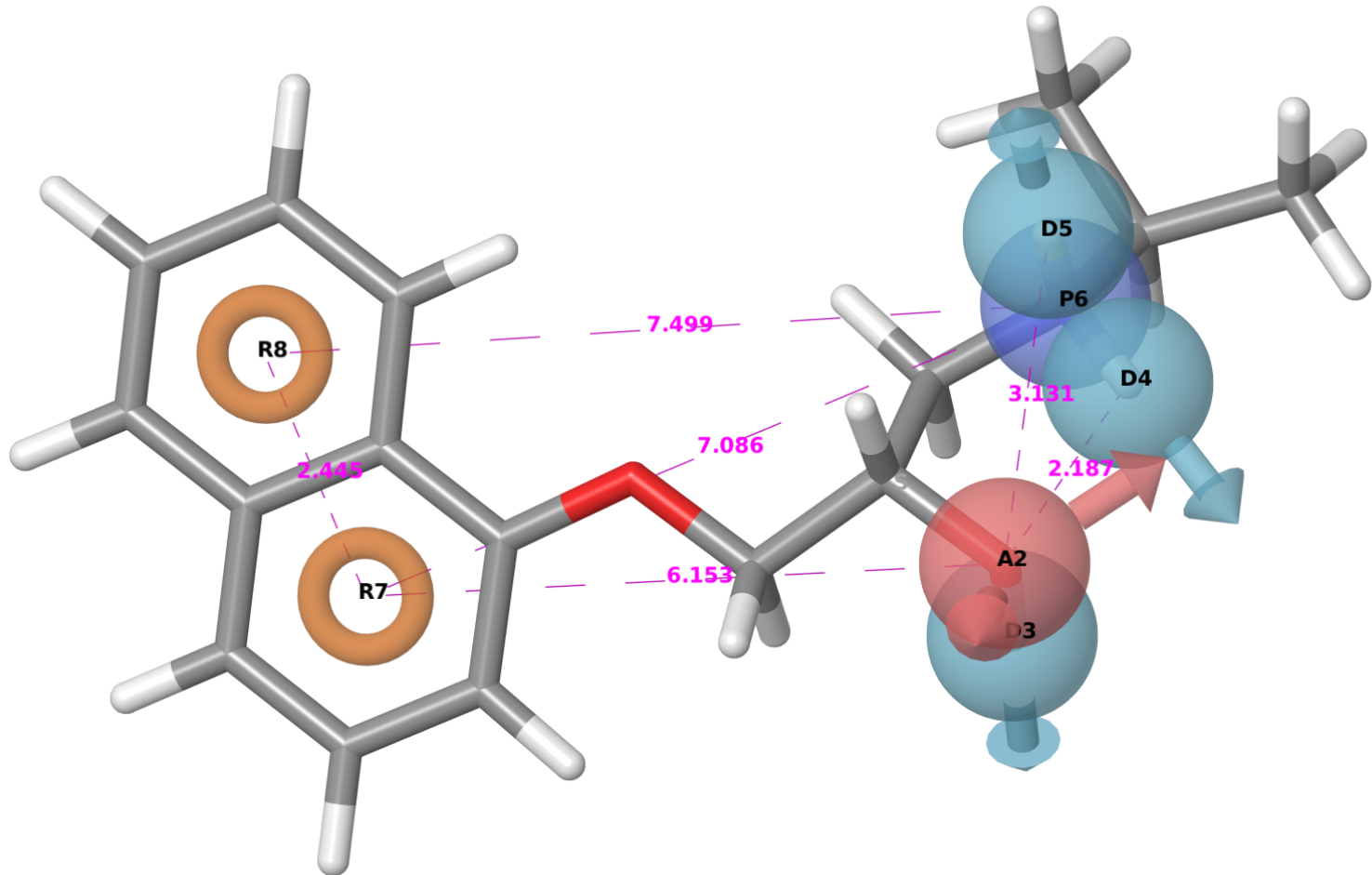




Ligand-Based Design





What is Ligand-Based Design?

Traditional approach in the Computer-Aided Drug Design applied especially in the era before protein crystallography (→ structure based design), **more than 50%** of current FDA-approved drugs were optimized by (some technique related to) LBD*

Applicability domain

- 3D structure of the receptor is unknown (e.g. membrane anchored proteins, receptors or ion channels composed of multiple subunits, problematic expression and purification)
- known hit(s) from screening of compounds from natural extracts or synthetic libraries

Examples of drugs designed by LBD:

- antidepressants and most of psychopharmaca (G-protein coupled receptors, ion channels)
- ACE inhibitors (membrane-anchored enzyme) → case study
- local anesthetics (ion-channel)

*Shim J., MacKerell A.D., Jr.: Computational ligand-based rational design: role of conformational sampling and force fields in model development. *Med. Chem. Commun.* (2011) 2, 356.



Theory behind LBD

Ligand-receptor complementarity

arrangement of functional groups of affine ligands is complementary to the arrangement of the functional groups in receptor (*lock & key, induced fit, conformational selection, population shift*)

Internal strain

biologically active molecules (ligands) bind with their macromolecular counterpart (receptor) in a conformation energetically not too far from the global minimum, i.e. in a conformation with low internal strain

Pharmacophore

based on a superposition (alignment) of the low energy conformers (identified in a conformational search) of a single or several compounds a common pharmacophore can be derived

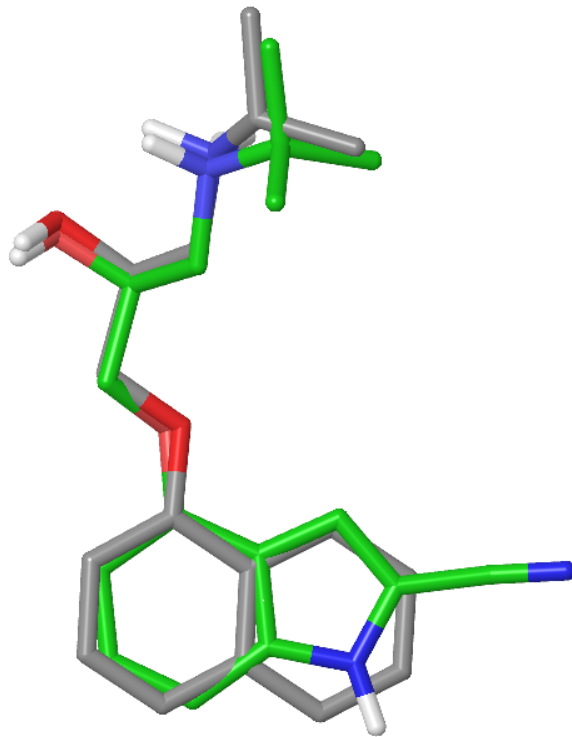
Similarity

ligands with a similar structure bind to receptor in a similar mode (no multiple binding modes)

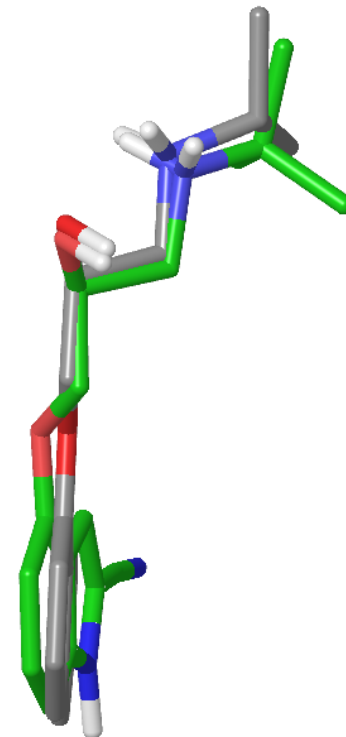


Internal strain – a real-world example

Superposition of the bioactive conformation of Cyanopindolol (green carbon atoms, PDB ID: 2VT4) at β_1 -receptor and low-energy conformer of Propranolol (grey carbon atoms) identified in conformational search using the OPLS2005 force-field in water; ΔE vs. glob.min. = 0.89 kcal/mol



TOP VIEW



SIDE VIEW



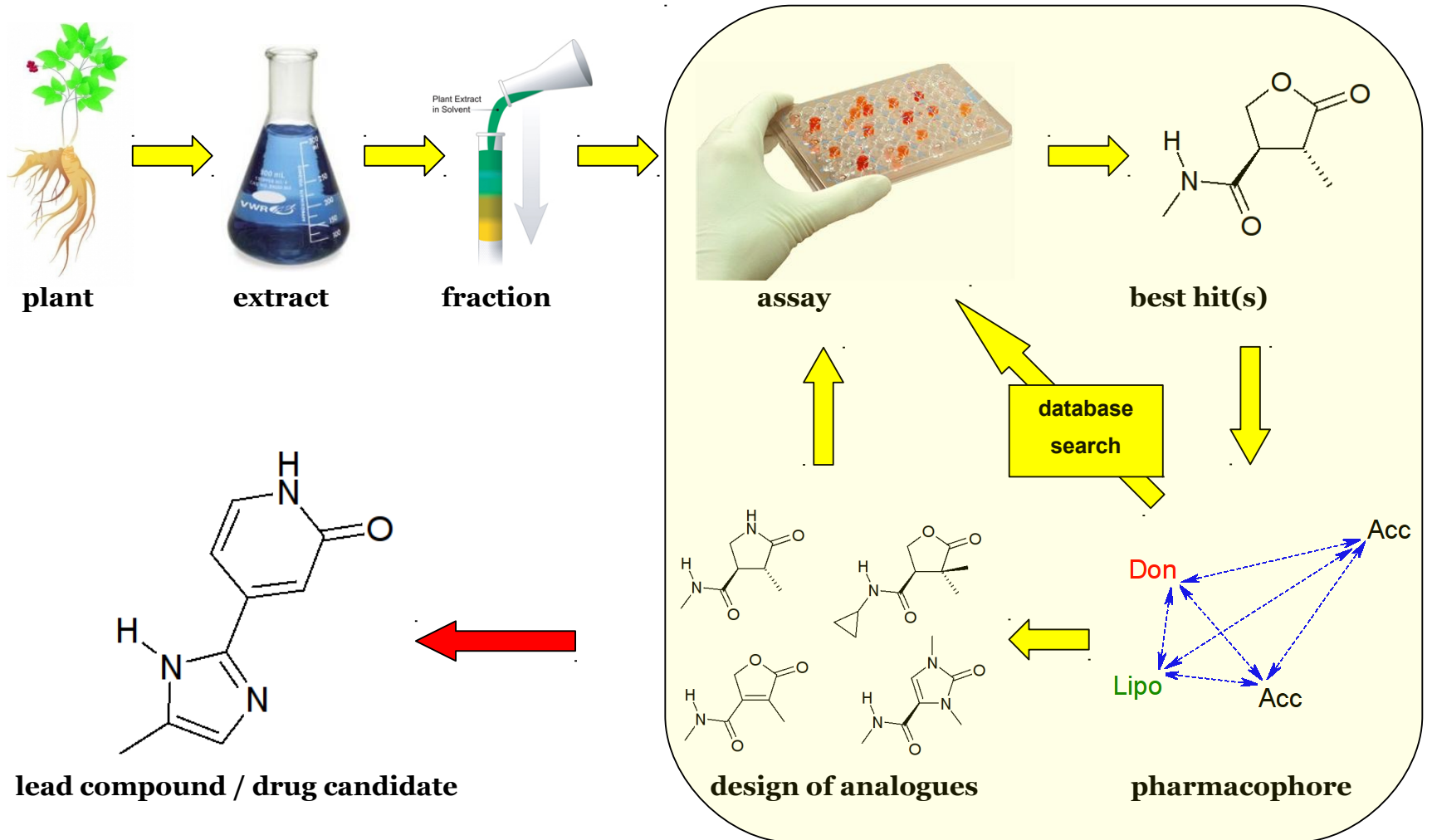
What do we need for a successful LBD?

