize the linker moiety, we sought to increase the conformational restraint of this central scaffolding ring. We therefore installed the 8-azabicyclo[3.2.1]octane ring derived from nortropine, which resulted in a dramatic improvement in potency. Nortropine **12** had full FXR agonist efficacy with sub-nM potency in both the FXR-HTRF coactivator interaction assay (EC₅₀ = 0.54 nM) and FXR BSEP-luc cellular assay (EC₅₀ = 0.69 nM). This significant development represented a 30-fold improvement in potency over piperidine precursor **8**, and more than two orders of magnitude greater potency versus **4**.

Importantly, the in vitro ADME properties of nortropine **12** were attractive, with decent solubility (110 μ M) in fasted state simulated intestinal fluid (FASSIF, pH = 6.8), and it showed moderate and low extraction ratios in rat (0.51) and human (<0.20) liver microsomes, respectively. Nortropine **12** exhibited reduced plasma clearance in rats (CL = 17 mL/min/kg) versus piperidine **8**, although the terminal half-life was short and oral bioavailability was low (F = 11%) (Table 2). Having achieved a remarkable improvement in potency for this scaffold, we

focused on further optimization of this promising nortropine lead. The focus of continued optimization remained to achieve reduced metabolic clearance and longer in vivo half-life in order to improve in vivo activity in a rodent PD model measuring induction of FXR target genes in the liver and intestines. Along with preserving the highly potent FXR agonist activity, limited systemic exposure and oral bioavailability was desired in order to minimize prolonged systemic activation in FXR, particularly in tissues other than liver and intestines.

To this end, we examined the influence of various substituents at the synthetically accessible 4-position of the benzothiazole ring (Table 3). While the addition of either a methyl (13) or methoxy (14) group retained potent FXR activity, the rat PK was not significantly improved, as both compounds had low oral bioavailability and short $T_{1/2}$, despite the low clearance (Table 2). In contrast, the 4-fluoro substituted analog 1 gave further modest improvement in the FXR agonist activity (EC₅₀ = 0.26 nM) compared to 12 with full agonist activity in the FXR BSEP cellular assay. Likewise the solubility in FASSIF (600 μ M) was improved considerably compared to close analogs 12, 13, and 14, possibly explained by the lower pKa of the 4-fluoro substituted benzothiazole carboxylic acid (pKa = 4.0).

Moreover, the rat pharmacokinetics were further improved, as compound **1** had low clearance (CL = 9 mL/min/kg) and a significantly longer terminal half-life $(T_{1/2} = 3.7 \text{ h})$ than what had been observed with previous analogs from this scaffold, and was consistent with the low extraction ratio seen in rat liver microsomes. Oral bioavailability of **1** in the rat was 20% from an aqueous microemulsion formulation, a modest improvement over other nortropine analogs (Table 2). With the 4-fluorobenzothiazole in place, further examination of the phenyl ring substituent demonstrated that the ortho-trifluoromethoxy group could be modified to either

Journal of Medicinal Chemistry

difluoromethoxy **15** or trifluoromethyl **16** (LJP305) while preserving similarly potent FXR agonist activity with comparable rat pharmacokinetics.

To help rationalize the remarkable boost in potency attained through the introduction of the novel nortropine-benzothiazole pharmacophore, we examined computational molecular modeling simulations of 1 docked into the X-ray structure of the FXR ligand binding domain (PDB 3DCT). In good agreement with published X-ray co-crystal structures of related isoxazoles bound to the FXR ligand binding domain, the docking model in Figure 2 showed the key H-bond between the isoxazole nitrogen and H447 and hydrophobic interactions with W468 of helix 12.¹⁷⁻¹⁹ The cyclopropyl group fills the hydrophobic pocket formed by side chains of F284, L287, F461, and W454, while the 2-trifluoromethoxyphenyl ring establishes hydrophobic contacts with M328, M365, and I352. The bridged bicyclic nortropine ring system fills the central portion of the binding pocket, and, due to its limited flexibility, provides conformational restraint to the central linker section of the ligand. Furthermore, the ethylene bridge establishes a favorable intramolecular hydrophobic interaction with the face of the 2-trifluoromethoxyphenyl ring. Additionally, the benzothiazole ring efficiently fills the narrow portion of the hydrophobic pocket and delivers the optimal geometry for the carboxylic acid substituent to establish the essential electrostatic interaction with R331 in helix 5.

Having achieved the optimization of highly potent FXR agonists with improved rat PK, compounds **1** and **16** were selected for further evaluation in pre-clinical models of FXR activation. Compound **1** was examined in rat primary hepatocytes in an assay designed to measure the induction of FXR target genes BSEP and SHP mRNA by quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR). Robust induction of both target genes was observed in primary cells by **1** in a concentration-dependent manner (Figure 3). BSEP induction above vehicle (DMSO) control

was observed at concentrations as low as 1 nM, while strong induction of SHP (15-fold above vehicle) was observed at 10 nM, and modest induction of SHP at 1 nM (3-fold).

Compounds 1 and 16 were evaluated in a PD model designed to measure the induction of FXR target genes in the rat following a single oral dose. Both test compounds were administered orally using a range of four doses (0.03, 0.1, 0.3, and 1.0 mg/kg) and compared directly to the vehicle control group (vehicle: 0.5% methylcellulose, 0.5% Tween80, 99% water, suspension). Tissues were harvested 7 h post-dose, and mRNA was isolated from the liver and ileum and analyzed by real-time quantitative PCR using primer and probe sets specific to SHP (NR0B4), BSEP (ABCB11) and FGF15. Both compounds demonstrated robust induction of FXR target genes in a dose-dependent fashion with highly potent in vivo activity. Similar levels of induction of SHP in the liver were observed, with maximal induction of ~6-fold achieved at 1.0 mg/kg for both compounds 1 and 16, while significant BSEP induction was observed at the lower dose of 0.3 mg/kg (Figure 4). In the ileum, where FXR is also highly expressed, FXR target genes SHP and FGF15 (rodent ortholog of human FGF19) were potently induced by 16 at 0.3 mg/kg (Figure 4). Even more impressively, compound 1 demonstrated highly potent induction of SHP and FGF15 in the ileum as doses as low as 0.1 mg/kg, with mRNA levels >20-fold above vehicle treated animals (Figure 5).

