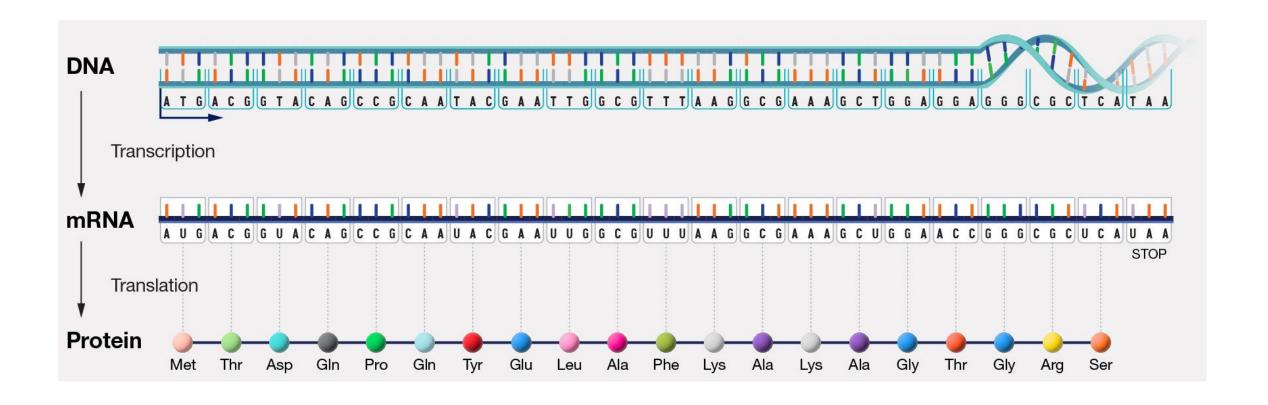
### **AMIDD Lecture 2: Mathematical models for drug discovery**



#### Dr. Jitao David Zhang, Computational Biologist

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### **Topics**



- The central dogma for drug discovery
- ODE-based mechanistic models
- Key considerations for a drug to work



### Most drugs work by binding to and modulating protein targets

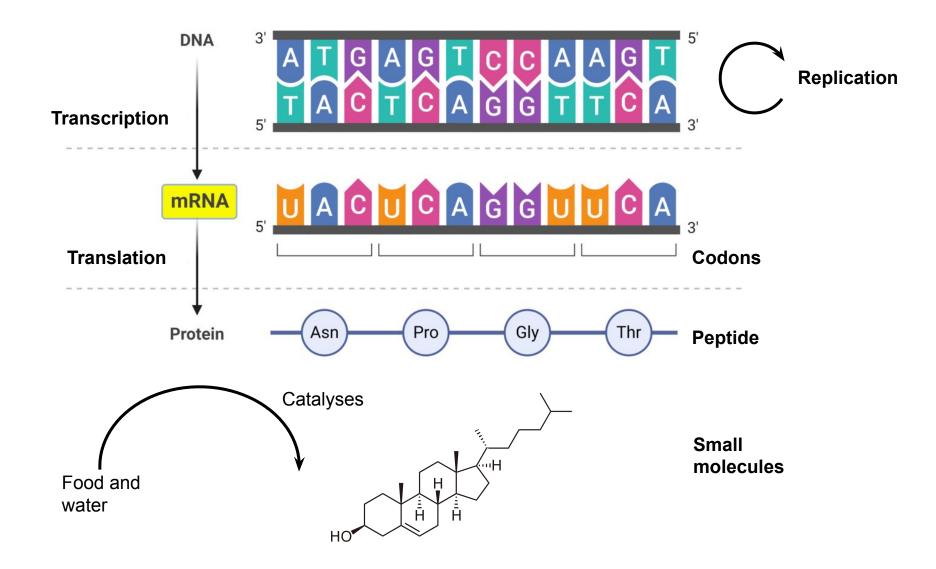
Table 1 | Molecular targets of FDA-approved drugs

|                             | Targets       |                                    |                       | Drugs       |                 |           |
|-----------------------------|---------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------|-------------|-----------------|-----------|
| Drug target class           | Total targets | Small-<br>molecule drug<br>targets | Biologic drug targets | Total drugs | Small molecules | Biologics |
| Human protein               | 667           | 549                                | 146                   | 1,194       | 999             | 195       |
| Pathogen protein            | 189           | 184                                | 7                     | 220         | 215             | 5         |
| Other human biomolecules    | 28            | 9                                  | 22                    | 98          | 63              | 35        |
| Other pathogen biomolecules | 9             | 7                                  | 4                     | 79          | 71              | 8         |

The list also includes antimalarial drugs approved elsewhere in the world.

### The central dogma







#### Amino acids, the building blocks of proteins, form peptide bonds

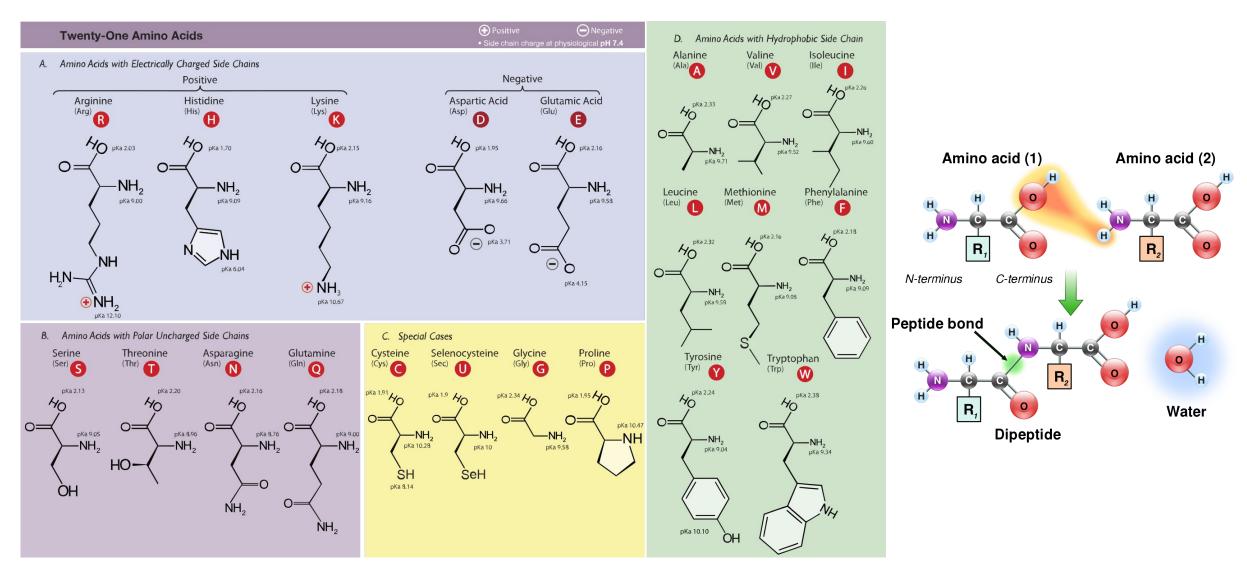
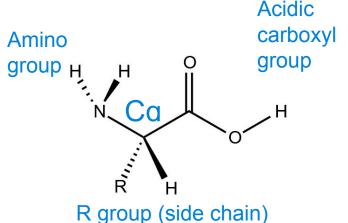


