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## 5 Orally Bioavailable $\beta_3$ -Adrenergic Receptor Agonists as Potential Therapeutic Agents for Obesity and Type-II Diabetes

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### INTRODUCTION

Although obesity is now recognized as a common medical problem in industrialized societies, it remains an inadequately treated disease. Obesity is recognized as a major risk factor for serious health complications including type-II diabetes, high blood pressure, cardiovascular disease, altered lipid metabolism, and cancers of the breast and uterus. Obesity is estimated to affect 15% of the population in industrialized countries.

30 million deaths per year in the United States [2]. However, health-care professionals generally use drugs to treat the complications of obesity rather than the underlying condition because of the small number of treatment options available for managing the disease.

Obesity arises from an imbalance between energy intake and energy expenditure. The major life-style factors contributing to an increase in the incidence of obesity are an increasingly sedentary lifestyle and increased caloric intake. However, clinical studies indicate that genetic factors also contribute to the disease. For instance, biochemical and metabolic differences between lean and obese individuals have been described calling into question the widely held opinion that obesity is modifiable by behavioural changes alone [3]. The public health issues associated with obesity justify the development of new medications for its treatment. In parallel with the rapid evolution of our understanding of the molecular mechanisms that cause obesity, there has been a corresponding increase in efforts to discover and develop new anti-obesity medications.  $\beta_3$ -Adrenergic receptor ( $\beta_3$ -AR) agonists are one of a number of promising categories of drugs that are under investigation. For recent reviews, see Refs. [4–10]. This review will focus on recent progress in the development of potent, selective and orally bioavailable  $\beta_3$ -AR agonists for the treatment of diabetes, and more particularly, of obesity.

#### $\beta_3$ -ADRENERGIC RECEPTOR: STRUCTURE AND ANTI-OBESITY ACTIVITY

As obesity arises from the storage of excess energy, especially in the form of triglycerides (TGs), weight reduction requires a period of negative energy balance, either by reducing food intake or by increasing energy consumption. However, most marketed anti-obesity drugs are appetite suppressants. An alternative mechanism for altering body fat composition is through increased energy expenditure, either by an increase in physical activity or by accelerating the metabolic processing of food and/or fat.

The  $\beta_3$  receptor is found primarily in adipose tissue, where fat is organized, and is known to mediate a variety of metabolic functions, including fat mobilization (lipolysis) from white adipose tissue (WAT), increased fat oxidation (thermogenesis) in brown adipose tissue (BAT), improved sensitivity to insulin, and relaxation of urinary bladder detrusor tissue. (For review on structure and function of the  $\beta_3$ -AR, see Ref. [11]). A number of recent studies indicate that the receptor is present in the human heart, skeletal muscle, gall bladder, gastrointestinal (GI) tract and prostate, in addition to adipocytes [12]. The  $\beta_3$  receptor is composed of a single 408 amino acid residue peptide chain that belongs to the super family of G-protein-coupled receptors. As expected, it has seven

hydrophobic stretches of about 22–28 residues forming seven transmembrane spanning domains that form the catecholaminergic binding site intracellularly. The glycosylated N-terminus is extracellular, whereas the C-terminus is intracellular. In contrast to the related  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  receptors, the  $\beta_3$  receptor contains no serine- and threonine-rich regions that are sites for protein kinase A phosphorylation. The absence of phosphorylation sites explain the resistance of the  $\beta_3$  receptor to down regulate following chronic stimulation, a feature that distinguishes it from the  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  receptors. The amino acid sequence of the human  $\beta_3$ -AR is about 50% identical to the human  $\beta_1$  or  $\beta_2$  receptor, respectively [13]. Comparison of the amino acid sequence of the human  $\beta_3$ -AR with that of other species reveals a high degree of sequence homology, approximately 80–90% between human, bovine, rodent, and canine  $\beta_3$  receptors, and monkey, and bovine  $\beta_3$  receptors are more similar to each other than the rodent (rat, mouse, and hamster) sequences. The human  $\beta_3$  receptor differs from the rodent sequences in several segments, a major one being the transmembrane spanning domain 1 (TM1) where a (Val-Ala-Leu) deletion was observed in rodents but not in higher species.

A naturally occurring polymorphism in the amino acid sequence of the  $\beta_3$ -AR in humans (Trp64Arg) has been identified. Interestingly, this variant in humans the arginine residue present at this position in animals. This mutation has been associated with an increased propensity for obesity in several populations, a feature of insulin resistance and early development of type-II diabetes [14–16]. One functional study on white fat cells showed that the mutant receptor is as responsive to the lipolytic effects of the noradrenaline as the wild-type [17]. However, it is yet to be established if  $\beta_3$ -AR agonists optimized for the wild-type  $\beta_3$ -AR are effective for treatment for obesity in individuals carrying this mutation.

