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Letter

Structure-Based Design of Potent and Selective CK1 γ Inhibitors

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(5) Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Aberrant activation of the Wnt pathway is believed to drive the development and growth of some cancers. The central role of $CK1\gamma$ in Wnt signal transduction makes it an attractive target for the treatment of Wnt-pathway dependent cancers. We describe a structure-based approach that led to the discovery of a series of pyridyl pyrrolopyridinones as potent and selective $CK1\gamma$ inhibitors. These compounds exhibited good enzyme and cell potency, as well as selectivity against other CK1 isoforms. A single oral dose of compound **13** resulted in significant inhibition of LRP6 phosphorylation in a mouse tumor PD model.

KEYWORDS: Wnt pathway, CK17, cancer, pyridyl pyrrolopyridinone

The canonical Wnt pathway regulates the ability of the β catenin protein to activate specific target genes.¹ The level of the transcriptional activator β -catenin is tightly controlled by a destruction complex, which consists of adenomatous polyposis coli (APC), Axin, casein kinase 1α (CK1 α), and glycogen synthase kinase 3β (GSK3 β).² In the absence of a Wnt signal, the Axin and APC proteins form a scaffold that facilitates the sequential phosphorylation of β -catenin by CK1 α and GSK3 β . These events lead to ubiquitination and ultimately degradation of β -catenin in the proteasome. Interaction of a Wnt ligand with specific receptor complexes containing a Frizzled (Fzd) family member and LDL receptor-related proteins 5 and 6 (LRP5/6) coreceptor triggers the phosphorylation of the cytoplasmic tail of LRP 5/6 proteins by $CK1\gamma$, which creates high-affinity binding sites for Axin and facilitates relocation of Axin to the cell membrane. Recruitment of the low abundance Axin protein to the cell membrane disrupts the destruction complex and leads to the accumulation and nuclear translocation of β -catenin and to subsequent activation of Wnt target genes including c-MYC,³ Cyclin D1,^{4,5} and survivin.^{6,7} The central role of $CK1\gamma$ in Wnt signal transduction makes it an attractive target for the treatment of Wnt-pathway dependent cancers. $^{8-10}$

The casein kinase 1 (CK1) family of serine/threonine protein kinases is highly conserved and includes six human isoforms α , $\gamma 1$, $\gamma 2$, $\gamma 3$, δ , and ε .¹¹ The CK1 proteins have the highest degree of homology in their kinase domains but differ substantially in the length and amino acid sequence of their Nand C-terminal extensions. Multiple members of the CK1



family are shown to regulate the Wnt pathway through interactions with various proteins.^{12,13} For instance, phosphorylation of Ser45 in β -catenin by CK1 α is an obligate priming for subsequent phosphorylation by GSK3 β , which is a key step leading to β -catenin degradation.^{14,15} Additionally, phosphorylation of APC by CK1 δ/ε alters its binding affinity with β catenin and regulates the assembly of the destruction complex. Because of complex positive and negative regulation of the Wnt pathway by CK1 family members, we sought to pursue CK1 γ inhibitors with selectivity over other CK1 isoforms.¹⁶ Given the role of GSK3 β in regulating β -catenin, selectivity over GSK3 β was also deemed important. To date, there are no reports of selective CK1 γ inhibitors that demonstrate good cellular activity.¹⁶

The compounds presented in this study were examined for their ability to inhibit the activity of CK1 kinases (α , δ , and γ) using enzyme assays with recombinant CK1 kinase catalytic domains. Two cellular assays were developed to aid evaluation of CK1 γ inhibitors. First, a proximal PO₄-LRP6 cellular assay was used to measure the inhibition of CK1 γ -mediated phosphorylation of LRP6 in HEK293 cells. Second, a transcriptional Wnt reporter assay driven by multimerized TCF binding sites in the RKO colon cell line (RKO-STF) was

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Figure 1. (A) Structure and activity of compound 1. (B) Cocrystal structure of $CK1\gamma$ complexed with 1. The C-terminal insertion of $CK1-\gamma$ is colored yellow.

OMe

Table 1. SAR of Pyrimidinyl Pyrrolopyridinones



^aValues represent the mean of at least of two experiments.

employed to assess the effect of $CK1\gamma$ inhibition on downstream Wnt signaling events.