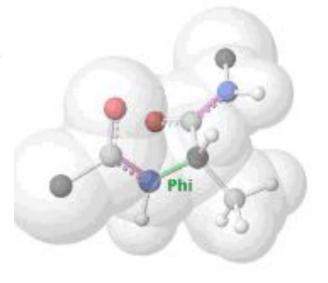
Figure by Dan Cojocari. Reused with CC license from wikimedia

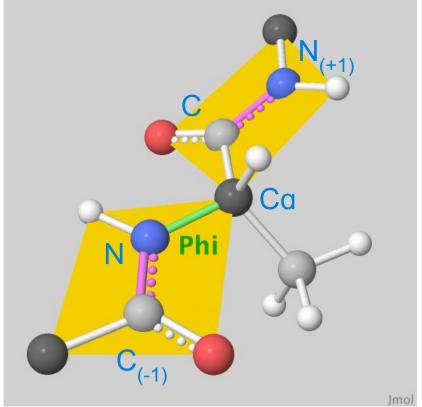


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- (Top left) Human proteins are chains of amino acids (AAs). The backbone remains the same while the side chain varies among AAs.
- (Right) The amino group and the carboxyl group of adjacent amino acids form peptide bonds. Proteins are therefore called polypeptides.
- C-Ca bonds Ca-N bonds can rotate at two dihedral angles, Ψ (psi) and φ (phi), respectively.
- (Bottom left) Due to steric collisions, not all combinations of Phi/Psi are possible.







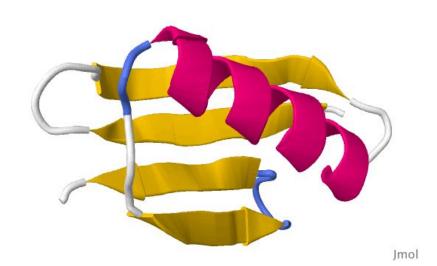


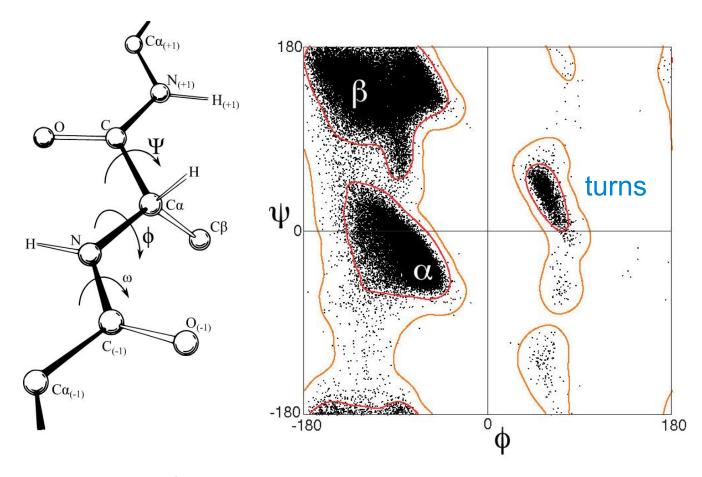


## The Ramachandran Principle: alpha helices, beta strands, and turns are the most likely confirmations for a polypeptide

Most other conformations are impossible to due to clashes, known as *steric collisions*, between atoms.

Offline activity: check out the <u>YouTube</u> <u>video tutorial</u> or the <u>Slides</u> by Eric Martz, and finish the <u>Quiz</u>.

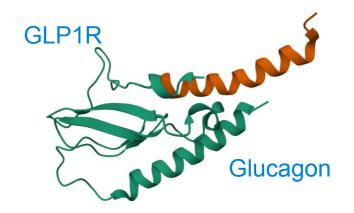




100,000 dots taken from high-resolution crystallographic structures. Wikimedia Commons courtesy Jane and David Richardson (Proteins 50:437, 2003). This plot excludes Gly, Pro, and pre-Pro.

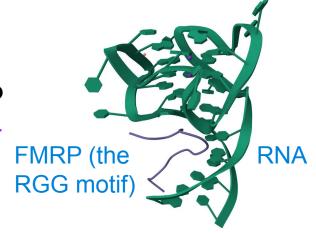
#### Proteins specifically and tightly bind to other molecules





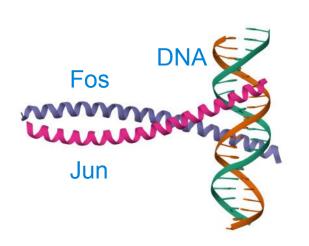
One protein binds to another protein PDB

3iol

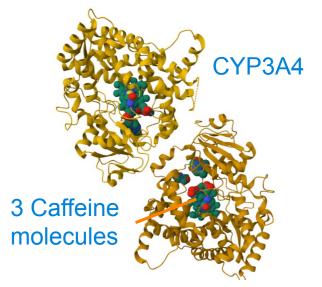


Protein binds to RNA.

