

Descriptor-Driven de Novo Design Algorithms for DOCK6 Using RDKit

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Cite This: *J. Chem. Inf. Model.* 2023, 63, 5803–5822



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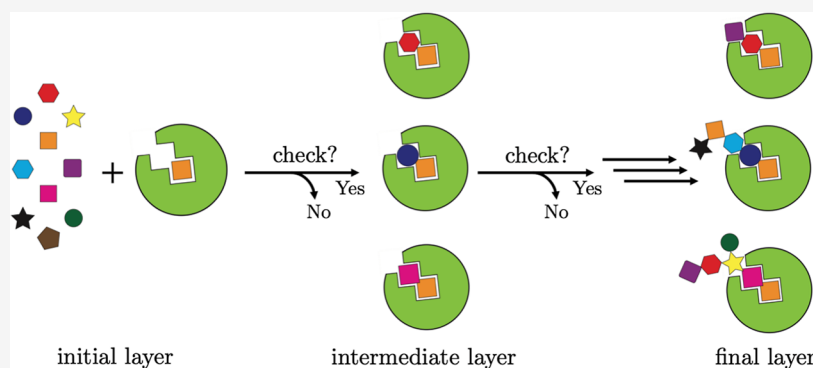
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ABSTRACT: Structure-based methods that employ principles of de novo design can be used to construct small organic molecules from scratch using pre-existing fragment libraries to sample chemical space and are an important class of computational algorithms for drug-lead discovery. Here, we present a powerful new design method for DOCK6 that employs a Descriptor-Driven De Novo strategy (termed D3N) in which user-defined cheminformatics descriptors (and their target ranges) are calculated at each layer of growth using the open-source toolkit RDKit. The objective is to tailor ligand growth toward desirable regions of chemical space. The approach was extensively validated through: (1) comparison of cheminformatics descriptors computed using the new DOCK6/RDKit interface versus the standard Python/RDKit installation, (2) examination of descriptor distributions generated using D3N growth under different conditions (target ranges and environments), and (3) construction of ligands with very tight (pinpoint) descriptor ranges using clinically relevant compounds as a reference. Our testing confirms that the new DOCK6/RDKit integration is robust, showcases how the new D3N routines can be used to direct sampling around user-defined chemical spaces, and highlights the utility of on-the-fly descriptor calculations for ligand design to important drug targets.

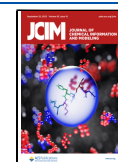
INTRODUCTION

Virtual screening methods are a commonly used and well-validated class of computational tools to help screen libraries of pre-existing purchasable (or likely synthesizable) small organic molecules to a drug target (usually a protein) prior to experimental testing.¹ Virtual screening protocols typically involve generation and evaluation of hundreds to thousands of conformations (poses) for every ligand that is docked to the target and identifies those that are most compatible according to physical interactions within the binding site and/or other user-specified criteria. Despite its effectiveness, exhaustive docking of large libraries such as ZINC,^{2–4} which continues to grow at an astounding rate, can be prohibitive for many users who lack the infrastructures to screen libraries on the order of 10^7 to 10^9 molecules. Further, given that the chemical space covered by current vendor catalogues is only a fraction of the available chemical space, standard virtual screening approaches may not always identify molecules optimal for the specific protein binding site being targeted.

Alternative methods, such as de novo design (hereafter abbreviated as DN), provide complementary ways to navigate and search chemical space using algorithms that enable molecules to be constructed from scratch, directly in the context of the binding site,^{5–11} thereby eliminating the need to start from libraries of pre-existing compounds. In theory, DN approaches should allow users to identify target-compatible compounds more quickly and with less computational effort than with virtual screens. In practice, molecules constructed using DN may have shortcomings that need to be addressed. For example, although DN molecules may have been constructed to interact favorably with the drug target, they

Received: July 7, 2023

Published: September 12, 2023



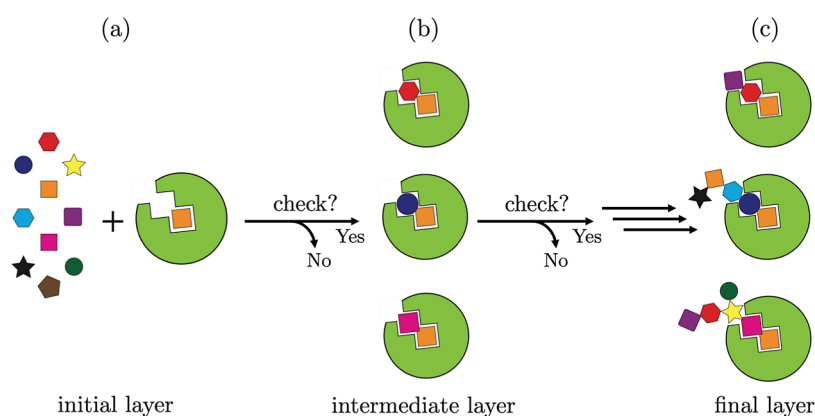


Figure 1. Schematic outline showing the D3N algorithm. (a) An anchor (initial layer, orange square) is selected from the fragment library (colored fragments) and oriented/scored in the protein binding site (green). (b) As candidate fragments are added to the anchor, the partially grown molecules must conform to the user-defined descriptor ranges (intermediate layer, orange + colored fragment) or the fragment is rejected. The process continues until the desired number of layers is reached (the present work employed up to 9 layers of growth). (c) The final ensemble will be enriched with fully grown molecules (multi-colored and connected fragments) that conform to the user-defined descriptor ranges.

may also be difficult to synthesize chemically¹² or have unfavorable cheminformatic properties typically required of drug-like candidates. Recently, several studies have employed artificial intelligence and/or machine learning in an attempt to address some of these known shortcomings.^{13–18} In our own work, we employed data mining to develop an “allowable torsion type” table to enforce chemically reasonable growth during DN based on deconstruction of 13M drug-like molecules, so that only previously observed torsion types would be allowed. A conceptually similar strategy, presented in the paper outlining the program OpenGrowth,¹⁹ employed functional group pairwise probabilities (termed FOG probabilities) to help promote physically reasonable molecules.

