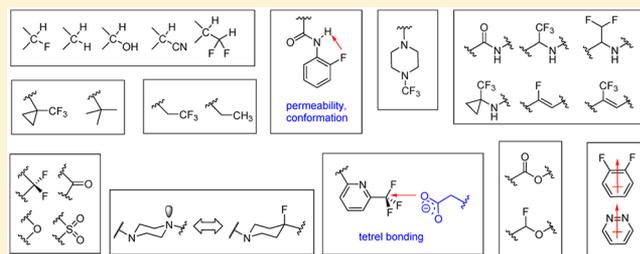


Fluorine and Fluorinated Motifs in the Design and Application of Bioisosteres for Drug Design

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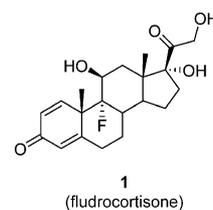
ABSTRACT: The electronic properties and relatively small size of fluorine endow it with considerable versatility as a bioisostere and it has found application as a substitute for lone pairs of electrons, the hydrogen atom, and the methyl group while also acting as a functional mimetic of the carbonyl, carbinol, and nitrile moieties. In this context, fluorine substitution can influence the potency, conformation, metabolism, membrane permeability, and P-gp recognition of a molecule and temper inhibition of the hERG channel by basic amines. However, as a consequence of the unique properties of fluorine, it features prominently in the design of higher order structural metaphors that are more esoteric in their conception and which reflect a more sophisticated molecular construction that broadens biological mimesis. In this Perspective, applications of fluorine in the construction of bioisosteric elements designed to enhance the in vitro and in vivo properties of a molecule are summarized.



INTRODUCTION

The design of bioisosteres is a useful principle in drug design that, although widely practiced, is contextual in application. Thus, the design of bioisosteres requires detailed insight into the physicochemical properties of an element, heterocycle, or functional group if effective emulation is to be achieved and, ideally, complemented by a similar level of understanding of the binding site of a molecule.¹ Bioisosterism has its origins in the concept of isosterism between relatively simple functionality and small molecules that was advanced by Moir and Langmuir a century ago.¹ However, contemporary interpretations of structural metaphors in a biological setting accommodate a much broader range of bioisosteric structural motifs that can vary considerably in size and shape from the functionality being emulated.^{1,2} Thus, modern bioisosteric relationships are rooted far more in functional reproduction of biochemical pharmacological properties that reflect aspects of molecular recognition that are often unique to a specific environment.¹ Consequently, the relationship between shape and/or aspects of physicochemical properties of a bioisostere can be oblique. Fluorine has played a prominent role in drug design since the approval of the first fluorinated drug, the synthetic 9 α -fluoro-substituted corticosteroid fludrocortisone (**1**), on August 18, 1955.³ The applications of fluorine in the design of drugs and agricultural chemicals continues to grow as our knowledge and understanding of how to take full advantage of the unique properties of this element matures.^{4–6} This has been fostered by the development of innovative synthetic methodology which is providing access to new fluorinated motifs with interesting topographies and physicochemical attributes.⁷ While early applications of fluorine as a bioisostere focused on the relatively simple replacement of hydrogen atoms in drug molecules, often as a means of influencing metabolism, the last 20 years has seen broader deployment of fluorine and

fluorinated motifs in the construction of more sophisticated structural arrangements that are able to emulate and influence a number of more traditional functionalities. In this Perspective, I provide a synopsis of some of the practical applications of fluorine as a bioisostere in drug design, ranging from the simple substitution of the hydrogen atom in the setting of alkyl and aromatic moieties to examples that utilize fluorine in conjunction with additional functionalities to explore bioisosteric relationships that are more esoteric in nature and which are, in some cases, less well developed.



KEY PROPERTIES OF FLUORINE OF RELEVANCE TO BIOISOSTERE DESIGN

The effective application of fluorine in drug design requires an understanding of its key physicochemical properties, and those of relevance to the design of bioisosteres are summarized in Table 1.^{4,8} Fluorine is approximately 20% larger than hydrogen based on comparison of the van der Waals radii, while the length and size of a C–F bond is more closely aligned with a C=O bond than either the shorter C–H or longer C–OH, C–C \equiv N, or S=O bonds. The electronegativity of fluorine is closer to that of oxygen, which is reflected in the dipole moment of the C–F

Received: December 5, 2017

Published: February 5, 2018

Table 1. Key Properties of the C–F Bond Compared to the C–H, C=O, C–OH, C–C≡N, and S=O Bonds

bond	bond length (Å)	van der Waals radius (Å)	van der Waals volume of atom (Å ³)	total size (Å ³)	electronegativity of the element	dipole moment μ (D)	π	bond dissociation energy (kcal/mol)
C–H	1.09	1.20	7.24	2.29	2.20	~–0.4	0	98.8
C–F	1.35	1.47	13.31	2.82	3.98	1.41	0.14	105.4
C–Cl	1.77	1.75	22.45		3.16	1.87 (CH ₃ Cl)	0.71	78.5
C=O	1.23	1.52	14.71	2.73	3.44	2.33 (H ₂ C=O)	CHO: –0.65	85 (π bond)
C–OH	1.43 (CH ₃ OH) 1.48 (CH ₃ CH ₂ OH)	1.52	14.71		3.44	2.87 (CH ₃ OH) 1.66 (CH ₃ CH ₂ OH)	–0.67	84.0
C–C≡N	2.22 (HCN)					3.92 (CH ₃ CN)	–0.57	
S=O	1.44 (CH ₃ SO ₂ CH ₃)	1.52	14.71		3.44	4.44 (CH ₃ SO ₂ CH ₃) ⁹	CH ₃ SO: –1.58 CH ₃ SO ₂ : –1.63	

Table 2. Comparisons of the Size of Alkyl and CF₃ Groups Based on Van Der Waals Volume, A Values, Taft Es Values, Biphenyl Interference Values, and the Activity of the Two Structurally-Related Series of MMP-9 Inhibitor Probes 2 and 3

	vdW volume (Å ³)	A value (kcal/mol)	Taft Es value	biphenyl rotational interference value (kcal/mol) ¹⁴	experimental biphenyl rotational B value ($\Delta G_{rot}^{\ddagger}$ kcal/mol) ¹⁵	inhibition of MMP-9 by 2/3 IC ₅₀ (nM) ¹⁶
H	1.20		0			
F	13.3	0.15	–0.46	4.6	4.4	
Me	21.6	1.70	–1.24	9.7	7.4	1/10
Et	38.9	1.70	–1.31		8.7	2/27
CF ₃	39.8	2.10	–2.40	12.1	10.5	87/22
<i>i</i> Pr	56.2	2.15	–1.71	12.6	11.1	1800/4500
<i>t</i> Bu		>4.50	–2.78	18.3	15.4	

bond being larger and in the opposite direction of a C–H but less than that of C=O, S=O, C–OH, and C–C≡N moieties. Fluorine is modestly more lipophilic than a hydrogen atom and significantly more lipophilic than OH, C=O, C≡N, or sulfoxide and sulfone substituents. Unlike chlorine, bromine, and iodine, fluorine does not engage in halogen bonding and is nonpolarizable, a property that underlies strong electrostatic interactions which can be attractive or repulsive.⁴ These properties confer fluorine with considerable versatility such that it has been explored as a potential bioisostere of the hydrogen atom, carbonyl and sulfonyl functionalities, the carbinol moiety, and the nitrile, with effective functional mimicry very much dependent upon the biochemical context.

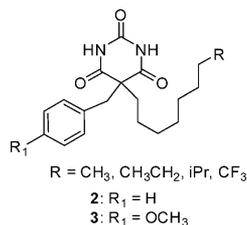
■ FLUORINE AS A BIOISOSTERE OF THE HYDROGEN ATOM IN ALKYL MOIETIES

Developability Aspects Associated with Fluorination and the Size of the CF₃ Moiety. Replacing hydrogen atoms with fluorine has been explored extensively in drug design, most commonly to replace those bound to an aromatic ring or in the context of a CF₃ for CH₃ replacement where these substitutions can modulate potency or interfere with metabolic modification.¹⁰ The replacement of a hydrogen atom by fluorine would be expected to add to the physical size, modestly increase the lipophilicity of a molecule based on the π coefficient of 0.14 determined for fluorine, but more significantly increase molecular weight (MW) (Table 1). Thus, the replacement of a CH₃ by CF₃ would be expected to increase the overall lipophilicity of a molecule (cLog P) by 0.42 and add 54 Da to the MW, parameters that would be anticipated to negatively affect ligand efficiency metrics.¹¹ However, fluorination of a molecule does not necessarily lead to an increase in lipophilicity, and several structural motifs are associated with increased polarity based on a matched molecular pairs (MMP) analyses.^{4d,12} Fluorine atoms that are deployed in a molecule such that they are proximal to an oxygen atom, separated by a distance of <3.1 Å, can exhibit a lower measured Log P value, while vicinal alkyl fluorides offer increased polarity as a function

of C–F dipole alignment that is favored by the gauche effect, stabilizing a more polar conformation (vide infra). Adding to these observations, concerns around the effect of fluorination on ligand efficiency metrics has been addressed by a careful MMP analysis of the performance of a large data set of compounds evaluated in in vitro developability assays.¹³ This study, in which fluorine was present in a range of environments but most commonly incorporated as an aryl-F, aryl-CF₃, or an aryl-CF₂H motif, concluded that polyfluorination may not necessarily represent a deleterious modification. On the basis of an analysis of P-glycoprotein (P-gp) recognition, lipophilicity, metabolic stability, and membrane permeability using assays conducted in vitro, fluorine was found to behave more like a hydrogen atom, leading to the contention that up to five fluorine atoms can be introduced into a molecule without a significant impact on performance in these assays.¹³ As a consequence, it was suggested that the MW increase associated with the introduction of fluorine may be ignored in efficiency metric calculations and that the fluorine-corrected molecular weight MW_{FC} (MW_{FC} = total MW – MW of the fluorine atoms present in the molecule) should be used as a more suitable and relevant descriptor for this purpose.¹³

The size of the CF₃ moiety has also been somewhat challenging to definitively assess and this moiety has often been considered to be isosteric with an iso-propyl substituent, although it is clearly of a different shape.^{4g} The calculated van der Waals volumes, the A values, and both experimental measures of biphenyl rotational interference compiled in Table 2 all indicate that the CF₃ is a smaller than an iso-propyl substituent with the exception of the Taft Es value which uniquely indicates the reverse, although the differences projected by several of these measurements are relatively modest.^{14,15} Under some circumstances, the CF₃ moiety has been found to sterically dominate a phenyl or *tert*-butyl substituent in defining the stereochemical outcome of an aldol reaction.^{15d–f} Assessing the size of the CF₃ moiety in biochemical applications is unlikely to simplify the inherent complexity associated with this question given the context-dependent nature of drug–target interactions. Nevertheless, an experiment designed

to compare the size of the CF₃ and an iso-propyl substituent in a biological context has been conducted with matrix metalloprotease-9 inhibitors where the alkyl side chains of **2** and **3** project into the well-defined lipophilic S1' pocket of the enzyme.¹⁶ In both series, an alkyl chain terminating in CH₃ or CH₃CH₂ was associated with potent inhibitory activity, while the respective iso-propyl homologues were over 1000-fold weaker; however, the two CF₃-substituted derivatives largely retained the potency of the smaller alkyl groups, data captured in Table 2. These results indicate that, in this specific context, the CF₃ moiety could be considered to be bioisosteric with an ethyl rather than an iso-propyl substituent.¹⁶

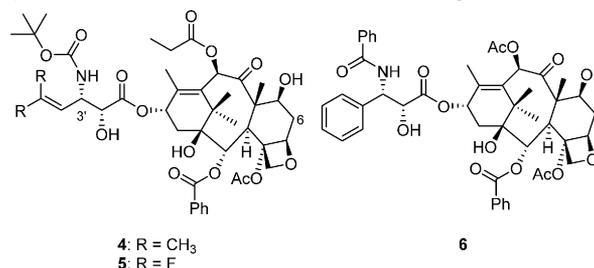


Fluorination as an Approach to Reducing Metabolism.

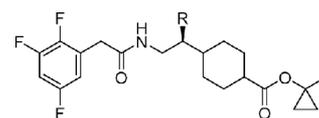
Because the introduction of fluorine can lead to resistance toward oxidative metabolism, fluorination has developed into a popular approach to addressing the poor pharmacokinetic performance of compounds in vitro and in vivo.^{10,17} Under some circumstances, a CH₃ substituent can be replaced directly by a fluorine atom despite being 40–50% smaller, although metabolically labile alkyl groups are more commonly addressed by more sophisticated motifs in which the CF₃ moiety plays a prominent role. While the introduction of fluorine is often directed specifically toward a metabolic soft spot, the effects of fluorination can be indirect and complex. As a consequence, the effect can range from negative or null, possibly due to redirecting metabolism to an alternative site, to global protection toward metabolic modification, while the effects exerted on the metabolic stability of proximal functionality can be positive or negative dependent upon context.^{18–20}

Examples where replacing hydrogen atoms with fluorine exerts a positive effect on metabolism are provided by the taxoids **4** and **5**, which are related to paclitaxel (**6**) and the GPR119 agonists **7** and **8**.^{21,22} For the taxoid derivatives, CYP 3A4 oxidation of the C-3' iso-butenyl CH₃ groups of **4** represented an important metabolic pathway that prompted replacement of the allylic methyl substituents by fluorine, affording **5**. Fluorinated derivative **5** exhibited highly potent cytotoxicity toward a series of human cancer cell lines, with a 10–1000-fold advantage over **6**.²¹ Remarkably, **5** was quite resistant to metabolic modification in the presence of CYP 450 enzymes, with the introduction of the two fluorine atoms providing protection against metabolic modification

at the C-3' *N*-t-Boc and C-6 methylene moieties known to be the major sites of metabolic lability in the homologue **6**.²¹



In the example provided by GPR119 agonists, compound **7** displayed poor metabolic stability in vitro which was attributed to its high lipophilicity, *E*Log *D* = 4.3.²² Replacing of the CH₃ substituent β- to the amide *N* atom with fluorine afforded **8**, which exhibited enhanced metabolic stability while also illuminating aspects of the bound conformation. This was the result of the *N*-β-fluoroethylamide adopting a preferred conformation in which the two elements were in a gauche relationship (vide infra), which constituted about 75% of the conformer population on the NMR time scale.²²



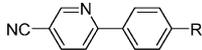
7: R = CH₃
 EC₅₀ (h-cAMP) = 44 nM; IA = 124%
 Cl_{int} (HLM) = >300 mL/min/kg

8: R = F
 EC₅₀ (h-cAMP) = 80 nM; IA = 107%
 Cl_{int} (HLM) = 42.44 mL/min/kg

In a study seeking replacements for a *tert*-butyl moiety that would offer improved metabolic stability, systematic modifications to the 3 methyl groups were explored in the context of the simple biphenyl derivative 6-(4-(*tert*-butyl)phenyl)nicotinonitrile (**9**) (Table 3).^{23,24} The effects of structural modification were compared with compound persistence when incubated in rat and human liver microsomes (RLM and HLM), respectively, with the results summarized in Table 3. While some success was achieved with the polar substituents found in **10–13**, these were viewed as potential liabilities in the context of a drug target where the *tert*-butyl group may be accommodated in a hydrophobic binding pocket. The CF₃-substituted cyclopropyl (Cp-CF₃) moiety exemplified in **17** emerged as the optimal lipophilic substituent, with higher metabolic stability in both RLM and HLM preparations than **14–16**.

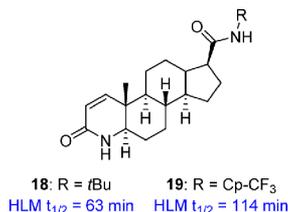
To further demonstrate the utility of the Cp-CF₃ substituent, comparison of liver microsomal stability data for six matched

Table 3. RLM and HLM Half-Life Values Associated with a Series of 6-(4-Substituted-phenyl) Nicotinonitrile Derivatives 9–17

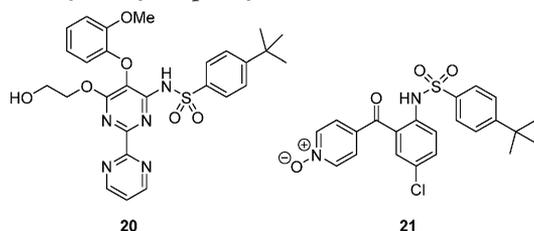


	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
R									
RLM t _{1/2} (min)	30	125	70	135	37	7	25	11	>400
RLM t _{1/2} (min)	51	202	122	274	38	9	66	35	150

pairs of biphenyl amide derivatives was probed, where the outcome was a positive result in each case, and as a replacement for the metabolically labile *tert*-butyl moiety in the steroid 5α -reductase inhibitor finasteride (**18**).²⁴ The Cp-CF₃ analogue **19** exhibited a $t_{1/2}$ in HLM of 114 min which compared to 63 min for **18**, with recognition that in this particular example, the modification may not protect against metabolism at other sites of the molecule and may cause a redirection of metabolism to alternative sites.



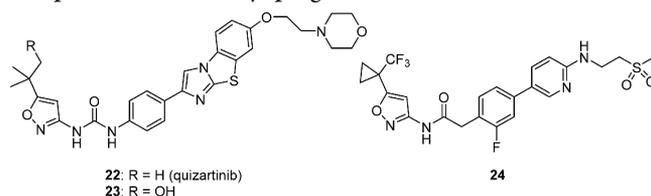
The Cp-CF₃ moiety featured prominently in a complementary study in which a series of *tert*-butyl isosteres were the subject of detailed in vitro profiling when installed in the background of the dual endothelin A and B antagonist bosentan (**20**) and the CCR-9 antagonist vercirmon (**21**), both of which contain a 4-(*tert*-butyl)benzenesulfonamide moiety.²⁵ In this analysis, the profiles of the *tert*-butyl progenitors were compared with the Cp-CF₃, CF₃, SF₅, and [1.1.1]-bicyclopentane (BCP) homologues, with the calculated relative sizes of these substituents compiled in Table 4. With the exception of Cp-CF₃, all of the substituents are smaller than a *tert*-butyl, and Log *D* measurements indicated that lipophilicity increased in the order of CF₃ < SF₅ < Cp-CF₃ < *t*Bu < BCP while the p*K*_a of the sulfonamide N–H increased in the order of SF₅ < CF₃ < Cp-CF₃ < *t*Bu \approx BCP.



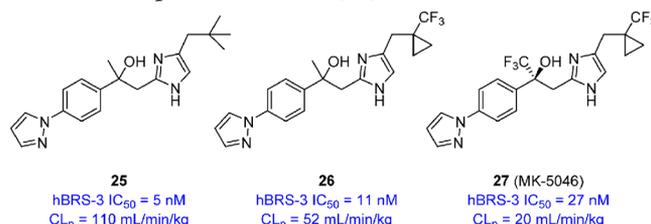
In the context of **20**, the Cp-CF₃- and BCP-substituted analogues performed similarly to the parent molecule as antagonists at the endothelin A and B receptors, while the CF₃- and SF₅-substituted derivatives were 10-fold less potent.²⁵ When incorporated as *tert*-butyl replacements in **21**, all of the substituents performed similarly to the prototype in a CCR9 functional assay.

In both series of compounds, there was a trend toward enhanced metabolic stability in liver microsomes for these substituents compared to the *tert*-butyl-substituted prototypes, with CF₃ and SF₅ the most effective. No significant CYP inhibitory effects were observed with either series, but the effects on solubility were varied in analogues of **20** while all of the modifications led to reduced solubility in the context of **21**.

These general observations have support from examples harvested from studies conducted across a range of compound structures with widely varying biochemical mechanisms, although there are unique contextual variations in individual performance. For example, the FMS-like tyrosine kinase 3 (FLT3) inhibitor quizartinib (**22**), which is in phase 3 clinical trials for the treatment of acute myeloid leukemia (AML), is metabolized at the *tert*-butyl moiety in humans to afford alcohol **23**.^{26,27} This liability was addressed in a related series of compounds by replacing the *tert*-butyl substituent with Cp-CF₃, with **24** characterized as a potent FLT3 inhibitor, *K*_d = 0.6 nM, with improved metabolic stability compared to its *tert*-butyl progenitor.²⁸



The Cp-CF₃ moiety in the human bombesin receptor subtype-3 (hBRS-3) agonist **26** provided a partial solution to the high metabolic turnover rate observed with the prototype **25**, with further refinement of the carbinol CH₃ to a CF₃ affording the more advanced compound MK-5046 (**27**).²⁹

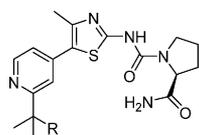


The 1,1,1-trifluoro-2-methylpropan-2-yl moiety addressed the metabolic liability of the *tert*-butyl substituent of the selective phosphatidylinositol-3 kinase- α (PI3K α) inhibitor **28**, a precursor to alpelisib (NVP-BYL719, **29**) which is currently in phase 3 clinical trials for the treatment of breast cancer (Table 5).³⁰

Table 4. Calculated Volumes of a Series of Substituents Normalized to the *tert*-Butyl Moiety

substituent	-CF ₃	-SF ₅			
relative size normalized to the <i>tert</i> -butyl moiety	-34.9 Å ³	-11.1 Å ³	-4.1 Å ³	0	+4.14 Å ³

Table 5. SARs, Metabolic Stability, and in Vivo Clearance Associated with the PI3K α Inhibitors **28** and **29**



	R	P110 α IC ₅₀ (nM)	P110 β IC ₅₀ (nM)	P110 δ IC ₅₀ (nM)	P110 γ IC ₅₀ (nM)	RLM clearance (μ L/min/mg)	rat clearance in vivo (mL/min/kg)
28	CH ₃	14	4400	330	430	77	39
29	CF ₃	5	1200	290	250	29	10

The main metabolic pathways for **28** were determined to be hydroxylation of one of the CH₃ moieties of the *tert*-butyl element and hydrolysis of the primary amide. The design of **29** was inspired by an examination of an X-ray cocrystal structure which indicated scope to slightly enlarge the size of *tert*-butyl moiety in order to more completely fill the pocket of the enzyme into which it projected. In the event, the CF₃ analogue not only retarded metabolism at this site, leading to lower clearance in vivo and excellent oral bioavailability ($F = 106\%$ in mouse, $F = 58\%$ in rat, and $F = 140\%$ in dog) but also enhanced potency by 2-fold. In the cocrystal structure of **28** with PI3K α , one fluorine atom of the CF₃ moiety was described as engaging in a hydrogen-bonding interaction with the protonated amine of Lys₈₀₂, while the bound conformation of the inhibitor was stabilized by an intramolecular interaction between one of the lone pairs of electrons on the urea oxygen atom and the low lying C–S σ^* of the sulfur atom of the thiazole, interactions depicted in Figure 1.^{30,31}

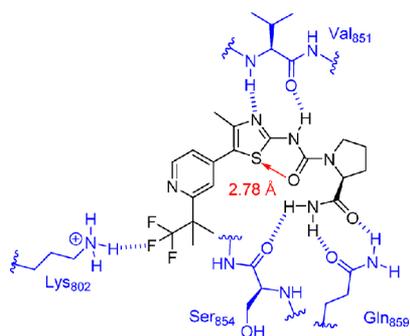
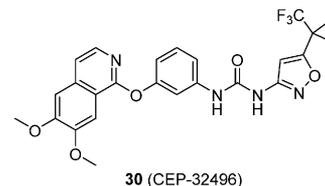


Figure 1. Key drug–target interactions between **29** and the PI3K α enzyme and conformational bias provided by an intramolecular O to S interaction.

Similarly, in a series of inhibitors of V-RAF murine sarcoma viral oncogene homologue B1 (BRAF) that led to the discovery

of CEP-32496 (**30**), the 1,1,1-trifluoro-2-methylpropan-2-yl substituent was a more effective bioisostere of a *tert*-butyl substituent that adequately addressed the metabolic lability associated with the prototype, preserving potency in this example more effectively than a Cp-CF₃ substituent which was a 2-fold weaker enzyme inhibitor.³²

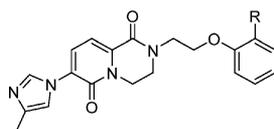


30 (CEP-32496)

In a series of γ -secretase modulators based on the *tert*-butyl-substituted lead compound **31**, which combined modest potency with poor metabolic stability, substituting one of the CH₃ moieties with a CF₃ gave **32**, which significantly improved both parameters (Table 6).³³ This result allowed further refinement of the structure by pruning of the substituent which revealed that both potency and metabolic stability were dependent upon the absolute configuration of the trifluoroethyl moiety. The (*R*)-isomer **33** was found to be superior to the (*S*)-antipode **34** and it was this motif that was retained in the optimized molecule **35** where the addition of a CH₃ moiety to the linker element was found to improve potency by a further 3-fold. More recently the CF₃ oxetane was evaluated as a *tert*-butyl replacement in the context of **36**, a modification that retained biological potency while lowering $E \text{ Log } P$, enhancing LipE, and improving metabolic stability in HLM compared to **31**.³⁴

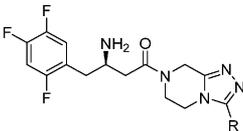
The triazole-based CF₃ substituent in sitagliptin (**40**), a potent dipeptidyl peptidase-4 (DPP-4) inhibitor marketed for the treatment of type 2 diabetes, is an important determinant of both its in vitro and in vivo profile.³⁵ In this example, the CF₂H (**38**) and CF₃ (**40**) moieties performed more effectively as bioisosters

Table 6. SARs, Lipophilicity, and Metabolic Stability Associated with a Series of γ -Secretase Modulators **31**–**36**^a



	R	R	IC ₅₀ (A β 42, nM)	cLog P	LipE*	HLM clearance (mL/min/kg)
31	H		128	3.3	3.6	95.7
32	H		30	3.2	4.3	24.3
33	H		20	2.8	4.9	12.3
34	H		85	2.8	4.3	23.4
35	F		20	2.8	4.9	12.3
36	F		74	1.9	5.2	37.1

^a*LipE = pIC₅₀ – Log P .

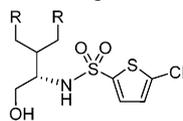
Table 7. SAR, Metabolic Stability, and Oral Bioavailability of the Series of DPP-4 Inhibitors 37–40


R	DPP-4 IC ₅₀ (nM)	rat clearance (mL/min/kg)	oral bioavailability (F, %) ^a
37 CH ₂ CH ₃	37	70	2
38 CF ₂ H	29	66	39
39 CF ₂ CF ₃	71	58	61
40 CF ₃	18	60	76

^aDose = 1 mg/kg IV; 2 mg/kg PO.

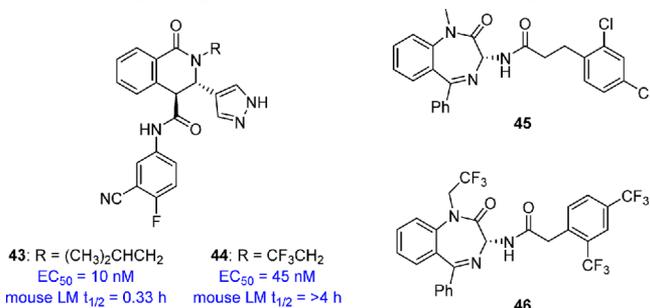
of the CH₃ in prototype 37, while the CF₂CF₃ substituent in 39 resulted in 2-fold lower enzyme inhibitory potency (Table 7). Strikingly, while the oral bioavailability of each of the 3 fluorinated 38–40 derivatives in the rat was significantly improved compared to 37, this was not the result of significant changes in clearance in vivo.

Fluorination of the terminal CH₃ groups of the γ -secretase inhibitor 41 was examined as an approach to address the metabolic modification that had been determined to occur at this site.³⁶ By replacing the CH₃ groups with CF₃, intrinsic enzyme inhibitory activity was improved marginally from an IC₅₀ value of 25 nM for 41 to 16 nM for begacestat (42), while the *t*_{1/2} in RLM increased from 1 to 8 min. This effect extended to mouse LM, where the *t*_{1/2} increased from 2 to 24 min, but not to HLM, where the measured *t*_{1/2} values for 41 and 42 were comparable at 8 min. The improved metabolic stability in mouse LM translated to enhanced exposure and better efficacy at lowering A β ₄₂ levels in mice in vivo, leading to 42 being selected for clinical evaluation.

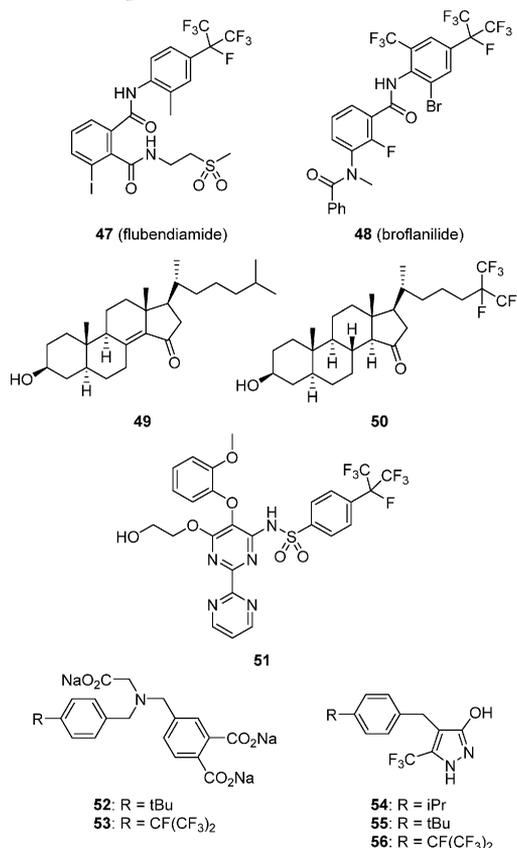


41: R = CH₃
42: R = CF₃

Fluorination of amide-bound alkyl groups has been shown to interfere with oxidative *N*-dealkylation processes.^{37,38} For example, replacing the iso-butyl amide substituent of the tetrahydroisoquinolone-based antimalarial agent 43 with the trifluoroethyl moiety found in 44 resulted in only a modest reduction in cell-based potency while metabolic stability in mouse LM was substantially increased.³⁷ Similarly, the CF₃CH₂ substituent in the slowly activating cardiac delayed rectifier potassium current (*I*_{Ks}) inhibitor 46 (L-768,673) was designed to interfere with the *N*-dealkylation observed with the *N*-methyl analogue 45, a known metabolic pathway for benzodiazepine derivatives, and this compound exhibited long lasting effects on the QT interval in dogs in vivo.³⁸

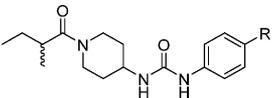


The heptafluoroisopropyl substituent was originally explored in the agricultural chemistry arena and is found in the pesticides flubendiamide (47), which activates insect ryanodine (Ry)-sensitive intracellular Ca²⁺ release channels, and broflanilide (48), a noncompetitive insect γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA) receptor antagonist.³⁹ This moiety has also found application in drug design campaigns where it has been evaluated as a substitute for the iso-propyl and *tert*-butyl substituents, most notably in the context of the hypocholesterolemic steroid 50 and the bosentan analogue 51, both of which offer improved metabolic stability compared to their progenitors 49 and 20, respectively.^{40,41} While 50 demonstrated higher potency toward lowering serum cholesterol levels in rats in vivo following oral dosing, 51 bound to the ET_A receptor with 16-fold reduced affinity (IC₅₀ = 75.4 nM) compared to 20 (IC₅₀ = 4.7 nM) although the selectivity index over the ET_A receptor was enhanced.



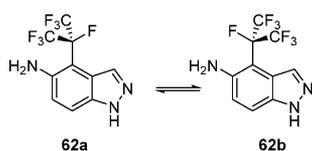
The selective aspartate semialdehyde dehydrogenase inhibitor 53 offers enzyme inhibitory potency comparable to the *tert*-butyl derivative 52, while substitution of the iso-propyl moiety in the hypoglycemic agent 54 with either *tert*-butyl (54) or heptafluoroisopropyl (56) led to reduced effects on sugar levels in vivo.^{42,43}

In a series of inhibitors of aryl urea-based soluble epoxide hydrolase (SEH) inhibitors, fluorination of the phenyl substituent group conferred increased potency with the CF₃ (59) and CF₃O (60) analogues 3- and 6-fold more potent than the iso-propyl (57) and *tert*-butyl (58) prototypes, respectively (Table 8).⁴⁴ However, the heptafluoroisopropyl substituent in 61 provided a uniquely potent inhibitor, with an almost 20-fold advantage over 59 and 60. Interestingly, while the aqueous solubility of 61 was 15-fold lower than 59, the CF₃O-substituted derivative 60 was 8-fold more soluble than both 57 and 59, an observation not anticipated by the predicted lipophilicity values.