Protein FMRP is encoded by gene *FMR1*. Mutations associated with *FMR1* induce the fragile X syndrome. PDB 5DE5



**Protein complex binds to DNA.** The complex
Fos:Jun is known as
AP-1, a transcription
factor. PDB 1FOS.



Protein binds to small molecule. Cytochrome P450 3A4 (CYP3A4) is a major drug metabolizing enzyme, which also metabolizes caffeine.

PDB 8so1

#### Major protein classes by functions

Top: an antigen presenting cell. Bottom: a T cell. The red dot: a virus

**Enzymes**: catalysis of chemical reactions.

To learn the basics of enzymes, watch the video *How Enzymes Work*.

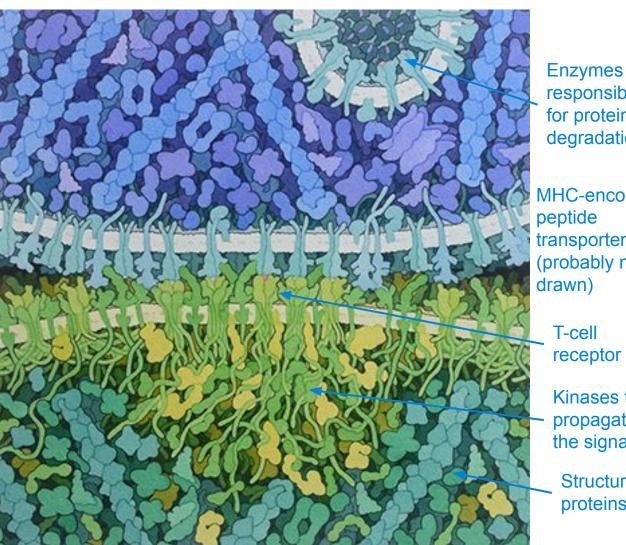
**Transporters:** moving ions, small molecules, and proteins across membranes.

To learn the basics of transporters and other ways cell transport material across membranes, Watch the video **Biology: Cell Transport**.

**Receptors and kinases:** signalling allows cells adapt to the environment.

To learn the basics of cellular signaling, watch the video <u>Common cell signaling pathway</u>.

Structural proteins: stiffness, rigidity, and mechanistical forces.



responsible for protein degradation

MHC-encoded transporter (probably not

receptor

Kinases that propagate the signal

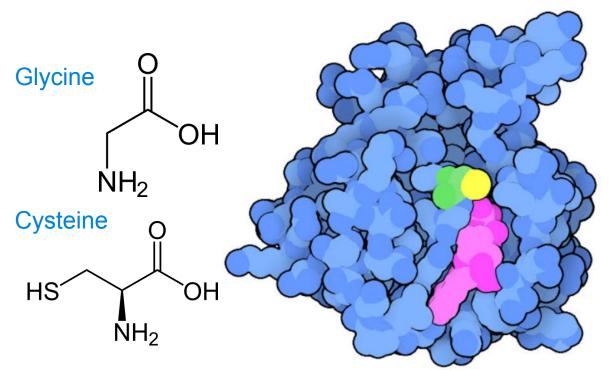
Structural proteins

Figure: Immunological Synapse, David S. Goodsell, 2020

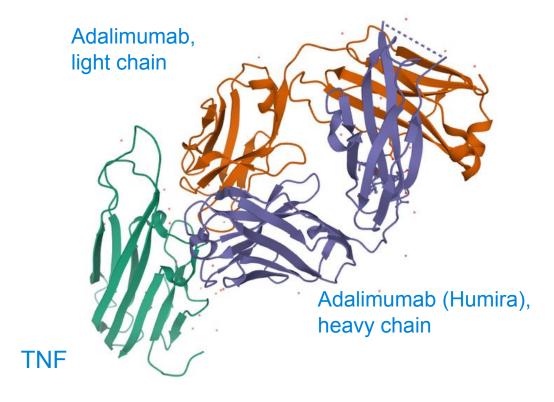


Some diseases are caused by perturbed functions of single

protein



Mutation of glycine (G) to cysteine (M) at position 12 (green, with sulfur in yellow) in Ras protein leads to a protein that is continually activated. The structure of the oncogenic mutant (PDB ID 4ldj) reveals that the mutation modifies the interaction with GDP (magenta) and GTP, which act as the switch that turns the protein on and off.

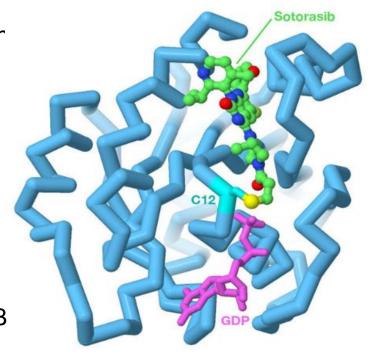


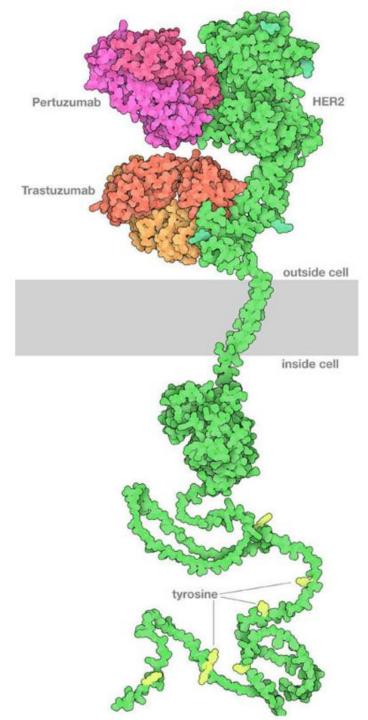
Tumor necrosis factor (TNFa) promotes the inflammatory response in autoimmune diseases, for instance inflammatory bowel disease and rheumatoid arthritis. Monoclonal antibodies against TNFa, for instance adalimumab (Humira), are used for such indications. PDB 3WD5

### Many drugs are ligands of proteins and modulate protein's function

Left: The drug *sotorasib* binds covalently to the sulfur atom in cysteine 12 of the *Ras* protein, blocking its action. The drug is showr with carbon atoms in green, the cysteine sulfur is in yellow, and GDP is in magenta. Image created in Jmol using PDB ID 60im.