In the present work, we describe a significant new addition to the DOCK6 de novo design engine (DOCK_DN) that builds upon prior work described in Allen et al.²⁰ As shown in Figure 1a, ligand assembly in DOCK_DN begins with the orientation of a molecular fragment (termed anchor) selected from a user-definable fragment library (see Computational Methods and Details). Candidate fragments are then attached to each anchor, in a layer-by-layer fashion, similar to the standard DOCK6 anchor-and-grow algorithm,²¹ until a complete molecule is obtained. We hypothesized we could improve upon the current DOCK algorithms by checking whether partially grown molecules have reasonable drug-like properties at each layer of DN growth (Figure 1, horizontal arrows) using cheminformatics descriptors such as lipophilicity, solubility, topological polar surface area, or ease of synthesis, among others. The objective is to construct more pharmacologically favored ensembles, directly in the protein binding site, without the need for post-processing or filtering. We call our methodology “Descriptor-Driven De Novo” (abbreviated D3N) because the decision to promote partially grown molecules to the next layer of growth is contingent on user-defined ranges for the descriptor being employed. The primary objective of the present study is three-fold: (1) implement and validate a robust interface enabling DOCK6 to communicate with the open-source cheminformatics package RDKit,²² (2) confirm that the use of DOCK_D3N protocols leads to ligand ensembles that conform to the desired target values for the descriptors under different conditions and environments, and (3) examine ligand growth behavior using

very narrow ranges for descriptors derived from clinically relevant compounds.

COMPUTATIONAL METHODS AND DETAILS

Software Interface and Infrastructure. The DOCK6^{23–25} program is written primarily in C++ and the most recent version (DOCK6.10) has three main engines for ligand sampling and chemical searching: (1) virtual screening using an anchor-and-grow algorithm,²¹ (2) from-scratch construction using a DN design algorithm (DOCK_DN),²⁰ and (3) molecular evolution using a genetic algorithm (DOCK_GA).²⁶ The primary objective of the present work was development and testing of a DOCK6/RDKit interface to allow cheminformatics descriptors to be used in conjunction with DOCK_DN.²⁰ This required adapting the DOCK6 object *DOCKMol* to communicate with RDKit objects *ROMol* and *RWMol*. The names of relevant functions and input parameters in this paper are highlighted in *italics*. Briefly, the new DOCK6/RDKit interface, named *DOCKMol_to_ROMol*, assigns *DOCKMol* object atom types, bond orders, formal charges, and other molecular properties to *ROMol* that is ultimately used to calculate the RDKit descriptors. *DOCKMol_to_ROMol* is only used in circumstances when descriptors are required; otherwise, the standard *DOCKMol* object is employed. The *DOCKMol_to_ROMol* interface was largely inspired by the *Mol2FileParser* routine provided with the standard RDKit distribution.

The RDKit interface for DOCK in this work was developed on top of DOCK6.9 (<http://dock.compbio.ucsf.edu/>) using the 2019.09.01 release of RDKit (<http://rdkit.org/>) and Boost 1.71.0 (<http://boost.org/>). The RDKit compilation process also requires Boost 1.71.0 (<http://boost.org/>) in addition to Eigen 3.3.9 (<http://eigen.tuxfamily.org/>) and Anaconda3 (<http://anaconda.com/>). All code was compiled with GNU compilers (gcc/g++ 7). DOCK6 users have a choice if they want to compile DOCK6 with RDKit. If so, they will need to add the path for RDKit and Boost to their *bashrc* (or equivalent) file. In principle, the interface will allow any of the >50 RDKit descriptors (2D, 3D, fingerprints, and combinations thereof) to be used by DOCK6. This current work has focused on interfacing a relatively small subset of key descriptors including QED (quantitative estimate of drug likeness),²⁷ SynthA (synthetic accessibility),²⁸ TPSA (topo-