In LBD the ligands are the only source of data and many molecular descriptors are calculated in order to rationalize scoring and selection (p*K*_a, polar surface area, molecular weight, etc.)

- a **greater number** of chemical compounds (usually in later stages of development)
- **diverse scaffolds** help to restrict conformational space
- some **rigid** or at least **conformationally limited** compounds
- active as well as **inactive** molecules, large **range of activities**
- some **directional properties** (e.g. H-bond extension vectors, lone pair vectors, ring planes)
- know **protonation state** at the site of action
- advanced molecular modeling software to perform **conformational search**, **superimpose** conformers (alignment), build **pharmacophore** and calculate **score**



LBD - Schematic overview

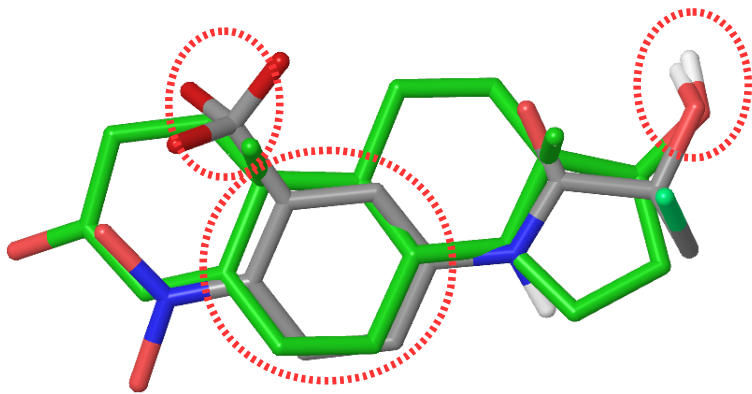




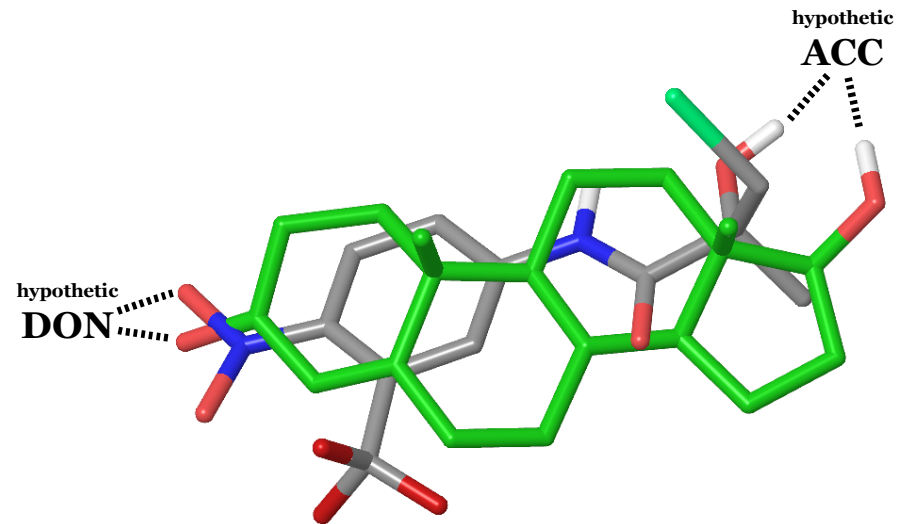
Alignment

Good Alignment → Good Pharmacophore

Molecular alignment – finding the best overlap between multiple molecules (conformers)
atom-based, property-based (e.g. electrostatic potential, field based), hypothetical partner-based...



Functional group-based alignment



Hypothetic partner-based alignment



Alignment

Good Alignment → Good Pharmacophore

Advanced mathematical algorithms

Flexible alignment – simultaneous minimization of strain and fit to a specified template or pharma-cophore; Weighted alignment – pairs have unequal importance (weight)

The most simple measure of goodness of fit is the **Root Mean Square Deviation (RMSD)**:

$$\text{RMSD} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \delta_i^2}$$

, where N is number of pairs, δ is distance between two points

Interaction energy-based scoring methods → QSAR models (receptor surrogate), Comparative Molecular Field Analysis (CoMFA), Comparative Molecular Similarity Indices Analysis (CoMSIA)

Special scoring methods → Hologram QSAR (fragments), GRIND (does not need alignment, grid-based), VolSurf (3D voxels – shape, electro, volume → compressed to 2D descriptors)...



Pharmacophore

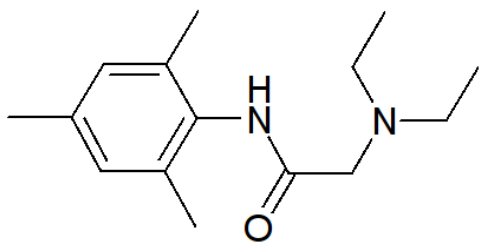
IUPAC definition: “The ensemble of steric and electronic features that is necessary to ensure the optimal supramolecular interaction with a specific biological target structure and to trigger (or block) its biological response”

The most active (sometimes the most rigid compound) is usually taken as a **template** from which initial pharmacophore is derived. In the course of the study the pharmacophore is further refined.

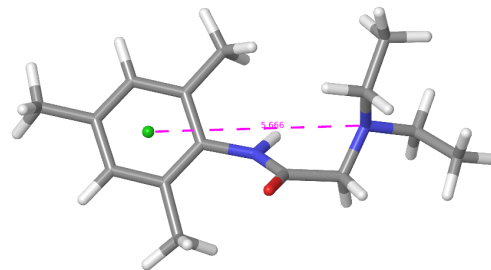
Various levels of abstraction for representing molecules

Descriptive → *arom. ring linked by a heteroatom and two carbon atoms to a tertiary amine...*

1-dimensional → e.g. SMILES code: CCN(CC)CC(=O)Nc1ccccc1



2-dimensional → e.g. 2D formula

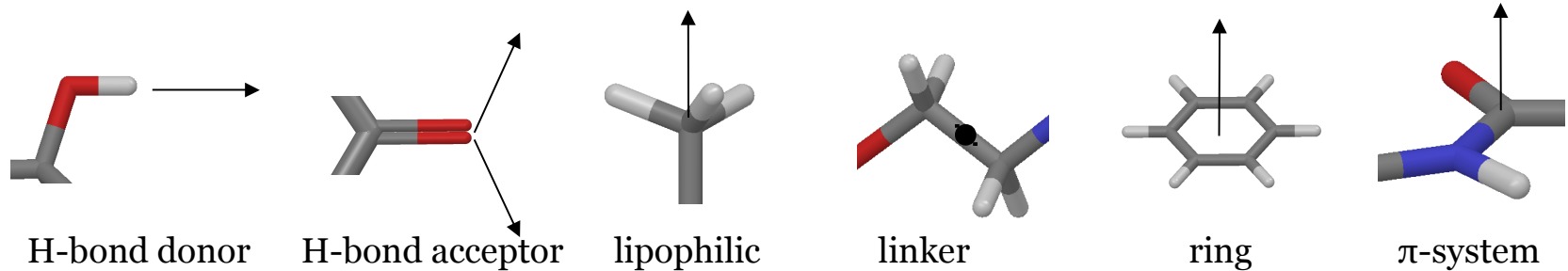


3-dimensional → e.g. 3D conformation



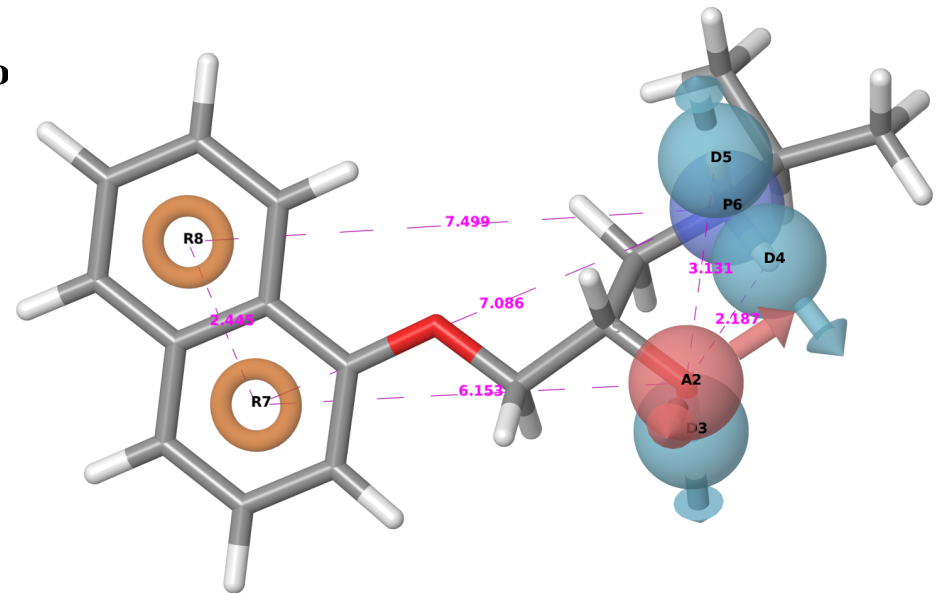
Pharmacophore features

Typical molecular features (functional groups) recognized by modeling software



Extended pharmacophore representation

- Information about forbidden zones
- Directional properties like:
extension vectors, ring normals, π -systems
- Angles, dihedral angles between properties
- Others, depending on which properties are supported by the database to be searched





Database Searching – Novel Scaffolds

The better the search query, the better the results :)

Similarity searches using

- Pharmacophore - certain form of pharmacophore is used to identify similar molecules
- Fingerprint – combination of various properties (descriptors)

