Substance Databases and Bioisosteric Compounds

Problems:

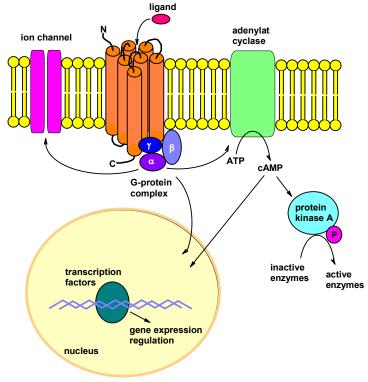
- a) How to choose promising compounds for experimental screening?
- b) How to automate screening (more compounds tested = more hits?)
- 1. step: choice of *target*
- 2. step: How much information about the target is available?
 Are there any lead compounds present?
- 3. step: if yes, generate a virtual substance library based on the lead compound(s) → find/generate similar compounds
- 4. step: planning of synthesis (combinatorial chemistry)

Setup of substance libraries for high thoughput screening (I)

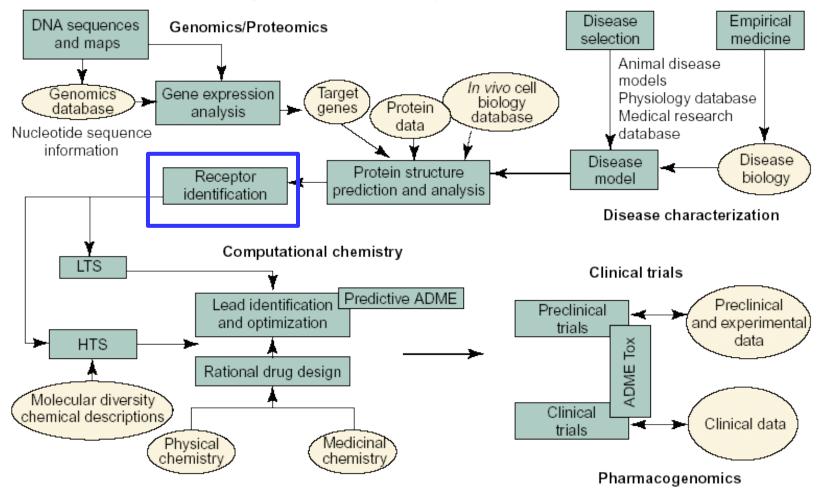
automated test of >1000 compounds on the target

Requires the synthesis of the according number of substances and processing of the results

1. step: choice of *target*



Flow of information in a drug discovery pipeline



Drug Discovery Today

Compound selection

How much information about the target is available?

X-Ray with drug

X-Ray of protein

series of functional compounds

few hits from HTS

knowledge of enzymatic functionality (e.g. kinase, GPCR, ion channel)

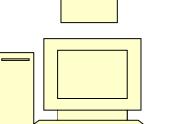
active site

QSAR, generate

pharmacophore

eADME filter

HTS



Setting up a virtual library

docking

increasing information

combi

chem

Properties of combinatorial libraries

Combinatorial libraries are also tailored to their desired application:

random libraries drug-like / diverse scaffolds

focused libraries lead-like / most comprehensive for a

certain class of enzymes

targeted libraries one single enzyme /

substituents as diverse as possible

Chemogenomics

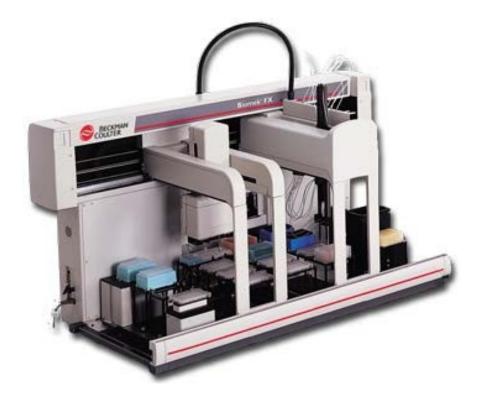
aim: maximum diversity of substance libraries avoiding redundant compounds improved propability of hits in the HTS

Combinatorial approaches in rational drug design

automated tests of >1000 compounds on a single *target* require particularly effective synthesis and screening strategies:

- synthesis robots
- High Throughput Screening

$$R1$$
 N
 $R1$
 N
 $R2$
 $R4$
 $R3$
 $R4$
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Original idea: The more compounds being tested, the higher should be the likelihood of finding a lead compound.

Setup of substace libraries for the High Thoughput Screening (IV)

Synthesis of a multitude of compounds based on a lead compounds required a change in paradigms.

Until the late 80' substances selected for screening were synthesized one by one individually.

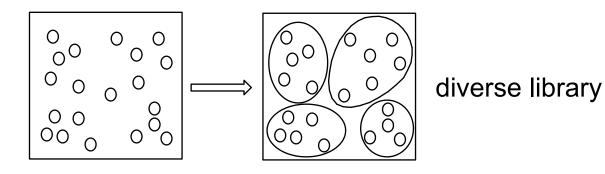
The principles of High Troughput Screening required, however, a different approach.

