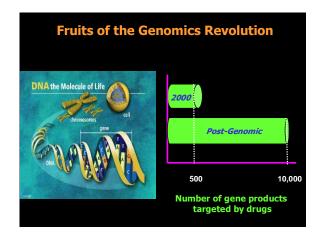


Overview of Lecture

- Introduction
 - Opportunities & Challenges in Drug Discovery
 - Computational Approaches
- Receptor-based Computational Methods
- Ligand-based Computational Methods



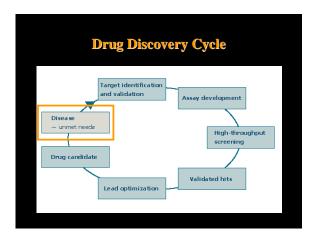
Drug Targets and Mechanisms of Drug Action

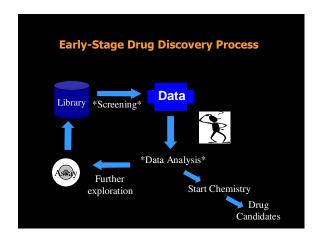
- Enzymes inhibitors (reversible, irreversible)
- Receptors agonists and antagonists
- Ion Channels blockers
- Transporters uptake inhibitors
- DNA intercalating agents, minor groove binders, antisense drugs

"Needle in a Haystack"

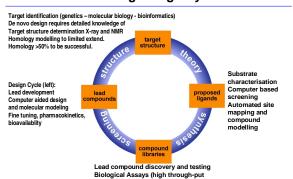
- Estimated 10²⁰⁰ compounds could be made
- 28 million compounds currently registered (CAS)
- Drug company biologists screen up to 1 million compounds against target using ultra-high throughput technology
- Chemists select 50-100 compounds for follow-up
- Chemists work on these compounds, developing new, more potent compounds
- Pharmacologists test compounds for pharmacokinetic and toxicological profiles
- 1-2 compounds are selected as potential drugs

By serendipity (propecia, penicillin, etc...) by structure-activity relationships (most) from natural products (aspirin, digitalis, taxol) by rational design (since the 80's) by systematic screening (since the 90's)





The Drug Design Cycle



Target Identification & Lead Discovery

- Identify target (e.g., enzyme, receptor, ion channel, transporter) Determine DNA and protein sequence
- Elucidate structure and function of protein
- Prove the repeutic concept in animals ("knock-outs")
 Develop assay for high-throughput molecular screen
 Mass screening and/or directed synthesis program
 Select one or more lead structures

tion -> Drug De

- Determine 3D structure of target receptor complexed with leads

- Molecular modeling- design and refinement of new leads
 Synthesis and biological testing of new leads
 Optimization of selectivity, bioavailability, and pharmacokinetics
 Pharmaceutical formulation

- Preclinical and clinical development
 Drug approval and market introduction

Reasons for Failure in Drug Discovery

- Poor pharmacokinetics (poor ADME profile in humans, metabolite problems)
- Poor clinical activity (doesn't work in humans)
- Unacceptable side effects, toxicity (drug, metabolites, poor selectivity)
- Poor market strategy (won't earn revenues, profit)

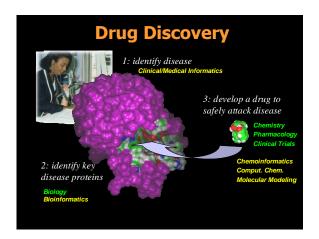
ADME: Adsorption, Distribution, Metabolism, Excretion

New Strategies in Drug Design

- Design of inhibitors from structure of substrate (peptidomimetics)
- Computer-aided design of ligands

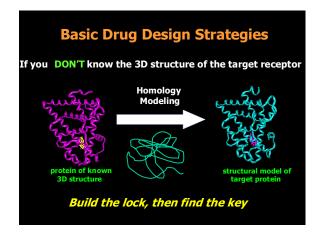
 © Receptor-based (Structure-based) design

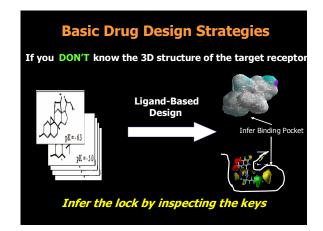
 © Ligand-based design
- Pharmacophore hypotheses
- Combinatorial design of ligands
- Virtual screening for desirable properties: drug-like, bioavailability (e.g., Lipinski's $Rule\ of\ Five$)