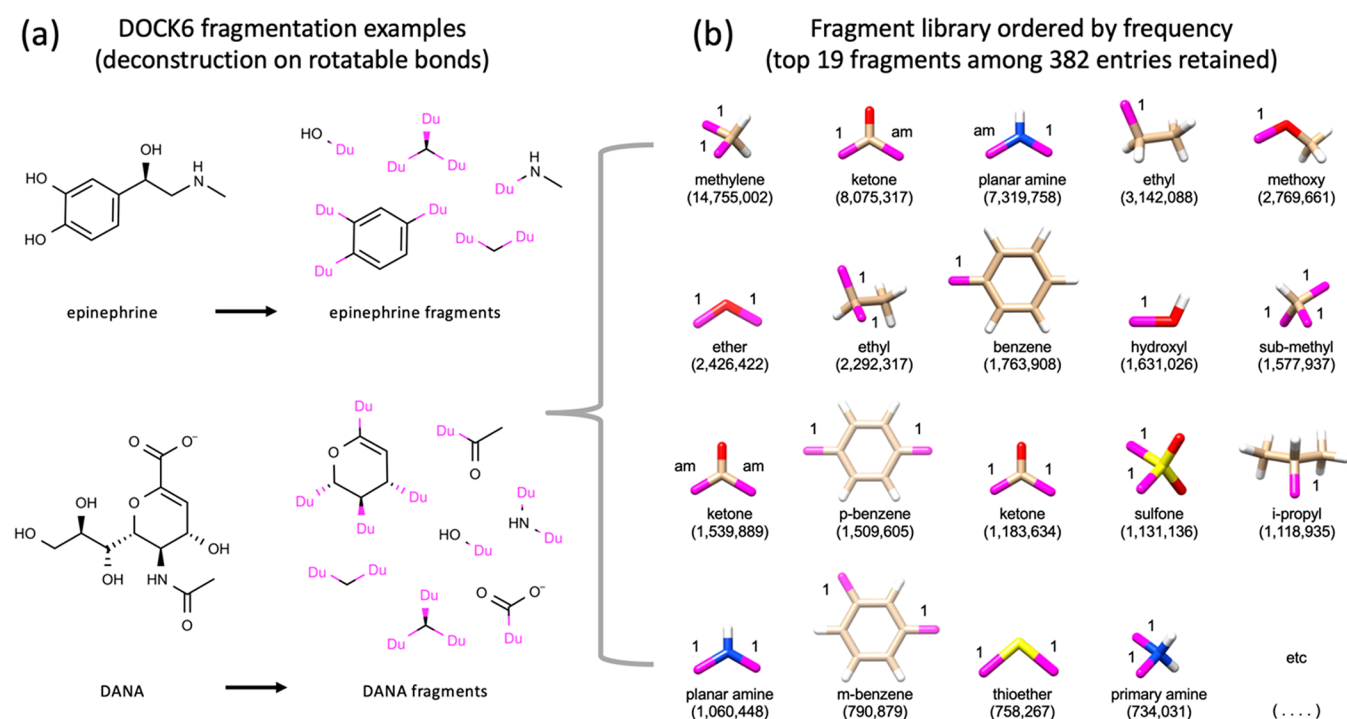


Figure 2. Schematic illustrating (a) how DOCK6 fragment libraries are derived by deconstructing molecules along rotatable bonds and the (b) top 19 fragments ordered by frequency (out of 382 retained) for a library derived from 13M drug-like molecules downloaded from ZINC.^{2–4} Based on the number of dummy atoms (magenta attachment points), the fragments are classified into sidechains (1 attachment point, $N = 217$), linkers (2 attachment points, $N = 146$), or scaffolds (3+ attachment points, $N = 19$).

logical polar surface area),²⁹ $\log P$ (octanol/water partition coefficient),³⁰ $\log S$ (aqueous solubility),³¹ #Aromatic (number of aromatic rings), #Stereo (number of stereocenters), #Spiro (number of spirocenters), #PAINS (number and identity of pan-assay interference compounds),^{32–34} #Aliphatic (number of aliphatic rings), #Saturated (number of saturated rings), MACCS fingerprint keys,³⁵ and SMILES strings. While most of these 13 descriptors could be interfaced immediately, QED, SynthA, and $\log S$ required conversion of Python scripts in the RDKit Github repository to C++. A new DOCK6 class, termed *RDType*, was written to retrieve RDKit descriptors and perform calculations using “combinations of descriptors” as needed. *RDType* can be called from the DOCK6 database filter/utilities class²³ or the DOCK_DN engine.²⁰ Readers should note that current D3N protocols allow 7 of the aforementioned 13 descriptors to be used during on-the-fly growth. Future work will evaluate the use of other descriptors for D3N as well as develop an RDKit interface for the DOCK6 genetic algorithm (DOCK_GA) recently reported by Prentis et al.²⁶

D3N Fragment Library, Algorithm, and Implementation. As illustrated in Figure 1, docked (oriented) ligand fragments (termed anchors) are used to seed DN growth followed by the attachment of compatible fragments (i.e., allowable newly formed torsion types), one-by-one, over the course of a user-defined number of steps (typically 8–9). Figure 2a visually illustrates how fragment libraries are constructed using DOCK6 starting from a collection of input molecules, in this example epinephrine and DANA. Figure 2b shows 3D representations for 19 fragments, ordered by frequency of occurrence, derived from deconstructing 13,195,579 drug-like molecules downloaded from ZINC (termed the ZINC13M data set).^{2–4} As in prior work,^{20,26}

for tractability, we choose to retain molecular fragments only if they appeared 13,000 times or more (roughly $\sim 0.1\%$ of the total), resulting in a final curated set of 382 fragments and 10,844 allowable torsions (bond types). For consistency with prior work, all allowable torsion types were retained. The library is arranged into sidechains (1 attachment point, $N = 217$), linkers (2 attachment points, $N = 146$), and scaffolds (3+ attachment points, $N = 19$). It is important to note that the DOCK6 infrastructure allows users to easily customize their own fragment libraries and retain as many entries (fragments or torsion types) as desired.