"If you are looking for the needle in the haystack, it is best not to increase the size of the haystack."

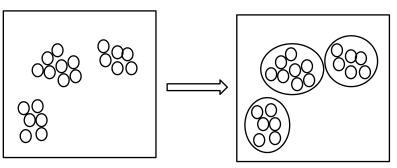


Clustering in sets of data (I)

To evaluate the diversity of a data set, respectively a generated substance library, the obtained compounds have to be grouped to clusters



Test further molecules of the same cluster that produced a hit in the HTS



One molecule of each cluster selected for HTS

The assignment of the molecules is based on their pair-wise similarity.

Encoding of Molecules for Data Base Storage

Each present feature set the corresponding bit on

→ binary *fingerprint* of the molecule

Pro: Resulting bit string allows efficient storage, retrival and comparison (bit-wise AND, OR, EOR operations)

Con: Choice of predefined features is abitrary and may lead to bias of predefined features

Classification of compounds (I)

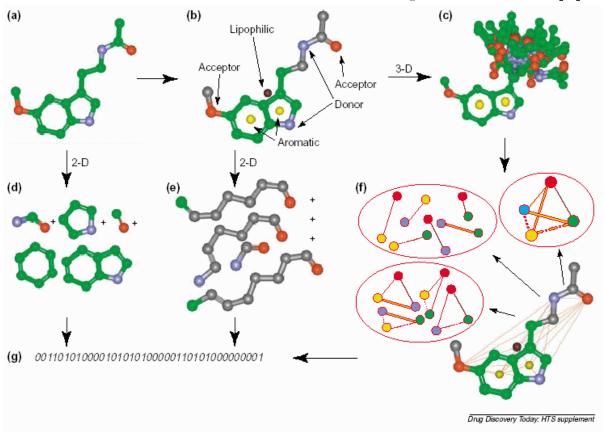


Figure 2. Schematic illustration of primary methods used in molecular fingerprint creation. (a) Create 2-D and 3-D model of molecule; (b) deconstruct the molecule into pharmacophoric elements; (c) generate conformational models; (d) deconstruct the molecule into topological/substructural elements; (e) determine distance between pharmacophoric groups using bond counts; (f) determine 2-, 3- or 4-center distance combinations of pharmacophoric groups for each conformer; and (g) determine the presence or absence of each descriptor element and combine to create a binary fingerprint.

Using pharmacophoric features to obtain a binary *fingerprint* of a molecule

Fingerprints (I)

Similarity of two molecules A and B represented as fingerprints is computed via the Tanimoto coefficient/index (Jaccard index)

$$J(A,B) = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|A \cup B|} = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|A| + |B| - |A \cap B|}.$$

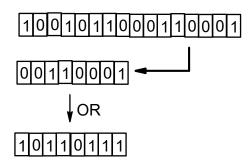
all bits of A and B (union, length of fingerprint

Inherent problem: with increasing length of a fingerprint the chance of common bits is decreasing; so does the information density. As a consequence similarity values become lower than expected. Thus the discriminatory power in virtual screening worsens.

Fingerprints (II)

How to "increase" similarity scores

Folding of fingerprints: perform a logical OR operation on both halves, which yields a shorter fingerprint.



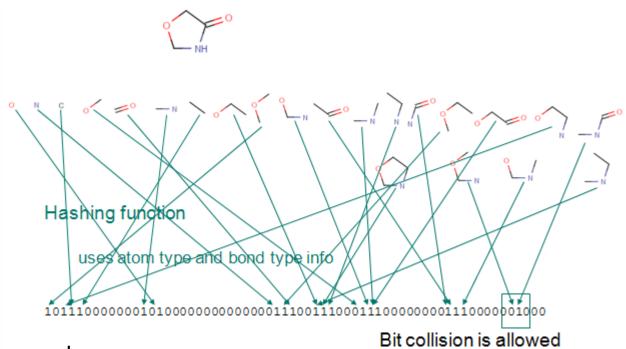
Pro: results in higher bit density and likewise higher similarity Tanimoto coefficients

Con: increases the number of false positive hits (features that are not actually present in the molecule)

Fingerprints (III)

How to "increase" similarity scores

Hashing of fingerprints: Like usual hashing functions single features are rearranged, resp. grouped together (bit collision)



Source: chemaxon.com

Con: A single feature can no longer be identified unambigously, but *similar substructures* can be grouped together.

Classification of compounds (II)

Frequently applied fingerprint concepts are:

- Daylight fingerprint (1024 bits) → see also openbabel
- ISIS MOLSKEYS (atom types, fragments of molecules)
- Circular/Morgan/Extended Connectivity Fingerprints takes the neighborhood of an atom into account Lit: Rogers & Hahn *J.Chem.Inf.Model.* **50** (2010) 742.
- Topological Torsion
 take 1-4 atom type sequences into account
 Lit: Nilakatan et al. *J.Chem.Inf.Comput.Sci.* 27 (1987) 82.
- 2D-Pharmacophore Fingerprints
 use predefined features
 Lit: Gobbi & Poppinger *Biotech.Bioeng.* 61 (1998) 47.
 see also RDKit for python implementation www.rdkit.org

Comparison of fingerprints:

Lit. H.Briem & U.Lessel Persp. Drug Discov. Des. 20 (2000) 231.