In order to more extensively evaluate the pharmacological activity and PK/PD relationship of compound **1** at steady state, an integrated PK/PD study was carried out in naïve rats that were treated orally with compound **1** once daily for 14 days. Considering the potent activity observed in the previous single dose PD study, a wider range of six doses were chosen to better determine the minimally efficacious dose and exposure required for regulation of FXR target genes: 0.003, 0.01, 0.03, 0.1, 0.3, 1.0, and 3.0 mg/kg, all administered orally using a standard suspension

Journal of Medicinal Chemistry

formulation (0.5% methylcellulose, 0.5% Tween80, 99% water). Multiple plasma samples were collected from each group on days 1 and 11 for determination of pharmacokinetics. Tissues (liver and ileum) were harvested on day 14 of the study 7 h after the final dose, and mRNA was analyzed by real-time qPCR. In addition, the total compound concentrations in the liver were determined at 1 h and 7 h for each dosing group.

In the liver, robust induction of SHP was observed at 0.01 mg/kg of compound **1** with maximal levels of gene induction achieved at 0.3 mg/kg. Initial BSEP induction in the liver appeared at the lowest dose tested (0.003 mg/kg), and maximal BSEP target gene induction was achieved above 0.1 mg/kg (Figure 6). Activation of FXR in the liver resulted in the downregulation of sterol 12- α hydroxylase (CYP8B1) gene transcription, thereby reducing the conversion of cholesterol to bile acids. Expression of CYP8B1 mRNA following 14 day treatment with **1** was already apparent at the lowest dose (0.003 mg/kg), and CYP8B1 gene expression was fully repressed at doses above 0.03 mg/kg. Extrapolation of the data provided a mean ED₅₀ of approximately 0.02 mg/kg in the liver for SHP and BSEP and 0.01 mg/kg for CYP8B1 (Table 4). In the ileum, FXR target genes SHP and FGF15 are robustly induced at similarly low doses down to 0.01 mg/kg as shown in Figure 7. The mean ED₅₀ for induction of SHP in the ileum was determined to be approximately 0.01 mg/kg, while for FGF15 in the ileum ED₅₀ was around 0.05 mg/kg.

Serum triglycerides and plasma FGF15 protein levels were also analyzed, as these circulating biomarkers could potentially be utilized as clinically translatable indicators of target engagement. Activation of FXR in the ileum induces the expression of FGF15/FGF19, which is then secreted in the portal blood and signals repression of CYP7A1 expression in the liver. In agreement with the observation of increased FGF15 mRNA expression in the ileum, treatment of rats with

compound **1** exhibited a clear dose-dependent increase in plasma FGF15 protein, with maximal levels of FGF15 detected at 7 h post-dose (Figure 8). Importantly, at 24 h following the final dose, plasma FGF15 protein concentrations had normalized to baseline levels, suggesting that repeat daily administration of compound **1** does not result in the prolonged activation of FXR.

Serum triglycerides are an indirect biomarker of FXR activation, whereby FXR directly induces SHP and downregulates the transcription factor SREBP-1c which is a master regulator of fatty acid and lipid synthesis. Treatment with compound **1** for 14 days produced a robust dose-dependent reduction in serum triglycerides and reached a maximal response with a 0.3 mg/kg dose, resulting in a decrease of triglyceride levels to approximately 79% below the vehicle control group (Figure 9).

Plasma samples were collected at multiple time points (0.5, 1, 3, 7, and 24 h) on days 1 and 11 for determination of the pharmacokinetics of compound 1 in this study following the first dose and at steady state. The plasma C_{max} occurred between 3 h and 7 h, and total concentrations were generally similar on day 1 as on 11, ranging from 150 pM at the lowest dose to 171 nM at the highest dose. Compound 1 demonstrated a linear increase in exposure with increasing dose across the entire range of doses. The plasma exposures were very low at efficacious doses, with AUC ranging from 2 nM*h at the lowest dose (0.003 mg/kg) up to 1688 nM*h at the highest dose (3.0 mg/kg) (Table 5 and Figure 10). Importantly, no significant accumulation was observed at steady state following multiple days of administration compared to the exposures observed on day 1 following the initial dose.

Liver exposures were determined at the end of study on day 14 at 1 h and 7 h following the final dose (Table 6). Mean concentrations of **1** in the liver were low single digit nM levels at the lowest doses, and ranged between 600-900 nM at the highest dose. The liver concentrations

Journal of Medicinal Chemistry

averaged approximately 9-fold higher than mean plasma concentrations, with the exception of the two lowest doses, which showed somewhat higher liver:plasma concentration ratios (average of 18.5). The higher liver:plasma ratios observed at the two lowest doses may have been due to inherent variability in the quantitation methods as the plasma concentrations were well below 1 nM and near the limit of detection.

It is noteworthy that efficacy was observed at such low doses (mean ED_{50} range 0.01–0.05 mg/kg) with plasma C_{max} concentrations near 1 nM and below, especially considering that PPB of compound 1 is approximately 99.9%. This implies that the unbound concentration of 1 in the plasma is well below the cellular EC_{50} (0.26 nM) at efficacious doses. Moreover, the minimal total plasma concentrations of **1** that are sufficient to regulate FXR target gene expression in the liver and intestines are only marginally higher than the cellular EC₅₀ (day 11 C_{max} = 1.9 at 0.03) mg/kg dose). The liver concentrations of 1 at the lowest effective doses (0.01 and 0.03 mg/kg, nearest to ED₅₀ values in Table 4) ranged from 5 nM to 12 nM, which are roughly 8 to 22-fold higher than corresponding plasma concentrations at the same doses. Unbound concentrations of 1 in the liver were not determined in this study since drug concentrations were quantified from tissue homogenates, and therefore a strict PK/PD relationship for the free drug concentrations of 1 required to regulate target gene expression in tissues cannot be explicitly determined. Moreover, while this PK data suggests that the concentration of compound 1 required for pharmacological activity is within the vicinity of the cellular EC₅₀, further studies are warranted to delineate whether the pharmacodynamics of an FXR agonist regulating target gene expression is driven primarily by C_{max} or by AUC.

