



Synthesis and Evaluation of Novel Amidate Prodrugs of PMEA and PMPA

Carlo Ballatore,^a Christopher McGuigan,^{a,*} Erik De Clercq^b and Jan Balzarini^b

^aWelsh School of Pharmacy, Cardiff University, King Edward VII Avenue, Cardiff CF10 3XF, UK

^bRega Institute for Medical Research, Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, B-3000, Leuven, Belgium

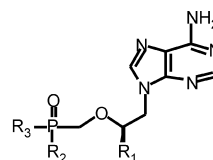
Received 20 November 2000; revised 14 February 2001; accepted 22 February 2001

Abstract—Some novel amidate prodrugs of PMEA and PMPA have been synthesised and tested in vitro for their biological activity. Compound **5** in particular showed greatly enhanced antiviral potency compared with the parent nucleotide analogue. In vitro enzymatic studies and structure–activity relationships indicate that the degradation mechanism of such prodrugs may be the same as that described for the phosphoramidate triesters of nucleotide analogues. © 2001 Elsevier Science Ltd. All rights reserved.

Acyclic nucleoside phosphonates (ANPs) represent a class of nucleotide analogues in which a phosphonate group is linked to the alkyl side chain of various purines and pyrimidines. This class of nucleoside analogues possesses broad-spectrum antiviral activity, together with a high level of selectivity in vitro and in vivo.¹ The prototype compounds are: (*S*)-1-(3-hydroxy-2-phosphonylmethoxypropyl)cytosine (HPMPC, cidofovir), which is active against a wide variety of DNA viruses;² 9-(2-phosphonylmethoxyethyl)adenine (PMEA, Fig. 1, **2**, adefovir), which is active against retro-, herpes-³ and hepadnaviruses,⁴ and (*R*)-9-(2-phosphonylmethoxypropyl) adenine (PMPA, Fig. 1, **1**, tenofovir), which is active against retro- and hepadnaviruses.⁵ Due to the structural nature of the P–C linkage, the ANPs are enzymatically stable and moreover they circumvent the first intracellular phosphorylation that is necessary for the activation of classical nucleoside analogues such as acyclovir. One of the disadvantages of the acyclic nucleoside phosphonates is the negative charge of the phosphonate moiety which significantly impairs their cellular uptake and causes low oral bioavailability. Their membrane transport is an active process that is considerably slower and less efficient than that of nucleoside analogues that cross the cell membrane by the nucleoside transport carrier system (e.g., for ddC) or by passive diffusion (e.g., for AZT). In order to improve the cellular uptake of the acyclic nucleoside phosphonates,

ester derivatives have been synthesized that contain a lipophilic group attached to the phosphonate moiety. The bis(pivaloyloxy methyl)- [bis-(POM)] ester of PMEA (**3**) shows a >100-fold increase in cellular uptake, resulting in a markedly higher antiviral efficacy and cytotoxicity when compared to PMEA.^{6,7}

However, the delivery of one molecule of the parent drug results in the liberation of two equivalents of potentially toxic formaldehyde and pivalinic acid.



Compds	R ₁	R ₂	R ₃
1	CH ₃	OH	OH
2	H	OH	OH
3	H	POM-O	POM-O
4	CH ₃	POC-O	POC-O
5	CH ₃	L-Ala-Me-ester	PhO
6	CH ₃	Gly-Me-ester	PhO
7	CH ₃	D-Ala-Me-ester	PhO
8	CH ₃	L-Phe-Me-ester	pCl-PhO
9*	CH ₃	L-Ala-Me-ester	pCl-PhO
10	CH ₃	PhO	PhO
11	H	L-Ala-Me-ester	PhO
12	H	Gly-Me-ester	PhO
13	H	D-Ala-Me-ester	PhO

*±PMPA

Figure 1. Amidate prodrugs of PMEA/PMPA.

*Corresponding author. Tel. and fax: +44-2920-874537; e-mail: mcguigan@cf.ac.uk

Additionally, it has been shown that bis(POM) phosphotriesters were chemically unstable and highly susceptible to serum-mediated hydrolysis, factors which limit their potential utility for intracellular drug delivery. A modification of the bis(POM) approach is the bis(POC). This modification uses a carbonate diester within the masking group. The bis(POC) has been chosen as the carrier of choice for PMPA.⁸ Similarly to the bis(POM), the bis(POC) was found to be highly unstable towards hepatic and blood esterases. In contrast to the bis(POM) approach, the bis(POC) avoids the generation of pivalic acid. However, it still generates two equivalents of formaldehyde. As a result, given that bis(POM) and bis(POC) might not be the ideal prodrug solution to the ANPs, different prodrug strategies should be examined.