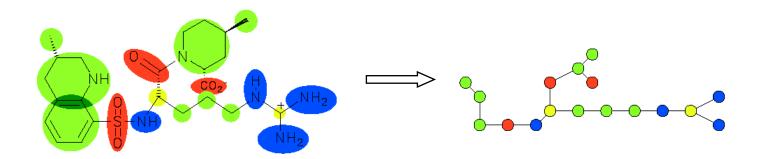
Classification of compounds (III)

FTREES feature trees concept: each node (in a molecule) represents a chemical feature

Lit. M.Rarey & J.S.Dixon J.Comput.-Aided Mol.Des. 12 (1998) 471.

Allows to search for chemically similar compounds in large virtual substance libraries

Lit. M.Rarey & M.Stahl J.Comput.-Aided Mol.Des. 15 (2001) 497.



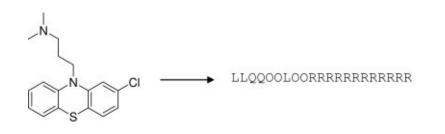
→ the molecule is represented as reduced graph.
The FTREES concept furthermore allows (fast) matching of subtrees to find similar compounds.

Classification of compounds (IV)

Comparison of molecules using (reduced) graphs:

Lit: V.J.Gillet and co-workers J.Chem.Inf.Model. 46 (2006) 577.

Comparison of molecules using alignments: PhAST, LINGO



LINGO freq. "N(C)"1 "0Sc0"1 "ccce"2 "N0c0"1 "C)CC"1 "c(L)"1 "ccc0"1 "0ccc"2	LINGO freq. "ccc("1 "cc00"1 ")CCC"1 "L)cc"1 "cc(L"1 "Sc0c"1 ")cc0"1 "cc0S"1 "CCCN"1	LINGO freq. "c0Sc"1 "0c0c"1 "CN(C"1 "(L)c"1 "CN0c"1 "(C)C"1 "c0cc"2
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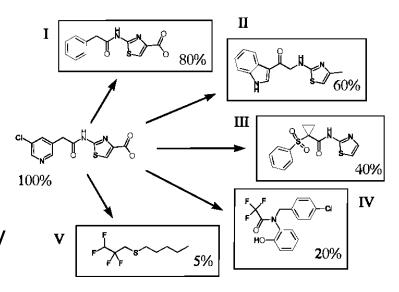
Lit: G. Schneider and co-workers *J. Comput. Chem.* **30** (2009) 761.

Lit: D. Vidal et al. J. Chem. Inf. Model. 45 (2005) 386.

Similarity of chemical compounds

The pair-wise similarity of two molecules can be expressed by similarity indices computed from their binary fingerprints.

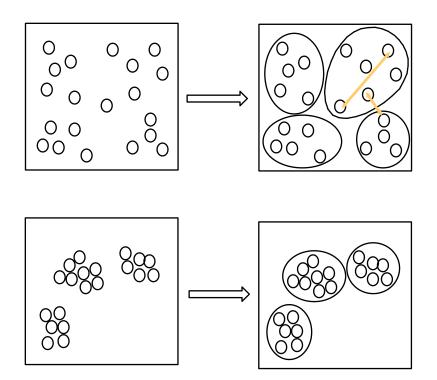
The comparison of binary data is computationally simple, but there are a number of different similarity indices. For the comparison of molecules the Tanimoto index is most frequently being used.



More about similarity indices in lecture 6

Lit. D.R.Flower *J.Chem.Inf.Comput.Sci.* **38** (1998) 379.

Clustering in sets of data (II)

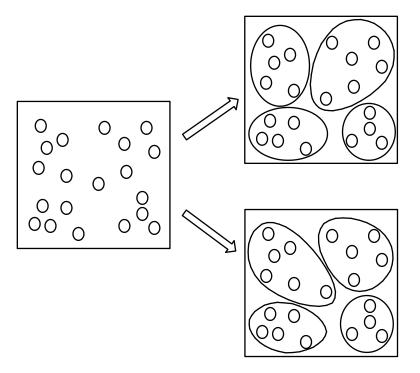


problem: The similarity of two molecules can be higher in between two different clusters than within the same cluster.

- → distance criteria (Eucledian, Manhattan, ...)
- → single linkage vs. complete linkage

Clustering in sets of data (III)

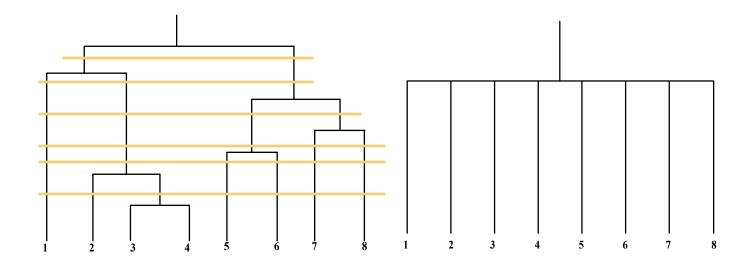
In general: Different algorithms for generating clusters will produce different clusters.