It is instructive to compare the minimum effective concentrations of **1** required for induction of BSEP and SHP in the liver in the rat PD model to the concentrations required in primary rat

hepatocytes (Figure 3). The liver concentrations of 1 (5–12 nM) at the lowest effective doses (0.01–0.03 mg/kg) are consistent with and in the same range as the lowest effective concentrations required in vitro to drive expression of FXR target genes BSEP and SHP in primary hepatocytes (1–10 nM range, Figure 3). Considering these relatively low total drug concentrations in the liver and very high PPB (~99.9%), it is reasonable to estimate that the efficacious free drug concentrations in the liver are likely near or possibly even below the cellular EC₅₀ (0.26 nM). This suggests the notion that the activation, or occupancy, of only a fraction of the total available receptors is required for a full agonist of FXR to elicit a pharmacological response, as is often the case for agonists of other nuclear receptors and GPCRs.

Extensive preclinical profiling demonstrated that **1** was highly selective for FXR: a broad panel screen of enzyme, ion channel, nuclear receptor, and GPCR assays showed no significant off-target activity (>10000-fold selectivity for FXR, data not shown). Importantly, compound **1** displayed no measurable activity on TGR5, the bile acid-activated GPCR (>10 μ M) (Table 7). This is significant as several recent reports have proposed that activation of TGR5 may be responsible for mediating bile acid-induced itch.^{28,29} Recent clinical trials in patients with PBC treated with OCA have established a dose-dependent relationship between OCA and the incidence and severity of pruritus.^{11,30} To further highlight the potential advantages of a non-bile acid derived FXR agonist, we also tested OCA and its primary active metabolites, the glycine and taurine conjugates of OCA in the same assay measuring TGR5 activation. Whereas OCA itself is a rather weak agonist of hTGR5 with EC₅₀ = 0.918 μ M (83% efficacy), the glycine and taurine conjugates are considerably more potent hTGR5 agonists, with EC₅₀ values 0.315 μ M and 0.205 μ M respectively, both with full (100%) efficacy versus control (Table 7).

Journal of Medicinal Chemistry

Following daily administration of OCA, the glycine and taurine conjugates of OCA undergo enterohepatic recirculation and eventually incorporate into the bile acid pool, reaching steady state serum concentrations of 13.8 and 12.3-fold higher than parent OCA itself.³¹ Moreover, at therapeutic doses of OCA, the total concentration of OCA and its taurine and glycine conjugates are near or above the EC_{50} concentrations for hTGR5 activation, which could help explain the dose-dependent relationship between OCA and pruritus.¹¹

The pharmacokinetics of compound $\mathbf{1}$ was evaluated in the mouse and in the dog, and this data is shown in Table 8 for comparison to rat PK. In the mouse, following IV administration compound **1** exhibited low clearance and small volume of distribution, similar to the rat, with a half-life of 2.6 h. In the dog, following IV injection, the clearance was low and $T_{1/2}$ was 7.4 h, also with a small volume of distribution (0.46 L/kg). Plasma samples from the dog PK studies were also monitored for any conjugated metabolites of compound 1. Only very low levels of the acylglucuronide metabolite (≤ 1 nM) could be detected in some animals, however there were no taurine or glycine conjugated metabolites of 1 observed in any of the animals. Oral bioavailability in all three species (mouse, rat, and dog) was about 10% following administration using an aqueous methylcellulose suspension formulation. The pharmacokinetic parameters from all three species were used for prediction of human PK and estimation of the efficacious human clinical dose using GastroPlus modeling and simulation software. Simulated human PK predicted human clearance to be low, with a moderate $T_{1/2}$, and oral bioavailability projected at 17%. Using the simulated human PK, the clinically efficacious human dose of compound 1 was projected to be in the range of 30 µg to 110 µg once daily, and thereby supported advancement to the clinic.

A first-in-human Phase 1 clinical study was recently completed in which the safety, tolerability, PK, and PD of compound **1** was assessed in healthy volunteers. Compound **1** was found to be generally safe and well-tolerated following single oral doses ranging from $10 \mu g$ to 3 mg. Notably, dose-dependent, transient increases in circulating levels of FGF19 protein were observed, demonstrating potent on-target FXR agonist activity. Preliminary data from this clinical study has recently been disclosed,^{32a} and detailed data and results will be published elsewhere.^{32b}

CHEMICAL SYNTHESIS OF COMPOUND 1

The synthesis of compound 1, outlined in Scheme 1, was initiated from the commercially available 2-(trifluoromethoxy)benzaldehyde (17a). Chloroxime 19a was prepared from aldehyde 17a by condensation with hydroxylamine, followed by chlorination with NCS, with both steps proceeding in high yield. Next, cycloaddition of 19a with methyl 3-cyclopropyl-3-oxopropanoate afforded the desired isoxazole 20a in moderate yield. The methyl ester was then reduced using LiAlH₄ to give the corresponding primary alcohol 21a. Subsequent bromination of alcohol 21a, followed by alkylation with N-Boc nortropine under basic conditions resulted in the Boc-protected intermediate 1f, which was then treated with TFA to afford nortropine 1g. Benzothiazole 25a was prepared in two steps from commercially available aniline 23a which was treated with NaSCN and bromine using the classical Hugerschoff reaction to generate the aminobenzothiazole 24a. Next, the aminobenzothiazole 24a was brominated under modified Sandmeyer reaction conditions using *tert*-butyl nitrite to yield the desired bromobenzothiazole 25a. N-arylation of amine 1g with 25a was carried out under mild thermal conditions using Cs₂CO₃ in DMF. Finally, saponification of the methyl ester generated the carboxylic acid 1 in

nine total linear steps. The synthesis and characterization of all other analogs is described in supporting information and in references 24 and 25.