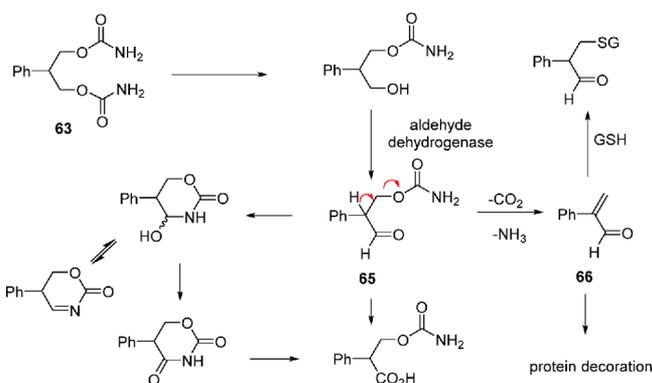
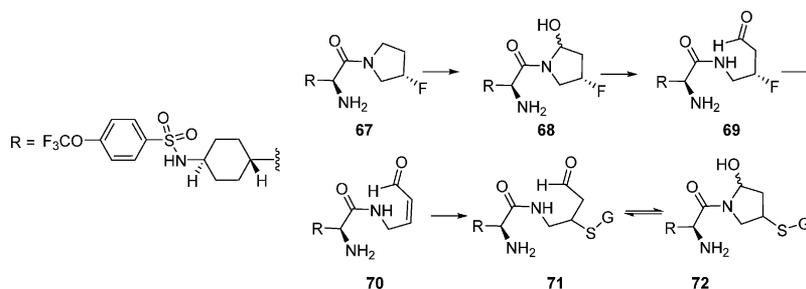
Table 8. Structure and Inhibitory Potency of a Series of Soluble Epoxide Hydrolase (SEH) Inhibitors


	R	SEH IC ₅₀ (nM)	solubility (μg/mL)
57	iPr	1.17	2.60
58	tBu	2.44	0.02
59	CF ₃	0.37	2.60
60	CF ₃ O	0.36	22.5
61	(CF ₃) ₂ CF	0.02	0.17

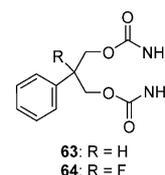
One word of caution with respect to the taking advantage of the heptafluoroisopropyl moiety as an aromatic substituent is the potential for it to exist as atropisomers when there is a large ortho-substituent. This has been observed with **62**, where the ¹H NMR spectrum indicated a 60:40 ratio of rotamers, with **62a** identified as the major component (Figure 2).⁴⁵

**Figure 2.** Atropisomerism associated with 4-(perfluoropropan-2-yl)-1H-indazol-5-amine.

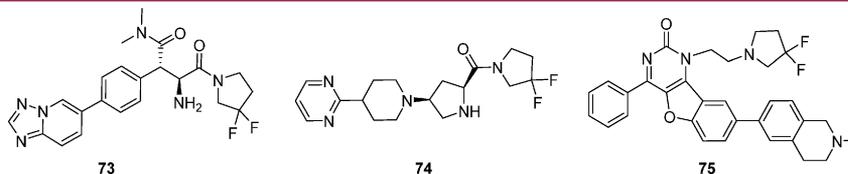
The coalescence temperature, as determined from monitoring the C-6 proton in Cl₂DCCDCl₂, was 108 °C, corresponding to an energy barrier of 19.4 kcal/mol. A similar observation was made with the naphthalene and benzofuran analogues in which the pyrazole ring of **62** is replaced by benzene and furan, respectively.

Scheme 1. Metabolism of 63 and the Release of 66**Scheme 2. Metabolic Activation Pathway Deduced for the DPP-4 Inhibitor 67**

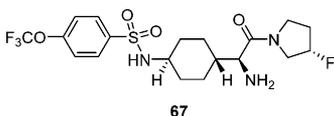
The strategic deployment of a fluorine atom can exert an effect on drug metabolism and toxicity in a less direct fashion, as exemplified by the design of the fluoro analogue **64** of the anticonvulsant felbamate (**63**).⁴⁶ Clinical use of **63** is associated with aplastic anemia and hepatotoxicity that is idiosyncratic in frequency and which has been suggested to be due to metabolic release of atropaldehyde (**66**), a bivalent electrophile capable of cross-linking proteins.^{46,47} The mechanism of release of **66** is postulated to occur by the metabolic process depicted in Scheme 1 and is believed to be the consequence of an irreversible retro-Michael reaction that results in the elimination of H₂O and CO₂ from **65**. The formation of **66** is efficiently blocked by the fluorine atom present in **64**, which prevents the fluorinated metabolite analogous **65** from undergoing the retro-Michael reaction.⁴⁷ The preclinical anticonvulsant profile of **64** compares favorably to **63** and is, in some circumstances, superior, and this compound has been advanced into clinical trials.^{48,49}

**Metabolic Activation of Fluoro-alkyl Derivatives.**

Despite the high strength of the C–F bond (Table 1) and the relatively poor ability of fluoride to act as a leaving group, circumstances have been documented where an alkyl fluoride derivative undergoes metabolic activation that sets the stage for the elimination of HF from sp³-hybridized carbon centers.^{8,50} Fluorine atoms are introduced into the ring of pyrrolidine derivatives as an isostere of hydrogen designed to interfere with metabolism, moderate the basicity of the nitrogen atom if so configured, or modulate ring conformation (vide infra). However, one circumstance where this structural configuration presented problems is exemplified by the DPP-IV inhibitor **67**, which was observed to generate protein adducts when incubated in RLMs.⁵⁰ The protein covalent binding associated with **67** was irreversible and dependent on both time and NADPH but could be abrogated by including GSH or *N*-acetyl cysteine in the incubation medium. Trapping experiments using semicarbazide, a hard nucleophile that reacts with aldehydes, helped to elucidate the metabolic pathway depicted in Scheme 2. Metabolic activation is believed to be initiated by α -hydroxylation adjacent to the nitrogen atom of the pyrrolidine ring to give the hemiaminal **68** that, upon ring opening to the aldehyde **69**, is configured for the elimination of HF to form the Michael acceptor **70**. The unsaturated aldehyde **70** is an electrophile with dual sites of reactivity and thus has the potential to cause protein cross-linking. However, the addition of a soft nucleophile like GSH



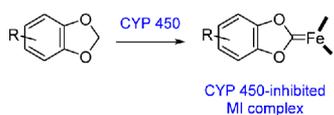
would provide **71**, which is presumably in equilibrium with the ring closed form **72**.



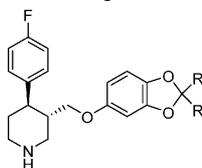
Although this example provides a cautionary note with respect to the bioisosteric replacement of hydrogen by fluorine in pyrrolidine and, presumably, the homologous piperidine rings, detailed studies with the difluorinated pyrrolidine-based DPP-IV inhibitors **73** and **74** have indicated that for these molecules, this specific metabolic pathway is not followed.⁵¹ The HIV-1 non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor **75** exhibits a short life in RLM and HLM, and while the difluoro-pyrrolidine ring was determined to be the site of metabolism by an undetermined pathway, there was no apparent indication of reactive metabolite formation.⁵²

2,2-Difluoro-1,3-benzodioxole Derivatives. The 1,3-benzodioxole moiety is a structural element in prevalent natural products found, for example, in the papaverine alkaloids, camptothecins, and several constituents of kava-kava.⁵³ However, this functionality is susceptible to metabolism by CYP 450 enzymes following a pathway that leads to the formation of a carbene intermediate that binds tightly to the Fe atom of the enzyme (Scheme 3). This carbene-bound intermediate is referred to as a

Scheme 3. Cytochrome P450-Mediated Metabolism of the 1,3-Benzodioxole Moiety to a MI Complex



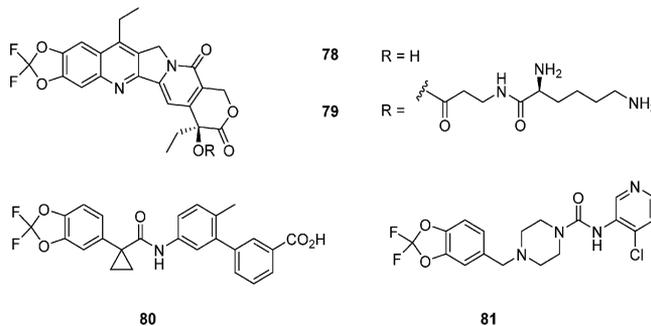
metabolite intermediate (MI) complex that inactivates the enzyme until the complex degrades, which relieves the inhibition, with the methylenedioxy carbon atom released as carbon monoxide.^{54,55} However, this step generates a catechol that can be subject to bioactivation by oxidizing enzymes, including CYP 450s, to afford *ortho*-quinone derivatives that are highly reactive toward both soft and hard nucleophiles.^{55,56} Consequently, the benzo[*d*][1,3]dioxole element is considered to be a structural alert because it can be associated with drug–drug interactions, metabolic activation, and toxicities that includes hepatotoxicity.⁵⁵ For example, despite its relatively low clinical dose of 10–50 mg, the antidepressant paroxetine (**76**) is metabolized by CYP 2D6 in a fashion that leads to inhibition of the enzyme, inhibiting both its own metabolism and that of other drugs that are cleared by CYP 2D6.⁵⁷



76: R = H (paroxetine)
77: R = D (CPT-347)

An appreciation of these problems has prompted the design of 1,3-benzodioxole replacements that would abrogate this

metabolic pathway while preserving the physicochemical properties requisite for biological activity.⁵⁸ Deuteration of the methylene moiety represents the most conservative isosteric substitution that can slow this metabolic process while preserving biological activity and has been successful in the context of CPT-347 (**77**), a deuterated derivative of **76**.⁵⁹ However, fluorination offers a more definitive solution, although the effects on biological potency are less predictable with increases, decreases and minimal changes described that show dependence on the specific target or chemotype within a target.^{4,60–66} The fluorinated camptothecin analogue **78** was specifically designed to increase metabolic stability over the hydrogen-substituted prototype, a structural modification that resulted in improved exposure following oral administration of the compound as its prodrug **79**.⁶⁰ Lumacaftor (VX-809, **80**), which improves trafficking of the cystic fibrosis transmembrane regulator (CFTR) $\Delta F508$ mutant and has been approved by the FDA for the treatment of cystic fibrosis, is a CYP inducer rather than an inhibitor and subject to limited metabolism, which involves oxidation and glucuronidation.⁶⁵ JNJ-42165279 (**81**) is a clinically evaluated, mechanism-based inhibitor of fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH) for which the 2,2-difluorobenzo[*d*][1,3]dioxole heterocycle was observed to be metabolically stable.⁶⁶



■ FLUORINATION OF ALKYL GROUPS AND CONFORMATIONAL EFFECTS

In this section, the effects of fluorinating alkyl moieties proximal to a range of functional groups that can lead to an influence on the conformation of a molecule are discussed.

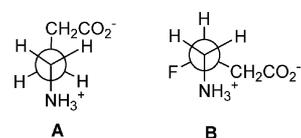
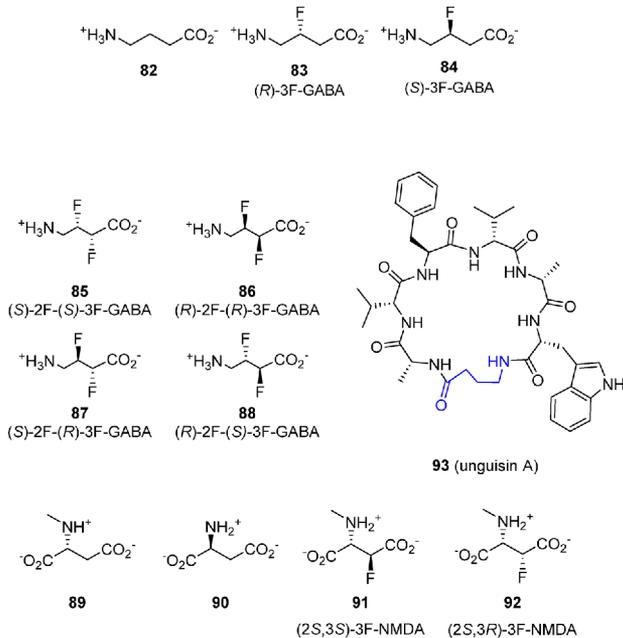
Fluorine for Hydrogen in Alkyl Groups Proximal to Amines. The substitution of hydrogen attached to sp^3 carbon atoms by fluorine can influence the properties of a molecule significantly in a fashion that is dependent upon the nature of proximal functionality. The gauche effect between fluorine and substituents on the adjacent carbon atom can be an effective approach to influencing the conformation of a molecule.⁶⁷ The calculated energetic preferences for the gauche conformation of a series of 2-substituted, 1-fluoroethane derivatives are compiled in Table 9, and this phenomenon has been taken advantage of to probe aspects of molecular recognition.⁶⁷ Thus, the conformations of 3-F GABA **83** and **84**,⁶⁸ the 2,3-difluoro GABA analogues **85–88**,⁶⁹ and 3-fluoro-*N*-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) derivatives **91** and **92**⁷⁰ have been analyzed in order to illuminate aspects of the bound conformation of their progenitors **82** and **89**, respectively, while the conformation of the GABA element in the

Table 9. Calculated Stabilization Energies Favoring a *Gauche* Relationship in 2-Substituted 1-Fluoroethane

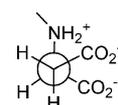

	stabilization energy (kcal/mol)
F	0.5–1.0
OH	1.0–2.0
OAc	1.6
NHAc	1.8
NH ₂	0.9–1.0
NH ₃ ⁺	5.8

macrocyclic heptapeptide unguisin A (**93**), which is isolated from the marine fungus *Emericella unguis*, has been probed by incorporating **85–88**.⁷¹ The design principle behind these studies relies upon a *gauche* interaction between fluorine and the ammonium moiety to favor a specific conformation that is used to probe cognate receptors and, in the case of GABA, recognition by the transaminase. For 2,3-difluoro GABA, a *gauche* interaction between the two fluorine atoms provides an additional element of stereocontrol in addition to the *gauche* preference of the fluorine/ammonium elements.

Fluorine was introduced at the 3-position of GABA (**82**) and the individual enantiomers (*R*)-3-F-GABA (**83**) and (*S*)-3-F-GABA (**83**) evaluated as ligands for the GABA_A and GABA_C receptors.⁶⁸ Because the cloned GABA_A receptor failed to distinguish between **83** and **84**, the extended conformation A depicted in Figure 3, in which the two key functionalities are in an antiperiplanar arrangement that is available to both enantiomers, was considered to represent the bound topology. However, both the GABA_C receptor and the transaminase favored **83**, suggesting that conformer B depicted in Figure 3 is that recognized by these proteins because that topographical arrangement is a conformation disfavored by **84**.⁶⁸ Evaluation of the difluoro homologues **85–88** revealed that **85** was a more potent ligand for the GABA_C receptor than either GABA_A or GABA_B, while **86** exhibited dual GABA_A/GABA_C binding.⁶⁹ Interestingly, while both **85** and **86** adopted an extended, zigzag conformation, they elicited very different effects at the GABA_C receptor, with **85** an agonist while **86** acted as an antagonist.

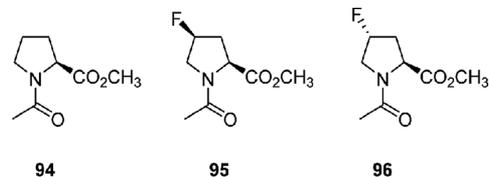
**Figure 3.** Preferred conformation of **82** at the GABA_A receptor (A) and the GABA_C receptor and the transaminase enzyme (B) deduced from an evaluation of **83** and **84**.

The preferred conformations of **91** and **92**, fluoro-substituted derivatives of NMDA (**89**) which acts as an agonist at a subset of receptors that recognize glutamic acid (**90**), were analyzed by ¹H- and ¹⁹F-NMR, which revealed that **91** adopted the conformation depicted in Figure 4.⁷⁰ However, the precise conformation

**Figure 4.** Proposed active conformation of NMDA at the GluN2A and GluN2B receptors after analysis of **91** and **92**.

of **92** could not be determined, although one conformation was ruled out and density functional theory (DFT) calculations suggested that of the other two conformations, the one reflecting the arrangement depicted in Figure 4 was not favored. The (2*S*,3*S*)-isomer **91** evoked currents at GluN2A and GluN2B receptors expressed in *Xenopus laevis* oocytes that were indicative of agonistic activity, while **92** was silent. As consequence, it was suggested that the active conformation is as depicted in Figure 4, a conclusion consistent with the conformation of **89** at the closely related GluN2D receptor in the cocrystal structure.⁷⁰

Fluorine for Hydrogen in Alkyl Groups Proximal to Amides. The replacement of a hydrogen on a carbon atom β- to an amide nitrogen with fluorine can affect biological activity in a positive or negative fashion, a function of modulating conformational preferences due to the influence of a *gauche* effect between these substituents.⁶⁷ This is elegantly exemplified in the context of proline-containing ligands where fluorine is introduced at the C-4 position of the ring. *N*-Acetyl proline methyl ester (**94**) exhibits a preference for the C'-endo conformation (Figure 5A) that is reinforced by the introduction of a 4-(*S*)-fluoro substituent in **95** (Figure 5B), while the 4-(*R*)-fluoro derivative **96** favors the C'-exo conformer presented in Figure 5C.⁷² The *trans*-(*Z*) topology of the amide moieties in **94–96** is also favored, attributed to a stabilizing interaction between the oxygen of the tertiary amide and the exocyclic C=O carbon atom. This phenomenon is viewed as the donation of electron density from the nonbonded electrons of the amide C=O to the π* orbital of the adjacent CO₂Me (or CO·NHR) substituent, which confers a detectable element of pyramidalization to the electron accepting C=O moiety (Figure 6).⁷³



The effect of C-4 fluorination of a pyrrolidine ring on biological activity has been illustrated in the context of both DPP-4 and fibroblast activation protein (FAP) inhibitors where in each case the proline moiety is installed at P₁ and the nitrile engages with the active site serine of the protease in a Pinner-type reaction to reversibly form a stable iminoether.^{74,75} In the series of

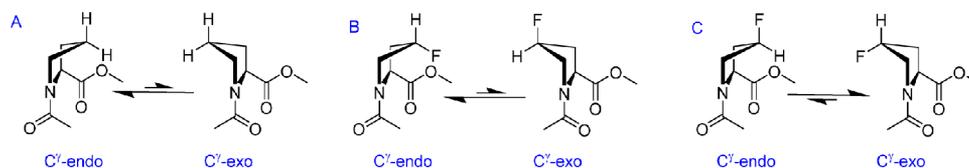


Figure 5. Conformational preferences of *N*-acetyl-proline methyl ester (**94**) (A), *N*-acetyl-4(*R*)-fluoro-*L*-proline methyl ester (**95**) (B), and *N*-acetyl-4(*S*)-fluoro-*L*-proline methyl ester (**96**) (C).

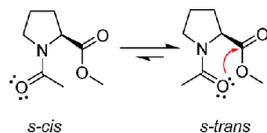
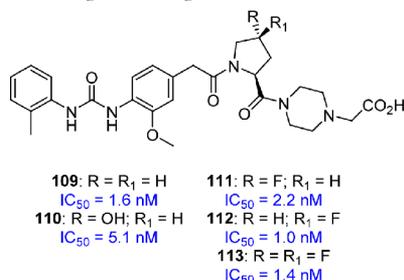


Figure 6. Acetamide conformation of **94** depicting an $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ interaction.

DPP-4 inhibitors **97–100**, the *cis*-4-*F*-(*S*)-isomer **98** was 450-fold more potent than the *trans*-4-*F*-(*R*)-isomer **99**, SAR points that cannot be attributed to a steric effect because the 4,4-difluoro homologue **100** fully retained the potent enzyme inhibitory activity of the prototype **97** (Table 10). The *cis*-(*S*)-4-fluoro substituent stabilizes the C'-endo pucker, while the *trans*-(*R*)-4-fluoro isomer stabilizes the C'-exo pucker (Figure 5), and it is this phenomenon that is believed to underlie the observed SARs. These observations were reproduced in the FAP inhibitors **102–104**, where the effects of fluorination and the preferred absolute configuration are identical to those observed with **97** and **98** (Table 10).⁷⁵

However, the SARs for fluorination of a proline moiety installed at P₂ of the series of thrombin inhibitors **105–108** reflected the opposite preference to that observed with the P₁ moiety of DPP-4 and FAP inhibitors.⁷⁶ In this series, the *trans*-4(*R*)-fluoro isomer **106** was 300-fold more potent than the *cis*-4(*S*)-fluoro isomer **107**, while the 4,4-difluoro analogue **108** was 6-fold less potent than the hydrogen prototype **105** (Table 11).

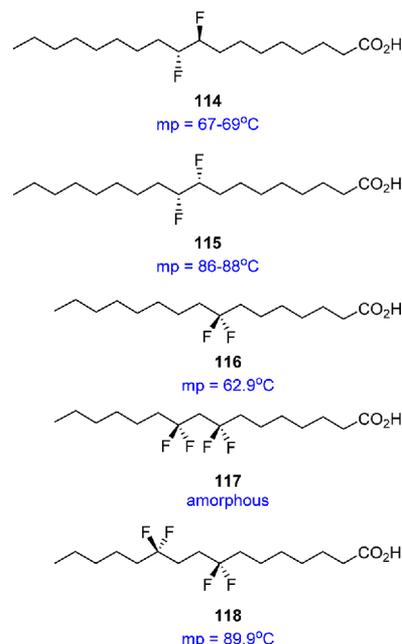
The effects of fluorination of a proline ring do not always manifest as an influence on potency. In the series of VLA-4 antagonists **109–113**, all three fluorinated compounds **111–112** exhibited potency comparable to the parent **109** and the 4(*R*)-hydroxy derivative **110**, indicative of considerable tolerance for substitution at this region of the pharmacophore.⁷⁷



Fluorine for Hydrogen in Alkyl Groups Proximal to Fluorine. An understanding of the conformational preferences of alkanes in which hydrogen atoms have selectively been replaced by fluorine can confer advantageous effects that may be useful in drug design (Figure 7).^{78–81} The C–C–C bond angle of the R–CF₂–R moiety widens to $\sim 118^\circ$, while the F–C–F angle is narrowed to $\sim 104^\circ$ relative to normal tetrahedral carbon bond angles, which can manifest as a Thorpe–Ingold effect (Figure 7A).⁷⁸ When CF₂ moieties are introduced in a 1,4 relationship to an alkyl chain, dipole–dipole interactions and the relief of steric butressing favors an extended conformation (Figure 7B). Vicinal difluoroalkanes adopt a gauche conformation that overrides the unfavorable C–F dipole–dipole alignment and, as a consequence,

confers increased polarity to a molecule.^{79,80} For 1,3-difluoroalkanes, the conformational preferences are dictated by favorable dipole–dipole alignment, with the preferred conformation depicted in Figure 7D estimated to be 3.3 kcal/mol lower in energy than that in which the C–F dipoles project in the same direction.

The conformational effects of fluorination patterning have been examined in the stearic acid derivatives **114** and **115** and the substituted palmitic acids **116–118**.⁷⁸ The higher melting point of the (\pm)-*threo*-isomer **115** (86–88 °C) compared to the (\pm)-*erythro*-configured **114** (67–69 °C) was attributed to the ability of **115** to adopt an elongated form stabilized by F–F gauche interactions that project the alkyl moieties in an antiperiplanar arrangement, thereby minimizing unfavorable steric interactions and facilitating improved crystal packing.^{78b} In contrast, the two conformations of the (\pm)-*erythro*-isomer **114** that are stabilized by F–F gauche interactions also place the alkyl chains in a gauche relationship, while the conformation with the alkyl chains antiperiplanar sacrifices the F–F gauche effects. The melting point of **118** (89.9 °C) was higher than palmitic acid (62.5 °C) and **116** (62.9 °C), while **117** was isolated as an amorphous solid that could not be obtained in crystalline form.^{78a} Single crystal X-ray structures of **116** and **118** revealed extended, zigzag-type conformations that presumably facilitate crystal packing, while the amorphous nature of **117** was attributed to repulsive intramolecular effects associated with the pattern of fluorination that lead to disorder.



An example of the application of fluorination patterning to conformational control is provided by a detailed analysis of the solid state and solution conformations of a series of trifluorinated 1,3-diphenylpropane derivatives.⁸⁰ Uniquely, the all-*anti* isomer **119** was found to adopt a conformation that placed the two aryl rings in a topology that mimicked those of the preferred

Table 10. SARs for the 4-Substituted Pyrrolidine-2-nitrile-Based Inhibitors of DPP-4 (97–100) and FAP (101–104)

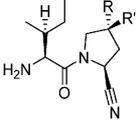
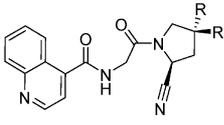
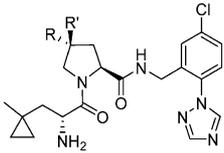
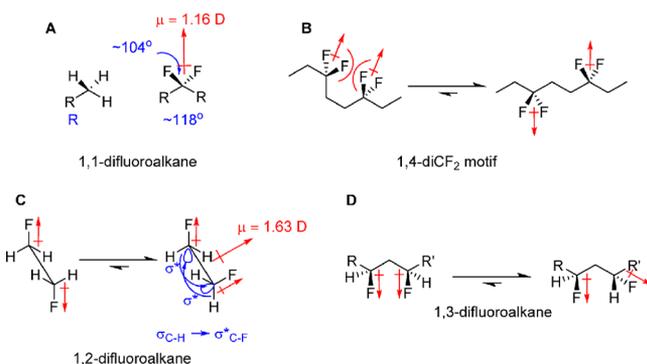
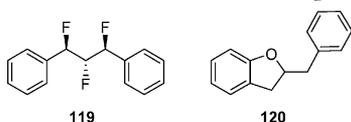
							
	R	R'	DPP-4 IC ₅₀ (nM)		R	R'	FAP IC ₅₀ (nM)
97	H	H	1.5	101	H	H	10.3
98	H	F	0.6	102	H	F	3.3
99	F	H	290	103	F	H	1,000
100	F	F	0.8	104	F	F	3.2

Table 11. SARs Associated with 4-Fluorination of the Inhibitors of Thrombin 105–108

			
	R	R'	thrombin K _i (nM)
105	H	H	0.6
106	F	H	0.37
107	H	F	110
108	F	F	3.6

Figure 7. Geometry of 1,1-difluoroalkanes (A), the 1,4-di-CF₂ motif (B), and conformational preferences for 1,2-difluoro- (C) and 1,3-difluoro-alkanes (D).

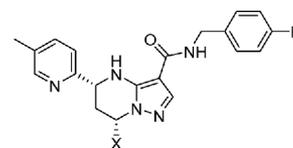
conformation calculated for 2-benzyl-2,3-dihydrobenzofuran (120). This provides an interesting example of how isosterism at the level of atom replacements (F for H) can translate into potential higher order bioisosteric relationships.



The effects of the fluorination pattern of alkyl side chains on the physicochemical properties of a molecule has been evaluated in the structurally homologous 3-propyl-1*H*-indoles 121–126 and 3-butyl-1*H*-indole derivatives 127–129 compiled in Table 12.⁸¹ The experimental results revealed interesting effects of the pattern of fluorine substitution in the propyl series 121–126, with the vicinal difluoro derivative 125 less lipophilic than its geminal

difluoro isomer 123, reflected in the lower measured value of Log *P*. These properties translated into a more than 8-fold increase in aqueous solubility compared to the parent alkane 121 despite the addition of the two slightly more lipophilic fluorine atoms (Table 12). This result was attributed to the gauche interaction between the two fluorine atoms of 125 favoring a conformation that projects the C–F dipoles in a similar direction, reflected in the higher dipole moment of 1.63 *D* compared to 1.16 *D* for the geminal arrangement in 123. For the butyl series 127–129, the vicinal difluoro-substituted compound 129 was less lipophilic than the geminal-substituted analogues 127 and 128, which translated into modestly higher aqueous solubility. Indeed, the Log *P* value measured for 129 was only slightly higher than that for the vicinally substituted homologue 125 despite the presence of the additional CH₂ moiety, providing some instruction on how to deploy fluorine to advantageously modulate physical properties. The metabolic stability of the compounds in liver microsomal preparations was also evaluated, and while there appeared to be some enhancement associated with increased fluorination, the results were less than definitive.⁸¹

A practical consequence of the effect of a considered deployment of fluorine patterning on the solubility of a compound can be appreciated by comparing the properties of the homologous *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb) inhibitors 130 and 131.⁸² While both compounds are effective Mtb inhibitors that act by an unknown mechanism, the aqueous solubility of the CF₂H-substituted compound 131 was more than 20-fold higher than the CF₃ homologue 130 despite a modest increase in the measured value of Log *P*.