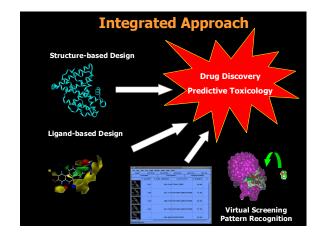


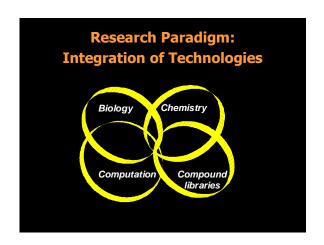




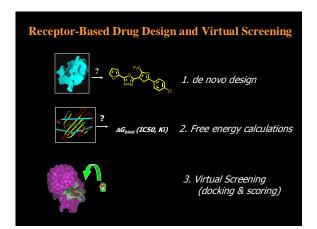


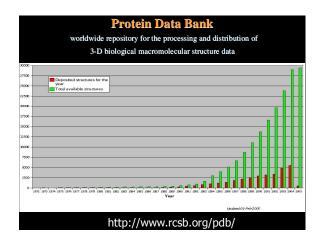


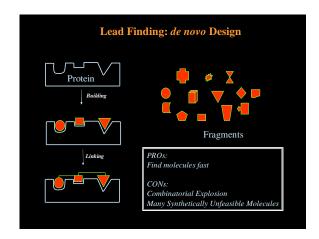


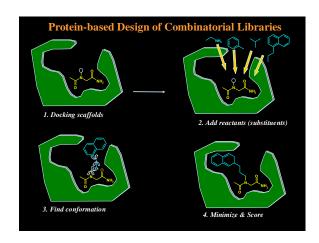




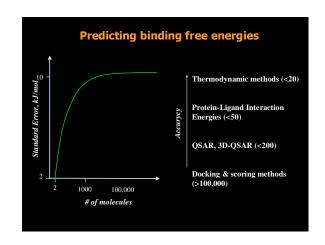


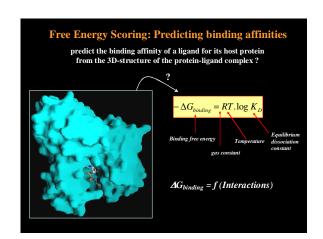


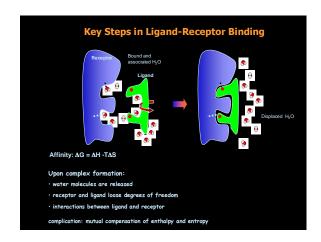




Predicting binding affinities (energies) ü 3D database searching ü docking ü protein-ligand simulations ü QSAR studies Question: Can informatics methods reliably predict reasonable drug candidates? Which molecules do you propose for chemical synthesis? Probably the most challenging issue in pharmaceutical computational chemistry



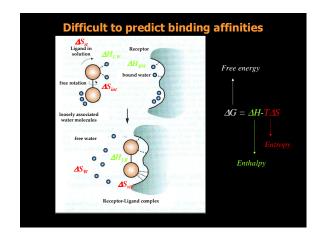


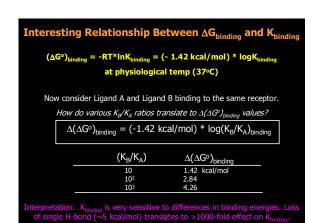


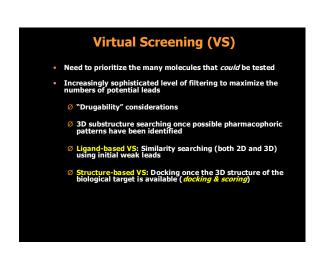
Thermodynamics of Ligand-Receptor Binding $\Delta G = \Delta H - T(\Delta S)$ $Dictum: \Delta G \text{ must be negative for spontaneous process}$ Four Possible Scenarios $\Delta H \Delta S \text{ negative } \Delta G? \text{ Prognosis}$ $1) (-) (+) \text{ always never never never spontaneous never spontaneous favorable as } T \uparrow$ $4) (-) (-) \text{ if } T(\Delta S) < \Delta H \text{ favorable as } T \downarrow$

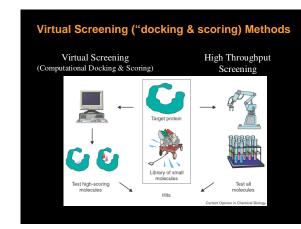
Thermodynamics of Ligand-Receptor Binding Ligand (aq) + Receptor (aq) à Ligand-Receptor (aq)		
$\Delta G = \Delta H - T(\Delta S)$ Dictum: ΔG must be negative for spontaneous process		
Multi-Step Process	ΔΗ	ΔS
ligand desolvation	unfavorable	favorable
receptor desolvation	unfavorable	favorable
drug adopts binding conformation	typically unfavorable	unfavorable
receptor adopts binding conformation	unfavorable	unfavorable
ligand binds to receptor	hopefully favorable	unfavorable
Our Goal: maximize the favorable and minimize the unfavorable steps		

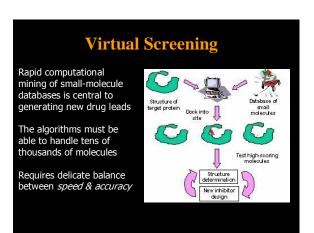


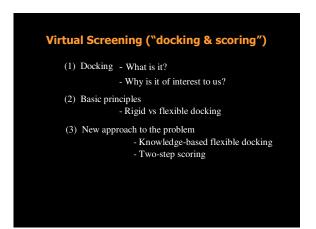


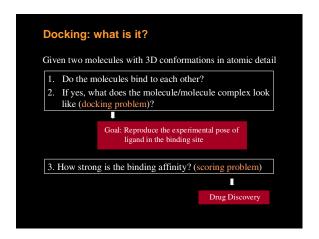


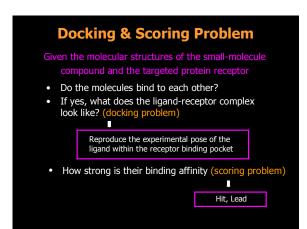


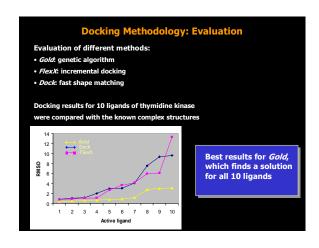


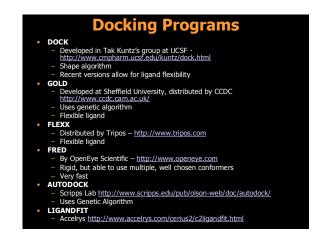


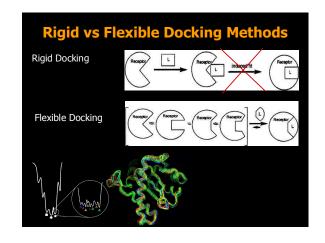












Docking algorithms

- May require initial rough positioning for the ligand
- Will use an optimization method to try and find the best rotation and translation of the ligand in the protein, for optimal binding affinity

GOLD algorithm

- Uses a genetic algorithm for optimization
- Can output multiple solutions (i.e. output multiple final population members)
- Full ligand and partial protein flexibility
- Fitness function combination of four elements:
 - protein-ligand hydrogen bond energy (*external H-bond*)
 - protein-ligand van der Waals (vdw) energy (external vdw)
 - ligand internal vdw energy (internal vdw)
 - ligand torsional strain energy (internal torsion)

Sample GOLD output GMP into RNaseT1

FRED

- Docking is exhaustive Unlike most docking programs FRED does not use stochastic sampling to dock ligand. Rather it begins with the set of all possible orientations (to a resolution of one Angstrom, by default) of each conformer near the receptor site and selects the docked position of the ligand from this set.
- Speed FRED docks typically docks from 7 to 15 conformers per second on a single PIII-800Mhz CPU.
- Multi-processor

 FRED fully supports PVM (Parallel Virtual Machine) on linux and sgi
 platforms. This allows FRED to take advantage of multiple
 processors on muliple machines while still returning a single
 centralized set of output.

