

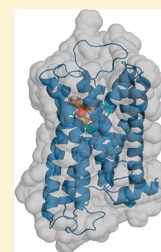
# Homology Modeling of Human Muscarinic Acetylcholine Receptors

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## Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** We have developed homology models of the acetylcholine muscarinic receptors M<sub>1</sub>R–M<sub>5</sub>R, based on the  $\beta_2$ -adrenergic receptor crystal as the template. This is the first report of homology modeling of all five subtypes of acetylcholine muscarinic receptors with binding sites optimized for ligand binding. The models were evaluated for their ability to discriminate between muscarinic antagonists and decoy compounds using virtual screening using enrichment factors, area under the ROC curve (AUC), and an early enrichment measure, LogAUC. The models produce rational binding modes of docked ligands as well as good enrichment capacity when tested against property-matched decoy libraries, which demonstrates their unbiased predictive ability. To test the relative effects of homology model template selection and the binding site optimization procedure, we generated and evaluated a naïve M<sub>2</sub>R model, using the M<sub>3</sub>R crystal structure as a template. Our results confirm previous findings that binding site optimization using ligand(s) active at a particular receptor, i.e. including functional knowledge into the model building process, has a more pronounced effect on model quality than target–template sequence similarity. The optimized M<sub>1</sub>R–M<sub>5</sub>R homology models are made available as part of the Supporting Information to allow researchers to use these structures, compare them to their own results, and thus advance the development of better modeling approaches.



## ■ INTRODUCTION

The use of structure-based design methods for G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) is an active area of research.<sup>1–4</sup> It commenced in the early 2000s after the landmark report of the crystal structure of bovine rhodopsin<sup>5</sup> and accelerated after 2007, when the first crystal structures of ligand-infusible GPCR complexes were solved.<sup>6–8</sup> Technological advances have greatly improved the success of GPCR crystallization<sup>7,9,10</sup> and, at the time of writing, over 30 crystal structures of GPCRs have been solved.<sup>11</sup> However, GPCR crystallization is still an area of highly specialized expertise with most structures coming from a limited number of research groups. As a result, the number of available structures is still very small given the ~800 GPCRs present in the human genome, including 342 nonolfactory receptors.<sup>12</sup> Many GPCR families are still not covered by the currently available high resolution structural information, and it is accepted that, at present, solving structures for all members of the GPCR superfamily is not a realistic goal.<sup>1,4</sup> Consequently, in the absence of experimental structural data, researchers who wish to use structure-based methods to target GPCRs turn to homology models for docking and virtual screening (VS).<sup>13</sup> In several of these drug discovery campaigns, GPCR homology models have proven useful for discovering agents for a range of GPCR targets (Table 1).

While generally an established technique, generation of GPCR homology models for virtual screening can be a speculative exercise, relying on many assumptions and suppositions. Therefore, careful consideration of several related aspects is required when such an exercise is undertaken. (i) Robustness of the computational protocol. This aspect comprises quality of both homology modeling and docking

algorithms and should always be evaluated against relevant targets for which experimental data is available: structural data for validating homology modeling and activity data for validating VS. The ultimate question that must be answered is whether the combination of the evaluative model and the protocol used can distinguish between known actives and drug-like decoy molecules. (ii) Quality and appropriateness of the input structural data; specifically the choice of template. Choosing a template for GPCR homology modeling has been previously evaluated;<sup>14–17</sup> however, with the ever-increasing number of available templates, this question cannot be resolved once and for all and requires regular re-evaluation. (iii) Predictive quality of the generated homology models. To address this final issue, homology models should be evaluated in a virtual screening scenario with a particular focus on decoy selection. Because of the importance of these issues, there is currently a considerable interest in evaluating homology modeling and VS protocols as applied to GPCRs.<sup>18–20</sup>

In this study, we have addressed all of the above issues by modeling the five subtypes of muscarinic acetylcholine receptors (mAChRs) and evaluating them using virtual screening. The mAChRs receptors (M<sub>1</sub>R–M<sub>5</sub>R) can be subdivided into two functional classes based on their G protein coupling preference.<sup>21</sup> The M<sub>1</sub>R, M<sub>3</sub>R, and M<sub>5</sub>R selectively couple to G proteins of the G<sub>q</sub>/G<sub>11</sub> family while the M<sub>2</sub>R and M<sub>4</sub>R preferentially activate G<sub>i</sub>/G<sub>o</sub>-type G proteins. Activation of mAChRs leads to a wide range of biochemical and physiological effects, primarily depending on the mAChR location and

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Table 1. Prospective Virtual Screening Campaigns against GPCR Homology Models

| target <sup>a</sup>              | template <sup>a</sup>   | homology modeling program | docking/screening program | screening library                            | hit rate <sup>b</sup> | affinity (number of compounds) <sup>c</sup>  | ref    |
|----------------------------------|---|---------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|--|--------|
| D <sub>3</sub> R                 | $\beta_2$ AR, $\beta_1$ AR                                      | MODELLER                  | DOCK3.6                   | prefiltered ZINC <sup>28</sup> (3000K+)      | 23% (20%)             | $K_i = 0.2 - 3.1 \mu\text{M}$ (6) optimized $K_i = 81 \text{ nM}$ (1)                  | 29     |
| CXCR4                            | rhodopsin, $\beta_2$ AR, $\beta_1$ AR, A <sub>2A</sub> R        | MODELLER                  | DOCK3.6                   | lead-like subset of ZINC (3300K)             | 4% (17%)              | $\text{IC}_{50} = 107 \mu\text{M}$ (1)   | 30     |
| CXCR7                            | rhodopsin, $\beta_2$ AR, $\beta_1$ AR, A <sub>2A</sub> R, CXCR4 | MOE                       | CONSENSUS-DOCK            | 3 proprietary collections (187K, 402K, 196K) | 3.3%                  | $\text{IC}_{50} = 1.29-11.4 \mu\text{M}$ (21)  | 31     |
| S1PR1 <sup>d</sup>               | rhodopsin   | GPCRgen                   | Snooker                   | diverse subset of MSD/Organon library (50K)  | NR                    | $\text{p}K_i = 4.3-4.7$ (3)  | 32, 33 |
| A <sub>2A</sub> R                | $\beta_1$ AR  | MODELLER, MOE             | Glide                     | CAP, BioFocus SoftFocus (545K)               | 9%                    | $\text{p}K_i = 7.5-9.0$ (6) (13 to >100-fold selective vs A <sub>1</sub> R)            | 34     |
| 5-HT <sub>7</sub> R <sup>d</sup> | rhodopsin   | MODELLER                  | Glide                     | Enamine Screening Collection (730K)          | NR                    | $K_i = 0.197$ and $0.265 \mu\text{M}$ (2)  | 35, 36 |
| 5-HT <sub>2</sub> R              | $\beta_2$ AR  | MODELLER                  | DOCK3.5, MM-GBSA          | FDA drug library, filtered by MW (1430)      | NR                    | $K_i = 1.959 \text{ mM}$ (1)   | 37     |
| MCH-1R                           | $\beta_2$ AR  | MOE                       | GOLD                      | commercial vendor catalogues (45K)           | 14%                   | $\text{IC}_{50} = 131$ and $213 \text{ nM}$ (2 most potent out of 10 novel chemotypes) | 38     |
| CB <sub>2</sub> R                | $\beta_2$ AR  | CHARMM for "activation"   | GOLD                      | filtered subset of ZINC (273K)               | 12%                   | $K_i = 2.3 \text{ nM}-71.43 \mu\text{M}$ (13)  | 39     |

