C5-Alkyl-2-methylurea-Substituted Pyridines as a New Class of Glucokinase Activators

Xiaohui Du,^{*,†} Ronald J. Hinklin,[§] Yumei Xiong,[†] Paul Dransfield,[†] Jaehyeon Park,[†] Todd J. Kohn,[†] Vatee Pattaropong,[†] SuJen Lai,[†] Zice Fu,[†] Xianyun Jiao,[†] David Chow,[†] Lixia Jin,[†] Jasmine Davda,[†] Murielle M. Veniant,[‡] Deborah A. Anderson,[§] Brian R. Baer,[§] Josef R. Bencsik,[§] Steven A. Boyd,[§] Mark Joseph Chicarelli,[§] Peter J. Mohr,[§] Bin Wang,[§] Kevin R. Condroski,[§] Walter E. DeWolf,[§] Marion Conn,[†] Thanhvien Tran,[†] Jerry Yang,[†] Thomas D. Aicher,[§] Julio C. Medina,[†] Peter Coward,[†] and Jonathan B. Houze[†]

[†]Amgen, Inc., 1120 Veterans Boulevard, South San Francisco, California 94080, United States [‡]Amgen, Inc., One Amgen Center Drive, Thousand Oaks, California 91320, United States [§]Array BioPharma, 3200 Walnut Street, Boulder, Colorado 80301, United States

Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Glucokinase (GK) activators represent a class of type 2 diabetes therapeutics actively pursued due to the central role that GK plays in regulating glucose homeostasis. Herein we report a novel C5-alkyl-2-methylurea-substituted pyridine series of GK activators derived from our previously reported thiazolylamino pyridine series. Our efforts in optimizing potency, enzyme kinetic properties, and metabolic stability led to the identification of compound **26** (AM-9514). This analogue showed a favorable combination of *in vitro* potency, enzyme kinetic properties, acceptable pharmacokinetic profiles in preclinical species, and robust efficacy in a rodent PD model.



KEYWORDS: Type 2 diabetes, glucokinase activator, GKA, methyl urea-substituted pyridines

T ype 2 diabetes is a chronic metabolic disease affecting over 300 million people worldwide.¹ It is characterized by elevated fasting plasma and hepatic glucose production and insulin resistance. It is a major risk factor for both microvascular and macrovascular diseases.²⁻⁴ Despite the availability of multiple antihyperglycemic agents, many patients still remain unable to safely achieve and maintain tight glycemic control, underscoring the need for more effective therapies.

Glucokinase (GK) is a member of the hexokinase family of intracellular enzymes. It is responsible for the conversion of glucose to glucose-6-phosphate, the first step in glucose utilization.⁵ GK is present in both pancreatic β -cells and liver hepatic cells. In the pancreas, it serves as a glucose sensor to control glucose-stimulated insulin secretion, while hepatic GK plays an important role in regulating net glucose utilization and production.⁶

It has been demonstrated that glucokinase activators (GKAs) can influence the enzyme's kinetic profile by modulating both K_m for glucose (also known as $S_{0.5}$) and V_{max} (maximal velocity of the glucose phosphorylation reaction catalyzed by GK).⁷ As a result, GKAs control blood glucose concentrations by enhancing the ability of pancreatic β -cells to sense glucose and increase insulin secretion in a glucose-dependent manner. In addition, GKAs act in the liver to improve glucose disposal by increasing glycogen storage and decreasing hepatic glucose output. The possible synergistic effect of this dual mechanism may provide an

advantage in the treatment of type 2 diabetes.⁸ To date, a number of GK activators have advanced into clinical trials for the treatment of type 2 diabetes.^{9–11}

We have previously disclosed a series of thiadiazolylamino pyridine GKAs represented by compound A.^{12,13} To identify GKAs that are structurally distinct from that, we pursued a novel methyl urea-substituted pyridine series, where the critical bidentate hydrogen bond to Arg63 was maintained by the methyl urea moiety.¹⁴ Compound **A** had thioether substitutions at C5 of the middle pyridine ring. In pursuing more structure diversity, we would like to replace the thioether in compound **A** with a carbon-based linker in compound **B** as shown in Figure 1.

