Discovery of a Potent Pyrazolopyridine Series of γ -Secretase Modulators

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: The synthesis and structure—activity relationship of a novel series of pyrazolopyridines are reported. These compounds represent a new class of γ -secretase modulators that demonstrate good in vitro potency in inhibiting A β_{42} production. Examples with statistically significant in vivo efficacy in reducing the production of rat cerebrospinal fluid A β_{42} were also identified.

KEYWORDS: Alzheimer's disease, γ -secretase modulator, amyloid- β peptide, Notch



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Abeta42 IC_{50} = 107 nM, -45% reduction of rat CSF Abeta42 at 30 mpk oral dosing

espite enormous efforts to develop cures for Alzheimer's D disease (AD), there is no solution to this medical problem yet.¹⁻³ AD is characterized by neuronal loss, neurofibrillary tangle (NFT) formation, and extracellular deposition of amyloid- β (A β) peptide plaques. Patients normally show symptoms of cognitive impairment, as well as disturbance in language, memory, movement, attention, and orientation. The A β peptides have been hypothesized to be the pathological cause of this disease. The A β peptides are generated from sequential cleavage of the amyloid precursor protein (APP) by two key proteases, β -secretase 1 (BACE1) and γ -secretase.^{4,5} γ -Secretase cleavage is heterogeneous, resulting in A β peptides that range from 37 to 42 amino acids in length. A β_{42} is more hydrophobic than other shorter A β peptides and is found in disproportionately high amounts in A β plaques. Development of γ -secretase inhibitors (GSIs) holds promise for the treatment of AD. Several classes of GSIs have been reported to demonstrate efficacy in reducing overall production of A β peptides in plasma, cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), and brain.⁶⁻⁸ However, recent preclinical experiments demonstrated that inhibition of γ -secretase results in mechanism-based GI toxicity such as thymus atrophy and intestinal goblet cell hyperplasia because γ -secretase has other substrates in addition to APP such as Notch to process, and cleavage of Notch by γ -secretase is important for cellular gene transcription.^{9,10} The recent clinical results of GSI candidate semagacestat showed that it not only failed to slow disease progression but also increased the incidence of skin cancer of patients in the treatment group than the placebo group.^{11,12} The failure of semagacestat again raised concerns about the efficacy and safety of GSIs. γ -Secretase modulators (GSMs) selectively reduce the production of $A\beta_{42}$ while maintaining other normal functions of y-secretase, including Notch processing and signaling. GSMs

Scheme 1. Design of Pyrazolopyridine Series as γ -Secretase Modulators



interact with γ -secretase at an allosteric site, inducing a conformational change in the protease and causing a shift of cleavage specificity to preferentially produce shorter, more soluble $A\beta$ -peptides such as $A\beta_{38}$ instead of the toxic $A\beta_{42}$.^{13–18} As a result, GSMs should not cause Notch-related side effects and could potentially provide a better safety profile than GSIs. Different classes of GSMs have been reported to demonstrate in vivo efficacy, including nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) with carboxylic acid moiety,^{19–24} compounds with noncarboxylic acid scaffold,^{25–27} and Eisai compound E2012 currently under clinical investigation, containing 1-(2-methoxyphenyl)-4-methyl-1*H*-imidazole substructure, which is essential part of Eisai compound to maintain the GSM activity.^{28–31}

We recently reported the discovery of a tetrahydro-pyrazolopyridine series of γ -secretase modulators.³² An example from this series demonstrated good in vitro potency but only moderate in vivo efficacy in reducing rat CSF A β_{42} . This molecule exhibited

| Received: | February 14, 2011 |
|------------|-------------------|
| Accepted: | March 23, 2011 |
| Published: | March 29, 2011 |

Table 1. Cell A β_{42} IC₅₀, γ -Secretase Modulator Selectivity, in Vivo Efficacy, and PK Profile of Compounds 1–6





^{*a*} IC₅₀ values are reported as an average of multiple determinations ($n \ge 2$). ^{*b*} The ratio represents a measure of GSM selectivity and the ability to reduce the A β_{42} without affecting the total A β production. ^{*c*} n.s.e., no statistically significant efficacy.