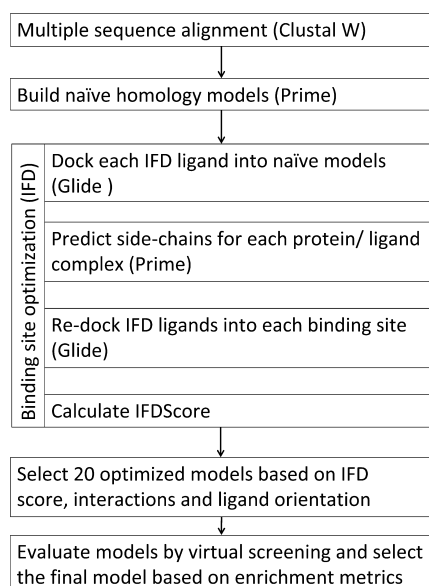
<sup>a</sup>Receptor abbreviations: adenosine A<sub>X</sub> receptor, A<sub>X</sub>R;  $\beta_X$ -adrenergic receptor,  $\beta_X$ AR; cannabinoid receptor 2, CB<sub>2</sub>R; C-X-C chemokine receptor 4, CXCR4; dopamine D<sub>3</sub> receptor, D<sub>3</sub>R; melanin-concentrating hormone-1 receptor, MCH-1R; serotonin 5-HT<sub>X</sub> receptor, 5-HT<sub>X</sub>R; sphingosine 1-phosphate receptor, S1PR1. <sup>b</sup>Hit rates are estimated differently in various studies. Where available, we quote hit rates for VS against crystal structures for comparison, in parentheses. NR = not reported. <sup>c</sup>Reported as per original papers. <sup>d</sup>A combination of ligand-based and structure-based approaches were used in this campaign.

subtype. The M<sub>1</sub>R, M<sub>4</sub>R, and M<sub>5</sub>R subtypes are mainly expressed in the central nervous system (CNS); whereas, the M<sub>2</sub>R and M<sub>3</sub>R subtypes are widely distributed both in the CNS and in peripheral tissues. Specifically, we have generated homology models of mAChRs M<sub>1</sub>–M<sub>5</sub>, using the  $\beta_2$ -adrenergic receptor ( $\beta_2$ AR) crystal structure (PDB ID: 2RH1)<sup>6</sup> as the template and have optimized their orthosteric binding sites using the induced fit docking (IFD) procedure.<sup>22</sup> (i) We have demonstrated the robustness of our homology modeling/VS protocol using the  $\beta_2$ AR crystal structure in complex with the inverse agonist carazolol and  $\beta_2$ AR antagonist and inverse agonist activity data. We have further verified the protocol by a validation against the  $\beta_2$ AR crystal structure in complex with alprenolol.<sup>23</sup> (ii) To assess the predictive quality of the M<sub>1</sub>R–M<sub>5</sub>R models, we have carried out virtual screening investigations of all five homology models. The models have been tested against property-matched decoy libraries to demonstrate their unbiased predictive capacity. (iii) Furthermore, after the M<sub>2</sub>R (human)<sup>24</sup> and M<sub>3</sub>R (rat)<sup>25</sup> crystal structures became available, a naïve (i.e., nonoptimized) M<sub>2</sub>R model was generated using the M<sub>3</sub>R crystal structure as a template. Evaluating VS performance allowed comparison between the models: naïve but based on a close-sequence template and optimized but based on a more remote-sequence template. Our results support previous findings that binding site optimization using ligand(s) active at a particular receptor, i.e. including functional knowledge into the model building process,<sup>26</sup> has a pronounced effect on model quality for virtual screening. It is clear from our results that carefully designed and knowledge-based homology structures, built with templates with greater than 35% overall similarity in the trans-membrane region,<sup>1</sup> are at least as useful in VS as crystal structures. Finally, similar to our previous work,<sup>27</sup> we have released the coordinates of the five optimized muscarinic receptor structures in the spirit of open science research.

## EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

**Software.** Molecular modeling was performed with the Schrödinger software suite.<sup>40,41</sup> Homology models of the five muscarinic M<sub>1</sub>–M<sub>5</sub> acetylcholine receptors were built in Prime<sup>42</sup> (v 3.0 and 3.1) from a multiple sequence alignment generated in ClustalW<sup>43</sup> using the Maestro interface (v 9.2 and 9.3). Ligand molecules were prepared using LigPrep<sup>44</sup> (v 2.5), and the binding site was optimized using the IFD protocol<sup>22</sup> following the previously developed procedure.<sup>27</sup> Ligands were docked into the homology models using Glide<sup>45,46</sup> (v 5.7 and 5.8). Default settings were used, unless otherwise stated. Physical descriptors evaluated for comparison of the decoy sets with the active compounds included molecular weight (MW), number of rotatable bonds, number of hydrogen bond donor and acceptor atoms, and calculated logP (ClogP). These physical properties, along with polar surface area (PSA) and vdW volume, were computed using the ChemAxon Marvin Calculator (cxcalc) (<http://www.chemaxon.com>). The 2D Tanimoto score (calculated using fragment sizes of 1–7 atoms, ignoring hydrogens) was measured to demonstrate the diversity of the structures within the ligand sets.<sup>47</sup> The workflow followed in this study is shown in Figure 1 and described in detail in the following sections.