Hypoglycemia is a key dose limiting adverse effect of glucokinase activators.^{15–17} In an attempt to mitigate this risk, we targeted GKAs that would not lower the $S_{0.5}$ below a certain limit nor raise $V_{\rm max}$ above a certain limit, preferably with $S_{0.5} > 0.6$ mM and $V_{\rm max}$ between 0.8 and 1.3 of unactivated GK. A similar strategy has been proposed by others.^{10,11,18} Our threshold values were chosen in part based on data with Piragliatin ($S_{0.5}$ of 0.28 mM and $V_{\rm max}$ of 1.7) and MK-0941 ($S_{0.5}$ of 0.25 mM

Received: August 22, 2014 Accepted: November 22, 2014



Figure 1. From thioether-substituted thiazolylamino pyridines (A) to methyl urea-substituted pyridines (B).

and $V_{\rm max}$ of 1.3),¹⁹ developed by Roche and Merck, respectively. Both compounds were associated with increased risk of hypoglycemia in clinical trials.^{16,20} In addition, compounds with $V_{\rm max}$ lower than 0.8 could result in the phosphorylation rate of the enzyme-activator complex to be lower than the native enzyme at glucose concentrations obtainable in the fed state.²¹ Therefore, we targeted GKAs with $V_{\rm max}$ between 0.8 and 1.3.

A number of C5-alkyl substituted analogues with 3-*O*-ethylpyridine substitution are summarized in Table 1. The simple isobutyl substituted analogue **1** was potent (EC₅₀ = 0.12μ M) but metabolically unstable, indicated by the relatively high turnover

Table 1. Exploration of C5 Substitution of GKAs with3-O-Ethylpyridine



N							
Compd	R	GKA EC ₅₀ ^{a,b} (μΜ)	T.O. ^{a,c} r/h (%)	S _{0.5} ª (mM)	V _{max} ^{a,d} ratio		
1	- ros	0.12	95/56	0.66	0.82		
2	² r _r , O	0.59	76/21	0.88	0.70		
3	~ <u>0</u> ~~~ ⁵ ~	0.44	-/-	0.87	0.78		
4	_O	0.11	41/23	0.82	0.74		
5	HO	1.59	10/10	-	-		
6	HO	0.35	33/20	0.85	0.86		
7	HO	0.11	17/31	0.82	0.73		
8	Jun (0.014	95/99	0.76	0.73		
9	0 rot	0.29	-/-	0.85	0.75		

^{*a*}Mean standard deviations for the EC₅₀, $S_{0.5}$, and V_{max} are ±30%, 17%, and 4%, respectively (n = 2). Also, human recombinant GK was used in all the assays. ^{*b*}For the EC₅₀ assay, the glucose concentration was fixed at 5 mM. ^{*c*}Percent turnover: percentage of parent compound being metabolized after incubating in 0.25 mg/mL of rat or human liver microsomes for 30 min at 37 °C with an initial parent concentration of 1 μ M. ^{*d*}Maximal velocity of the glucose phosphorylation reaction catalyzed by activated GK/unactivated GK. rate in both rat and human liver microsomes. The microsomal stability of this series was improved by the incorporation of a variety of polar functional groups such as alcohols and ethers into the structure (compounds 2 and 4–7). For the ethers, potency improved when elongating the linker from two carbon to three and four (2, 3, and 4). However, the V_{max} values for these compounds were lower than the target range. For the alcohols, although they were less potent than their ether analogues (2 vs 5; 4 vs 6), one of the primary alcohols, 6, had acceptable potency, kinetic parameters, and microsomal stability. However, compound 6 had poor stability in primary human hepatocytes (88% was metabolized).²² To reduce the hepatic clearance, the tertiary alcohol 7 was made. Although this improved the stability in primary human hepatocytes (28% metabolized),²² it also reduced the V_{max} to an unacceptable level (0.73).

We then explored cyclic moieties with one carbon linker such as cyclohexyl methyl or THP methyl substitution. The V_{max} values for these compounds (8 and 9) were also low.

Because of the suboptimal $V_{\rm max}$ associated with 3-O-ethylpyridine substitution, we changed the substitution to 3-O-ethylpyrazole. Table 2 shows that the analogues with

Table 2. Exploration of C5 Substitution of GKAs with3-O-Pyrazole



^{*a*}Mean standard deviations for the EC₅₀, $S_{0.5}$, and V_{max} are ±30%, 17%, and 4%, respectively (n = 2). Also, human recombinant GK was used in all the assays. ^{*b*}For the EC₅₀ assay, the glucose concentration was fixed at 5 mM. ^{*c*}Percent turnover: percentage of parent compound being metabolized after incubating in 0.25 mg/mL of rat or human liver microsomes for 30 min at 37 °C with an initial parent concentration of 1 μ M. ^{*d*}Maximal velocity of the glucose phosphorylation reaction catalyzed by activated GK/unactivated GK.