Here we report our work on the design, synthesis and biological evaluation of a new class of amide prodrugs of PMPA and PMEA.⁹

The arylphosphoramidate triester approach has been successfully applied to a variety of nucleoside analogues such as d4T,¹⁰ d4A¹¹ and ddA.¹² A typical example of a phosphoramidate prodrug is given by the d4T-5'-phenyl methoxyalaninyl phosphoramidate triester **15** (Fig. 2).

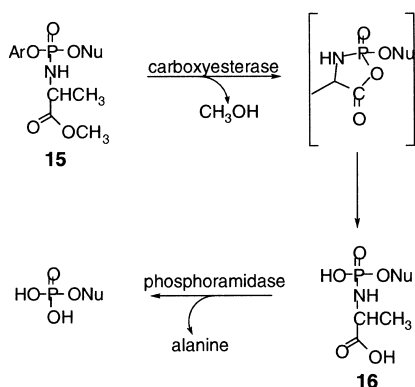


Figure 2. Metabolic activation of phosphoramidate prodrugs.

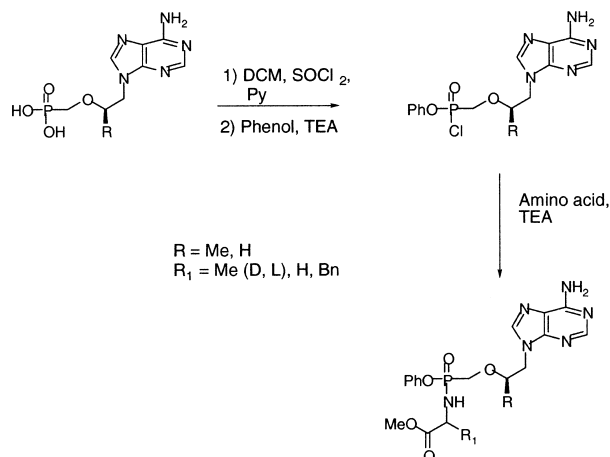


Figure 3. Synthetic route.

The degradation of the phosphoramidates is triggered by a carboxyl esterase-mediated cleavage of the methyl ester.¹³ After subsequent cyclization and elimination of the phenol via a putative five-membered ring intermediate, a relatively stable aminoacyl phosphoramidate diester **16** is formed. A phosphoramidase is then believed to cleave the P–N linkage releasing the free nucleotide.¹⁴ It has to be noted that the lability of P–N bonds in phosphoramidates compared to those in phosphoramidates is well documented.¹⁵ The P–N bond in a phosphoramidate monoester, is labile and hydrolyzed faster than that in a phosphoramidate diester.¹⁵ This suggests that if the amide prodrugs of PMEA/PMPA were activated following a similar degradation process as described for the phosphoramidates, the P–N linkage of the aminoacyl phosphoramidate intermediate (i.e., **17**, **18**, Fig. 4) may undergo spontaneous hydrolysis in addition to an enzymatic mediated step. This may be a potential advantage of the phosphoramidates because the activation step would be triggered by a single esterase-mediated step and less dependent on the phosphoramidase activity. In addition, it has been shown that the stability of the phosphoramidate towards enzymatic degradation is affected by the nature of the amino acid used and by the nature of the carboxylic ester function at the amino acid moiety.¹⁴ If a similar dependence is found for the amide prodrugs of phosphonates PMEA and PMPA, this would be a potential advantage over the bis(POM)/bis(POC) prodrugs, because it may be possible to more readily modulate the release of parent drug. For these reasons amide prodrugs of ANPs may represent an interesting alternative to the previously reported prodrug approaches. As a result, our first efforts were aimed to the synthesis of the phenyl methoxyalaninyl phosphoramidate diester of PMPA and PMEA and to the evaluation of their in vitro biological activity. The synthetic procedure proposed was based on the conversion of the parent nucleoside phosphonate analogues into their reactive phosphonodichloridates followed by a series of two couplings (Fig. 3). The chemistry of phosphonochloridates (their generation and coupling) has been described as idiosyncratic and the success in complex systems is possible only when mild conditions are employed.¹⁶