**Homology Modeling.** The sequences of the human dopamine, serotonin,  $\alpha$ - and  $\beta$ -adrenergic, adenosine, histamine, muscarinic, and bovine rhodopsin receptors were obtained from the Universal Protein Resource (<http://www.uniprot.org/>) and aligned using ClustalW. The multiple sequence alignment generated was manually edited to remove gaps in helices and to anchor highly conserved residues in each transmembrane (TM) helix. Naïve homology models for the five human mAChRs were built in Prime v 3.0 from the multiple sequence alignment, using the  $\beta_2$ -adrenergic receptor (PDB ID: 2RH1) crystal structure<sup>6</sup> as the template. The human muscarinic M<sub>2</sub> acetylcholine receptor was also built in Prime v 3.1, using the rat muscarinic M<sub>3</sub> acetylcholine receptor (PDB



**Figure 1.** Flowchart of homology modeling and model evaluation.

ID: 4DAJ) crystal structure<sup>25</sup> as the template. Further details are described in our previous work.<sup>27</sup>

**Binding Site Optimization.** The  $\beta_2$ AR crystal structure (PDB ID: 2RH1) and the mAChRs homology models were treated by the Protein Preparation Wizard workflow,<sup>44</sup> prior to docking. Hydrogen atoms were added and minimized using the OPLS\_2005 force field. The side chain conformations of the residues within the ligand binding site were refined by docking an appropriate antagonist or inverse agonist into each of the built muscarinic receptor homology models and the  $\beta_2$ AR crystal structure using the IFD protocol. The docking site was centered upon the residues Asp 3.32, Trp 6.48, Phe 6.52, and Tyr 7.43 (Ballesteros–Weinstein numbering<sup>48</sup>) and was defined by a box of dimensions  $28 \times 28 \times 28$  Å. Up to 50 poses per ligand were collected in the initial Glide docking step, with both the van der Waals (vdW) radii and the partial atomic charges scaled to 0.5 in order to collect a more extensive range of poses.

Prime was used to optimize residues within 5 Å of ligand atoms, excluding Asp 3.32 and Trp 6.48, which play a critical role in correctly orienting ligand molecules. Trp 6.48 is a key residue of the aromatic cluster of TM5 and TM6, believed to act as a “micro-switch”, important for receptor activation and inactivation.<sup>49</sup> The IFD protocol was found to consistently cause Trp 6.48 to undergo a conformational “flip” during the Prime step, forcing the bulky indole side chain down and away from the binding pocket. For  $M_1$ R– $M_5$ R models, when Trp 6.48 and Asp 3.32 were omitted from binding site optimization, more credible ligand poses were obtained, which led to better enrichment. Pala et al.<sup>16</sup> report a similar observation for VS-evaluated homology models of the MT<sub>2</sub> melatonin receptor,

namely that residues known to form critical ligand contacts tended to adopt a conformation not favorable to forming such contacts. They have taken this observation as another reason for “calibrating” models (e.g., by VS evaluation) to determine the domain of their applicability.

Following optimization with Prime, the ligand was redocked into the optimized receptor conformations with Glide, using default vdW and charge scaling parameters. Multiple ligand–receptor poses were generated for each model. Successful poses were chosen on the basis of the position and orientation of the ligand within the binding pocket, key hydrogen bonding and vdW interactions, and the relative energy of interaction (a composite of the protein and ligand energy scores: IFDScore = GlideScore +  $0.05 \times$  PrimeEnergy). A maximum of 20 poses were collected. During the IFD optimization of the binding sites, we monitored the distance (ndist) between the ionizable or quaternary nitrogen of the ligand (for simplicity we will just refer to this atom as the “ionizable nitrogen”) and the closest carboxylate oxygen of the conserved Asp 3.32 residue. This residue has been determined by site-directed mutagenesis to be crucial in the ligand-binding mode of all aminergic GPCRs.<sup>50</sup> The term ndist is a quantitative measure of this important ionic interaction, and receptors with ndist > 3.0 Å were excluded from further analysis.

**Virtual Screening Libraries.** Active compounds known to act at the  $\beta_2$ -adrenergic and muscarinic receptors were used to enrich the decoy compound databases (20 actives for  $\beta_2$ AR and 48 actives for mAChRs; see Table S1 for the lists of actives and ref 27 for chemical structures). The active compounds were downloaded from the GLIDA database<sup>51</sup> (<http://pharminfo.pharm.kyoto-u.ac.jp/services/glide/>). Protonation states and formal charges at physiological pH (pH  $7.4 \pm 2.0$ ) for each active ligand and decoy compound were assigned in LigPrep. One structure per compound was selected for screening.

Three sets of decoy compounds were used in this study. Set 1, containing 1000 drug-like decoy compounds, was obtained from Schrödinger (<http://www.schrodinger.com>). This set had been randomly selected from a library of one million compounds having properties characteristic of drug molecules.<sup>45,46</sup> We have analyzed the properties of the decoy ligands and active compounds: molecular weight (g/mol), number of rotatable bonds, polar surface area (Å<sup>2</sup>), calculated logP, number of hydrogen bond donors and acceptors, solvent accessible volume (Å<sup>3</sup>), and 2D Tanimoto score. Generally, the properties of the active compounds were found to be similar to those of the decoy library (Table 2). The molecular weights varied from 151 to 645 g/mol, with an average of 360 g/mol. These decoys were not specifically chosen to mimic muscarinic antagonist compounds, as we first wanted to ascertain whether our models were capable of identifying active ligands from within a broad representation of drug-like compound space.

Decoy set 2 was derived from the ZINC database<sup>28</sup> (7 233 297 compounds, database version 7) by a process of successive

**Table 2.** Average Ligand Properties

| ligand set             | MW (g/mol) | rotatable bonds | PSA (Å <sup>2</sup> ) | ClogP | H-bond donor | H-bond acceptor | vdW volume (Å <sup>3</sup> ) | 2D Tanimoto score |
|------------------------|------------|-----------------|-----------------------|-------|--------------|-----------------|------------------------------|-------------------|
| $M_1$ R actives        | 324        | 5.1             | 31                    | 3.03  | 1.4          | 1.6             | 318                          | 0.233             |
| decoy sets             |            |                 |                       |       |              |                 |                              |                   |
| 1: Schrödinger         | 360        | 5.0             | 84                    | 2.90  | 2.0          | 4.2             | 316                          | 0.125             |
| 2: ZINC                | 320        | 4.3             | 38                    | 3.43  | 1.4          | 1.7             | 302                          | 0.185             |
| 3: refined Schrödinger | 343        | 4.8             | 79                    | 2.59  | 2.4          | 3.3             | 312                          | 0.143             |



eliminations, creating a subset of molecules that closely adhered to the physical properties of the actives (Table 2). Specifically, decoys were required to fall within a similar normal distribution as the active compounds (265–434 g/mol; mean 322 g/mol; standard deviation 40 g/mol). Decoys were also required to contain an ionizable nitrogen and not to contain more than three hydrogen bond donors or four hydrogen bond acceptors. Finally, each decoy was required to have a Tanimoto score of less than 0.8 with respect to all other molecules within the set to ensure topological diversity. 1000 molecules were randomly selected from a larger subset satisfying the applied criteria, so that direct comparisons could be made between the screening results using the Schrödinger and ZINC libraries, in terms of enrichment factors and early hits. A carefully selected set of 1000 molecules seems to be sufficient to detect enrichment trends. Huang et al. found that there was little size-dependent behavior detected when screening with their entire Directory of Useful Decoys (DUD)<sup>52</sup> of 98 266 molecules compared to a randomly selected subset of 1000 molecules.