 Multiple scoring fuctions
 FRED currently supports Chemscore, PLP, ScreenScore and Gaussian
 shape scoring. Scoring with ZAP (a PB solver written by OpenEye
 Scientific Software) is comming in the near future.

- Alternative docking positions for ligands
 FRED returns alternative docked poses for each ligand as well as the top scoring ligand.
 Graphic preping of receptor site (with VIDA)
 While FRED is fully functional as a command line program, our graphics program VIDA) has a FRED wizard which can be used to setup the receptor site for fred.

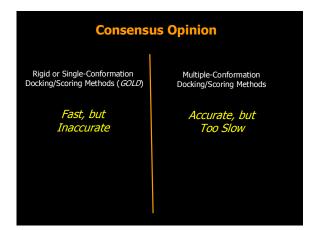
FlexX

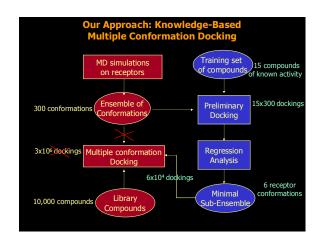
 Publicly available at http://cartan.gmd.de/flexx/

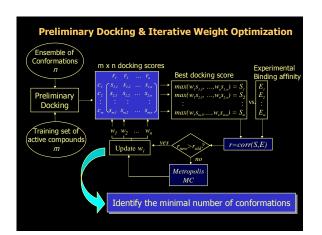
Docking & Scoring References

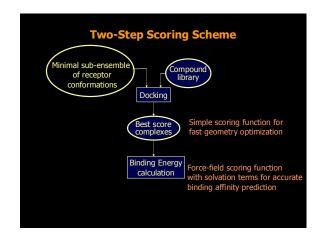
- Consensus Scoring: A Method for Obtaining Improved Hit Rates from Docking Databases of Three-Dimensional Structures into Proteins, Paul S. Charifson, Joseph J. Corkery, Mark A. Murcko, and W. Patrick Walters, *J. Med. Chem.* 1999, *42*, 5100-5109
- Protein-Based Virtual Screening of Chemical Databases.

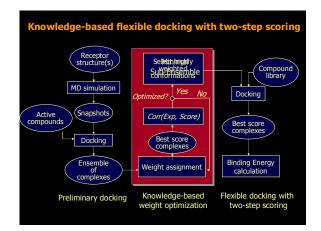
 1. Evaluation of Different Docking/Scoring
 Combinations, Caterina Bissantz, Gerd Folkers, and
 Didier Rognan, J. Med. Chem. 2000, 43, 4759-4767