At each stage of DN growth, multiple 3D geometries are generated (sampling), the fitness of the partially grown molecule is evaluated (scoring), and a small number of molecular properties are computed including molecular weight, number of rotatable bonds, formal charge, number of potential H-bond acceptors, and number of potential H-bond donors. The new D3N algorithm adds to these features by allowing up to 7 additional descriptors to influence ligand growth including QED (*dn_drive_qed*), SynthA (*dn_drive_sa*), TPSA (*dn_drive_tpsa*), $\log P$ (*dn_drive_clogp*), $\log S$ (*dn_drive_esol*), #Stereo (*dn_drive_stereocenters*), and #PAINS (*dn_drive_pains*). Each descriptor can be turned on or off with the user having full control over the target ranges (discussed below). As each partially grown molecule is passed to the next layer of growth (Figure 1), if the values for computed descriptors fall within the target ranges defined in the input file, the molecule is automatically stored in a separate vector to be sent to the next layer. If any descriptor falls outside of the target range, the acceptance of the molecule is determined by a Metropolis-like procedure (termed soft-cutoff scheme) as shown in Figure 3. Here, probability of acceptance p_1 is calculated assuming a normal distribution of descriptor values where x is the

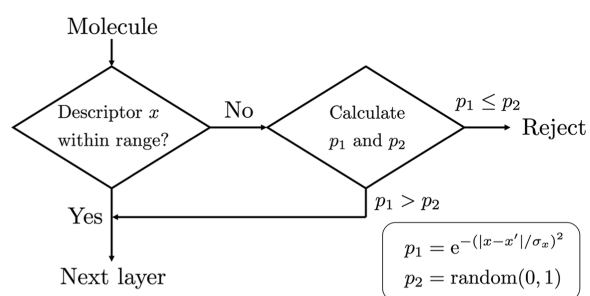


Figure 3. Schematic showing D3N procedure for accepting new fragments. For every molecule at each layer of growth, multiple descriptors are calculated. If all descriptors fall within the user-defined ranges, the partially grown molecule is accepted and sent to the next layer of growth. If one or more descriptors are outside the target range, a soft-cutoff (Metropolis-like) scheme is applied in which there is a finite probability that the molecule could be sent to the next layer.

descriptor value, x' is the nearest interval limit, σ_x is the descriptor standard deviation (see the next section), and p_2 is a random number between 0 and 1. If $p_1 > p_2$, the molecule is accepted and sent to the next layer. If $p_1 \leq p_2$ the molecule is rejected. Readers should note that #Stereo and #PAINS have a slightly different criterion that takes into consideration their discrete (integer) values according to eq 1 where N is an integer that should always be greater than 1 during application of the soft-cutoff scheme.

$$p_1 = e^{-(\text{random}(0,1)/(N-1))^2} \quad (1)$$

Simulation Types (Simple-Build, Protein-Standard, Protein-Pinpoint). The primary simulation types employed in this work, shown in Table 1, can be organized into three

Table 1. Primary Simulation Types Employed for D3N Growth

simulation type	N anchors, N fragments	main scoring function employed
(1) simple-build (absence of protein)	380, 382	ligand only VDW repulsive term
(2) protein-standard (57 systems) ^a	15, 382	SGE
(3) protein-pinpoint (6 systems) ^b	380, 382	MGE +FPS

^aAcetylcholinesterase (1EVE, 1H22, 1J07, 1Q84, 1ZGC), cyclo-oxygenase (1EQG, 1EQH, 1HT5, 1HT8, 1Q4G, 4COX), EGFR (2ITP, 2ITT, 2ITY, 2RGP, 3BEL), HIV protease (1AJV, 1DMP, 1HVR, 1MER, 1MES, 1MET, 1QBS, 2F80, 2F81, 2IDW, 2IEN, 2IEO), HIV reverse transcriptase (1C1B, 1C1C, 1VRU, 2BE2, 2RKI, 2ZD1, 3BGR, 3DLE, 3DLG, 3DOL), IGF1R (2ZM3, 3NW5, 3NW6, 3NW7), neuraminidase (1BJI, 1F8B, 1F8C, 1F8D, 1F8E, 1MWE, 1NNB, 1NNC, 1XOE, 1XOG), streptavidin (1DF8, 1SRG, 1SRI, 1SRJ, 2IZL). ^bMAP kinase (1A9U), FGR1 kinase domain (1AGW), COX-1 (1EQH), HMG-CoA reductase (1HW9), HIV reverse transcriptase (1IKW), neuraminidase (3CLO).

broad categories: (1) growth in the absence of a protein site termed “simple-build”, (2) growth in protein sites using standard parameter ranges termed “protein-standard”, and (3) growth in protein sites with very specific parameters termed “protein-pinpoint”. While the different simulation types employed different numbers of anchors as seeds for growth, in subsequent layers, all 382 fragments were employed. Readers should note that as used here, anchors are a subset

of the total number of fragments. Table 1 also lists the pdb codes for each protein or protein family and the main scoring function(s) employed in each case.

Growth under the simple-build infrastructure is guided by a ligand-only energy function comprising solely an intra-molecular van der Waals (VDW) repulsive term (Lennard Jones coefficient of 12). Given that simple-build results are not influenced by binding site characteristics, this helps to isolate the behavior of the algorithm. Simple-build is also significantly faster than protein-based simulations; thus, we employed nearly all of the fragments in the library as anchors to seed growth ($N = 380$), which increases chemical searching.

Growth under the protein-standard infrastructure ($N = 57$, eight protein families) is guided by the standard dock single-grid energy (SGE) function comprising non-bonded VDW plus electrostatic (ES) interactions. However, given the increased computational expense and the large number of protein systems involved, only the first 10 most commonly occurring fragments in Figure 2 were used as anchors (#1–10) augmented by 5 less frequently occurring fragments chosen at random to explore different chemistries: triazole (#100), adamantyl (#250), thiazole (#300), sub-chlorobenzene (#350), and sub-oxazole (#380).