CONCLUSION

Lead optimization successfully overcame the ADME and physicochemical liabilities of earlier phenylisoxazole FXR agonists by significantly improving the potency and modestly improving the ADME and PK properties. Compound **1** is a highly potent and efficacious non-bile acid FXR agonist that is effective at inducing FXR target genes in the liver and intestines following very low doses and systemic exposures. Compound **1** (LJN452, tropifexor) was found to be generally safe and well-tolerated at pharmacologically active doses in healthy volunteers and has progressed into clinical development where it is currently under evaluation in several Phase 2 human clinical trials in patients with PBC and NASH.^{14,15}

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Materials and Methods

Commercially available starting materials were used as supplied without further purification. Reactions were carried out using dry organic solvents (DCM, ACN, DMF, etc.) unless otherwise noted. Reactions were monitored using thin layer chromatography and an Agilent Technologies 1200 series 6140 Quadrupole LC-MS with UV detection at 254 nm in electrospray ionization (ESI) mode. For LC-MS, all retention times reported are at 254 nm UV channel unless otherwise noted. All NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker AVANCE-400 spectrometer operating at a frequency of 400.13 MHz for ¹H and 100.61 MHz for ¹³C equipped with a 5mm QNP cryoprobe with Z-gradient. Chemical shifts for ¹H and ¹³C spectra were referenced to residual solvent. MS were obtained on an Agilent Technologies 1200 series 6140 Quadrupole LC-MS in electrospray ionization (ESI) mode. HRMS-ESI data were recorded using an Agilent

6520 Accurate-Mass Q-TOF LC-MS system with HPLC-Chip Cube interface and an Agilent 1200 HPLC. All final compounds were isolated analytically pure, >99% purity by HPLC unless otherwise indicated. More information is in the Supporting Information.

N-hydroxy-2-(trifluoromethoxy)benzimidoyl chloride (19a). To a solution of sodium hydroxide (7.00 g, 175 mmol, 1.19 equiv) in water (120 mL) was added a stirred solution of NH₂OH•HCl (11.8 g, 170 mmol, 1.15 equiv) in water (120 mL) at 0 °C. The resulting solution was stirred for 10 min at 0 °C. A solution of 2-(trifluoromethoxy)benzaldehyde 17a (28.0 g, 147 mmol, 1.00 equiv) in ethanol (120 mL) was then added. The reaction was allowed to stir for an additional 1 h at room temperature, at which point it was diluted with water (500 mL). The aqueous layer was extracted with ethyl acetate $(2 \times 700 \text{ mL})$, and the organic layers were combined, washed with brine (2×300 mL), dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate, and concentrated under vacuum to give 30.0 g of (E)-2-(trifluoromethoxy)benzaldehyde oxime 18a (83% yield). The oxime **18a** was carried directly into the next step without further purification. LC-MS m/z 206.0 (M+H); method A; RT = 1.43 min. NCS (22.0 g, 166 mmol, 1.12 equiv) was slowly added to a stirred solution of (E)-2-(trifluoromethoxy) benzaldehyde oxime 18a (30.0 g, 146 mmol, 1.00 equiv) in DMF (300 mL) keeping the internal temperature below 25 °C. The reaction mixture was stirred for 1 h at room temperature, and then diluted with water (300 mL) and extracted with ethyl acetate (2×500 mL). The organic layers were combined, washed with brine $(5 \times 300 \text{ mL})$, dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate, and concentrated under vacuum to give 35.0 g of N-hydroxy-2-(trifluoromethoxy)benzimidoyl chloride **19a** as a light yellow residue (99% yield). This material was used directly in the next step without further purification. ¹H NMR (d_4 -MeOD, 400 MHz) δ 7.95 – 7.90 (m, 1H), 7.83 (d, J = 7.6, 1H), 7.62– 7.43 (m, 2H). LC-MS m/z 240.0 (M+H); method A; RT = 2.03 min.

Methyl 5-cvclopropyl-3-(2-(trifluoromethoxy)phenyl)isoxazole-4-carboxylate (20a). Potassium carbonate (11.0 g, 79.7 mmol, 1.09 equiv) was suspended in THF (100 mL), and the mixture was cooled to -10 °C and treated with a solution of methyl 3-cyclopropyl-3oxopropanoate (11.0 g, 77.5 mmol, 1.06 equiv) in THF (50 mL) dropwise over 5 minutes. To this reaction mixture was then added a solution of N-hydroxy-2-(trifluoromethoxy)benzimidoyl chloride 19a (17.6 g, 73.6 mmol, 1.0 equiv) in THF (50 mL) and monitored to ensure that the internal temperature did not exceed -5 °C during the time of the addition. Following this addition, the reaction was warmed to 35 °C. Upon cooling, the reaction mixture was diluted with water (200 mL) and extracted with ethyl acetate (2×300 mL). The organic layer was washed with brine $(2 \times 200 \text{ mL})$, dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate, concentrated under vacuum, and then purified by silica gel column chromatography using ethyl acetate/petroleum ether (1:100-1:20) to afford methyl 5-cyclopropyl-3-(2-(trifluoromethoxy)phenyl)isoxazole-4-carboxylate 20a as a white solid, 12.5 g (52% yield), M.P. 145–150 °C (broad). ¹H NMR (d_4 -MeOD, 400 MHz) δ 7.65–7.60 (m, 1H), 7.53 (dd, J = 7.6, 2Hz, 1H), 7.48–7.43 (m, 2H), 3.68 (s, 3H), 2.89 (pentet, J = 6.8Hz, 1H), 1.30 (app br d, J = 6.8 Hz, 4H). LC-MS m/z 328.1 (M+H); method A; RT = 2.91 min.

(5-Cyclopropyl-3-(2-(trifluoromethoxy)phenyl)isoxazol-4-yl)-methanol (21a). A 250-mL round-bottom flask was purged and maintained with an inert atmosphere of nitrogen, and then charged with a suspension of LiAlH₄ (2.50 g, 65.8 mmol, 2.87 equiv) in THF (50 mL). A solution of methyl 5-cyclopropyl-3-(2-(trifluoromethoxy)phenyl) isoxazole-4-carboxylate **20a** (7.50 g, 22.9 mmol, 1.00 equiv) in tetrahydrofuran (50 mL) was added dropwise at -10 °C. The resulting solution was stirred for 30 min at -10 °C, and the reaction was quenched by the sequential addition of ethyl acetate (3 mL), water (3 mL), and 15% aqueous NaOH (10 mL).

The resulting mixture was filtered through celite, and the filter cake was washed with ethyl acetate (200 mL). The filtrate was washed with brine (2×100 mL), dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate, and concentrated under vacuum, affording 7 g of (5-cyclopropyl-3-(2-(trifluoromethoxy)phenyl)isoxazol-4-yl)methanol **21a** as yellow oil, (93% yield). ¹H NMR (CDCl₃, 400 MHz) δ 7.57–7.55 (m, 2H), 7.41–7.40 (m, 2H), 4.50 (s, 2H), 2.22–2.20 (m, 1H), 1.72 (s, 1H) 1.11–1.28 (m, 4H). LC-MS *m/z* 300.1 (M+H); method B; RT = 1.69 min.