130: X = CF₃
MIC = 440 nM
measured Log *P* = 4.4
solubility = 9 μM

131: X = CHF₂
MIC = 600 nM
measured Log *P* = 4.6
solubility = 212 μM

REPLACING HYDROGEN BY FLUORINE IN AROMATIC RINGS

Aryl Fluoride Derivatives and Metabolism. The judicious substitution of a hydrogen atom in aromatic and heteroaromatic rings by a fluorine atom can exert a significant impact on the properties of a molecule that are of beneficial interest in both drug design and development. An early focus of the introduction

Table 12. Physicochemical Data Associated with the Series Fluorinated 3-Alkyl Indole Derivatives 121–129



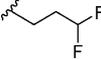
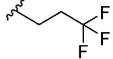
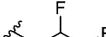
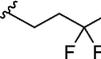
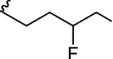
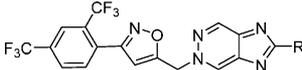
R					
	121	122	123	124	125
E _{solv} (kcal/mol)	-6.7	-9.4 to -9.8	-10.1 to -10.4	-8.8	-12.3 to -12.6
Log P*	3.3	2.8	2.9	3.1	2.5
solubility (μM)	200			30	>1720
R					* Log P data were determined experimentally
	126	127	128	129	
Log P*	2.8	3.1	3.0	2.8	
solubility (μM)	820	182	115	277	

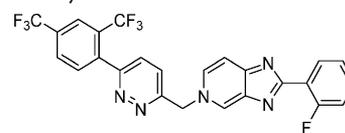
Table 13. HCV GT-1b Replicon Inhibitory Activity of NSSB Inhibitors 133–136



	133	134	135	136
R				
EC ₅₀ GT-1b replicon (μM)	0.11	0.016	>50	5

of fluorine to aromatic rings was as a tactic to slow metabolism, although fluorinated rings are still subject to metabolic modification by CYP 450 enzymes and fluorine has been shown to undergo the NIH shift.⁸³ A particularly interesting and complex example of metabolism associated with a fluorophenyl ring is provided by the hepatitis C virus (HCV) NSSB polymerase inhibitor tegobuvir (**132**), which was discovered using a phenotypic cell-based screen.^{84a} The fluorination pattern of this chemotype is a critical determinant of antiviral activity, illustrated by the SAR associated with **133–136** (Table 13), which were only understood as the result of a careful mechanistic analysis.^{84b,c} Resistance mapping with **132** identified the NSSB polymerase as the antiviral target in the cell-based screen, but the compound was not a direct inhibitor of the enzyme in biochemical assays.^{84b} Western blotting analysis of replicon cells treated with **132** revealed the presence of both the natural NSSB polymerase protein and a related protein with a molecular mass that was 820 Da higher. The modified NSSB protein represented the addition of one molecule of a metabolite of **132** that had lost one fluorine atom and acquired GSH. The antiviral activity associated with **132** was reversed by CYP 450 inhibitors, and this activity was subsequently narrowed to CYP 1A1 as the activating enzyme. The proposed metabolic pathway presented in Scheme 4 relies upon metabolism of **132** to the intermediate epoxide **137**, which readily loses fluoride in a

process presumably assisted by an electronic interaction with the imidazo[4,5-*c*]pyridine heterocycle, leading to the generation of the enone **139**. This molecule offers two electrophilic sites that can react with GSH, with pathways A and B leading to the putative metabolites **140** and **141**. However, GSH attack at the more hindered site outlined by pathway C would generate a molecule that retains electrophilicity and is capable of reacting with either GSH or a cysteine residue of the HCV NSSB protein. While the identity of the reactive cysteine in HCV NSSB was not definitively determined, Cys₃₆₆ was suggested as a potential candidate because it is proximal to the active site of the enzyme, and compounds that react with this residue are documented as inhibitors of the enzyme.^{84b,d}

**132** (tegobuvir)

Aryl Fluorides: Membrane Permeability and P-gp Recognition. Substitution of a hydrogen atom by fluorine to introduce an intramolecular interaction with a pendent N–H has been exploited to enhance membrane permeability following the seminal observations made with the two series of inhibitors of the coagulation enzyme factor Xa (FXa) summarized in Table 14.⁸⁵

Scheme 4. Metabolism of 132

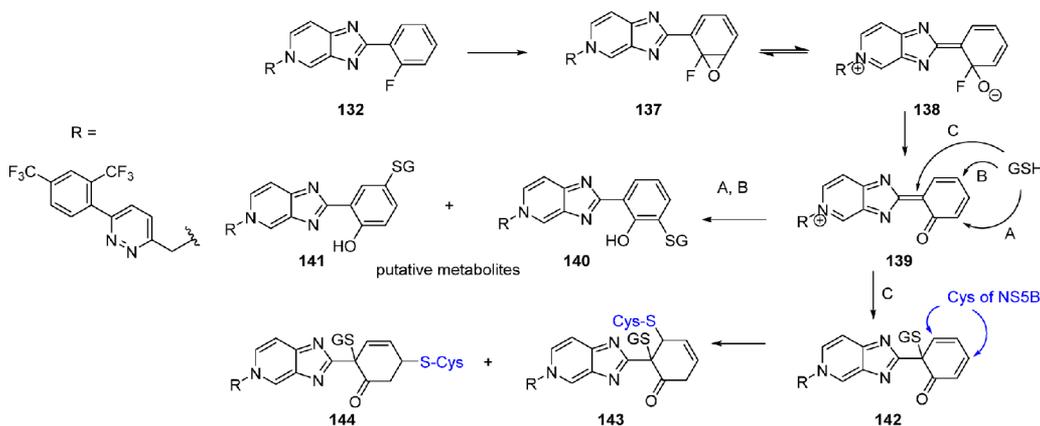


Table 14. Caco-2 Cell Permeability Values Associated with the Two Series of FXa Inhibitors 145–148 and 149–151

	R	R'	Caco-2 permeability		R'	Caco-2 permeability
145	CH ₃	H	1.20 × 10 ⁻⁶ cm/s	149	H	0.82 × 10 ⁻⁶ cm/s
146	CH ₃	F	3.14 × 10 ⁻⁶ cm/s	150	F	7.41 × 10 ⁻⁶ cm/s
147	CF ₃	H	3.38 × 10 ⁻⁶ cm/s	151	CN	<0.1 × 10 ⁻⁶ cm/s
148	CF ₃	F	4.86 × 10 ⁻⁶ cm/s			

Caco-2 cell permeability was improved by substituting the hydrogen atom *ortho*- to the anilide N–H, illustrated by comparing the MMPs 145/146, 147/148, and 149/150. These observations were attributed to an electrostatic interaction between the F atom and the proximal N–H that shields the H-bond donor properties, important to both passive permeability and recognition by P-gp.^{86,87}

That the effect was not a function of the electron withdrawing properties of the substituent was illustrated by the poor membrane permeability associated with the linear nitrile moiety incorporated into 151. This structural motif is well-represented in the medicinal chemistry literature and is particularly prevalent in kinase inhibitors.^{4a}

This phenomenon is not restricted to anilides but is also observed in benzamide derivatives and the presence of a proximal fluorine atom to interact with these H-bond donating functionalities are common in drug candidates, particularly kinase inhibitors. The effect of intramolecular interactions of this nature has been explored more explicitly by comparing the permeability properties in a parallel artificial membrane permeability assay (PAMPA) of 27 MMPs of *N*-phenylamides that differ by only a fluorine for hydrogen atom exchange (Figure 8A).⁸⁸ In 12 of the 27 cases examined, replacing the *ortho*-hydrogen by a fluorine atom led to an increase in permeability of $\geq +0.3 \log P_c$. The alternate arrangement represented by the benzamides depicted

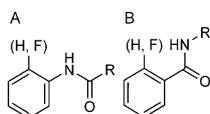
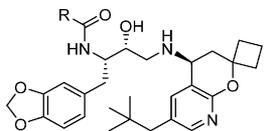


Figure 8. Core structures of MMPs of *N*-phenylamides and benzamides examined in a PAMPA.

in Figure 8B was also examined by evaluation of 15 MMPs, of which 9/15 exhibited an increase in the permeability coefficient of $\geq +0.3 \log P_c$. A simple increase in lipophilicity was not the source of the enhanced membrane permeability because there was no demonstrable effect with *meta*-substituted fluorinated compounds. Moreover, the observation that introducing a fluorine atom had no effect in six out of the total of the 42 MMPs examined emphasized the contextual nature of this phenomenon. An analysis of the motifs depicted in Figure 8 in the Cambridge Structural Database (CSD) identified a number of examples where there were close contacts between fluorine atoms and the pendent N–Hs that stabilized the molecular conformation.⁸⁸

Another practical illustration of the value of engaging an NH by a proximal fluorine is provided by observations in the series of β -hydroxyethylamine-based inhibitors of the aspartyl protease β -site amyloid precursor protein cleaving enzyme 1 (BACE-1).⁸⁹ The lead inhibitor 152 exhibited potent activity in a cell-based assay, but the brain/plasma ratio following oral administration to rats was low, attributed to P-gp-mediated efflux based on observations of compound performance in a human LLC-PK1 cell line, data that are summarized in Table 15. A potential solution to this problem was probed by introducing structural elements designed to interact with the acetamide N–H because of the known role of exposed N–Hs in P-gp recognition.⁸⁷ The methoxy moiety in 154, which is capable of establishing a conventional intramolecular H-bonding interaction with the N–H, exhibited 2-fold higher permeability and a 5-fold reduced efflux ratio while only modestly (2-fold reduction) affecting potency, data that contrasts with the properties of the iso-butyramide 153. The *ortho*-fluorobenzamide derivative 155 exhibited similar membrane permeability to 152 but P-gp recognition was reduced

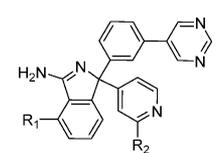
Table 15. BACE-1 Inhibitory Activity, Membrane Permeability Data, and Efflux Ratios for 152–156



	152	153	154	155	156
R	CH ₃	iso-propyl			
BACE-1 IC ₅₀ (nM)	8	144	17	76	29
P _{app} (10 ⁻⁶ cm/s)	11	17	23	11	16
efflux ratio in parental LLC-PK1 human cell line	19	16	16	1	2

almost 20-fold based on the efflux ratio, while the data for **156** suggest that an alkyl fluoride can perform similarly. These observations are consistent with an interaction between the fluorine atoms and the N–H along with a reduction in the basicity of the C=O oxygen atom that masks these elements from the external environment and which is believed to compromise P-gp recognition.

These effects were also manifested in the series of cyclic amidine-based BACE-1 inhibitors **157–160** in which the exocyclic NH₂ engaged the catalytic residues Asp₃₂ and Asp₂₂₈ of this aspartyl protease.⁹⁰ The lead compound **157** exhibited limited CNS penetration due, in part, to P-gp-mediated efflux, with a ratio of 12 determined from P_{app} values in Caco-2 cells. The introduction of a fluorine substituent in the peri position ortho- to the amidine carbon atom of **157** reduced the pK_a by 1.3 units from 8.4 to 7.1 in **158**, a structural modification that increased membrane permeability while reducing the efflux ratio by almost 4-fold (Table 16).

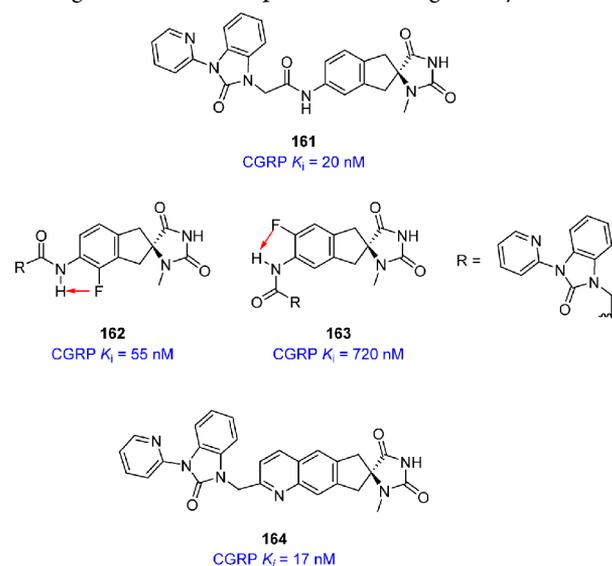
Table 16. BACE-1 Inhibition, Membrane Permeability, Efflux Ratio, and pK_a Values for 157–160


	R ₁	R ₂	BACE-1 IC ₅₀ (nM)	P _{app} (10 ⁻⁶ cm/s)	efflux ratio	pK _a of conjugate acid
157	H	H	500	3.4	12	8.4
158	F	H	158	12	3.1	7.1
159	H	CF ₃	134	0.13	>10	ND
160	F	CF ₃	241	39	0.6	6.9

In this example, the positive effect on permeability was amplified in the matched pair of homologues **159** and **160**, attributed to a weak interaction between the fluorine atom and one of the hydrogen atoms of the NH₂ that reduces the number of H-bond donors available to the environment. In addition, the solvation energy of the fluoro derivative was calculated to be less negative than for the hydrogen analogue, while the combination of electronic and steric effects was proposed to shield the polar nitrogen atom from the environment. In addition to the improvement in permeability and efflux ratio, BACE-1 inhibitory potency was retained for this series and an X-ray cocrystal structure of a close analogue of **160** revealed that the fluorine atom interacted with the carboxylic acid moiety of the catalytic Asp₂₂₈, the side chain hydroxyl of Thr₂₃₁, and three water molecules, with O to F distances that ranged from 2.9 to 3.3 Å.⁹⁰

Aryl Fluorides and Conformation of Proximal Substituents. A fluorine atom ortho- to the NH of an anilide also

influences conformation, an effect exploited to illuminate the topology of the pharmacophore associated with the spiroindane-based calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP) receptor antagonist **161**, which was evaluated as a potential therapeutic agent for the prevention of migraine attacks.⁹¹ Although the oral bioavailability of **161** was reasonable, the PK profiles of more potent analogues were inferior, attributed to a high polar surface area (PSA) limiting absorption and focusing attention on replacing the central amide moiety with a less polar bioisostere. Modeling studies indicated a preference for coplanarity between the amide and spiroindane cores, with the lowest calculated energies observed at the two topologically divergent conformations of 0° and 180°. The preferred binding topology was probed by separately replacing each of the H atoms ortho- to the anilide by a fluorine to afford **162** and **163**. It was anticipated that these substitutions would stabilize the complementary topologies depicted by the combination of an attractive electrostatic interaction between the N–H and fluorine and repulsive effects between the C=O oxygen and fluorine atoms due to steric and electrostatic considerations. Biological evaluation of isomers **162** and **163** demonstrated a 10-fold difference in CGRP receptor affinity favoring the extended conformation represented by **162**, a hypothesis corroborated by the synthesis of the fused ring compound **164** that constrains the topology in an unambiguous fashion and preserves binding affinity.⁹¹

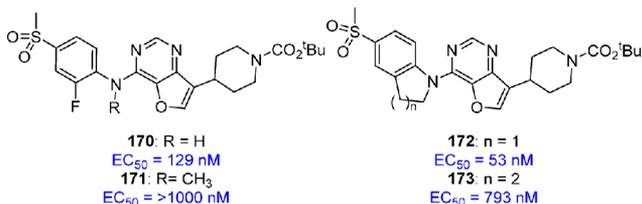


GPR119 agonists have been explored for their potential as a treatment for diabetes because they increase cAMP in β -cells and stimulate insulin release, mimicking the effects of GLP-1. The introduction of a fluorine atom ortho- to the NH of the

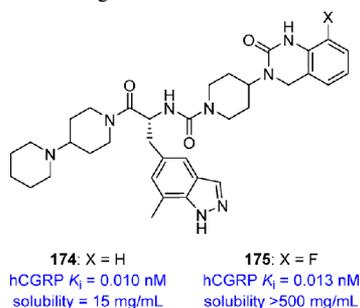
Table 17. hGPR119 Agonistic Activities Associated with 165–169

	R	R'	hGPR119 agonist EC ₅₀		R	hGPR119 agonist EC ₅₀
165	H	H	5.8 nM	168	H	11.5 nM
166	H	F	0.68 nM	169	F	1.5 nM
167	F	H	3.4 nM			

GPR119 agonist **165** afforded **166** with 8-fold improved potency, an effect that was not reproduced by the meta-fluoro analogue **167**, which displayed potency similar to the progenitor (Table 17).⁹² A similar SAR observation was made with the pair of related compounds **168** and **169**, leading to the proposal that an intramolecular interaction between the fluorine and the N–H favored a planar conformation. This hypothesis was supported by the much weaker agonist activity associated with the *N*-methyl derivative **171** compared to the hydrogen analogue **170** and inspired the synthesis of bicyclic homologues as functional bioisosters designed to constrain the preferred topology. The scaffold utilized in this exercise was of particular importance because the indoline **172** was found to be 10-fold more potent than the homologous tetrahydroquinoline **173**.⁹²



Aryl Fluorination and Solubility. An interesting observation of the effect of replacing a hydrogen atom ortho- to an anilide N–H by fluorine is provided by the CGRP receptor antagonist **175**, derived from the progenitor **174**.⁹³ The measured aqueous solubility of **175** was determined to be over 30-fold higher than that of **174**, an observation not well understood, with conjecture focused on the fluorine atom polarizing the adjacent N–H, thereby rendering it a more powerful H-bond donor to promote enhanced solvation. However, this phenomenon may contribute to the poor membrane permeability and oral bioavailability associated with **175**, which led to a focus on intranasal drug delivery for the treatment of migraine.⁹³



■ FLUORINE MIMICRY WITH NITROGEN-BASED LONE PAIRS OF ELECTRONS

Aromatic Fluoride and Azine Mimesis. The similarity of the dipoles of fluorobenzene and azine heterocycles has been recognized as a potential drug design element, and this bioisostere concept has been explored in several settings, with the results

exhibiting a dependence on context.^{4g,94–99} The dipole relationships between fluorobenzene and pyridine, 1,2-difluorobenzene and pyridazine, and 1,3-difluorobenzene and pyrimidine are depicted in Figure 9. Using a simpler metaphor of structural

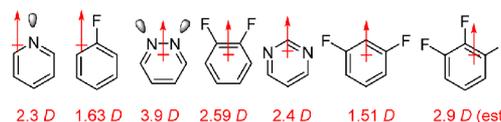
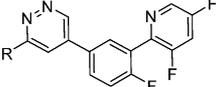


Figure 9. Comparison of the dipole moments and vectors of difluorinated benzenes and azines.

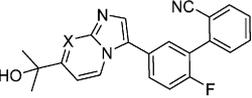
analogy, the electron density associated with the fluorine atoms may be equated with the lone pairs of electrons associated with the heteroatoms of the heterocycles. There are, however, some limitations to the isosteric relationship because the experimental dipole moments determined for fluorobenzenes are less than those measured for the analogous azine heterocycle.⁹⁹ Notably, the addition of the third fluorine atom in 1,2,3-trifluorobenzene increases the predicted dipole moment compared to either the 1,2- or 1,3-difluoro isomer, enhancing this aspect of mimicry with pyridine and pyrimidine.¹⁰⁰

Bioisosterism between an aryl C–F and an azine C–N bond was examined as a means of addressing developability issues in a series of $\alpha 2/\alpha 3$ subtype-selective GABA_A agonists, explored as a potential treatment for anxiety.⁹⁵ Comparison of the receptor binding data accumulated for the MMPs **176/177** and **178/179** demonstrated effective bioisosterism between a C–F bond and a heterocyclic nitrogen atom in this context (Table 18). Of particular interest, **178** exhibited a poor PK profile due to the formation of the *N*-oxide at the exposed pyridine nitrogen atom in vivo. By replacing the ring nitrogen atom with a C–F moiety in combination with switching the other C–F to a nitrogen atom, both Log *P* and potency were maintained, while the PK profile was improved because the steric encumbrances surrounding the nitrogen atom in **179** interfered with *N*-oxidation. This type of structural isosterism may also be of value as a means of avoiding the CYP inhibition that is often associated with sterically exposed pyridine nitrogen atoms or mitigating susceptibility to aldehyde oxidase-mediated metabolism.

In the related GABA_A agonist **180**, where the imidazo[1,2-*a*]pyrimidine heterocycle functions as an interesting and effective bioisostere of the pyridazine ring of **176–179**, replacement of the nitrogen atom in the six-membered ring with a C–F moiety led to improved potency.^{95b} This was illustrated by comparing the profiles of **182** with the pyridine prototype **180** and the C–H analogue **181**, with **182** offering equivalent potency at both the $\alpha 1$ and $\alpha 3$ subtype receptors similar to **180** but with slightly higher efficacy at the $\alpha 3$ receptor and lower efficacy at the $\alpha 1$ subtype (Table 19). In this particular example, this was the targeted biochemical profile. In contemplating the design of **182**,

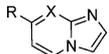
Table 18. SARs Associated with a Series of GABA_A $\alpha 2/\alpha 3$ Subtype-Selective Agonists 176–179


	176	177	178	179
R				
GABA _A $\alpha 1$ K _i (nM)	0.5	0.1	1.8	1.5
GABA _A $\alpha 3$ K _i (nM)	1.4	0.4	6.3	8.5
GABA _A $\alpha 5$ K _i (nM)	2.4	0.3	6.0	12.1

Table 19. SARs and Receptor Selectivity Associated with the Series of GABA_A Agonists 180–182


	X	$\alpha 1$ K _i (nM)	$\alpha 3$ K _i (nM)	$\alpha 1$ efficacy (% chlordiazepoxide)	$\alpha 3$ efficacy (% chlordiazepoxide)	μ of core (D)
180	N	0.71	0.47	60	79	5.10
181	C–H	4.35	5.16	35	61	3.37
182	C–F	0.20	0.32	34	104	4.52

this study conducted what has probably been the most detailed analysis of C–F/azine bioisosterism. After careful consideration of the calculated and measured physicochemical properties of the abbreviated core heterocycles 183–185 compiled in Table 20,

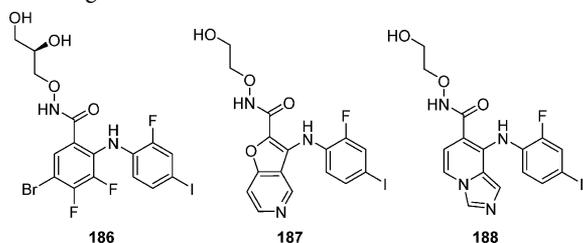
Table 20. Calculated and Measured Properties for 183–185^a


	X	calculated dipole (D)	measured pK _a	measured Log D _{7,4}
183	N	3.37 (R = CH ₃)	4.9 (R = H)	–0.2 (R = H)
184	C–H	5.10 (R = CH ₃)	6.9 (R = H)	0.8 (R = H)
185	C–F	4.52 (R = CH ₃)	4.9 (R = H)	0.9 (R = H)

^aStructures were built and energy minimized using the Merck Molecular Mechanics Force Field (MMFF). The dipole values were extracted from an AM1 semiempirical calculation.

the C–F derivative 185 was determined to more closely resemble the aza analogue 183 based on dipole and electrostatic potential mapping. Moreover, 183 and 185 express similar pK_a values that are 2 units lower than for the C–H homologue 184, adding further to their functional resemblance; however, the Log D_{7,4} value for 185 is closer to that of 184 than the more polar 183.^{95b}

In the MEK inhibitor 186, the fluorine atom ortho- to bromine was observed to engage the backbone N–H of Ser₂₁₂, a stabilizing drug–target interaction that was an important contributor to potency.⁹⁶ More conventional H-bond acceptors were explored in the context of the fused heterobicyclic derivatives 187 and 188 where the exposed pyridine and imidazole nitrogen atoms, respectively, interact with the N–H of Ser₂₁₂. This illustrates a bioisosteric relationship between the C–F substituent of 186 and the heterocyclic nitrogen atoms of 187 and 188.⁹⁶



Another example of an aryl C–F mimicking a pyridine atom was observed in a series of CHK1 kinase inhibitors.⁹⁷ The lead inhibitor 189, which was discovered using an affinity selection mass spectrometry-based automated ligand identification system screen, exhibited modest selectivity over CDK2 that was iteratively optimized into the more potent and selective pyridine-based inhibitor 190.⁹⁷ An X-ray cocrystal structure of 190 with the kinase revealed the important inter- and intramolecular interactions that contributed to the observed inhibitory potency (Figure 10).^{97b} The key intermolecular interactions

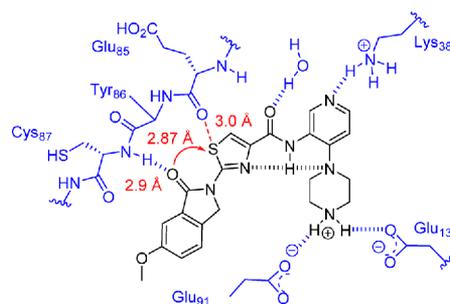
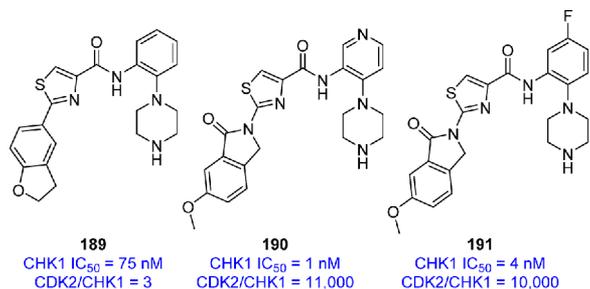


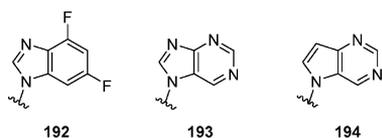
Figure 10. Key interactions between CHK1 kinase and 190 in the cocrystal structure.

were catalogued as H-bonding between the pyridine ring nitrogen atom and the ammonium moiety of Lys₃₈ and a H-bond between the amide C=O of the isoindolinone and the N–H of Cys₈₇. In addition, there was a close association between the sulfur atom of the thiazole and the backbone C=O oxygen of Glu₉₅, which approach each other at a distance of 3.0 Å, less than the 3.32 Å sum of the van der Waals radii for the two atoms and one of the limited number of reported examples of an intermolecular oxygen lone pair to sulfur σ^* interaction.³¹ In addition, the planar topography associated with 190 was stabilized by an intramolecular O to S interaction between the isoindolinone amide oxygen and the thiazole sulfur atom which are closer than the van der Waals radii, separated by just 2.87 Å. The potency and selectivity of 190 was matched by the fluorobenzene analogue

191, in which the fluorine atom was suggested to be involved in either a charge–dipole or H-bonding interaction with the side chain ammonium of Lys₃₈.



The effective pairing of the difluoro-benzimidazole **192** with cytidine in the context of RNA duplexes inspired an examination of the purine **193** and pyrrolo-pyrimidine **194** as functional mimetics.⁹⁸ These structural elements were incorporated as X into the 12-mer RNA 5'-CUU-UUC-XUU-CUU-3', hybridized with the complementary strands 3'-GAA-AAG-YAA-GAA-5' that incorporated each of the natural bases at Y and the melting temperatures of the duplexes determined. The results of this study are summarized in Table 21, with ParaFrag similarity scoring indicating that fluorobenzene was 45% similar to pyridine while chlorobenzene was of lower similarity at 27%. Interestingly, the ParaFrag scoring system indicated that in this context, a pyridine *N*-oxide was 25% similar while pyridone was just 22% similar to pyridine. Although these base pairings were less stable than the natural base pairs, **192** offers a relatively small energy difference compared to the natural bases, suggesting utility as universal base.⁹⁸



Fluorobenzene-azine bioisosterism has also been assessed in a series of mechanism-based inhibitors **195–204** of cathepsin L although the results were less than definitive.⁹⁹ In **195–204**, the (hetero)aryl ring occupies the S₃ pocket of cathepsin L and

π -stacking and dipole–dipole interactions were observed between these compounds and the backbone amide bond of Gly₆₇–Gly₆₈ of the enzyme (Figure 11). However, while the fluorinated phenyl

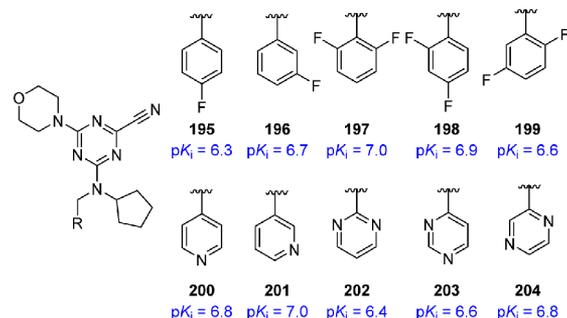


Figure 11. Structures and cathepsin L inhibitory data for **195–204**.

derivatives **195–199** were effective mimics of their matched azine heterocycles **200–204**, there was no clear correlation between the dipole moment of the (hetero)aryl ring and inhibitory potency. This was attributed to the proximity of the adjacent Gly₆₈–Leu₆₉ amide bond which adopts a complementary topology to that of Gly₆₇–Gly₆₈ such that the dipole is aligned in the opposite direction, believed to be a source of interference with the targeted effect.⁹⁹

Nitrogen Lone Pair Mimesis by an Alkyl Fluoride. An interesting suggestion of isosterism between the piperazine nitrogen atom of the 5HT_{1D} and 5HT_{1B} receptor ligand **205** and the C–F bond of the 4-fluoropiperidine analogue **207** has been invoked to explain the SAR observations.¹⁰¹ Piperazine **205** is rapidly absorbed in rats, but the piperidine analogue **206** exhibited a poor PK profile attributed to the highly basic nature of the nitrogen atom of this compound. The 4-fluoropiperidine **207** is less basic and displayed a similar in vitro receptor binding profile to **205** and **206** but was associated with much improved absorption in the rat. These observations led to the suggestion that the C–F bond of **207** may be mimicking the unprotonated nitrogen atom of **205** based on electronic considerations and dipole moments, depicted in simplistic terms in Figure 12, although other factors may underlie the observed SAR effects.

Table 21. Melting Temperatures of 5'-CUU-UUC-XUU-CUU-3' Hybridized with Complementary Strands 3'-GAA-AAG-YAA-GAA-5'

Y				
X	T _m (°C)	T _m (°C)	T _m (°C)	T _m (°C)
	27.4	27.3	27.6	27.9
	28.4	28.7	29.4	29.3
	34.5	32.2	35.1	30.8
	35.8	35.0	35.4	33.1

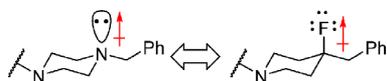
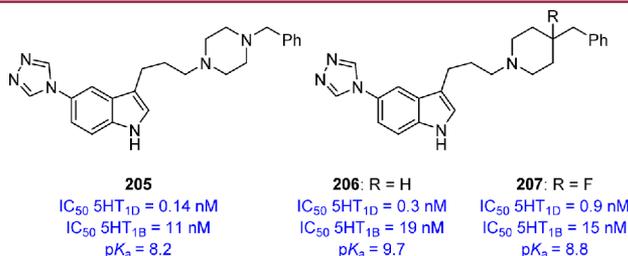


Figure 12. Proposed relationship between a piperazine lone pair of electrons and the fluorine atom of a 4-fluoropiperidine ring.



■ FLOURINATION AND POTENCY

The judicious replacement of a hydrogen atom by fluorine can exert a significant effect on both the potency and specificity of a molecule, and examples where this change either enhances or erodes the potency of a molecule have been described that, perhaps not surprisingly, are dependent upon context. In several examples, the potency-enhancing effects associated with the introduction of fluorine have been traced to intermolecular interactions between the fluorine and the carbon atom of C=O moieties that are characterized as multipolar in nature or to interactions of fluorine with proximal H-bond donors that may have an electrostatic basis.¹⁰² However, other intermolecular interactions and effects involving fluorine atoms of ligands have also been described and are summarized in the next section.

Multipolar and Hydrogen Interactions of Fluorine with Proteins. A detailed mechanistic understanding of how the fluorination of alkyl groups can lead to enhanced potency is provided by **208–215**, a series of inhibitors of the binding of mixed lineage leukemia (MLL) to the tumor suppressor protein menin.¹⁰³ The fluorination patterns of the two alkyl moieties in **208–215** were found to play important roles in modulating potency based on the systematic SAR studies that are compiled in Table 22. In the X-ray cocrystal structure of **211** bound to menin, each of the CF₃ moieties were found to engage a backbone C=O of the protein in an orthogonal multipolar interaction. One F atom of the CF₃CH₂ substituent of **211** is 3.0 Å away from the backbone C=O of His₁₈₁, while a fluorine atom of the CF₃ that is bound to the thiaziazole is 3.4 Å away from the C=O of Met₃₂₂. The effect of modulating the thiaziazole substituent was explored in the context of the homologous series **208–211**, where fluorination

improved potency over the unsubstituted compound **208**, with the exception of the monofluoromethyl derivative **209**. The CHF₂ analogue **210** was found to be equipotent with the CF₃ derivative **211**, and both were 9-fold more potent than the CH₃ prototype **208**. X-ray cocrystal structures revealed that **208**, **210**, and **211** bound to the protein in a similar fashion and that one of the F atoms of **210** was 3.2 Å from the C=O of Met₃₂₂, while for **211**, the fluorine to C=O carbon distance was 3.4 Å. However, for **209**, the fluorine atom was oriented 38.5° out of the plane of the thiaziazole ring, located 3.7 Å away from the C=O carbon of Met₃₂₂, a distance that was considered to be too remote for a productive multipolar interaction. The conformation of **209** was unanticipated, and a quantum mechanics (QM) analysis suggested that the second fluorine atom of **210** stabilized a conformation that allowed one of the fluorine atoms to engage the C=O of Met₃₂₂. A similar SAR analysis conducted at the benzothienyl alkyl moiety in the context of the thiazolines **212–215** revealed that the CH₂F analogue **213** was almost 5-fold more potent than the CH₃ prototype **212**, while the CF₂H analogue **214** offered an additional 4-fold potency improvement and this compound was just 1.5-fold weaker than the CF₃ derivative **215**, the optimal compound in this subseries.

These results of this study are consistent with an earlier seminal analysis of cocrystal structures in the Protein Data Bank (PDB), which revealed that fluorine atoms of ligands approached the backbone or side chain C=O moieties of a host protein closely (3.5 Å) and with an appropriate geometry in 16% (442 of the 2559) of the examples evaluated.¹⁰² However, a few examples were highlighted where the effects of fluorine substitution were predicted to be beneficial but the experimental results were not supportive, emphasizing a need to be holistic when assessing the potential for orthogonal multipolar interactions between the fluorine atoms of a ligand and a protein.^{102a} This is emphasized by an analysis of 247 matched pairs of compounds differing only by a fluorine for hydrogen exchange and for which there were both X-ray cocrystal structure data for the fluorinated compounds, and the fluorine atom was believed to be engaging in a multipolar interaction with the protein.^{102b} In 67% of the examples in this data set, the fluorine was attached to a phenyl ring while the majority of the remaining compounds were CF₃ derivatives. The results of the analysis revealed a modest advantage in potency for the fluorinated compounds compared to the hydrogen analogues. After ignoring 79 compounds that were within 2-fold of the 1:1 correlation line as being within experimental error, 123 (73%) of the remainder experienced an increase in potency associated with

Table 22. SARs Associated with Inhibitors **208–215** of the Association of the Tumor Suppressor Protein Menin with MLL

	R	IC ₅₀ (nM)		R	IC ₅₀ (nM)
208	CH ₃	779	212	CH ₃	1200
209	CH ₂ F	1653	213	CH ₂ F	260
210	CHF ₂	82	214	CHF ₂	65
211	CF ₃	92	215	CF ₃	46

fluorine substitution while the other 27% exhibited a reduction in potency of more than 2-fold. The average improvement in the pIC_{50} value of the fluorinated compounds amounted to 0.36 log units, which translates to a free energy of binding advantage of approximately 0.5 kcal/mol. This reflects a modest but beneficial effect of fluorine substitution on potency that did not appear to be a function of increased lipophilicity; however, because the changes in both parameters were similar in magnitude, the effect on lipophilic ligand efficiency ($pIC_{50} - \text{Log } P$) was neutral.^{102b}

A fluorine for hydrogen substitution in the benzamidine-based thrombin inhibitor **216** led to a 5-fold enhancement of potency for **218**, which was found to be 3-fold more potent than the 4-Cl analogue **217** and 5–10-fold better than the other fluorination patterns probed by **219–222**.¹⁰⁴ An X-ray cocrystal structure provided an explanation for the observed SAR, which noted that the 4-fluoro atom was proximal to both the backbone C=O carbon atom (3.5 Å) and backbone C–H of Asn₉₈ (F to N distance = 3.1 Å), as summarized in Figure 13, productive interactions that are not available to either **216** or **217**.