Table 2. Cell A β_{42} IC₅₀, γ -Secretase Modulator Selectivity, in Vivo Efficacy, and PK Profile of Compounds 7–14







Table 3. Cell A β_{42} IC₅₀, γ -Secretase Modulator Selectivity, in Vivo Efficacy, and PK Profile of Compounds 15–22



| Compound | R^1 | $\begin{array}{c} A\beta_{42} IC_{50}{}^{a} \\ (nM) \end{array}$ | $A eta_{	ext{total}} \operatorname{IC}_{50} / A eta_{42} \operatorname{IC}_{50}^{b}$ | Pl. C _{3h} (μM) | Br. C _{3h} (µM) | CSF Aβ ₄₂ (-%) |
|----------|---------------------------------------|--|--|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|
| 15 | ZZ F | 66 | 301 | 6.51 | 0.88 | 27 |
| 16 | 12 F | 71 | 151 | 2.52 | 0.74 | 24 |
| 17 | | 38 | 6 | | | |
| 18 | | 107 | 186 | 5.02 | 1.22 | 45 |
| 19 | ₹ ₹ | 43 | 463 | 7.23 | 1.61 | 30 |
| 20 | P OH | 168 | 119 | 2.15 | 0.10 | n.s.e. ^c |
| 21 | O S=O | 316 | 63 | | | |
| 22 | · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · | 481 | 42 | | | |

^{*a*} IC₅₀ values are reported as an average of multiple determinations ($n \ge 2$). ^{*b*} The ratio represents a measure of GSM selectivity and the ability to reduce the A β_{42} without affecting the total A β production. ^{*c*} n.s.e., no statistically significant efficacy.

a relatively high efflux ratio, which could be the cause for its limited brain penetration and in vivo efficacy. We decided to explore the pyrazolopyridine core, which might offer better physicochemical properties and efficacy than the tetrahydropyrazolopyridine series (Scheme 1). Herein, we discuss the synthesis and structure—activity relationship (SAR) of this scaffold as a different class of γ -secretase modulators.

The SAR of this pyrazolopyridine series was examined on the R¹ and R² substituents. Initially, we varied R¹ while maintaining R² as a hydrogen. A series of compounds (1–6) with a variety of *N*-benzyl groups as R¹ were prepared, and SAR data are presented in Table 1. 4-Methoxybenzyl derivative 1 showed moderate activity ($A\beta_{42}$ IC₅₀ = 168 nM).³³ Replacement of the methoxybenzyl group of 1 with a 1-(4-fluorophenyl)ethyl group (2) maintained similar potency. After resolving this enantiomeric mixture, the (*S*)-enantiomer 4 was 3-fold more potent than the (*R*)-enantiomer 3. Compound 5 with a 1-(3,5-difluorophenyl)ethyl

group also demonstrated good activity similar to that of 4. When the methyl substituent attached to benzylic carbon in 4 was changed to an ethyl group (6), it slightly reduced the potency. Compounds 4 and 5 were dosed orally in rats at 30 mg/kg, but they did not demonstrate statistically significant efficacy in reducing CSF A β_{42} . The pharmacokinetics of 4 and 5 revealed that they had limited brain exposures 3 h after dosing (4: brain $C_{3h} = 0.17 \ \mu M$; 5: brain $C_{3h} = 0.14 \ \mu M$).³⁴ Not surprisingly, analogues 4 and 5 were found to be PGP efflux substrates (4: $P_{a-b} = 9 \ nm/s, P_{b-a} = 314 \ nm/s, and P ratio = 33.8$; 5: $P_{a-b} =$ 85 nm/s, $P_{b-a} = 324 \ nm/s, and P ratio = 3.85$).