Growth under the protein-pinpoint infrastructure ($N = 6$ systems) used an enhanced scoring function comprising multi-grid energy (MGE) plus footprint similarity (FPS) terms (FPS weights = 1). The addition of FPS^{36,37} scoring helps bias growth toward the interaction signatures made by a reference. In this work, the ligand bound to each of the 6 crystal structure targets served as the reference and are referred to in the remainder of the paper as the “reference ligand”. To facilitate energetic comparisons between the reference ligands and outcomes from de novo design, the references were assigned hydrogen atoms, Gasteiger–Marsili charges,³⁸ and minimized in the same multi-grids employed during D3N growth. Here, given the smaller number of pinpoint systems examined, the larger group of anchors ($N = 380$) was used.

System Setup Details for Protein-Based Simulations.

Protein simulations in this work employed setups taken from our SB2012 data set, the construction of which has been previously described.^{20,23,39} Briefly, for each system, coordinate files were downloaded from the PDB⁴⁰ and saved as separate protein and ligand entries. Ligands were protonated, visually examined for correctness, and assigned partial atomic charges (AM1-BCC method)^{41,42} and force–field parameters (GAFF method)⁴³ using the program antechamber⁴⁴ distributed with the Amber⁴⁵ suite of programs (AmberTools). Amber-ready protein–ligand complexes were then assembled with the program tLEaP (AmberTools), which protonates the protein and assigns ff99SB⁴⁶ parameters. After preparation, each complex was energy-minimized using Amber16⁴⁷ (using heavy atom restraints) to relax the system with the force field and alleviate any potential clashes that might have arisen from the addition of hydrogen atoms. The minimized protein was extracted, saved in MOL2 format, and used as input for the program DMS⁴⁸ (1.4 Å radius probe) to generate a molecular surface. In turn, the DMS surface is used as input to the program sphgen⁴⁹ to generate a set of docking spheres used to orient anchors (or ligands) in the binding site. Finally, the DOCK accessory program GRID⁵⁰ was used to create a set of docking grids, which speeds up the calculations, by pre-computing VDW (6–9 attractive–repulsive Lennard-Jones exponents) and ES (Coulombic interactions scaled by a

distance-dependent dielectric = $4r$) contributions from the protein.

DOCK_DN Simulation Parameters. The key DOCK_DN parameters employed in this work are listed in Table 2. For additional information, readers should consult

Table 2. Key DOCK_DN Parameter Values Used in This Work

parameter	description	value
<i>dn_sampling_method</i>	method employed for picking fragments (exhaustive, random, graph)	random
<i>dn_num_random_picks</i>	N fragments randomly selected	20, 50
<i>dn_mol_wt_cutoff_type</i>	molecular weight filtering method (hard, soft)	soft
<i>dn_upper_constraint_mol_wt</i>	the upper limit for MW filter	550
<i>dn_lower_constraint_mol_wt</i>	the lower limit for MW filter	0
<i>dn_mol_wt_std_dev</i>	the standard deviation for MW filter	35
<i>dn_constraint_rot_bon</i>	the max rotatable bonds allowed	15
<i>dn_constraint_formal_charge</i>	largest absolute charge of a molecule	2
<i>dn_max_grow_layers</i>	max number of layers for growth starting from an anchor	9
<i>dn_max_root_size</i>	max number of new molecules allowed from any given growing molecule	25, 50
<i>dn_max_layer_size</i>	max number of partially grown molecules that advanced to the next layer	25, 50
<i>dn_max_current_aps</i>	max number of unsatisfied attachment points at any given time	5
<i>dn_max_scaffolds_per_layer</i>	max number of scaffolds added per layer per molecule	1

Allen et al.²⁰ and the DOCK6 manual (<http://dock.compbio.ucsf.edu/>). Briefly, all simulations employed the random sampling method (*dn_sampling_method*) for which up to 20 or 50 (protein-pinpoint simulations only, see discussion above) fragment selections (picks) were allowed (*dn_num_random_picks*). In addition to the D3N-specific parameters discussed above, additional constraints (see Table 2 for values) evaluated during growth included filters for molecular weight (*dn_mol_wt_cutoff_type*, *dn_upper_constraint_mol_wt*, *dn_lower_constraint_mol_wt*, *dn_mol_wt_std_dev*), number of rotatable bonds (*dn_constraint_rot_bon*), and formal charge (*dn_constraint_formal_charge*). The maximum number of growth layers per molecule (*dn_max_grow_layers*) was set to 9, the maximum number of molecules that can be derived from any single partially grown molecule or “root” (*dn_max_root_size*) was set to 25 or 50 (protein-pinpoint only), and the maximum ensemble size of partially grown molecules that can be passed to the next layer (*dn_max_layer_size*) was set to 25 or 50 (protein-pinpoint only). The maximum number of scaffold fragments that could be added to any molecule at each layer of growth (*dn_max_scaffolds_per_layer*) was capped at 1 and the maximum number unsatisfied attachment points per molecule (*dn_max_current_aps*) at any point was set to 5, which helps control branching.²⁰

As noted previously,^{20,26} chemical searching in DOCK_DN can lead to molecules with identical topology but different conformations and/or binding poses. In the present work, to simplify interpretation of D3N outcomes, “duplicate” molecules were removed by (1) grouping all molecules for a given experiment into a single MOL2 file, (2) clustering the molecules based on topological identity using SMILES strings,

and (3) retaining only those molecules with the best score depending on the experiment (internal energy, SGE, or MGE).