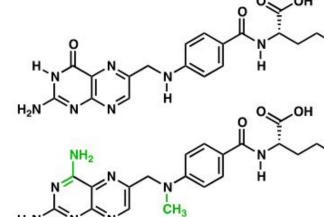
Right: The extracellular domain of HER2 bound to two therapeutic antibodies: pertuzumab and trastuzumab. The antibodies block the formation of active dimers of the receptor, thus blocking the growth signal (PDB 60gi). The transmembrane domain is from PDB 2ksi. The kinase domain inside the cell is from PDB ID 3pp0, and the unstructured tail at bottom is from AlphaFold2.





### Drugs can compete with natural

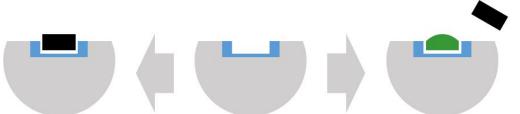


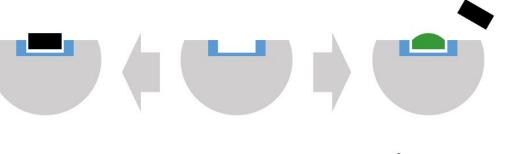


Dihydrofolic acid

MTX







Work by Thomas Shafee, Shared under CC-AS-4.0, and work by Boghog. Based on PDB record 4QI9.

**The protein**: Dihydrofolate reductase (DHFR) converts dihydrofolic acid into tetrahydrofolate. The process is important for cell proliferation and cell growth. DHFR is a drug target for oncology (cancer) and autoimmune diseases.

The natural substrate: Dihydrofolic acid (vitamin B9), in black. Dihydrofolic acid is the *natural ligand* of DHFR.

**The drug:** Methotrexate (MTX), in green, is a *synthesized ligand* of DHFR, and it is a *competitive inhibitor* of DHFR.

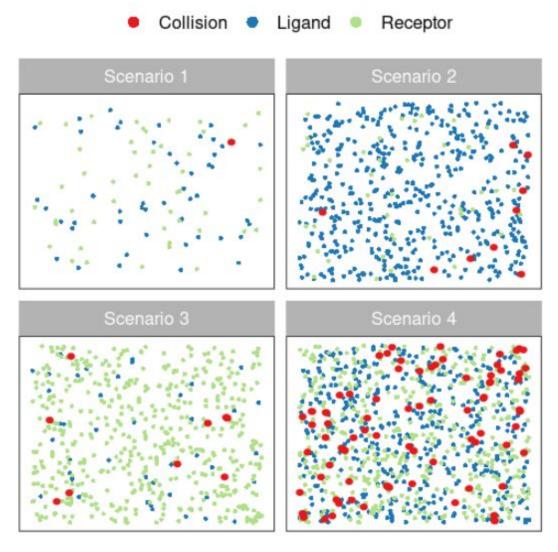
**The binding site**: where the enzyme binds its substrate and catalyses the chemical reaction, in blue.



## A simple mathematical model addresses a key question: how is a receptor occupied by varying concentrations of drugs?

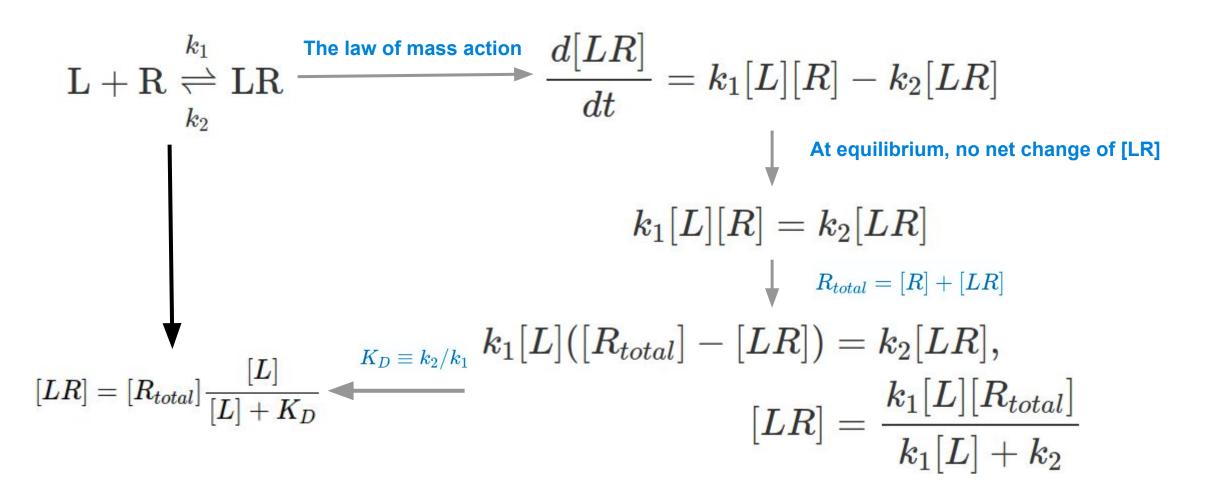
$$egin{aligned} \operatorname{L} + \operatorname{R} & \stackrel{k_1}{\rightleftharpoons} \operatorname{LR} \ rac{d[LR]}{dt} &= k_1[L][R] - k_2[LR] \end{aligned}$$

- Ligand binding to receptor is a reversible reaction.
- The law of mass action: the rate of the chemical reaction is directly proportional to the product of the activities or concentrations of the reactants. The proposition can be derived from the *collision theory*.
   See the right graph for an illustration.