Starting from HTS hits, pyrimidinyl pyrrolopyridinone (1) was identified as a potent pan-CK1 inhibitor with modest selectivity over GSK3 β . In enzyme assays, it was equally potent on CK1 α and CK1 γ and slightly less potent on CK1 δ (Figure 1A). Compound 1 also exhibited robust cellular activity as measured by inhibition of PO₄-LPR6. However, it was much less potent in the RKO-STF assay, which reflects its weak ability to inhibit the downstream transcription. We hypothesized that the disconnection between the two cellular assays may be due to inhibition of other CK1 isoforms acting downstream of LRP5/6. To aid the design of selective inhibitors, a cocrystal structure of 1 with CK1 γ protein was obtained at 2.3 Å. The cocrystal structure reveals several key interactions between the inhibitor and the protein (Figure 1B.). The N1 of the pyrimidine core is hydrogen bonded to the

Leu119 in the hinge region of the kinase. The methoxy group is in close contact with Pro100 and the gatekeeper Leu116. The pyrrolopyridinone ring interacts with the protein through direct hydrogen bonds or through water-bridged hydrogen bond networks. The NH of the pyridinone is within the hydrogen bonding distance of Asp185, while the carbonyl group of the pyridinone directly interacts with Lys72 and engages in watermediated hydrogen bond interactions with Glu86 and Tyr90. Intriguingly, the quinoline ring points toward the C-terminal extension that contains Pro331 and Pro333, which is unique to the CK1 γ protein.¹⁷ Because of the low homology among CK1 isoforms in their C-terminal tails, we hypothesized that interactions of small molecules with the C-terminal extension could provide the basis for selectivity over other CK1 isoforms and even greater selectivity over other kinases.¹⁸

We postulated that modifying the rigid bicyclic quinoline to a more flexible side chain with general structure **2** might provide

Table 2. SAR of Pyridyl Pyrrolopyridinones



Compd	R CK1γ		CK1a		СК1б		GSK3β	PO ₄ -LRP6	RKO-STF
		$IC_{50}(\mu M)^a$	$\frac{IC_{50}}{(\mu M)^a}$	fold	IC ₅₀ (μM) ^a	fold	IC ₅₀ (μM) ^a	$IC_{50} (\mu M)^{a, b}$	$IC_{50}(\mu M)^a$
10	F-{	0.026	0.736	28	0.202	8	> 62.5	0.84	1.30
11	F	0.005	0.174	35	0.021	4	7.83	ND	0.584
12	F F	0.003	0.225	75	0.036	12	4.00	ND	0.394
13	F F	0.005	0.251	50	0.040	8	10.8	0.20	0.254
14	CH₃ F-√_−0	0.003	0.442	147	0.059	20	53.3	ND	0.537
15	F	0.004	0.383	96	0.114	29	38.1	0.087	0.044

^aValues represent the mean of at least of two experiments. ^bND = not determined.

a platform for discovery of compounds that could induce interactions with the C-terminal extension of $CK1\gamma$ protein (Figure 1A). Also, varying the linkage between the pyrimidine ring and the A-ring would allow access to compounds with different dihedral angles between the two aromatic rings. Thus, a focused library of compounds with various linkers on the lefthand side of the molecule was prepared. Selected results are summarized in Table 1. In general, potency against $CK1\gamma$ was not impacted significantly by these changes. A wide range of linkers showed similar potency on $CK1\gamma$ with the exception of compound 8. The isoform selectivity against other CK1 enzymes, however, was influenced by the nature of the linker. For instance, 4-fluorostyryl pyrimidine (3) showed low selectivity against CK1 α (7-fold) and CK1 δ (3-fold). A close analog with a saturated linkage, 4-fluorophenethyl pyrimidine (4), exhibited improved selectivity against both $CK1\alpha$ and CK1 δ (30-fold and 7-fold, respectively), albeit at the expense of potency. It was also noted that compounds having an NH group connected to the pyrimidine core, such as compounds 5 and 6, showed undesired inhibitory activity on GSK3 β .

To further improve isoform selectivity, we then investigated structural modification of the central heteroaromatic B-ring. The fact that only the N1 of the pyrimidine ring of 1 was shown to make a critical hydrogen bond interaction with $CK1\gamma$ protein in the cocrystal structure prompted us to investigate whether a pyridine ring could induce conformational changes that could improve isoform selectivity. This line of investigation led to the discovery of a series of pyridyl pyrrolopyridinones that were very potent on $CK1\gamma$ and highly selective against other CK1 isoforms. The results are summarized in Table 2. For compounds with a two-methylene linkage between the Aring and the central B-ring, the change from a pyrimidine to a pyridine had no effect on either potency or selectivity. For instance, 2-(4-fluorophenethyl)pyridine (10) showed similar CK1 γ potency and isoform selectivity to its pyrimidine congener 4. The pyridine ring, however, in combination with a $-CH_2O-$ linkage provided compounds with improved potency and isoform selectivity. For example, 2-(4-fluorophenoxymethyl)pyridine (11) (CK1 γ IC₅₀ 0.005 μ M and CK1 α selectivity 35-fold) was significantly more potent and selective against CK1 α compared to its pyrimidine counterpart 9 (CK1 γ IC₅₀ 0.024 μ M and CK1 α selectivity 6-fold). Intrigued by the improved isoform selectivity, further investigations were conducted on 2-phenoxymethyl pyridine by modification of the phenyl ring.