3-*O*-ethylpyrazole had improved V_{max} values compared to the 3-*O*-ethylpyridines, although the potency was reduced somewhat (**10** vs 4; **11** vs 7; **12** vs 9). These compounds generally had good microsomal stability.

Compound **12** had acceptable potency, kinetic parameters, and good stability in microsomes and primary human hepatocytes (15% metabolized).²² Furthermore, it has a low molecular weight (359) and very good solubility (718 μ g/mL at pH 7.4, PBS buffer). Table 3 shows the pharmacokinetic properties of **12** in mice and rats. Although it had modest clearance in both rat and mouse, it had excellent bioavailability in mouse (81%). In addition, we studied the interspecies differences in the kinetic properties of compound **12**–GK complex. Compound **12** had a

		IV^a			PO ^a		
compd	species	CL (L/h/kg)	Vss (L/kg)	${T_{1/2} \over ({ m h})}$	F (%)	AUC (µM·h	
12	rat	1.5	0.8	0.41	19	3.51	
12	mouse	1.7	1.5	0.72	81	13.3	
^a Rat and	d mouse:	IV dose 1 m	g/kg, n = 3	3; PO do	se 10 1	mg/kg, n = 3	

 $V_{\rm max}$ of 1.12 and a $S_{0.5}$ of 0.82 in mouse. Although the difference in the $V_{\rm max}$ between human and mouse was significant, it was within our target range. Compound **12** (**AM-0822**) was chosen to proceed into *in vivo* studies to verify its efficacy.

Compound **12** (**AM-0822**) was tested in a dose–response oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) using C57Bl/6 mice²³ (Figure 2)



Figure 2. OGTT data for **12** (**AM-0822**) in C57Bl/6 mice. Statistical significance compared to vehicle treatment is denoted by *(p < 0.05), **(p < 0.01), ***(p < 0.001), and ****(p < 0.0001), as determined by two-way ANOVA, and is color-coded to the treatment in the figure legends.

and showed efficacy at 3 mg/kg, the lowest dose administered. The area-under-the-curve (AUC) for the blood glucose was decreased by 15% at 3 mg/kg and 32% at 10 mg/kg. The 10 mg/kg dose was equally efficacious as the 30 mg/kg dose. The plasma glucose level stabilized at 77 mg/dL between 1.5 and 2 h for the 30 mg/kg dose, well above the hypoglycemic range (<50 mg/dL), thus confirming our target range for the kinetic parameters on GK induced by our GKA.

However, compound **12** had significant brain penetration in rat. The unbound concentrations in the brain were 29% of unbound concentrations in plasma in rat. Because of the fact that GK is also expressed in brain, there will be risk of interfering with counter regulation once GKA penetrates the brain and lowers the brain blood glucose level. Therefore, this was considered to be an undesirable attribute in a potential GKA therapeutic. We then continued to seek GKAs with less brain penetration (less than 10% is desired) in addition to a similar or better overall profile than **12**.

Our subsequent efforts were centered on modifications of 12, and Table 4 shows some of the analogues explored. Hydroxyl group substitution at the benzylic position (13), morpholino replacement of THP (14), and *alpha* substitution to the oxygen of THP (15) all led to compounds with decreased potency. The only compound with similar potency (16) displayed a $V_{\rm max}$ less than 0.8.

Table 5 shows modifications on the pyrazole ring. These analogues (17 and 18) are also less potent than 12.

Ň R GKA Vmax^{a,o} Compd S0.5 EC50 a,b (mM) ratio (µM) 12 0.35 0.84 0.80 13 16.8 1.2 0.82

I
^a Mean standard deviations for the EC ₅₀ , $S_{0.5}$, and $V_{\rm max}$ are ±30%, 17%,
and 4%, respectively $(n = 2)$. Also, human recombinant GK was used
in all the assays. ^b For the EC ₅₀ assay, the glucose concentration was
fixed at 5 mM. ^c Maximal velocity of the glucose phosphorylation
reaction catalyzed by activated GK/unactivated GK.