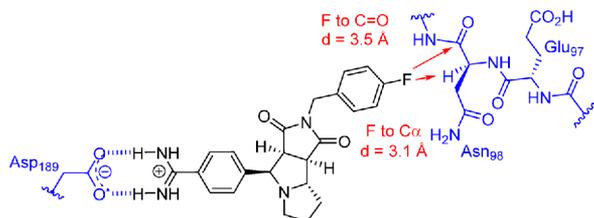
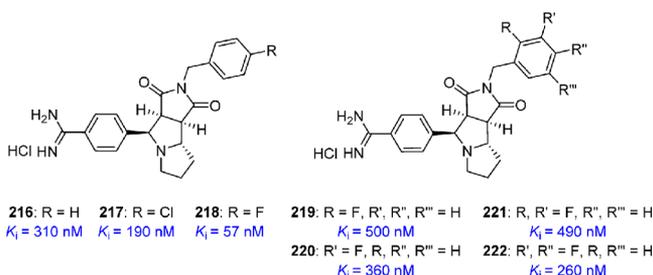


Figure 13. Key interactions between inhibitor **218** and thrombin.



A more recent example of the importance of fluorination on potency is provided by a series of carbazoles that stabilize the Tyr₂₂₀Cys mutant of the tumor suppressor protein p53.¹⁰⁵ In this inhibitor series, the CF₃ homologue **224** exhibited 5-fold improved binding affinity compared to the hydrogen-substituted prototype **223**, an observation rationalized by an examination of the X-ray cocrystal structure. As illustrated in Figure 14, each of

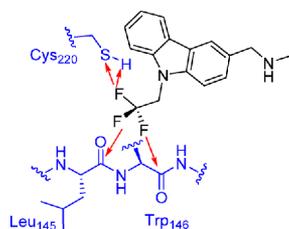
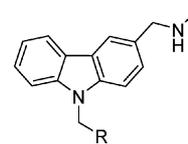


Figure 14. Key drug–target interactions between the CF₃ substituent of **224** and the p53 protein.

the three fluorine atoms of **224** was found to engage the protein, with two establishing multipolar interactions with the backbone C=O moieties of Leu₁₄₅ and Trp₁₄₆ while the third fluorine atom was proximal to the thiol of Cys₂₂₀, an association attributed

to the combination of weak H-bonding and sulfur σ^* interactions.¹⁰⁵



223: R = CH₃
224: R = CF₃

In a series of potent inhibitors of Bruton's tyrosine kinase (BTK), a fluorine scan identified a site for substitution that led to a 10–40-fold enhancement of potency.¹⁰⁶ The effect of fluorination was most effectively exemplified by the comparison of the matched pair of BTK inhibitors **225** and **226** (RN-486), where the introduction of a single fluorine atom increased potency by an order of magnitude.^{106a,b} An X-ray cocrystal structure of the ethyl homologue **227**, where the fluorine atom contributed to a remarkable 400-fold increase in potency in a human whole blood (HWB) assay over the hydrogen-substituted prototype **228**, provided some understanding of the SAR observation. The fluorine atom of **227** was observed to be close to the protonated amine of Lys₄₃₀ (3.2 Å), the ortho C–H of Phe₄₁₃ (3.4 Å), and a conserved H₂O molecule (3.4 Å), as captured in Figure 15.^{106a}

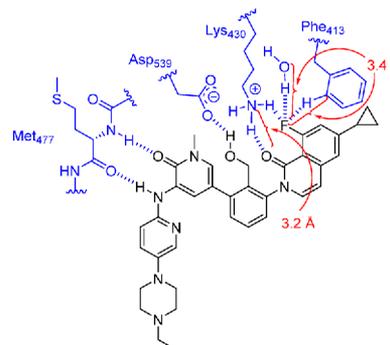
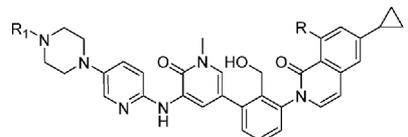


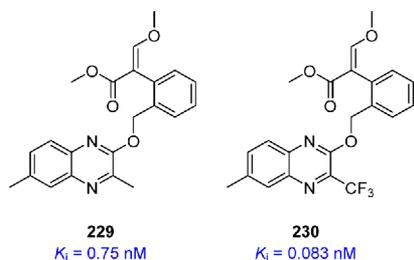
Figure 15. Key drug–target interactions between inhibitor **227** and BTK.

Of note with respect to developability issues, while the cyclopropyl substituent in these analogues replaced a metabolically labile *tert*-butyl element, subsequent studies revealed a metabolic liability associated with the pyridone ring which was susceptible to CYP 450-mediated bioactivation and trapping by GSH, attributed to an initial epoxidation of the C-5,C-6-double bond. This problem was relieved by further optimization in which the pyridone ring was replaced by a pyridazin-3-one heterocycle but not when a pyrazine-2-one was used as the scaffold.^{106c}



225: R = H; R₁ = CH₃ BTK $K_d = 4$ nM
226: R = F; R₁ = CH₃ BTK $K_d = 0.3$ nM
227: R = F; R₁ = CH₂CH₃ HWB $IC_{50} = 4$ nM
228: R = H; R₁ = CH₂CH₃ HWB $IC_{50} = 1.600$ nM

The CF₃ substituent in **230**, an inhibitor of the Q₀ site of the cytochrome *bc*₁ complex, enhanced potency by an order of magnitude when compared to the CH₃ prototype **229**.¹⁰⁷ An X-ray cocrystal structure of **230** with the chicken enzyme revealed close contacts (2.45–2.98 Å) between the fluorine atoms and two hydrogen atoms of Pro₂₇₀, three hydrogen atoms of Ile₁₄₆, and two hydrogen atoms in each of Tyr₂₇₈ and Phe₂₇₄ of the protein.¹⁰⁷



The CF₃ Moiety and Tetrel Bonding. A weak but nevertheless interesting interaction between the CF₃ moiety and electron rich centers of proteins (CO₂⁻, amide carbonyl, and the oxygen atoms of serine, threonine, and tyrosine) that involves tetrel (CF₃...O) bonding has recently been catalogued.¹⁰⁸ Molecular electrostatic potential (MEP) mapping of perfluorotoluene revealed a π -hole associated with the aromatic ring calculated to be +32.9 kcal/mol and a small region of positive potential at the sp³ carbon atom that characterizes a σ -hole that was calculated to be +16.9 kcal/mol (Figure 16).¹⁰⁸ The larger

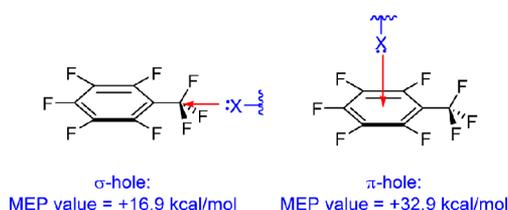


Figure 16. Calculated energies of the σ -hole and π -hole associated with perfluorotoluene.

MEP value of the π -hole suggested that the dominant interactions of electron rich species with perfluorotoluene would be at this site, substantiated by calculations of the interaction energies of the π - and σ -holes with NH₃, the carbonyl oxygen atom of acetone, formic acid anion, and phenoxide. The geometry of the interaction of electron rich species with the σ -hole associated with the CF₃ substituent is highly directional in nature, optimal at an angle of 180° to the Ar-sp³ carbon bond.

To develop insight into the contribution of this interaction in protein–ligand structures, a search of the PDB was conducted using parametric restraints that required a resolution factor of ≤ 3.0 Å, a distance between the carbon atom of the CF₃ substituent of a ligand and the oxygen atom of the protein of less than 3.37 Å (the sum of the van der Waals radii of the two atoms: 1.7 Å for C and 1.52 Å for O) and an X–C...O angle of $>160^\circ$. This process identified eight complexes where the carbon to oxygen distances ranged from 2.59 Å in the case of **231** interacting with the side oxygen atom of Asn₉₇ of macrophage migration inhibitory factor to 3.35 Å for the Asp_{312B} side chain carboxylic acid of the Arg₁₄₀Gln mutant of mitochondrial isocitrate dehydrogenase 2 (IDH2) interacting with AGI-6780 (**232**).^{109,110a} Two examples were examined in detail as illustrative of the phenomenon: the IDH2 inhibitor AG-221 (**234**) in complex with the enzyme and niflumic acid (**235**) in complex with the NmrA-like family domain containing protein 1 NMRAL1.^{109,110b,111} The key aspects of drug–target interactions between **234** and **235** and their protein partners are captured in Figures 17 and 18, respectively. In the case of **234**, the side chain carboxylate of Asp₃₁₂ interacted with the CF₃ of the inhibitor, while for **235**, the hydroxyl O atom of Tyr₂₄₆ was the partnering element. It was suggested that a potential indicator of the contribution of tetrel bonding to the interaction of **234** with IDH2 is provided by the profile of the des-CF₃ derivative **233** which is 2-fold weaker;

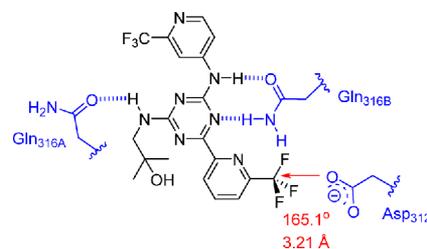


Figure 17. Key interactions between **234** and IDH2 in the cocrystal structure.^{110b}

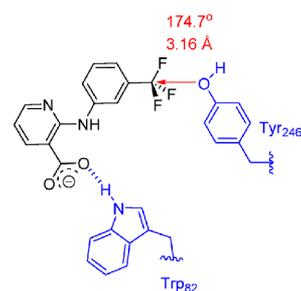
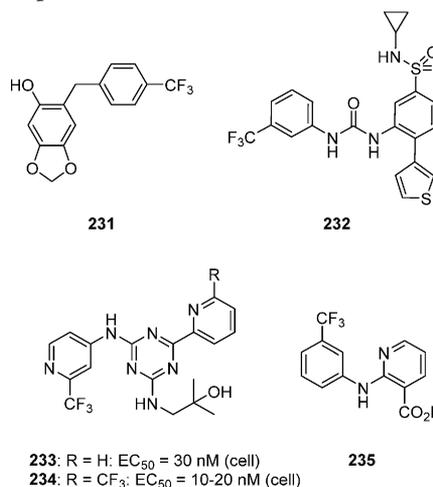


Figure 18. Key interactions between **235** and the NmrA-like family domain containing protein 1 NMRAL1 in the cocrystal complex.¹¹¹

however, because this is data from a cell-based assay, it represents at best an imprecise index.



Indomethacin (**236**) is a potent but nonselective inhibitor of the COX-1 and COX-2 enzymes, a profile that can be modified by fluorination of the 2-methyl substituent, illustrated by **237**, which is a selective but 2-fold weaker inhibitor of COX-2 (Table 23).¹¹² Detailed kinetic studies revealed a K_i for human COX-2 of 13 μ M

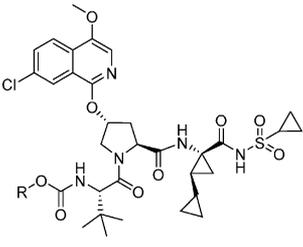
Table 23. Cyclooxygenase Inhibitory Profile of **236** and Its Fluorinated Homologue **237**

	236	237
R	CH ₃	CF ₃
ovine COX-1 IC ₅₀	27 nM	>100 μ M
mouse COX-2 IC ₅₀	127 nM	267 nM

for **236** and 1.5 μM for **237**, while studies with a series of site-directed mutant enzymes indicated that the two compounds very likely bound to the enzyme in a similar fashion. Modeling studies suggested that the CF_3 moiety of **237** filled a small hydrophobic pocket in the enzyme in a differential fashion, as detected by differences in inhibitory potency toward mutant COX-2 enzymes. In particular, the inhibitory activity of **237** toward the Val₅₂₃Ile COX-2 mutant enzyme was reduced by more than 15-fold compared to a smaller 3.7-fold reduction for **236**. However, because in the cocrystal structure Val₅₂₃ is located proximal to the 5-OCH₃ moiety of **236**, the data were interpreted as being the result of the larger CF_3 substituent causing displacement of the heterocyclic core toward the center of the binding pocket. This arrangement was postulated to induce a more significant steric clash between the 5-OCH₃ substituent and the larger isoleucine side chain of the mutant enzyme.¹¹²

Another example of the introduction of a CF_3 moiety contributing to increased potency is provided by the series of HCV NS3 protease inhibitors **238**–**240**, where both the intrinsic enzyme inhibitory potency and the antiviral activity in cell culture exhibited a dependence on the absolute configuration of the trifluoromethylated carbamate moiety that projects into the S₄ sub-pocket of the enzyme, data that are summarized in Table 24.¹¹³

Table 24. SARs Associated with HCV NS3 Protease Inhibitors **238**–**240**^{a†}



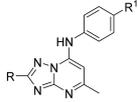
	R	GT-1a IC ₅₀ (nM) [†]	GT-1b EC ₅₀ (nM) [†]
238	iPr	10	67
239		8	146
240		1.3	4.7

^{a†}Biochemical enzyme inhibition assay. [‡]Cell-based HCV replicon assay.

In the absence of cocrystal structure data, rationalization of the observation focused on modeling studies that placed the CF_3 moieties of the two diastereomers in different interactive relationships with the enzyme, with that of **240** suggested to exhibit a closer contact with the protein.

Fluorination patterning has been shown to play an important role in modulating both the potency and species selectivity of triazolopyrimidine-based inhibitors of *Plasmodium falciparum* dihydroorotate dehydrogenase (*Pf* DHODH) that have been probed as therapeutic agents for the treatment of malaria.¹¹⁴ While the prototype triazolopyrimidine **241** was inactive in both biochemical and cell-based assays, the introduction of a *para*-CH₃ substituent to the phenyl ring afforded the homologue **242** as a compound exhibiting modest inhibitory activity in both assays (Table 25). However, the CF_3 analogue **243** was 15-fold more potent than **242**, while the introduction of a CH_3CH_2 at C-12 (**244**) improved potency by a further 3–5-fold. In these compounds, the aniline N–H engages His₁₈₅ in the active site of the enzyme in a H-bonding interaction that is a source of selectivity toward the malaria enzyme over the human homologue.

Table 25. SARs Associated with Triazolopyrimidine-Based *Pf* DHODH Inhibitors **241**–**246**



	R	R ¹	<i>Pf</i> DHODH IC ₅₀ (μM)	<i>Pf</i> 3D7 cells EC ₅₀ (μM)
241 (DSM12)	H	H	>200	>100
242 (DSM97)	H	CH ₃	4.2	6.4
243 (DSM74)	H	CF ₃	0.28	0.34
244 (DSM280)	CH ₃ CH ₂	CF ₃	0.087	0.058
245 (DSM267)	CH ₃ CF ₂	CF ₃	0.038	0.010
246 (DSM265)	CH ₃ CF ₂	SF ₅	0.033	0.046

The binding modes of these compounds differ between the two enzymes, with the N–H engaging His₅₆, the residue in the human enzyme equivalent to His₁₈₅, via the intermediacy of a H₂O molecule. Additional optimization focused in fluorination of the C-12 substituent to give **245** which inhibited *Pf* DHODH with an IC₅₀ value of 38 nM and was active in the cell-based assay with an EC₅₀ value of 10 nM. The in vitro antimalarial profile of the SF₅-containing DSM-265 (**246**) was similar to that of the CF₃ analogue DSM-267 (**245**), and these two compounds offered an optimal compromise between potency and metabolic stability for the series of 4-substituents that were examined. However, in an animal model of infection, **246** offered a potency advantage while a more linear dose-exposure profile was observed in rats, leading to its selection as a candidate for clinical evaluation. The IC₅₀ values for *Pf* DHODH inhibition were 33 nM for **246** and 38 nM for **245** and both compounds weak inhibitors of the human enzyme, IC₅₀ values >100 μM ; however, rodent enzymes were found to be more susceptible, with the IC₅₀ values for mouse and rat measured as 2.3 and 2.7 μM , respectively, for **246**, and 24 and 7.2 μM for mouse and rat, respectively, for **245**. Interestingly, the species specificity of inhibition was found to be highly sensitive to the fluorination pattern of the aniline ring with the additional fluorine atoms ortho- to the CF₃ substituent of analogues of **243**–**245** enhancing inhibition of the mammalian enzymes by 5–100-fold. This phenomenon was attributed to an increase in the entropic contribution to binding as a consequence of favorable hydrophobic interactions established between the fluorinated inhibitors and leucine residues in the mammalian enzymes, suggested as evidence that fluorination of a molecule can enhance binding to the lipophilic pockets of proteins.¹¹⁴

An unusual effect that was observed when aryl hydrogen atoms were replaced with fluorine is found by comparing the activity profiles of the Aurora A kinase inhibitors **247**–**249**.¹¹⁵ The monofluoro compound **248** was 2-fold more potent than prototype **247** in both a functional and binding assay, while potency was further enhanced by introducing a fluorine atom to the pyrimidine ring to give **249**. However, the most interesting observation arose from an analysis of X-ray cocrystal structures which revealed substantially different biochemical modes of inhibition for **247** compared to **248** and **249**. In the X-ray cocrystal structure of Aurora A kinase with **247**, the DFG loop was in the active DFG-in conformation, stabilized by an interaction between Asp₂₇₄ and Lys₁₆₂. Attempts to soak **248** into crystals of Aurora A kinase were unsuccessful, suggesting that binding required changes to the crystal lattice. After developing conditions for cocrystal formation, the X-ray

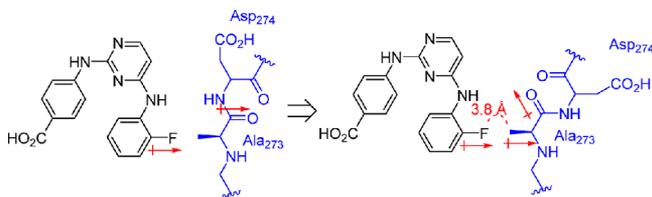
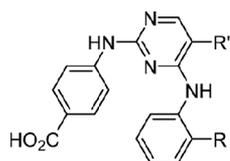


Figure 19. Proposed dipole interactions between **248** and Aurora A kinase leading to a conformational change in the DFG loop of the enzyme.

structures of both **248** and **249** revealed that the DFG loop had flipped to the DFG-out conformation based on rotation about the Ala₂₇₃ amide carbonyl (Figure 19). In this conformation, Asp₂₇₄ was rotated $\sim 100^\circ$ away from the ATP binding site and there was substantial rearrangement of intramolecular interactions within the protein. This effect on enzyme conformation was also observed with the chloro-, bromo-, and cyano- homologues of **248** but not with the CF₃-, CF₃O-, or phenyl-substituted analogues, arguing against a steric effect as the source. In the cocrystal structure, the fluorine atom was 3.8 Å away from the carbon atom of the CH₃ side chain substituent of Ala₂₇₃, with the C–F bond aligned almost collinearly with the vector of the C_α–C_β bond. For Cl and Br, the measured distances were shorter at 3.4 Å, but the geometry remained collinear. These observations were interpreted in the context of an induction of a dipole in the C_α–C_β bond of Ala₂₇₃ by the C–F dipole of the ligand that was transmitted to the amide C=O, thereby facilitating rotation of the peptide backbone, as summarized in Figure 19.



247: R, R' = H
IC₅₀ = 10 nM
K_D = 39 nM

248: R = F; R' = H
IC₅₀ = 3.7 nM
K_D = 16 nM

249: R, R' = F
IC₅₀ = 0.8 nM

■ FLUORINE AND THE MODULATION OF THE BASICITY OF AMINES

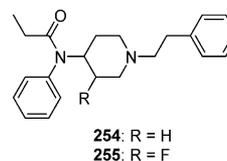
The high electronegativity associated with a C–F bond has made introduction of fluorine a useful approach to modulate the basicity of proximal amines without introducing additional polarity, with effects that are quantitatively predictable based on the number of fluorine atoms and their connectivity with the nitrogen atom.¹¹⁶ A careful analysis of the fluorination pattern of a series of tetrahydroisoquinoline-based inhibitors of phenylethanolamine *N*-methyltransferase (PNMT), the enzyme that methylates norepinephrine to produce epinephrine, led to the identification of compounds with improved selectivity because binding to the α_2 adrenoreceptor subtype was a problem inherent to this chemotype.¹¹⁷ As summarized in Table 26, the successive introduction of fluorine atoms to the CH₃ moiety of **250** led to stepwise reductions in the basicity of the tetrahydroisoquinoline heterocycle in homologues **251**–**253**. Fortunately, PNMT inhibitory potency proved to be less sensitive to a reduction in basicity than did binding to the α_2 adrenoreceptor, allowing the sought-after balance of selectivity to be achieved with the CHF₂ derivative **252**.

An interesting application of the effect of modulating amine basicity by replacing a hydrogen atom with a fluorine is found in **255**, a mono-fluoro analogue of the potent μ opioid agonist fentanyl (**254**).¹¹⁸ The design of **255** explored the hypothesis that peripheral μ opioid receptors are upregulated in painful

Table 26. Basicity, PNMT Inhibition, and α_2 Adrenoreceptor Affinity for the Tetrahydroisoquinolines **250**–**253**

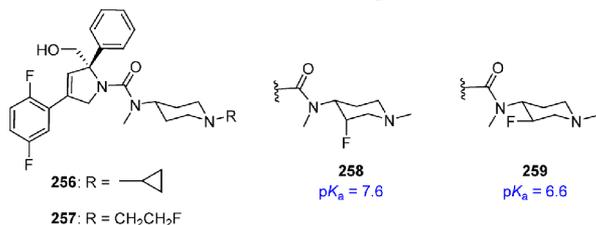
	R	pK _a of conjugate acid	K _i PNMT (μM)	K _i α_2 (μM)	PNMT selectivity
250	CH ₃	9.29	0.017	1.1	65
251	CH ₂ F	7.77	0.023	6.4	280
252	CHF ₂	6.12	0.094	230	2400
253	CF ₃	4.33	3.2	>1000	>310

syndromes and contribute to the sensation of pain. In addition, tissues at sites of damage that produce pain are associated with inflammation and a lower pH, providing a unique environment that could be taken advantage of to modulate the selectivity of action of **254** in a fashion that would spare receptor activation in normal tissues. The hypothesis was based on the understanding that the protonated form of the highly basic **254**, pK_a > 8, that predominates at physiological pH is that recognized by the receptor where it engages Asp₁₄₇. The introduction of a single fluorine atom to the piperidine ring of **254** to afford **255**, evaluated as a mixture of diastereomers, reduced the measured pK_a value to 6.8 and, as such, this compound would be substantially protonated only at pH values that are below those characteristic of normal physiological conditions. Binding experiments conducted in human embryonic kidney cells transfected with the μ opioid receptor indicated that the affinity of **254** was independent of pH with the K_i value at pH = 7.4 = 1.1 nM while **255** bound less potently at physiological pH, K_i = 17.9 nM, than pH = 5.5, K_i = 7.3 nM, and pH = 6.5, K_i = 3.7 nM. This profile would favor binding of **255** to the μ opioid receptor only at lower pH values, providing a measure of selectivity based on local tissue conditions. Thus, **255** was anticipated to activate the μ opioid receptor at the source of pain generation where the pH is believed to be lower than 7.4. In a series of in vivo studies, **255** produced analgesia in rats in an injury-restricted fashion in two different models of inflammatory pain that, in contrast to **254**, was reversed by a peripherally active, non-CNS penetrant μ opioid receptor antagonist. Consistent with the proposed selectivity profile, **255** was devoid of the respiratory depression, sedation, and constipation side effects associated with **254** and exhibited reduced addiction potential as measured by a conditioned place preference evaluation.¹¹⁸

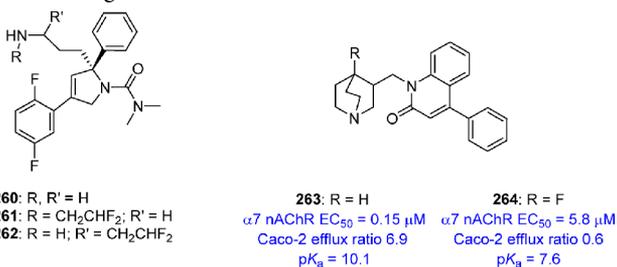


In a series of inhibitors of kinesin spindle protein (KSP), a member of a family of motor proteins that was explored as a mechanism for the treatment of taxane-refractory solid tumors, it was determined that P-gp recognition was sensitive to the basicity of a core piperidine moiety.¹¹⁹ A pK_a value of 6.5–8.0 was determined to be optimal for maximal efficacy in a tumor cell line by reducing efflux, and this was achieved by both the *N*-cyclopropyl and *N*-fluoroethyl derivatives **256** and **257**, respectively. However, **256** displayed time-dependent CYP 450 inhibition in vitro, a known liability of cyclopropyl amines, while evaluation of **257** in vivo revealed toxicity consistent with the release of fluoroacetic acid as a consequence of *N*-dealkylative metabolism. The solution to this problem was to install a fluorine atom in the

piperidine ring where the effect on pK_a was found to be sensitive to disposition, with the axial compound **258**, which was selected for clinical evaluation, more basic than the equatorial isomer **259**.^{119a}



In the structurally related series represented by prototype **260**, modulation of P-gp by fluorination of the primary amine-containing side chain identified both **261** and **262** as satisfactory solutions with efflux ratios of 3 and 5, respectively, compared to the much higher value of 1200 recorded for **260**.^{119b}



The introduction of a fluorine atom at the bridgehead position of the quinclidine-based $\alpha 7$ -N-acetylcholine receptor inhibitor **263** afforded **264**, a compound with a 2.5 unit lower pK_a value that effectively addressed the Caco-2 efflux problem associated with the more basic parent compound.¹²⁰ Unfortunately, this structural modification also resulted in a significant erosion in receptor recognition.

Control of basicity is also an approach that has been exploited to modulate the binding of inhibitors to the hERG cardiac potassium channel, a phenomenon that has been associated with the occurrence of arrhythmias in humans, and the induction phospholipidosis, off-target liabilities that have been suggested to possess overlapping pharmacophores.¹²¹ For example, reduction in the electron density and Log *P* value of the pyridine heterocycle of the JAK3 inhibitor **265** was examined as an approach to reducing the affinity of this compound for the hERG channel.¹²² As captured in Table 27, the installation of a fluorine atom in the

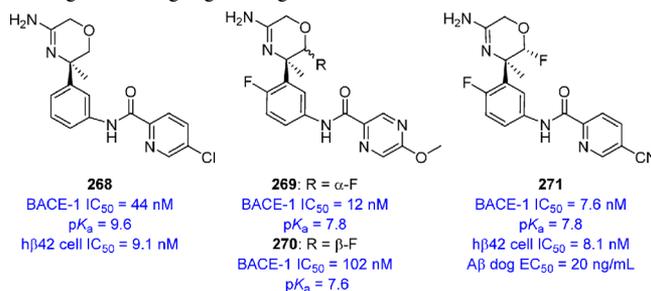
Table 27. JAK3 Inhibitory Potency, hERG Binding, and Calculated Log *P* Values for 265–267

R	R'	JAK3 IC ₅₀ (nM)	hERG binding (μ M)	cLogP
265	H	1.3	13.4	2.8
266	F	1.7	>100	2.7
267	H	0.3	>100	2.7

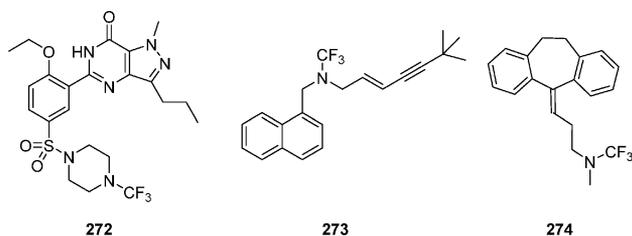
piperidine ring reduced hERG binding by an order of magnitude without a significant change in the calculated Log *P* value that was accompanied by a 4-fold increase in potency for the (3*S*,4*R*) isomer **267** compared to prototype **265**. The (3*R*,4*R*) isomer **266** was several fold less potent than **267** but was also poorly recognized by the hERG channel.

A fluorine for hydrogen exchange was also taken advantage of as an approach to modulate the basicity of the oxazine-based

BACE-1 inhibitor **268** in order to improve membrane permeability and reduce P-gp-mediated efflux from the CNS compartment.¹²³ The amino oxazine ring system had been specifically selected as the scaffold to present the key amidine pharmacophore based on calculations conducted a priori that predicted moderate pK_a values. However, the experimental pK_a values revealed the predictions to be inaccurate, with measured values considerably higher than had been anticipated. This was exemplified by the prototype **268** for which the measured pK_a was 9.6, over 3 units higher than the predicted value of 6.4 based on the calculations. After subcutaneous administration to mice, the measured brain levels for **268** were low and the compound was found to be subject to P-gp-mediated efflux in vitro. The introduction of several fluorinated elements to the oxazine ring was contemplated as a means of further refining the basicity, with C-2 selected as the optimal site based on an analysis of the X-ray cocrystal structure where this vector was directed toward the flap residues, offering potential to productively engage the protein. In the event, a simple 2-fluoro substituent proved to be the most effective modification, reducing the pK_a value of the amino oxazine by 1.2–1.4 units. However, potency was shown to be dependent upon the absolute configuration of the newly introduced chiral center because the axial (2*S*)-isomer **270** was less potent and less basic (IC₅₀ = 102 nM, pK_a = 7.6) than the equatorial (2*R*)-isomer **269** (IC₅₀ = 12 nM, pK_a = 7.8). The reduced basicity enhanced the correlation between enzyme inhibitory potency and activity in the cell-based assay, which was attributed to reduced accumulation of compounds in the acidic endosomal compartment where BACE-1 is located. However, **269** exhibited low metabolic stability, and the more stable pyridine nitrile **271** was subsequently selected for evaluation in in vivo studies where a dose-related reduction in A β 42 levels in CSF was observed, with a 90% decline measured following drug dosing at 2.5 mg/kg to dogs.¹²³



N-CF₃ Derivatives. *N*-Trifluoromethyl amines represent an emerging functionality that compromises the basicity of an amine but have only been cursorily explored as an element in drug design, presumably a function of issues associated with synthetic access.¹²⁴ A recent article has described a facile synthesis of *N*-CF₃ derivatives using a mild preparative procedure that is compatible with late-stage functionalization. The developed process relies upon the reaction of an amine with (Me₄N)SCF₃ and AgF in CH₃CN or CH₂Cl₂ and the *N*-CF₃ derivatives of anilines, cyclic amines, and alkyl amines were prepared in good yield using this protocol. Included in the survey was the preparation of **272**–**274** which are the *N*-CF₃ analogues of the PDE-5 inhibitor sildenafil, the antifungal agent terbinafine, and the tricyclic antidepressant amitriptyline, respectively. Unfortunately, these compounds were not evaluated in the appropriate assays to determine if biological activity was preserved or in in vitro assays that would offer insight into drug developability properties and potential issues.¹²⁴



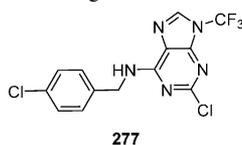
The best documentation of an *N*-CF₃ derivative that has been assessed biologically in vitro is provided by the quinolone **276**, which was tested in the series of antibacterial assays summarized in Table 28.¹²⁵ The inhibitory profile of **276** toward both

Table 28. Antibacterial Activity Associated with the *N*-CH₃-Substituted Quinolone **275 and Its *N*-CF₃-Substituted Homologue **276****

R	Gram-positive		Gram-negative	
	<i>S. aureus</i> Smith	<i>St. pneumoniae</i> type III	<i>E. coli</i> NIHJ JC-2	<i>P. aeruginosa</i> IID1210
275 CH ₃	0.78	3.13	0.05	6.25
276 CF ₃	0.39	6.25	0.05	1.56

Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria was comparable to the *N*-CH₃ homologue **275**, with some possible advantage for **276** with respect to inhibition of *P. aeruginosa*.