# An ordinary differential equation (ODE) model quantifies receptor occupancy by varying concentrations of ligands

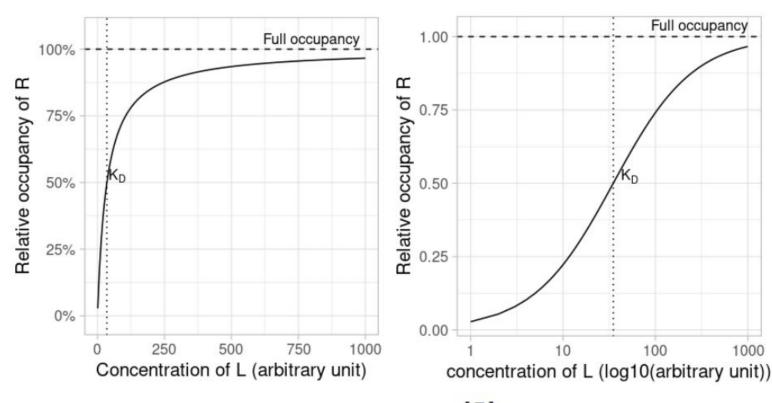






$$\mathrm{L} + \mathrm{R} \stackrel{k_1}{\mathop{\rightleftharpoons}} \mathrm{L} \mathrm{R} \qquad K_D \equiv k_2/k_1$$

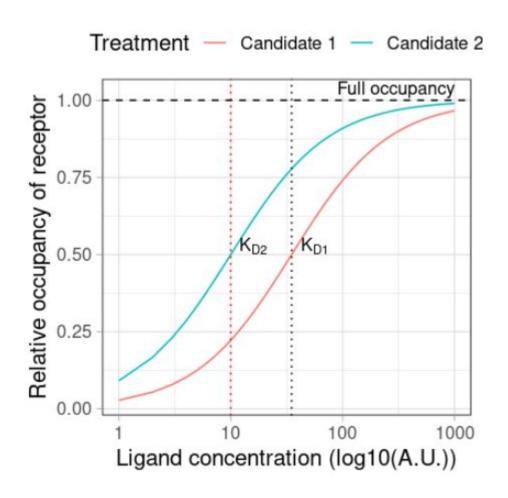
- The Hill-Langmuir function describes the occupancy of receptors by natural ligands of drugs.
- We can interpret K<sub>D</sub> in two ways: the ratio of reaction speeds, and the concentration required to occupy half of the receptors.
- We will further discuss the Hill function again in the future.



$$[LR] = [R_{total}] rac{[L]}{[L] + K_D}$$



## Question: all other conditions the same, which drug candidate is more favorable? Why?





#### The Lotka-Volterra model of predator-prey relationships

• The Lotka-Volterra equations modelling predator-prey relationships.

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \alpha x - \beta x y, \tag{1}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -\gamma y + \delta x y, \tag{2}$$

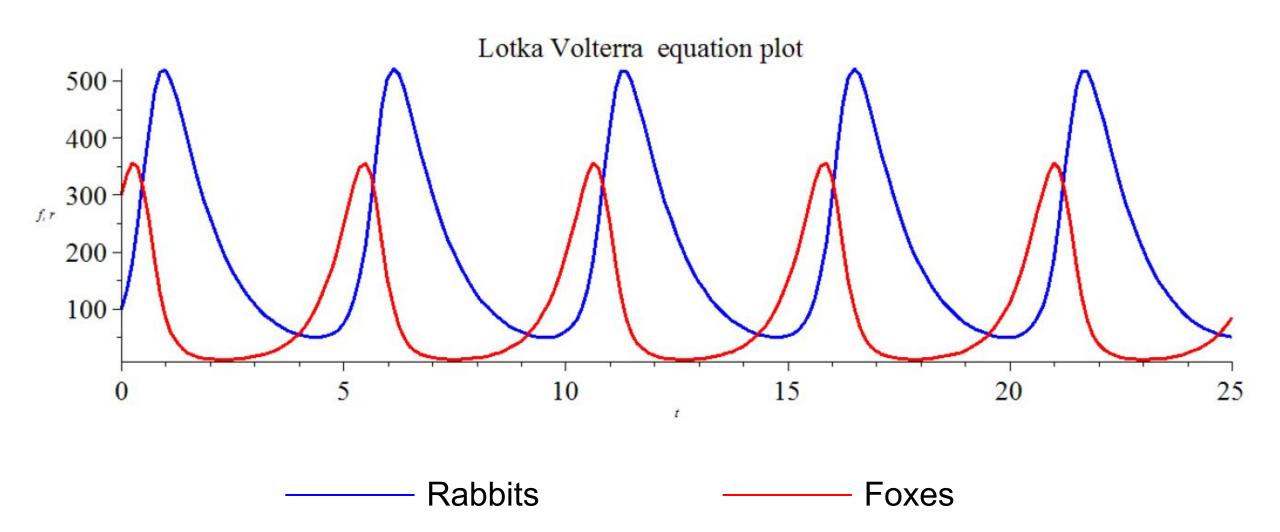
$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -\gamma y + \delta x y,\tag{2}$$

#### where

- x is the number of prey (e.g. rabbits),
- y is the number of predator (e.g. foxes),
- $\frac{dx}{dt}$  and  $\frac{dy}{dt}$  represent growth rates of the two populations,
- t represents time,
- $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ , and  $\delta$  are real parameters specifying the interaction of the two species.

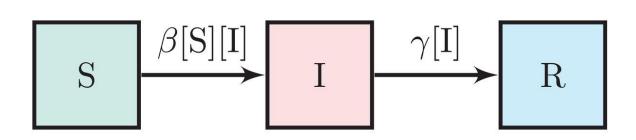


### The Lotka-Volterra equations, visualized





### The SIR model of epidemiology models population behavior of viral infection and recovery



The SIR model of epidemiology

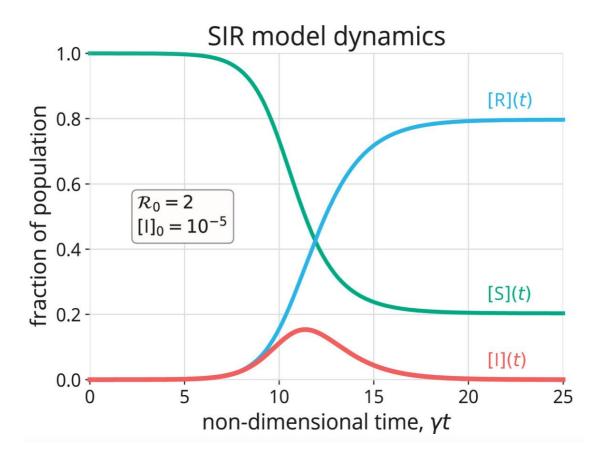
- S: Susceptible
- I: Infectious
- R: Removed