It was found that both $CK1\gamma$ potency and isoform selectivity were affected by substituents. Ortho-substitution on the phenyl ring enhanced isoform selectivity, as 2-((2,4-difluorophenoxy)methyl)pyridine (12) was considerably more selective against both CK1 α and CK1 δ (75-fold and 12-fold, respectively). Increase in the size of the substituent led to more selective compound 2-((2-fluoro-3-methylphenoxy)methyl)pyridine (14). Meta-substitution improved both isoform selectivity and cellular potency. For instance, 2-((3,4-difluorophenoxy)methyl)pyridine (13) exhibited better selectivity against both CK1 α and CK1 δ (50-fold and 8-fold, respectively) and superior potency in the RKO-STF cell assay (IC₅₀ 0.254 μ M). Importantly, these substitution effects appear to be additive, as a combination of ortho- and meta-substitutions led to 2-((3,4-difluoro-2-methylphenoxy)methyl)-pyridine (15), which demonstrated excellent cellular potency and was one of the most selective CK1 γ inhibitors. In addition, both 13 and 15 demonstrated good kinase selectivity against a broad panel of kinases (Ambit KINOMEscan).¹⁹



Figure 2. X-ray cocrystal structures. (A) 13 bound to $CK1\gamma$ protein. The C-terminal insertion of $CK1\gamma$ is colored yellow. (B) 13 bound to $CK1\delta$ protein. (C) 13 bound to $CK1\delta$ protein. (D) Overlay of different conformations of 13 as bound to $CK1\delta$ and $CK1\delta$.

Table 3. Pharmacokinetic Parameters of Compounds 13 and 15

	μ L/(min·mg) ^{<i>a</i>}				mouse po PK ^e					
compd	RLM	HLM	rPPB ^{b,c}	$mPPB^d$	dose ^f (mg/kg)	C_{\max} (μ M)	$t_{1/2}$ (h)	$T_{\rm max}$ (h)	AUC (μ M·h)	
13	46	59	96.9%	95.1%	30	9.72	2.7	0.33	15.4	
15	106	177	ND	99.2%	30	0.56	1.4	1.17	2.1	
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^{*a*}Compounds were incubated with microsomes for 30 min at a concentration of 1 μ M. ^{*b*}rPPB = rat plasma protein binding. ^{*c*}ND = not determined. ^{*d*}mPPB = mouse plasma protein binding. ^{*c*}Pharmacokinetic parameters following administration of compound **13** or **15** in male Mouse_CD1:3 animals per study. ^{*f*}Dosed in 10.0%Pluronic F68_30.0%HPBCD_60.0%water/MSA_pH2.5.

To understand the structural basis for the selectivity observed with these CK1 γ inhibitors, cocrystal structures of compound 13 with CK1 γ and CK1 δ were obtained. The structures were resolved at 2.4 and 1.8 Å, respectively (Figure 2). Not surprisingly, compound 13 binds very similarly to the two proteins in the ATP binding pocket, as it is highly conserved among CK1 proteins. The pyrrolopyridinone moiety of 13 in both CK1 γ and CK1 δ cocrystal structures engages the same hydrogen bond interactions in the ATP binding pocket as compound 1, and as a result it adopts almost identical conformations in both crystal structures. In the hinge region, the pyridyl nitrogen atom of 13 hydrogen bonds to a leucine residue, Leu119 in CK1 γ and Leu116 in CK1 δ , respectively. The methoxy group of 13 engages in a very similar hydrophobic interaction with the gatekeeper residues in both structures: Leu85 in CK1 γ and Met 82 in CK1 δ . The significant conformational difference was observed in the phenoxymethylene moiety of 13. In the CK1 γ cocrystal structure (Figure 2A), the difluorophenyl ring engages in a "face-to-face" interaction with Pro333 and an "edge-to-face" interaction with Pro331. Since these residues are unique to the CK1 γ isoform, hydrophobic interactions with them may account for the increased CK1 γ potency of 13 compared to compound 1, as a

productive hydrophobic interaction with the Pro-rich cterminal tail was not observed in the cocrystal structure of 1with the CK1 γ protein.