The purine **277** was prepared as the sole *N*-CF₃ derivative in a series of Cdk2 inhibitors, and this compound inhibited the enzyme with an IC₅₀ value of 1 μM.¹²⁶ Unfortunately, the matching *N*-CH₃ analogue that would allow a direct comparison was not made but the Cdk2-inhibitory activity of **277** was comparable to similar alkyl-substituted analogues in the broader series.

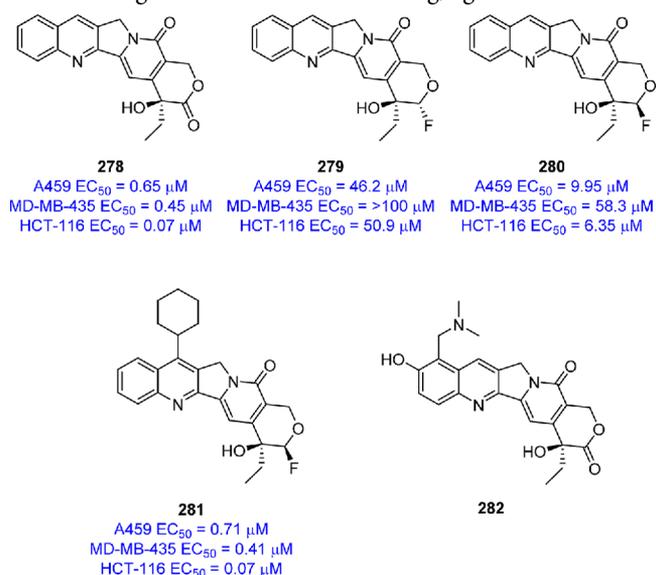


■ FLUORINE AND CARBONYL BIOISOSTERISM

A number of drug design initiatives have sought to take advantage of fluorine-containing functionality as bioisosteres of the carbonyl functionality. However, while there has been some focus on mimicking the amide functionality, which will be discussed later, there are examples of the use of fluorinated elements as bioisosteres of the carbonyl moiety of ketones, lactones, and carboxylic acids. In this section, representative examples are discussed that demonstrate functional bioisosterism in a range of biochemical contexts, with the underlying design principles in some cases supported by X-ray cocrystallographic data.

sp³ C–F as a C=O Bioisostere. Mimicry of C=O by a C–F is a function of the similarity between bond lengths, van der Waals radii and dipoles of the two functionalities and the electronegativity of oxygen and fluorine. A successful application of C=O/C–F bioisosterism can be found in studies with camptothecin (**278**), a naturally occurring alkaloid derivative that potently inhibits topoisomerase I and prevents tumor cell proliferation in vitro with EC₅₀ values of <1 μM.^{53b,127} However, in vivo applications of **278** are limited, in part, by the low chemical and metabolic stability associated with the lactone ring

which is hydrolyzed rapidly to the inactive carboxylic acid derivative. Replacing the lactone C=O with an α -fluoro ether moiety was examined as a potential bioisostere based on an appreciation of the similarity of dipoles of the C–F and C=O bonds.¹²⁷ The (2*R*)-isomer **279** was a significantly less potent inhibitor of both topoisomerase I enzyme-mediated relaxation of supercoiled DNA and tumor cell proliferation in vitro than the (2*S*)-isomer **280**. However, in assays measuring stability in H₂O at pH = 7.4, the fluoro ether ring of **280** was found to offer superior performance when compared to the lactone **278**. Lactone **278** was degraded by >50% after 6 h of incubation compared to a loss of just 4% for **280**, with a similar profile observed in phosphate buffer. The antiproliferative potency of **279** was fully restored to the levels offered by **278** by decoration of the quinolone core, with the C-7 cyclohexyl derivative **281** optimal. This compound demonstrated dose-related inhibition of tumor growth in two xenograft models following IP administration of doses of 2–4 mg/kg, with efficacy comparable to topotecan (**282**), a camptothecin derivative, at a dose of 0.5 mg/kg. Notably, administration of **281** at 2 mg/kg was not associated with the weight loss observed with 0.5 mg/kg doses of **282**.



Fluoro Alkenes and Aromatic Fluorides as C=O Bioisosteres. Fluoro- and trifluoromethyl-alkenes and chloroalkenes have been proposed as potential amide bioisosteres based on the topological, steric, and electronic relationships illustrated in Figure 20, and some of these structural elements

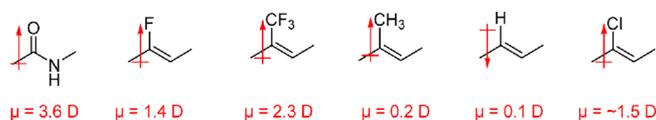
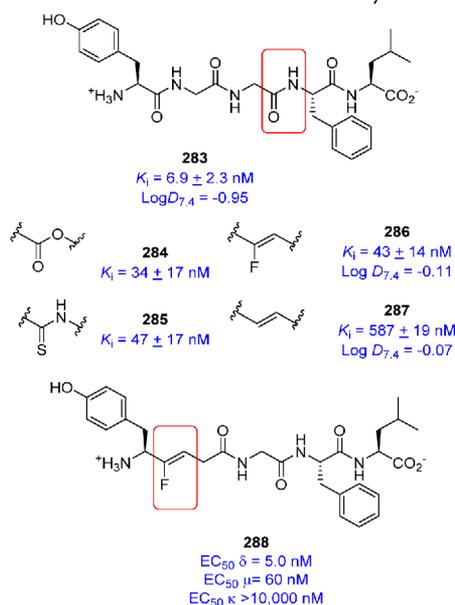


Figure 20. Dipole moments and vectors that illustrate isosterism between an amide moiety and fluorinated alkene derivatives that contrasts with simpler alkenes.

have found application in the design of both small molecule drugs and peptidomimetics.^{8,128–132} However, while the geometries are similar, the dipoles associated with the fluorinated and chlorinated olefins are of a lower strength when compared to an amide, more comparable to an aldehyde or ketone, and although the dipole vectors are similarly aligned, DFT calculations indicate that a chloroalkene more closely approximates an amide than a fluoroalkene.^{133,134}

Examples of Fluorinated Alkenes As Amide Bioisosteres. An example where a fluoroalkene functions as an effective amide replacement when embedded in a peptidomimetic background is provided by studies with Leu-enkephalin (**283**), a pentapeptide that activates the δ -opioid receptor but fails to produce analgesia in vivo due to poor PK properties.¹³¹ The ester **284** and thioamide **285** retained δ -opioid receptor activity, indicating that a H-bond donor at this site was not essential and inspired the design of the fluoro olefin **286**. The potent activity of **286** confirmed the H-bonding hypothesis, while the weaker receptor binding affinity associated with the simple olefin **287** emphasized the importance of the fluoride atom for effective functional mimicry.



A fluoro alkene was also examined as a replacement for the amide moiety at the Tyr¹–Gly² junction as an approach to interfering with metabolism at this site.¹³² The Leu-enkephalin analogue **288** demonstrated significant activity toward activating the δ - and μ -opioid receptors stably expressed in CHO cells, although the EC_{50} values were 60- and 45-fold higher, respectively, than for progenitor **283**. However, differentiation was observed at the κ -opioid receptor where the activity of **288** was negligible compared to **283**, which expressed an IC_{50} value of 80 nM.¹³²

Both a fluoro- and a chloro-alkene were found to be effective amide mimetics when installed in a 36-residue peptide derived from the amino terminus of human parathyroid hormone (hPTH), where they were incorporated as part of a dipeptide element installed at the amino terminus.¹³⁴ Comparison of the matched pairs **289/290** and **291/292** indicates that in this context, the fluoro- and chloro-alkenes performed similarly with respect to binding to the PTH receptor and expression of full intrinsic

Table 29. hPTH Receptor Binding Data for 289–292

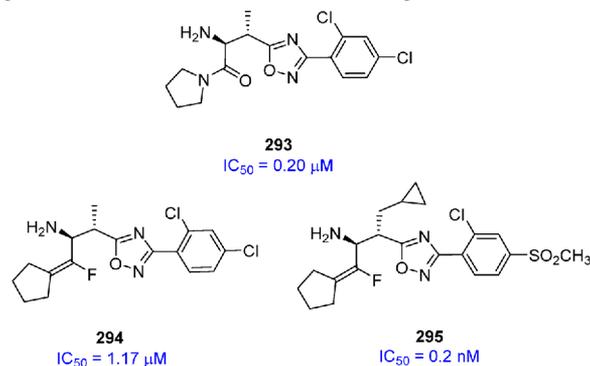
$A^1-A^2 = \text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{CH}(\text{X})-\text{CH}(\text{R})-\text{C}(=\text{O})-\text{NH}_2$

A^1-A^2 -Ser³-Glu-Ile-Gln-Leu-Met-His-Asn¹⁰-Leu-Gly-Lys-His-Leu-Asn-Ser-Met-Glu-Arg²⁰-Val-Glu-Trp-Leu-Arg-Lys-Lys-Leu-Gln-Asp³⁰-Val-His-Asn-Phe-Val-Ala-NH₂

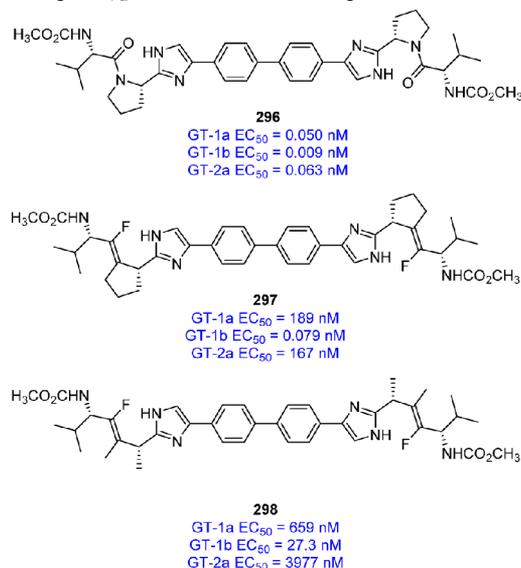
	X	R	binding affinity to opossum kidney (OK-1) cells ($\text{p}K_i$)	cyclic AMP OK1 EC_{50} (nM) (intrinsic activity)
289	F	CH ₃	8.2	9.1 (0.6)
290	Cl	CH ₃	8.9	5.5 (1.0)
291	F	iPr	8.9	4.4 (1.0)
292	Cl	iPr	8.9	7.9 (1.0)

activity as measured by cAMP production, with the exception of **289**, which acted as a partial agonist (Table 29).^{134b}

A fluoro-olefin was examined as a potential amide bioisostere in DPP-4 inhibitors in an attempt to confer resistance to cleavage by amidases or proteases, with **294** found to be 5-fold less potent than its matched amide **293**, attributed to the weaker dipole associated with the former.¹³⁵ However, potency was enhanced by variation of both the P₁ moiety and the pattern of substitution on the phenyl ring, with **295** a considerably more potent DPP-4 inhibitor. An X-ray cocrystal structure of **295** bound to the enzyme revealed a similar binding mode to an amide homologue, with the fluorine atom of the bioisostere proximal to the side chain N-Hs of Arg₁₂₅ and Asn₇₁₀, described as a H-bonding interaction.¹³⁵

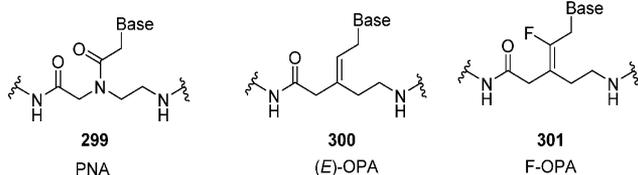


A conformational analysis of the symmetrical and potent HCV NSSA inhibitor daclatasvir (**296**) revealed that the most stable conformers were those stabilized by an intramolecular H-bond between the valine carbonyl oxygen atom and the imidazole N–H (distance = 2.2 Å).¹³⁶ This topography resembled that of a γ -turn and inspired the design of a fluoro-alkene amide bioisostere in which both of the valines of **297** were predicted to adopt a similar conformation, with the fluorine to imidazole N–H distance predicted to be 2.29 Å. In contrast, the analogue **298**, in which the conformational constraint associated with the cyclopentane ring of **297** was relaxed, was predicted to exhibit a much lower propensity to adopt a γ -turn topography. In a GT-1b HCV replicon assay, although **297** was several fold weaker than **296**, it still maintained subnanomolar inhibitory potency.^{136a} However, in both GT-1a and GT-2a replicons, **297** was substantially (>2500-fold) less active than **296**, demonstrating the heightened sensitivity of these two genotypes to structural changes in the molecule.^{136b}

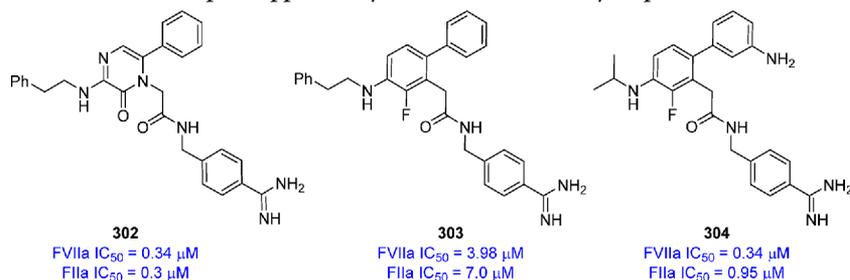


The antiviral effects of **298** were of lower potency, lending some support to the fundamental design principle.

Fluorinated olefinic peptide nucleic acids **301** (F-OPAs), patterned after peptide nucleic acids **299** (PNAs), were prepared with adenine, thymidine, and guanine as the bases and incorporated into decameric oligomers for evaluation of the stability of the duplexes with complementary strands of DNA.¹³⁷ The stability, as determined by T_m values, was dependent upon the location of the nucleotide mimetic in the sequence, and while fully modified F-OPA decamers and pentadecamers formed parallel duplexes with complementary DNA, their stability was lower than either the peptide nucleic acid analogue **299** or OPA analogue **300**.



Aromatic Fluorides as C=O Bioisosteres. An aromatic fluoride, which may be viewed as incorporating an embedded alkenyl fluoride, has been shown to effectively substitute for a lactam carbonyl moiety in several biochemical contexts. Prominent examples where a bioisosteric relationship is supported by



X-ray cocrystal structure data have been provided by inhibitors of enzymes in the coagulation cascade, studies that have provided detailed insights into structural emulation.^{138,139} Comparison of the MMPs **302** and **303**, which are dual tissue factor VIIa (FVIIa) and thrombin (FIIa) inhibitors and prototype molecules in their respective series, provide an index of the level of functional mimicry, with the fluorophenyl moiety approximately an order of magnitude less potent in both enzyme assays.^{138a,b}

An X-ray cocrystal of the analogue **304** with FVIIa revealed that the fluorine atom was close to the N–H of Gly₂₁₆ (N to F distance = 3.4 Å) in a fashion that was reminiscent of the H-bond observed between the carbonyl oxygen atom of the amide-based inhibitors (Figure 21).¹³⁸ In this structure, the iso-propyl-substituted aniline N–H of **304** donated a H-bond to the backbone C=O of Gly₂₁₆, with the N to O distance measured as 3.4 Å.

Comparison of the data for the matched pair of thrombin inhibitors **305** and **306** suggests the potential for a bioisosteric relationship between the fluorophenyl and pyridine *N*-oxide moieties although the H-bonding properties of the two elements are considerably different, with the *N*-oxide moiety the more powerful acceptor.^{139b,c,140}

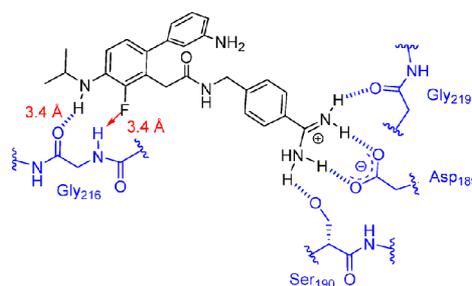
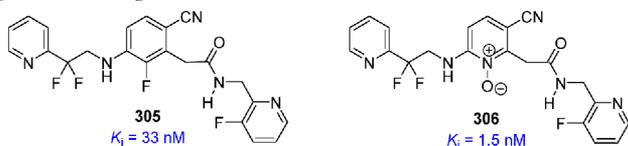
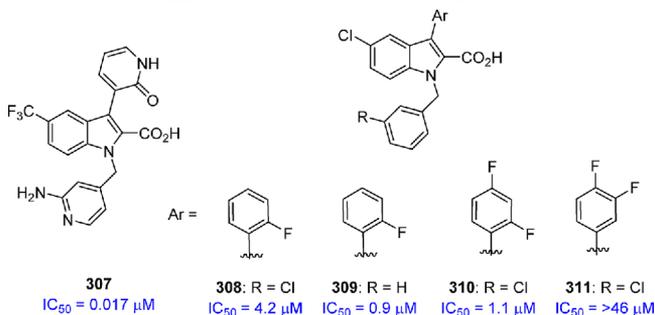


Figure 21. Key interactions between and FVIIa and the benzamidine-based inhibitor **304**.

A fluorobenzene motif has also been found to be an effective amide bioisostere when incorporated into allosteric inhibitors of the HCV NSSB RNA-dependent RNA polymerase, with **307** the prototype of the series.¹⁴¹ The 2-fluoro derivative **309** was a potent inhibitor of NSSB biochemical activity in vitro, a profile that extended to the 2,4-difluoro homologue **310**. However, the des-fluoro analogue **308** and the 3,4-isomer **311** were found to be less potent, data that collectively emphasized the importance of the topology of fluorine patterning and were concordant with the idea that the C–F moieties in **309** and **310** mimic the C=O of **307**. An X-ray cocrystal structure of **309** with the NSSB enzyme revealed that hydrophobic interactions were dominant, with no

specific interaction observed between the carboxylate element and the protein (Figure 22). However, the fluorine atom of **309** was close to the backbone NH of Tyr₄₄₈ with a nitrogen to fluorine distance of 2.6 Å, while the hydrogen atom ortho- to the fluorine substituent was 2.9 Å from the backbone carbonyl oxygen atom of Ile₄₄₇, a distance less than the sum of their van der Waals radii that was suggestive of a C–H H-bonding interaction.^{140c,141}



In a series of non-ATP competitive MAP kinase kinase 1 (MEK1) inhibitors, the fused pyridone **312** exhibited an IC_{50} value of 38 nM.^{142,143} Although clearly not a MMP, the difluorobenzene homologue RO4987655 (**313**) demonstrated high inhibitory potency toward the kinase, and this compound was advanced into phase I clinical trials.¹⁴⁴ An X-ray cocrystal structure of the bromobenzene derivative **314** bound to MEK1 was informative, revealing an intramolecular H-bond between the N–H and the C=O oxygen atom of the hydroxamic acid

ester (Figure 23).^{143,144} In addition, there was a halogen bonding interaction between the iodine atom and the backbone carbonyl

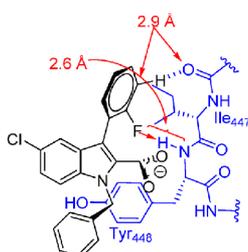
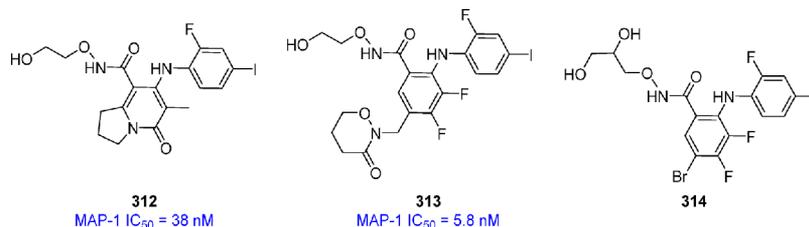


Figure 22. Key drug–target interactions between 309 and the HCV NS5B polymerase protein.

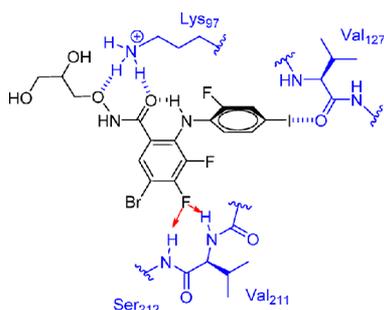
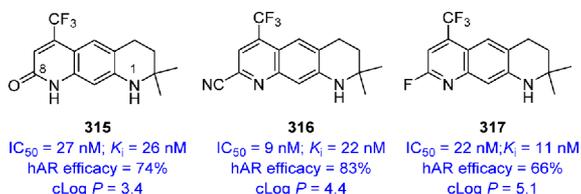


Figure 23. Key drug–target interactions between MEK1 and inhibitor 314.

Several additional examples where there is evidence of a bioisosteric relationship between the C–F and C=O moieties have been described. In a series of pyridone-based fused tricyclic human androgen receptor (hAR) antagonists of which 315 is representative, examination of the potential of a bioisosteric relationship between the C–F and C=O moieties was adopted as an approach to understand which pyridone tautomer was responsible for the drug–target interactions.¹⁴⁵ The assays for assessing these compounds were based on a primary understanding of hAR binding affinity in a biochemical assay, while functional effects were determined based on inhibition of hAR-dependent transcriptional activity in mammalian CV-1 cells. While 8-amino and 8-alkoxy compounds were much weaker antagonists, small electron withdrawing groups at C-8 were preferred, with nitrile (316) and fluorine (317) optimal. In this context, there appears to be a bioisosteric relationship between the C=O, C≡N, and C–F moieties, and the data were proposed to support the concept that a H-bond acceptor is



oxygen atom of Val₁₂₇ while the 4-fluoro atom was close to the backbone N–H moieties of both Ser₂₁₂ and Val₂₁₁.

required at this site of the pharmacophore, leading to the suggestion that the active tautomer was that of the pyridone represented in 316 rather than the alternate hydroxy pyridine.¹⁴⁵

A C–F bond has also been invoked as a C=O isostere in the context of the GABA aminotransferase inhibitors 318 and 319, where the carboxylic acid moiety was mimicked by a 2,6-difluorophenyl ring.¹⁴⁶ The fluorine patterning in 318 and 319, which are competitive inhibitors of GABA aminotransferase with K_i values of 11 and 6.3 mM, respectively, enhanced the acidity of the phenolic hydroxyl, which has a pK_a value of 7.12 compared to 9.81 for phenol. The structural overlays presented in Figure 24

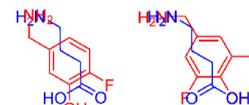
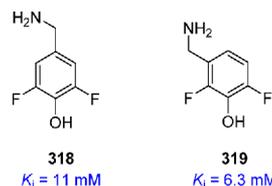
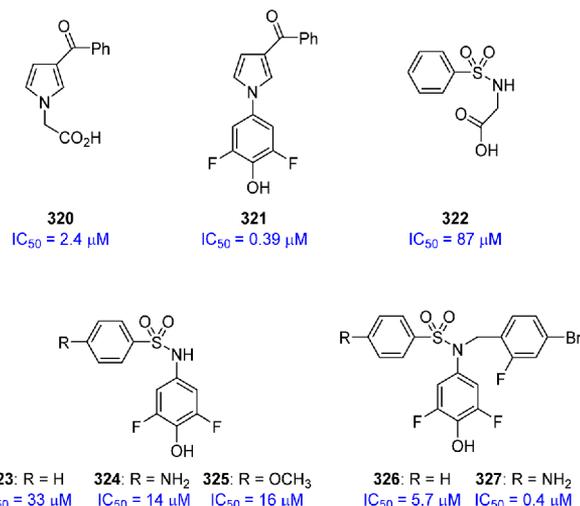


Figure 24. Structural overlays of 82 with 318 and 319 illustrating C–F and C=O mimicry.

were used to illustrate the postulated isosteric relationship between the C–F bond of 318 and 319 and the C=O moiety of the carboxylic acid of 82.¹⁴⁶

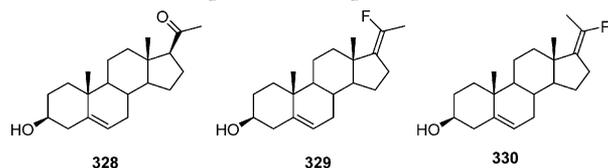


These observations were the basis of the installation of a 2,6-difluorophenol moiety as a potential carboxylic acid bioisostere in a series of carbonic anhydrase inhibitors patterned after the carboxylic acids 320 and 321.¹⁴⁷ In the analysis of the matched pairs 320/321 and 322/323, the 2,6-difluorophenol offered a



potency advantage that was further modulated by modifying the phenyl ring substituents of **322** (compounds **324** and **325**) or by the introduction of the benzyl moiety, as in **326** and **327**.¹⁴⁷

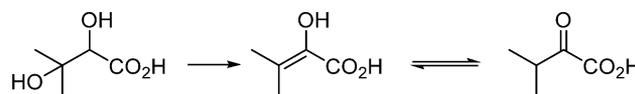
Alkenyl Fluoride as an Enol Mimetic. Alkenyl fluorides have also been contemplated as mimics of enol-based intermediates in enzyme-mediated reactions.^{148–150} The alkenyl fluorides **329** and **330** were prepared as mimics of the (*Z*) and (*E*) enol forms, respectively, of pregnenolone **328**. These compounds were probed as inhibitors of steroid C_{17 α} hydroxylase/C₁₇₍₂₀₎ lyase, which converts progesterone to androstenedione and **328** to dehydroepiandrosterone, with extension to potential therapies for prostate cancer and hormone-dependent breast cancer which rely upon the production of androgens and estrogens, respectively.¹⁴⁸ The enol of **328** is thought to be an intermediate in the initial C_{17 α} hydroxylation step catalyzed by the dual acting enzyme. Incubation of **329** with cynomolgus monkey testicular C₁₇₍₂₀₎ lyase at a concentration of 1 μ M resulted in 49% inhibition of enzymatic activity, with the effect determined to be time-dependent because inhibition after 40 min of preincubation increased to 72%. By way of contrast, **330** was associated with 54% inhibition of C₁₇₍₂₀₎ lyase activity at a concentration of 1 μ M but with minimal evidence of time-dependence because the amount of inhibition was relatively constant, measured as 60% after a 40 min preincubation period.¹⁴⁸



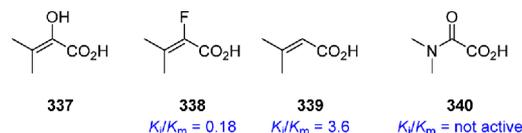
Other steroidal enzyme inhibitors where an alkenyl fluoride has been explored as a transition state mimic are the type I and type II 5 α -reductases which convert testosterone (**331**) to the more androgenic dihydrotestosterone (**333**), with the enolate **332** a postulated intermediate (Scheme 5).¹⁴⁹ Finasteride **18** is a potent inhibitor of the type II 5 α -reductase, IC₅₀ = 1.2 nM but is a more modest inhibitor of the type I enzyme IC₅₀ = 650 nM. The alkenyl fluoride **334** inhibited the type II 5 α reductase with an IC₅₀ value of 480 nM, 400-fold less potently than **18**, and the type I enzyme with an IC₅₀ value of 1300 nM, 2-fold weaker than **18**. The alkenyl fluoride **334** was unique in the halogen series because the homologous chloride **335** and bromide **336** were inactive in both assays. In this context, the alkenyl fluoride moiety may be considered reflective of a bioisosteric relationship with both an enolate and an amide.

The α,β -dihydroxyacid dehydratase class of enzyme catalyzes the elimination of water from a dihydroxy acid to produce the enol **337**, which is tautomeric with an α -keto acid, as summarized in Scheme 6.¹⁵⁰ The alkenyl fluoride **338** was prepared as a mimic of **337**, a design principle successful to the extent that this compound inhibited the dehydratase with a K_i/K_m ratio of 0.18,

Scheme 6. Reaction Process Catalyzed by α,β -Dihydroxyacid Dehydratase



superior in this case to the simpler acrylate **339** and the amide **340**, which was inactive.



The 1,1-Difluoro Alkene Moiety as a C=O Bioisostere.

The fluorine atoms of the 1,1-difluoroalkene moiety have been advocated in C=O mimesis, with the two fluorine atoms approximating the electron density associated with the lone pairs of electrons associated with the oxygen atom, although with similar dipole alignment of 30% lesser magnitude, as summarized in Figure 25.¹⁵¹

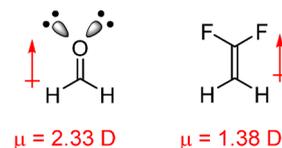
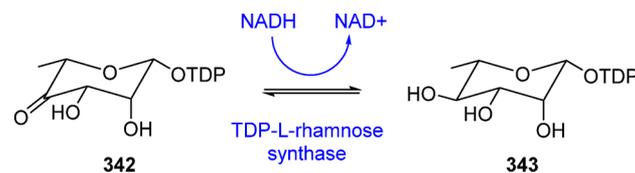


Figure 25. Isosteric relationship between formaldehyde and 1,1-difluoroethylene.

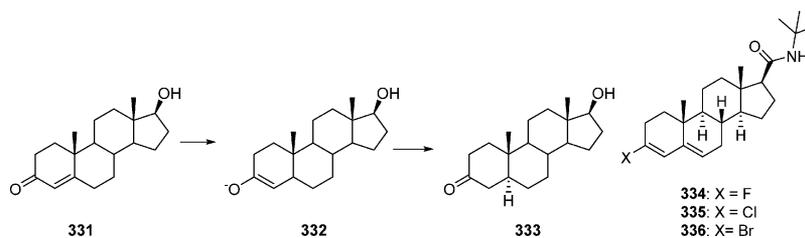
A pioneering examination of a 1,1-difluoroalkene as a C=O mimic was in the design of **341** as a substrate analogue of thymidine diphosphate (TDP)-6-deoxy-L-lyxo-4-hexulose (**342**) which is reduced to TDP-L-rhamnose (**343**) by the action of TDP-L-rhamnose synthase, a pathway summarized in Scheme 7.¹⁵²

Scheme 7. TDP-L-rhamnose Synthase-Catalyzed Reduction of **342** to **343**

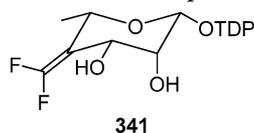


The design premise was based on the underlying electronics of the C=CF₂ moiety acting as a C=O mimic, with the anticipation that the addition of hydride to the olefin would occur with facility and in the same fashion as the addition to the ketone carbonyl. This mode of reaction was expected to generate an intermediate anion on a carbon atom that is adjacent to two fluorine atoms, setting up potentially unfavorable interactions

Scheme 5. Metabolism of **331**–**333** by Steroid 5 α -Reductase

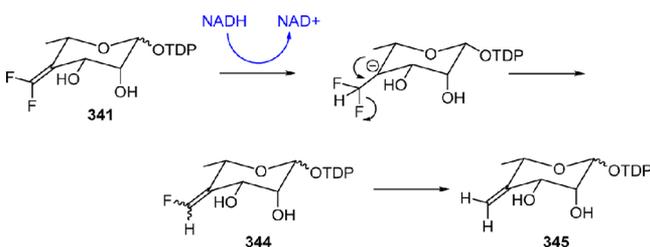


with the fluorine lone pairs that would be destabilizing and precipitate either a structural rearrangement or the loss of fluoride to afford a reactive carbene species.¹⁵³



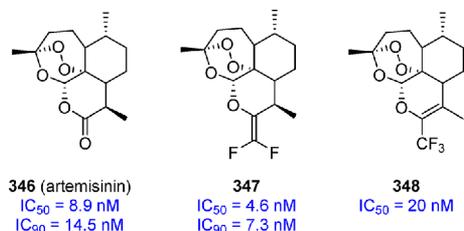
In the event, incubating TDP-L-rhamnose synthase (1 μ M) with a 6000-fold excess (6.1 mM) of **341**, evaluated as a 3:1 mixture of α - and β -anomers, revealed that it acted as a poor but nevertheless kinetically competent substrate. However, irreversible inactivation of the enzyme was not observed; rather, the isolated products reflected the loss of one (**344**) or both fluorine atoms (**345**), an observation that was attributed to hydride addition to the exocyclic carbon atom which was favored over the alternative site of attack (Scheme 8). The resulting anion

Scheme 8. Postulated Reaction Pathway of 341 with TDP-L-rhamnose Synthase



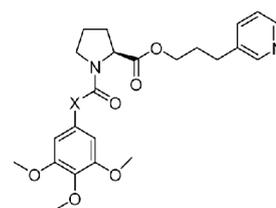
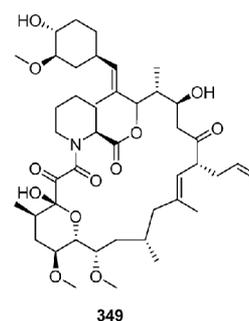
would be expected to decompose by elimination of fluoride, with the initially produced **344** also acting as a substrate for the enzyme, able to engage in a repeat of the reduction cycle that would lead to the completely defluorinated olefin **345**, a process depicted in Scheme 8. Thus, in this context, the difluoro olefin of **341** does indeed act as a mimic of the ketone C=O but reverses the regioselectivity of hydride addition.