The role of the  $\beta_3$  receptor in adipocytes is now well understood [4–6]. Like the  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  receptors, the  $\beta_3$  receptor is fully coupled to a stimulatory G-protein that activates adenylate cyclase in the plasma membrane to generate intracellular cAMP. Measurement of an increase in cAMP in Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells expressing the  $\beta_3$  receptor is a widely used screening assay for  $\beta_3$  agonists [18–20]. The cAMP activates protein kinase A that in turn activates hormone sensitive lipase (HSL) phosphorylation. The resulting lipase-induced lipolysis converts triglycerides in WAT into free fatty acids (FFAs). In brown adipocytes, FFA is oxidized to uncoupling protein 1 (UCP1) into carbon dioxide and water. UCP1 facilitates proton transport across the inner mitochondrial membrane without the need for ATP, thus 'wasting' energy as heat. The overall effect is a loss of body fat at the expense of more oxygen consumption. Thus, measurement of oxygen consumption is the mostly commonly used *in vivo* model for  $\beta_3$

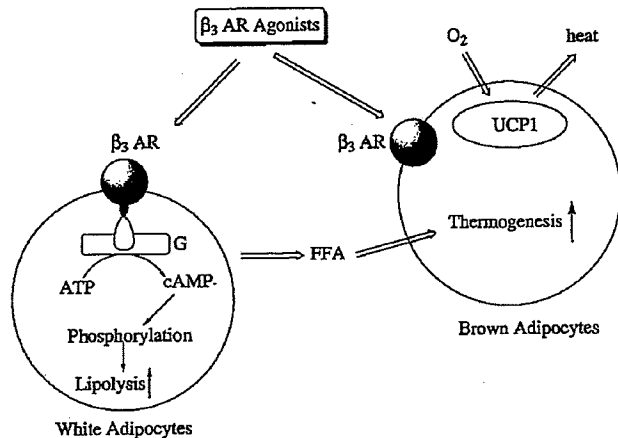


Figure 5.1. Proposed mechanism underlying the anti-obesity effect of  $\beta_3$ -AR agonists: FFAs, the breakdown products of  $\beta_3$ -AR mediated lipolysis of white adipocytes, stimulate a thermogenesis response in brown adipocytes via the UCP1.

Mice treated with a selective  $\beta_3$  agonist can double oxygen consumption, which demonstrates the remarkable capacity of this thermogenic mechanism [22].

In contrast to  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  receptors, which are primarily localized in the heart or on vascular, uterine, or airways smooth muscle,  $\beta_3$ -ARs are expressed abundantly and predominantly on BAT. The amount of adipose tissue in neonates is high relative to that in adults. However, with increasing age, the amount of BAT in lean humans declines, so it has been argued that the amount of BAT (and hence the amount of  $\beta_3$  receptors) in adult humans may not be enough to produce satisfactory thermogenesis by the activation of  $\beta_3$  receptors. However, evidence from a number of studies suggests that BAT can be restored in adult humans following chronic treatment with catecholamines. Other studies suggest that, in addition to BAT, skeletal muscle is another tissue where the oxidation of FFAs occurs. Skeletal muscle represents up to 40% of total body weight and is endowed with significant capacity for thermogenesis. A recently reported clinical study demonstrated that treating young lean volunteers with a selective  $\beta_3$  agonist induced an increase in plasma FFA concentrations, 24 h fat oxidation, and stimulated glucose disposal [23]. These new findings suggest that

the expression level of  $\beta_3$  receptors is high enough in humans (at least in lean subjects) to achieve the desired  $\beta_3$  agonist mediated metabolic effects.

UCP1, which oxidizes FFA into carbon dioxide and water, is specifically expressed in BAT. This would imply that the thermogenic effect of  $\beta_3$  agonism would be limited in the body to BAT where UCP1 is expressed. However, two homologues of UCP1 have been recently discovered. UCP2, expressed in most tissues at varying levels, is expressed mainly in skeletal muscle, WAT and BAT. Several studies suggest that these UCPs also have proton transport capacity. Given that UCPs are highly expressed in adult human tissues, this could mean that the thermogenic effect of  $\beta_3$  agonism could be more widespread than BAT, such as WAT and skeletal muscle, could contribute to energy expenditure and fat oxidation on stimulation of  $\beta_3$  receptors. Experiments have shown that chronic stimulation of the  $\beta_3$  receptors in obese animals resulted in reduced adiposity, associated with an increased thermogenesis. UCP1,  $\beta_3$  Agonists also up-regulate UCP2 and UCP3 in skeletal muscle of yellow KK mice. These results suggest that the anti-obesity effects of  $\beta_3$  agonists are attributable to increased thermogenesis, not only by UCP1, but also by UCP2 and UCP3 [24–27].