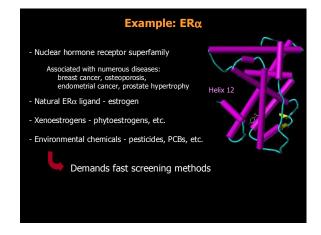


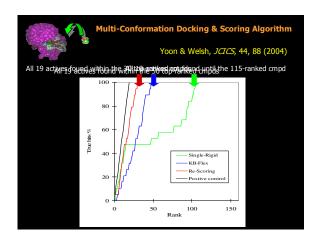


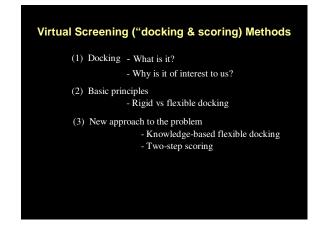


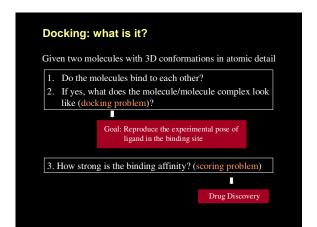


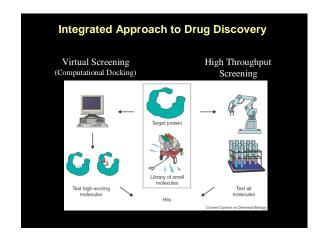


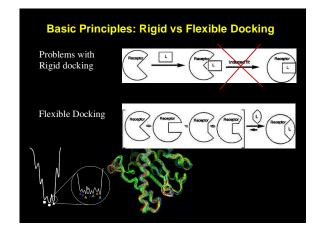


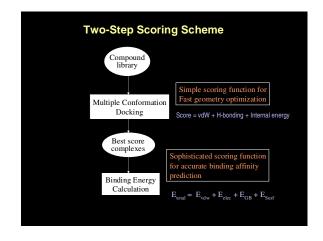


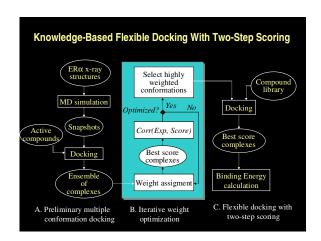


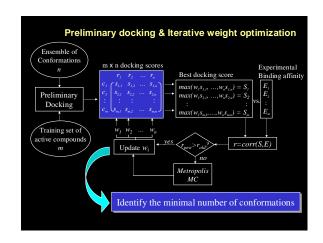


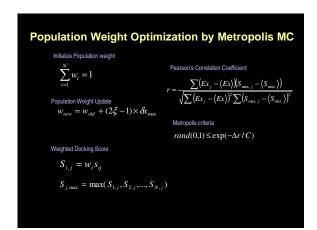


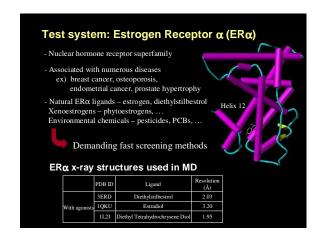


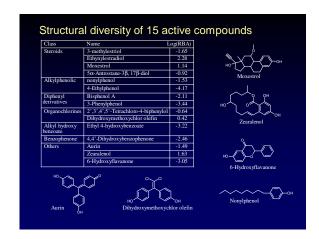


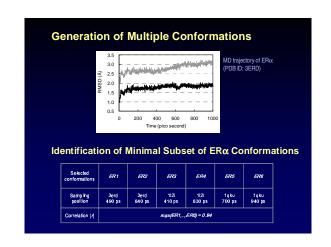


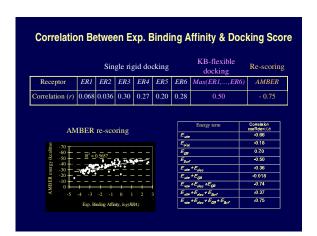


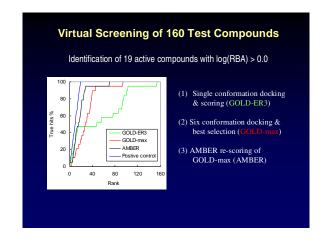


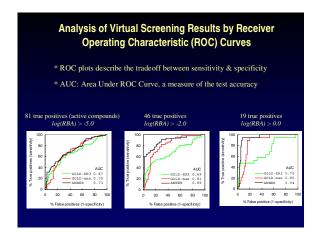






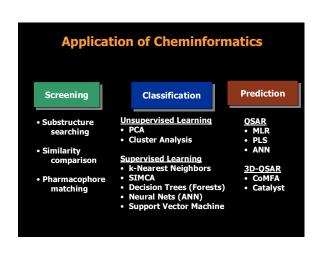


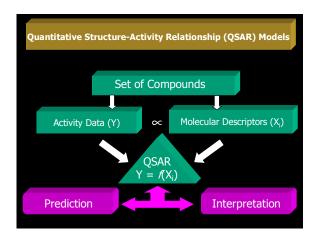


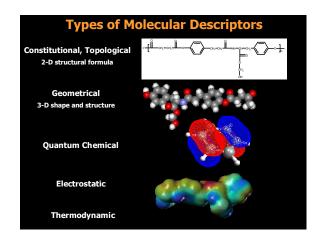


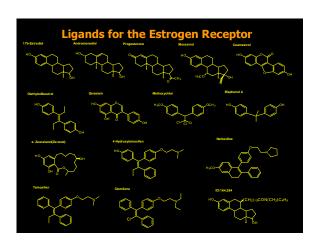
1. New computational approach was tested to identify the minimal subset of receptor conformations for improved flexible docking - MD-generated conformations can be used to find optimal receptor conformations - Weight optimization in the preliminary docking enabled us to sample the minimal subset that provided good correlation between experimental binding affinity and docking scores 2. ERα and its diverse acitve/inactives compounds were tested 3. Analysis of AUC & ROC plots quantitatively showed that our KB-based multiple dockings were superior to single dockings 4. Full molecular mechanics energy calculations significantly improved the binding affinity prediction and rank-order activity

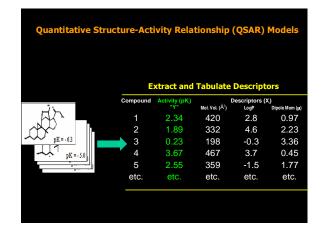
Ligand-based Methods Cheminformatics

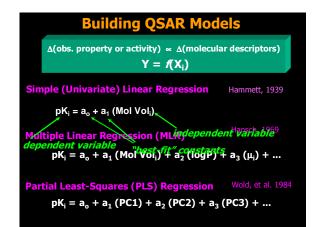


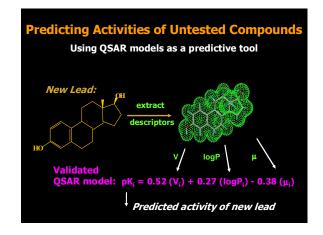


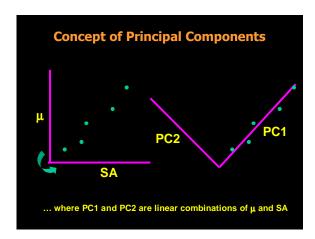


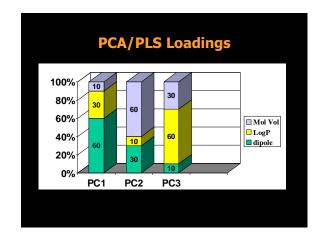


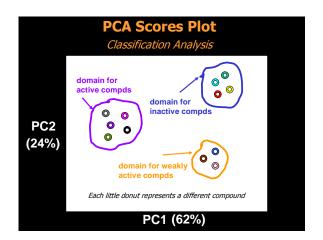


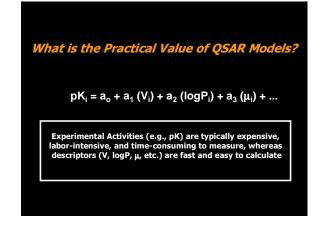


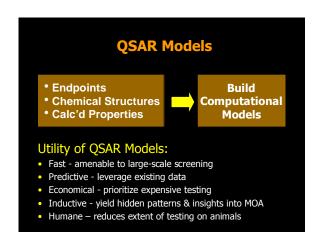


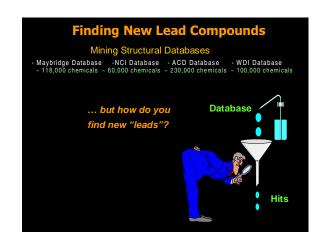












DRUG-LIKE BEHAVIOR

The Lipinski "Rule of Five" (1)

- Ø Molecular Weight ≤ 500 (opt = ~350)
- Ø # Hydrogen Bond Acceptors ≤10 (opt = ~5)
- \emptyset # Hydrogen Bond Donors ≤ 5 (opt = ~2)
- \emptyset -2 < cLog P < 5 (opt = ~3.0)
- Ø # Rotatable Bonds ≤ 5