Most popular freely accessible databases

- PubChem - <http://pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>
- ZINC Database - <http://zinc.docking.org/>
- ChEMBL - <https://www.ebi.ac.uk/chembl/db/>
- eMolecules - <http://www.emolecules.com/>
- Relibase (search within data stored at the Protein Data Bank) - <http://relibase.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/>

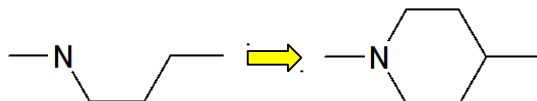
Non-free

- Cambridge Crystallographic Data Bank (CSD) - www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk
- commercial libraries (pharma companies)

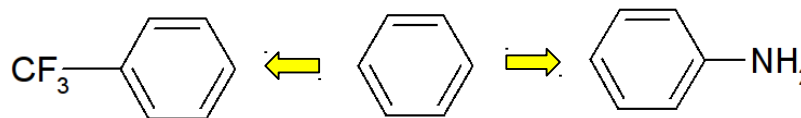


Ligand Optimization Techniques in LBD

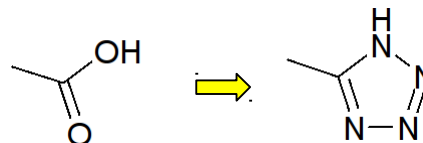
- rigidification



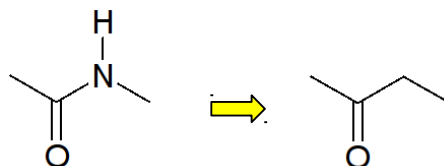
- optimizing electronic distribution



- isosteric & isoelectronic replacements



- replacing scissile bonds



- removing chirality (synthesis is usually easier without chiral centers), if it does not worsen selectivity

- exploring new existence of new pockets/interactions by extending ligand and substitutions

All of the above must be done while **monitoring or actively co-optimizing ADMET** properties and checking **compatibility** with the **pharmacophore**



Ligand Based Design - Conclusion

Advantages

- no need to know 3D structure of target
- can produce drug candidates comparable to structure-based design

Disadvantages

- need of a higher number of synthesized and tested compounds (systematic structural changes)
- compared to structure-based design: the solvation pattern of the binding site is unknown → cannot improve binding by displacing water; interacting partners on target macromolecule not known → are assumed protonation states correct?

Prerequisites

- a classical target (constant, small or negligible induced fit)
- good conformational search algorithm, force-field parameters, alignment protocol, scoring function

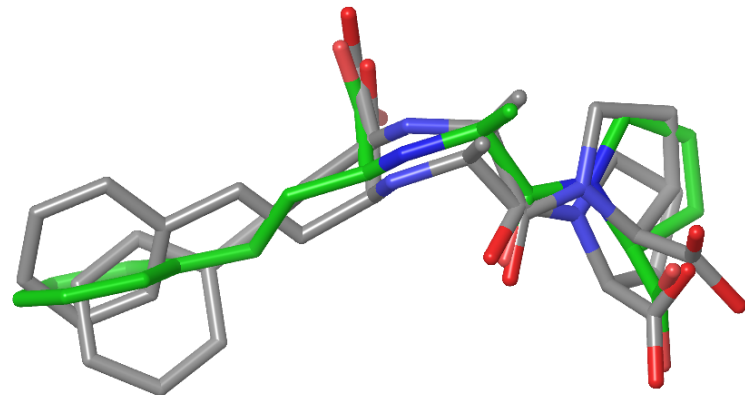
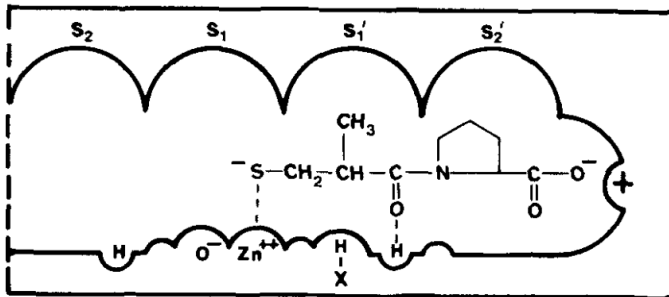
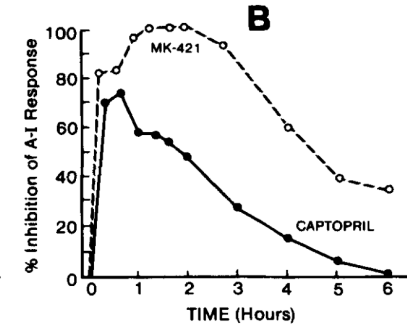
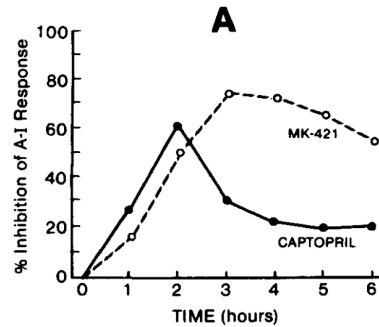
Might fail if

- big conformational changes at receptor site, depending on the ligand
- multiple binding modes
- internal strain needed for proper ligand accommodation higher than assumed