7.98

0.49

0.35

0.86

0.94

0.88

0.78

0.76

0.78

Table 5. Modifications on the 3-O-Pyrazole

14

15

16

Compd	R	GKA	S _{0.5} ^a	$\mathbf{V}_{\max}^{a,c}$			
		EC ₅₀ ^{а,ь} (µМ)	(mM)	ratio			
12	N-N	0.35	0.84	0.80			
17	N-N	2.76	0.95	0.60			
18	-0 N-N	0.82	0.85	0.71			

"Mean standard deviations for the EC_{50} , $S_{0.5}$, and V_{max} are $\pm 30\%$, 17%, and 4%, respectively (n = 2). Also, human recombinant GK was used in all the assays. ^bFor the EC_{50} assay, the glucose concentration was fixed at 5 mM. 'Maximal velocity of the glucose phosphorylation reaction catalyzed by activated GK/unactivated GK.

We then investigated cyclic alcohols at C5 (Table 6). Secondary or tertiary hydroxyl would prevent secondary metabolism as shown in 7. Cyclic compounds would also reduce the degrees of freedom in the molecule, which might improve

Letter

Table 6. Cyclic Alcohols at C5



Compd	R	GKA	S0.5 a	V _{max} ^{a,c}
	~	EC ₅₀ ^{a,b}	(mM)	ratio
		(μΜ)		
12	0 0 0	0.35	0.84	0.80
19	HO	0.068	0.71	0.79
20	HO	0.12	0.76	0.66
21	HÖ	0.11	0.69	0.71
22	HO	0.097	0.56	0.82
23	HO	0.53	0.72	0.88
24	HO''	0.50	0.63	0.96
25	HO	0.71	0.82	0.80
26	HO	0.29	0.68	0.91

^{*a*}Mean standard deviations for the EC₅₀, $S_{0.5}$, and V_{max} are ±30%, 17%, and 4%, respectively (n = 2). Also, human recombinant GK was used in all the assays. ^{*b*}For the EC₅₀ assay, the glucose concentration was fixed at 5 mM. ^{*c*}Maximal velocity of the glucose phosphorylation reaction catalyzed by activated GK/unactivated GK.

pharmacokinetic properties.²⁴ Another advantage of alcohols is that they generally have increased polarity and polar surface area than ethers, which might lower the brain penetration level.²⁵ The cyclohexanols (**19–22**) were more potent than **12**, but most of them had lower V_{max} with the exception of compound **22**; however, for **22**, the $S_{0.5}$ was out of the desired range.

The V_{max} parameters in the cyclobutanols were more encouraging. Both cis and trans isomers (23 and 24) had higher V_{max} values than 12, with one of the isomers, 24, having a V_{max} of 0.96. To improve their potency to a more desirable range, a methyl group was added to form the tertiary cyclobutyl alcohols. One of the isomers, 26, had a V_{max} of 0.91 and an EC₅₀ of 0.29 μ M, both improved over 12. The S_{0.5} decreased to 0.68 mM but was still within our target range.

Compound 26 (AM-9514) had excellent solubility, permeability, *in vitro* clearances and free fractions in plasma protein binding (Figure 3). It had desirable pharmacokinetics in mouse and dog with a clearance of 0.91 L/h/kg in mouse and 0.64 L/h/kg in dog (Table 7). It also had excellent oral



НÒ

 $\begin{array}{l} MW-359.42\\ EC_{50}\mbox{-}0.29\ \mu M\\ 4\%\ HSA\ EC_{50}\mbox{-}0.28\ \mu M\\ Solubility\ (pH\ 7.4)\ -480\ \mu M\\ LLC\ PK\ Permeability\ (10^{-6}\ cm/s)\ -\ High\ (32.4)\\ Predicted\ Microsome\ CL(T.O.)\ -\ 10\ (h),\ 12(r)\\ \%\ PPB\ (h,\ r,\ mu)\ -\ 56\ /50/\ 56 \end{array}$

Figure 3. *In vitro* parameters of **26**: 4% HSA EC_{50} (the EC_{50} measured in the presence of 4% human serum albumin (HSA)).