There is a "natural" clustering in the data set, if different methods produce very similar looking clusters.

Methods of clustering (I)

There are two large groups of clustering algorithms: hierarchical and non-hierarchical

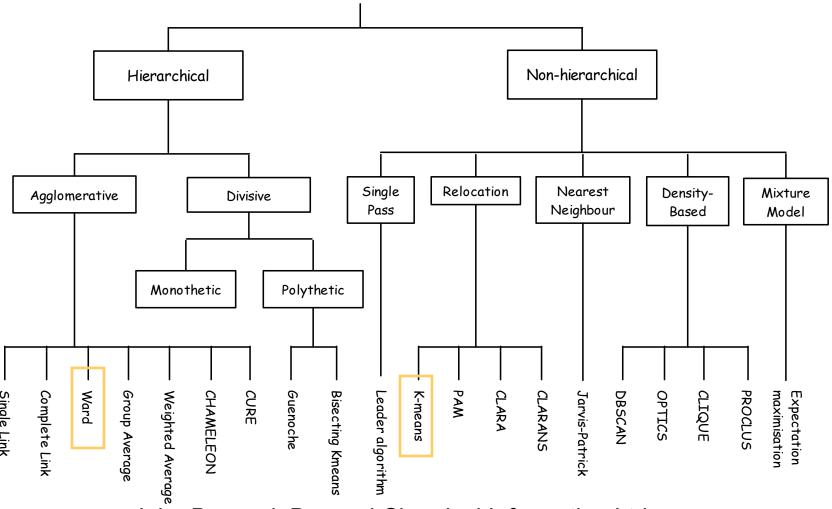


hierarchical clustering methods have the advantage of allowing access a each level.

all methods for clustering are computationally expensive! runtime: O(nN) to $O(n^2N)$ for n out of N molecules

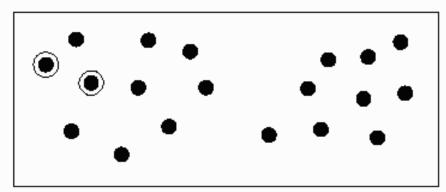
Methods of clustering (II)

"Clustering of clustering methods"- a dendrogram



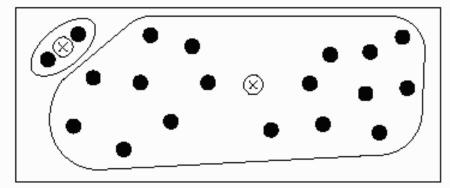
source: John Barnard, Barnard Chemical Information Ltd

K-means with mobile centroid (I)

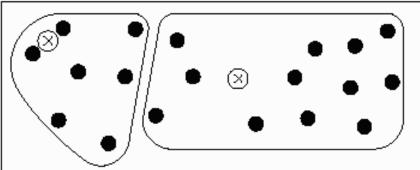


Step 1: K initial centroids are selected

Step 2: Clusters are constructed by affecting each molecule to the closest centroid

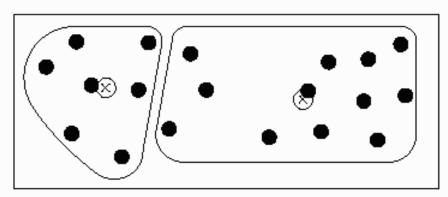


Step 3: Centres of gravity are calculated



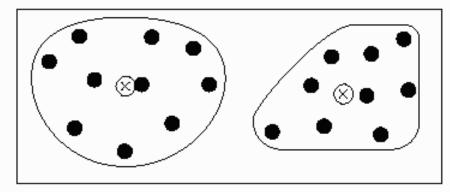
Step 4: Clusters are reconstructed

K-means with mobile centroid (II)



Step 3': Centres of gravity are calculated

Step 4': Clusters are reconstructed

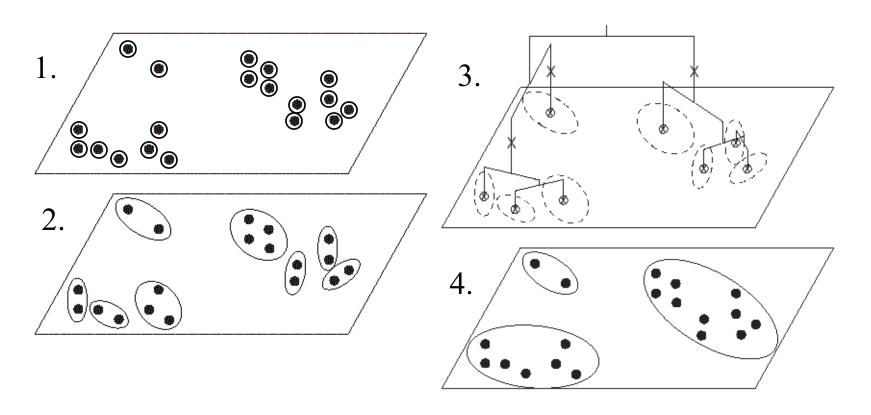


Step 3": Centres of gravity are calculated

Step 4": Clusters are reconstructed Convergence is reached

Disadvantage: spherical clusters are often not adapted optimally regarding the distribution of the molecules in the chemical space

