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Orally Bioavailable, Indole-Based Nonpeptide GnRH Receptor Antagonists with High Potency and Functional Activity

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Abstract—Stereospecific introduction of a methyl group to the indole-3-side chain enhanced activity in our tryptamine-derived series of GnRH receptor antagonists. Further improvements were achieved by variation of the bicyclic amino moiety of the tertiary amide and by adjustment of the tether length to a pyridine or pyridone terminus. These modifications culminated in analogue 24, which had oral activity in a rat model and acceptable oral bioavailability and half-life in dogs and monkeys. © 2001 Elsevier Science Ltd. All rights reserved.

Orally active, nonpeptide receptor antagonists of gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH; also known as luteinizing hormone-releasing hormone, or LHRH) represent a new class of experimental pharmaceuticals. They could possess advantages over existing therapies for chronic suppression of sex hormone levels, as in the treatment of certain hormone-dependent cancers, uterine fibroids, and endometriosis, or for short-term applications, as in assisted reproduction protocols.¹ Building upon previous work from these laboratories,² we have reported³ that the tryptamine derivative **1a** is an effective GnRH antagonist in vitro. Introduction of a chiral methyl substituent, as in 1b, has recently been achieved.⁴ We now present a structure-activity study of amides related to $1b^4$ and its chain-shortened analogue 1c.⁴



For the first series of compounds, containing a fourcarbon tether between the side-chain amine and the pyridine ring, the (S)- β -methyltryptamine derivative 2^{4a} was reacted with 4-(4-pyridyl)butyraldehyde $(3)^3$ under reductive amination conditions^{2e,3} to give 4 (Scheme 1). Saponification of the ester and coupling with amines in the presence of PyBOP reagent as previously described^{2e,3}



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Scheme 1. Conditions: (i) (a) MgSO₄, CDCl₃, -5 to -10 °C; (b) NaBH₄, MeOH, -5 °C; (ii) as described in refs 2e and 3.

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yielded the desired amides 5–20. Noncommercial amines were prepared by literature methods. $^{5-15}$

Analogues with a two-carbon, side-chain tether were obtained by acylation of **2** with pyridylacetic acids in the presence of PyBOP (Scheme 2). Reduction of the amides **21** with borane furnished the secondary amines **22**. Further transformation as described for Scheme 1 yielded the targets **23–25**.

Scheme 3 outlines the preparation of a series of analogues of 24 and 25 in which the unsubstituted pyridine ring is replaced by related heterocycles. Boc protection of the amino group of 2 followed by saponification of the ester yielded 26. Treatment with isoquinuclidine hydrochloride¹³ in the presence of PyBOP gave 27. After deprotection with trifluoroacetic acid, the resulting amine was reacted with 2,4-dinitrobenzenesulfonyl chloride under modified Schotten–Baumann conditions to afford the activated sulfonamide 28. Using the



Scheme 2. Conditions: (i) 4- or 3-pyridylacetic acid hydrochloride, PyBOP, Et₃N, 1,2-dichloroethane; (ii) (a) BH₃, THF; (b) MeOH; (c) $Me_2N(CH_2)_2OH$, Δ ; (iii) as described in refs 2e and 3.



Scheme 3. Conditions: (i) Boc_2O , K_2CO_3 , $THF-H_2O$; (ii) (a) KOH, MeOH-H₂O, Δ ; (b) H⁺; (iii) isoquinuclidine hydrochloride, PyBOP, Et₃N, CH₂Cl₂; (iv) (a) TFA, anisole, CH₂Cl₂; (b) aq Na₂CO₃; (v) 2,4dinitrobenzenesulfonyl chloride, satd aq NaHCO₃, CH₂Cl₂; (vi) Ph₃P, DEAD, benzene; (vii) PrNH₂.

Fukuyama variation of the Mitsunobu reaction,¹⁶ **28** was *N*-alkylated with heterocyclic ethanols **29**. Deprotection of the resulting **30** with neat propylamine¹⁶ furnished the new derivatives **31–37** and also provided an alternative route to **24**.

The synthesis of intermediate alcohols 29 is illustrated in Scheme 4. Isomeric pyridones 38 and 39 were prepared and separated by the method of Möhrle and Weber.¹⁷ Hydrogenation of **39** over palladium on carbon furnished 40. By a procedure analogous to that reported for **39**,¹⁷ 2-(3-pyridyl)ethanol **41**¹⁷ was quaternized by treatment with chloromethyl methyl ether to give 42, which was then reacted with potassium ferricyanide and sodium hydroxide. The desired pyridone 43, after separation from the isomeric product 44, was converted to 33 by the methods of Scheme 3. Acid hydrolysis removed the methoxymethyl group to yield 34. Commercial aminopyridine 45 was diazotized and hydrolyzed to 46,¹⁸ then *N*-methylated with methyl iodide in the presence of methanolic potassium hydroxide to give 47.19 Next, the vinyl group was introduced by a Stille coupling, yielding 48. Reaction with N-bromosuccinimide in aqueous DMSO provided bromo alcohol 49. Treatment with potassium carbonate resulted in formation of an epoxide (not isolated), which was reduced regiospecifically to alcohol 50 with ammonium formate and palladium catalyst. A similar reaction sequence converted 5-bromo-2-methoxypyridine (51) to the hydroxyethyl derivative 52.