1: C. Lipinski et al, Adv. Drug. Del. Rev, 23, 3-25 (1997)

Requirements for Orally Active Drugs - Pharmacokinetics -

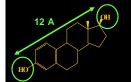
- Aqueous solubility
- Membrane passive permeability
- Cytochrome P450 activities
- Plasma protein binding
- Efflux pumping and active transport

Ligand-Based VS of Small-Molecule Structural Databases

1. (Sub)structure Searching



2. Pharmacophore Matching



- 3. Property Search: Similar Molecular Features (e.g., Vol, SA, μ, ... hundreds more)
- 4. Filtering: Lipinski's "Rule of 5"

Oral Drug-like molecules share the following characteristics:

- 1) Maximum of 5 H-bond donors 2) Maximum of 10 H-bond acceptors 3) Molecular Weight < 500 4) LogP < 5
- C. A. Lipinski, et al., Adv Drug Delivery Reviews, 23, 3 (1997)
- 5. Apply QSAR Models
- 6. Molecular (Dis)Similarity

Mining Structural Databases Query Compound

Molecular Similarity

- § Widely used all over drug discovery process
- Sample applications:

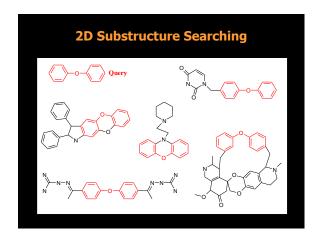
 - Assessing diversity of a chemical dataset
 Picking representative dataset from compound library
 - Ø Given a compound and a compound library, identifying
 - of similar compounds
 - Ø Organizing library compounds for screening and
 - Major step: sort into chemical families based on molecular similarity

Technology Employed

- **§** Compound representation methods
 - Ø Fingerprints/bit vectors, graph-based, ...
 - Ø 2D-keys vs 3D-keys, fragment vs distance based,
- **S** Similarity and distance measures
 - Ø Tanimoto, Euclidean, ..., graph-based, ...
- **§ Clustering methods**
- **S** Classification methods
- Substructure searching/(sub)graph matching

Structure Searches

- 2D Substructure searches
- 3D Substructure searches
 - single conformation
 - multiple conformation (flexible)

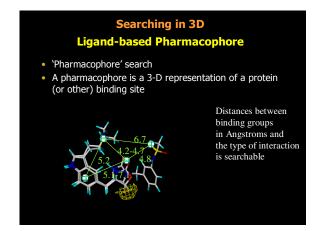


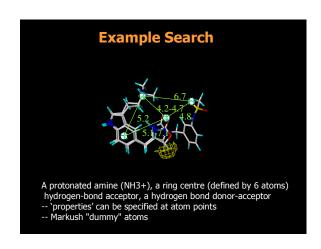
• each fragment consists of 3 pharmacophoric points

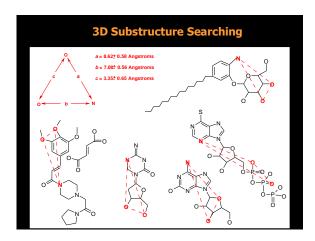
• the distances between each pair of these points are binned to allow tolerances

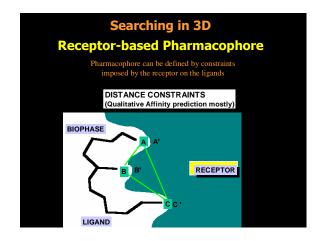
• 4-point pharmacophore fragments are also used

• Variety of definitions of pharmacophoric points

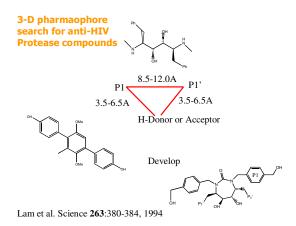




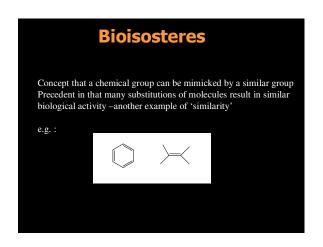


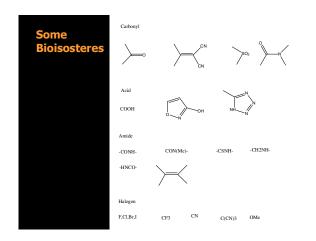


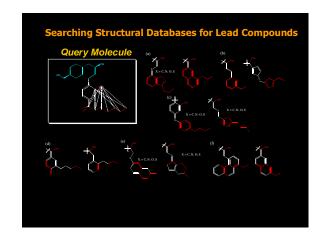
• Spatial Relationships • Define ranges for distances and angles • Stored conformation - usually lowest energy

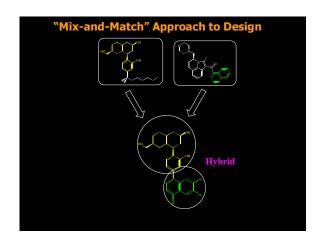


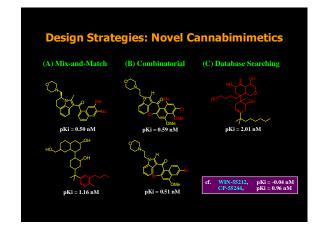
Conformationally Flexible Searches Rotate around all freely rotatable bonds Many conformations Energy penalty Get many more hits Guests adapt to hosts and Hosts adapt to guests ("induced fit")

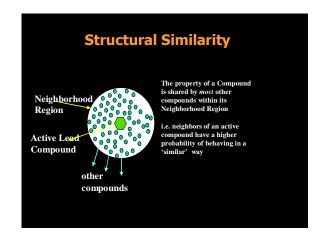












Numerical Similarity Measures

- Calculate some numerical measure of similarity between molecules
- Query structure is a "target" molecule
- Database structures can be ranked in decreasing order of similarity to target

 find all molecules within threshold similarity to target

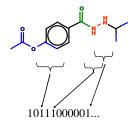
 find N most similar molecules to target