The SAR of \mathbb{R}^2 was conducted to further improve the in vitro and in vivo activity, while maintaining \mathbb{R}^1 as a (*S*)-(1-(4-fluorophenyl)ethyl group. We prepared a series of analogues (7–14), for which key data are summarized in Table 2. A variety of functionalities including electron deficient (7 and 9–11), electron rich (12), hydrophilic (13), and sterically hindered (14)

Scheme 2. Synthesis of Compound 4^a



^{*a*} Reagents and conditions: Method 1: (a) NaH, 1-(1-bromoethyl)-4-fluorobenzene, THF/DMF, 59%. (b) *i*-PrMgCl·LiCl, 3-methoxy-4-(4-methyl-1*H*-imidazol-1-yl)benzaldehyde, THF, 48%. (c) Dess-Martin periodinane, CH₂Cl₂, 67%. (d) NH₂NH₂, Py, 60 °C, 39%. (e) POCl₃, 71%. (f) Chiral HPLC separation. Method 2: (a) (*R*)-1-(4-fluorophenyl)ethanol, PBu₃, ADDP, THF, $0 \rightarrow 80$ °C, ~50%. (b–e) The same as method 1.

Scheme 3. Synthesis of Compounds 8-11 and 13^a



^{*a*} Reagents and conditions: (a) PBu₃, ADDP, (*R*)-1-(4-fluorophenyl)ethanol, THF, 80 °C, 60%. (b) NaOH, H₂O/MeOH, 95%. (c) Cyanuric fluoride, Py, CH₂Cl₂. (d) NaBH₄, CH₂Cl₂/MeOH, 81% for two steps. (e) PMBBr, NaH, THF, 81%. (f) *i*-PrMgCl·LiCl, 3-methoxy-4-(4-methyl-1H-imidazol-1-yl)benzaldehyde, THF, 76%. (g) Dess–Martin periodinane, CH₂Cl₂, 90%. (h) NH₂NH₂, EtOH, 80 °C. (i) POCl₃, Py, 50 °C, 25% for two steps. (j) CAN, CH₃CN/H₂O, 76%. (k) NH₃/H₂O, I₂, 60 °C, 10%. (l) DAST, CH₂Cl₂, 15%. (m) PDC, CH₂Cl₂, 98%. (n) CH₃MgBr, THF, 75%.

groups were well tolerated. Compounds with chloride, methyl, or hydroxymethyl group as R² (7, 12, and 13) showed very similar activity to 4. Analogues bearing larger R² substitution such as difluoromethyl (9), difluoroethyl (10), and 4-methoxybenzyl group (14) were slightly less active than 4. It was also the case for compound 11 with a nitrile group as R². One exception was when R² was a fluoromethyl group (8), which was 6-fold less potent than 4. Compound 7 (R² = Cl) was the most potent derivative from this part of the study ($A\beta_{42}$ IC₅₀ = 70 nM). Analogues 7, 9, 10, and 12 were examined in our rat in vivo model, but only 7 demonstrated good efficacy in reducing CSF $A\beta_{42}$ (-32% $A\beta_{42}$, 3 h after 30 mg/kg oral dosing). Not surprisingly, compound 7 had good brain exposure (brain $C_{3h} = 0.92 \,\mu$ M), and it was not a PGP efflux substrate, while compounds **9** and **10** had little to no plasma and brain exposure. In the case of **12**, this molecule was a PGP efflux substrate (**12**: $P_{a,b} = 48 \text{ nm/s}$, $P_{b-a} = 412 \text{ nm/s}$, and P ratio = 8.50). These SAR data demonstrated that a chloride group was the optimal R² substituent for obtaining rat in vivo efficacy.