PMPA and PMEA were converted in mild conditions to their corresponding dichloridate using thionyl chloride as chlorinating agent and pyridine as base and catalyst. The reactions were checked for completion by ³¹P NMR and the crude product was used for the next step. From

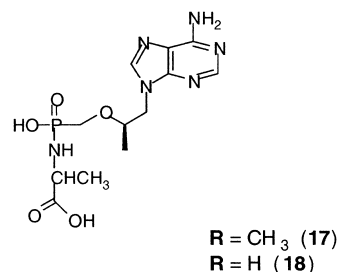


Figure 4.

the phosphonodichloridates a series of two subsequent couplings with the phenol and then the amino acid methyl ester in the presence of triethylamine yielded the desired target compounds. The order in which the couplings were made appeared to be essential. An additional problem was presented by the instability of the phenyl-phosphonochloridate during the reaction work-up.

As a result, a second chlorination reaction was often required. A final purification by column chromatography yielded the desired compounds with overall yield of 5% for **5** and **11**.¹⁷ Compounds **5** and **11** were tested for their biological activity in vitro. Both amide prodrugs displayed an enhanced antiviral activity when compared with the underivatized acyclic nucleoside phosphonate analogues (Table 1). The amide **5** was found to be 50–100 times more potent than PMPA (**1**) against HIV-1 in MT4 cells whilst the corresponding amide of PMEAs (**11**) was 30–50-fold more potent than PMEAs. Moreover, the selectivity index (SI) of **5** showed a significant enhancement (ca. 25 times) compared with **1** in MT4 cells. These results support the notion that phosphoramidate prodrugs of ANPs may be of medicinal and therapeutic interest. Following these results, we tried to establish whether the degradation mechanism of such amide prodrugs was the same as their phosphoramidate counterparts. Compounds **5** and **11** underwent our ³¹P NMR based carboxyl esterase assay¹⁸ to see whether the starting phosphoramidate prodrugs were processed by the enzyme, releasing the corresponding aminoacyl phosphoramidate monoesters. Both substrates showed, at time 0, two ³¹P NMR signals, one for each phosphate diastereoisomer. As the enzymatic reaction proceeded, these two signals of the starting material decreased with time with a calculated half-life of 100 and 37 h for compounds **5** and **11**, respectively.

Simultaneously another ³¹P NMR signal appeared at 18.1 ppm in the case of **5**, and at 17.7 in the case of **11**. Likely, as happened with the phosphoramidates under the same conditions, these ³¹P NMR signals correspond to the alaninyl phosphoramidate monoesters of R-PMPA (**17**, Fig. 4) and PMEAs (**18**) suggesting that the first enzymatic step in the degradation of the amide

prodrugs may be the same as described for the nucleoside phosphoramidates. Interestingly, no degeneration to the free ANP (**1**, **2**) was observed by ³¹P NMR after 48 h under the conditions used for the enzymatic assay. This indicates that compounds **17** and **18** are relatively stable. One of the clearest structure–activity relationships regarding the phosphoramidate prodrugs of d4T, was that the L-alanine was the preferred amino acid and that inversion of the chiral center at the amino acid to the D-series was detrimental for biological activity with a 30-fold reduction in antiviral potency.¹⁹ The reason for such a strong specificity toward the L-configuration was due to the fact that in order to release the free nucleotide, the aminoacyl phosphoramidate diester of d4T had to undergo a phosphoramidase-mediated P–N cleavage.

In the attempt to see whether the phosphoramidates had similar SARs to the phosphoramidates, the glycine- (**6**, **12**), D-alanine- (**7**, **13**) and L-phenylalanine- (**8**) phosphoramidates of PMEAs and PMPA were synthesized and tested for comparison. In addition, also the aryl substituted **9** of the racemic PMPA was prepared. Interestingly, from the data shown in Table 1, it appears that also for the phosphoramidates, the L-alanine is the preferred amino acid. It is notable that the D-alaninyl phosphoramidates (**7**, **13**) are, on average, 5–30 times (for the PMPA derivative) and 30–60 times (for the PMEAs derivative) less potent than the corresponding L-alaninyl phosphoramidates, as it was noted for the phosphoramidates of d4T. Similar results were obtained for the glycine derivatives **6** and **12**. This suggests that also in the case of the phosphoramidates, the P–N cleavage may be enzymatically driven rather than by a spontaneous chemical hydrolysis.