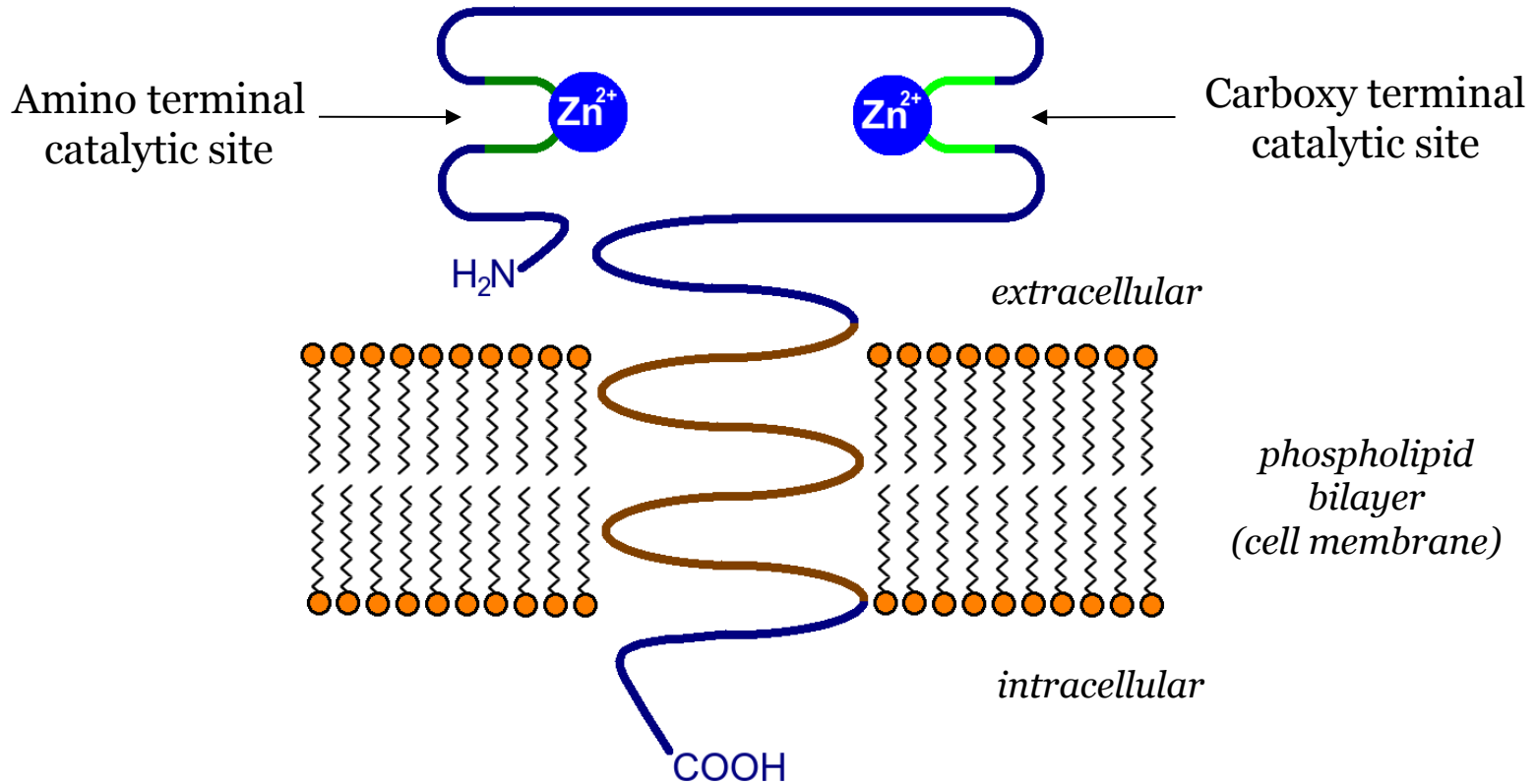
Ligand-Based Design – Case Study

Angiotensin-Converting Enzyme Inhibitors





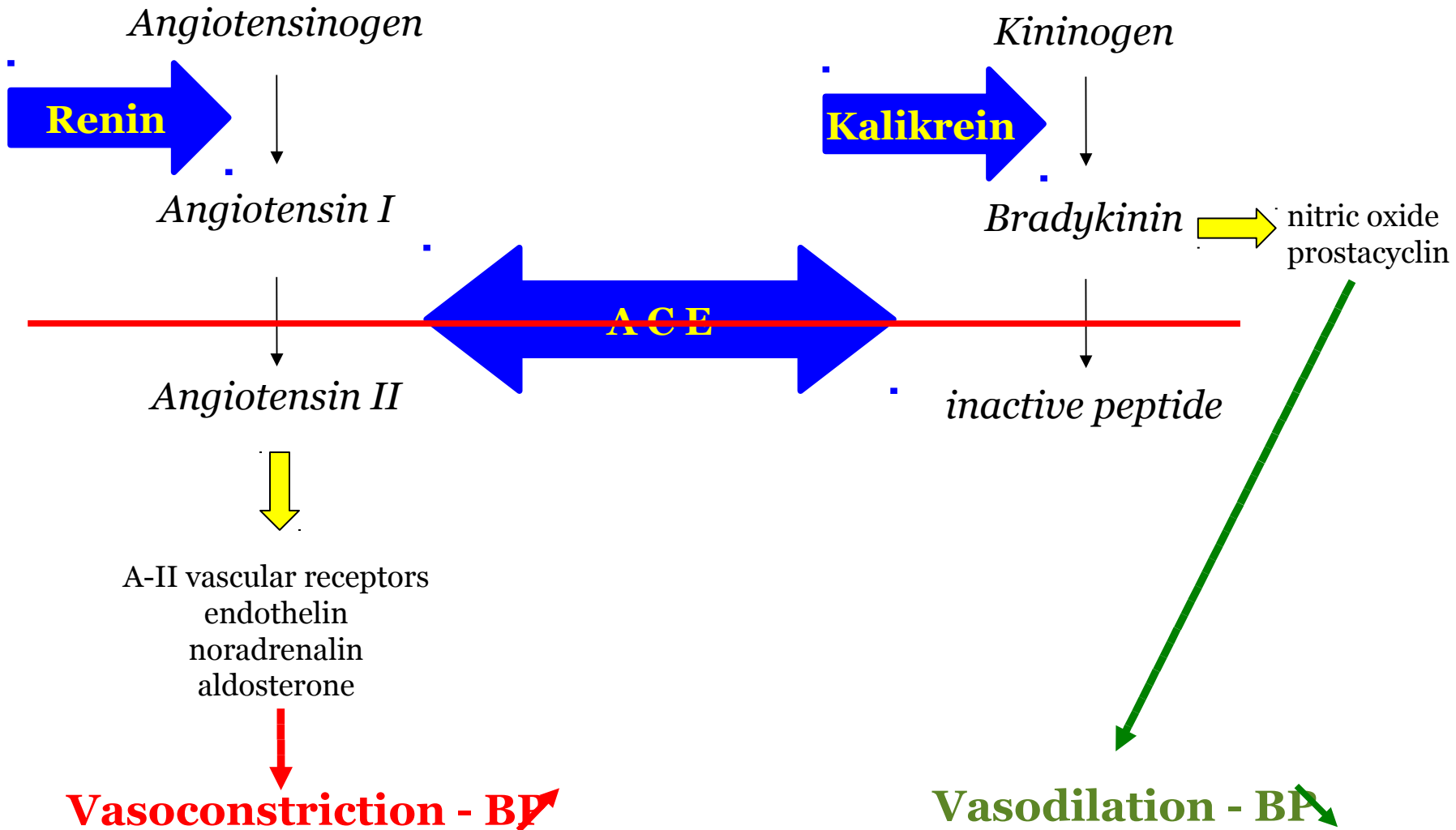
Ligand-Based Design – Case Study



Structure of ACE C-domain was elucidated as late as in 2003.

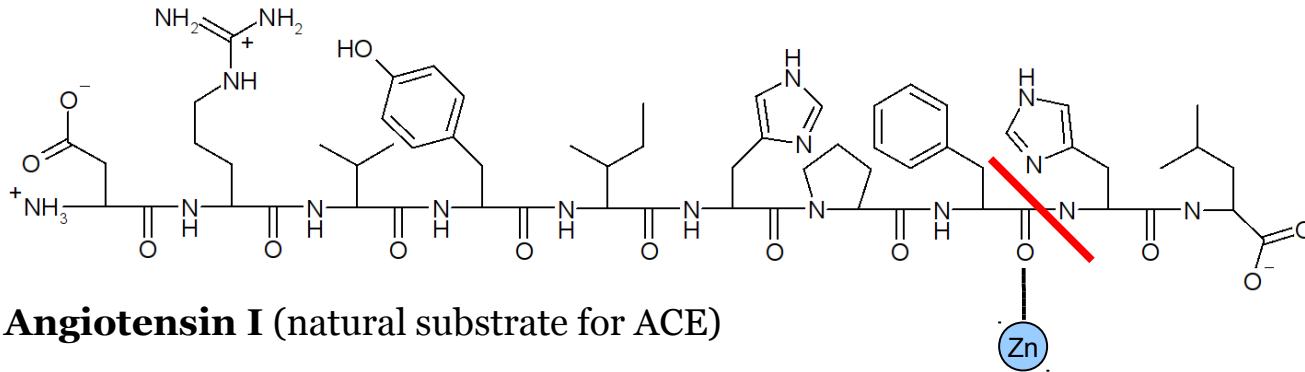


ACE in the Renin-Angiotensin-Aldosterone System





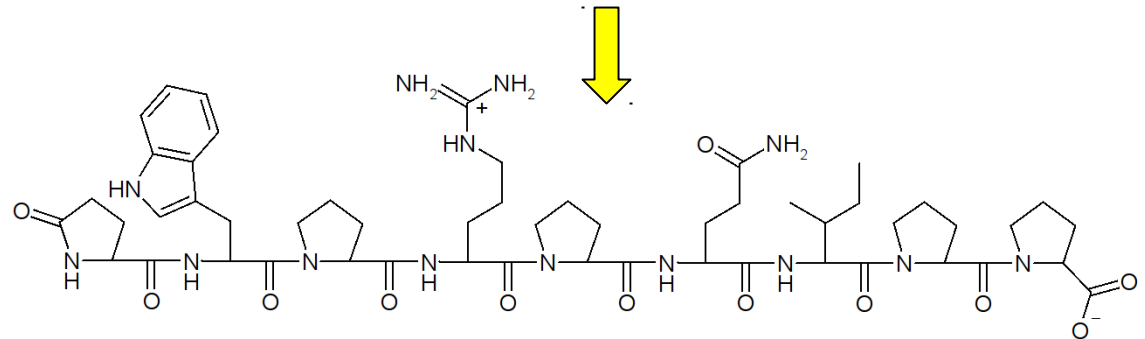
Discovery of Teprotide



Bothrops jararaca

Snake venom (bradykinin “potentiating” effect)

S. H. Ferreira, et al., *Biochemistry*, 9, 2583 (1970).



M. A. Ondetti, et al., *Biochemistry*, 10, 4033 (1971).



Ligand Based Design of ACE inhibitors

based on

Angiotensin-Converting Enzyme Inhibitors: Medicinal Chemistry and Biological Actions

Medicinal Research Reviews, Vol. 2, No. 1, 1-41 (1982)

+

Recent Developments in the Design of Angiotensin-Converting Enzyme Inhibitors

Medicinal Research Reviews, Vol. 5, No. 4, 483-531 (1985)

+ additional literature > 1985

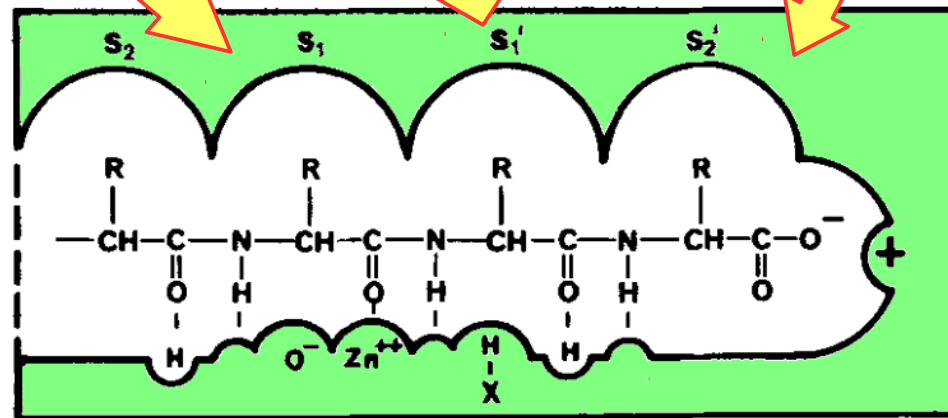


Mapping binding site using peptides

S ₁ Subsite	
Hip-X-His-Leu	
X	K _i
Arg	0.4
Phe	0.8
Pro	1.2
Ala	1.3
Ile	1.6
Ser	1.8
Glu	4.5
D-Phe	1.5

S ₁ ' Subsite			
Hip-X-Leu		X-Gly	
X	K _i	X	I ₅₀
Pro	0.14	Val	1100
Arg	0.77	Arg	1200
His	*	Ala	2500
Ala	1.8	Lys	3200
Phe	1.9	Phe	3700
Glu	4.0	His	6300
		Gly	7200
		Leu	8800
		Glu	10000
		Pro	17000

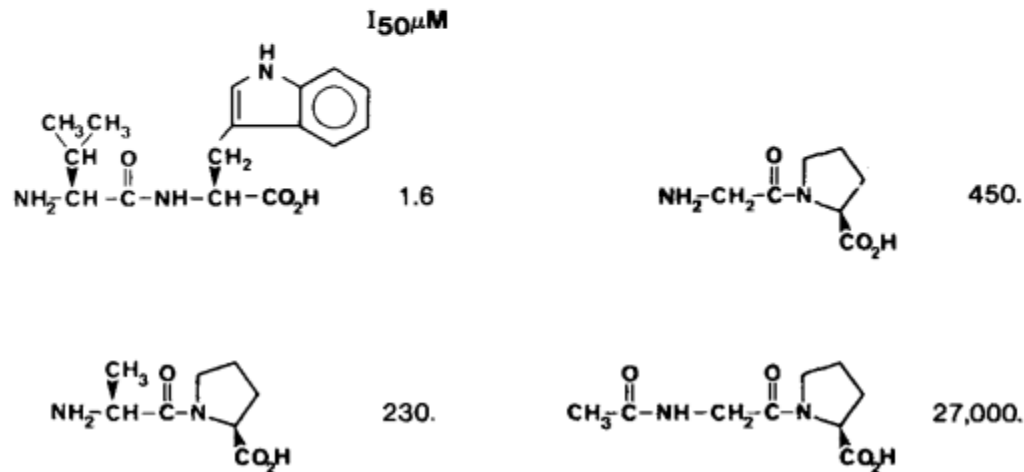
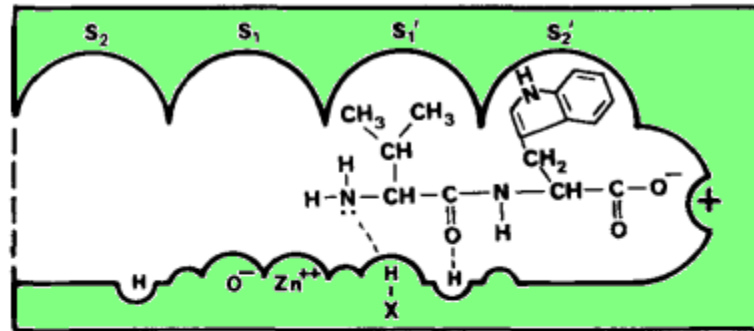
S ₂ ' Subsite					
Hip-His-X		Gly-X		HSCH ₂ CH ₂ COX	
X	K _i	X	I ₅₀	X	I ₅₀
Arg	0.08	Trp	30	Trp	0.07
Pro	0.64	Pro	210	Pro	0.20
Leu	*	Phe	450	Phe	0.43
Ala	3.2	Ala	2000	Ala	0.85
Phe	3.7	Leu	2500	Leu	1.6
Glu	>50.	Arg	3200	Arg	1.7
		Lys	5400	Lys	2.4
		Glu	5400	Gly	3.2
		Gly	7200	Asp	68.
		Asp	9200	D-Pro	1800.