Table 7. Pharmacokinetic Properties of 26

(AM-9514)

		IV			РО	
compd	species	CL (L/h/kg)	Vss (L/kg)	$\begin{array}{c}T_{1/2}\\(\mathrm{h})\end{array}$	F (%)	AUC (µM·h)
26	rat ^a	1.6	0.8	2.0	9	0.39
26	mouse ^b	0.91	1.2	1.2	44	6.84
26	dog ^a	0.64	2.2	5.5	72	6.4

^aRat and dog: IV dose 0.5 mg/kg, n = 3; PO dose 2.0 mg/kg, n = 3. ^bMouse: IV dose 1.0 mg/kg, n = 3; PO dose 5.0 mg/kg, n = 3.





"Reagents and conditions: (a) BnBr, K_2CO_3 , CH_3CN , 93%; (b) Tebbe reagent, THF, 58%; (c) H_2O_2 , CCl_3CN , DCM, separate the trans/cis isomers, 48%; (d) LiAlH₄, THF, 90%; (e) Ac_2O , pyridine, DCM, 94%; (f) TBSOTf, DIEPA, DCM, 87%; (g) K_2CO_3 , MeOH, 94%; (h) iodobenzene diacetate, TEMPO, DCM, 85%; (i) 1-(5-bromo-3-((1-ethyl-1H-pyrazol-5-yl)oxy)pyridin-2-yl)-3-methylurea, MeLi, BuLi, aldehyde, THF; then MeSO₃H, MeOH, 57% overall yield; (j) MeSO₃H, 10% Pd/C, H₂, MeOH, 59%.

bioavailability in dog. It was scaled up for further *in vivo* studies. The synthesis is shown in Scheme 1.

The synthesis of **26** started from 3-oxocyclobutanecarboxylic acid. It was protected with a benzyl group and then converted to benzyl 3-methylenecyclobutanecarboxylate **26.2** through the Tebbe olefination. Epoxidation of the double bond in **26.2** and isolation of the less polar isomer led to **26.3**, which was reduced to diol **26.4** with lithium aluminum hydride. The primary hydroxyl group in **26.4** was selectively protected with an acetate group (**26.5**), and the tertiary hydroxyl group was protected with a TBS group (**26.6**). Deprotection of the acetate group in **26.6** freed the primary hydroxyl group for further functional group transformations. Compound **26.7** was oxidized to aldehyde **26.8** under mild conditions. Lithiation of 1-(5-bromo-3-((1-ethyl-1*H*pyrazol-5-yl)oxy)pyridin-2-yl)-3-methylurea²⁶ and addition of the organolithium generated to aldehyde **26.8** followed by subsequent deprotection of the TBS protection group resulted in diol **26.9**. The benzylic hydroxyl group in **26.9** was removed through hydrogenation under strong acidic conditions to provide compound **26**. The cis relationship of the methyl group and the benzylic methyl group relative to the cyclobutane ring in **26** was confirmed by 2D-NMR experiments.

Before further *in vivo* study, we measured the kinetic properties of **26** on mouse GK ($V_{max} = 1.14$ and $S_{0.5} = 0.69$) and found them within our target range and also closer to human parameters compared to compound **12**. The antidiabetic efficacy of **26** was tested in an OGTT at doses of 0.3, 1, 3, and 10 mg/kg in fasted ob/ob mice (Figure 4). It showed dose-proportional lowering of blood glucose, with a 43% AUC decrease at 10 mg/kg.



Figure 4. OGTT data of **26** (**AM-9514**) in ob/ob mice. Compound **26** lowered blood glucose in a dose-dependent manner. Statistical significance compared to vehicle treatment is denoted by *(p < 0.05), **(p < 0.01), ***(p < 0.001), and ****(p < 0.0001), as determined by two-way ANOVA, and is color-coded to the treatment in the figure legends.

Compound **26** was further tested in a normoglycemic glucose lowering test to evaluate its hypoglycemic risk. Fed male C57Bl/6 mice were orally dosed with vehicle or **26** without glucose challenge and then food was removed for 4 h. Blood glucose levels were measured at various time points (Figure 5). The elevation in glucose seen with the vehicle is presumably the result of handling stress on animals. Blood glucose levels were



Figure 5. Normoglycemic glucose lowering test of **26** (AM-9514) in C57Bl/6 mice. Compound **26** showed no hypoglycemia during the test. Statistical significance compared to vehicle treatment is denoted by (p < 0.05), **(p < 0.01), ***(p < 0.001), and ****(p < 0.0001), as determined by two-way ANOVA, and is color-coded to the treatment in the figure legends.

maintained above 85 mg/dL at all time points for both 10 and 30 mg/kg doses, well above its efficacious dose of 1 mg/kg. Therefore, 26 showed no hypoglycemia at the doses tested. Similar results of normoglycemic glucose lowering test were also obtained in rat of compound 26. In addition, compound 26 showed low brain penetration in rat. The unbound concentrations in the brain were 4% of unbound plasma concentrations in rat.