With chloride established as the best \mathbb{R}^2 substituent for in vivo efficacy, we carried out additional SAR at \mathbb{R}^1 with the hope of optimizing physicochemical properties such as lipophilicity and brain penetration to positively impact in vivo activity. To this end, a variety of fluorinated *N*-benzyl analogues were then

synthesized and tested (Table 3). 3,4-Difluorophenyl and 2, 5-difluorophenyl derivatives (15 and 16) maintained activities similar to that of 4-fluorophenyl analogue 7. Interestingly, compound 17 with a 3,5-difluorophenyl group was 2-fold more potent than 7 but lost its selectivity as a modulator. Additional fluorination on the phenyl ring (18) did not help improve the in vitro activity. Varying the side chain attached to the benzylic carbon from a methyl (18) to an ethyl (19) group improved in vitro potency 2-fold, but this was not the case for hydroxymethyl (20), (methylsulfonyl)ethyl (21), or methylene groups (22). Analogues 15, 16, and 18-20 were tested in our rat in vivo model. Compounds 15, 16, and 19 were as efficacious as 7 in reducing CSF A β_{42} , while 18 was superior (-45% A β_{42} , 3 h after 30 mg/kg oral dosing). These compounds demonstrated good plasma and brain exposure. Compound 20 did suffer from poor brain exposure (brain $C_{3h} = 0.10 \,\mu\text{M}$). It should be noted that all of the compounds tested in rat did not show efficacy to reduce CSF A β_{40} and A β_{total} at the dosed level. These compounds did not affect Notch cleavage at concentrations up to 20 μ M. The result was consistent with the finding in the A β_{total} assay. Notch signaling, assessed by Hes-1 expression, was also not affected in studies conducted in mouse and dog.

The synthesis of **4** is described in Scheme 2. In method 1, alkylation of **23** with 1-(1-bromoethyl)-4-fluorobenzene provided **24**. Coupling of **24** with 3-methoxy-4-(4-methyl-1*H*-imidazol-1-yl)benzaldehyde afforded an alcohol intermediate, which was then oxidized to give ketone **25**. Compound **25** was transformed into **4** by hydrazone formation and ring closure, followed by chiral HPLC separation of enantiomers. Alternatively, in method 2, a Mitsunobu reaction of **23** with (*R*)-1-(4-fluorophenyl)ethanol installed the chirality of **4** at an early stage. Compounds **5**, **6**, **15**, **16**, and **18**–**22** were prepared by method 1.³⁵ Analogues 7, **12**, and **17** were synthesized by method 2.

Synthesis of compounds 8-11 and 13 are presented in Scheme 3. A Mitsunobu reaction of 26 with (*R*)-1-(4-fluorophenyl)ethanol provided chiral ester 27. This compound was hydrolyzed under basic conditions to give an acid intermediate, which was then activated by cyanuric fluoride and reduced by NaBH₄ to afford compound 28. PMB protection of 28, followed by coupling with 3-methoxy-4-(4-methyl-1*H*-imidazol-1-yl)benzaldehyde, gave an alcohol intermediate, which was then converted to 14 by oxidation of this alcohol to a ketone, hydrazone formation from this ketone, and ring closure using POCl₃. The PMB protecting group of compound 14 was removed, and the resulting alcohol 13 was converted to compound 8 by DAST treatment. Compounds 9-11 were prepared by a similar method to that described for 8.

In summary, we discovered a series of pyrazolopyridines as potent γ -secretase modulators that demonstrated good in vitro activity for reducing $A\beta_{42}$ production. Several analogues were identified to show statistically significant in vivo efficacy, with compound **18** providing the greatest reduction of CSF $A\beta_{42}$ in rats. This compound underwent additional testing, and the results will be the subject of a future publication.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information. Experimental procedures for assay protocols as well as synthesis and characterization of compounds 1–22. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We thank Drs. Chad Bennett, Andrew Stamford, and Eric Parker for proofreading and comments on the preparation of manuscript.

ABBREVIATIONS

AD, Alzheimer's disease; NFT, neurofibrillary tangle; $A\beta$, amyloid- β ; BACE1, β -secretase 1, β -site APP cleaving enzyme 1; APP, amyloid precursor protein; GSIs, γ -secretase inhibitors; GSMs, γ -secretase modulators; CSF, cerebrospinal fluid

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