Default Descriptor Ranges Derived from Approved Small-Molecule Drugs and Active Pharmaceutical Agents. For testing D3N, we wanted a reasonable set of input parameter ranges (DOCK6 defaults) for the 7 different descriptors. Table 3 shows values derived from a curated set of

Table 3. Input Parameter Ranges for D3N-DrugC and D3N-Loose Protocols

descriptor name	D3N-drugc range ^a	D3N-drugc std dev	D3N-loose range ^b
QED	0.61 lower bound	0.19	0.0 lower bound
SynthA	3.34 upper bound	0.90	10 upper bound
TPSA ^c	28.53 to 113.20	42.33	0 to 9999
log <i>P</i>	−0.30 to 3.75	2.02	−20 to 20
log <i>S</i>	−5.23 to −1.35	1.94	N/A
#Stereo	2 upper bound	N/A	100 upper bound
#PAINS	1 upper bound	N/A	N/A

^aD3N-drugc parameter ranges mimic DrugC data set distributions (\pm one std dev from mean). ^bD3N-loose parameter ranges mimic standard DOCK_DN behavior (little to no pruning). ^cTPSA values in angstroms squared.

approved small-molecule drugs and active pharmaceutical agents contained in the DrugCentral database,^{51,52} termed here the “D3N-drugc” parameter set (see the Supporting Information for curation details), based on values computed using DOCK6/RDKit (Table S1). The parameter ranges for TPSA, log *P*, and log *S* reflect the mean \pm standard deviation from corresponding entries in Table S1 (Supporting Information). For QED, SynthA, #Stereo, and #PAINS, one-sided boundary ranges were employed given that the “best” scores have direction. For example, QED scores range from 0 to 1, with 1 being best.²⁷ Conversely, SynthA scores range from 1 to 10, with 1 being best. For these two descriptors, D3N-drugc default values were set to their respective DrugC means of 0.61 (QED, lower bound only) and 3.34 (SynthA, upper bound only).²⁸ For #Stereo and #PAINS, given that scores near 1 or 0 would likely be desirable, upper bound values for pruning were set to 2 and 1, respectively. Table 3 also contains values for a protocol termed “D3N-loose”, meant to mimic standard DN behavior (little to no RDKit-based pruning), which provides a control.

Descriptor Correlations. Although the DOCK6/RDKit interface allows multiple descriptors to be employed simultaneously during ligand growth, it is important to assess the extent to which different descriptors may be correlated. D3N simulations employing non-orthogonal descriptor combinations may suffer from sampling issues and inefficient navigation of chemical space. Figure 4 shows a Pearson matrix correlation heatmap from pairwise combinations of the five “non-integer” D3N descriptors using molecules from the ZINC13M data set. As shown by the heatmap, the descriptors show relatively weak correlation with the exception of log *P* and log *S*, which yielded an *R* value of −0.96 (strong inverse correlation). To avoid multicollinearity, we opted not to drive log *P* and log *S* simultaneously.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Code and Infrastructure Validation. To establish that the DOCK6/RDKit integration was implemented correctly, we



Figure 4. Pearson's correlation matrix between descriptors computed for molecules in the ZINC13M data set color-coded as a heatmap.

computed 9 descriptors for the 13M molecules in the ZINC13M data set and compared the numerical results with those obtained using the standard Python3 RDKit distribution (Python/RDKit). To establish a computationally consistent environment, the SMILES strings generated internally using DOCK6/RDKit were also used as the input for Python/RDKit. As shown in Figure 5, the numerical results from both platforms are identical, for all practical purposes, which confirms the integrity of the implementation. Some minor exceptions are observed in plots of QED, SynthA, and log *S*, which are numerically insignificant. Readers should note that the heatmap colors in Figure 5 are a complementary way to visualize the descriptor populations shown in Figure S1, which compare the underlying descriptor distributions for the DrugC and ZINC13M data sets.

It should be emphasized that the numerically equivalent results in Figure 5 comparing DOCK6/RDKit to Python/RDKit are a direct result of using the identical SMILES strings as inputs for both sets of calculations. Importantly, they establish that the underlying calculation methods are the same.