3-((5-cyclopropyl-3-(2-(trifluoromethoxy)phenyl)isoxazol-4-yl)methoxy)-8-*Tert*-Butyl azabicyclo[3.2.1]octane-8-carboxylate (1f). Into a 100 mL round bottom flask was placed (5cyclopropyl-3-(2-(trifluoromethoxy)phenyl)isoxazol-4-yl)-methanol **21a** (4.00 g, 13.3 mmol), triphenylphosphine (5.6 g, 20 mmol, 1.5 equiv), and dichloromethane (40 mL). The mixture was stirred until completely dissolved and then slowly added dropwise to a solution of carbon tetrabromide (6.6 g, 20 mmol, 1.5 equiv) in dichloromethane (20 ml). The reaction was stirred for 1 h, and the solvent was evaporated in vacuo. The crude material was purified by silica gel chromatography using a gradient of ethyl acetate/hexanes (0-50%). The bromide **22a** was obtained as a clear oil (4.18 g, 87% yield) and then used immediately (owing to stability) in the next step. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃, 400 MHz) δ 7.55–7.50 (m, 1H), 7.49–7.45 (m, 1H), 7.40–7.32 (m, 2H), 4.27 (s, 2H), 2.11–1.99 (m, 1H), 1.24–1.17 (m, 2H), 1.17–1.09 (m, 2H). LC-MS m/z362.0/364.0 (M + H); (Br isotope pattern); method B; RT = 1.62 min. Into a dry 250-mL flask was placed N-Boc nortropine (2.9 g, 13 mmol), 18-crown-6 (3.4 g, 12 mmol) and anhydrous THF (80 mL). Potassium tert-butoxide (2.9 g, 26 mmol) was added portionwise, and the mixture stirred vigorously under nitrogen for 1h. 4-(Bromomethyl)-5-cyclopropyl-3-(2was (trifluoromethoxy)-phenyl)isoxazole 22a (4.18 g, 11.6 mmol) was dissolved in anhydrous THF (20 mL) and added dropwise. The reaction mixture was stirred overnight under a positive

Journal of Medicinal Chemistry

nitrogen pressure. The solvent was removed *in vacuo*, and the mixture was diluted with water (100 mL) and ethyl acetate (100 mL). The organic layer was separated, dried (MgSO₄), evaporated under vacuum, and then purified by silica gel chromatography using a gradient of ethyl acetate/hexanes (0–100%) to provide the desired product as a yellow oil, 4.07 g (69% yield). ¹H NMR (DMSOd₆, 400 MHz) δ 7.98–7.64 (m, 3H), 7.64 (app d, *J* = 7.6, 1H), 4.38 (s, 2H), 3.82 (bs, 2H), 3.56 (t, *J* = 4.5Hz, 1H), 2.36–1.98 (m, 3H), 1.82–1.70 (m, 6H), 1.15 (s, 9H), 1.14–1.07 (m, 4H). LC-MS *m*/z 509.2 (M+H); method A; RT = 2.42 min.

4-((8-Azabicyclo[3.2.1]octan-3-yloxy)methyl)-5-cyclopropyl-3-(2-

(trifluoromethoxy)phenyl)isoxazole (1g). *tert*-Butyl-3-((5-cyclopropyl-3-(2-(trifluoromethoxy)phenyl)isoxazol-4-yl)methoxy)-8-azabicyclo[3.2.1]octane-8-carboxylate 1f (3.98 g) was dissolved in a solution of 20% TFA in dichloromethane (30 mL). The solution was stirred for 1 h at room temperature, and then the solvent was evaporated. The residue was dissolved in ethyl acetate (125 mL) and washed with a saturated solution of sodium bicarbonate (100 mL). The organic layer was dried with anhydrous sodium sulfate and evaporated *in vacuo*. The crude residue was purified by silica gel chromatography using a gradient of 0–20% ethanol/dichloromethane to afford 3.01 g of the desired product 1g as a colorless oil (94% yield). ¹H NMR (DMSOd₆, 400 MHz) δ 8.51 (br s, 1H, NH), 7.72–7.68 (m, 1H), 7.64 (dd, *J* = 7.6, 1.8Hz, 1H), 7.58–7.52 (m, 2H), 4.33 (s, 2H), 3.81 (bs, 2H), 3.55 (t, *J* = 4.5Hz, 1H), 2.36–2.33 (m, 1H), 1.98 (app dt, *J* = 14.8, 4.0 Hz, 2H), 1.91–1.76 (m, 6H), 1.14–1.07 (m, 4H). LC-MS *m/z* 409.2 (M+H); method A; RT = 1.72 min.

2-(3-((5-cyclopropyl-3-(2-(trifluoromethoxy)phenyl)isoxazol-4-yl)methoxy)-8-

azabicyclo[3.2.1]octan-8-yl)-4-fluorobenzo[d]thiazole-6-carboxylic acid (1). Into a 25-mL round-bottom flask equipped with a stir bar, the following were added sequentially: 4-((8-

azabicyclo[3.2.1]octan-3-yloxy)methyl)-5-cyclopropyl-3-(2-(trifluoromethoxy)phenyl)isoxazole 1g (0.525 g, 1.29 mmol), 3.6 mL of DMA, cesium carbonate (1.08 g, 3.31 mmol), and methyl 2chloro-4-methoxybenzo[d]thiazole-6-carboxylate 25a (synthesis in the Supporting Information, 1.12 g, 3.87 mmol). After the resulting slurry was stirred at room temperature for 10 minutes, the mixture was warmed to 60 °C and stirred for 1 h. The reaction was then allowed to cool to room temperature, and it was diluted with 200 mL of ethyl acetate and washed with water (3×30 mL). The organic solvent extract was concentrated under vacuum and purified using by silica gel chromatography (40 g silica column) with a gradient of ethyl acetate/hexanes (10–60%, 15 min gradient). Desired fractions were concentrated under vacuum, and the resulting residue crystallized upon standing to furnish 0.60 g of desired intermediate methyl ester **1h** (75% yield). ¹H NMR (DMSOd₆, 400 MHz) δ 8.13 (d, J = 1.6 Hz, 1H), 7.67–7.59 (m, 3H), 7.54–7.50 (m, 2H), 4.41 (s, 2H), 4.31 (bs, 2H), 3.90 (s, 3H), 3.60 (t, J = 4.8 Hz, 1H), 2.31–2.25 (m, 1H), 2.10 (app dt, J =14.8, 4.0 Hz, 2H), 2.02–1.91 (m, 4H), 1.83 (app d, J =14.8 Hz, 2H), 1.19–1.15 (m, 4H). LC-MS m/z 618.2 (M+H); method A; RT = 3.26 min. Into a 25-mL round-bottom flask equipped with a stir bar was added sequentially: the methyl ester **1h** (0.55 g, 0.89 mmol), THF (4.0 mL), MeOH (2.0 mL), and 3 N aqueous KOH solution (1 mL, 3 mmol). The resulting homogenous solution was stirred for 1 h at 70 °C and then allowed to cool to room temperature. The reaction was quenched with AcOH (0.2 mL of glacial acetic acid, 3 mmol) until pH=6 was achieved as monitored by pH-strip paper (Whatman class type CF Cat. No 2613991). The resulting solution was diluted with ethyl acetate (40 mL) and washed with water (3×5 mL). The ethyl acetate layer was concentrated down to an oily residue via vacuum in a 40 mL Wheaton glass vial, and this oil was then dissolved into MeOH (6 mL). The resulting homogenous solution soon began to crystallize and allowed to stand for 2.5 h. The mother liquor was