A successful application of the 1,1-difluoroethylene moiety as a bioisostere has been in the design of improved derivatives of the antimalarial agent artemisinin (**346**) for which resistance is beginning to emerge.^{154,155} The difluorinated alkene **347** was conceived as a more stable derivative of the lactone in **346**, with in vitro potency improved 2-fold compared to the progenitor.¹⁵⁴ Intraperitoneal (IP) administration of **347** to mice infected with *Plasmodium berghei* at a dose of 35.5 μ mol/kg for 4 days resulted in no detectable parasitemia on day 4 compared to parasitemia levels of 25% for animals dosed with **346** and 50% for the untreated control group.^{154b} In this setting, a CF₃-alkene moiety is also an effective carbonyl bioisostere, as demonstrated by the potent in vitro antimalarial activity associated with **348**.^{154a}

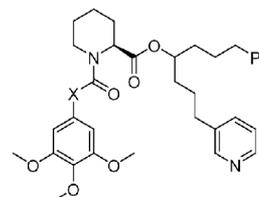


The CF₂ Moiety as a C=O Bioisostere. A CF₂ moiety has been shown to function as an effective ketone bioisostere when installed in analogues of nonimmunosuppressive inhibitors of FK506-binding proteins (FKBPs), members of the immunophilin class of chaperones.¹⁵⁶ The in vitro and in vivo neurotrophic activity exhibited by the immunophilin FK506 (tacrolimus, **349**)

can be recapitulated by nonimmunosuppressive compounds that mimic the FKBP12-binding portion of the macrolide lactone. The design concept explored initially assessed replacing the ketone carbonyl of the prototype molecule **350** with a CF₂ to afford **351**, a compound that performed slightly better as an inhibitor of FKBP12 rotamase activity than the progenitor. The importance of the CF₂ element was underscored by the absence of significant rotamase inhibition by the CH₂ homologue **352**. Chemical stability studies indicated that **351** was stable over 27 h in phosphate-buffered saline/DMSO, alleviating concerns around the benzylic difluoride moiety and particularly its relationship with the electron rich aromatic ring. The optimized molecule **354**, which was patterned as an analogue of V-10367 (**353**), inhibited FKBP12 rotamase activity with a K_i of 19 nM, potency that compared favorably with the 0.3 nM K_i observed for **353** under comparable experimental conditions.¹⁵⁶ An X-ray cocrystal structure of **354** bound to FKBP12 indicated that one of the fluorine atoms was close to the hydrogen of Tyr₂₆-OH (F to O distance = 3.18 Å), resembling the H-bonding interaction of the ketone C=O of **353**, while the second fluorine atom interacted with a meta hydrogen of Phe₃₆ with an aromatic carbon to fluorine distance of 3.02 Å.^{156a}



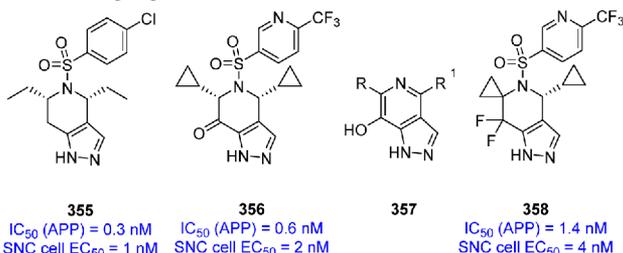
350: X = C=O **351:** X = CF₂ **352:** X = CH₂
K_i = 4.0 μ M K_i = 0.87 μ M inactive



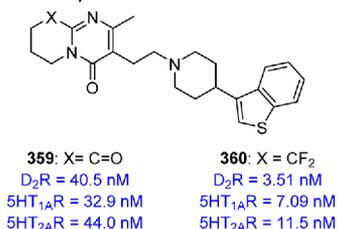
353: X = C=O (V-10367)
K_i = 0.3 nM **354:** X = CF₂
K_i = 19 nM

The pyrazolo[4,3-*c*]pyridine **355** was characterized as a potent γ -secretase inhibitor that was active in vivo in a wild-type FVB mouse model, reducing brain A β 40 levels by 25% following an oral dose of 5 mg/kg despite the low oral bioavailability (2.5%) of this compound.¹⁵⁷ However, **355** was labile in liver microsomes, with oxidation of both the ethyl substituents and the methylene that is exocyclic to the pyrazole identified as significant sites of metabolic susceptibility. In addition, the pyrazole ring N atom was subject to rapid glucuronidation, while GSH adducts were formed by a process that involved the direct displacement of the

chlorine substituent on the phenyl ring.¹⁵⁷ Iterative optimization to address these problems led to the identification of the ketone analogue **356**, which was less susceptible to glucuronidation but exhibited poor biological activity in a cell-based assay, despite potent intrinsic enzyme inhibition. This was traced to a chemical degradation pathway that involved elimination of 4-chlorophenylsulfonic acid from these molecules to afford the corresponding hydroxy pyridines **357**. Replacing the ketone C=O with a CF₂ gave a series of compounds from which **358** emerged after further structural manipulation designed to more comprehensively address HLM instability. This compound lowered brain Aβ₄₀ by 27% *in vivo* in a mouse model following oral administration of a dose of 1 mg/kg.¹⁵⁷



In a series of atypical antipsychotics where the combination of antagonist activity at the dopamine D₂ and serotonin 5HT_{2A} receptors with agonist effects at the serotonin 5HT_{1A} receptor was sought, the CF₂ moiety in **360** performed similarly to the ketone **359**, a SAR point reproduced in analogues in which the benzothioephene moiety was varied.^{158,159}



■ FLUORINATED MOTIFS AS AMIDE, SULFONAMIDE, AND UREA MIMETICS

Trifluoroethylamine and Difluoroethylamine Derivatives. The bioisosteric relationship between a trifluoroethylamine moiety and an amide functionality was originally conceived by Zanda who examined its potential in the context of designing peptidomimetics (Figure 26).^{159,160} In addition, the plasticity of this structural element was recognized based on its potential to be incorporated either in register within the peptide frame, as depicted in Figure 26B, or in the partially retro-inverted configuration illustrated in Figure 26C.

The fundamental basis for mimicry between the CF₃CH₂NH moiety and the more recently explored CHF₂CH₂NH homologue and an amide is captured in Figure 27 and relies upon both geometrical and electronic considerations.¹⁵⁹ The key C–C–N bond angle of the CF₃CH₂NHR moiety is comparable to that of an amide, while the electron withdrawing effects of the CF₃ moiety reduce the basicity of the amine such that the H-bond

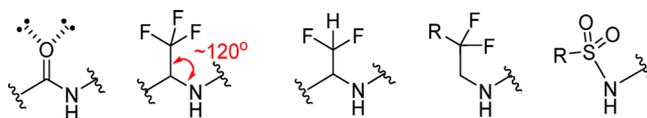


Figure 27. Functional aspects of the mimicry between an amide and a sulfonamide moiety and CF₃CH₂NH and CHF₂CH₂NH.

donating properties of the N–H are more like that of an amide N–H.¹⁵⁹ In addition, the C–F dipoles and electron density are believed to provide some emulation of the amide oxygen lone pairs of electrons. Somewhat analogously, the RCF₂CH₂NH may be viewed as a sulfonamide mimic in which the two fluorine atoms function as metaphors of the sulfone oxygen atoms, with the imprecise topographical relationships between the bonds of the two moieties possibly compensated by the longer C–S and N–S bonds.^{159c} These structural elements have the advantage of relieving the topographical constraints imposed by an amide functionality which, in appropriate circumstances, may enhance complementarity with a specific target. While deployment of the CF₃CH₂NH or CHF₂CH₂NH moieties eliminates metabolic sensitivity to amidases, esterases, and proteases, these motifs do introduce a new asymmetric center.

The CF₃CH₂NH moiety has found application as an amide bioisostere beyond incorporation into peptidomimetics, most prominently in mechanism-based inhibitors of the cathepsin family of cysteine protease inhibitors from which the cathepsin K inhibitor odanacatib (**361**) was derived.¹⁶¹ An analysis of the X-ray cocrystal structures of peptide-based inhibitors of cathepsin K revealed that while the P₁–P₂ amide engaged the protein via H-bonding interactions involving both the N–H and C=O oxygen atom, the P₂–P₃ amide element relied upon a H-bond interaction involving only the N–H as a donor.^{161a} This inspired the design of trifluoroethylamine derivatives that would reduce the pK_a of the amine while preserving the H-bond donor attributes. The data presented for **362**–**365** in Table 30 provides

Table 30. SARs Associated with the Series of Cathepsin K Inhibitors **362**–**365** that Incorporate Potential Amide Bioisosteres at the P₂–P₃ Junction

R	cathepsin K IC ₅₀ (nM)	pK _a
362 CF ₃	0.9	1.3
363 CF ₂ CF ₃	2.4	1.8
364 CH ₃	988	6.7
365 CN	30	0.7

key insights into the identification of suitable amide bioisosteres in this series.^{161b} The compiled SARs indicate the importance of amine pK_a because the CH₃ analogue **364** is 1000-fold less potent than the CF₃ derivative **362**; however, the CF₃CF₂ homologue **363** is somewhat less potent, while the nitrile **365**, which has the

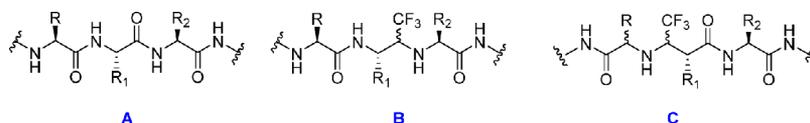
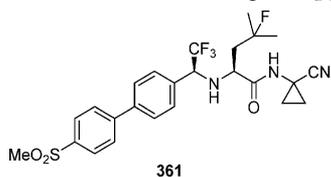
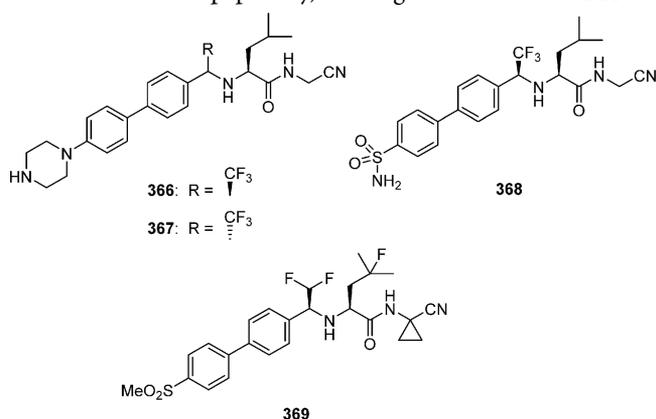


Figure 26. Incorporation of the CF₃CH₂NH motif in a polypeptide backbone in register (B) or in a partially retro-inverted configuration (C) that mimics the amide of a conventional polypeptide (A).

lowest pK_a within this series, is 30-fold weaker than **362**. These results focused attention on the trifluoroethylamine series which was elaborated into the exquisitely potent inhibitor **366**, $IC_{50} = 5$ pM, a compound that identified the preferred absolute configuration at the trifluoroethylamine asymmetric center because the epimer **367** is almost 1000-fold less potent, $IC_{50} = 4.6$ nM.¹⁶¹ However, the basicity associated with the piperazine moiety of **366** led to its accumulation in acidic lysosomes, rising to concentrations where it was able to inhibit cathepsins B, L, and S despite lower intrinsic inhibitory activity toward these proteases, IC_{50} values of 111, 47, and 451 nM, respectively. Consequently, the next phase of iterative compound design focused on structural modifications that avoided overt basicity, accomplished initially with the discovery of **368**, cathepsin K $IC_{50} = 0.2$ nM, that was cocrystallized with the enzyme.¹⁶¹ The X-ray data confirmed effective amide emulation, with the trifluoroethylamine N–H engaging the carbonyl oxygen atom of Gly₆₆, while the CF₃ moiety projected into bulk solvent. The structural data also confirmed mechanism-based inhibition, with the nitrile moiety of **368** engaging the catalytic cysteine as a covalent iminothioether (Pinner-type) adduct. Further optimization of **368** focused on modulating the PK profile, with the sulfonamide replaced by a methylsulfone and a fluorine introduced to the isoleucine methine carbon atom to block a site of metabolic hydroxylation. A cyclopropyl moiety at P₁ was installed to reduce susceptibility of the amide toward hydrolysis resulting in **361**, a potent cathepsin K inhibitor, $IC_{50} = 0.2$ nM, that exhibited good selectivity for this enzyme over cathepsins B ($IC_{50} = 1034$ nM), L ($IC_{50} = 2295$ nM) and S ($IC_{50} = 60$ nM).^{161c} Although **361** completed advanced clinical trials as a potential treatment for osteoporosis and bone metastasis, increasing bone mineral density and reducing the risk of fractures in patients, the compound was abandoned by its sponsor prior to the filing of an NDA due to the observation of an increased risk for cardiovascular events associated with drug therapy.^{161d}

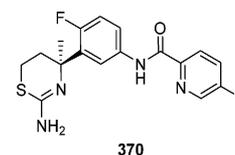


The high crystallinity associated with **361** resulted in low aqueous solubility, a property that contributed to the low ($\leq 10\%$) oral bioavailability observed after administration of the drug as a suspension to preclinical species.¹⁶² In an effort to address the dissolution-limited bioavailability, the difluoroethylamine analogue **369** was prepared with the anticipation that the enhanced basicity (pK_a increased by ~ 1 unit) would facilitate salt formation with sulfonic acids and HCl and lead to reduced lipophilicity, with Log *D* decreased from 3.53 for

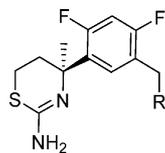


361 to 0.11 for **369**. Compound **369** retained the potent cathepsin K inhibitory activity ($IC_{50} = 1$ nM) and protease selectivity associated with **361**, while the modified physicochemical properties led to improved oral bioavailability in rats when the compound was administered as a 1% methocel suspension.¹⁶²

A trifluoroethylamine moiety was examined as an amide bioisostere in the design of inhibitors of BACE-1, where a replacement for the anilide in **370** was sought to alleviate concerns about release of the aniline in vivo and its potential to express toxicity after metabolic activation.¹⁶⁴ The drug design process specifically focused on preserving the N–H of the anilide moiety of **370** because this was involved in a critical H-bonding interaction with the C=O oxygen of Gly₂₃₀ of the enzyme based on an X-ray cocrystal structure of a related analogue. It was recognized that the conformational constraint imposed by the planar anilide might be optimized for interaction with Gly₂₃₀ by a benzylamine moiety because it was anticipated to adopt an orthogonal arrangement with respect to the plane of the fluorophenyl ring. Initial derivatization took advantage of a reductive amination protocol to prepare libraries which identified the ethylamine **371** as a modest inhibitor of BACE-1 in a cell-free biochemical assay, $IC_{50} = 13.9$ μ M. However, **371** was considerably more potent in the cell-based screen, which was attributed to concentration of the basic drug in the acidic endosomal compartment where BACE-1 is located. Consequently, further modification focused on modulation of amine basicity, which was accomplished by fluorination (**372–377**), as summarized in Table 31. The CF₃-cyclopropane moiety in **377** provided the optimal balance of properties, although further structural manipulation of this chemotype was required in order to surmount a problem associated with problematic CYP 2D6 inhibition. The conformational changes anticipated in the design phase were observed in an X-ray cocrystal structure of **377** with the BACE-1 enzyme, although the compound bound slightly differently in the active site compared to **370** in order to accommodate the altered drug–target vectors. The CF₃ substituent projected into the vestibule of the S₃ pocket, while the cyclopropyl ring filled a lipophilic pocket at the rear of the interface of the S₁ and S₃ pockets. This application provides an illustrative example of the advantage of the CF₃CH₂NH as an amide bioisostere where relief of steric constraint is beneficial.¹⁶³



RCF₂CH₂NHR' as a Bioisostere of **RSO₂NHR'**. While a bioisosteric relationship between the sulfonamide and RCF₂CH₂NH moieties has not been explicitly recognized, inhibitors of the serine protease thrombin provide an example of the potential for this kind of structural metaphor.^{139,159c} The X-ray cocrystal structures of thrombin and factor VIIa inhibitors (Figure 21) indicate that the anilide N–Hs of **378** and its analogues **379–382** engage with the backbone C=O oxygen atom of Gly₂₁₆ in a H-bonding interaction; however, **378** is a modestly potent inhibitor of thrombin with a K_i value of 1.28 μ M (Table 32). The difluoroethylamine **379** is 27-fold more potent, while the pyridine analogue **380** adds a further 6-fold potency increase. In this example, fluorination is of importance because the dimethyl and cyclopropyl derivatives **381** and **382**, respectively, are several fold less potent.^{139a} Interestingly, the fluorine atoms were originally introduced as a means of abrogating metabolic modification at the benzylic site rather than for the purpose of structural emulation.^{139d}

Table 31. SARs Associated with the BACE-1 Inhibitors 371–377^a

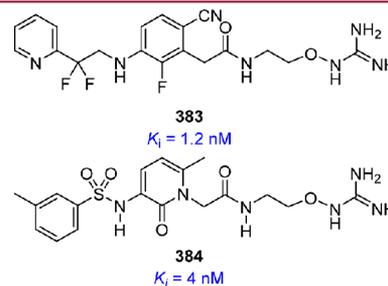
	R	BACE-1 CFA IC ₅₀ (μM)	BACE-1 WCA* IC ₅₀ (μM)	MDR Er	Log D	pKa	HLM Cl (mL/min/kg)
371	CH ₃ CH ₂ NH	13.9	0.008	2.0	<-1.5		<8
372	CF ₃ CH ₂ NH	1.31	0.060	1.2	1.0	3.8	12.0
373	CHF ₂ CH ₂ NH	5.89	0.058	3.1	0.3	5.2	13.0
374	CF ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ NH	54.7	0.400	6.1	0.5	6.0	9.3
375		0.49	0.031	3.6	1.5	4.2	<8.0
376		0.335	0.012	2.5	0.7	4.2	22.2
377		0.069	0.018	1.5	1.8	2.9	<13

^a*WCA = whole cell assay.

Table 32. Structure–Activity Relationships for the Thrombin Inhibitors 378–382

	R	K _i (nM)
378		1,280
379		47.1
380		8.6
381		58.0
382		57.0

Comparison of the thrombin inhibitory effects expressed by 383 and 384 illustrates a broad-based application of bioisosterism in drug design.^{138,139} In these molecules, the oxyguanidine provides a mimetic of the guanidine found in natural substrates but with reduced basicity to facilitate oral delivery, the fluoro-benzene ring of 383 can be viewed as a bioisostere of the cyclic amide of 384 while the difluoroethylamine of 383 functions analogously to the sulfonamide of 384.



Fluorinated Amines and Mimesis of Imide-like Motifs.

The *N*-(2,2,2-trifluoroethyl)methanesulfonamide moiety has found application in the optimization of HCV NS4B and acyl-CoA:monoacylglycerol acyltransferase (MGAT) inhibitors.^{164,165} Symmetrical monofluorination of each of the CH₃ groups of 385 enhanced potency 3-fold (386), but *N*-dealkylative metabolism gave difluoroacetone, a compound associated with significant toxicity, while glutathione adducts resulted from oxidative metabolism of the indole heterocycle (Table 33).^{164a,b} Pefluorination of a single CH₃ moiety of 385 gave a pair of enantiomers, of which the (*S*)-isomer 387 was 30-fold more potent than the (*R*)-isomer 388, while the homologues 389 and 390 were less potent. Further optimization gave 391 as a compound that was advanced into clinical trials.^{164c}

The MGAT inhibitor 392 was claimed to express an IC₅₀ value of <12 nM in a biochemical assay and inhibit MGAT expressed in a Caco-2 cell line with an EC₅₀ value of 58 nM, biological effects that translated to a 69% reduction in triacylglycerol absorption in male beagle dogs after an oral dose of 30 mg/kg.¹⁶⁵

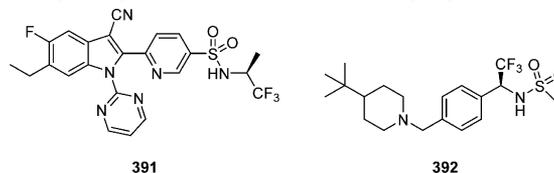
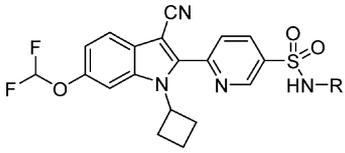


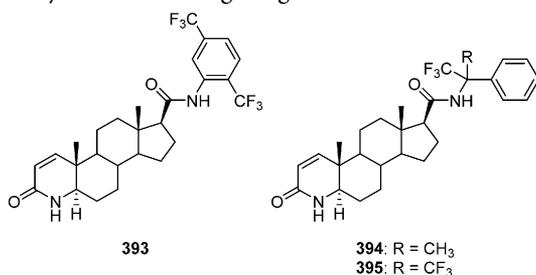
Table 33. Structure–activity Relationships Associated with HCV NS4B Inhibitors



	R	GT-1b HCV replicon EC ₅₀ (nM)
385	-CH ₂ CH(CH ₃)	12
386		4
387		2
388		67
389		55
390	-CH ₂ CF ₃	420

There are several higher homologues of the CF₃CH₂NH moiety that appear to offer opportunity for evaluation as potentially interesting structural metaphors. However, while these have not been the subject of systematic analysis in the context of bioisosteric relationships or the delineation of key physicochemical properties, there are examples of applications scattered throughout the literature in molecules that, in some cases, have been studied in some detail in a preclinical setting. In this section, I highlight representative examples that demonstrate applications in drug design, and which, if applied in an informed fashion in the appropriate context, may offer interesting benefits.

Inhibition of steroid 5 α -reductase enzymatic activity has been shown to be sensitive to amide substitution patterns in a series of azasteroid-based inhibitors, particularly with respect to influencing activity toward the type I enzyme that is only modestly inhibited by 18.¹⁶⁶ The introduction of the phenyl ring in dutasteride (393) is associated with potent type I 5 α -reductase inhibition that affords a more balanced 5 α -reductase inhibitor than 18 (Table 34). The benzylamine derivative 394 exhibits enhanced potency toward the type I enzyme compared to 18, which is further enhanced by replacement of the CH₃ with a second CF₃ moiety, as depicted by 395.¹⁶⁷ This modification removes the chirality associated with 394 and would be expected to enhance the H-bond donating capacity of the amide N–H, although in this example the N–H does not appear to be specifically involved in drug–target interactions.¹⁶⁸



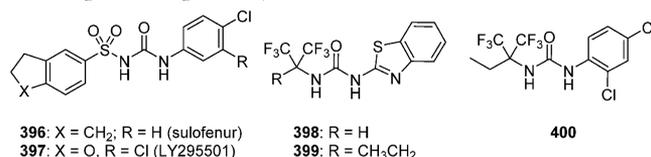
N-CH(CF₃)₂ as a Sulfone Bioisostere. Diarylsulfonylureas, of which sulofenur (396) is the representative prototype, were

Table 34. Inhibition of Steroid 5 α -Reductase Enzyme Activity by Aza Steroid Derivatives 18 and 393–395

	steroid 5 α -reductase enzyme inhibition IC ₅₀ (nM)			
	rat prostate	human prostate	human type I	human type II
18	30/32	52/58	470/313 ^a	8.5/11.3 ^a
393			4 ^b	<0.1 ^b
394	15	16	36	3.3
395	34	20	3.9	1.8

^aData taken from 2 independent assays abstracted from different articles.^{166,167} ^bUnder the assay conditions used to generate this data, finasteride inhibited the type I and type II enzymes with IC₅₀ values of 150 and 0.18 nM, respectively.¹⁶⁶

discovered as cytotoxic antitumor agents using an in vivo screen conducted in mice implanted subcutaneously with solid tumors, a screening approach developed as an alternative to the more traditional approach of in vitro evaluation using hematopoietic tumor-derived cell lines.¹⁶⁹ Clinical toxicity associated with the metabolic release of 4-chloraniline from 396 led to its replacement by LY295501 (397).^{170,171} The mode of antitumor action of the sulfonyl ureas is enigmatic but has been attributed, in part, to mitochondrial uncoupling.^{170,172} The discovery of 396 stimulated considerable interest in this class of antitumor agent, and one interesting class of cytotoxic agent is provided by 398–400.¹⁷³ The mode of action of 398–400 is equally enigmatic, but one interpretation is that they may be related to the sulfonylureas in a fashion that relies upon a bioisosteric relationship between the (CF₃)₂CH and SO₂ moieties. Unfortunately, MMPs are not available that would allow a more precise comparison. However, that the electron withdrawing effects of the two CF₃ substituents influence the proximal urea moiety was indicated by the presence of the isourea tautomer that was observed in polar solvent by ¹H NMR spectroscopic analysis.^{173a}



Fluorinated Motifs and Urea Bioisosterism. A careful and detailed theoretical analysis of the isosteric relationship between the urea 401 and fluoro enamide 402 has been conducted that recognizes the close topological similarities depicted in Figure 28.¹⁷⁴ However, while the bond angles and lengths

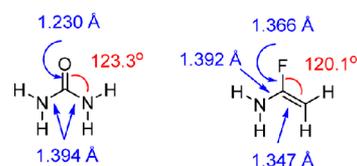
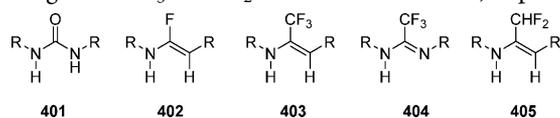


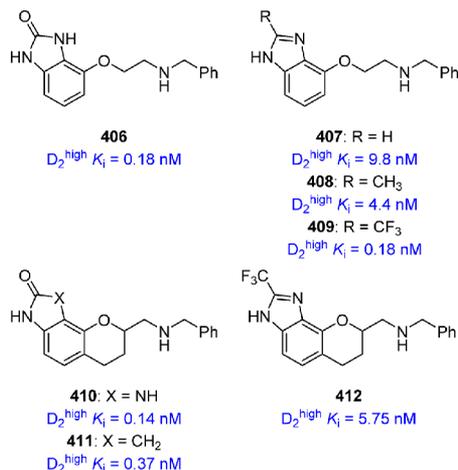
Figure 28. Bond angles and lengths that illustrate topological mimesis between a urea and a fluoroenamide.

show a close and compelling analogy, only *N*-alkyl, *N*-tosyl derivatives were prepared as part of the survey, and although these were shown to be chemically stable under neutral, basic, and acidic conditions, the synthesis of compounds with a free N–H was not described. In addition, there was no discussion of the pK_a value of the N–H in 402 and its homologues. Nevertheless, this motif represents an interesting element for use in drug design, particularly for analogues of ureas that do not possess a free N–H and would thus be more amide-like. However, this moiety has not

been adequately explored despite its potential to also be considered as an amide bioisostere, with functional mimicry potentially extending to the CF_3 and CF_2H derivatives **403**–**405**, respectively.



In a series of dopamine D_2 partial agonists explored for their potential to treat schizophrenia, the N–H of benzimidazolone of **406** that is distal to the oxyethylamine side chain functioned as a phenol bioisostere.¹⁷⁵ The cyclic urea motif of **406** was effectively mimicked by the 2-trifluoromethyl-substituted benzimidazole **409**, which was 24-fold more potent than the methyl homologue **408** and 54-fold more potent than **407**, the parent molecule of this series, presumably a reflection on the H-bond donating properties.^{175c} Further optimization focused on fused pyran derivatives designed to confer conformational restraint, with both **410** and **411** potent ligands for the high affinity dopamine D_2 receptor.^{175a,d} However, in this chemotype, the 2-trifluoromethyl-substituted benzimidazole was a less effective mimic of the urea of **410** and amide of **411**, with 15–40-fold lower affinity, for which speculation focused on an effect of ring fusion on the preferred tautomeric state of **412**.^{175d}



Fluoroamides and Urea Bioisosterism. α -Fluoromethyl and α,α -difluoromethyl secondary amides preferentially adopt a conformation in which the C–F and C=O bonds are aligned in a *trans*-relationship that is favored by both dipole interactions and reinforced by an electrostatic interaction between the fluorine atom and the amide N–H (Figure 29).^{176–178} Indeed,

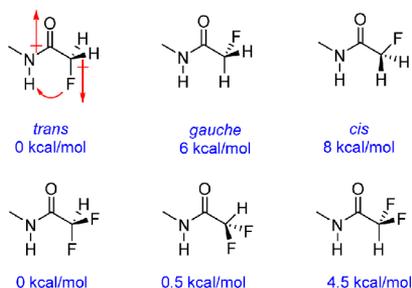


Figure 29. Calculated conformational preferences for α -fluoromethyl and α,α -difluoromethyl secondary amides.

this phenomenon has been exploited to illuminate the topography of the vanilloid receptor (TRPV1) agonist activity of capsaicin (**413**) by synthesizing and evaluating the α -fluorinated

enantiomers **414** and **415**.¹⁷⁹ The similar performance of **414** and **415** as agonists at the TRPV1 receptor led to the conclusion that the bound form was the extended conformation depicted in Figure 30A that is accessible to both enantiomers rather than the alternative topography presented in Figure 30B.¹⁷⁹

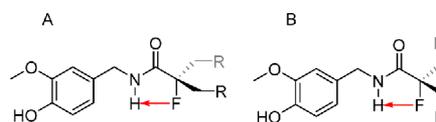
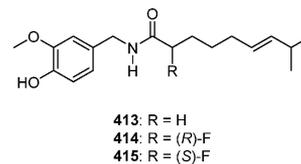


Figure 30. Conformational preferences of the α -fluorinated enantiomers of **413** designed to illuminate the bound conformation.



