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N-Tetrahydroquinolinyl, *N*-quinolinyl and *N*-isoquinolinyl biaryl carboxamides as antagonists of TRPV1

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Abstract—Starting from the high throughput screening hit (3), novel *N*-tetrahydroquinolinyl, *N*-quinolinyl and *N*-isoquinolinyl carboxamides have been identified as potent antagonists of the ion channel TRPV1. The *N*-quinolinylnicotinamide (46) showed excellent potency at human, guinea pig and rat TRPV1, a favourable *in vitro* DMPK profile and activity in an *in vivo* model of inflammatory pain.

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Capsaicin (1), the pungent component of hot chilli peppers, has been shown to activate the ligand gated, non-specific cation channel TRPV1 (formerly known as vanilloid receptor-1, VR-1) which is located on the nociceptive primary afferents of the C-fibre pain pathway.¹ The receptor may also be stimulated by low extracellular pH, noxious heat and a variety of other endogenous and exogenous compounds such as the cannabinoid anandamide and the natural diterpene, resiniferatoxin (RTX). Activation of TRPV1 leads to an influx of calcium and sodium ions through the channel, causing depolarisation of the cell and ultimately the sensation of pain. TRPV1 agonists have been shown to be effective for the relief of pain in humans through desensitisation of the receptor.² However, disadvantages of this approach include the initial pain and irritation caused on administration and unsuitability for systemic based therapy due to widespread desensitisation. A competitive antagonist of TRPV1 possessing a shorter duration of action could provide an alternative strategy for the treatment of chronic pain,³ with the possibility that it may also offer an improved safety profile when compared to established analgesics such as NSAIDs and COX-2 inhibitors.

Keywords: TRPV1 antagonist; VR1 antagonist; Vanilloid.

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Capsazepine (2) was the first competitive antagonist⁴ to be developed but has been of limited use due to its low in vivo potency and non-specific effects (blockage of voltage-gated calcium channels and nicotinic acetylcholine receptors). We have previously reported on cinnamide SB-366791⁵ and a series of ureas, exemplified by SB-452533,⁶ as potent and selective inhibitors of TRPV1. A number of other groups have reported on thioureas,⁷ carboxamides,⁸ alternative series of cinnamides⁹ and ureas.^{8b,10}

Herein, we report the results of SAR studies on a novel series of carboxamides as TRPV1 antagonists leading to the identification of a compound possessing activity in a pre-clinical model of chronic inflammatory pain.



High throughput screening of the GSK collection using a FLIPR (FLuorescence Imaging Plate Reader) based Ca^{2+} antagonist assay with capsaicin as the agonist¹¹ resulted in the identification of the 1,2,3,4-tetrahydroquinoliny-5-yl (THQ) carboxamide (3). This compound possessed moderate antagonist potency at human TRPV1 (p K_b 6.5) and a lead optimisation programme was initiated.



First, the effects of changing the position of attachment of the biphenyl amide were investigated through preparation of the analogues of (3) as shown in Scheme 1. Testing compounds (3–6) in the FLIPR assay revealed that substitution at the 7-position of the THQ (5) was optimal for antagonist potency at TRPV1 (Table 1).

Second, the requirements for the nature of the substituent at the 1-position of the THQ in (5) were examined (Table 2). The unsubstituted THQ (11, pK_b 7.7) had similar potency to (5). Increasing the chain length and introducing polar groups into the side chain offered the opportunity to modulate the physicochemical properties of the series (12–15). However, while these substituents were generally well tolerated, potency levels were lower than those for the simple N-Me and N-unsubstituted analogues (5) and (11). Replacement of the alkyl side chain with acetyl (16) or methoxyacetyl (17) was also tolerated, indicating that the moderate basicity of the THQ nitrogen is not crucial for activity.

Alternatives to the THQ moiety were investigated next. Thus, the quinolinyl amide isomers (**18–21**) were prepared from the appropriate amine via EDCI mediated coupling with the relevant carboxylic acid.¹⁴ The 7-aminoquinoline precursor to amide (**20**) was initially prepared in low yield from 3-nitroaniline via the Skraup quinoline synthesis¹⁵ followed by catalytic hydrogenation of the resultant 7-nitroquinoline. An improved procedure was required for larger-scale synthesis and

 Table 1. Antagonist activity (FLIPR) versus capsaicin at human

 TRPV1 for 1-Me-tetrahydroquinoline derivatives 3–6

N 7 8 0 Me
IVIG

Compound ¹²	Substitution	hTRPV1 pK_b^{13}
3	5-	<6.5
4	6-	7.1
5	7-	7.5
6	8-	<6.3

 Table 2. Antagonist activity (FLIPR) versus capsaicin at human

 TRPV1 for 7-tetrahydroquinoline derivatives 11–17

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N R ¹	N H	Ph

Compound ¹²	R^1	hTRPV1 pK_b^{13}
11	Н	7.7
12	-(CH ₂) ₂ OMe	7.3
13	-(CH ₂) ₂ NMe ₂	7.4
14	-(CH ₂) ₂ -(1-morpholinyl)	7.0
15	-(CH ₂) ₂ NHC(O)Me	6.9
16	-C(O)Me	7.2
17	-C(O)CH ₂ OMe	7.2

Scheme 2 outlines an effective procedure using as a key step, DDQ oxidation of the 7-nitro-1,2,3,4-THQ intermediate (10) used for the synthesis of (5).¹⁶ Evaluation of this series (Table 3) indicated that the preference for 7-substitution was even more marked than in the THQ series, with compound (20) showing an 80-fold increase in TRPV1 antagonist potency over the 1-Me substituted THQ (5).

Modification of the conditions for the oxidation step enabled the efficient preparation of the 2-Me analogue (22) as shown in Scheme 2. This analogue was targeted as 2-unsubstituted quinoline templates have previously been shown to be metabolically unstable through the action of aldehyde oxidase.¹⁷ Interestingly, it was found that introduction of the 2-methyl substituent was



Scheme 1. Reagents and conditions: (a) Ac_2O , DCM, 0 °C, rt; (b) H_2 , PtO₂, EtOH, 50 °C, 50 psi; (c) MeI, K_2CO_3 , DMF, rt; (d) 3MHCl_{aq}, 60 °C; (e) ArCO₂H, EDCI–HCl, DMAP, DCM, rt; (f) HNO₃, H_2SO_4 , 0–5 °C; (g) H_2 , 10% Pd/C, MeOH, rt, 1 atm.

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