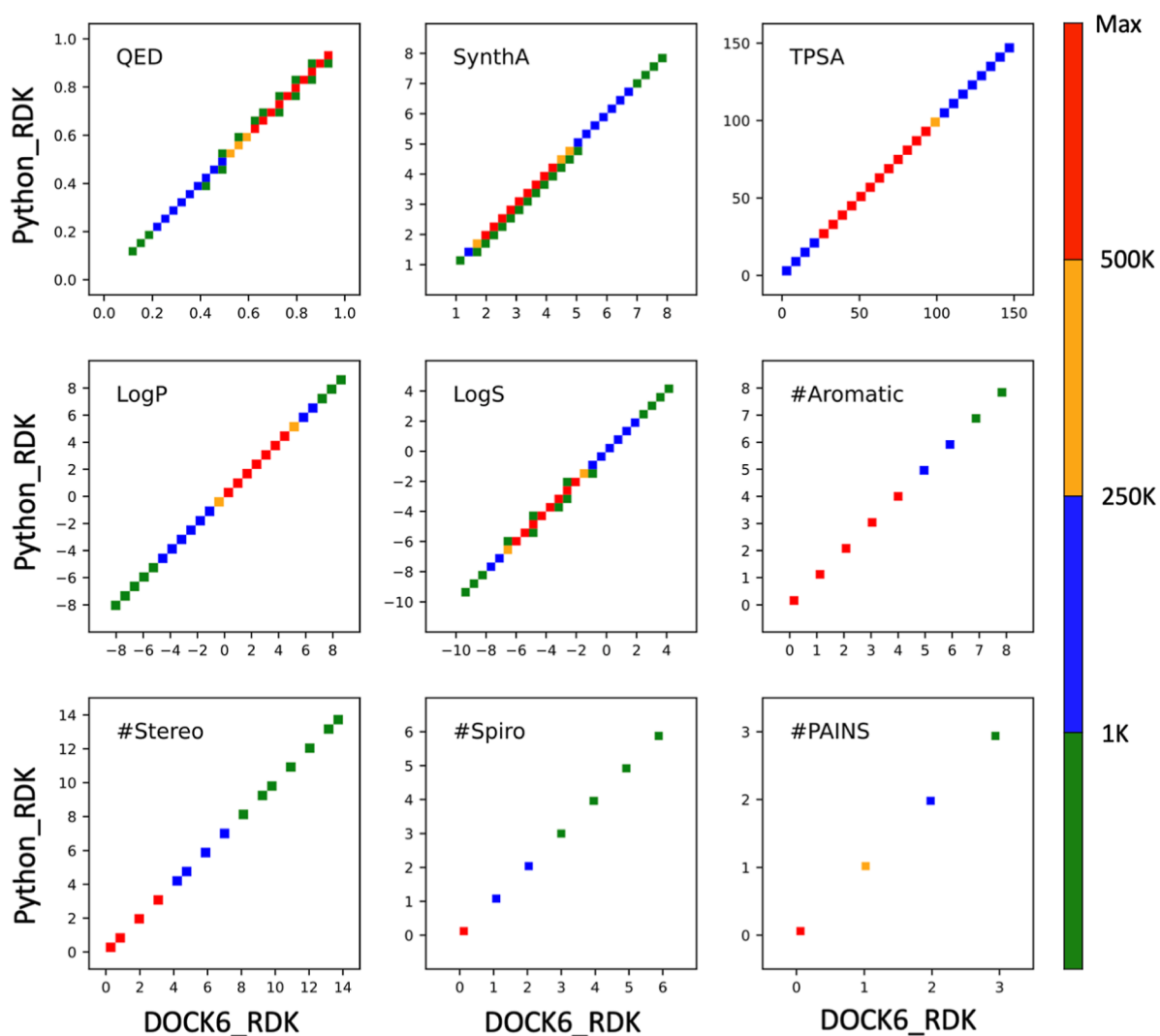


Figure 5. Scatter plots for descriptors calculated using DOCK6/RDKit (DOCK6_RDK) vs Python/RDKit (Python_RDK) using 13M molecules downloaded from ZINC (ZINC13M data set). Both sets of calculations employed the identical SMILES strings generated using DOCK6/RDKit from MOL2 files. Heatmap colors correspond to the number of molecules (population) across each descriptor range. TPSA values in angstroms squared.