In conclusion, the data of biological activity and stability towards esterase are in general agreement and indicate that compounds **5** and **11** act as tripartate prodrugs that enhance the antiviral potency of PMPA and PMEAs. The mechanism of degradation of the phosphoramidates may follow the same two enzymatic steps involved in the degradation of the phosphoramidates. Similar SARs were found for the phosphoramidates of PMEAs and PMPA as earlier noted for nucleoside analogues such as d4T.

Table 1. Anti-HIV activity of test compounds

Compds	EC ₅₀ (μM) ^a HIV-1 MT4	EC ₅₀ (μM) ^a HIV-2 MT4	CC ₅₀ (μM) ^b MT4	EC ₅₀ (μM) ^a HIV-1 CEM	EC ₅₀ (μM) ^a HIV-2 CEM	CC ₅₀ (μM) ^b CEM
1	2.3	1.4	197	3.67	3.67	≥250
5	0.029	0.026	71.4	0.053	0.090	27
6	0.58	0.15	102	0.23	0.31	88.5
7	0.99	0.65	213	0.5	0.38	125
8	0.04	0.07	64	0.07	0.06	26
9	0.15	0.26	57	0.2	0.12	106
10	6.2	4.9	≥250	4.0	4.0	>250
2	7.0	7.5	144	7.0	10	69
11	0.23	0.15	5.1	0.12	0.20	3.7
12	3.6	4.8	120	5.6	4.5	80
13	15	7.2	120	5.0	6.0	67

^aEC₅₀, 50% effective concentration.

^bCC₅₀, 50% cytotoxic concentration.

Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to Mrs. Ann Absillis, Mrs. Anita Camps, Mrs. Frieda De Meyer, Miss Lies Vandenheuck and Mrs. Anita Van Lierde for excellent technical assistance. We thank the Welsh School of Pharmacy and the Fonds voor Wetenschappelijk Onderzoek Vlaanderen for financial support. We also thank Helen Murphy for excellent secretarial assistance.