Journal of Medicinal Chemistry

withdrawn, and the crystals were washed with ice cold MeOH (3×2 mL). The crystals were dried under vacuum (10 mm Hg pressure at 45 °C overnight). A first crop of crystals (516 mg, 91% yield) were harvested and shown to be the methanol solvate by elemental analysis. Elemental Analysis as the methanol solvate: ($C_{30}H_{29}F_4N_3O_6S$): C 56.69, H 4.60, N 6.61; Found: C 56.79, H 4.61, N 6.65. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃, 400 MHz, for the methanol solvate) δ (d, J = 2.0 Hz, 1H), 7.76 (dd, J = 9.0, 1.0 Hz, 1H), 7.57–7.50 (m, 2H), 7.43–7.36 (m, 2H), 4.37 (s, 2H), 4.35 (bs, 2H), 3.60 (t, J = 4.8 Hz, 1H), 3.50 (br s, 3H, peak corresponding to the presence of the methanol solvate), 2.19–2.10 (m, 3H), 2.03–1.90 (m, 4H), 1.83 (app d, J = 12.8 Hz, 2H), 1.22–1.19 (m, 2H), 1.15– 1.09 (m, 2H). LC-MS m/z 604.2 (M + 1).

The methanol solvate form of **1** was converted into a solvate-free crystalline form using the following procedure: The methanol solvate of **1** (500 mg) was fully dissolved in dry acetonitrile (50 mL) with gentle heating for 8 minutes (60 °C). This solution was allowed to stand for 4 days to crystallize. Upon drying, 484 mg of crystals were obtained with two collection crops. High Resolution Mass Spectroscopic analysis, 604.1514 for the $[M+H]^+$ ion is consistent with the molecular formula C₂₉ H₂₅ F₄ N₃O₅S, with a deviation of 1.6 ppm from the calculated $[M+H]^+$ ion mass of 604.1530. Purity was found to be >99 % by LC-MS analysis, two separate protocols. First protocol: $[M+H]^+ = 604.2$ using LC-MS method A, RT = 3.22 min. Second LC-MS method B, RT = 2.21 min, MS *m*/*z* 604.1 (M+H). IR (cm⁻¹): major stretches at 1679 (C=O stretch), 1242 (C-O-C stretch), 1213 (C-N stretch), 1167 (C-F stretch). Elemental Analysis of solvate free form (C₂₉H₂₅F₄N₃O₅S): C 57.71, H 4.18, N 6.96; Found: C: 57.66, H: 4.20, N: 6.94. ¹H NMR (DMSOd₆, 400 MHz) δ 12.96 (br s,1H), 8.20 (d, *J* = 1.5 Hz, 1H), 7.69–7.66 (m, 1H), 7.64 (dd, J = 7.6, 1.7 Hz, 1H), 7.59–7.57 (m, 1H), 7.56–7.55 (m, 1H), 7.54 (d, *J* = 1.1 Hz, 1H), 4.34 (s, 2H), 4.22 (app d, *J* = 5.7 Hz, 2H), 3.55 (t, *J* = 4.7 Hz, 1H), 2.34 (tt, *J* = 8.39, 5.18, 1H), 2.01–1.95

(m, 2H), 1.86–1.82 (m, 4H), 1.75 (app d, J = 14.5 Hz, 2H), 1.16–1.13 (m, 2H), 1.10–1.07 (m, 2H). ¹⁹F (DMSOd₆, 376 MHz) –126.4, –56.3 ppm. ¹³C (DMSOd₆, 100 MHz) 171.79, 166.77, 166.37, 159.41, 151.70 (d, J = 249 Hz), 146.35, 145.10, 133.65 (d, J = 5.2 Hz), 132.26, 132.11, 128.25, 124.09, 123.22, 121.88, 120.40 (q, J = 258.3 Hz), 119.78, 113.39 (dd, J = 19.2, 2.4 Hz), 112.11, 72.35, 59.68, 57.28, 33.68, 27.91, 8.43, 7.50. M.P. = 221 °C sharp, corrected. Assignment table for proton and carbon spectra is in the Supporting information.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI:

Experimental procedures and analytical data for the synthesis of all compounds and Molecular Formula Strings; FXR-HTRF coactivator interaction biochemical assay; FXR BSEP-luc reporter gene cellular assay; rat in vitro hepatocyte gene expression assay; PK protocols; in vivo rat PD study protocols. (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors thank David Jones for NMR assistance, Vivian Wang for technical assistance, Wendy Richmond and Perry Gordon for formulation support, Barbara Saechao for bioanalytical support, and Glen Spraggon for X-ray crystallography.