A fingerprint is a 'molecular bar code' for a molecule

- Used because
 - shows neighborhood behavior
 - does not require structural conformation or alignment
- fast searching method
 Fingerprint method used is CRC algorithm
- Advantages/disadvantages
 - 'valid' similarity in wide range of biological

 - easy to calculatedifficult to understand
 - not specific to one area

Substructure Keys

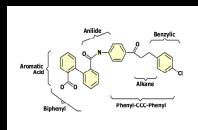


Dictionary of Keys

O-C(-N)-C CH₃-Ar-CH₃ C-N-N C-N-N N-Ar-Ar-O N-C-O N-Ar-O OH > 1 CH₃ > 1 N > 1 NH

Substructural Keys

- Compounds are multi-domain:
 - multiple occurrences of a key/substructure
 - members of more than one chemical family



"Bit Strings" of Substructure Keys

"How" a key hits?

Similarity from Fingerprints

- similarity measures are most commonly calculated from structure fingerprints $% \left(1\right) =\left(1\right) \left(1$

 - count the bits that are "on" in both molecules ("C") count the bits that are "on" in each molecule separately ("D")

struct A: struct B: 0001010001010100010101011110100 13 bits 00000000100101001001001000011100000 8 bits

00000000000101000001000011100000 6 bits 000101001101001101001101011110100 15 bits A & B = C: A or B = D:

similarity coefficient can be calculated from A, B and C

Tanimoto Coefficient

similarity = C/D

similarity =

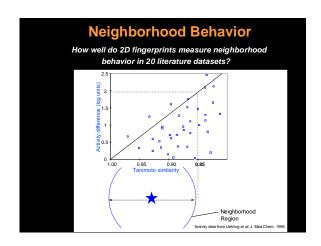
A + B - C = 6 / (13 + 8 - 6) = 0.4



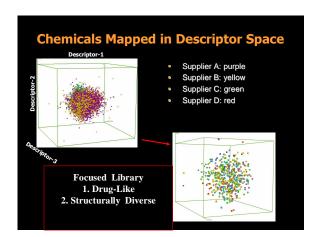
- the number of bits set in both molecules ("C") divided by the number of bits set in either molecule ("D")
- The Tanimoto Coefficient is the most commonly used similarity coefficient in chemical informatics
 - also called the Jaccard coefficient

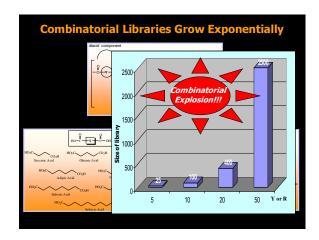
<u>(A∩B</u>) $(A \cup B)$

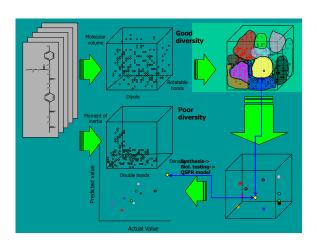
Values above 0.85 are usually significant.

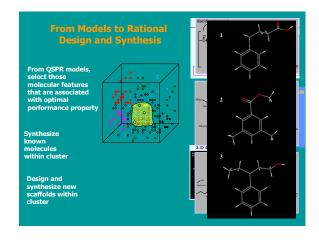


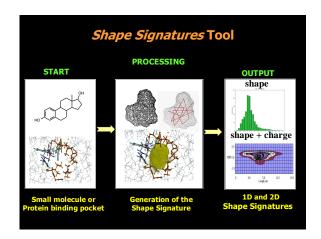
Selection of Representative Compounds From Virtual Libraries From all the molecules in a Chemical Library, choose a diverse but representative subset to study Run Biological Assays only on Representative Subset, thereby saving Time, Money, Resources and Labor

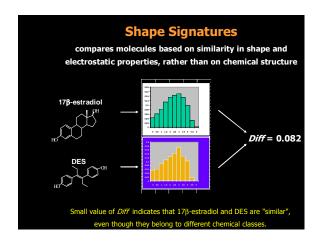


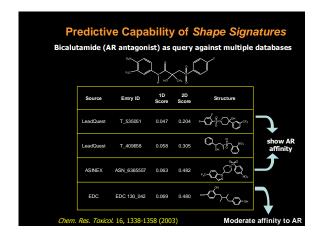


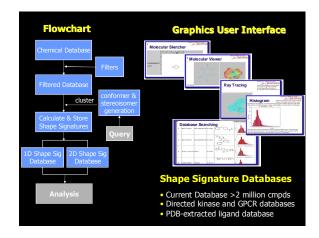


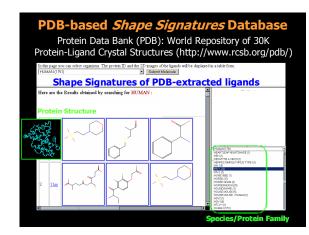


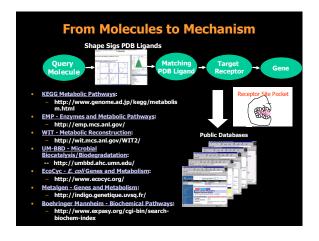










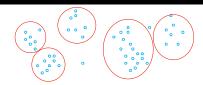


Key Features of Shape Signatures

- Uses molecular shape and features (e.g. surface charge), thus find hits missed by techniques that search on chemical (sub)structure alone
- Many uses: scaffold hopping (crossing chemical families), predictive toxicology, inverse structure-based drug design
- Fast; simple input; easy to use, update, and expand; very compact; infinitely expandable
- Works for organics and organometallics, neutral or charged
- Applicable in ligand-based mode (ligand-ligand similarity) and receptor-based mode (ligand-receptor complementarity)

Cluster analysis

- Refers to a group of statistical methods used for identifying groups ("clusters") of similar items in a multidimensional space
- Three popular methods of cluster-analysis: Ward's, K-means and Jarvis-Patrick
- Require a measure of distance or similarity between items