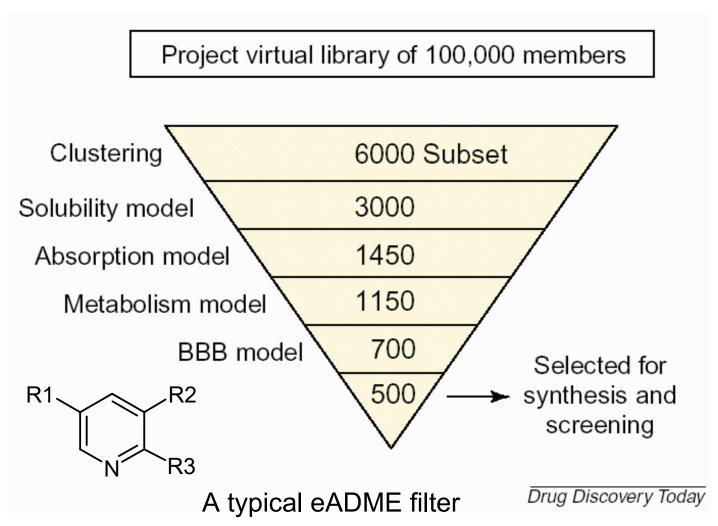
Mobile centres with Ward classification



Most similar points of data are grouped to clusters step by step Advantage: hierarchical, adapted shape of the clusters

Lit: D.Gorse et al. *Drug Discovery Today* **4** (1999) 257.

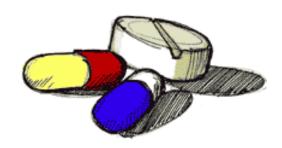
eADME filter proceeding High Throughput Screening (HTS)

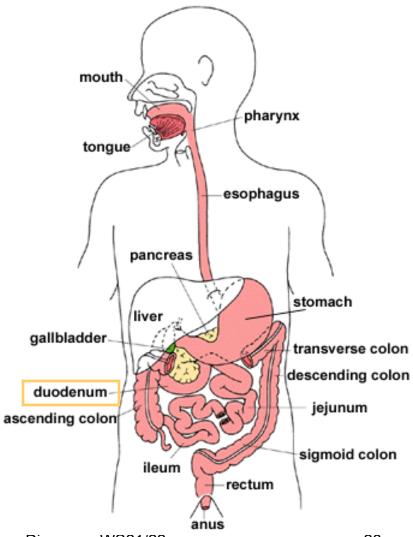


Absorption

How does the drug reach its destination?

During the HTS the bioavailability is neglected first. To ensure the availability of the full dose in the assay, the substances are dissolved in a mixture of water and DMSO instead of pure water.





Evaluation of HTS results

Original idea: Automated test of >1000 compound on the target

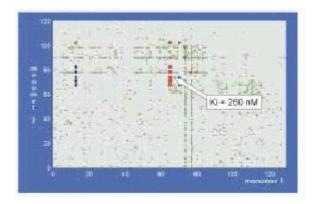
Requires the synthesis of the according number of compounds, as well as processing of the results.

Sources of uncertainties are:

- purity and reliability of the compounds (false negatives)
- colored compounds (false positives)
- colloidal aggregation
- undesired covalent binding
- unspecifically binding compounds (false positives)
 e.g. ibuprofen is a promiscous binder

Pan Assay Interference Compounds (PAINS) → in silico filtering

Lit: Aldrich et al. J. Chem. Inf. Model. 57 (2017) 387 and references therein



Substructures to be avoided



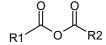
sulfonvl halides



acyl halides



alkyl halides



anhydrides



halopyrimidines

X at any of the carbon atom

perhalo ketones



aliphatic ketones



sulfonate esters



phosphonate esters



aziridines

thioesters





α-halocarbonyls



1,2-dicarbonyls

Michael acceptors

labile single bonds between hetero atoms (N, O, S)



aliphatic esters present in many prodrugs! source: Hugo Kubinyi, www.kubinyi.de

Reactive functional

groups that produce

because they react

with other substances

false positive

screening hits

Setup of substance libraries for high thoughput screening (V)

3. step: if yes, generate a virtual substance library based on the lead compound(s)

systematic variation of the lead compound:

framework side chains / substituents bioisosters

Publically Available Compound Databases

PubChem > 96,000,000 compounds NCBI

ChEMBL > 1,879,000 compounds EMBL

DrugBank > 13,300 drugs University of Alberta

ZINC15 >750,000,000 compounds UCSF

(this list is not comprehensive!)

database	actual drugs	drug-like	lead-like	chemicals
PubChem	++	++	+	++
ChEMBL	++	+	+	_
DrugBank	++	+	-	-
ZINC	+	++	++	++

Often compounds are hyper-linked to further information, such as targets and assays.