In conclusion, a new class of C5-alkyl-2-methylurea-substituted pyridines as glucokinase activators was developed based on our previous thiazolylamino pyridine GKAs. We optimized the potency and kinetic parameters of this class and identified compound 26 (AM-9514) with good potency, desirable GK kinetic parameters, and favorable *in vitro* and *in vivo* profiles including pharmacokinetic properties.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

S Supporting Information

Assay, *in vivo* procedures, experimental procedures, and data for all compounds. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

*E-mail xdxiaohui@gmail.com.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

REFERENCES

(1) Danaei, G.; Finucane, M. M.; Lu, Y.; Singh, G. M.; Cowan, M. J.; Paciorek, C. J.; Lin, J. K.; Farzdfar, F.; Khang, Y.-H.; Stevens, G. A.; Rao, M.; Ali, M. K.; Riley, L. M.; Robinson, C. A.; Ezzati, M. National, regional, and global trends in fasting plasma glucose and diabetes prevalence since 1980: systemic analysis of health examination surveys and epidemiological studies with 370 country-years and 2.7 million participants. *Lancet* 2011, 378, 31–40.

(2) Nazimek-Siewniak, B.; Moczulski, D.; Grzeszczak, W. Risk of macrovascular and microvascular complications in Type 2 diabetes: results of longitudinal study design. *J. Diabetes Complications* **2002**, *16*, 271–276.

(3) Kles, K. A.; Vinik, A. I. Pathophysiology and treatment of diabetic peripheral neuropathy: the case for diabetic neurovascular function as an essential component. *Curr. Diabetes Rev.* **2006**, *2*, 131–145.

(4) Rahman, S.; Rahman, T.; Ismail, A. A.; Rashid, A. R. Diabetesassociated macrovasculopathy: pathophysiology and pathogenesis. *Diabetes Obes. Metab.* **2007**, *9*, 767–780.

(5) Iynedjian, P. B. Molecular physiology of mammalian glucokinase. *Cell. Mol. Life Sci.* **2008**, *66*, 27–42.

(6) van Schaftingen, E. A protein from rat liver confers to glucokinase the property of being antagonistically regulated by fructose 6-phosphate and fructose 1-phosphate. *Eur. J. Biochem.* **1989**, *179*, 179–184.

(7) Grimsby, J.; Sarabu, R.; Corbett, W. L.; Haynes, N. E.; Bizzarro, F. T.; Coffey, J. W.; Guertin, K. R.; Hilliard, D. W.; Kester, R. F.; Mahaney, P. E.; Marcus, L.; Qi, L.; Spence, C. L.; Tengi, J.; Magnuson, M. A.; Chu, C. A.; Dvorozniak, M. T.; Matschinsky, F. M.; Grippo, J. F. Allosteric activators of glucokinase: potential role in diabetes therapy. *Science* **2003**, *310*, *370*–*373*.

(8) Matschinsky, F. Assessing the potential of glucokinase activators in diabetes therapy. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discovery* **2009**, *8*, 399–416.

(9) Sarabu, R.; Berthel, S. J.; Kester, R. F.; Tilley, J. W. Novel glucokinase activators: a patent review (2008–2010). *Expert Opin. Ther. Patents* **2011**, *21*, 13–31.

(10) Castro, A. Kinase activators as a novel class of antidiabetic agents. *Drug Discovery Today* **2012**, *17*, 528–529.

(11) Pfefferkorn, J. A. Strategies for the design of hepatoselective glucokinase activators to treat type 2 diabetes. *Expert Opin. Drug Discovery* **2013**, *8*, 319–330.

ACS Medicinal Chemistry Letters

(12) Hinklin, R. J.; Boyd, S. A.; Chicarelli, M. J.; Condroski, K. R.; Dewolf, W. E., Jr.; Lee, P. A.; Lee, W.; Singh, A.; Thomas, L.; Voegtli, W. C.; Williams, L.; Aicher, T. D. Identification of a new class of glucokinase activators through structure-based design. *J. Med. Chem.* **2013**, *56*, 7669–7678.