Dipeptide Inhibitors **without** Zn ligand

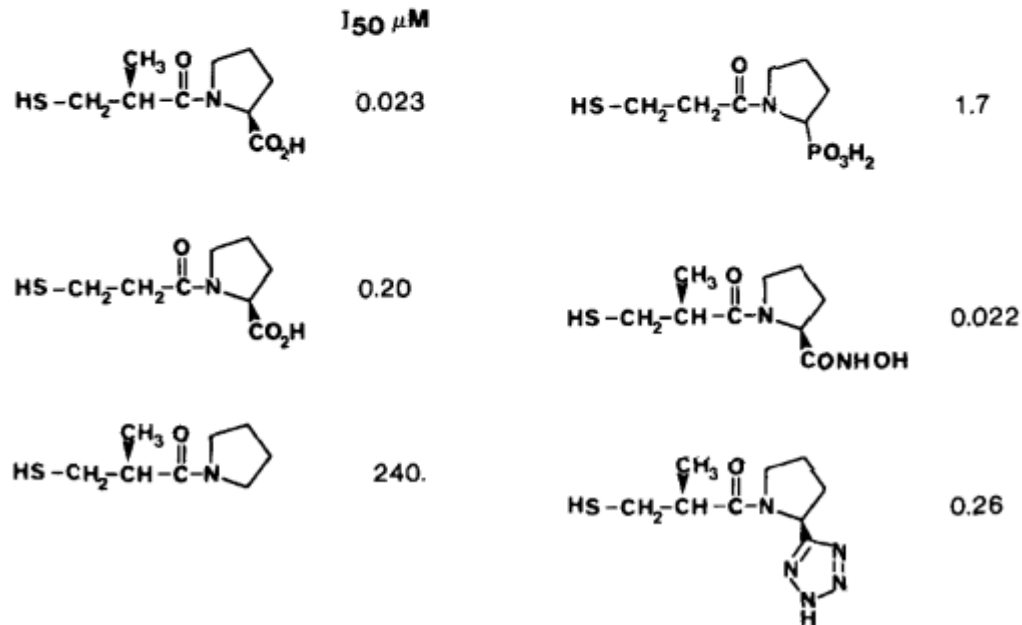
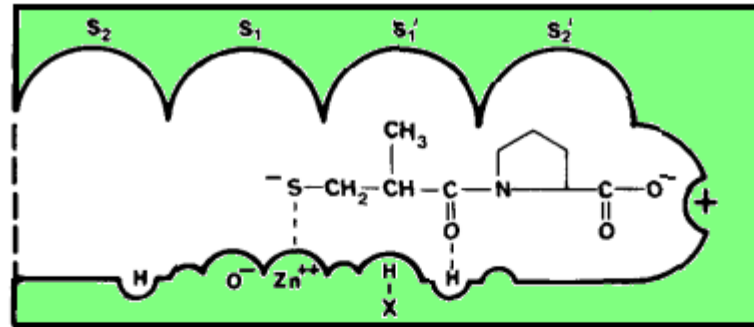
(Combining the best fragments from the peptide scan)





Dipeptide Inhibitors **with** Zn ligand

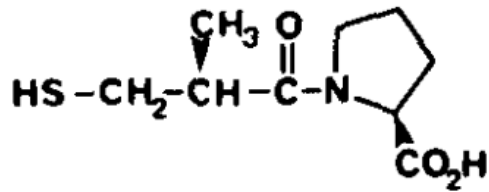
(Inspecting role of the terminal carboxyl by isosteric replacements)





Dipeptide Inhibitors **with Zn ligand**

(Searching for the key features – ring size, flexibility, carbonyl)



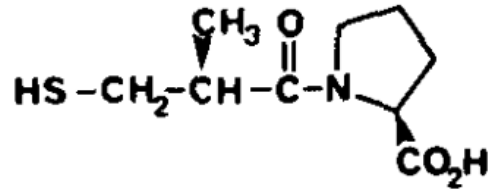
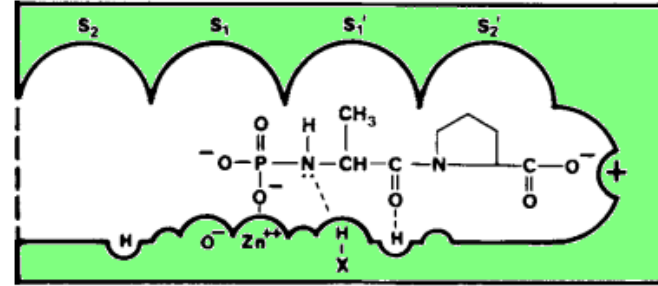
$\text{IC}_{50} = 0.023\mu\text{M}$

Chemical Structure	$\text{I}_{50} \mu\text{M}$
$\text{HS-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-C(=O)-NH-CH}_2\text{-CO}_2\text{H}$	2.8
$\text{HS-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH(OH)-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CO}_2\text{H}$	1200.
$\text{HS-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-C(=O)-N(CH}_3\text{)-CH}_2\text{-CO}_2\text{H}$	3.0
$\text{HS-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-S(=O)(=O)-N(CH}_2\text{)}_4\text{-CO}_2\text{H}$	11.
$\text{HS-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-C(=O)-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CO}_2\text{H}$	11.
$\text{HS-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-C(=O)-C(CH}_2\text{)}_4\text{-CO}_2\text{H}$	0.74
$\text{HS-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-N(CH}_2\text{)}_4\text{-CO}_2\text{H}$	240.
$\text{HS-CH}_2\text{-CH(CH}_3\text{)-C(=O)-C(CH}_2\text{)}_5\text{-CO}_2\text{H}$	2.4
$\text{HS-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-C(=O)-NH-CH(CH}_2\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{)-CO}_2\text{H}$	0.85
$\text{HS-CH}_2\text{-CH(CH}_3\text{)-C(=O)-N(CH}_2\text{)}_5\text{-CO}_2\text{H}$	0.13

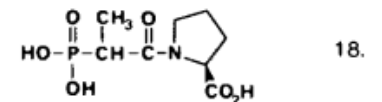
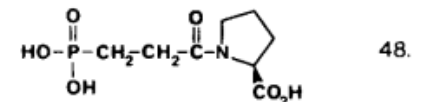
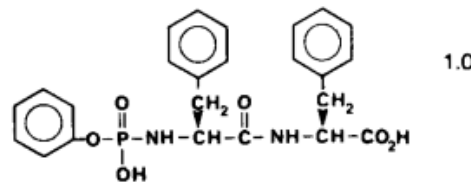
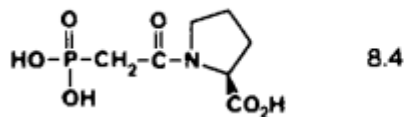
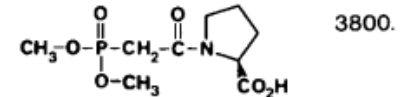
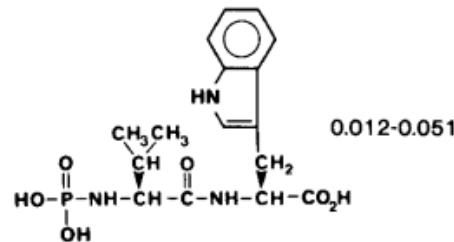
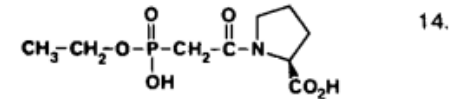
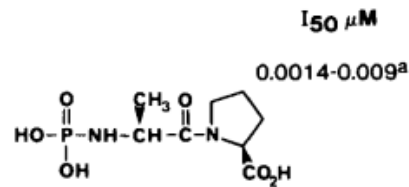


Dipeptide Inhibitors with Zn ligand

Phosphoric acid-based better than thiols?

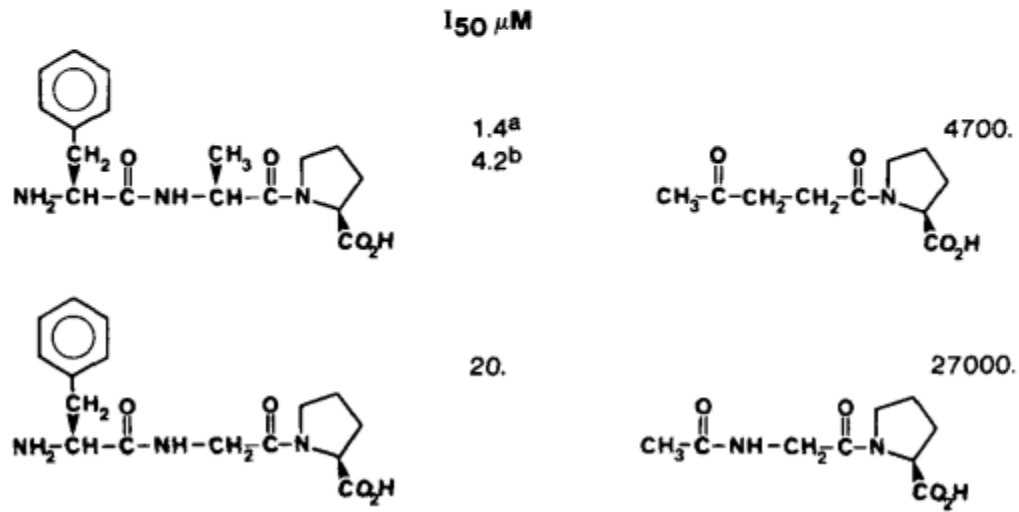
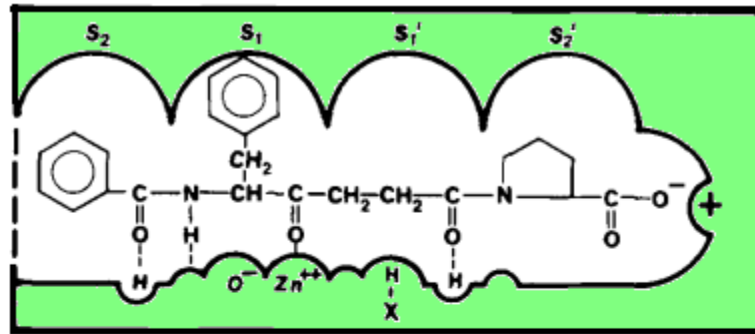