Decoy set 3 (refined Schrödinger) was a subset of the decoy set 1, with molecular weight limited to be consistent with that of the active compounds (260–410 g/mol). All compounds from the Schrödinger decoy library with a molecular weight which fell outside the range of the active compounds were removed. Furthermore, all decoy compounds which did not contain an ionizable nitrogen were similarly removed to create a more challenging decoy set of 261 compounds.

**Enrichment Studies.** Molecular docking studies were performed using Glide, which flexibly docks ligands into a rigid receptor model. The docking site was centered upon the coordinates of carazolol (the inverse agonist present in the  $\beta_2$ AR crystal structure) and limited to accommodate ligands up to 18 Å in length. The midpoint of each ligand was bound to an inner box of 10 Å<sup>3</sup>. Postdocking minimization retained a single pose per ligand. Both the Standard Precision (SP) and the Extra Precision (XP) scoring functions were evaluated, and XP gave marginally better results, which are presented here. Poses were ranked using GlideScore. Following docking, models were visually inspected to ensure that the ligands were well oriented within the defined binding pocket and to ensure that important expected interactions, based on mutagenesis studies,<sup>53</sup> were found between ligand and receptor molecules. Enrichment factors (EF) were calculated at 2, 5, and 10% of the total number of compounds ( $N_{\text{total}}$ ) screened, according to  $\text{EF}^{x\%} = (\text{Hits}_{\text{sampled}}/N_{\text{sampled}}) \div (\text{Hits}_{\text{total}}/N_{\text{total}})$ .

## RESULTS

**Method Evaluation:  $\beta_2$  Adrenergic Receptor Ligand Docking.** Our modeling protocol encompasses generating multiple IFD complex structures and selecting final receptor models. To evaluate the protocol, we used the  $\beta_2$ AR as a test case. Thirty-three structures of the  $\beta_2$ AR/carazolol complex were generated using IFD. To test the ability of our modeling and VS evaluation workflow to preferentially retrieve known actives, we docked 20 known  $\beta_2$ AR antagonists (see Table S1 in the Supporting Information) and the library of Schrödinger decoys into all 33 receptor models. Higher enrichment factors and area under the enrichment curve (AUC) values and lower average distance between the ligand ionizable nitrogen and Asp 3.32 (ndist) correlated with greater model efficiency in selecting active molecules early in the screen. The properties of the top 5 highest ranked models are shown in Table 3, and a complete list is provided in Supporting Information Table S2. A

**Table 3. Five Top Ranked Models from Virtual Screening of the  $\beta_2$ AR Structures Generated by IFD Using Carazolol**

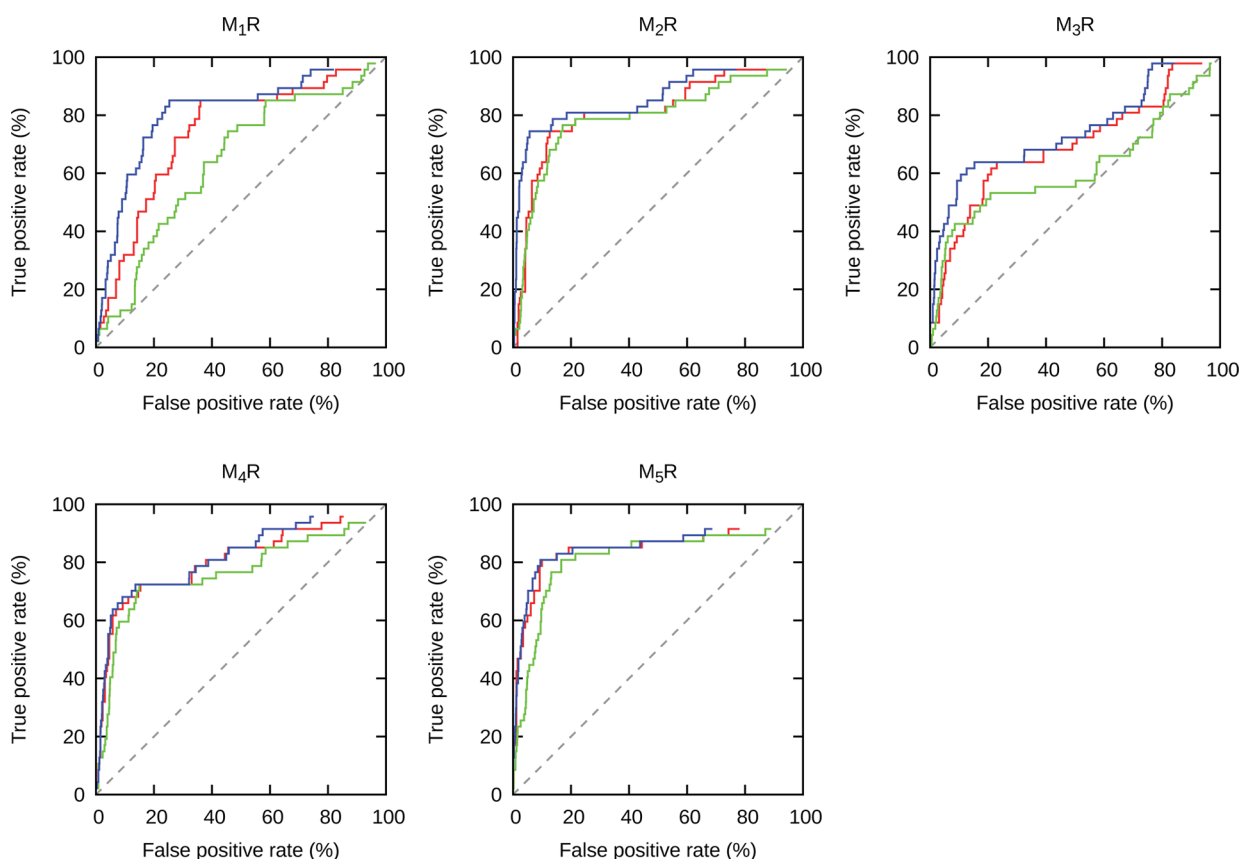
| ranking | enrichment factor |      |     |      | mean<br>ndist<br>(Å) | Carazolol<br>RMSD<br>(Å) | Alprenolol<br>RMSD (Å) |
|---------|-------------------|------|-----|------|----------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|
|         | 2%                | 5%   | 10% | AUC  |                      |                          |                        |
| 1       | 21.8              | 13.7 | 8.9 | 0.96 | 2.09                 | 0.75                     | 0.65                   |
| 2       | 21.8              | 13.7 | 9.4 | 0.93 | 2.30                 | 1.50                     | 1.95                   |
| 3       | 14.5              | 12.7 | 8.9 | 0.95 | 2.51                 | 1.21                     | 1.62                   |
| 4       | 12.1              | 11.7 | 9.4 | 0.95 | 2.36                 | 4.37                     | 1.95                   |
| 5       | 12.1              | 12.7 | 8.9 | 0.96 | 2.79                 | 1.63                     | 1.09                   |

detailed comparison between  $\beta_2$ AR/carazolol IFD complexes and carazolol- or alprenolol-bound crystal structures is presented in the Supporting Information. This test case shows that our protocol can retrieve correct binding modes for  $\beta_2$ AR/carazolol complexes (i.e., consistent with crystal structures).