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = -\frac{\beta IS}{N},$$

$$\frac{dI}{dt} = \frac{\beta IS}{N} - \gamma I,$$

$$\frac{dR}{dt} = \gamma I$$

Simon CM. 2020. The SIR dynamic model of infectious disease transmission and its analogy with chemical kinetics. PeerJ Physical Chemistry 2:e14https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj-pchem.14

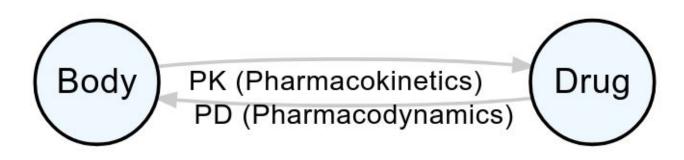


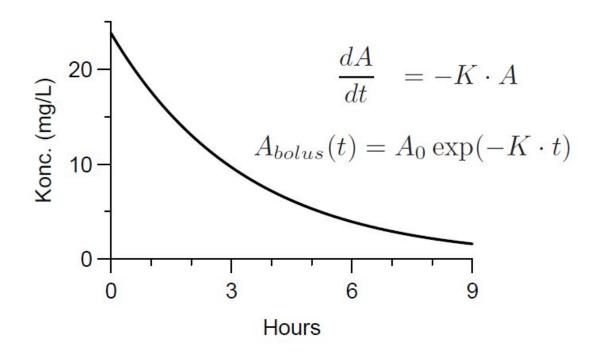
 $R_0$ , the basic reproduction number, is the number of people infected by the initial infectious individual. It is defined as  $\beta/\gamma$ .



## ODE-based mechanistic models are often used in pharmacokinetic modelling

- Pharmacokinetics (PK) describes how the drug is <u>a</u>bsorbed, <u>d</u>istributed, <u>m</u>etabolised, and <u>e</u>xcreted by the body.
- Pharmacodynamics (PD) describes the effect of the drug to the body, mediated by drug-target interactions. PD is affected by PK, as well as other properties such as behaviour and genetics.
- A basic mathematical model of PK is a compartment model, i.e. one or more ordinary differential equations that describe the relationship between drug concentration and time. The simplest model is the decay model of bolus (injection).





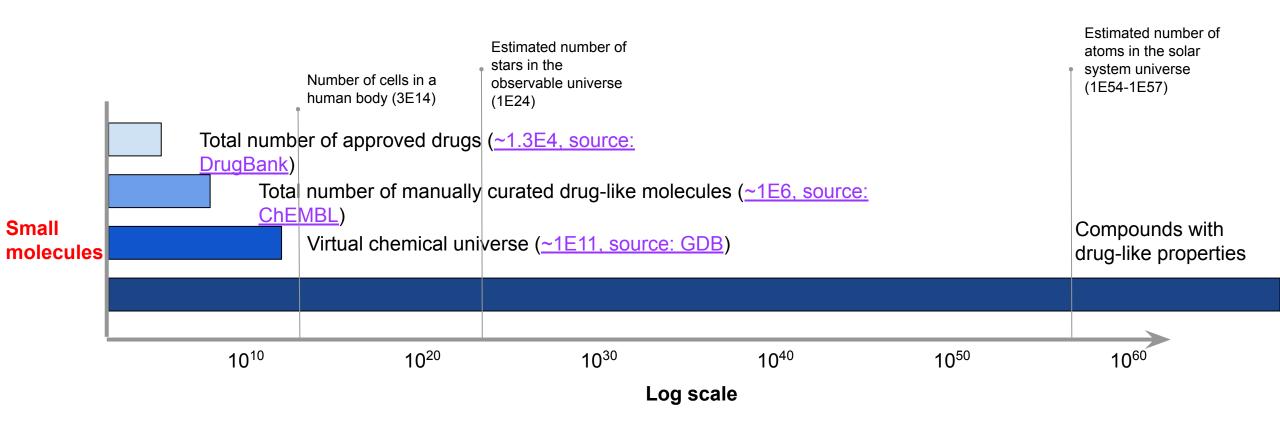
#### Points to consider besides occupancy



- 1. **Response**: Does binding of the drug inhibits the (pathological) function of the protein?
- 2. **Disease relevance**: does inhibition of the drug slows, stops, or inverses disease progression?
- 3. **Safety**: is the drug safe for patients?
- 4. **Specificity:** Does the drug bind to other proteins, or other molecules (RNA, DNA, ...)?
- 5. **Exposure**: can the drug reach the protein target if it is injected or orally taken?
- 6. **Biomarker**: what can we measure to determine whether the drug has binds to the protein?
- 7. **Patients**: which patients are likely to respond to the treatment?
- 8. **Commercial:** does it pay off to discover, develop, and commercialize the drug?
- 9. ...







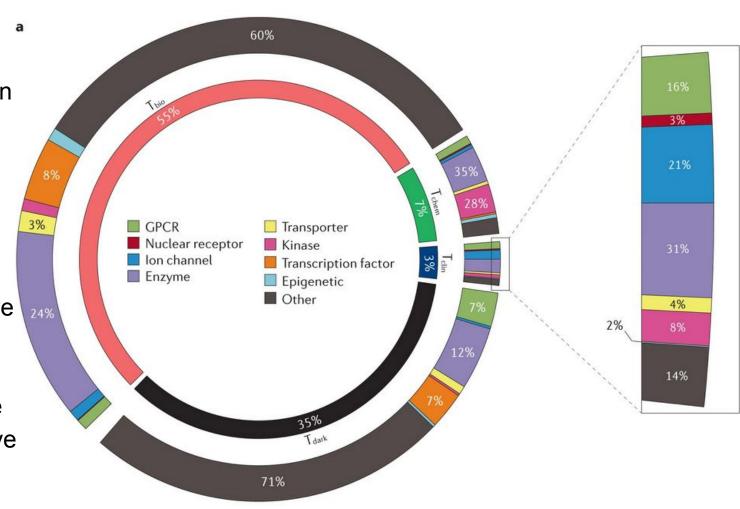


### Why drug *discovery*? 2. The druggable proteome is huge - even excluding mutations, transcriptome, genome, ...

There are about 20,000 proteins encoded by the human genome. We can classify them by (1) our knowledge of them, and (2) whether we have reliable chemical tools, biological tools, or even drugs to manipulate them.