Setup of substance libraries for high thoughput screening (VI)

During the optimization from the lead compound to the clinical drug, substances are usually getting larger and more lipophilic (extensive filling of the binding pocket).

Therefore these properties of lead compouds are desirable:

- molecular weight < 250
- low lipophilicity (logP<3) if orally administered
- enough possibilities for side chains
- sufficient affinity and selectivity

Bioisosters (I)

definition: Same number and arrangement of electrons (Langmuir 1919)

e.g.
$$N_2$$
 CO $CN^ CO_2$ N_2O N_3^- CNO- K^+ NH_4^+ Ar

Grimm's hydride exchange law (1925)

Bioisosters (II)

definition:

Compounds or groups that possess near-equal, molecular shapes and volumes, approximately the same distribution of electrons, and which exhibit similar physical properties.

(A. Burger 1970)

e.g.
$$-CI$$
 $-CF_3$ $-CN$ $-NO_2$ $-COCH_3$ $-SO_2CH_3$ $-CHCI_2$ $-CH_2N_3$

Review article: G.A. Patani, E.J. LaVoie, Chem.Rev. 96 (1996) 3147.

Bioisosters (III)

classical (bio-)isosters are sterically and electronically similar

Non-classical isosters:

e.g. exchange of cyclic against linear structures exchangeable groups (no apparent similarity)

Bioisosters (IV)

In the rarest cases bioisosters (similar *chemical space*) will show the same activity profile (similar *biological space*) than the compound they have been derived from.

Aimed are following properties:

better mode of action
improved selectivity
increased bioavailability
less toxic
fewer adverse side effects

allows lower dosage

Monovalent Bioisosters (I)

Exchange of (non-polar) H for F

Fluorine has a similar van der Waals radius compared to hydrogen and is thus about the same size. The lipophilic character is retained (fluorocarbons are even less soluble than hydrocarbons).

Fluorine is the most electronegative element, thus it produces an inductive effect (electron pulling) onto the neighboring C atom. In contrast to the other halogens, however, no mesomeric structures are possible. (attributed to the lack of *d*-orbitals)

$$|\overline{\underline{C}}| \longrightarrow 0 | \longrightarrow 0 | \overline{\underline{C}}| \longrightarrow 0 \oplus 0$$

$$|\overline{\underline{F}}| \longrightarrow 0 | \longrightarrow 0 \oplus 0 | \overline{\underline{F}}| \longrightarrow 0 \oplus 0$$

Monovalent Bioisosters (II)

Exchange of -H for -F

The C–F bond is stronger than the corresponding C–H, C–Cl, C–Br, and C–I bonds and therefore also more inert against metabolic reactions.

In principle, fluorine should also be a suitable H-bond acceptor like nitrogen or oxygen. However, in X-ray structures this is rarely seen.

Lit: H.J. Böhm et al., ChemBioChem 5 (2004) 637.

Fluorine in Hydrogen Bonds

Electronegativity goes along with the tendency to accept electrons, not protons. Covalently bound fluorine is, however, a weak base and an extremely weak proton acceptor. Corresponding H-bonds are very weak.

Thus, flourine is mainly used to block metabolically labile sites in drugs, or to increase lipophilicity without increasing the size at that spot.

Lit: J.A.K. Howard et al. *Tetrahedron* **52** (1996) 12613. J.D. Dunitz, R. Taylor, *Chem.Eur.J.* **3** (1997) 89.

Monovalent Bioisosters (III)

Exchange of -OH for -NH₂

Both groups possess similar size and shape
Both are H-bond donors as well as H-bonds acceptors
In heterocyclic rings the equilibrium tautomer is shifted:

Tautomers

Isomers that are interconvertible by the (formal) shift of a hydrogen (atom or proton) along the switch of a single bond and an adjacent double bond. In solution the equilibrium distribution of the possible tautomeric forms is dependend on pH, solvent, ions, ...

Monovalent Bioisosters (IV)

Exchange of –SH for –OH

Sulfur is much larger than oxygen

$$R_{vdw}(O) = 1.4 \text{ Ångstrom}$$

$$R_{vdw}(O) = 1.4 \text{ Ångstrom}$$
 $R_{vdw}(S) = 1.85 \text{ Ångstrom}$

and of lower electronegativity

Thus hydrogen bonds to SH are weaker.

Anyhow, thioles are more acidic and stronger dissociated than the corresponding alcoholes.

Cys-SH
$$pK_a$$
 8.3

Ser-OH
$$pK_a \approx 13$$

In heterocyclic rings the corresponding thiol can be formed by tautomerization similar to -NH₂

Monovalent Bioisosters (V)

Exchange of -CI for -CH₃

Chlorine and the methyl group possess the same size and lipophilicity.