Scheme 4. Conditions: (i) H_2 , Pd/C, EtOH; (ii) MeOCH₂Cl, CH₂Cl₂, 0°C; (iii) K₃Fe(CN)₆, NaOH, H₂O, 0°C; (iv) as in Scheme 3; (v) (a) concd HCl–EtOH (1:3), Δ ; (b) aq Na₂CO₃; (vi) NaNO₂, aq H₂SO₄, 0–50°C; (vii) MeI, KOH, MeOH, Δ ; (viii) Bu₃SnCH=CH₂, (Ph₃P)₂PdCl₂, DMF; (ix) NBS, DMSO–H₂O; (x) K₂CO₃, DMF–H₂O; (xi) ammonium formate, Pd/C, EtOH.

 R^1R^2N R³ hGnRH IC50 (nM)a PI turnover IC50 (nM)b Compd Amine source 1a^c Ref 5 Н 1.4 18 $\overset{\sim}{\sim}^{\mathsf{z}}$ 1b^d Ref 5 Me 0.7 5.7 5 21 Ref 6 Me 0.7 39 6 Ref 7 Me 1.3 7 Ref 8 Me 2.7 93 8 Comm.e Me 0.6 66 9 Comm.e Me 6.1 220 10 Ref 9 4.4 124 EtSO₂N Me 11 Comm.e Me 5.6 14 12 Ref 10 Me 1.4 66 13 Comm.e Me 21 31 14 Ref 11 Me 0.8 8.8 f 15 Me 0.4 8.7 f 16 1.04.0 Me 2.8 17 Ref 13 Me 1.018 Ref 14 2.1 13 Me 19 Ref 15 Me 4.8 6.8 20 Comm.e Me 4.8 6.4

Table 1. Inhibition of GnRH receptor binding and PI turnover by tryptamine derivatives with four-carbon tether to pyridine ring

^aInhibition of [¹²⁵I]buserelin binding to human pituitary GnRH receptor.

^dRef 4a.

^eCommercial.

^bInhibition of GnRH-stimulated [³H]inositol phosphate hydrolysis.

^cRef 3.

^fMade from commercial lactam precursor by method in ref 12.





Compd	R^1R^2N	Pyridine linkage	hGnRH IC ₅₀ (nM) ^a	PI turnover $IC_{50} (nM)^b$
1c ^c		4	0.8	7.0
23	H ₁ L ₁ L	4	1.2	1.9
24	A.	4	0.6	7.2
25	A.	3	0.6	2.6

^aInhibition of [¹²⁵I]buserelin binding to human pituitary GnRH receptor.

^bInhibition of GnRH-stimulated [³H]inositol phosphate hydrolysis. ^cRef 4b.

Compounds were evaluated for their ability to compete with the GnRH receptor agonist [¹²⁵I]buserelin for binding to the human GnRH receptor²⁰ in the presence of 0.1% BSA. In addition, functional antagonism in vitro was determined via inhibition of GnRH-stimulated phosphatidylinositol (PI) hydrolysis in cloned Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells stably expressing the human GnRH receptor.²⁰

The beneficial effect of the (S)- β -methyl substituent on the tryptamine side chain was apparent (cf. $1b^4$ vs $1a^3$) Table 1). Optimization of the tertiary amide substituent at the indole-5-position, which had been studied in the absence of the $\hat{\beta}$ -methyl substituent,³ was reinvestigated here (Table 1). Compared to the 7-azanorbornane lead 1b,⁴ gem-dimethyl or spiro-fused azetidines or piperidines (5-8) generally maintained high affinity to the human GnRH receptor but clearly suffered a reduction in potency in the PI turnover functional assay. The piperazines 9 and 10 proved to be even more detrimental in the PI assay. In contrast, the diisobutyl amide 11, although not especially potent in the binding assay, was relatively effective in the functional assay $(IC_{50} = 14 \text{ nM})$. Whereas the fused pyrrolidines 12 and 13 did not produce favorable results, the products from several bicyclic amines 14-20 were effective GnRH antagonists, with all but 18 having functional IC_{50} values below 10 nM. Particularly noteworthy was the isoquinuclidine amide 17, which had IC₅₀ values of 1.0 and 2.8 nM in the binding and functional assays, respectively. Nevertheless, the oral bioavailability of 17 was less than desired (14% in rats, 7% in dogs), so further improvement was needed.