References

1. Naesens, L.; Snoeck, R.; Andrei, G.; Balzarini, J.; Neyts, J.; De Clercq, E. *Antiviral Chem. Chemother.* **1997**, *8*, 1.
2. Hitchcock, M. J. M.; Jaffe, H. S.; Martin, J. C.; Stagg, R. J. *Antiviral Chem. Chemother.* **1996**, *7*, 115.
3. De Clercq, E.; Sakuma, T.; Baba, M.; Pauwels, R.; Balzarini, J.; Rosenberg, I.; Holy, A. *Antiviral Res.* **1987**, *8*, 261.
4. Yokota, T.; Mochizuki, S.; Konno, K.; Mori, S.; Shigheta, S.; De Clercq, E. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* **1991**, *35*, 394.
5. Balzarini, J.; Aquaro, S.; Perno, C. F.; Witvrouw, M.; Holy, A.; De Clercq, E. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* **1996**, *219*, 337.
6. Srinivas, R. V.; Robbins, B. L.; Connelly, M. C.; Gong, Y. F.; Bischofberger, N.; Fridland, A. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* **1993**, *37*, 2247.
7. Starrett, J. E., Jr.; Tortolani, D. R.; Hitchcock, M. J.; Martin, J. C.; Mansuri, M. M. *Antiviral Res.* **1992**, *19*, 267.
8. Arimilli, M.; Kim, C.; Dougherty, J.; Mulato, A.; Oliyai, R.; Shaw, J.; Cundy, K.; Bischofberger, N. *Antiviral Chem. Chemother.* **1997**, *8*, 557.
9. Lee, W. A.; He, G. X.; Eisenberg, E. J.; Cihlar, T.; Chapman, H. XIV International Roundtable on Nucleosides, Nucleotides and their Biological Applications (San Francisco, September 10–14, 2000), abstract 53, reports independent contemporaneous work in this area.
10. McGuigan, C.; Cahard, D.; Sheeka, H. M.; De Clercq, E.; Balzarini, J. *J. Med. Chem.* **1996**, *39*, 1748.
11. McGuigan, C.; Wedgwood, O. M.; De Clercq, E.; Balzarini, J. *Bioorg. Med. Chem. Lett.* **1996**, *6*, 2359.
12. Balzarini, J.; Cahard, D.; Wedgwood, O.; Salgado, A.; Velazquez, T.; Yarnold, C. J.; De Clercq, E.; McGuigan, C.; Thormar, H. *J. AIDS* **1998**, *17*, 296.
13. Balzarini, J.; Karlsson, A.; Aquaro, S.; Perno, C. F.; Cahard, D.; Naesens, L.; De Clercq, E.; McGuigan, C. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **1996**, *93*, 7295.
14. Saboulard, D.; Naesens, L.; Cahard, D.; Salgado, A.; Pathirana, R.; Velazquez, S.; McGuigan, C.; De Clercq, E.; Balzarini, J. *Mol. Pharmacol.* **1999**, *56*, 693.
15. Rahil, J.; Haake, P. J. *Am. Chem. Soc.* **1981**, *103*, 1723.
16. Malachowski, W. P.; Coward, J. K. *J. Org. Chem.* **1994**, *59*, 7625.
17. Synthetic and brief spectroscopic data on compound **5**: PMPA was suspended in anhydrous dichloromethane. After two consecutive additions of thionyl chloride (3.9 equiv) and of anhydrous pyridine (3.5 equiv), the mixture was left stirring under nitrogen for 30 min at room temperature. The solvent was removed under vacuo and the residue was co-evaporated with anhydrous dichloromethane. The residue was redissolved in anhydrous dichloromethane. To the stirring solution, a dropwise addition of a solution of phenol (0.9 equiv), freshly distilled triethylamine (1 equiv) and anhydrous dichloromethane was made at -78°C . The reaction mixture was stirred for 16 h. The solvent was then removed under vacuo and redissolved in anhydrous dichloromethane. A second chlorination reaction was made as described above. Alanine methylester hydrochloride (1 equiv) and anhydrous dichloromethane were added to the residue. To the stirring solution, a dropwise addition of a solution of triethylamine (2 equiv) and anhydrous dichloromethane was made at -78°C . The resulting mixture was stirred under nitrogen for 16 h upon warming to room temperature. The reaction was monitored by TLC (silica gel; eluent: 10% methanol in dichloromethane). The solvent was then removed under vacuo and the residue purified by column chromatography (silica gel; eluent: 5% methanol in dichloromethane) obtaining the desired product as colorless gums; yield 5%; δ_{P} (CDCl_3) 21.96, 23.60; δ_{H} 1.29 (6H, m, Ala-CH₃, PMPA-CH₃), 3.71 (4H, m, OCH₃, Ala-CH), 4.05 (5H, m, CH₂-P, CH₂-N, Ala-NH), 4.41 (1H, m, PMPA-CH), 5.87 (2H, bs, NH₂), 7.04 (1H, m, Ph), 7.24 (4H, m, Ph), 8.03 (1H, bs, H-2), 8.39 (1H, m, H-8); δ_{C} 17.01, 17.08 (PMPA-CH₃), 21.74 (Ala-CH₃), 48.68, 48.84 (CH₂-N), 49.82 (PMPA-CH), 51.24 (Ala-CH), 52.82 (OCH₃), 63.75, 65.83 (CH₂-P), 119.64 (C-5), 120.87, 120.93, 120.99 (Ph), 125.39 (Ph), 130.08 (Ph), 142.24 (C-8), 150.35, 150.59 (Ph), 153.26 (C-2), 155.71 (C-4), 160.74 (C-6), 174.47 (Ala-CO); MS *m/e* FAB 471.1523 (MNa^+ C₁₉H₂₅N₆O₅NaP requires 471.1522).
18. McGuigan, C.; Sutton, P. W.; Cahard, D.; Turner, K.; Oleary, G.; Wang, Y.; Gumbleton, M.; De Clercq, E.; Balzarini, J. *Antiviral Chem. Chemother.* **1998**, *9*, 473.
19. McGuigan, C.; Salgado, A.; Yarnold, C.; Harries, T. Y.; De Clercq, E.; Balzarini, J. *Antiviral Chem. Chemother.* **1996**, *7*, 184.