In contrast to the C–Cl bond the corresponding C–CH₃ bond is metabolized and excreted more rapidly.

Monovalent Bioisosters (VI)

Exchange of –CF₃ or –CN for –Br

The trifluoromethyl and the cyano (=nitrile) group have the same electronic properties, but the –CN group is much more hydrophilic. Bromine is similar in size and somewhat more lipophilic than the nitrile group.

Rule of thumb concerning bioavailability:

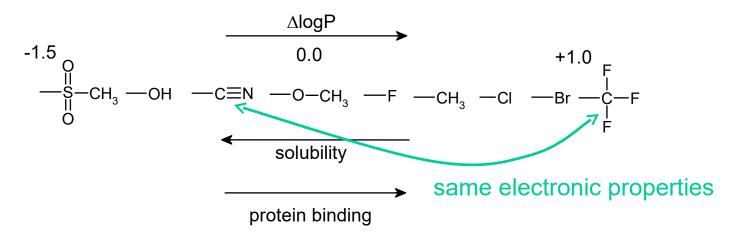
Lipophilic compounds are absorbed worse and are increasingly metabolized in the liver.

Usually hydrophilic compounds are easily absorbed but likewise being excreted by the renal pathway more rapidly.

measure: logP = n-octanol / water partition coefficient

LogP and Solubility

Rule of thumb concerning **solubility**: Lipophilic compounds are less soluble than hydrophilic ones measure: logP = n-octanol / water partition coefficient

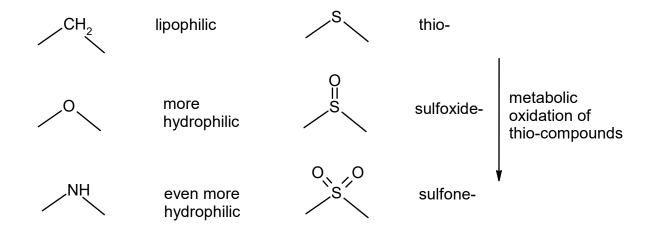


Fragmental contribution of substituents

Lit: A.G. Leach et al. *J.Med.Chem.* **49** (2006) 6672.

Divalent Bioisosters

Exchange of the -CH₂- (methylene) group



Compounds containing B-H or Si-H bonds are usually to sensitive against hydrolysis.

However, here are some examples of actual drugs

Boron: bortezomib, bosentan, dutogliptin, flovagatran

Silicon: flusilazol

Trivalent Bioisosters

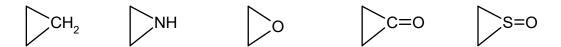
Exchange of the –CH= group for –N= or –NH–

Important and successful especially in heterocyclic ring systems

Tetravalent Bioisosters

Divalent ring equivalents

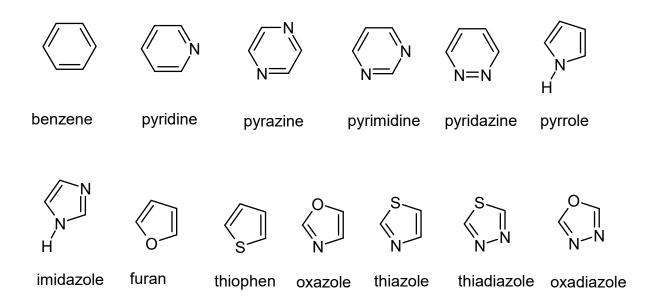
Exchange of the –CH₂– group



Also possible in larger ring systems (7-membered rings etc, see benzodiazepines):

Trivalent ring equivalents

Exchange of the –CH= group



Enables frequently the fine tuning of the functional and ADME profile

c.f. sildenafil versus vardenafil

Non-classical Isosters (II)

ring opening

ring closure

Frequently used to "freeze" an active conformation

Thermodynamic effects

Ring opening: Generates more degrees of freedom, thus loss of entropy upon binding to the enzyme

ring closure: Reduced loss of entropy upon binding

Bioisosteric exchange of functional groups

hydroxyl group -OH

Here: Conservation of H-bond properties has priority

Examples of Bioisosters (I)

Exchange benzene-thiophene

Avoids expoxidation of the benzene ring, thus reduced hepatotoxicity

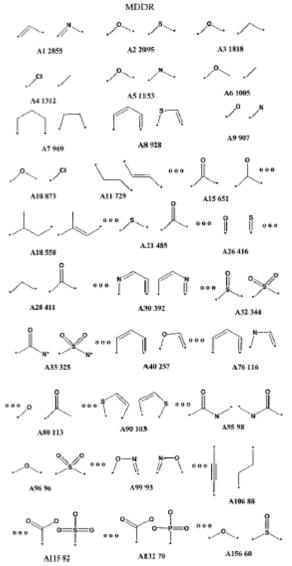
Examples of Bioisosters (II)

Exchange carboxylate-tetrazole

Comparable acidity along improved solubility

Lit. C.D. Siebert Chemie in unserer Zeit 38 (2004) 320.