Cluster analysis applied to chemical information

- · Three main uses:
 - Grouping compounds into series, particularly helpful in analyzing large datsets (i.e. 1,000 series easier to analyze than 50,000 arbitrary compounds)
 - Grouping structures which are likely to have similar biological activity, the premise being that if several compounds in a cluster are active, others are likely to be active too
 - Picking small sets of "representative compounds" from large datasets
- Common measures of similarity and distance Tanimoto and Euclidean
- By incorporating these fingerprint-based methods, we can use standard cluster-analysis techniques for finding groups of similar structures in a dataset

Kinds of cluster analysis used in chemoinformatics

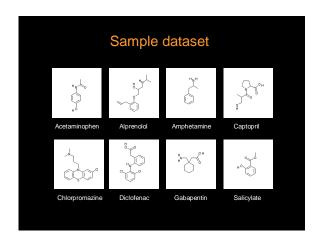
- Hierarchical
 - Agglomerative (e.g. Wards)
 - Divisive
- Non-hierarchical
 - Single-pass
 - Nearest Neighbor (e.g. Jarvis-Patrick)
 - Relocation (e.g. K-means)
- · "New" methods
 - ROCK, CURE, CLARA, Chamelion

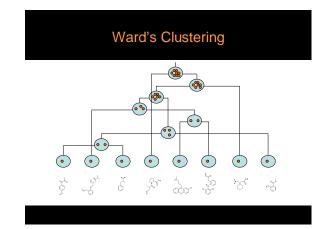
Clustering methods

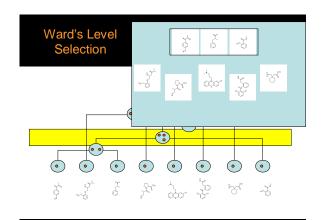


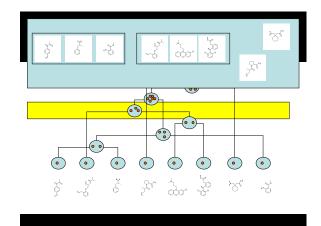
Hierarchical Clustering - Agglomerative

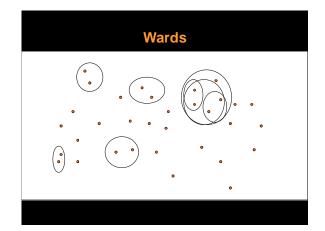
- · Starts with each compound in its own cluster
- The two most similar clusters are merged
- The process repeats (creating a "tree") until all items are merged into one cluster
- Wards uses Euclidean Distance to measure similarity between items. Clusters of more than one compound are represented by an "mean" fingerprint











Hierarchical Clustering - Divisive

- Starts with all compounds in one cluster
- The cluster is split into two. These two clusters are then split, and so on until all compounds are in the same cluster
- Not really used in the chemoinformatics community, although some divisive methods (e.g. Divisive K-means) are being explored

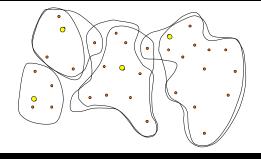
Jarvis-Patrick

- For each compound in a dataset, the J nearest neighbors (i.e. other compounds in the dataset that are the most similar) are identified.
- · Compounds are then placed in the same cluster if they:
 - Are in each others' list of *J*-nearest neighbors
 - $-\ \mathit{K}\,\mathrm{of}\,\mathrm{their}\,\mathit{J}\,\mathrm{nearest}\,\mathrm{neighbors}\,\mathrm{are}\,\mathrm{in}\,\mathrm{common}$
- Requires that J and K be predefined
- · Usually uses Tanimoto as measure of similarity
- Very fast, but clusterings generally not as good as other methods

K-means clustering (Relocation)

- Pick a random set of initial cluster "centroids"
- · Place each of the items into the nearest cluster
- Recalculate centroids
- · Repeat, until no more items change cluster

K-means



K-means

- · Need to decide number of clusters beforehand
- Much faster than Wards
- Generally requires a few (3-50) iterations to settle
- Less likely to produce "singletons" than Wards => you have 'stragglers' in clusters

"New" methods

- Most work was done on clustering methods in the 60's and 70's. Then not much was done until the 90's when a bunch of new methods were developed as a result of the needs of data mining
- These are generally able to handle oddly-shaped clusters better than their older counterparts
- Still yet to be evaluated for chemoinformatics
- Examples: ROCK, CURE, Chameleon
- See Downs & Barnard 2002 paper for more information

Current consensus on Clustering

- Wards provides the most accurate clustering, but is time consuming – O(N²)
- There are multiple ways to choose a level from a Ward's hierarchy
- K-means is much faster than Wards O(N) but not quite as effective
- Jarvis-Patrick still used especially for very large datasets
- A number of new methods have been introduced into the data mining community in the last 10 years, and these are under investigation for use in Chemoinformatics applications

Cluster analysis - General References

- Chemical Similarity Searching, P. Willett, J.M. Barnard, G.M.Downs, J. Chem. Inf. Comput. Sci., 1998, 38, 983-996
- Clustering of Chemical Structures on the Basis of Two-Dimensional Similarity Measures, J. Chem. Inf. Comput. Sci, 1992, 36, 644-649
- Clustering methods and their uses in Computational Chemistry, G.M.Downs and J. M. Barnard, Reviews in Computational Chemistry, 2002, 18, 1-40
- Gaussian mixture clustering and imputation of microarray data, M Ouyang, WJ Welsh, P Georgopoulos, Bioinformatics, 2004, 20, 917-923

Cluster analysis - Application

- Separating Actives and Inactives
 - Use of Structure-Activity Data to Compare Structure-Based Clustering Methods and Descriptors for Use in Compound Selection, R.D. Brown, Y.C. Martin, J. Chem. Inf. Comput. Sci., 1996, 36, 572-584.
- · Finding series
 - Comparison of 2D Fingerprint Types and Hierarchy Level Selection Methods for Structural Grouping using Wards Clustering, D.J. Wild, J. Blankley, J. Chem. Inf. Comput. Sci., 2000, 40, 155-162.