IC₅₀ = 0.023 μM



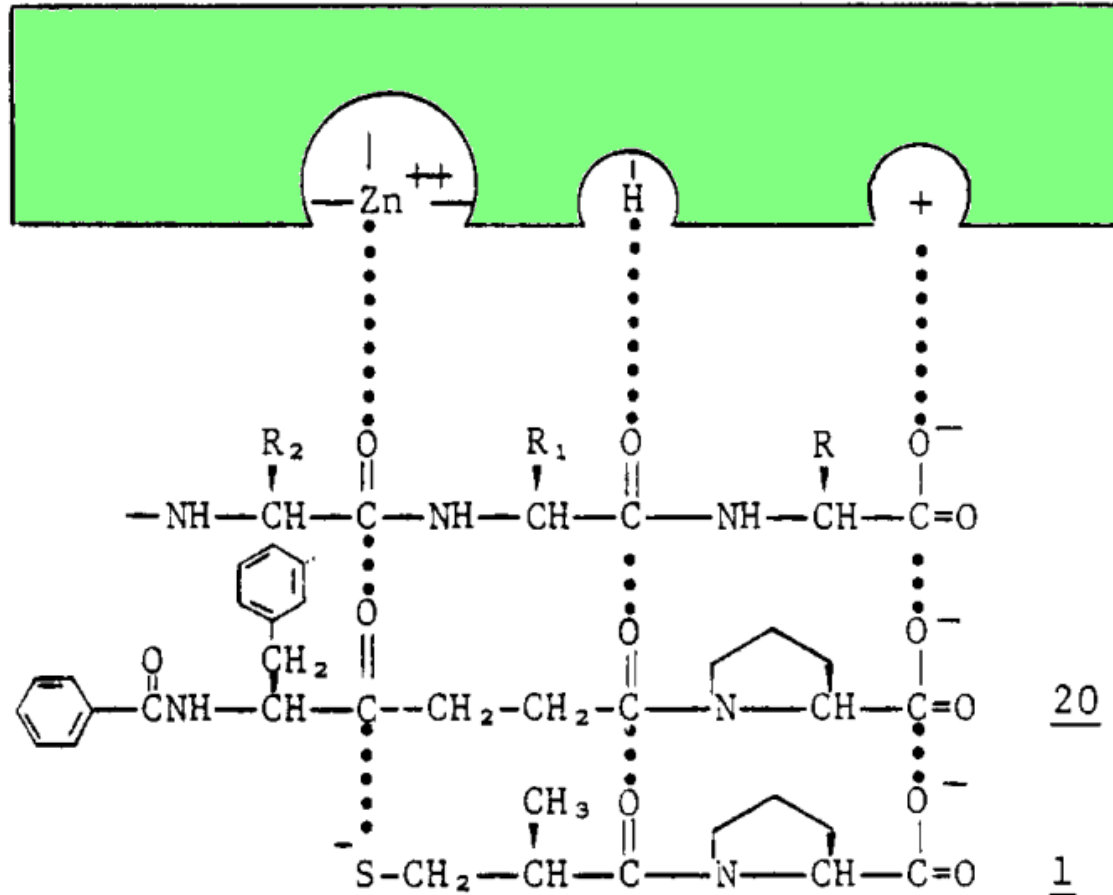


Tripeptide Inhibitors





Ketomethylene Tripeptide Analogs

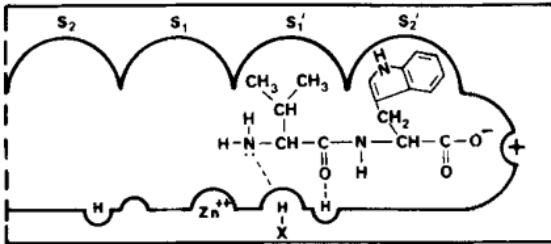


J. Med. Chem. 1980, 23, 1392-1398



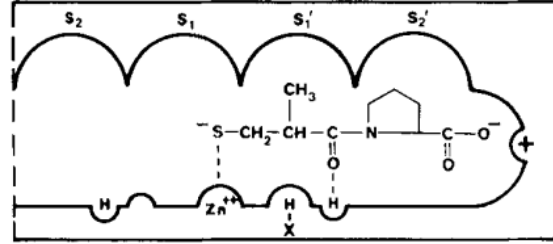
Overview

Dipeptide



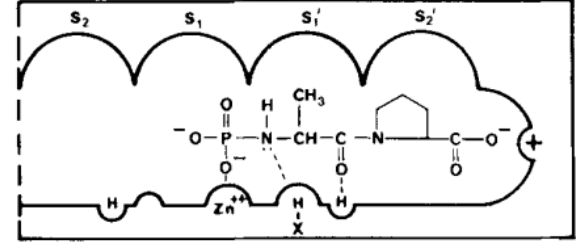
$$I_{50} \cong 10^{-6}$$

Mercaptoacyl amino acid



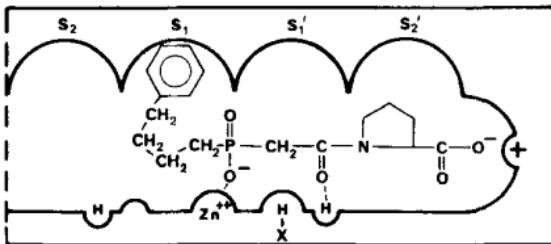
$$I_{50} \cong 10^{-8}$$

Phosphoryl dipeptide



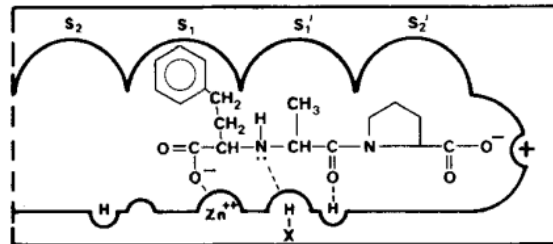
$$I_{50} \cong 10^{-8}$$

Phosphinic acid



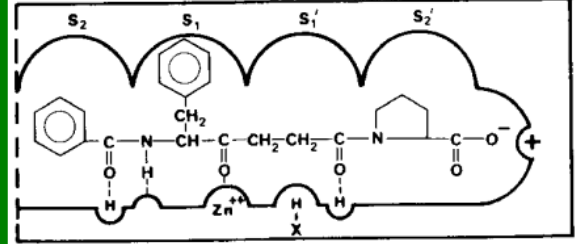
$$I_{50} \cong 10^{-7}$$

Carboxyalkyl dipeptide



$$I_{50} \cong 10^{-9}$$

Tripeptide ketone

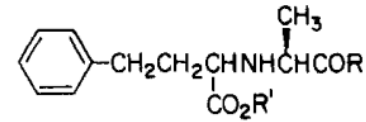
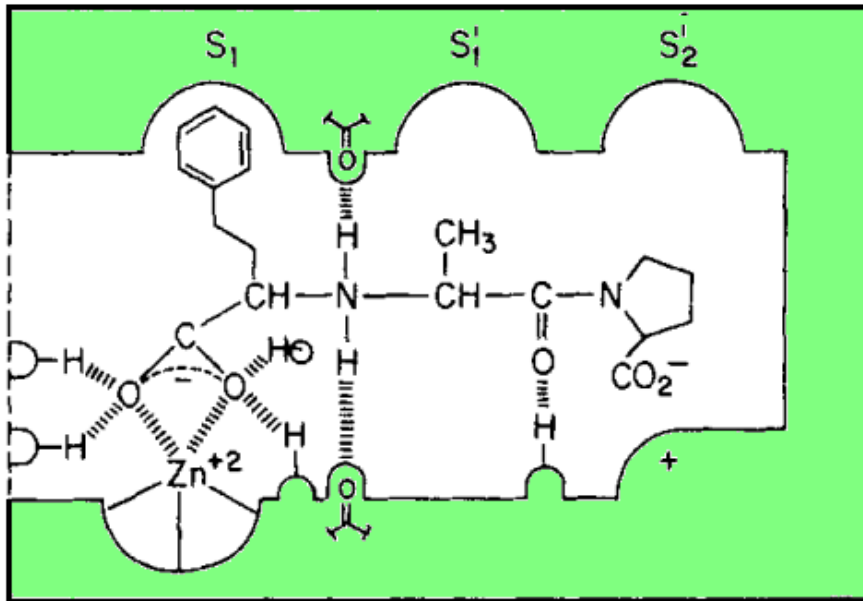


$$I_{50} \cong 10^{-8}$$



Carboxy alkyl dipeptides

(Searching for the best C-terminal scaffold @ S'₂)

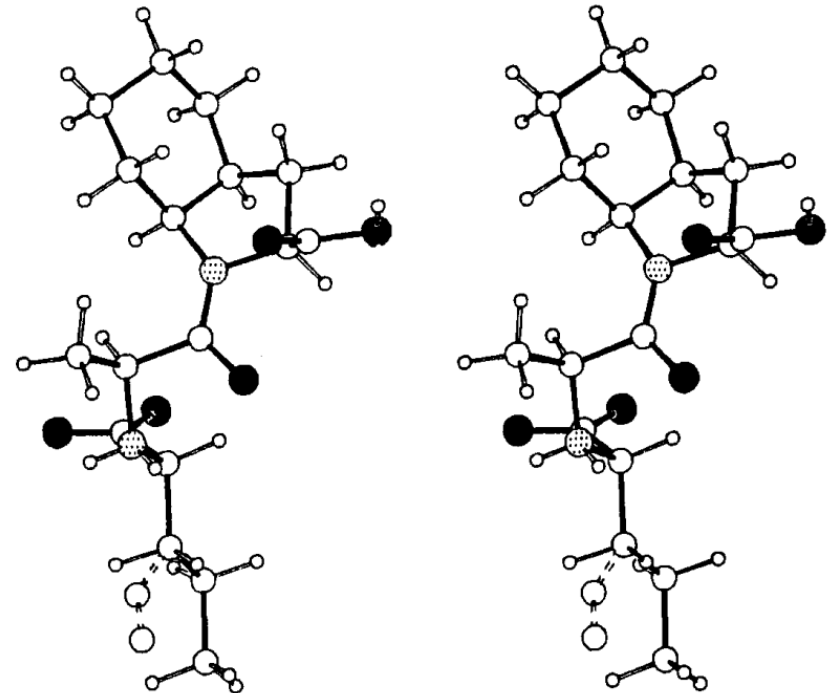
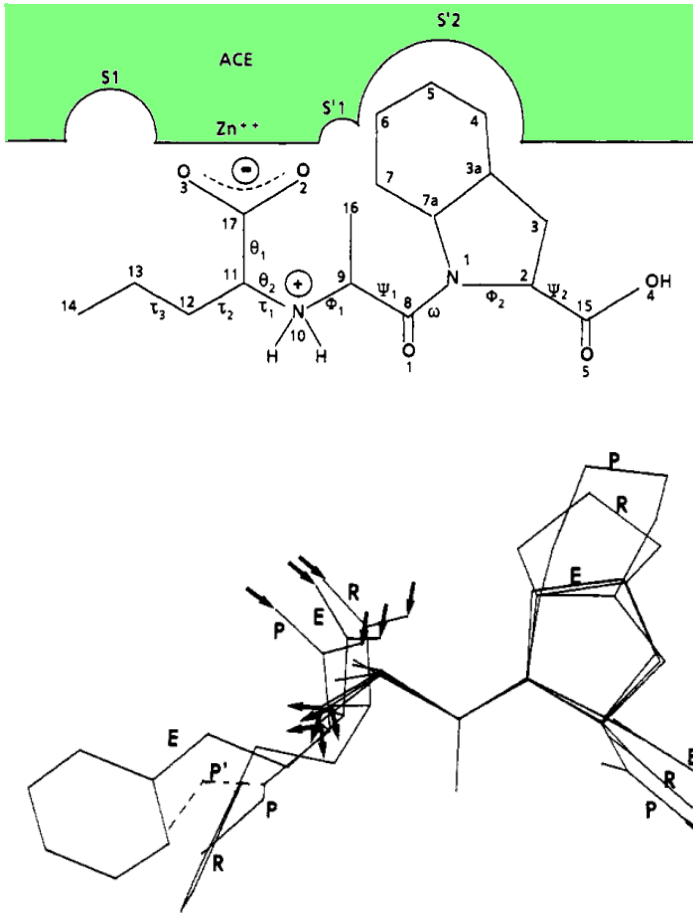