It was anticipated that shortening the side-chain tether between the pyridine ring and the secondary amine might improve oral bioavailability. In an earlier series lacking an indole 5-substituent and the β -methyl group, such a modification was significantly detrimental to receptor binding affinity.^{2d} Remarkably, compound 1c,^{4b} the two-carbon tether analogue of 1b, not only maintained excellent potency in the in vitro assays (Table 2) but also had oral bioavailability of 23% in rats. However, its bioavailability in dogs (14%) and rhesus monkeys (6.4%) was still deficient. Incorporation of some of the best bicyclic amino groups from Table 1 into this series gave 23-25, which all displayed high potency in the binding and functional assays (Table 2). Although oral bioavailability in dogs was still unsatisfactory for 23 (8.5%) and 25 (12%), compound 24, the isoquinuclidine amide bearing a 4-pyridyl terminus, had promising pharmacokinetic properties. Thus, the oral bioavailability of 24, while only 8% in rats, was 25% in dogs and 21% in rhesus monkeys. The terminal half-life of 24 was determined to be 1 h in rats, 3.9 h in dogs, and 3.3 h in rhesus monkeys.

Replacement of the pyridine by a pyridone (or related heterocycle) was also investigated (Table 3). Of the isomeric 1-methylpyridin-2(1H)-ones **31** and **32**, linkage at the 5-position (32) resulted in a dramatic potency advantage over linkage at the 3-position (31). All of the analogues with the preferred substitution pattern (32-34 and 36) maintained very high potency. This suggests that there is no requirement for the side-chain terminus to be basic, provided that it is a suitable hydrogen-bond acceptor. The methoxypyridine 35, an isomer of 32, was somewhat less active. Finally, the reduced analogue 37, tested as a mixture of diastereomers, was only moderately less potent than its unsaturated parent 32. Although some of the compounds in this pyridone series had satisfactory oral bioavailability in dogs (e.g., 35% for **36**), none of those tested had acceptable bioavailability in rhesus monkeys (e.g., 4% for 36).

The effectiveness of orally administered **24** in blocking the release of luteinizing hormone (LH) was investigated in castrated male rats,²¹ which have relatively stable and elevated circulating LH levels. It should be noted that **24** had an IC₅₀ value of 1.7 nM against the rat GnRH receptor in a whole cell binding assay. Compound **24** dose-dependently inhibited LH release for periods ranging from 5–7 h at 5 mg/kg po to > 15 h at 20 mg/kg po. In a representative experiment, a single dose of **24** at 10 mg/kg po completely suppressed plasma LH levels for 13 h (Fig. 1).

In conclusion, enhancements to our previously reported series of indole-based GnRH antagonists³ were undertaken with the goal of improving pharmacodynamic and pharmacokinetic properties. With the addition of the (*S*)- β -methyl substituent to the tryptamine core, the amino moiety of the tertiary amide was re-investigated. Amides derived from compact, hydrophobic bicyclic amines were preferred, with the isoquinuclidine amide apparently optimum. Subsequently, it was found that, with these features in place, the side-chain tether linking

Table 3. Inhibition of GnRH receptor binding and PI turnover by tryptamine derivatives with two-carbon tether to a heterocycle



Compd	Het	hGnRH IC ₅₀ (nM) ^a	PI turnover IC ₅₀ (nM) ^b
31		5.3	82
32		0.2	1.4
33		0.4	3.9
34		0.3	1.0
35	{-√OMe	1.0	11
36		0.6	4.0
37	∮- ∕_ N_=0	0.4	8.2

^aInhibition of [¹²⁵I]buserelin binding to human pituitary GnRH receptor.

^bInhibition of GnRH-stimulated [³H]inositol phosphate hydrolysis.

the NH to the pyridine ring could be contracted from four methylene units to two. This modification maintained high potency and improved pharmacokinetic properties, with the result that **24** had an acceptable half-life and oral bioavailability of > 20% in both dogs and rhesus monkeys. Furthermore, a single oral dose of **24** at 10 mg/kg provided complete and prolonged suppression of circulating LH levels in a castrated rat model.



Figure 1. Effect of oral 24 (administration at time = 6 h indicated by arrow) on LH release in a castrated male rat, as described in ref 21.

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21. Castrated Wistar male rats (350–400 g) were surgically fitted with a chronic indwelling catheter inserted into the femoral artery for blood sampling. After the surgery, the rats were housed individually in metabolic cages to recover for at least 3 days. On the day of the experiment, the catheter was connected to an automatic blood micro-sampler via a swivel, which allowed the animal to move freely inside the cage. In this experiment, the animals were dosed orally with **24** at 10 mg/kg, and a 140 μ L blood sample was withdrawn every 30 min for 24 h (6 h for pre-dosing baseline and 18 h post-dosing). After each blood sampling, the same amount of saline was returned to the animals to maintain the volume of blood constant. The LH content in serum was determined by a double antibody radioimmunoassay procedure.