ABBREVIATIONS

FXR, Farnesoid X Receptor; NASH, nonalcoholic steatohepatitis; PBC, primary biliary cholangitis; PFIC, progressive familial intrahepatic cholestasis; BSEP, bile salt export pump; UDCA, ursodeoxycholic acid or ursodiol, SHP, short heterodimer partner; FGF15/FGF19, fibroblast growth factor 15/19; FGFR4; fibroblast growth factor receptor 4; LDL, low-density lipoprotein; MAPK, mitogen-activated protein kinase; CYP7A1, cytochrome P450 7A1 or cholesterol 7 α-hydroxylase, SREPB-1c, Sterol regulatory element-binding protein 1c; TGR5, G protein-coupled bile acid receptor 1 (GPBAR1); GPCR, G protein–coupled receptor; OCA, obeticholic acid; HTRF, Homogeneous Time Resolved Fluorescence; MDR3, multidrug resistance protein 3; ABCB4/ABCB11, ATP-binding cassette, sub-family B member 4/11; NR1H4, nuclear receptor subfamily 1, group H, member 4; SRC1, Steroid Receptor Coactivator-1, HLM, human liver microsomes; RLM, rat liver microsomes; FASSIF, fasted state simulated intestinal fluid; qPCR, quantitative polymerase chain reaction;

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Figure 1. Examples of FXR agonists reported in the literature.



Figure 2. Model of 1 docked into FXR ligand binding domain, from X-ray structure of PDB code: 3DCT.



Figure 3. Induction of FXR target genes BSEP and SHP in vitro in rat primary hepatocytes by compound **1**. Primary rat hepatocytes were treated for 24 h with compound **1** or vehicle only, and gene expression was determined by real-time quantitative PCR. * $p\leq0.01$, ** $p\leq0.001$, and *** $p\leq0.0001$ compared to vehicle by one-way ANOVA.



Figure 4. Induction of FXR target genes SHP and BSEP in rat liver by compounds 1 and 16 following single oral dose. Dose in mg/kg; vehicle 0.5% methylcellulose, 0.5% Tween80, 99% water, suspension. *p \leq 0.01 versus vehicle by one-way ANOVA.



Figure 5. Induction of FXR target genes SHP and FGF15 in rat ileum by compounds 1 and 16 following single oral dose. Dose in mg/kg; vehicle 0.5% methylcellulose, 0.5% Tween80, 99% water, suspension. $\#p \le 0.05$ and $\#p \le 0.01$ vs. vehicle by one-way ANOVA.



Figure 6. Induction of FXR target genes SHP, BSEP, and CYP8B1 in rat liver following oral administration of compound **1** once daily for 14 days. Dose in mg/kg; vehicle 0.5% methylcellulose, 0.5% Tween80, 99% water, suspension. * $p\leq0.01$ and ** $p\leq0.001$ versus vehicle by one-way ANOVA.



Figure 7. Induction of FXR target genes SHP and FGF15 in rat liver following oral administration of compound **1** once daily for 14 days. Dose in mg/kg; vehicle 0.5% methylcellulose, 0.5% Tween80, 99% water, suspension. * $p\leq0.01$ and ** $p\leq0.001$ versus vehicle by one-way ANOVA.



Figure 8. Plasma FGF15 levels on day 14, at 1 h, 7 h, and 24 h following oral administration of compound **1** once daily for 14 days. Dose in mg/kg; vehicle 0.5% methylcellulose, 0.5% Tween80, 99% water, suspension.

0.

0.3

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Figure 10. Steady state pharmacokinetics (day 11) of compound 1; mean total plasma concentration versus time profiles (n = 3).

Entry	Structure	cLogD	FXR HTRF EC ₅₀ (nM) (% efficacy)	FXR BSEP- Luciferase EC ₅₀ (nM) (% efficacy)	Solubility pH=6.8 FASSIF (µM)	Metabolic stability RLM, HLM (ER)
OCA	HO' CH	2.8	10 (96)	42 (63)	_	_
2		5.4	19 (100)	95 (100)	_	-
5	CI C	3.2	8.3 (96)	9.5 (118)	61	0.58, 0.81
6	F F F OH	2.2	31 (84)	88 (92)	169	0.52, 0.27
7	F3C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C	2.9	66 (97)	70 (103)	131	0.50, 0.38
8	F.CO	3.1	19 (97)	19 (100)	70	<0.18, <0.21
9	F,cor N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N	2.1	1580 (69)	8400 (63)	_	_
10		2.8	3060 (47)	9200 (46)	-	-
11	F ₃ CO N O O O O N N S O O H	3.5	4.2 (120)	6.6 (108)	126	0.75, 0.89

Table 1. Optimization of phenyl substituent and linker.^a



^aValues are the mean of three or more experiments

 Table 2. Rat PK data of selected FXR agonists.

	Intr	avenous	a	Oral A	dministı	ration ^b
Compoun d	CL (mL/min/ kg)	V _{ss} (L/kg)	T _{1/2} (h)	AUC (h*nM)	C _{max} (nM)	F (%)
5	50	0.55	0.34	390	44	6
8	24	1.2	1.0	4571	382	37
12	17	1.1	1.0	1923	173	11
13	14	0.84	1.0	832	86	3
14	9	0.26	0.7	2670	1988	9
1	9	0.72	3.7	6042	2279	20
15	11	0.70	3.7	3446	2121	14
16	11	0.60	1.8	3636	2108	14

^a(3 mg/kg) 75%PEG300:25%D5W, solution; ^b(10 mg/kg) solution vehicle: 75% PEG300:25% D5W (compounds **5**, **8**, **12**, **13**) or microemulsion vehicle: water (90%), cremophor RH40 (4.5%), corn oil (1.8%), PEG400 (2.7%), ethanol (1%), (compounds **1**, **14**, **15**, **16**).





Entry	R ¹	R ²	cLogD	pKa (carboxylic acid)	FXR HTRF EC ₅₀ (nM) (% efficacy)	FXR BSEP- Luciferase EC ₅₀ (nM) (% efficacy)	Solubility pH=6.8 FASSIF (µM)	Metabolic stability RLM, HLM (ER)
12	-OCF ₃	-H	3.40	5.1	0.54 (93)	0.69 (89)	110	0.51, <0.20
13	-OCF ₃	-Me	3.9	5.5	0.49 (91)	0.82 (79)	< 10	<0.18, <0.21
14	-OCF ₃	-OMe	3.4	4.5	0.57 (78)	0.42 (89)	75	0.50, 0.64
1	-OCF ₃	F	3.5	4.0	0.20 (92)	0.26 (89)	600	<0.18, 0.55
15	-OCHF ₂	F	2.7	4.0	0.27 (92)	0.80 (87)	750	0.40, 0.61
16	-CF ₃	F	3.3	4.0	0.46 (90)	0.54 (77)	510	0.19, 0.36

^aValues are the mean of three or more experiments

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Table 4. Mean ED_{50} at 7 h for selected FXR target genes in liver and ileum following oral administration of compound **1** once daily for 14 days.