R	I ₅₀ (nM)	R	I ₅₀ (nM)
	1.2		2.2
-OH	>16700 ^b		4.2 ^d
	>167 ^b		2.8
	86 ^{b,c}		2.6
	3.0		40



1991

Perindoprilat – moving from 2D to 3D pharmacophore

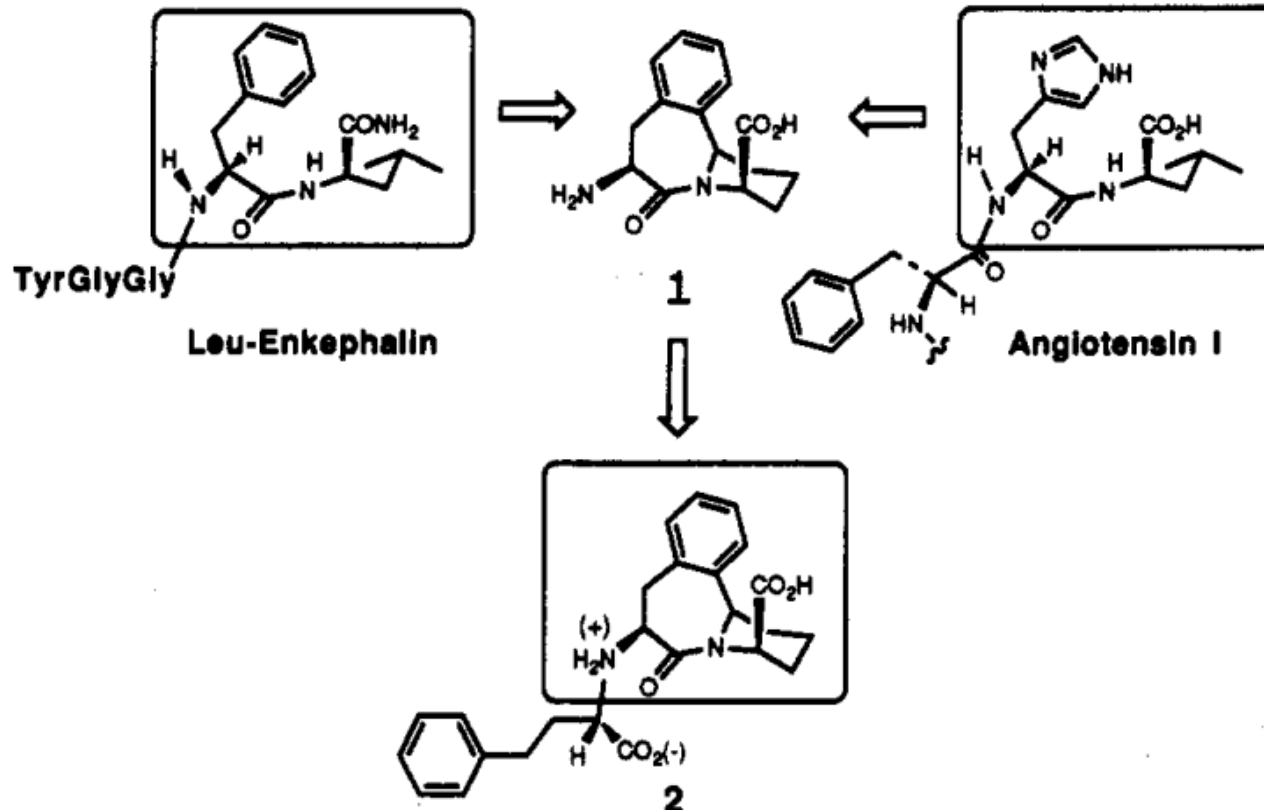


J. Med. Chem. 1991, 34(2), 663



1993

Conformationally Restricted Phe-Leu Dipeptide Mimetic

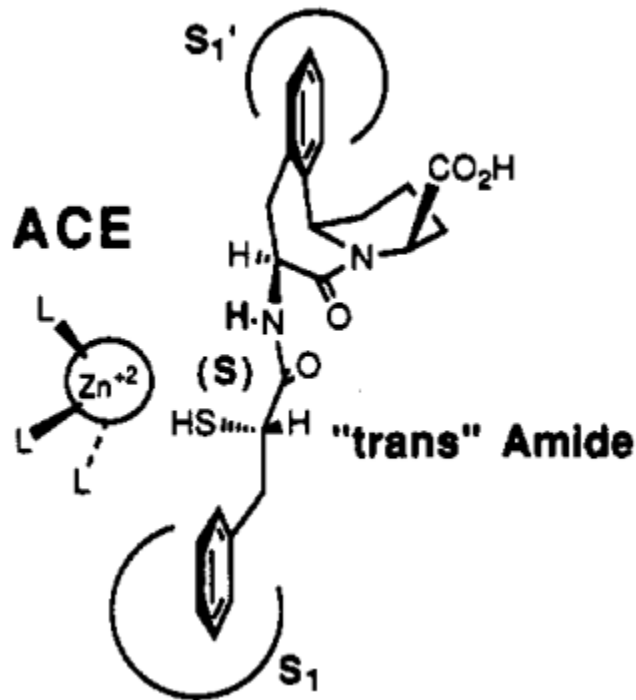


J. Med. Chem. 1993, 36(16), 2420

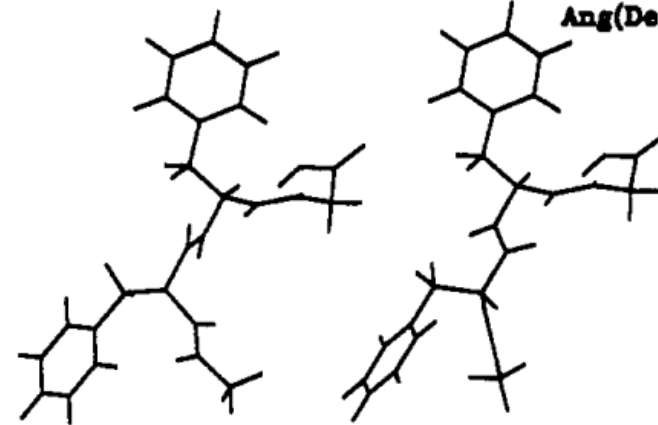
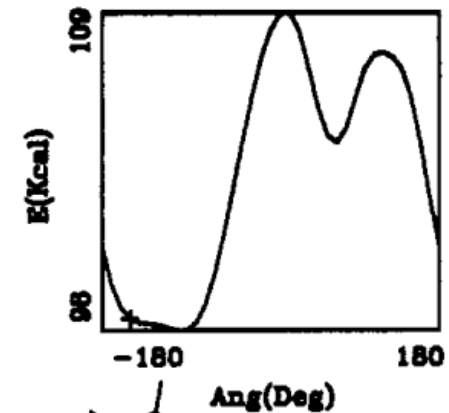


1993

Conformationally Restricted Phe-Leu Dipeptide Mimetic



X	Y
-150	99

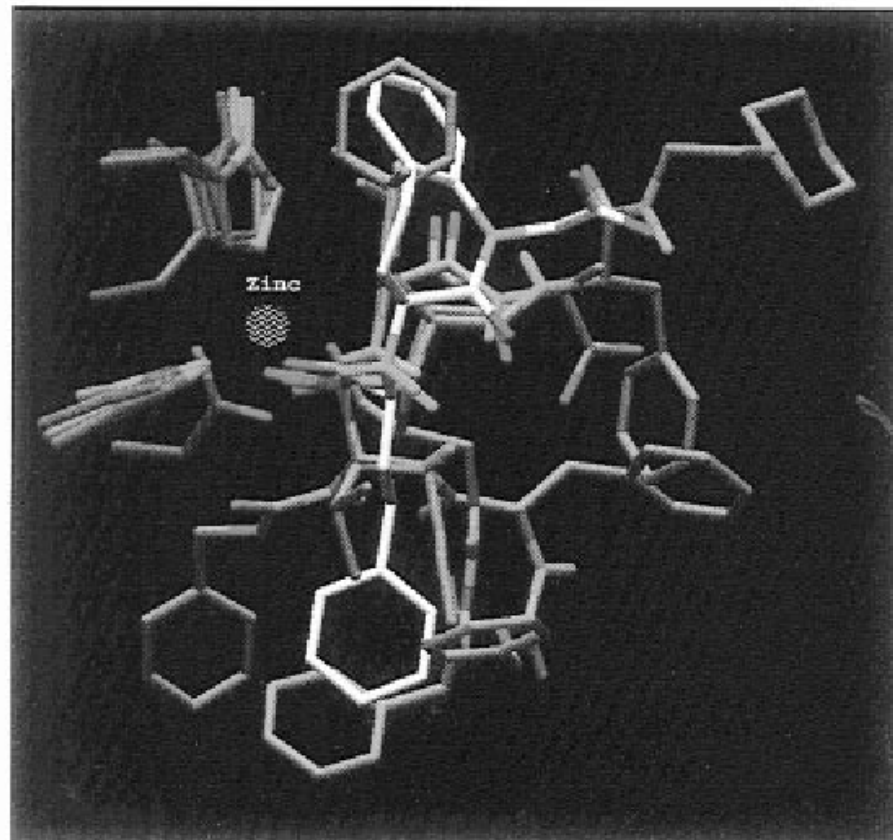
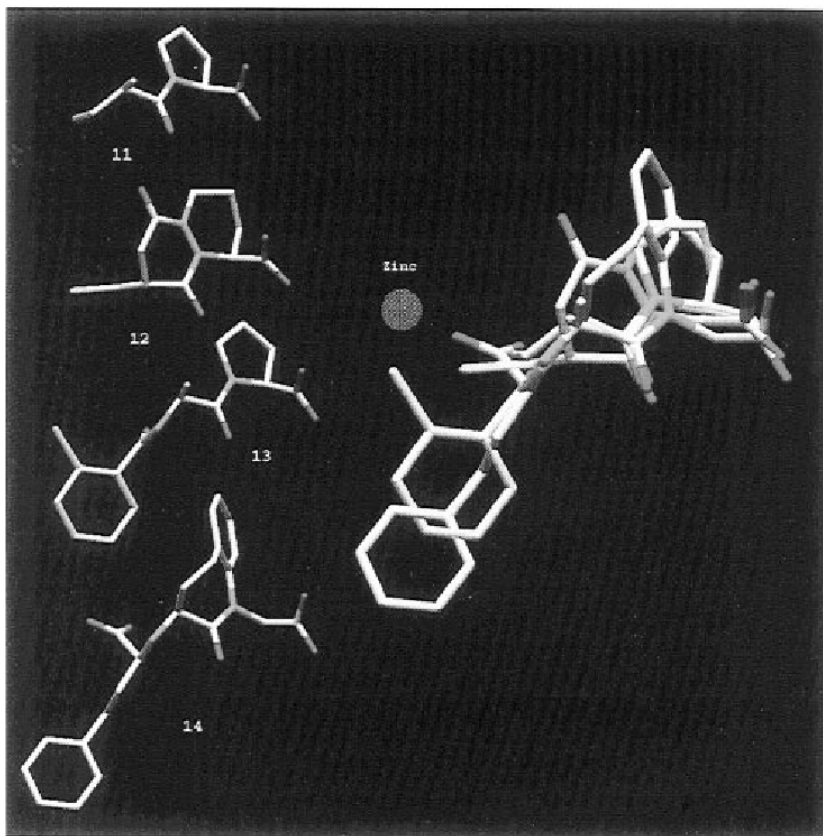