Inner ring: percentages of the whole proteome, classified by whether we have drugs  $(T_{clin})$ , whether we have chemical tool compounds  $(T_{chem})$ , whether we have biological compounds  $(T_{Bio})$ , or we are in the dark  $(T_{Dark})$ . Currently, we have only drugs for a few hundred proteins.

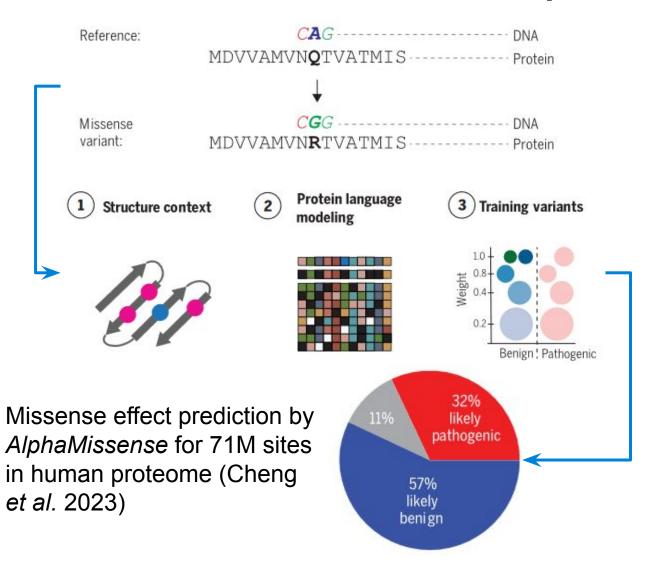
Outer ring: protein families.

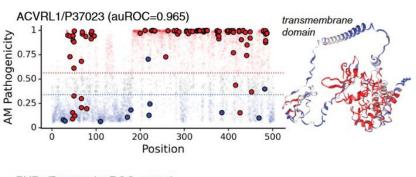


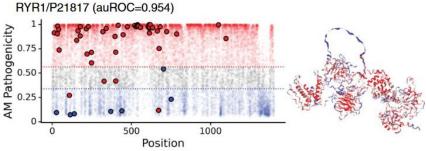
Oprea, et al. "<u>Unexplored Therapeutic Opportunities in the Human Genome</u>." Nature Reviews Drug Discovery 17 (February 23, 2018): 317–32.

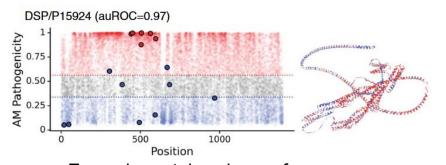


### Why drug *discovery*? 2. The druggable proteome is huge - now consider the mutations with predicted pathogenicity









Example proteins chosen from ACMG clinically actionable genes



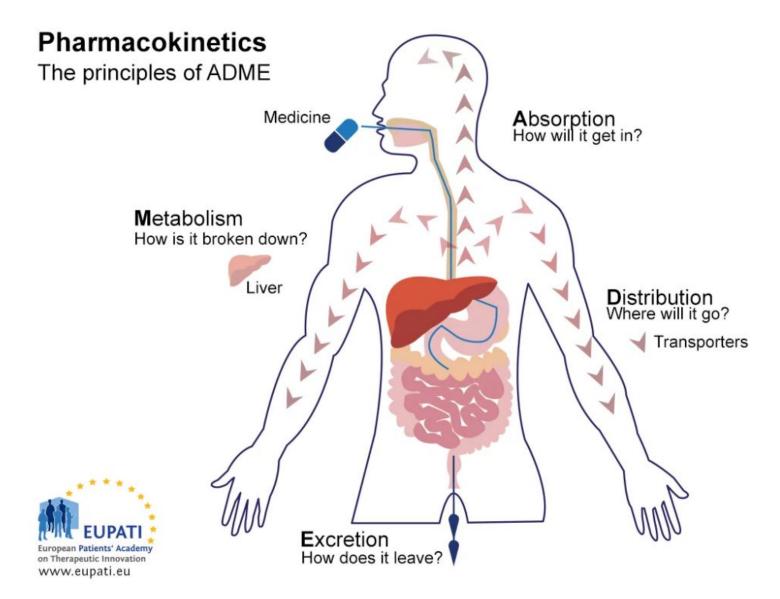
### Why drug discovery? 3. The central dogma as an information channel: nodes and edges can all be targeted by drugs



| Target                | Example drugs   |  |  |  |
|-----------------------|---|--|--|--|
| Small molecules       | Dietary supplements   |  |  |  |
| Catalysis             | Enzyme inhibitors   |  |  |  |
| Protein               | Receptor agonists/antagonists, ion channel blockers, antibodies                                 |  |  |  |
| Translation           | Antimicrobial protein synthesis inhibitors  |  |  |  |
| RNA                   | Antisense oligonucleotides (ASO), vaccines  |  |  |  |
| Transcription         | Antimicrobials (e.g. actinomycin D and α-Amanitin), splicing modifiers (e.g. Risdiplam/Evrysdi) |  |  |  |
| Reverse transcription | Antivirals (e.g. reverse transcriptase inhibitors AZT/Zidovudine )                              |  |  |  |
| DNA                   | Gene therapies (e.g. chimeric activated receptors in T-cells, CAR-T)                            |  |  |  |
| DNA replication       | Topoisomerase inhibitors (e.g. quinolones) and chemotherapy agents                              |  |  |  |