Gene	ED ₅₀ at 7h	CV (%)	
(mRNA)	(mg/kg)		
Liver SHP	0.02	28.9	
Liver BSEP	0.02	34.6	

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Liver CYP8B1	0.01	64.0
Ileum SHP	0.01	75.8
Ileum FGF15	0.05	32.8

Table 5. Steady state pharmacokinetics (days 1 and 11) of compound 1; mean C_{max} and AUC(0-24h) (n = 3).

Day	C _{max} (nM)	AUC(0-24hr)	AUC(0-24h) / Dose	Accumulation
		nM*hr		AUC day 11 / day1
1	0.15	2	668	
11	0.26	2	756	1.1
1	0.44	4	443	
11	0.79	5	496	1.1
1	1.5	15	503	
11	1.9	20	658	1.3
1	4.6	41	410	
11	7.1	80	796	1.9
1	13.5	117	390	
11	14.8	190	633	1.6
1	39.3	461	461	
11	43.1	562	562	1.2
1	171.8	1344	448	
11	127.1	1688	563	1.3
	Day	Day C_{max} (nM) 1 0.15 11 0.26 1 0.44 11 0.79 1 1.5 11 1.9 1 4.6 11 7.1 1 13.5 11 14.8 1 39.3 11 43.1 1 171.8 11 127.1	Day C_{max} (nM) AUC(0-24hr) nM*hr nM*hr 1 0.15 2 11 0.26 2 1 0.44 4 11 0.79 5 1 1.5 15 11 1.9 20 1 4.6 41 11 7.1 80 1 13.5 117 11 14.8 190 1 39.3 461 11 43.1 562 1 171.8 1344 11 127.1 1688	Day C_{max} (nM) AUC(0-24hr) AUC(0-24h) / Dose 1 0.15 2 668 11 0.26 2 756 1 0.44 4 443 11 0.79 5 496 1 1.5 15 503 11 1.9 20 658 1 4.6 41 410 11 7.1 80 796 1 13.5 117 390 11 14.8 190 633 1 39.3 461 461 11 43.1 562 562 1 171.8 1344 448 11 127.1 1688 563

Table 6. Mean plasma and liver concentrations of compound 1 at steady state, 1 h and 7 h post

 dose, following oral administration once daily for 14 days.

Dose	Time	Tissue	Mean Conc.	SD	
(mg/kg)	(h)		(<i>nM</i>)	(<i>nM</i>)	Ratio Liver/Plasma
	1	plasma	0.20	0.10	15
0.003		liver	2.92	0.35	_ `
<u>-</u>	7	plasma	0.12	0.06	20
		liver	2.30	0.66	
	1	plasma	0.37	0.15	22
0.01	-	liver	8.35	0.51	
-	7	plasma	0.31	0.07	17
	,	liver	5.18	0.71	
	1	plasma	1.29	0.21	9
0.03	1	liver	11.86	3.35	_
-	7	plasma	1.16	0.49	8
	,	liver	9.74	1.26	0
	1	plasma	3.95	1.17	7
0.1	1	liver	27.35	10.48	9 8 7 9 12
0.1	7	plasma	4.89	1.01	0
	,	liver	44.98	9.67	
	1	plasma	6.84	0.34	10
0.3	1	liver	84.46	3.64	12
0.5	7	plasma	13.78	1.52	7
	7	liver	92.78	6.91	
	1	plasma	16.41	2.16	10
1.0	1	liver	159.11	45.58	10
1.0 -	7	plasma	40.54	18.31	6
	1	liver	229.84	44.40	0
	1	plasma	62.61	1.97	1.4
2.0	1	liver	872.12	405.26	14
3.0		plasma	114.72	17.88	
	7	liver	639.75	235.68	6



Compound	hTGR5	mTGR5		
	$EC_{50}(\mu M)$	$EC_{50}(\mu M)$		
	(% vs control)	(% vs control)		
1	> 10	> 10		
OCA	0.918 (83%)	5.74 (68%)		
OCA-taurine conjugate	0.205 (102%)	0.906 (97%)		
OCA-glycine conjugate	0.315 (101%)	0.637 (98%)		

Table 8. PK profile of 1 across multiple species.

Property	Mouse	Rat	Dog
Dose	IV = 5	IV = 3	IV = 0.5
(mg/kg)	PO = 10	PO = 1	PO = 2
IV CL (mL/min/kg	5.3	9.3	1.5
V _{ss} (L/kg)	0.70	0.72	0.46
IV $T_{1/2}(h)$	2.6	3.7	7.4
Oral AUC (h*nM)	4785	307	3660
Oral C _{max} (nM)	1186	53	332
Oral F (%)	9.2	10	10
PPB (% Bound)	~99.9	~99.9	~99.9

^aIV (3 mg/kg) 75% PEG300:25% D5W, solution (mouse and rat); 20% PEG300, 5% Solutol, 75% carbonate buffer pH=8, solution (dog); PO Vehicle 0.5% methylcellulose, 0.5% Tween80, 99% water, suspension (mouse, rat and dog)



Scheme 1. Synthesis of compound 1, reagents and conditions. a) NH₂OH•HCl, H₂O, 10 min, 0 °C, 83%; b) NCS, DMF, 1 h, 25 °C, 99%; c) K₂CO₃, methyl 3-cyclopropyl-3-oxopropanoate, THF, -5 °C to 35 °C, 52%; d) LiAlH₄, THF, -10 °C, 30 min, 93%; e) CBr₄, PPh₃, THF, 1h, rt, 87%; f) N-Boc nortropine, 18-crown-6, THF, potassium *tert*-butoxide, 18 h, rt, 69%; g) TFA, DCM, 1h, rt, 94%; h) **25a**, Cs₂CO₃, DMA, 1 h, rt to 60 °C, 75%; i) KOH, MeOH, THF, 1 h, 70 °C, 91%; l) NaSCN, AcOH, Br₂, 0 °C to 30 °C over 48 h 66%; m) CuBr₂, MeCN, *t*-BuONO, 0 °C to 30 °C, 48h, 24%.