In addition to their anti-obesity effects,  $\beta_3$  agonists also exert other effects, including enhancement of insulin sensitivity and improved insulin-mediated glucose uptake. Chronic treatment with  $\beta_3$  agonists in obese animals results in hyperglycemia even at doses that do not cause weight loss. The underlying mechanism of the anti-diabetic effect of  $\beta_3$  agonism are currently under examination and readers interested in this aspect are referred to other in-depth discussions [5–7, 28].

#### BIOLOGICAL ASSAYS

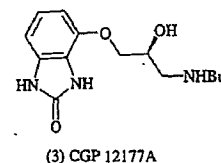
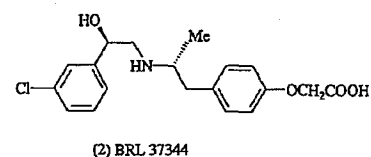
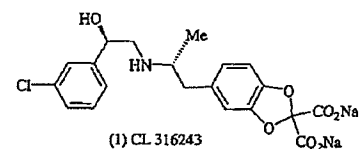
With the recognition of the differentiation between the rodent and human  $\beta_3$  adrenergic receptors, researchers have come to rely on the use of  $\beta_3$  receptor assays for the identification of  $\beta_3$  agonists [18–20]. The activities are assessed *in vitro* by measuring the accumulation of cAMP in cells expressing human-cloned  $\beta_3$ -,  $\beta_2$ -, and  $\beta_1$ -ARs. The resulting functional assays are reported in terms of potency ( $EC_{50}$ ) and intrinsic activity (IA) which is defined as a fraction of the maximum response caused by the non-selective full agonist isoproterenol. However,  $\beta_1$ - and  $\beta_2$ -ARs may have low cAMP functional activity at the  $\beta_1$ - and  $\beta_2$ -ARs may cause antagonist activity that may cause unwanted side-effects [5–10]. The affinities ( $K_i$ ) of the compounds to membranes prepared from cells expressing human-cloned  $\beta_3$ -,  $\beta_2$ -, and  $\beta_1$ -ARs are determined, and used to assess the selectivity of the agonist or antagonist.

A number of *in vivo* assays have been developed or adapted to assay the anti-hyperglycemic, anti-obesity and/or anti-diabetic activity of  $\beta_3$ -AR agonists in animals [9, 21]. Potent and selective human  $\beta_3$ -AR agonists have usually been evaluated *in vivo* in db/db mice, a model of type-II diabetes and obesity, for their anti-hyperglycemic properties (such as lowering plasma glucose or change in TG levels). Another *in vivo* assay measures changes in metabolic thermogenesis by measuring changes in oxygen consumption in transgenic mice expressing the human  $\beta_3$ -AR. However, the thermogenesis assay proved to have low sensitivity and necessitated using high doses. A lipolysis assay that measures the transformation of TGs to glycerol and FFAs has the advantage of greater sensitivity over the thermogenesis model.

#### ORALLY BIOAVAILABLE $\beta_3$ -AR AGONISTS AS THERAPEUTIC AGENTS

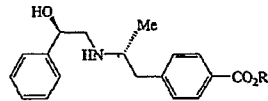
CL-316243, BRL-37344, and CGP-12177A (compounds 1–3) are representative of the first generation of  $\beta_3$  agonists that were optimized for activity and selectivity between  $\beta$ -AR subtypes by using rodents as a model for the modulation of adipose tissue in humans [4–10]. These compounds have shown effects attributable to  $\beta_3$  receptor stimulation, such as the mobilization of fat from WAT deposits, increased thermogenesis, and increased fat oxidation in rodents. In addition to their anti-obesity effects, they exhibit potent anti-diabetic effects (such as an increase in insulin secretion and improvement in insulin-mediated glucose uptake) in the rodent model type-II diabetes. However, human clinical trials with these early  $\beta_3$  agonists were disappointing because of a lack of selectivity and insufficient anti-obesity effects. In the late 1980s, important progress was made in the cloning and sequencing of the rat and human  $\beta_3$  receptors. With the human  $\beta_3$ -AR now available for the first time, it was soon apparent that these early clinical candidates were only partial agonists of this receptor and selectivity for the  $\beta_3$ -AR over  $\beta_2$ - and  $\beta_1$ -ARs in humans was actually a lot lower than that observed in rats. Many groups recognized that a cloned human receptor assay would offer major advantages over rodent models for the identification and optimization of future  $\beta_3$  agonists. Continued research effort led to a number of so-called second-generation compounds that are showing promising results in both primates and in humans. A large number of  $\beta_3$  agonists have been prepared and evaluated, and these fall basically into three structural classes, i.e., aryloxypropanolamines, aryloxypropanolamines, and tetrahydroisoquinolines. In the following discussion, we summarize progress in the discovery and optimization of orally bioavailable  $\beta_3$ -AR agonists as agents for the treatment of obesity and diabetes.