**Homology Modeling of Muscarinic Receptors. Binding Site Optimization by IFD.** Clozapine and atropine were chosen as the optimizing ligands for IFD since they have high affinity for the  $M_1$ – $M_5$  receptors; reported clozapine  $K_i$  values vary from 1.4–5.0 nM and atropine  $K_i$  values range between 0.2 and 1.5 nM.<sup>54</sup> Following the VS procedure, described below, we found that the atropine-optimized model for the  $M_1$ R gave the best enrichment, while the best  $M_2$ R– $M_5$ R models were optimized using clozapine.

**Model Quality Evaluation by VS.** We evaluated the ability of the receptor models to prioritize active compounds over decoy molecules. The decoy libraries, enriched with the respective active compounds (see Table S1 in the Supporting Information), were docked into the receptor models. The IFD ligands, used for binding site optimization, were excluded from virtual screening to remove any potential structural bias. While enrichment plots and enrichment factors (EFs) are still routinely used for evaluating VS performance (e.g., ref 18), they are not ideal and do not account for several aspects of virtual screening. ROC curves are superior to enrichment plots in that they not only reflect the selection of actives, but also the nonselection of decoys.<sup>55,56</sup> The metric afforded by a ROC curve is the area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (ROC AUC), which gives an indication of the total number of compounds successfully docked into the model and is interpreted as the probability that a randomly chosen active has a higher score than a randomly chosen inactive. Several metrics, such as NSQ\_AUC<sup>57</sup> and LogAUC,<sup>58</sup> have also been developed to focus on early, rather than overall, enrichment.

ROC curves for the  $M_1$ R– $M_5$ R models are shown in Figure 2. Enrichment plots and semilogarithmic ROC curves are provided in the Supporting Information (Figures S2 and S3). We also report the ROC AUC and LogAUC metrics, as enrichment measures (Table 4). The LogAUC preferentially weighs early enrichment by computing the percentage of the ideal area under the semilog ROC curve. The results reveal excellent enrichment capacity for  $M_2$ R,  $M_4$ R, and  $M_5$ R models with the latter having particularly good early enrichment. Although, the  $M_1$ R and, particularly, the  $M_3$ R gave lower enrichments using all three decoy sets, their enrichment metrics are comparable to and sometimes better than those obtained in recent reports. For example, homology models of the MT<sub>2</sub> melatonin receptor,<sup>16</sup> based on the  $\beta_2$ AR and optimized for antagonists gave  $\text{EF}_{2\%} = 3.1$ –18.7 and of antagonists against



**Figure 2.** ROC curves for M<sub>1</sub>R–M<sub>5</sub>R models: (blue) set 1, Schrödinger; (green) set 2, ZINC; (red) set 3, refined Schrödinger. The dotted line indicates random choice (no enrichment).

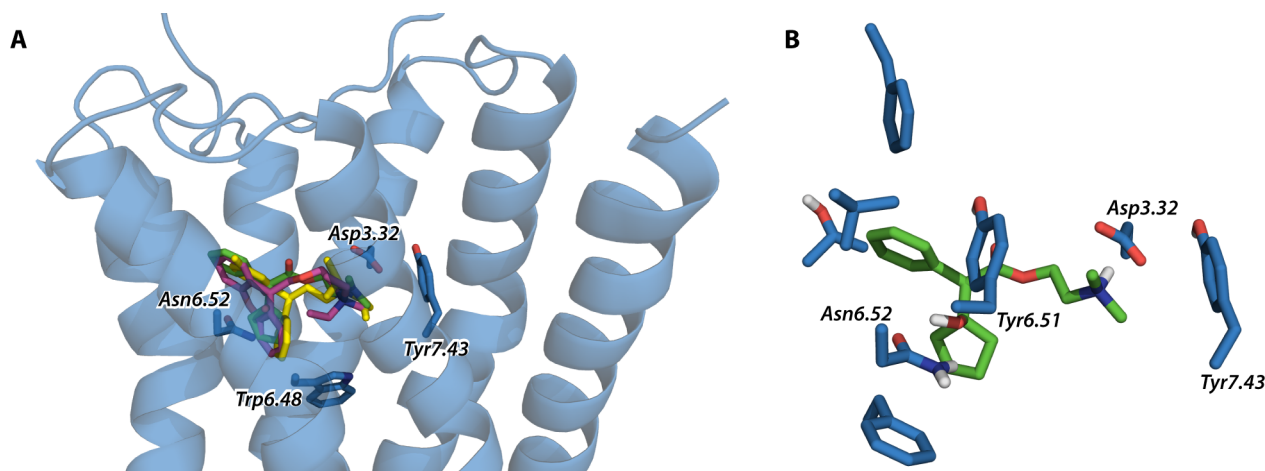
**Table 4. Virtual Screening Evaluation of Muscarinic Receptors**

| receptor                              | ROC AUC | LogAUC <sub>0.001</sub> | mean ndist (Å) | EF (at X % of ranked database) |      |     |
|---------------------------------------|---------|-------------------------|----------------|--------------------------------|------|-----|
|                                       |         |                         |                | 2                              | 5    | 10  |
| set 1 (Schrödinger decoy set)         |         |                         |                |                                |      |     |
| M <sub>1</sub> R                      | 0.81    | 0.35                    | 3.89           | 5.3                            | 5.5  | 4.7 |
| M <sub>2</sub> R                      | 0.86    | 0.50                    | 3.72           | 11.7                           | 11.4 | 7.4 |
| M <sub>3</sub> R                      | 0.74    | 0.38                    | 4.11           | 8.5                            | 7.6  | 4.9 |
| M <sub>4</sub> R                      | 0.82    | 0.41                    | 5.07           | 7.4                            | 8.4  | 6.4 |
| M <sub>5</sub> R                      | 0.85    | 0.53                    | 4.00           | 12.7                           | 10.1 | 7.4 |
| set 2 (ZINC decoy set)                |         |                         |                |                                |      |     |
| M <sub>1</sub> R                      | 0.64    | 0.22                    | 3.92           | 3.2                            | 2.1  | 1.3 |
| M <sub>2</sub> R                      | 0.79    | 0.36                    | 3.57           | 3.2                            | 5.9  | 5.3 |
| M <sub>3</sub> R                      | 0.62    | 0.26                    | 4.81           | 3.2                            | 5.5  | 4.2 |
| M <sub>4</sub> R                      | 0.76    | 0.35                    | 5.10           | 6.4                            | 5.5  | 5.7 |
| M <sub>5</sub> R                      | 0.81    | 0.40                    | 4.02           | 8.5                            | 5.5  | 5.3 |
| set 3 (refined Schrödinger decoy set) |         |                         |                |                                |      |     |
| M <sub>1</sub> R                      | 0.74    | 0.28                    | 3.89           | 2.8                            | 2.5  | 2.3 |
| M <sub>2</sub> R                      | 0.81    | 0.36                    | 3.72           | 2.8                            | 3.7  | 4.0 |
| M <sub>3</sub> R                      | 0.69    | 0.30                    | 4.11           | 3.7                            | 2.9  | 3.0 |
| M <sub>4</sub> R                      | 0.81    | 0.40                    | 5.07           | 4.7                            | 4.5  | 4.4 |
| M <sub>5</sub> R                      | 0.84    | 0.51                    | 4.00           | 5.6                            | 5.3  | 5.1 |

