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5-Piperazinyl pyridine carboxamide bradykinin B₁ antagonists

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Abstract—A series of 2,3-diaminopyridine bradykinin B_1 antagonists was modified to mitigate the potential for bioactivation. Removal of the 3-amino group and incorporation of basic 5-piperazinyl carboxamides at the pyridine 5-position provided compounds with high affinity for the human B_1 receptor. © 2006 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

The production of bradykinin (BK) peptides transpires subsequent to tissue injury and noxious stimuli resulting in a variety of physiological effects, including pain and inflammation.1 There are two distinct G-protein-coupled bradykinin receptors, designated as B₁ and B₂, that regulate these effects.² The constitutively expressed B₂ receptor mediates the acute pain response following injury and is activated by the peptides bradykinin (BK = Arg-Pro-Pro-Gly-Phe-Ser-Pro-Phe-Arg) and kallidin (Lys-BK). Their corresponding metabolites, [des-Arg 9]BK and [des-Arg 10]kallidin, are substrates for the inducible B_1 receptor. Bradykinin B_1 receptor antagonists have been shown to ameliorate pain responses in animal models⁴ indicating the potential for treating inflammatory pain such as osteoarthritis via a novel mechanism.⁵ Additional evidence for the function of B₁ antagonists has been obtained from studies in both B₁ receptor knockout mice and, more recently, in transgenic mice expressing the human B₁ receptor.⁶

inflammation. However, evidence that 2,3-diaminopyridines such as 1 are subjected to bioactivation as depicted in Figure 1 impaired their development. Herein, we report our efforts to modify the 2,3-diaminopyridine nucleus to yield analogs which retain the beneficial properties of their progenitors.

The design rationale was based on the premise that removal or transposition of the 3-amino group on the diaminopyridine nucleus would lead to analogs incapable of forming reactive intermediates via the bioactivation route shown in Figure 1. Thus, we were pleased

to discover that removal of the 3-cyanoacetamide side chain yielded a truncated analog which still retained modest affinity for the human B_1 receptor (Fig. 2). This result held out the prospect that the A-ring in 2 is a

We have previously described the preparation and bio-

logical evaluation of a series of non-peptide, 2,3-diami-

nopyridine BK B₁ antagonists.⁷ These compounds

exhibited excellent affinity for the human B₁ receptor

(hBK₁), suitable pharmacokinetic properties, and good

in vivo efficacy in rabbit models of hyperalgesia and

Scheme 1 shows the route employed to prepare the 4-substituted pyridine derivatives of Table 1. Negishi

promising scaffold for further exploration.

Keywords: Bradykinin B1; Antagonists; Diaminopyridine; Bioactivation.

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Figure 1. Bioactivation route of 2,3-diaminopyridines.

O CN

A NH

NH

$$CO_2Me$$
 F
 CO_2Me
 $CO_$

Figure 2. Modification of lead B₁ antagonist 1.

Scheme 1. Reagents and conditions: (a) Rieke Zn, THF, $60 \,^{\circ}$ C; (b) Pd(Ph₃P)₄, $60 \,^{\circ}$ C, THF; (c) 2-amino-4-carboxyethylpyridine, NaB-H(OAc)₃, AcOH, DCE; (d) NaOH, THF, H₂O; (e) EDCI, TEA, R₂R₁NH, HOBt, CH₂Cl₂.

cross-coupling between bromide 4 and zinc reagent 5b provided the requisite biphenyl aldehyde 6. Reductive amination of 6 with 2-amino-4-carboxyethylpyridine led to ester 7. Selective hydrolysis of the ethyl ester and subsequent EDCI mediated coupling with the appropriate amines provided compounds 10–12.9

Scheme 2. Reagents and conditions: (a) Rieke Zn, THF, 60 °C; (b) Pd(Ph₃P)₄, 60 °C, THF; (c) Raney Ni, H₂, NH₃–MeOH; (d) methyl 6-chloronicotinate, TEA, MeOH, 110 °C; (e) NaOH, THF, 60 °C; (f) EDCI, TEA, amine, HOBt, CH₂Cl₂.

The preparation of 5-substituted pyridine derivatives of Tables 1 and 2 is illustrated in Scheme 2. Negishi cross-coupling of bromide 13 with zincate 5b proceeded smoothly and was followed by nitrile reduction to afford amine 14. Displacement of the chlorine of methyl 6-chloronicotinate with amine 14 provided ester 15. Subsequent hydrolysis and EDCI coupling produced the desired 5-substituted analogs 18–50.