Diversity Analysis

- Arose in the late 1990's in response to the following needs:
 - There was much interest as to how well the corporate collections held by pharmas "covered" possible chemistry / drug space
 - Combinatorial Chemistry experiments were producing many new compounds, and people wanted to know if these compounds added anything new to their corporate collections, i.e. if they made the datasets more diverse, or just replicated what was already in there
 - Libraries of thousands of compounds became available for purchase – are they worth the money?

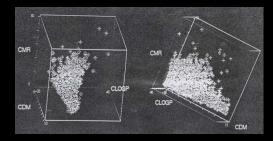
"Descriptor Space"

- If you chose a descriptor set (e.g. of n fingerprint bits), the "descriptor space" represents the space created if you plot each of the descriptors as a separate dimension
- E.g. if we just had two descriptors (mol.wt. and LogP), our descriptor space would be:

"Descriptor Space"

- People began to talk about "Chemistry Space" and "Drug Space":
 - Chemistry space if you made all the possible compounds that could theoretically be made, the chemistry space represents the regions of a multi-dimensional descriptor space (as defined by a given descriptor set) that would be occupied
 - Drug space the regions of the chemistry space that would be inhabited by drug molecules
- So questions began to be asked such as "how much of chemistry space does our corporate collection cover?"; "how could we cover more?"; "what about drug space?" etc.

Simple descriptor space for corporate collection



"Diversity"

- Thus, companies wanted to increase the "diversity" of their corporate collections, i.e. make them cover more chemistry and / or drug space.
- The hope then is that you have a better chance of finding a "hit" in a high-throughput screen, etc.

Measuring Diversity of a set of compounds - Mean dissimilarity method

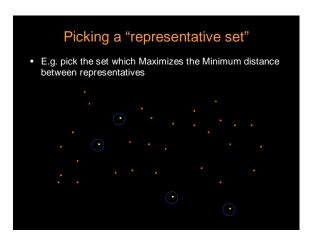
- Calculate the Mean Inter-molecular Similarity of all the pairs of molecules in the set, e.g. using the tanimoto coefficient:
- Mean Dissimilarity = (1 MIMS)
- Gives a measure of *relative* diversity, i.e. how different the molecules are to each other. Doesn't say how much "space" is covered by the molecules

Which is the most "diverse"?

Picking a "representative set"

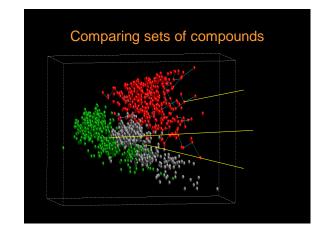
- Find a small subset of compounds from a larger set which "represents" the large set
- We can then, e.g. only screen the small subset, on the assumption that we're "covering the chemistry space" of the large set

Picking a "representative set" • E.g. by clustering, and picking compounds nearest the cluster centroids:



Comparing sets of compounds

- How diverse is this set compared to this other set?
 - You can compare Mean dissimilarity
 - Comparing with a large, general dataset (e.g. World Drugs Index) can give a measure of how a dataset compares in diversity to a large, general collection, which approaches "coverage"
- · How different are these two sets of compounds?
 - Calculate individual diversity measures, then the diversity measure when combined. How much does the diversity go up?
 - BUT: May not be accurately reflected by mean dissimilarity



Modern QSAR

- Use computational statistical and machine-learning methods to build "models of activity" to predict activity of unknown compounds (2D or 3D)
- Models are trained using compounds where activity is known
- Examples:
 - Linear and Multiple regression
 - Principal Component Analysis
 - Recursive partitioning
 - Neural Networks
 - Support Vector Machines
 - Genetic Algorithms
 - Bayesian analysisVersion Spaces
- See NetSci QSAR articles in

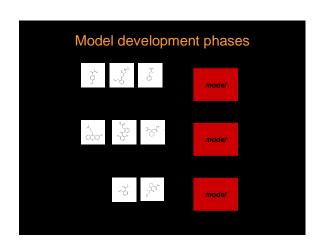
http://www.netsci.org/Science/Compchen

Building models of activity

- Most methods assume a single response variable (e.g. activity) and multiple descriptor variables (e.g. fingerprint bits, properties).
- Linear methods (e.g. Hansch, Free Wilson) assume that the activity varies linearly with the descriptor values that affect it
- Non-linear methods do not make this assumption, and thus are generally the most useful.

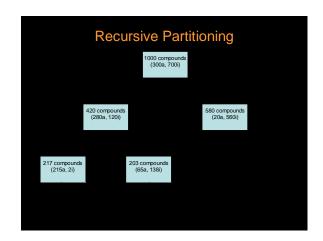
Building models of activity

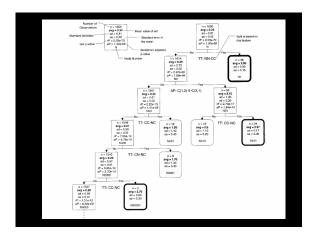
- Most nonlinear methods use three phases:
- A training phase where the models are presented with sets of descriptors and known responses (e.g. fingerprint bits and known activities for a set of compounds)
- A validation phase where the trained model is tested on compounds with known activity, but where the activity isn't presented to the model
- A predictive phase where the model is used to predict activity of unknown compounds



Recursive Partitioning

- One of the first methods to be applied to large datasets (e.g. using HTS data)
- When trained, RP recursively splits a dataset into two subsets, based on the values of a particular descriptor. It splits based on the descriptors and their values that best discriminate between actives and inactives
- The criterion used for splitting can then be used predictively – the predicted activity is usually the average of the set into which it falls







The Opioids for Treating Pain

Ø Powerful analgesics like Morphine

- codeine, methadone, fentanyl, etc.
- three related receptors: $\delta,\,\kappa,\,\mu$
- morphine prefers μ over δ and κ

Ø So, what's wrong with the opioids?

- respiratory depression
- nausea, vomiting, constipation
- addictive

Ø Our Solution

- find a new molecule that prefers δ over u and κ
- okav ... but how?