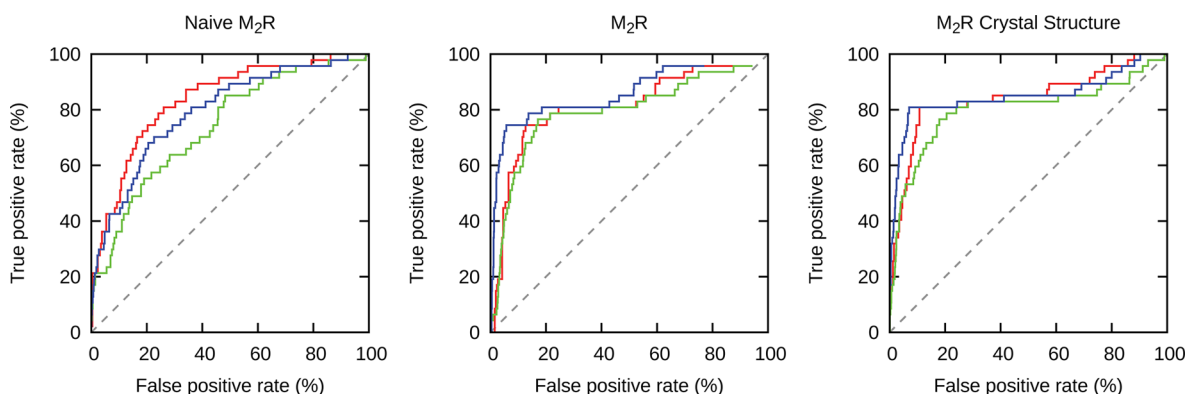
multiple  $\beta_2$ AR crystal structures gave  $EF_{2\%} = 0.3$ –11.7 and  $EF_{10\%} = 1.5$ –3.9.<sup>59</sup> While our results compare favorably with the cited work, such comparisons should not be overinterpreted given the studies used different actives, decoy sets, and receptor types.

The main deficiencies of the models are the failure to dock some of the actives, shown as a gap at the end of the ROC curves, and in the inability of the M<sub>3</sub>R model to identify a substantial fraction of actives, shown by the M<sub>3</sub>R plots dropping down to the “random” line at approximately 60% of the false positive rate when using the ZINC decoy set. The properties of actives that either did not dock or produced docked poses with a scoring energy greater than the set acceptable cutoff are reported in the Supporting Information (Table S3). This data suggests that the most likely reason for docking failure is the large size of these compounds; thus a better M<sub>3</sub>R model might be developed by using an alternative bulkier IFD ligand.

As a simple evaluation of the binding geometries, we calculated the distance between the ionizable nitrogen of the actives and Asp 3.32 (ndist). Mean values for each set are reported in Table 4. In the majority of cases, ndist fell within the range exhibited by ligands in 22 GPCR crystal structures (2.52 Å (PDB ID: 2Y01)–4.02 Å (PDB ID: 4DAJ)); mean 2.92 Å). This salt bridge and other key receptor–ligand hydrogen bonding and ionic interactions were observed among many of the top-ranked poses of active compounds. This confirmed that not only were the models capable of producing high enrichment, they were also generating the expected contacts. Figure 3 illustrates binding modes of three active ligands, demonstrating interactions with binding site residues. It could be therefore suggested that a requirement for ndist to be less than 4 Å may serve as a useful pharmacophore filter in prospective virtual screening against aminergic GPCRs. However, it should be noted that recent work by Lin et al.



**Figure 3.** Cartoon representation of the M<sub>2</sub>R model, showing the docked poses of the three highest ranked actives (A) and a close-up of cyclopentolate surrounded by its interacting residues (B). Color coding: cyclopentolate (green), tolterodine (yellow), and methantheline (pink). Binding site residues are blue.



**Figure 4.** ROC curves for the M<sub>2</sub>R naïve model (left), the M<sub>2</sub>R optimized model (middle), and the M<sub>2</sub>R crystal structure (right): (blue) set 1, Schrödinger; (green) set 2, ZINC; (red) set 3, refined Schrödinger. The dotted line indicates random choice (no enrichment).

has demonstrated that activity may be achieved without making this contact.<sup>37</sup>

Due to the high similarity of the five subtypes M<sub>1</sub>R–M<sub>5</sub>R, compounds which act at the M<sub>1</sub>R usually also have some affinity for the other subtypes.<sup>21</sup> A rigorous test of model quality would be to dock compounds with a high level of specificity for individual subtypes into all subtypes so that an assessment of the selectivity of the homology models could be made. However, a significant difficulty encountered in this project has been to identify a sufficient number of compounds that are generally agreed to be selective for one receptor over the other four subtypes.

**Comparison of Decoy Sets.** The analysis of the VS data obtained using the Schrödinger decoy set (set 1) revealed that the results are biased toward low molecular weight compounds (across both active and decoy sets), which is reasonable given the characteristic small binding pocket of mAChRs.<sup>24,25</sup> Recent publications have given considerable attention to the development of receptor-appropriate decoy libraries.<sup>15,59</sup> Decoy sets, where the physical properties of compounds differ substantially from the corresponding active ligands, have been shown to lead to biased virtual screening results and often artificially good enrichment.<sup>52</sup>

Both the ZINC and refined Schrödinger decoy sets (sets 2 and 3) were matched to actives in terms of their physical properties, including the requirement to contain only

compounds with an ionizable nitrogen at physiological pH. This filter was based on one of the benchmarks for model success, specifically their ability to generate the salt bridge between the ionizable nitrogen of a ligand and the Asp 3.32 residue of the receptor. Thus, these challenging sets of decoys were designed to investigate whether the docking and scoring process could select for this interaction in actives ahead of decoys that also contained an ionizable nitrogen.

