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<p>(21) International Application Number: PCT/DK97/00340 (22) International Filing Date: 22 August 1997 (22.08.97)</p> <p>(30) Priority Data: 0931/96 30 August 1996 (30.08.96) DK 1259/96 8 November 1996 (08.11.96) DK 1470/96 20 December 1996 (20.12.96) DK</p> <p>(71) Applicant (for all designated States except US): NOVO NORDISK A/S [DK/DK]; Novo Allé, DK-2880 Bagsværd (DK).</p> <p>(72) Inventors; and (75) Inventors/Applicants (for US only): KNUDSEN, Liselotte, Bjerre [DK/DK]; Valby Langgade 49A, 1.tv., DK-2500 Valby (DK). SØRENSEN, Per, Olaf [DK/DK]; Applebys Plads 27, 5. mf., DK-1411 Copenhagen K (DK). NIELSEN, Per, Franklin [DK/DK]; Dalsø Park 59, DK-3500 Værløse (DK).</p> <p>(74) Common Representative: NOVO NORDISK A/S; Corporate Patents, Novo Allé, DK-2880 Bagsværd (DK).</p>	<p>(81) Designated States: AL, AM, AT, AU, AZ, BA, BB, BG, BR, BY, CA, CH, CN, CU, CZ, DE, DK, EE, ES, FI, GB, GE, GH, HU, IL, IS, JP, KE, KG, KP, KR, KZ, LC, LK, LR, LS, LT, LU, LV, MD, MG, MK, MN, MW, MX, NO, NZ, PL, PT, RO, RU, SD, SE, SG, SI, SK, SL, TJ, TM, TR, TT, UA, UG, US, UZ, VN, YU, ZW, ARIPO patent (GH, KE, LS, MW, SD, SZ, UG, ZW), Eurasian patent (AM, AZ, BY, KG, KZ, MD, RU, TJ, TM), European patent (AT, BE, CH, DE, DK, ES, FI, FR, GB, GR, IE, IT, LU, MC, NL, PT, SE), OAPI patent (BF, BJ, CF, CG, CI, CM, GA, GN, ML, MR, NE, SN, TD, TG).</p> <p><b>Published</b> <i>With international search report.</i></p>	
<p>(54) Title: GLP-1 DERIVATIVES</p> <p>(57) Abstract</p> <p>Derivatives of GLP-1 and analogues thereof having a lipophilic substituent have interesting pharmacological properties, in particular they have a more protracted profile of action than GLP-1(7-37).</p>		

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## GLP-1 DERIVATIVES

### FIELD OF THE INVENTION

- 5 The present invention relates to novel derivatives of human glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) and fragments thereof and analogues of such fragments which have a protracted profile of action and to methods of making and using them.

### 10 BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION

Peptides are widely used in medical practice, and since they can be produced by recombinant DNA technology it can be expected that their importance will increase also in the years to come. When native peptides or analogues thereof are used in therapy it is  
15 generally found that they have a high clearance. A high clearance of a therapeutic agent is inconvenient in cases where it is desired to maintain a high blood level thereof over a prolonged period of time since repeated administrations will then be necessary. Examples of peptides which have a high clearance are: ACTH, corticotropin-releasing factor, angiotensin, calcitonin, insulin, glucagon, glucagon-like peptide-1, glucagon-like peptide-2, insulin-like  
20 growth factor-1, insulin-like growth factor-2, gastric inhibitory peptide, growth hormone-releasing factor, pituitary adenylate cyclase activating peptide, secretin, enterogastrin, somatostatin, somatotropin, somatomedin, parathyroid hormone, thrombopoietin, erythropoietin, hypothalamic releasing factors, prolactin, thyroid stimulating hormones, endorphins, enkephalins, vasopressin, oxytocin, opioids and analogues thereof, superoxide  
25 dismutase, interferon, asparaginase, arginase, arginine deaminase, adenosine deaminase and ribonuclease. In some cases it is possible to influence the release profile of peptides by applying suitable pharmaceutical compositions, but this approach has various shortcomings and is not generally applicable.

- 30 The hormones regulating insulin secretion belong to the so-called enteroinsular axis, designating a group of hormones, released from the gastrointestinal mucosa in response to the presence and absorption of nutrients in the gut, which promote an early and potentiated release of insulin. The enhancing effect on insulin secretion, the so-called incretin effect, is probably essential for a normal glucose tolerance. Many of the  
35 gastrointestinal hormones, including gastrin and secretin (cholecystokinin is not

insulinotropic in man), are insulinotropic, but the only physiologically important ones, those that are responsible for the incretin effect, are the glucose-dependent insulinotropic polypeptide, GIP, and glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1). Because of its insulinotropic effect, GIP, isolated in 1973 (1) immediately attracted considerable interest among diabetologists.