J. Med. Chem. 1993, 36(16), 2420



1996

Dual NEP/ACE Inhibitors

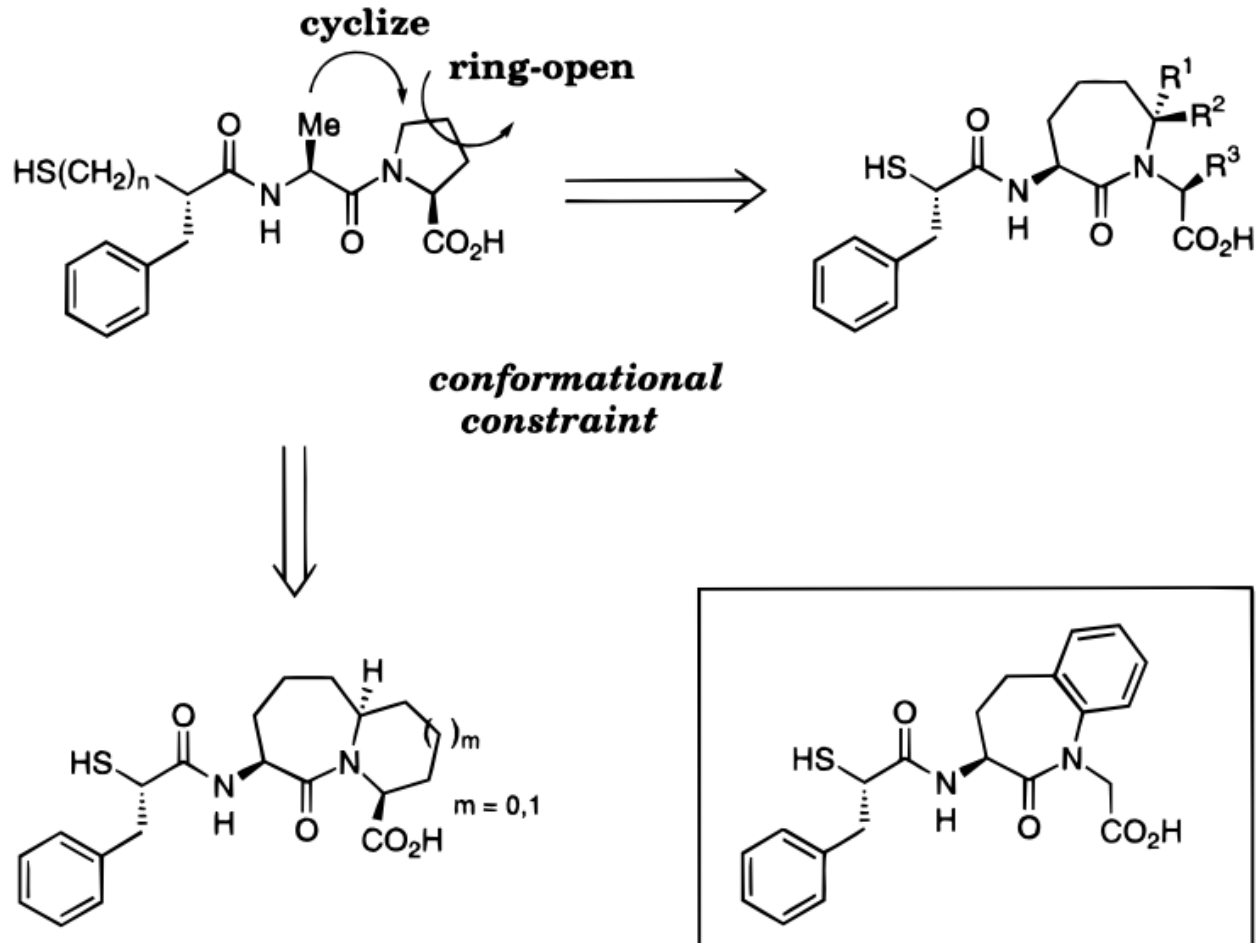


J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1996, 118(35), 8237



1999

Cyclic Analogues

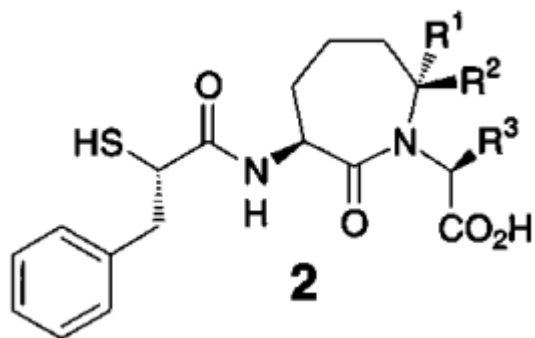


J. Med. Chem. 1996, 39, 494-502



1999

Cyclic Analogues – a classical “med-chem” approach



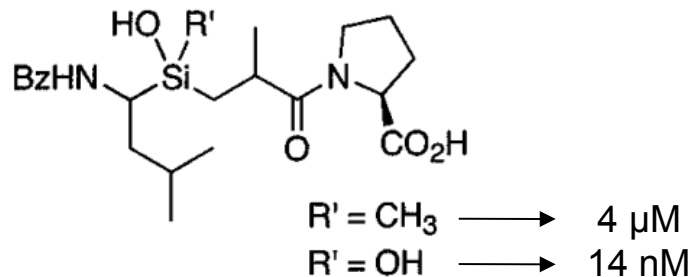
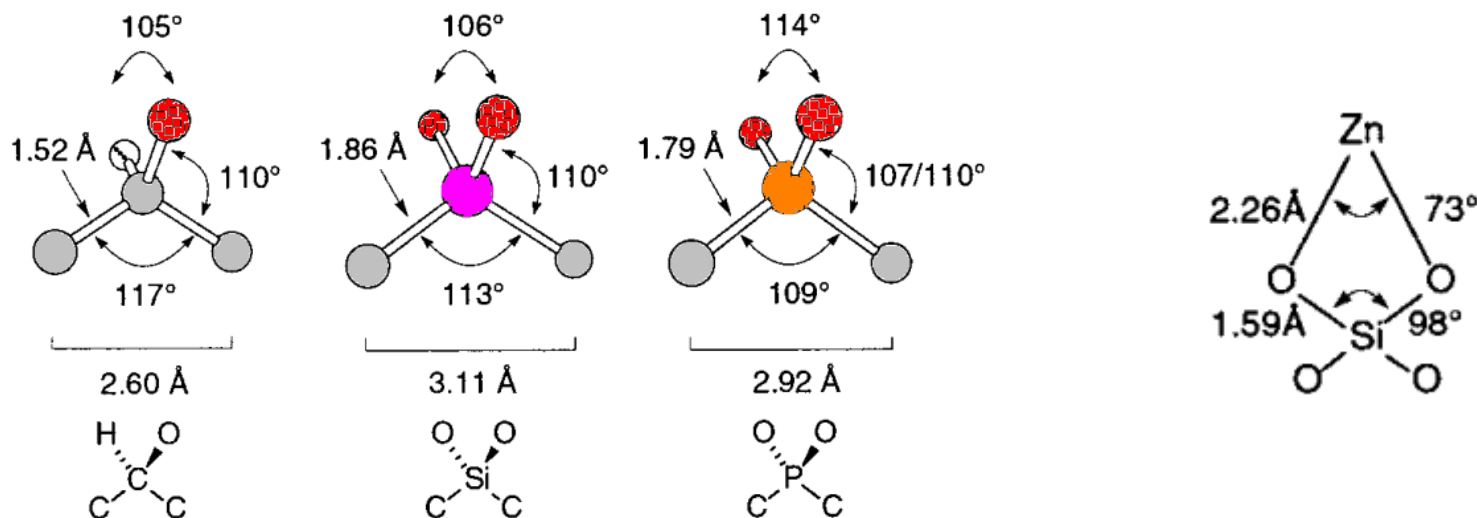
R ¹	R ²	R ³	(nM) ACE ^c
H	H	H	22
H	H	methyl	26
H	H	benzyl	479
H	H	isopropyl	907
methyl	H	H	8
H	methyl	H	16
propyl	H	H	11
H	propyl	H	14
allyl	H	H	7
hydroxyethyl	H	H	25
methylcyclopropyl	H	H	23
isobutyl	H	H	10
cyclopentyl	H	H	17
propyl	H	methyl	5
propyl	H	ethyl	25

J. Med. Chem. 1996, 39, 494-502



2002

Mimicking transition state \rightarrow silicon-based ACE inhibitors



J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2002, 124, 7363



Conclusion

- Peptide scan followed by pharmacophore determination
- Large number of compounds synthesized
- Gradually improving and extending the pharmacophore helped in increasing the affinity of the lead compound
- Various additional techniques were employed
- Drug (candidates) with excellent affinity and properties could be designed