In an earlier report, we disclosed a series of dihydroquinoxalinones, exemplified by 3, whose optimization was facilitated by a theoretical study using a BK B₁-rhodopsin homology model. A key finding in the latter study was that incorporation of a basic moiety led to enhanced affinity for the human B₁ receptor. Analogous studies with aminopyridine 2 (vide infra) indicated that a basic pharmacophore extending from the 4- or 5-position on the pyridine ring could potentially lead to similarly favorable interactions.

$$CI$$
 SO_2 SO_2 SO_3 : hBK₁ K_i = 0.034 nM

Accordingly, the pyridine A-ring of 2 was substituted with a variety of piperidine and piperazine derivatives. The compounds in Table 1 show that human B_1 receptor binding affinities are influenced by the position, as well as the nature of the linking unit. For example, a piperidine ring linked to the 4-position of the pyridine core via a methylene unit (8) showed a modest increase in receptor affinity relative to 2, but attachment at the 5-position afforded the more potent compound 16. A 20-fold decrease in affinity was observed when a piperidine ring was replaced with a morpholine ring at the 5-position. 5-Position substitution was also favored when the linking unit was changed to an amide (cf. 10 and 18). Overall, substitution at the 4-position for this series of

Table 1. Effect of linker at the 4- or 5-position on receptor affinities

Compound	X	Y	hK_i^b (nM)		
	Y				
	x N				
	L.				
	NNH				
		CO ₂ Me F (CI)			
	F ~	(0)			
8-12					
8 ^a	CH_2	CH_2	611		
9 ^a	CH_2	O	>3000		
10	CO	CH_2	>3000		
11	CO	0	2100°		
12	CO	NCH_3	893		
ſ	_Y_				
Į	N				
	N X				
	NNNH				
		ÇO ₂ Me			
	_/	F			
	F				
		16-20			
16	CH_2	CH_2	9.1		
17	CH_2	O	184°		
18	CO	CH_2	70°		
19	CO	O	80°		
20	CO	NCH ₃	4.4		

^a Compound has a chlorine ortho to the ester in place of fluorine.

compounds either had minimal effect or led to loss in binding affinity, whereas the addition of substituents to the 5-position yielded analogs with improved potency. The *N*-methyl piperazinyl amide **20** emerged as a key lead compound from this first phase of optimization.

Extended SAR work on compound 20 was centered on evaluating piperazine nitrogen substituents (Table 2). Acylation or sulfonylation (21–24) led to significant decreases in potency indicating a preference for the basic piperazine nitrogen. With regard to unsubstituted alkyl groups (25–32), a trend favoring larger groups became evident. However, it appears that the *i*-butyl group in 30 is optimum since the mere insertion of a methylene unit to give the homologous isopentyl group (31) resulted in a 6-fold reduction in affinity. While fluoroethyl piperazine 37 was equipotent with ethyl piperazine 26, the difluoro-(38), and trifluoroethyl analogs (39) were less potent, which was consistent with the decreased basicity of the corresponding piperazine nitrogen.

Table 2. Effect of piperazine N-substituent on receptor affinity

Compound	R	hK _i ^a (nM)
21	t-BuCO	213 ^b
22	Ac	17 ^b
23	Ms	23 ^b
24	CO ₂ Me	34 ^b
25	Н	5.5
26	Et	3.4
27	Pr	1.7
28	Bu	1.4
29	<i>i</i> -Pr	2.2
30	<i>i</i> -Bu	1.5
31	<i>i</i> -Pent	9.5
32	2-Bu	1.5
33	Crotyl	3.3
34	Allyl	8.0 ^b
35	Homoallyl	4.0
36	Propargyl	25 ^b
37	CH ₂ CH ₂ F	5.2
38	CH_2CHF_2	28 ^b
39	CH ₂ CF ₃	52 ^b
40	cBu	2.9
41	cPent	1.5
42	cHex	2.8
43	CH ₂ cPr	0.85
44	CH₂cBu	3.4
45	CH ₂ cPent	1.7
46	Benzyl	26
47	Phenyl	62 ^b
48	2-Pyridyl	65 ^b
49	3-Pyridyl	3.5
50	4-Pyridyl	0.045

^a Values represent the average of two experiments.