The enrichment metrics (Table 4) and ROC and enrichment curves (Figures 2, S2, and S3 (Supporting Information)) demonstrate that indeed these sets of decoys are more challenging (particularly, for M<sub>1</sub>R and M<sub>3</sub>R). But encouragingly, the models produced enrichment and early enrichment values similar to that of nonproperty matched decoys (particularly, for M<sub>4</sub>R and M<sub>5</sub>R). These results indicate that our models are indeed capable of preferentially identifying active compounds among property-matched decoys.

**Template Selection vs Binding Site Optimization.** The choice of an appropriate template for GPCR homology modeling is an area of long-standing debate.<sup>14–16</sup> It has recently been demonstrated that, while important, the choice of template should be made while also considering issues such as binding site optimization and knowledge-enhancement of homology models. Specifically, Tropsha and co-workers<sup>26</sup> have compared the VS effectiveness of  $\beta_2$ AR crystal structures with a range of historical  $\beta_2$ AR models that were built before

the crystal structures became available. They demonstrated that several models produced VS enrichment comparable to and even exceeding that of crystal structures.

Here we investigated the proposal that an optimized homology model may approach the quality of a crystal structure, even though it is based on a remote template. Using the recently solved structure of the rat M<sub>3</sub>R<sup>25</sup> as a template, we built a naïve human M<sub>2</sub>R homology model, i.e. a homology model that has not been optimized by IFD. This naïve model had an RMSD of 1.64 Å to the human M<sub>2</sub>R crystal structure. It can be seen from the results of VS (Figures 4, S4, and S5 (Supporting Information) and Table 5) that the

**Table 5. Virtual Screening Evaluation of M<sub>2</sub> Muscarinic Receptors**

| receptor                              | ROC<br>AUC | LogAUC <sub>0.001</sub> | ndist | EF (at X % of ranked<br>database) |      |     |
|---------------------------------------|------------|-------------------------|-------|-----------------------------------|------|-----|
|                                       |            |                         |       | 2                                 | 5    | 10  |
| set 1 (Schrödinger decoy set)         |            |                         |       |                                   |      |     |
| optimized<br>model                    | 0.86       | 0.47                    | 3.72  | 11.7                              | 11.4 | 7.4 |
| naïve model                           | 0.80       | 0.38                    | 6.28  | 9.6                               | 5.9  | 4.2 |
| crystal structure                     | 0.85       | 0.55                    | 4.82  | 15.9                              | 10.9 | 7.9 |
| set 2 (ZINC decoy set)                |            |                         |       |                                   |      |     |
| optimized<br>model                    | 0.79       | 0.36                    | 3.57  | 3.2                               | 5.9  | 5.3 |
| naïve model                           | 0.74       | 0.33                    | 6.02  | 8.5                               | 4.2  | 3.4 |
| crystal structure                     | 0.80       | 0.42                    | 5.16  | 8.5                               | 8.0  | 5.3 |
| set 3 (refined Schrödinger decoy set) |            |                         |       |                                   |      |     |
| optimized<br>model                    | 0.81       | 0.36                    | 3.72  | 2.8                               | 3.7  | 4.0 |
| naïve model                           | 0.84       | 0.40                    | 6.28  | 5.6                               | 4.1  | 3.6 |
| crystal structure                     | 0.84       | 0.47                    | 4.82  | 6.6                               | 4.9  | 4.2 |

optimized model, based on the  $\beta_2$ AR template, significantly outperforms the naïve M<sub>3</sub>R-based variant and produces results close to those for the M<sub>2</sub>R crystal structure. These results mirror those obtained in VS against the homology models of the MT<sub>2</sub> melatonin receptor where the EF<sub>2%</sub> increased from 0 to 5.2 for a crude model to 3.1–18.7 for an optimized model.<sup>16</sup> Similar to the observations for other muscarinic models (Table 4), decoy sets 2 and 3 (ZINC and refined Schrödinger) make discrimination of decoys and actives more difficult. However, even with these demanding decoys, the optimized model still outperforms the naïve model in terms of enrichment, if not early enrichment.

Binding site optimization takes into account the structural plasticity of a binding site and its adjustment to the structural demands of an active ligand. Our results demonstrate that the optimized M<sub>2</sub>R model, based on the remote sequence template, was better at distinguishing actives from decoys than the naïve M<sub>2</sub>R model, based on the close sequence template. Thus, it is clear that the choice of IFD ligand and the robustness of the IFD protocol could be as important for the production of a useful receptor model as the extent of target–template sequence similarity.

## DISCUSSION

Several muscarinic receptor models have been generated over the past few years (summarized in Table 6), with the majority being of the M<sub>1</sub>R.<sup>60–69</sup> Two models each of the M<sub>3</sub>R<sup>70,71</sup> and the M<sub>2</sub>R<sup>72–74</sup> and one model of the M<sub>5</sub>R<sup>75</sup> have been also reported. These models were generally constructed in the course of molecular pharmacology studies to address issues of receptor activation and selectivity, allosterism, and bitopic binding, or receptor dimerization, although some groups have used predominantly modeling approaches to investigate the structural mechanisms of antagonist binding, receptor activa-

**Table 6. Muscarinic Receptor Modeling Studies**

| receptor         | template         | homology modeling program | purpose  | additional techniques used                                     | ref    |
|------------------|------------------|---------------------------|--|--|--------|
| M <sub>1</sub> R | rhodopsin        | MODELLER                  | molecular pharmacology of allosteric modulation by a peptide ligand      | loop modeling, MD, protein–protein docking                     | 65     |
|                  |                  | Prime                     | molecular pharmacology of allosteric potentiation                        |  | 62     |
|                  | $\beta_2$ AR     | VEGA                      | modeling study to investigate receptor activation                        | MD in hydrated lipid bilayer                                   | 60     |
|                  |                  | MOE                       | modeling study to investigate allosteric modulation by a peptide ligand  | MD in hydrated lipid bilayer, protein–protein docking          | 67     |
|                  |                  | QUANTA, MODELLER          | molecular pharmacology of activation and selectivity                     | loop modeling  | 61, 76 |
|                  |                  |                           | molecular pharmacology of allosterism and bitopic binding                | loop modeling  | 63, 76 |
|                  | D <sub>3</sub> R | MOE                       | molecular pharmacology of activation                                     | loop modeling  | 64     |
|                  |                  |                           | molecular pharmacology of allosterism and bitopic binding                | loop modeling  | 66     |
|                  | M <sub>3</sub> R | Prime                     | modeling study to investigate receptor activation                        | binding site refinement  | 77     |
|                  | M <sub>3</sub> R | MOE                       | molecular pharmacology of allosterism and bitopic binding                |  | 68     |
| M <sub>2</sub> R | M <sub>2</sub> R | MOE                       | homology modeling  |  | 69     |
|                  | M <sub>3</sub> R | Prime, MODELLER, YASARA   | modeling study to investigate the effect of template choice              | IFD  | 72     |
|                  |                  | ICM                       | molecular pharmacology of allosterism and bitopic binding                | flexible receptor docking of two agonists using BDMC algorithm | 73, 74 |
| M <sub>3</sub> R | rhodopsin        | MODELLER                  | modeling study to investigate structural mechanism of antagonist binding | MD in hydrated lipid bilayer                                   | 71     |
|                  | $\beta_1$ AR     | Prime                     | molecular pharmacology of dimerization                                   |  | 70     |
| M <sub>5</sub> R | $\beta_1$ AR     | MODELLER                  | modeling study to investigate structural mechanism of antagonist binding | MD in hydrated lipid bilayer                                   | 75     |