There are two different conformations of the difluoro phenyl ring of 13 present in the CK1 δ /13 cocrystal structure (Figure 2B and 2C), where the c-terminal tail unique to $CK1\gamma$ is absent. The difluorophenyl ring of 13 is rotated by $\sim 60^{\circ}$ in the CK1 δ / 13 complex, and the *meta*-fluorine is flipped compared with that in the $CK1\gamma/13$ complex. In one conformation, the difluorophenyl ring engages in hydrophobic interactions with the side chain of Ile15 from the glycine rich loop and the meta-F atom points to the solvent front (Figure 2B). In the other conformation, the meta-F atom of the difluoro phenyl ring hydrogen bonds to Arg13 (Figure 2C). The CK1 δ /13 cocrystal structure suggests that compound 15 will have to adopt different conformations in binding with the CK1 δ protein than compound 13, because the methyl group at the 2-position of the phenyl ring in 15 would bump into the hinge region of the protein if it binds the same way as 13. Consequently, in the absence of the favorable interactions of the phenyl ring with the protein observed in the CK1 δ /13 complex, compound 15 is expected to bind to the CK1 δ protein less favorably than 13. This may explain the significant loss of $CK1\delta$ potency of 15.

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In light of their excellent enzyme and cellular potencies, compounds 13 and 15 were evaluated in vivo in pharmacokinetic (PK) studies in rodents. The key PK parameters of compounds 13 and 15 are summarized in Table 3. Compound 13 demonstrated low turnover in human and rat liver microsomes. It provided a reasonable plasma exposure when dosed orally in mice at 30 mg/kg. On the other hand, compound 15 exhibited high intrinsic clearance in human and rat liver microsomes and demonstrated low oral exposure in mice at 30 mg/kg. The ortho-methyl group may account for the higher intrinsic clearance, as compound 14 also exhibited similarly high turnover in human and rat liver microsomes [HLM/RLM 123/88 μ L/(min·mg)].

Compound 13 was then evaluated in a pharmacodynamic (PD) assay measuring the inhibition of $CK1\gamma$ -mediated LRP6 phosphorylation in a human tumor xenograft mouse model. Subcutaneous tumors were formed in athymic nude mice using a HEK293 cell line that constitutively expressed LPR6 and had doxycycline-inducible expression of CK17. Mice were treated for 24 h with doxycycline (DOX, 0.5 mg/mL) in the drinking water to stimulate LRP6 phosphorylation before compound 13 was dosed orally at 50 mg/kg. The tumor tissues and plasma were collected 6 h postdosing, and LRP6 phosphorylation levels were quantified by an electrochemiluminescent assay. Significant inhibition (42%) of LRP6 phosphorylation was observed with an associated plasma exposure of 13 of approximately 2.7 μ M (Figure 3) and a plasma unbound concentration of 13 at 0.13 μ M, which is consistent with its PO₄-LRP6 cellular potency (IC₅₀ 0.20 μ M, Table 2).



Figure 3. Effect of compound **13** on CK17-mediated LRP6 phosphorylation in the human tumor xenograft model.

Compounds 11-15 were synthesized according to the routes outlined in Scheme 1. The synthesis commenced with carbonylation of pyridyl pyrrolopyridinone 16. The resulting methyl ester was reduced to primary alcohol 17, which was subsequently converted to corresponding bromide $18.^{20}$ Nucleophilic substitution of 18 with phenols led to compounds 11-14. Alternatively, a Suzuki coupling of 16 with the corresponding boronic ester furnished 15.

We have described the design, synthesis, and biological evaluation of a novel series of pyridyl pyrrolopyridinones as selective CK1 γ inhibitors. Compound **13** demonstrated excellent CK1 γ potency in both enzyme and cell assays, and it exhibited good selectivity against other CK1 isoforms. X-ray cocrystal structures revealed significantly different binding conformations of **13** in CK1 γ and CK1 δ proteins. The binding-mode differences were used to formulate a general hypothesis for the observed selectivity of this series of inhibitors. A single dose of compound **13** resulted in significant inhibition of LRP6 phosphorylation in a mouse tumor PD





^aReagents: (a) CO, Et₃N, PdCl₂dppf, MeOH, 95 °C; (b) DIBAL-H, DCM, 65%; (c) SOBr₂, DMF, 45%; (d) ArOH, K₂CO₃, DMF. (e) 2-((4,5-difluoro-2-methylphenoxy)methyl)-4,4,5,5-tetramethyl-1,3,2-dioxaborolane, PdCl₂AmPhos, K₂CO₃, dioxane, 120 °C; 40%.

model. Further investigations into the effects of selective pharmacological inhibition of $CK1\gamma$ in disease relevant models will be disclosed in future communications.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

S Supporting Information

Experimental details, synthesis of compound **16**, biological assays, kinase selectivity, and X-ray crytstallographic information. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

Accession Codes

The PDB accession codes for the X-ray cocrystal structures of $CK1\gamma + 1$, $CK1\gamma + 13$, and $CK1\delta + 13$ are 4HGL, 4HGS, and 4HGT, respectively.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

ABBREVIATIONS

APC, adenomatous polyposis coli; CK1, casein-kinase 1; GSK3 β , glycogen synthase kinase 3 β ; LRP5/6, LDL receptorrelated proteins 5 and 6; PPB, plasma protein binding; STF, Super TOP-Flash

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