Further receptor binding potency improvements of **28** were probed with cycloalkane (**40–42**), cycloalkylmethyl (**43–45**), *N*-benzyl (**46**), and *N*-aryl (**47–50**) substituents. In all instances, the receptor potency ceiling established by **28** could not be significantly superseded. However, the judicious placement of a nitrogen atom into **47** yielded the 4-pyridyl analog **50**, the most potent analog to be identified among the pyridinecarboxamide BK B_1 antagonists.

To address the potential for bioactivation of the pyridine carboxamides, diaminopyridine 1 and compound 50 were incubated in rat and human liver microsomes. As predicted, diaminopyridine 1 underwent extensive metabolism after incubation with human liver microsomes (HLM) and rat liver microsomes (RLM) (supplemented with NADPH and glutathione (GSH)), and produced a number of GSH-adducts as major metabo-

b Values represent the average of two experiments; standard deviation is +25%

^c Denotes n = 1.

^b Denotes n = 1.

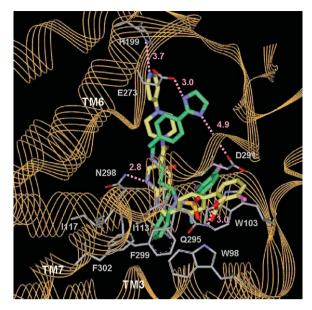


Figure 3. Compounds 3 (green) and 50 (yellow) bound to the homology model of the human B_1 receptor.

lites. Based upon mass spectral analysis, the formation of these conjugates appeared to involve modification of the diaminopyridine ring. However, compound 50 was more resistant to metabolism and formation of GSH-adducts was not detected, indicating that the metabolic pathway for 50 is unlikely to include a reactive pyridine intermediate (cf. Fig. 1).

Since the optimization of compound **3** was facilitated by modeling studies, ^{10,11} the activity of **50** may be rationalized in similar terms. As seen in Figure 3, the southern hydrophobic portion of the receptor binding site accommodates both the biphenyl group of **50** and the dihydroquinoxalinone moiety of **3**. Whereas the phenylimidazoline moiety of **3** reaches residues Glu273

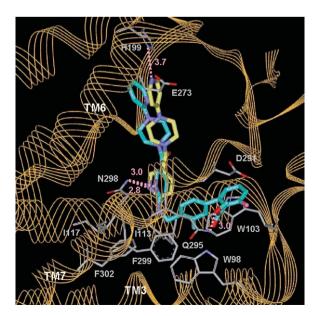


Figure 4. Compounds 48 (magenta) and 50 (yellow) bound to the homology model of the human B_1 receptor.

Table 3. Bradykinin mutant binding affinities

Mutant ^a	48	50	3
WT	79	0.041	0.034
E273	286	0.05	0.0078
D291	85	0.08	0.049
Q295	10,000	5.12	0.89
N298	726	0.83	0.038

^a Human K_i values (nM) represent the average of three experiments.

(3.0 Å) and Asp291, compound **50** is too 'long'. Accordingly, the 4-pyridyl tail is positioned toward His199.

Docking of the 2-pyridyl analog, 48, in the homology model (Fig. 4) further illustrates the binding advantage of compound 50 over other analogs in Table 2. Compound 48 lacks the ability to bind to His199 and no other residue can compensate for the polar interaction seen in 50.

In support of the modeling studies, mutagenic binding experiments were conducted. Residues Glu273, Asp291, Gln295, and Asn298 were selected to confirm that the piperazine series would use the northern pocket differently than compound **3** (Table 3).

Mutations at positions 273 and 291 would not be expected to significantly alter the potency of compounds 48 and 50. Consistent with the model, the potency of 50 in the wildtype (wt) remains within the same order of magnitude for these mutants. Mutation of residue Gln295, located at the bottom of the binding pocket, renders both 3 and 50 incapable of making good interactions (as in the wt) leading to a dramatic reduction in potency. The proposed models show that compound 3 does not make any direct interaction with Asn298, consistent with the mutant data. On the other hand, both 48 and 50 pair their pyridine N with residue 298. Such a polar interaction becomes weaker when a shorter Ser replaces the original Asn leading to the slight decrease in potency for both 48 and 50.

To address the potential for bioactivation of the 2,3-diaminopyridine ring, the attendant 3-cyanoacetamide group in compound 1 was deleted to afford a scaffold for further exploration. Incorporation of a 5-piperazinylpyridine pharmacophore dramatically increased affinity for the human B_1 receptor and gave compound 50 which did not form detectable GSH-adducts when incubated with NADPH-fortified HLM and RLM.

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