(13) Lu, M.; Li, P.; Bandyopadhyay, G.; Lagakos, W.; Dewolf, W. E., Jr.; Alford, T.; Chicarelli, M. J.; Williams, L.; Anderson, D. A.; Baer, B. R.; McVean, M.; Conn, M.; Veniant, M. M.; Coward, P. Characterization of a novel glucokinase activator in rat and mouse models. *PloS One* **2012**, *9*, e88431.

(14) For detailed transition from the thiazolylamino pyridine series to methyl urea-substituted pyridine series, please see: Hinklin, R. J.; Aicher, T. D.; Anderson, D. A.; Baer, B. R.; Boyd, S. A.; Condroski, K. R.; DeWolf, W. E., Jr.; Kraser, C. F.; McVean, M.; Rhodes, S. P.; Sturgis, H. L.; Williams, L.; Houze, J. B. Discovery of 2-pyridylureas as glucokinase activators. *J. Med. Chem.* **2014**, *57*, 8180–8186.

(15) Bonadonna, R. C.; Heise, T.; Arbet-Engels, C.; Kapitza, C.; Avogaro, A.; Grimsby, J.; Zhi, J.; Grippo, J. F.; Balena, R. Piragliatin (RO4389620), a novel glucokinase activator, lowers plasma glucose both in the postabsorptive state and after a glucose challenge in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus: a mechanistic study. *J. Clin. Endocrinol. Metab.* **2010**, *95*, 5028–5036.

(16) Meininger, G. E.; Scott, R.; Alba, M.; Shentu, Y.; Luo, E.; Amin, H.; Davies, M. J.; Kaufman, K. D.; Goldstein, B. J. Effects of MK-0941, a novel glucokinase activator, on glycemic control in insulin-treated patients with type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Care* **2011**, *34*, 2560–2566.

(17) Bue-Valleskey, J. M.; Schneck, K. B.; Sinha, V. P.; Wonddmagegnehu, E. T.; Kapitza, C.; Miller, J. WLY2599506, a novel glucokinase activator (GKA), improves fasting and postprandial glucose in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM). Presented at the 71st American Diabetes Association Meeting, San Diego, CA, 2011.

(18) Pfefferkorn, J. A.; Guzman-Perez, A.; Oates, P. J.; Litchfield, J.; Aspnes, G.; Basak, A.; Benbow, J.; Bian, J.; Choi, C.; Freeman-Cook, K.; Corbett, J. W.; Didiuk, M.; et al. Designing glucokinase activators with reduced hypoglycemia risk: discovery of N,N-dimethyl-5-(2-methyl-6-((5-methylpyrazin-2-yl)-carbamoyl)benzofuran-4-yloxy)pyrimidine-2carboxamide as a clinical candidate for the treatment of type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Med. Chem. Commun.* **2011**, *2*, 828–839.

(19) The $S_{\rm 0.5}$ and $V_{\rm max}$ data of Piragliatin and MK-0941 were generated in house.

(20) Filipski, K. J.; Stevens, B. D.; Pfefferkorn, J. A. New Therapeutic Strategies for Type 2 Diabetes; RSC Publishing: London, U.K., 2012; pp 88–108.

(21) Grimsby, J.; Berthel, S. J.; Sarabu, R. Glucokinase activators for the potential treatment of type 2 diabetes. *Curr. Top. Med. Chem.* 2008, *8*, 1524–1532.

(22) Hepatic stability is the ratio of the observed clearance expressed in mL/min/kg divided by the literature value for the hepatic blood flow values in the species studied (mL/min/kg).

(23) To save some cost, we used normal C57Bl/6 mice in the OGTT test of compound **12** instead of ob/ob mice.

(24) Veber, D. F.; Johnson, S. R.; Cheng, Y.-H.; Smith, B. R.; Ward, K. W.; Kopple, K. D. Molecular properties that influence the oral bioavailability of drug candidates. *J. Med. Chem.* **2002**, *45*, 2615–2623.

(25) Pajouhesh, H.; Lenz, G. R. Medicinal chemical properties of successful central nervous system drugs. *NeuroRx* 2005, 2, 541-553.

(26) Please see Supporting Information for detailed experimental procedure to make 1-(5-bromo-3-((1-ethyl-1*H*-pyrazol-5-yl)oxy)pyr-idin-2-yl)-3-methylurea (intermediate **11.3**, page 22 in Supporting Information).