5 However, numerous investigations carried out during the following years clearly indicated that a defective secretion of GIP was not involved in the pathogenesis of insulin dependent diabetes mellitus (IDDM) or non insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (NIDDM) (2). Furthermore, as an insulinotropic hormone, GIP was found to be almost ineffective in NIDDM (2). The other incretin hormone, GLP-1 is the most potent insulinotropic substance

10 known (3). Unlike GIP, it is surprisingly effective in stimulating insulin secretion in NIDDM patients. In addition, and in contrast to the other insulinotropic hormones (perhaps with the exception of secretin) it also potently inhibits glucagon secretion. Because of these actions it has pronounced blood glucose lowering effects particularly in patients with NIDDM.

15 GLP-1, a product of the proglucagon (4), is one of the youngest members of the secretin-VIP family of peptides, but is already established as an important gut hormone with regulatory function in glucose metabolism and gastrointestinal secretion and metabolism (5). The glucagon gene is processed differently in the pancreas and in the intestine. In the pancreas (9), the processing leads to the formation and parallel secretion of 1) glucagon

20 itself, occupying positions 33-61 of proglucagon (PG); 2) an N-terminal peptide of 30 amino acids (PG (1-30)) often called glicentin-related pancreatic peptide, GRPP (10, 11); 3) a hexapeptide corresponding to PG (64-69); 4) and, finally, the so-called major proglucagon fragment (PG (72-158)), in which the two glucagon-like sequences are buried (9). Glucagon seems to be the only biologically active product. In contrast, in the intestinal

25 mucosa, it is glucagon that is buried in a larger molecule, while the two glucagon-like peptides are formed separately (8). The following products are formed and secreted in parallel: 1) glicentin, corresponding to PG (1-69), with the glucagon sequence occupying residues Nos. 33-61 (12); 2) GLP-1(7-36)amide (PG (78-107))amide (13), not as originally believed PG (72-107)amide or 108, which is inactive). Small amounts of C-terminally

30 glycine-extended but equally bioactive GLP-1(7-37), (PG (78-108)) are also formed (14); 3) intervening peptide-2 (PG (111-122)amide) (15); and 4) GLP-2 (PG (126-158)) (15, 16). A fraction of glicentin is cleaved further into GRPP (PG (1-30)) and oxyntomodulin (PG (33-69)) (17, 18). Of these peptides, GLP-1, has the most conspicuous biological activities.

35 Being secreted in parallel with glicentin/enteroglucagon, it follows that the many studies of enteroglucagon secretion (6, 7) to some extent also apply to GLP-1 secretion, but GLP-1 is metabolised more quickly with a plasma half-life in humans of 2 min (19). Carbohydrate

or fat-rich meals stimulate secretion (20), presumably as a result of direct interaction of yet unabsorbed nutrients with the microvilli of the open-type L-cells of the gut mucosa. Endocrine or neural mechanisms promoting GLP-1 secretion may exist but have not yet been demonstrated in humans.

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The incretin function of GLP-1(29-31) has been clearly illustrated in experiments with the GLP-1 receptor antagonist, exendin 9-39, which dramatically reduces the incretin effect elicited by oral glucose in rats (21, 22). The hormone interacts directly with the  $\beta$ -cells via the GLP-1 receptor (23) which belongs to the glucagon/VIP/calcitonin family of G-protein-coupled 7-transmembrane spanning receptors. The importance of the GLP-1 receptor in regulating insulin secretion was illustrated in recent experiments in which a targeted disruption of the GLP-1 receptor gene was carried out in mice. Animals homozygous for the disruption had greatly deteriorated glucose tolerance and fasting hyperglycaemia, and even heterozygous animals were glucose intolerant (24). The signal transduction mechanism (25) primarily involves activation of adenylate cyclase, but elevations of intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  are also essential (25, 26). The action of the hormone is best described as a potentiation of glucose stimulated insulin release (25), but the mechanism that couples glucose and GLP-1 stimulation is not known. It may involve a calcium-induced calcium release (26, 27). As already mentioned, the insulinotropic action of GLP-1 is preserved in diabetic  $\beta$ -cells. The relation of the latter to its ability to convey "glucose competence" to isolated insulin-secreting cells (26, 28), which respond poorly to glucose or GLP-1 alone, but fully to a combination of the two, is also not known. Equally importantly, however, the hormone also potently inhibits glucagon secretion (29). The mechanism is not known, but seems to be paracrine, via neighbouring insulin or somatostatin cells (25). Also the glucagonostatic action is glucose-dependent, so that the inhibitory effect decreases as blood glucose decreases. Because of this dual effect, if the plasma GLP-1 concentrations increase either by increased secretion or by exogenous infusion the molar ratio of insulin to glucagon in the blood that reaches the liver via the portal circulation is greatly increased, whereby hepatic glucose production decreases (30). As a result blood glucose concentrations decrease. Because of the glucose dependency of the insulinotropic and glucagonostatic actions, the glucose lowering effect is self-limiting, and the hormone, therefore, does not cause hypoglycaemia regardless of dose (31). The effects are preserved in patients with diabetes mellitus (32), in whom infusions of slightly supraphysiological doses of GLP-1 may completely normalise blood glucose values in spite of poor metabolic control and secondary failure to sulphonylurea (33). The importance of the glucagonostatic effect is illustrated by the finding that GLP-1 also lowers blood glucose in type-1 diabetic patients without residual  $\beta$ -cell secretory capacity (34).

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