## Why drug *discovery*? 4. The drug have to be absorbed and distributed in order to have systemic and organ-specific effects





Why drug discovery? 5. Drugs have to reach the targets - despite

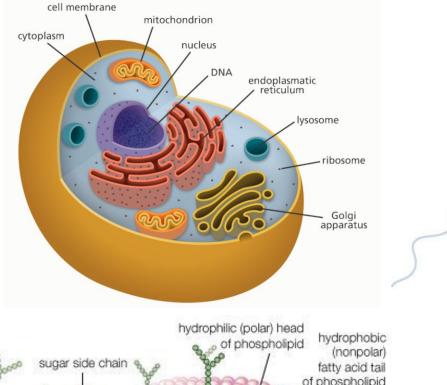
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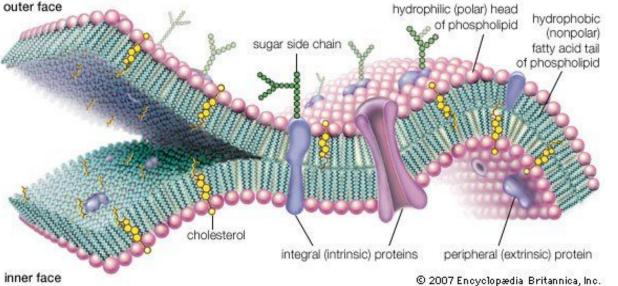
Bottom: Cell membrane, copyright of Encylopedia Britannica, Inc.

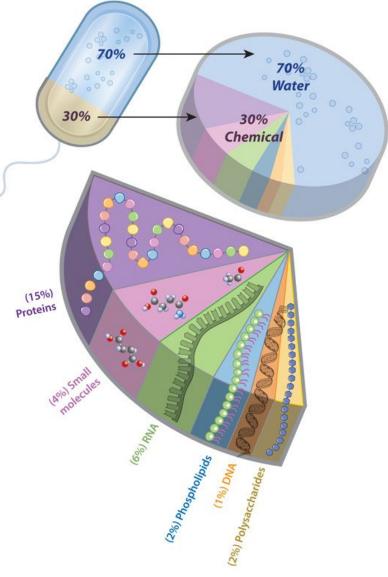
Top: Figure from The Human Protein Atlas

physical barriers

Right: Chemical composition of a human cell, by <u>Scitable Nature</u> <u>Education</u>.





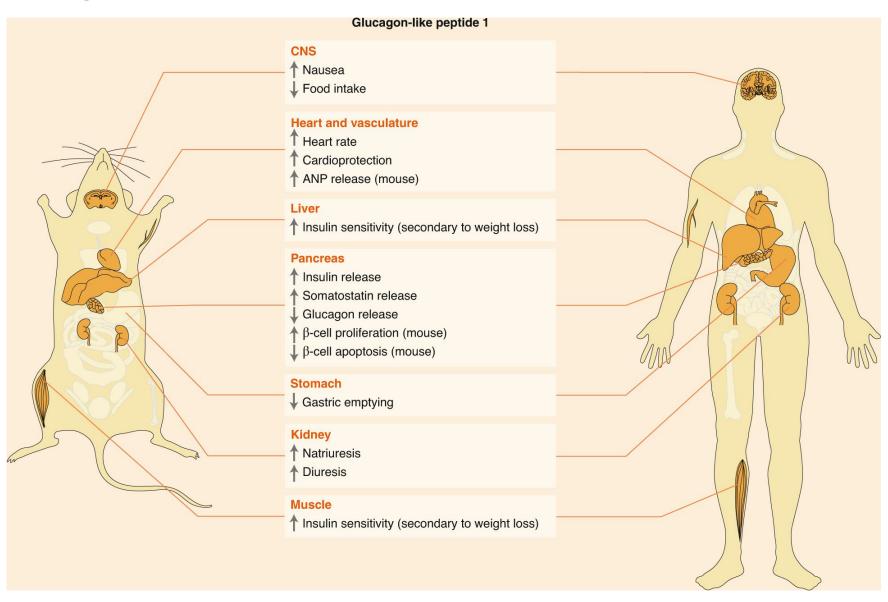


## Why drug discovery? 6. The drug can have organ-specific and systemic effects, causing either benefits or risks



Direct effects of Glucagon-like peptide (GLP-1) and GLP1 receptor agonists (GLP1-RA) like semaglutide.

Gribble, Fiona M., and Frank Reimann. "Metabolic Messengers: Glucagon-like Peptide 1." Nature Metabolism 3, no. 2 (February 2021): 142–48





### Why drug *discovery*? 7. Do all patients benefit from the drug, or only some of them? Learn from the story of Herceptin

#### Link to the video

#### **Questions for the video**

- 1. What is the **indication** of *Herceptin*? What is its generic (USAN, or United States Adopted Name) name?
- 2. What is the gene target of Herceptin?
- 3. Which class best describes the target: Enzyme, Ion channel, Receptor and Kinase, or Structural protein?
- 4. In which year was the **target** of Herceptin described? When was Herceptin **approved**?
- 5. What was the **improvement** of Herceptin compared with earlier antibodies?
- 6. Why does a **biomarker** matter besides developing drugs?
- 7. In the clinical trial of *Herceptin* for **metastatic breast cancer**, how much improvement in the **median survival** did Herceptin achieve? And how much improvement is in the **adjuvant setting** (Herceptin applied directly after operation)?

#### **Questions for further thinking**

- Susan Desmond-Hellmann summarizes successful drug development in four aspects: (1) having a deep understanding of the basic science and the characteristics of the drug, (2) targeting the right patients, (3) setting a high bar in the clinic, and (4) working effectively with key regulatory decision makers. Where do you think mathematics and computer science play a crucial role?
- She emphasized the importance of collaboration. What skill sets do we need for that?
- How do you like her presentation? Anything that you can learn from her about presentation and storytelling?

#### **Conclusions and outlook**



- We reviewed the central dogma from the drug discovery's perspective.
- We learned examples of ODE-based mechanistic models.
- We considered key aspects to consider for a drug to work.
- Next time, we shall continue learning statistic and causal models.