tion, and allosteric modulation. A range of templates were used in these studies: rhodopsin,  $\beta_1$ AR and  $\beta_2$ AR, as well as the more recently solved D<sub>3</sub>R, M<sub>2</sub>R, and M<sub>3</sub>R. Models were constructed using QUANTA/MODELLER, Prime, MOE, ICM, VEGA, and YASARA. Several approaches to additional model refinement were also implemented including MD in a hydrated lipid bilayer, loop modeling, and protein–protein docking. Significantly, the majority of the reported mAChR models were not optimized to generate knowledge-based models. In this study, we have developed such knowledge-based homology models of the muscarinic acetylcholine receptors M<sub>1</sub>R–M<sub>5</sub>R.

Binding site optimization has gained significant traction in the GPCR modeling field as an important way of using experimental knowledge (such as SAR and/or site-directed mutagenesis) to improve the quality and predictive power of naïve, or crude, homology models. Using 5-HT<sub>2A</sub>R as a test-case,<sup>27</sup> we have previously demonstrated the importance of loop refinement and, particularly, binding site optimization for improving model quality and VS performance. Such improvements have been also achieved for GPCR models in a number of studies focused on what has been termed ligand-steered,<sup>78</sup> ligand-guided,<sup>79,80</sup> ligand-adapted,<sup>16</sup> or ligand-optimized<sup>15</sup> homology modeling (Table 7). Binding site optimization via

**Table 7. Binding Site Optimization Methods**

| method   | receptor                              | ref |
|--|---------------------------------------|-----|
| randomizing and clustering receptor complex structures                             | $\beta_2$ AR and A <sub>2A</sub> R    | 78  |
| side chain conformation sampling in the presence of docked ligands                 | 5-HT <sub>x</sub> Rs                  | 37  |
|  | A <sub>x</sub> Rs                     | 80  |
| backbone perturbation and binding site reshaping with elastic normal-mode analysis | CXCR4                                 | 30, |
|  |                                       | 79  |
| IFD  | MT <sub>2</sub> melatonin receptor    | 16  |
|  | D <sub>1</sub> R and D <sub>2</sub> R | 15  |

a variety of methods—particularly those utilizing available experimental data about a target and its ligands—have been commonly used and shown to be successful in GPCR Dock assessments.<sup>19,20</sup>

Ideally, an optimized model, based on a close sequence template, would be the best choice for virtual screening.<sup>69,72</sup> However, close sequence templates are not always available. In such cases, knowledge-based optimization, e.g. by using established actives, can improve a model (Table 7). Using the M<sub>2</sub>R as a case study, we compared a naïve model, based on a close sequence template (M<sub>3</sub>R), and an optimized model, based on a more remote template ( $\beta_2$ AR). The IFD optimized model outperformed the naïve model in virtual screening. This observation parallels that of Kolaczowski et al.<sup>15</sup> who generated ligand-optimized homology models of the D<sub>1</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> dopamine receptors using IFD and tested them in VS against ZINC- and Schrödinger-based decoy libraries spiked with ligands specific for dopamine receptors. They found that binding site optimization significantly improved VS performance, while observing no advantage in using a D<sub>3</sub>R-based D<sub>2</sub>R model compared to a model based on the more evolutionary distant  $\beta_2$ AR. Our findings are also in agreement with those of Tropsha and co-workers,<sup>26</sup> who suggest that such knowledge-based models “may be even more useful for practical structure-based drug discovery than X-ray structures”.<sup>26</sup> Thus, our results and those of others<sup>15,17,26</sup> provide evidence that binding site optimization greatly improves homology models for VS. Future

work is required to evaluate homology models in a flexible receptor scenario: by on-the-fly receptor flexibility,<sup>81,82</sup> molecular dynamics,<sup>83</sup> or using receptor ensembles.<sup>84,85</sup>

Finally, we tested the M<sub>1</sub>R–M<sub>5</sub>R models against increasingly demanding decoy sets. Specifically, to avoid artificial enrichment due to active-favoring biases, we have matched physicochemical decoy properties to those of ligands active at muscarinic receptors. The results showed that indeed these sets of decoys were more challenging. However, even using our matched decoy sets, the models produced enrichment (including early enrichment), similar to that obtained using nonproperty matched decoys. Recently, Gatica and Cavasotto have published a GPCR decoy database, where 39 decoy molecules were selected for each GPCR ligand.<sup>59</sup> Similar to our findings, they observed a marked decrease in enrichment for matched decoys compared to bias-uncorrected decoys.

## CONCLUSIONS

In this work, we have developed homology models of the muscarinic acetylcholine receptors M<sub>1</sub>R–M<sub>5</sub>R and evaluated them in VS for the identification of antagonists. The models were generated by Prime and optimized using IFD (Glide + Prime). Model refinement was guided by experimental knowledge of active compounds and critical binding site residues. The refinement resulted in ligand-induced adaptation of the receptor binding sites, which optimized them for antagonist recognition. The homology models were evaluated in retrospective VS using Glide and were capable of distinguishing known antagonists from matched decoy compounds. These results bolster confidence for prospective virtual screening using these receptor models. Even more significantly, our results support the following suppositions about homology modeling of GPCRs: (i) binding site optimization is a crucial step in model generation, (ii) knowledge-based homology models of GPCRs are appropriate for prospective VS, and (iii) property-matched decoys should be used in VS evaluation of homology models. In line with our past practice, we make the optimized M<sub>1</sub>R–M<sub>5</sub>R homology models freely available as part of the Supporting Information. We consider such open access as crucial in our field since it allows researchers to use these structures, compare them to their own results,<sup>37,69</sup> and thus advance the development of better modeling methods.

## ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Supporting Information

List of actives used in virtual screening enrichment studies; properties of actives that either did not dock into M<sub>1</sub>R–M<sub>5</sub>R models or produced docked poses with a scoring energy greater than the set acceptable cutoff; enrichment plots and semilog ROC curves for M<sub>1</sub>R–M<sub>5</sub>R models and for the M<sub>2</sub>R optimized model, compared to the M<sub>2</sub>R naïve model and the M<sub>2</sub>R crystal structure; and PDB files of homology models. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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## Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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