Distribution of Chemical Replacements (I)



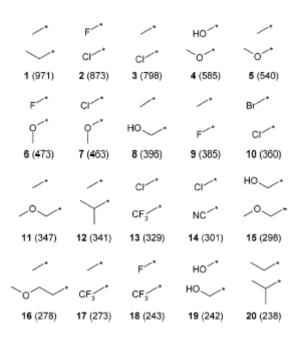
Analysis of the MDL Drug Data Report (>100,000 drugs)

The most common replacements of fragments (starting from top, left)

Lit. R.P. Sheridan J.Chem.Inf.Comput.Sci. 42 (2002) 103.

Distribution of Chemical Replacements (II)

In house database (50,000 drug-like compounds)



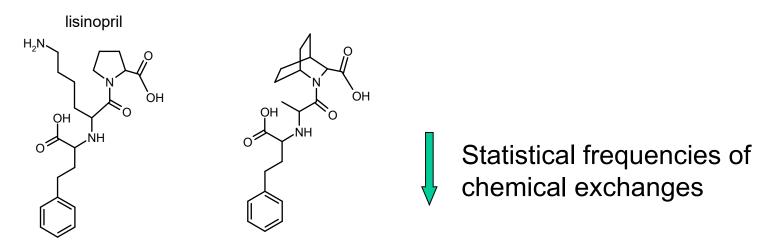
Most common replacements rank (count)

Most common sidechains **rank** (count)

Lit. D.Y. Haubertin, P. Bruneau J. Chem. Inf. Model. 47 (2007) 1294.

Statistical Evaluation of Bioisosteric Exchanges in Drugs

Align similar drugs of the same target (e.g. ACE-Inhibitors)



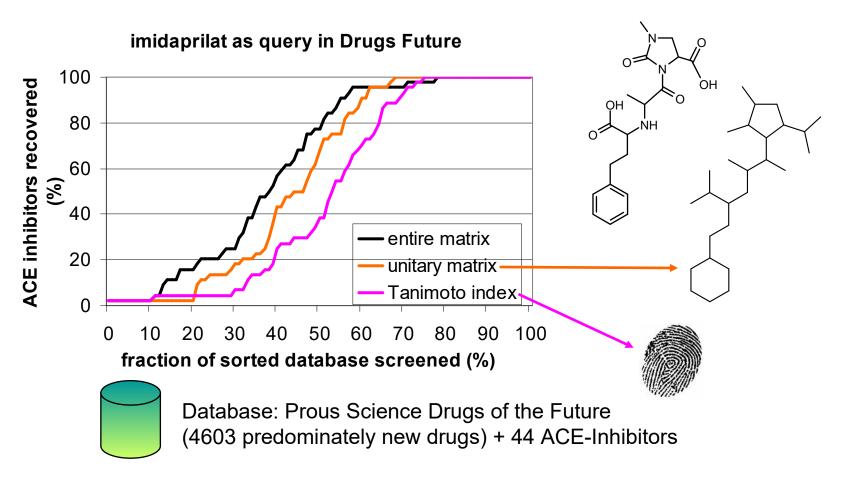
Bioisosteric exchange matrix (similar to amino acid exchange matrices such as PAM250 or BLOSUM62)



Predict similarity of new compounds (in virtual screening)

Lit. M.Krier, M.C.Hutter *J.Chem.Inf.Model.* 49 (2009) 1280.

Bioisosteric Similarity vs Substructure matching and fingerprints



Lit. M.Krier, M.C.Hutter *J.Chem.Inf.Model.* 49 (2009) 1280.

Systematic Variation – in silico approaches (I)

Analog to the approach used in the feature trees, each molecule is splitted into *nodes* and *linkers*. Each node corresponds to a chemical group and each linker to a bond between such groups.

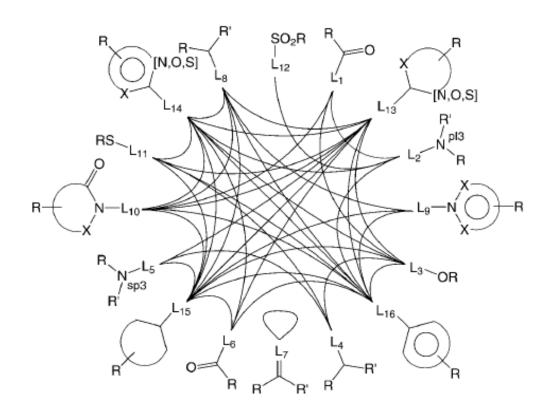
By using defined types of bond cleavages (retro synthesis), matching fragments can be searched in data bases and combined differently.

RECAP concept:

Lit. X.Q.Lewell et al. J.Chem.Inf.Comput.Sci. 38 (1998) 511.

Systematic Variation – in silico approaches (II)

A more specific set of rules for bond cleavages and reformation of bonds is realized by the **BRICS** concept. Here, information for the synthesis of actual combinatorial libraries was compiled.



Lit. D. Degen et al. ChemMedChem 3 (2008) 1503.