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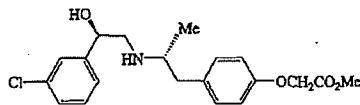
#### ARYLETHANOLAMINES

The phenethanolamine derivatives BRL-26830A (4) and BRL-28410 (5) were synthesized at Beecham Research Laboratories (now GlaxoSmithKline) and were the first  $\beta_3$ -AR agonists to be examined in rodents. For reviews, see [11, 12]. These esters are well absorbed and rapidly metabolized to the corresponding acids. *In vitro* the acids BRL-28410 (5) and BRL-26830A (4) were shown to have potent effects on rat lipolysis ( $\beta_3$  effect) and selectivity over atrial ( $\beta_1$ ) and tracheal ( $\beta_2$ ) effects. BRL-37344 is a potent and selective agent of the two, exhibiting 400-fold selectivity over  $\beta_2$ . The esters (4) and (6) were evaluated in a number of clinical trials. A slightly greater weight loss compared to placebo was observed in the further clinical trials were halted due to poor results and the occurrence of  $\beta_2$ -mediated side-effects.



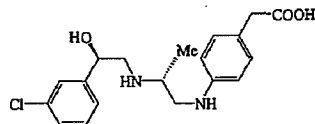
(4) R = Me BRL-26830

(5) R = H BRL-28410

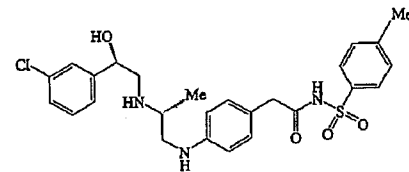


(6) BRL-35135

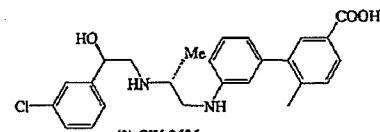
Researchers at Glaxo (now GlaxoSmithKline) explored a series of aniline-based phenethylamine  $\beta_3$  agonists in the 1990s [31, 32]. The parent compound (7) (GR-9803) was found to be a potent full agonist of the human  $\beta_3$ -AR ( $EC_{50} = 9$  nM) but with low selectivity over  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  receptors. Varying the size and acidity on the right-hand side of the phenyl substituent of (7) led to the acylsulphonamide derivative (8) and biphenyl derivative (9) (GW-2696). Acylsulphonamide (8) has an  $EC_{50}$  value of 1 nM and shows modest selectivity over the  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  receptors (500-fold over  $\beta_1$  and 60-fold over  $\beta_2$ ) [31]. Although it has a pharmacokinetic half-life of less than 2 h, it does show low clearance in the dog. The biphenyl analogue is a very potent and selective human  $\beta_3$  agonist ( $EC_{50} = 1$  nM, 375-fold over  $\beta_1$  and 750-fold over  $\beta_2$ ) [32]. This compound induces no significant stimulation of  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  receptors. GW-2696 has a half-life of 4.4 h and 41% bioavailability in the dog. In the db/db mice, it reduced glucose levels by at least 50% at a dose of 10 mg/kg for 1 or 2 weeks (route of administration unknown).



(7) GR-9803



(8)



(9) GW-2696

CL-316243 (1), optimized by the Wyeth group against rodent [33], is an extremely potent stimulant of rat BAT lipolysis ( $EC_{50} = 3$  nM) with more than 100,000-fold selectivity for the  $\beta_3$  over the  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  receptors. Although in early clinical studies it had low oral bioavailability, which necessitated high doses (up to 100 mg), a number of prodrugs of CL-316243 were synthesized in an effort to improve the oral bioavailability. A 2–3-fold increase in bioavailability was achieved with simple alkyl di-esters derivatives [34]. However, no clinical studies were conducted on these prodrug forms.

Typical of  $\beta_3$  agonists optimized for thermogenic activity in rodents, CL-316243 was subsequently found to be a weak partial agonist of the human  $\beta_3$  receptor with much reduced potency and selectivity ( $\beta_3$   $EC_{50} = 262$   $\mu$ M;  $\beta_1$   $EC_{50} = 111$   $\mu$ M). The synthesis and activity series of compounds with improved potency and selectivity in the human have been reported [35–44]. A piperidine analogue (10), possessing a thiazolidine moiety as a carboxylic acid replacement, was shown to be a potent and selective human  $\beta_3$ -AR agonist ( $\beta_3$   $EC_{50} = 10$  nM, IA = 1 nM, selectivity for  $\beta_3$  over  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$ ) [38]. The therapeutic potential of (10) for disorders related to obesity or type-II diabetes was demonstrated in a *in vivo* procedure which compared thermogenesis in human  $\beta_3$ -AR knock-out mice (Tg mice) with  $\beta_3$ -AR knock-out mice (KO mice). Administration (i.p.) to Tg mice and KO mice compound (10) was active.

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