However, there are circumstances where this inherent preference can be overridden in favor of the *gauche* conformation, which for a simple α -fluoromethyl amide has been calculated to be ~ 6 kcal/mol higher in energy than the *trans* conformer, while for the α,α -difluoromethyl homologue the energy of the conformation that places the C–H and N–H in a *syn* relationship is ~ 4.5 kcal/mol higher (Figure 31).¹⁸⁰ Under these circumstances, α -fluoromethylamides and, particularly, α,α -difluoromethylamides, offer an opportunity to function as urea mimetics, as illustrated by the solid state structure of **416** which crystallizes in the conformation shown, stabilized by close contacts between both the N–H and C–H hydrogen atoms and the pendent carbamate oxygen atom. The bistrifluoromethylamide **417** and monotrifluoromethylamide **418** behave in a similar fashion, with the C–H to oxygen H-bond in **418** shorter than that in **417**, reflecting the poorer H-bond donor effects of this motif, anticipated based on the differences in electron withdrawing effects and polarizability.^{180a} These molecules adopt conformations comparable to that observed with the thiourea **419**, and fluorinated acetanilides have been exploited with some success as organocatalysts based on the anticipation that they would recapitulate the effects of ureas and urea mimics.^{180,181} However, the α -fluoro derivatives are more active catalysts than the α,α -difluoro analogues, perhaps surprising based on the calculated H-bond strengths which have been estimated to be ~ 3.0 kcal/mol for the α -fluoro derivatives and ~ 4.0 kcal/mol for the bis- CF_3 amides, with the latter more capable of overcoming the natural bias toward a conformation in which the F and amide and C=O are in a *trans*-periplanar arrangement.¹⁸¹

These motifs have found only very limited application in drug design presumably a function, in part, of concern for the release of difluoroacetic acid and fluoroacetic acid *in vivo*. However, an interesting example where the fluorination pattern of an amide moiety exerted an effect on ligand–protein interactions is provided by the disaccharide derivatives **420**–**423** which bind to the lectin wheat germ agglutinin (WGA), although in this example urea isosterism is not a basis.¹⁸² The mono- and difluoroacetamides **421** and **422**, respectively, bind more tightly to WGA based on NMR analyses than the acetamide **420** and, particularly, the trifluoroacetamide **423**. These data were interpreted in the context of a productive C–H to π interaction between a C–H of the acetamide moiety and the phenol ring of a tyrosine residue of WGA. The electron withdrawing effects of fluorine substitution

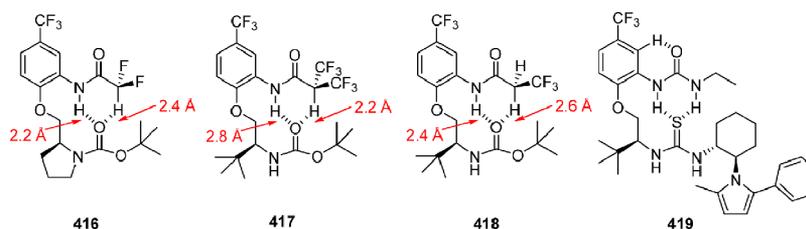
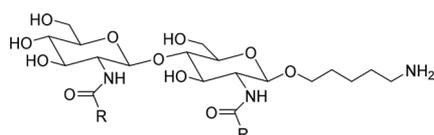


Figure 31. Topologies and bond lengths associated with α -fluoro-substituted amides 416–418 and urea 419 in the solid state.

in 421 and particularly 422 polarize the C–H bond, thereby enhancing this interaction. The importance of the effect is underscored by 423, which cannot engage in this kind of interaction and exhibits an order of magnitude lower affinity for WGA than 422.¹⁸²



420: R = CH ₃ $K_D = 190 \mu\text{M}$	421: R = CH ₂ F $K_D = 150 \mu\text{M}$
422: R = CHF ₂ $K_D = 50 \mu\text{M}$	423: R = CF ₃ $K_D = 650 \mu\text{M}$

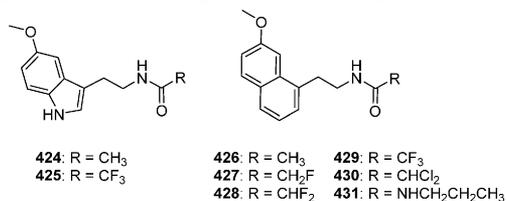
Halogenated amide analogues of melatonin (424) and agomelatine (426) have revealed interesting structure–activity relationships that indicate the importance of the fluorination pattern on binding affinity (Table 35).¹⁸³ The CF₃ amide 429 derived

Table 35. Structure–Activity Relationships Associated with Melatonin Agonists

	MT ₁ (pK _i)	MT ₂ (pK _i)
424	9.34	9.02
425	9.7 ^a	
426	~10	~10
427	8.21	9.40
428	10.27	9.07
429	8.24	8.75
430	8.30	8.75
431	14.3	7.62

^aData from an assay assessing binding to cell membranes using ligands that do not distinguish the receptor subtypes.^{183a}

from 426 shows reduced affinity but similar receptor selectivity, while the CH₂F homologue 427 exhibits 10-fold selectivity for the MT₂ receptor subtype. In contrast, the CHF₂ amide is 10-fold selective for MT₁ receptor and retains the potency of 426, a profile analogous to that of the urea 431, while the balanced profile and reduced potency of the CHCl₂ amide 430 illustrates the importance of selecting the correct halogen.¹⁸³



■ C–F AS A CARBINOL (C–OH) MIMIC

C–F as a C–OH Bioisostere in Nucleoside Analogues. Replacing the hydroxyl substituents and hydrogen atoms of the ribose ring of nucleosides with fluorine has been extensively

explored, with gemcitabine (432), the HBV inhibitor clevudine (433), and the HCV inhibitor sofosbuvir (434), a phosphoramidate prodrug, the most prominent clinically approved fluorinated nucleoside derivatives.^{184–187} The introduction of fluorine atoms to the ribose ring has a complex influence on the shape of a nucleoside analogue, with antiperiplanar effects, dipole–dipole, anomeric, and gauche interactions contributing to the overall conformational bias, while interactions between fluorine atoms and a pendent C–H of the ribose or the base can also play a role. Consequently, the outcome is dependent upon the specific topological arrangement of functionality and their stereochemical relationships, with complexity heightened by the potentially selective effect on recognition by kinases and viral polymerases. For example, a 2′- α -fluoro substituent in a 3′-deoxy ribose favors a north conformation of the ribose ring while 2′- β -fluoro substitution prefers the south conformation but less strongly, although this preference can be reinforced by a 3′- α -fluoro substituent (Figure 32). Because HIV-1 reverse transcriptase is believed to

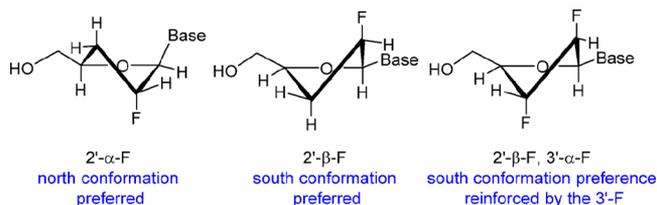
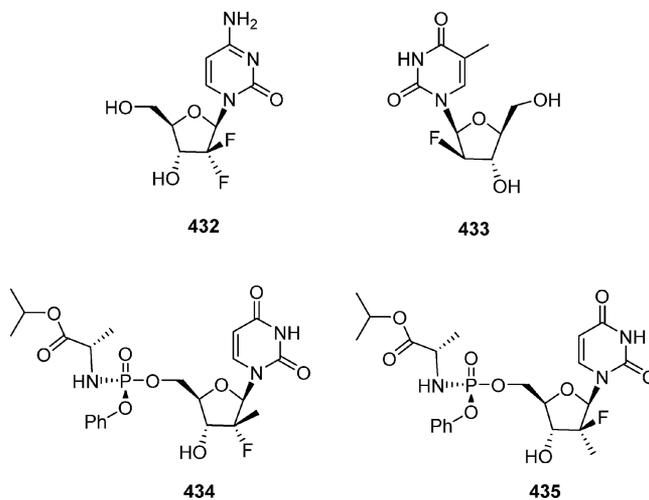


Figure 32. Preferred conformation of a 2′- α -fluoro-substituted ribose compared with a 2′- β -fluoro substituted isomer and a 2′- β , 2′- α -difluoro-substituted ribose ring.

recognize nucleotides adopting the south conformation, 2′- α -fluoro substitution leads to inactive antiretroviral agents.¹⁸⁸ This contrasts with the effect of 2′- β -fluoro-substitution on ribose topography, which has been shown to preferentially adopt the south conformation.¹⁸⁹



The importance of the correct fluorination patterning is most effectively illustrated by the poor HCV inhibitory activity associated with **435**, the 2'- β -fluoro analogue of **434**.¹⁹⁰ The 2'-fluorine atom of **434** mimics the effects of the 2'-hydroxyl of **436**, while **435** mimics that of **437**. While conformational preferences may contribute to these observations, specific interactions with the HCV NSSB polymerase also play a role because it is sensitive to the identity of the 2'- α - and 2'- β -substituents, critical ribose recognition elements for Ser₂₈₂ of the enzyme.^{187b} While the fluoride of **434** lacks the H-bond donating properties of the hydroxyl of **436** (Figure 33A) and binding leads to a

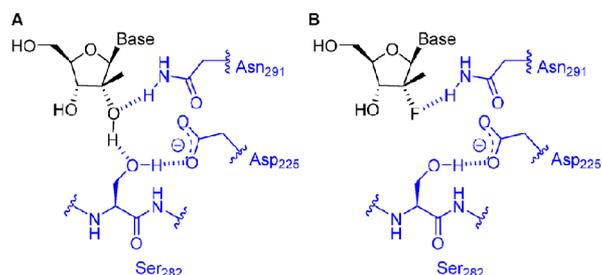
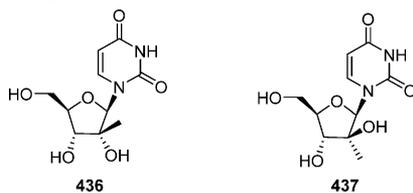


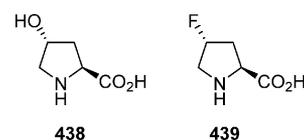
Figure 33. Key H-bonding interactions between a 2'-methyl ribose moiety (**436**) and the 2'-fluoro-2'-methyl homologue that is the ribose hallmark of **434**.

disturbance in the interaction network associated with the 2'-hydroxyl, it appears to be capable of interacting with a side chain N–H of Asn₂₉₁ (Figure 33B), and although the K_m is higher, this nucleotide is able to align correctly for incorporation into the growing RNA chain.^{187b}



However, there are limits to the bioisosteric relationship between a 2'-fluoro and a 2'-hydroxyl substituent in the context of RNA. While the use of fluorinated RNA is common in siRNA and aptamers as a means of stabilizing the RNA, incorporation into RNA:DNA hybrids has been found to be poorly efficacious toward activating mammalian RNaseH.¹⁹¹

Collagen is the most abundant protein in animals, amounting to ~30% of the total protein content of humans and ~75% of the weight of human skin. The polypeptide chains of collagen are comprised of approximately 300 repeats of the triplet sequence XYG in which X is often an L-Pro residue while Y is frequently a 4-(*R*)-hydroxy-L-proline (**438**, Hyp) residue.¹⁹² These sequences contribute to both the structure and stability of collagen chains, which adopt tightly wound triple helices that are organized into fibrils conferred with considerable tensile strength. The hydroxyl moiety of Hyp is known to contribute to the properties and stability of collagen but its precise function has been esoteric in nature, initially attributed to either its H-bonding properties or an effect on stabilizing *trans*-peptide bonds along the backbone. However, studies with 4-fluoroproline (**439**) as a bioisosteric substitute for the Hyp residue **438** indicate that the predominant effect of 4-substitution is to influence the conformation of the pyrrolidine ring of proline, with both the 4-(*R*)-hydroxy and 4-(*R*)-fluoro substituents favoring a C^{γ} -*exo* conformer as depicted in Figures SB.¹⁹²



The antibiotic pristinamycin II_B (**440**), which incorporates D-proline and inhibits protein synthesis by acting on bacterial ribosomes, suffers from dehydration at acidic and basic pH to give a conjugated trienone, which is inactive as an antibacterial agent.¹⁹³ To identify structural modifications that would address this problem, reduction of the ketone to an alcohol was explored, with the result that both inhibition in a cell-free translational assay and antibacterial activity were preserved with the (*R*)-isomer **441** (Table 36). In contrast, the (*S*)-alcohol **442** was 120-fold

Table 36. SARs Associated with **440** and Its Analogues

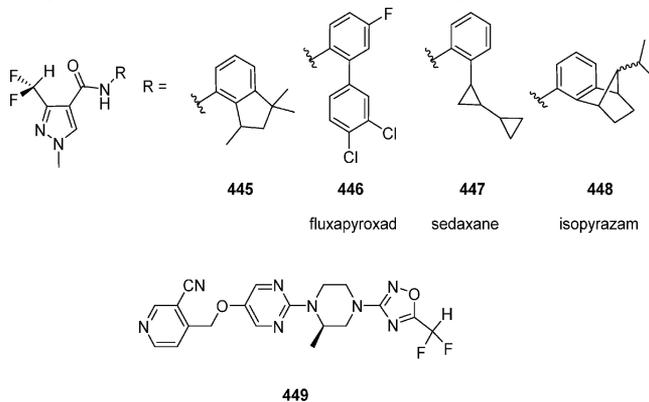
	R	poly(U) IC ₅₀ (μM)	MIC (IP8203) (μg/mL)
440	C=O	0.1	4
441	(<i>R</i>)-CHOH	0.05	1
442	(<i>S</i>)-CHOH	6	32
443	(<i>R</i>)-CHF	0.06	0.25
444	(<i>S</i>)-CHF	0.5	8

less potent in the cell free translation assay and 8-fold less potent as an antibacterial agent. These structure–activity observations were recapitulated with the (*R*)- and (*S*)-fluorides **443** and **444**, respectively, with the former exhibiting potency similar to **441**, while **444** was 10-fold more potent than **442** in the protein translation assay and 4-fold improved in the antibacterial assay.¹⁹³

Fluorinated Motifs and Alcohol/Thiol Bioisosterism.

Fluorine has played a role in the design of bioisosteres of alcohols and thiols where the CHF₂ moiety has been exploited as a H-bond donor while replacing a C–OH with a C–F relies upon the ramifications of dipole mimicry.

The intramolecular interaction between the CHF₂ moiety of the pyrazole-based fungicide **445** and the adjacent C=O has been characterized as H-bonding in nature based on IR and ¹H NMR data.¹⁹⁴ The energy of the intramolecular interaction in **445** has been estimated to be ~1.0 kcal/mol based on a distance of 2.4 Å, which calibrates the CHF₂ moiety as a relatively weak H-bond donor compared to more traditional functionalities which are typically associated with energies of 2–15 kcal/mol. Nevertheless, this interaction appears to be important to the fungicidal activity of **445**, which is a consequence of inhibiting



fungal succinate dehydrogenase because the CF₃ homologue, which is absent the H-bond donor, exhibits weaker biological effects.^{194,195} The 3-(difluoromethyl)-1-methyl-1*H*-pyrazole-4-carboxamide moiety is a common structural element in a range of fungicides, including fluxapyroxad (**446**), sedexane (**447**), and isopyrazam (**448**).¹⁹⁵ More recently, intermolecular H-bonds have been observed between the CHF₂ moiety and the nitrile of an adjacent molecule in the single-crystal X-ray structure of the oxadiazole derivative **449**, with the key bond angle and length captured in Figure 34.¹⁹⁶



Figure 34. Intermolecular H-bond observed in the single-crystal X-ray structure of oxadiazole **449**.

Perhaps the most compelling application of the CHF₂ moiety as a H-bond donor is provided by **452**, an inhibitor of HCV NS3 protease in which the difluoro-Abu was designed as a mimic of the cysteine residue found at the P₁ site of natural substrates, with the structural similarity illustrated in simplistic fashion in Figure 35.^{197a} The design of this compound was inspired by the

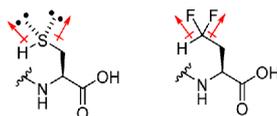
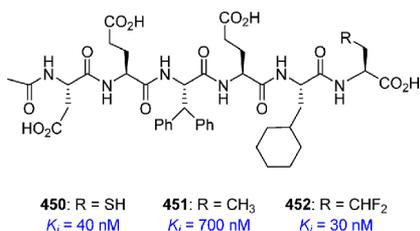
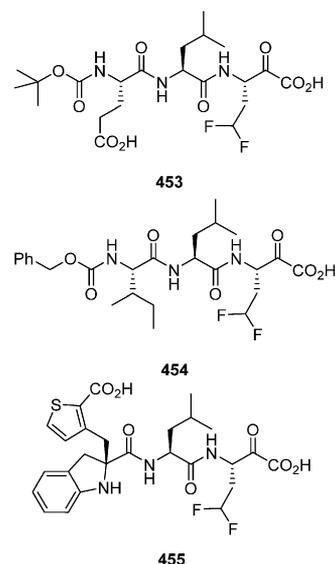


Figure 35. Illustration of the functional mimicry between RSH and RCF₂H in P₁ residues incorporated into **450** and **452**.

earlier observations with the pyrazole **445**, and **452** was found to be equipotent with the Cys analogue **450**, indicative of good functional emulation. Satisfactory bioisosterism was further emphasized by the 20-fold reduced potency observed with the Ala analogue **451**, reflecting the importance of the presence of the H-bond donor in **452**.



The presence of an intermolecular interaction between the CHF₂ moiety and the HCV NS3 protein was confirmed with X-ray cocrystal structures of the smaller inhibitors **453** and **454**, both of which formed a mimic of the tetrahedral reaction intermediate by the addition of the catalytic Ser₁₃₉ hydroxyl to the activated carbonyl moiety that is a hallmark of these compounds.^{197b} The X-ray structures indicated that the hydrogen atom of the CF₂H element donated a H-bond to the backbone C=O of Lys₁₃₆, while one fluorine atom was close to the C-4 hydrogen atom of the phenyl ring of Phe₁₅₄, suggestive of a weak C–H to fluorine H-bonding interaction. The H-bond lengths measured for the CF₂H moiety were ~2.57 and ~2.9 Å, at the upper end of the preferred distance but consistent with the 2.9 Å suggested for C–H to oxygen interactions with aromatic ring donors.^{139c,197b}

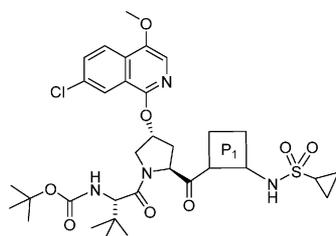


However, in the X-ray cocrystal structure of the related α -keto acid **455** bound to HCV NS3, the carbon atom of the CHF₂ was found to be 6.28 Å away from the backbone C=O of Lys₁₃₆ and 4.08 Å away from the backbone C=O oxygen atom of Leu₁₃₅.^{197c} The 4.08 Å distance represents a C–H to OH-bond that is probably above the preferred limit, so while not ideal, it was nevertheless considered to play a role in drug–target interactions.^{139,198} These observations reflect significant differences between this complex and those obtained with **453** and **454** because with **455**, the serine hydroxyl approached the activated C=O from the opposite face to that typically observed with serine proteases. This arrangement resulted in the carboxylate moiety rather than the hemiketal oxygen atom occupying the oxyanion hole. The difluoromethyl side chain fitted snugly into the S₁ pocket with one of the fluorine atoms proximal (3.34 Å) to the C-4 hydrogen atom of the thiophene ring, viewed as a form of hydrophobic collapse that may preorient the molecule for presentation to the protease in its extended conformation.

The direct translation of this Cys mimic to the P₁ element of tripeptide-based inhibitors derived from asunaprevir (**456**) was unsuccessful, with the naturally configured **457** found to be 900-fold less potent in the GT-1a enzyme assay than **456**, while the unnatural isomer **458** was a further 2-fold weaker and demonstrated poor inhibition in the GT-1b replicon (Table 37).¹⁹⁹ This SAR point was mirrored by the des-fluoro derivatives **459** and **460**, which were poor enzyme inhibitors, observations that demonstrated the importance of the cyclopropane moiety at P₁ of **456**. However, replacing the vinyl substituent of **456** with a CHF₂ afforded the potent inhibitor **461**, with activity dependent on configuration because **462** was an order of magnitude weaker in the enzyme assay. The unique attributes of the CHF₂ substituent in this setting were underscored by the 10-fold loss in potency observed with the des-fluoro derivative **463** and the fully fluorinated homologue **464**, while projecting the CHF₂ moiety further from the core, as in **465**, also led to reduced potency. In this analogue, the presence of the fluorine atoms incurred a small but negative impact compared to the simple ethyl derivative **466**. An X-ray cocrystal structure of **451** with HCV NS3 protease revealed a close approximation of the hydrogen atom of the CF₂H moiety to the backbone carbonyl of Leu₁₅₅ at a distance that was consistent with a H-bonding interaction.¹⁹⁹

The importance of the CHF₂-substituted cyclopropyl moiety identified with **461** in HCV NS3 protease inhibitor design is reflected in the incorporation of this structural element in the

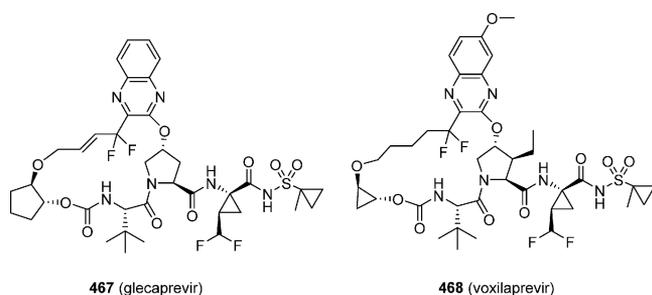
Table 37. SARs Associated with the HCV NS3 Protease Inhibitors 456–466



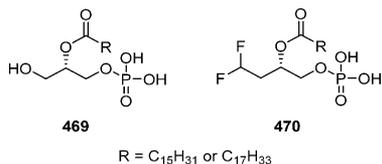
	P ₁	GT-1a enzyme inhibition IC ₅₀ (nM)	GT-1b replicon inhibition EC ₅₀ (nM)
456		1	6
457		976	509
458		2,479	>1,000
459		3,079	>1,000
460		7,970	>1,000
461		1	7.6
462		12	58.9
463		13	64
464		17	125
465		14	31
466		5	16

potent inhibitors glecaprevir (**467**) and voxilaprevir (**468**), both of which express pan-genotypic activity and each of which has

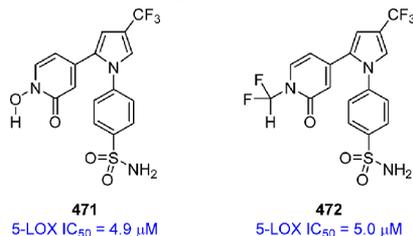
been approved for marketing by the FDA as part of a drug combination regimen.^{200,201}



Lysophosphatidic acid (LPA) **469** interacts with four GPCR receptors designated as LPA₁₋₄ and also acts as an agonist for the nuclear hormone receptor peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ (PPAR γ). However, the propensity of LPA to rearrange by acyl migration inspired the design of the difluorinated LPA analogue **470** in which the terminal primary alcohol has been replaced by a difluoromethyl moiety.²⁰² While **470** failed to interact with LPA₁₋₃ receptors, this compound stimulated the PPAR γ receptor as detected by luciferase expression in CV-1 cells transfected with the enzyme under control of a PPAR γ -responsive element, demonstrating the contextual nature of bioisosterism and the limits of functional mimicry.



The bioisosteric relationship between the CHCF₂ and OH moieties has been extended to hydroxamic acids where incorporation of an N-CHCF₂ element functioned as an effective mimic in the context of the 5-lipoxygenase inhibitors **471** and **472**.²⁰³



■ CF₂ AS A BIOISOSTERE OF AN OXYGEN ATOM

CF₂ and Phosphate/Pyrophosphate Mimicry. The CF₂ moiety has been explored extensively as a mimic of an oxygen atom in a variety of structural backgrounds in which the C-F bond is considered to be a mimic of the one of the lone pairs of electrons of oxygen. A seminal example is provided by studies of phosphate chemistry where a phosphonate is frequently employed as a bioisostere. However, this substitution leads to lower acidity compared to a phosphate, which can result in poor functional emulsion (Tables 38 and 39). The data compiled in Table 37 illustrates the significant differences between the acid dissociation constants for pyrophosphate (**473**) and the CH₂ analogue **474**.^{204,205} While the CCl₂ homologue **475** reduces the pK_a values compared to **474**, fluorination offers a superior effect, with the CF₂ derivative **476** the optimal mimic with respect to reproducing the acidity of **473**. Indeed, the electron withdrawing properties of fluorine are such that, in this context, monofluoro substitution (**474**) is as effective at modulating the acidity as two chlorine atoms.

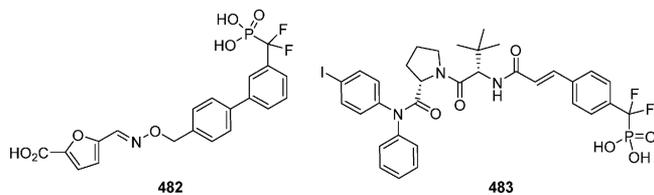
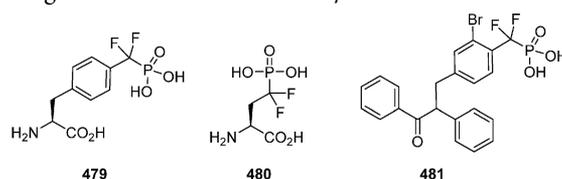
The recognition that the physical properties, bond angles, and bond lengths of difluoromethylenephosphonate render it an

Table 38. pK_a Data for Pyrophosphate (**473**) and Its Carbon Analogues **474**–**478**

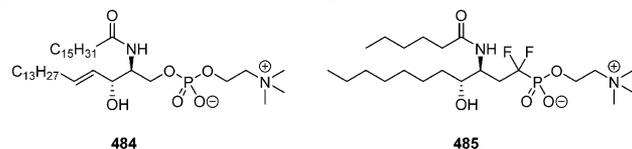
	473	474	475	476	477	478
X	O	CH ₂	CCl ₂	CF ₂	CHF	C(OH) ₂
pK _{a2}	2.36	2.87		<2.6	<2.7	
pK _{a3}	5.77	7.45	6.11	5.80	6.15	5.81
pK _{a4}	8.22	10.96	9.78	8.00	9.35	8.42

effective mimic of phosphate has led to its widespread adoption in the design of inhibitors of phosphatases that are of physiological relevance (Figure 36).^{206–208} The synthesis of **479** as a building block for the construction of nonhydrolyzable tyrosine phosphate mimics for use in the design of phosphatase inhibitors was followed by the development of **480** as a mimic of phosphorylated serine, motifs that have been extended to sphingomyelin and other naturally occurring phosphate elements.^{209–211}

The difluoromethylenephosphonate **481** inhibited PTP1B with an IC₅₀ value of 120 nM, was active in a cell-based assay with an EC₅₀ = 1.2 μ M, and exhibited 13% oral bioavailability in the rat, with a C_{max} of 35 μ M, plasma exposure that reduced glucose levels in rat and mouse models after single oral doses of 30 and 10 mg/kg, respectively.²¹² The furan carboxylate of **482** was introduced to engage a H₂O molecule observed in the active site of *Yersinia pestis* outer protein H (YopH) phosphatase, and this compound was a potent inhibitor, IC₅₀ = 190 nM, that reduced intracellular *Yersinia pestis* replication by 9-fold at 10 μ M, a concentration below that where cytotoxicity was seen.²¹³ The phosphopeptidomimetic **483** targeted the Src homology 2 (SH2) domain of signal transducer and activator of transcription 6 (STAT6) and blocked phosphorylation of Tyr₆₄₁ of STAT6 in intact Beas-2B cells when introduced as its bis-pivaloyloxymethyl prodrug at concentrations of 1–10 μ M.²¹⁴



The difluoromethylenephosphonate **485** was designed as an analogue of sphingomyelin (**484**) that inhibited *Bacillus cereus* sphingomyelinase with an IC₅₀ value of 57 μ M, 2-fold more potent than the des-fluoro analogue.²¹⁵



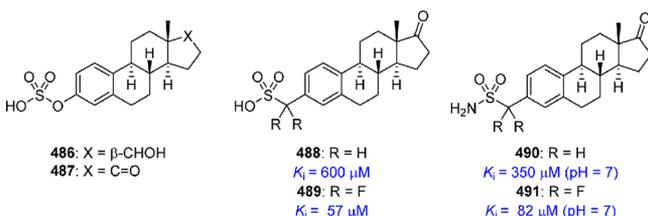
CF₂ as an Oxygen Bioisostere in Sulfonic Acids and Sulfonamides. The effects of fluorination α - to sulfonic acids and sulfonamides has been examined in the context of inhibition of steroid sulfatases, protein phosphatases, and carbonic

Table 39. pK_a Values for a Homologous Series of Phosphonic Acid Derivatives Compared to the Phosphate Phenyl Ester

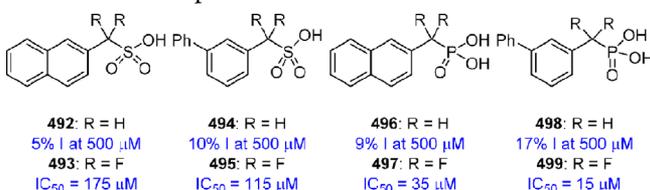
	PhOP(O)(OH) ₂	PhCH ₂ P(O)(OH) ₂	PhCH(F)P(O)(OH) ₂	PhCF ₂ P(O)(OH) ₂
pK_a	6.22	7.72	6.60	5.71
pK_a for R ₂ = H	6.4	7.6	5.4	

Figure 36. Geometric parameters for the phosphate, phosphonate, and difluoromethylenephosphonate moieties.

anhydrase.^{216–220} Steroid sulfatase (STS) catalyzes the hydrolytic desulfation of steroid-based sulfate derivatives to afford the free phenols. Estrogen sulfate (**486**) and estrone sulfate (**487**) are substrates for STS, and the former is believed to act as a reservoir for the production of estrogen in breast tumors, suggesting this enzyme as a potential therapeutic target.²¹⁷ Sulfonates have been evaluated as STS inhibitors but were poorly active, with **488** representative, $K_i = 600 \mu\text{M}$.^{216a} This was not attributed to an effect on the pK_a relative to the sulfate moiety; rather, the sulfate O atom was considered to be important for interacting with the enzyme. Fluorination of the benzylic carbon atom of **488** gave **489**, which was 5-fold more potent and exhibited competitive inhibition kinetics in contrast to the mixed inhibition kinetic profile observed with **488**. These potency observations were reproduced in the sulfonamide homologues **490** and **491**, where α -fluorination enhanced inhibitory potency by 4-fold, although in this example both compounds exhibited mixed inhibitory kinetics.^{216b} Interestingly, the potency of **491** increased with pH, with the K_i value = $28 \mu\text{M}$ at pH = 8.8 while that of the sulfonate **489** decreased, shifting 2-fold from $73 \mu\text{M}$ at pH = 7 to $147 \mu\text{M}$ at pH = 8.8, an observation attributed to the effect of ionization of the sulfonamide.



Difluoromethylsulfonates have also been probed as PTP1B phosphatase inhibitors where α -fluorination resulted in increased potency in two series, as illustrated by comparing data for the MMPs **492/493** and **494/495**.²¹⁸ Perhaps not surprisingly for a monoionic species, **493** and **495** were less potent PTP1B phosphatase inhibitors than the phosphonate homologues **497** and **499**, where α -fluorination also enhanced potency over the unsubstituted compound **496** and **498**.²¹⁸



Carbonic anhydrase is a Zn^{2+} -dependent enzyme that exhibits affinity for primary sulfonamide moieties which coordinate to the metal.²¹⁹ Fluorination α - to the sulfonamide moiety led to a progressive increase in potency, with difluoro(phenyl)-methanesulfonamide (**502**) 10-fold more potent than the

Table 40. Carbonic Anhydrase Inhibitor Activity Associated with Sulfonamides **500–504**

		IC ₅₀ (nM)	pK_a
500	PhCH ₂ SO ₂ NH ₂	630	10.5
501	PhCHFSO ₂ NH ₂	220	8.8
502	PhCF ₂ SO ₂ NH ₂	58	7.7
503	CH ₃ SO ₂ NH ₂	650	10.8
504	CF ₃ SO ₂ NH ₂	<2	6.3

prototype **500**, while the monofluoro derivative **501** fell between these bookends (Table 40). The effect was more dramatic when comparing the activity of methylsulfonamide **503** with its CF₃ congener **504**, where the SARs reflected a close correlation between potency and pK_a value that was consistent with the more potent inhibitors being those more ionized at neutral pH.²²⁰

CF₂ as an Oxygen Bioisostere in Heterocycles. The morpholine heterocycle has long been a staple of drug design when a moderately basic ring system is required because the introduction of the oxygen atom into piperidine reduces the pK_a by 2.6 units compared to piperidine (Table 41).²²¹ Other

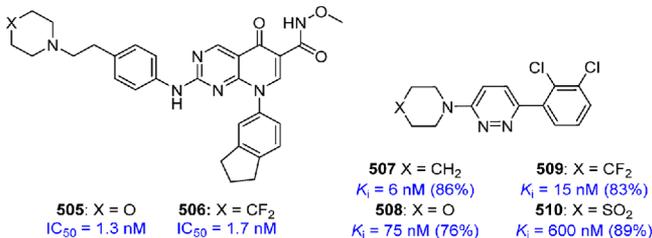
Table 41. Experimentally Measured pK_a Values for the Conjugate Acids of a Series of Heterocyclic Amines

pK_a	11.1	8.5	8.6	9.0	5.4	9.4

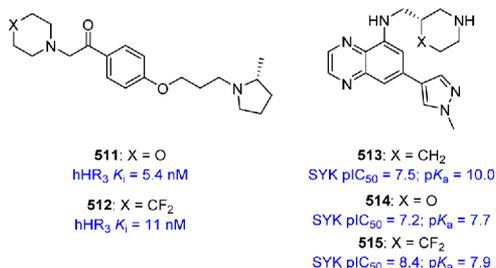
electron withdrawing elements that exert a similar effect but offer a range of lipophilicities include sulfur substitution, with thiomorpholine dioxide the most powerful of this series that reduces the pK_a of piperidine by a more substantial 5.7 units.^{222–224} Dual fluorination at the 4-position of piperidine modulates the pK_a to the same extent as morpholine but offers ~ 2.5 units of increased lipophilicity accompanied by a 70% reduction in PSA, providing a useful heterocycle when physicochemical properties are being optimized. As a consequence, 4,4-difluoropiperidine has been explored extensively by medicinal chemists; however, only a synopsis of the applications is presented in the following section which also highlights examples where biochemical emulation is poor.

The morpholine derivative **505** is a potent inhibitor of the class 3 tyrosine kinase macrophage colony-stimulating factor-1 receptor (FMS) but was poorly stable in HLM, with just 5.2% of the parent remaining after 10 min of incubation.²²⁵ In contrast, the difluoropiperidine analogue **506** fully retained the enzyme inhibitory properties of **505** while offering enhanced metabolic stability in HLM, with 83% of the parent drug remaining intact after 10 min of incubation. A similar relative profile was seen when the compounds were incubated in RLM. In the selective cannabinoid CB₂ agonist series represented by **507–510**, the parent piperidine **507** and 4,4-difluorinated homologue **509** offered potency superior to the more polar morpholine **508** and, particularly, the thiomorpholine dioxide **510**, a reflection of the lipophilic nature of the receptor binding site.²²⁶ However, while

potency increased in parallel with lipophilicity in this series, rat clearance was higher for **507** and **509** compared to **508**, while **510** was too weakly active to qualify for testing, indicating a need to carefully balance physicochemical properties.



The 4,4-difluoropiperidine moiety of **512** was an effective replacement for the morpholine heterocycle in **511** in a series of histamine-3 receptor inverse agonists, with both compounds exhibiting comparable affinity for the human receptor.²²⁷ The prototype **511** was also a potent rat H₃ receptor ligand that exhibited high selectivity over the hERG channel (21% inhibition at 10 μM) and CYP inhibition (IC₅₀ > 30 μM) while presenting good metabolic stability in mouse, rat, dog, monkey, and human LMs (t_{1/2} > 40 min), high Caco-2 cell permeability, and low plasma protein binding. However, the in vivo clearance of **511** in the rat was very high and the molecule was extensively distributed to tissues, with a high volume of distribution, a large brain to plasma ratio, and an extended brain residence time. The fluorinated piperidine **512** exhibited acceptable metabolic stability in vitro but, unfortunately, exhibited a short 30 min t_{1/2} in vivo.

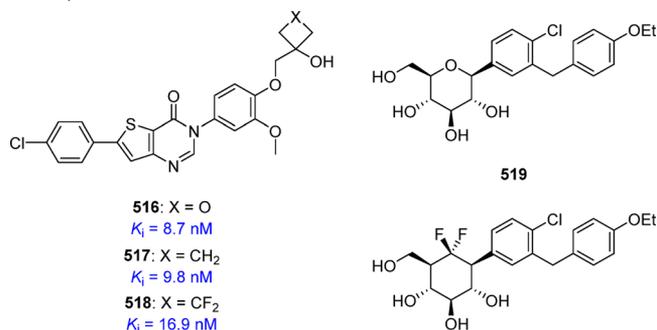


Careful modulation of the pK_a of the SYK inhibitors **513**–**515** was of importance to the PK profile of these molecules.²²⁸

Although the potency of **515** was an order of magnitude better than the morpholine compound **514** while maintaining mild basicity relative to **513**, in this series the morpholine heterocycle ultimately offered the optimal compromise of good oral bioavailability and efficacy in a rat Arthus model. However, **514** was genotoxic in an Ames mutagenicity assay, and **515** proved to be an inadequate substitute because its exposure in vivo was lower than for **514**, attributed to higher clearance.

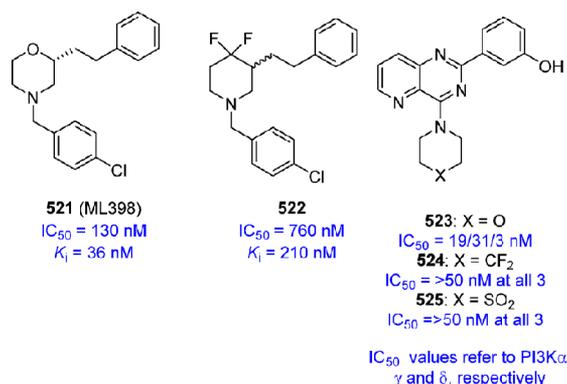
An interesting application of CF₂/O isosterism is provided by the development of the melanin concentrating hormone receptor 1 (MCHR1) inhibitor **518**, which was advanced into clinical trials as a phosphate prodrug of the alcohol for the treatment of obesity.²²⁹ While the oxetane **516** showed high plasma exposure in rats following PO dosing, the compound was ineffective at inducing weight loss in a 4 day diet-induced obese (DIO) rat study, attributed to low brain and plasma concentrations at 20 h postdose. Reversion to the cyclobutane analogue **517** as a means of increasing lipophilicity provided an avenue forward but further modification to **518** was required in order to slow metabolism. This compound had adequate metabolic stability in rat LMs and when dosed as the glycine ester prodrug at a dose of 10 mg/kg, high plasma (4.5 μM) and brain (11.3 μM) levels were observed at the 8 h time point, reflecting a brain to plasma ratio of 2.5.

Administration of a phosphate prodrug of **518** to DIO rats at a dose of 0.3 mg/kg resulted in a 5% weight loss, and this compound exhibited no evidence of the hepatobiliary lesions that had been seen with earlier compounds in the series when administered daily to rats at doses of up to 100 mg/kg for 30 days.²²⁹



A CF₂ moiety appears to be an acceptable substitute for ether oxygen atom of the sodium–glucose cotransporter-2 (SGLT₂) inhibitor dapaglifozin (**519**), with **520** claimed to exhibit a longer duration of glucosuria in vivo in rats.^{230a} This work complements studies that successfully replaced the C-4 carbinol of **519** with a gem-fluoromethylene moiety.^{231b}

However, there are a number of examples where a gem-difluoromethyl moiety has been found to be an inadequate substitute for a heterocyclic oxygen atom in a biochemical setting. For example, the 4,4-difluoropiperidine **522** derived from **521**, an antagonist of the dopamine D₄ receptor, exhibits several-fold lower binding affinity than the morpholine-based prototype.²³¹ In another example, the morpholine ring of the PI3K α, γ, and δ inhibitor **523** was uniquely active compared to the 4,4-difluoropiperidine analogue **524** and the thiomorpholine dioxide **525**.²³²



ArCF₂CH₃ and ArOR Bioisosterism. The difluoroethyl moiety has been advocated as a bioisostere of an aromatic CH₃O substituent based on the structural metaphor depicted in Figure 37, with recognition that the conformational preferences

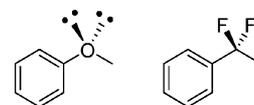
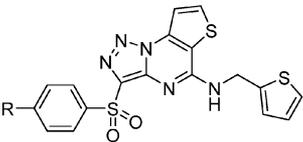


Figure 37. Proposed isosterism between anisole and (1,1-difluoroethyl)benzene.

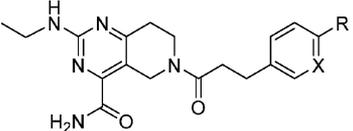
of the two substituents may be quite different, although the difluoroalkyl substituent may be conformationally flexible.^{233,234} An example where a 1,1-difluoroethyl substituent offered advantage is found in the series of inhibitors of the kidney urea

Table 42. SARs and Metabolic Stability of 526–529, Inhibitors of the Kidney Urea Transporter UT-B


	R	IC ₅₀ (nM)	% remaining in RLMs
526	CH ₃ O	104	6
527	CF ₃ O	1110	95
528	CH ₃ CH ₂	11	<5
529	CH ₃ CF ₂	14	96

transporter UT-B represented by 526–529 captured in Table 42.²³⁵ While the OCH₃ derivative 526 exhibited good potency, metabolic stability in rat liver microsomes was very poor and fluorination of the methyl group was not found to be a viable option to solve this problem because 527 suffered a 10-fold loss in potency, although metabolic stability improved dramatically. The ethyl derivative 528 restored potency but metabolic stability was also inadequate, a problem ultimately solved by introducing the 1,1-difluoroethyl substituent, with 529 offering an excellent compromise of targeted properties.

In the series of Takeda G-protein-coupled receptor 5 (TGR5) agonists 530–534 compiled in Table 43, a CF₂CH₃ substituent

Table 43. SARs and Metabolic Stability of TGR5 Agonists 530–534


	R	X	induced human TGR5 EC ₅₀ (nM)	CL _{int} human (μL/min/mg)
530	OCH ₃	CH	137	96
531	OCF ₃	CH	2.3	184
532	CH ₂ CH ₃	CH	9.2	238
533	CF ₂ CH ₃	CH	2.7	211
534	CF ₂ CH ₃	N	43	18

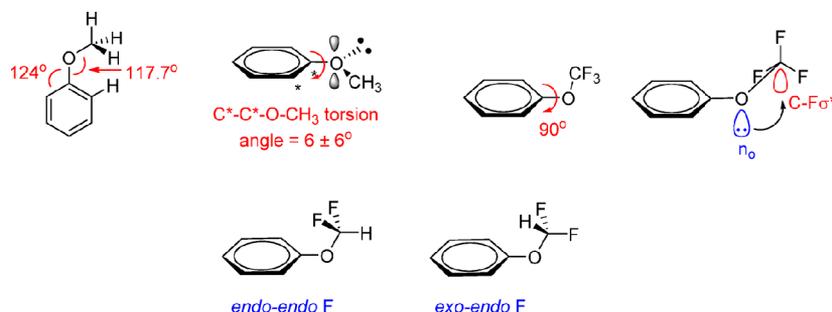
offered increased metabolic stability in human liver microsomes when paired with the pyridine heterocycle, as configured in 534.²³⁶ The OCH₃ derivative 530 offered poor agonist potency, but this was improved by the introduction of substituents that lowered the constraint toward coplanarity, with OCF₃ (531), CH₂CH₃ (532), and CF₂CH₃ (533) substantially more potent. However, metabolic stability in HLM was an issue for 530–533, solved by the pyridine analogue 534, which has a lower *E* Log *D*

value, although this was accompanied by some reduction of intrinsic agonist potency. Nevertheless, 531 was the compound selected for more advanced in vivo studies.²³⁶

■ FLUORINATED ALKOXY MOIETIES AND MIMESIS

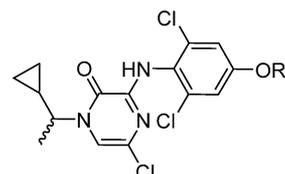
Conformational Aspects of Fluorinated Alkoxy Moieties. A probe of the CSD confirmed previous literature observations that in the absence of dual ortho substitution, Ar-OCH₃ prefers a coplanar arrangement of the aromatic ring and the O–CH₃ bond favored by ~3 kcal/mol (Figure 38).^{237–239} This is a consequence of rehybridization of the oxygen atom to allow overlap with the unsaturated ring which overcomes allylic 1,3-strain. In contrast, Ar-OCF₃ favors (by ~0.5 kcal/mol) a conformation in which the O–CF₃ bond is orthogonal to the plane of the aromatic ring, attributed to the reduced electronic overlap between the now electron deficient oxygen atom and the aromatic system that allows allylic 1,3-strain to dominate, furthered by the increased size of fluorine compared to hydrogen. In addition, a hyperconjugative interaction in which one of the lone pairs of electrons on the oxygen atom donates into one of the C–F σ* orbitals is believed to contribute to stabilizing the orthogonal topography. An assessment of the Ar-OCHF₂ substituent revealed no strong preference for a specific conformation although the analysis was based on only 22 examples in the CSD. However, in two cases examined more closely, the C(Ar)–C(Ar)–O–C torsion angle was close to 90°, but the fluorine atoms adopted an *endo*–*exo* arrangement in one example and an *endo*–*endo* topography in the other. Thus, fluorination of the alkyl moiety of alkyl phenol ethers allows the aryl substituent to function conformationally as a mimic of an alkyl substituent.

Developability Aspects of Fluorinated Alkoxy Moieties. Fluorination of the alkyl moiety of phenol ethers has been explored broadly in drug design, and replacing the OCH₃ of anisole derivatives with an OCF₃ is a common tactic in drug design that is often focused on enhancing metabolic stability based on the premise of mitigating O-demethylation. However, this tactic is not always successful in increasing metabolic stability, dependent upon the potential for alternative sites of metabolism to become a dominant path. This phenomenon has been explored in some detail based on an analysis of MMPs examining the effect of substituting OCH₃ by both OCF₃ and the less common OCHF₂ on metabolic stability, lipophilicity, membrane permeability, and conformation.^{237a} The successive replacement of hydrogen by fluorine in anisole leads to a progressive but nonlinear increase in cLog *P* values, with increments of 0.17, 0.27, and 0.66 for a total of 1.1 log units, accompanied by an increase in MW of 54 for the OCF₃ derivative. Measured Log *D* values confirmed the increased lipophilicity which ranged from 0.3 to 1.3 units for an OCF₃ for OCH₃ change while an OCHF₂ reduced Log *D* by 0.3–0.7 log units compared to OCF₃.

**Figure 38.** Conformational aspects of anisole, PhOCF₃, and PhOCHF₂.

However, the analysis of 439 MMPs where the only difference was a OCF_3 for OCH_3 substitution indicated that this change had no clear advantage with respect to improving metabolic stability in HLM. Moreover, the analysis revealed a significant difference in favor of OCH_3 (70% of the MMPs) substitution toward improving passive membrane permeability. The comparison of OCHF_2 with OCF_3 was based on 149 MMPs and indicated that although there were compound-specific effects, there was a small overall advantage for OCHF_2 . In the membrane permeability assay, a OCHF_2 for OCF_3 substitution showed improved permeability in 67% of cases examined. This was attributed to the OCHF_2 moiety being able to adopt an *endo-endo* conformation that is similar in lipophilicity to OCF_3 , attributed to cancellation of bond polarities, while the *endo-exo* state is more hydrophilic due to a 3-fold increase in polarity, which may explain the reduced Log *D* values. In a comparison between OCHF_2 and OCH_3 , the former is more lipophilic by 0.2–0.6 log units, and in the HLM MMP analysis, the OCHF_2 substituent showed an advantage over OCH_3 that was statistically significant. However, in the membrane permeability comparison, the OCH_3 derivatives were in general more permeable than their OCHF_2 analogues when the parent molecule fell into the high or low permeability bin, while in the midrange bin, the two moieties were similarly permeable. The conclusion from this study was that OCHF_2 offers advantage over both OCH_3 and OCF_3 during optimization as a means of balancing lipophilicity and molecular weight, conferring improved metabolic stability without compromising membrane permeability.^{237a} Nevertheless, there are examples where fluorination of an anisole moiety has a positive effect on metabolic stability, illustrated by comparisons within the series of corticotropin releasing factor-1 (CRF-1) inhibitors 535–538 compiled in Table 44.²⁴⁰

Table 44. Binding Potency and Metabolic Stability of a Series CRF-1 Inhibitors



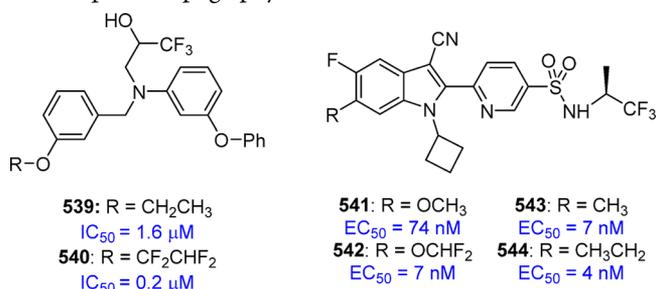
R	CH_3/CF_3 configuration	CRF-1 IC_{50} (nM)	intrinsic clearance in HLM (mL/min/kg)	
535	CH_3	R	1.1	130
536	CF_3	R	6.5	30
537	CHF_2	R	0.46	22
538	CHF_2	S	1.0	62

In this series, replacing the OCH_3 of 535, a site of metabolic lability, with either OCF_3 (536) or OCHF_2 (537), led to reduced intrinsic clearance in HLM although there was sensitivity to the absolute configuration at the cyclopropyl ethyl substituent with the (*S*)-isomer 538 metabolically less stable.

Fluorination of Alkyl Phenyl Ethers and Conformation.

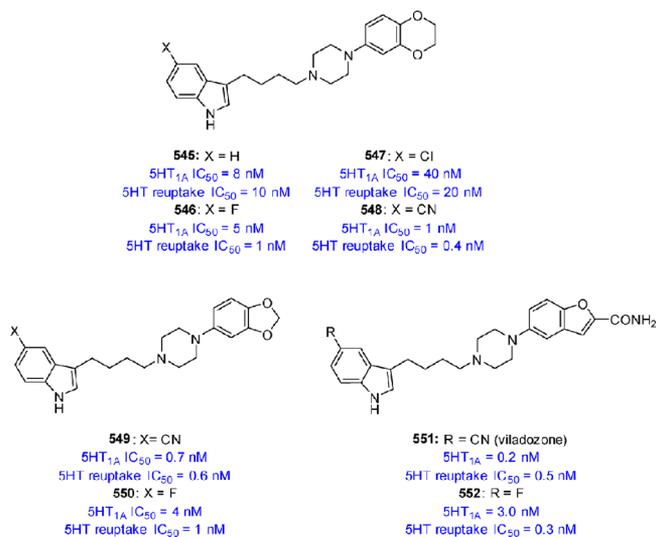
An example where influencing the conformation of an alkyl phenyl ether by fluorination may have played a role in modulating potency is provided by the cholesteryl ester transfer protein (CETP) inhibitors 539 and 540, where the latter is 8-fold more potent than the former.²⁴¹ In another example, the SAR associated with the HCV NS4B inhibitors 541–544 suggested that an orthogonal projection of the C-6 substituent was important for HCV GT-1b replicon inhibition because the methoxy

derivative 541 was 10-fold less potent than substituents that favor a noncoplanar topography.^{164c}



■ FLUORINE AS A NITRILE BIOISOSTERE

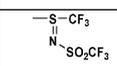
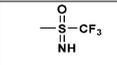
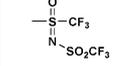
The similarity of the biochemical profiles of 316 and 317 provide an example of a bioisosteric relationship between fluorine and the nitrile moiety.¹⁴⁵ Bioisosterism between these substituents has also been proposed in the context of the series of dual SHT_{1A} agonists and 5-HT reuptake inhibitors 545–550.²⁴² An analysis of MEPs and dipole moments of 5-cyano- and 5-fluoro-substituted indoles confirmed the potential for a bioisosteric relationship, with the C–F more similar to a C–CN moiety than a C–Cl bond because the MEP maps and dipole vector for the 5-chloroindole were more similar to the parent. In the event, the fluoro and cyano MMPs 546/548 and 549/550 profiled similarly in the binding and reuptake assays, while the 5-chloro-substituted analogue 547 of 548 was markedly less potent and behaved more like the parent compound 545 in the reuptake inhibition assay.²⁴² The two benzodioxole analogues 549 and 550 showed similar efficacy *in vivo* in the ultrasonic vocalization test as a measure of *in vivo* 5-HT_{1A} antagonism, and although subsequent studies focused on the nitrile series, the 5-fluoro analogues performed in a very similar fashion where comparisons were made. These studies culminated in the identification of viladozone (551), which was approved as an antidepressant by the FDA in 2011; however, the 5-fluoro analogue 552 presented an analogous profile in a range of assays, confirming the C–F/C–CN isosterism in this context.



■ THE SF_5 MOIETY

DSM-265 (246) is first SF_5 -containing drug to enter clinical trials and the *in vitro* comparison between 246 and 245 suggests a potential bioisosteric relationship between the SF_5 and CF_3 substituents (Table 25). Indeed, the SF_5 moiety has been viewed as a

Table 45. Comparison of the Electron Withdrawing (σ_p), Lipophilicity (π), and Substituent Dipole (μ) Values for the *tert*-Butyl, Nitro, SO_2CH_3 , and a Series of Fluorinated Substituents^{244a}

	σ_p	π	μ (D)*
<i>t</i> -Bu	-0.20	1.98	+0.52
NO_2	0.78	-0.28	-4.13
CF_3	0.54	0.88	-2.61
SF_5	0.68	1.23	-3.44
SCF_3	0.51	1.44	-2.50
SO_2CH_3	0.72	-1.63	-4.75
SO_2CF_3	0.93	0.55	
$\text{CF}(\text{CF}_3)_2$	0.53		-2.68
$\text{C}(\text{CF}_3)_3$	0.55		
$\text{SO}_2\text{CF}_2\text{CF}_2\text{CF}_3$	1.07		
$\text{SO}_2\text{CH}(\text{CF}_3)_2$	1.08		
$\text{SO}_2\text{C}(\text{CF}_3)_3$	1.11		
	1.28		
	0.84		
	1.39		

*A negative value indicates that the negative end of the dipole vector is toward the substituent.

“super CF_3 group”; however, these two substituents are quite different in shape, size, lipophilicity, and electron withdrawing properties, as captured by the data summarized in Table 45.^{243,244} The SF_5 substituent is larger in volume than a CF_3 but smaller than a *tert*-butyl moiety and possesses an octahedral geometry that presents a pyramidal electron density that is quite different from the tetrahedral shape of CF_3 , where the electron density is presented as an inverted cone (Figure 39).^{243,245} The SF_5 moiety



Figure 39. Comparison of the shapes of the CF_3 and SF_5 substituents.

is a more powerful electron withdrawing substituent than CF_3 but similar to SO_2CH_3 and NO_2 and may be considered to be a peripheral member of the family of “superacceptor” substituents that resemble sulfones in which fluorine has a prominent presence, with the key parameters also captured in Table 45.²⁴⁶ The SF_5 substituent is more lipophilic than either a CH_3SO_2 or a CF_3SO_2 substituent, thereby conferring good membrane permeability while being metabolically stable and chemically robust.

Medicinal chemistry applications of the SF_5 moiety have largely been limited by a lack of convenient synthetic access to suitable building blocks, but considerable progress has been made toward developing new methodology, and this substituent is beginning to be explored in a variety of settings, although still most typically as a homologue of the CF_3 substituent.^{4a,247} In the series of *Trypanosoma cruzi* trypanothione reductase inhibitors **553**–**555**, the CF_3 - and SF_5 -substituted compounds **553** and **554**, respectively, offered comparable potency and a modest advantage over the *tert*-butyl derivative **555**.²⁴⁸ However, a kinetic analysis indicated that while **553** was a competitive inhibitor, both **554** and **555** exhibited a mixed competitive–uncompetitive kinetic profile. Compound **554** was docked into the active site of *Trypanosoma cruzi* trypanothione reductase with the orientation guided by X-ray cocrystal structures obtained with closely related structures, and the key interactions proposed are depicted in Figure 40. The comparable binding affinity of the

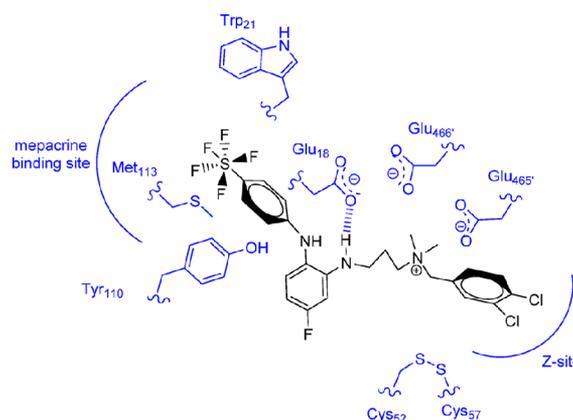
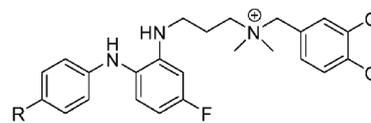


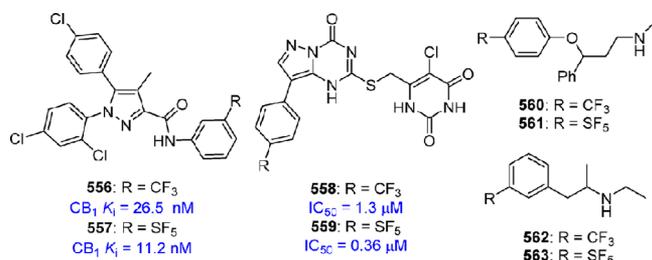
Figure 40. Proposed drug–target interactions between **554** and *T. cruzi* trypanothione reductase based on docking of the ligand into the active site of the enzyme.

bulkier inhibitor **554** compared to the smaller CF_3 derivative **553** was attributed to the stronger electron withdrawing nature of the SF_5 substituent that might potentially lead to an increase in the strength of the T-shaped interaction of the attached phenyl ring with the electron-rich Trp₂₁, Tyr₁₁₀, and Met₁₁₃ residues of the enzyme.²⁴⁸

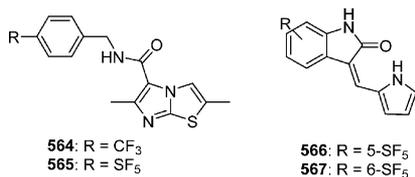


553: R = CF_3 K_{ic} = 24 μM **554:** R = SF_5 K_{ic} = 28 μM **555:** R = $\text{C}(\text{CH}_3)_3$ K_{ic} = 84 μM

In the matched pair of cannabinoids **556** and **557**, the SF_5 derivative **557** exhibited a modest 2-fold increased potency at CB₁ receptors, while in the thymidine phosphorylase inhibitors **558** and **559**, there is a 4-fold advantage for the SF_5 substituent in **559** compared to the CF_3 prototype **558**.^{249,250} The antidepressant drug fluoxetine (**560**) is a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor that also demonstrates affinity for several serotonin receptors.²⁵¹ The SF_5 -substituted analogue **561** exhibited reduced binding to SHT_{2a} and SHT_{2c} receptors compared to **560** but had comparable affinity for SHT_{2b} receptors. In the case of fenfluramine (**562**), the SF_5 analogue **563** exhibited 10-fold higher affinity for SHT_{2b} and SHT₆ receptors than the progenitor.²⁵¹



The SF₅ moiety continues to be of contemporary interest as a substituent in drug design with the Mtb inhibitor **565** profiling similarly to the CF₃ analogue **564**, although protein binding was higher for the former compound (99.7%) than the latter (99.1%).²⁵² The oxindole derivatives **566** and **567** have been profiled as kinase inhibitors that express cytotoxicity toward the T47D cancer cell line with EC₅₀ values of 490 and 350 nM, respectively.²⁵³ While modeling studies were utilized in the design of **566** and **567**, examples of where the SF₅ substituent confers a specific advantage based on its unique shape and electronic properties remain to be described.



CONCLUSION

The unique properties of fluorine continue to reveal itself through the creative application of this unusual element in drug design, with recognition of its potential for mimicking a number of functionalities established as a prominent attribute of this interesting element. The small size of fluorine coupled with the high C–F bond strength has inspired its extensive application as a bioisosteric replacement for the hydrogen atom, particularly with respect to modulating the metabolism and conformation of a molecule. However, the electronic properties of a C–F bond have allowed it to effectively mimic carbonyl, hydroxyl, or nitrile functionality in circumstances that are often very much dependent on context. Thus, specific emulation of these functionalities is often based more on a bioisosteric rather than an isosteric relationship, which can add an element of unpredictability to their application in drug design. The powerful electron withdrawing properties of this electronegative element influence the basicity of proximal amines to an extent that can render an amide mimetic. Moreover, the partial fluorination of methyl groups can lead to polarization of a C–H bond that allows it to function as a H-bond donor that although weaker than more established donors has been shown to be of importance in drug–target interactions. The development of new synthetic methodologies continues to provide facile and effective access to new structural elements containing fluorine that, in turn, are contributing to a deeper understanding of the element and stimulating new applications that often have bioisosterism as an underlying basis. The many examples illustrated in this synopsis reflect the creativity of the medicinal chemistry community at large and anticipate the continued development and application of fluorine in drug design.

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Notes

The author declares the following competing financial interest(s): I am an employee and shareholder of Bristol-Myers Squibb.

Biography

Nicholas A. Meanwell received his Ph.D. degree from the University of Sheffield and conducted postdoctoral studies at Wayne State University before joining Bristol-Myers Squibb in 1982. He has been associated with the discovery of BMV-433771, an inhibitor of respiratory syncytial virus fusion, the HIV-1 attachment inhibitor prodrug fostemsavir, the HIV-1 maturation inhibitor BMS-955176, and the marketed HCV inhibitors asunaprevir (NS3, Sunvepra), daclatasvir (NS5A, Daklinza), and beclabuvir (NSSB). He is the co-recipient of a 2014 PhRMA Research and Hope Award for Biopharmaceutical Industry Research and a 2017 ACS Heroes of Chemistry Award. He was the recipient of the 2015 Philip S. Portoghese Medicinal Chemistry Lectureship Award and was inducted into the ACS Division of Medicinal Chemistry Hall of Fame in 2015.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I thank Professors Günter Haufe (University Münster) and Frédéric Leroux (University of Strasbourg) for sowing the seeds of this manuscript. Drs. Dinesh Vyas, Kap-Sun Yeung, and Professor Günter Haufe and two reviewers are thanked for their critical review of an early version of the manuscript, while Dr. Makonen Belema is thanked for reviewing all versions of the article.

ABBREVIATIONS USED

AML, acute myeloid leukemia; BACE-1, β -site amyloid precursor protein cleaving enzyme 1; BCP, [1.1.1]-bicyclopentane; BTK, Bruton's tyrosine kinase; Cdk, cyclin-dependent kinase; CETP, cholesteryl ester transfer protein; CFTR, cystic fibrosis transmembrane regulator; CGRP, calcitonin gene-related peptide; CRF-1, corticotropin releasing factor-1; CSD, Cambridge Structural Database; CYP, cytochrome P enzyme; DFT, density functional theory; DHODH, dihydroorotate dehydrogenase; DIO, diet-induced obese; DPP-4, dipeptidyl peptidase-4; ET, endothelin; FAAH, fatty acid amide hydrolase; FAP, fibroblast activation protein; FKBP, FK506-binding protein; FLT3, FMS-like tyrosine kinase 3; F-OPA, fluorinated olefinic peptide nucleic acid; FXa, factor Xa; GABA, γ -aminobutyric acid; GSH, glutathione; hAR, human androgen receptor; hBRS-3, human bombesin receptor subtype-3; HCV, hepatitis C virus; HIV-1, human immunodeficiency virus-1; HLM, human liver microsomes; hPTH, human parathyroid hormone; 5-HT, 5-hydroxytryptamine (serotonin); Hyp, 4-(R)-hydroxy-L-proline; IDH2, isocitrate dehydrogenase 2; IV, intravenous; LM, liver microsomes; MCHR1, melanin concentrating hormone receptor 1; MEK1, MAP kinase kinase 1; MEP, molecular electrostatic potential; MGAT, acyl-CoA:monoacylglycerol acyltransferase; MI, metabolite intermediate; MMP, matched molecular pairs; Mtb, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*; MW, molecular weight; NMDA, N-methyl-D-aspartate; PAMPA, parallel artificial membrane permeability assay; PDB, Protein Data Bank; Pf, *Plasmodium falciparum*; P-gp, P-glycoprotein; PI3K α , phosphatidylinositol-3 kinase- α ; PNMT, phenylethanolamine N-methyltransferase; PPAR γ , peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ ; PSA, polar surface area; QM, quantum mechanics; RLM, rat liver microsomes; SAR, structure–activity relationship; STS,

steroid sulfatase; TGR5, Takeda G-protein-coupled receptor 5; WGA, wheat germ agglutinin

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