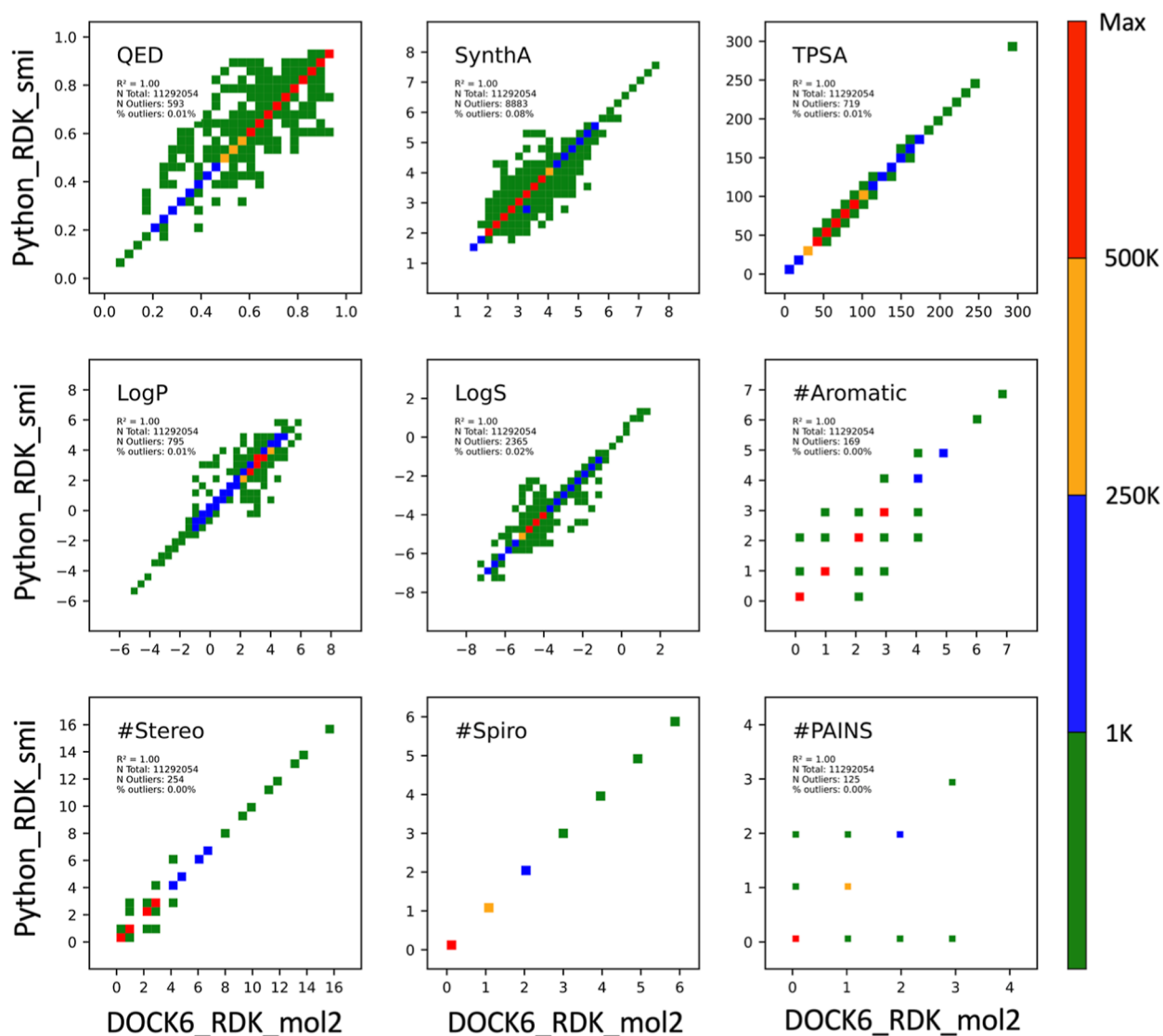


Figure 6. Scatter plots for descriptors calculated using DOCK6/RDKit with SMILES generated from MOL2 files (DOCK6_RDK_mol2) vs Python/RDKit with SMILES directly from ZINC (Python_RDK_smi). Heatmap colors correspond to the number of molecules (population) across each descriptor range. TPSA values in angstroms squared.

However, DOCK6/RDKit requires MOL2 files as input, for which SMILES strings are generated internally prior to the calculations, and Python/RDKit users typically employ SMILES as input. To help gauge the accuracy of the MOL2 to SMILES conversion routine, we performed additional testing using a large curated set of compounds derived from ZINC15 ($N = 11,292,054$) for which both a MOL2 file and a SMILES string were available for each ZINCID. Compounds were downloaded via the ZINC15 tranche browser subject to the following criteria: MW = 300 to 500, log $P = 0$ to 5, formal charge = 0, and pH = Ref. In an attempt to mitigate any obvious changes that could lead to numerical differences arising from different protomers or tautomers, we eliminated entries from the downloaded tranches if: (1) a given ZINC IDs had multiple SMILES strings, (2) a SMILES string and its associated MOL2 file contained a different number of hydrogen atoms, or (3) uncommon elements were present (e.g., silicon and metals).

Reassuringly, as shown in Figure 6, for nearly 100% of the 11M molecules evaluated, identical numerical results were

obtained across all 9 descriptors independent of whether a MOL2 file (DOCK6_RDK_mol2) or SMILES file (Python_RDK_smi) was used as the input. This confirms the reliability of the DOCK6/RDKit MOL2 to SMILES conversions. Interestingly, despite our best efforts at pre- and post-filtering ZINC15, a cursory examination using the ZINC15 web browser showed that for several outliers, the MOL2 and SMILES forms labeled as pH = Ref and charge = 0 had different tautomeric states. In some cases, there also appeared to be differences in resonance state or number of implicit bonds. In a practical sense, this suggests that users should be careful to ensure that the correct tautomeric states are represented as desired when computing descriptors using either input format (MOL2 or SMILES).

D3N of Ligands in the Absence of a Protein. Single Descriptor Design (D3N-Lateral Protocol) Dramatically Shifts Distributions. Having validated that the DOCK6/RDKit implementation is robust, we next assessed the ability of our D3N algorithm to generate new ligands using the “simple-build” infrastructure (absence of protein) which speeds up

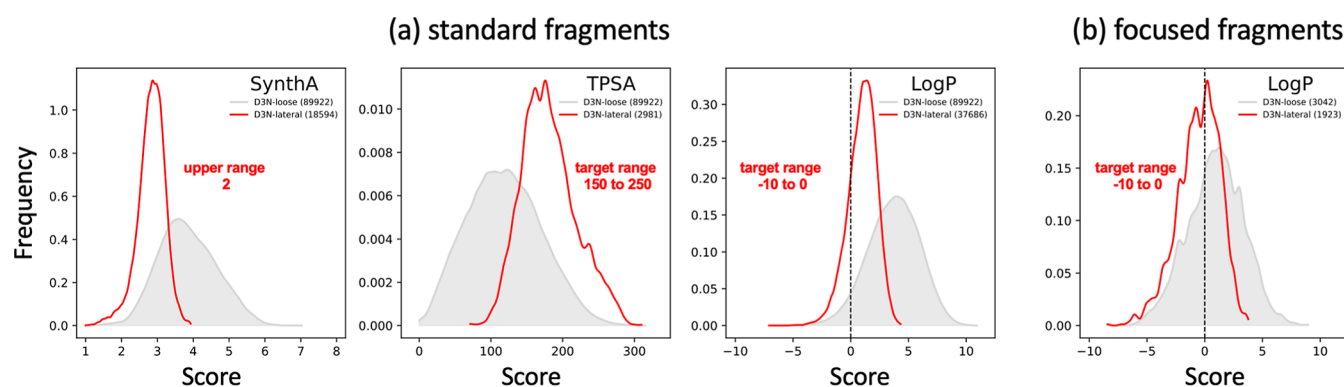


Figure 7. Normalized descriptor populations using the (a) standard DOCK6 fragment library or a (b) focused fragment library derived from molecules with negative log P values. In each case, a single descriptor with laterally shifted target ranges (D3N-lateral, red) were used to drive de novo growth in the absence of protein. Results obtained using the D3N-loose protocols (gray) are shown as a control. Legends indicate the specific target ranges (labeled in red font) and the number of molecules obtained (in parenthesis). Readers should note these data were derived from four independent experiments. The standard deviations employed for D3N-lateral protocols are the same as listed in Table 3 for D3N-drugc. TPSA results in angstroms squared.

calculations. Figure 7 shows the distributions for three descriptors (SynthA, TPSA, log P) derived from molecules grown using a protocol in which only a single descriptor at a time was employed for pruning at every layer of growth. Growth here was based on setting the target D3N ranges for each descriptor aggressively (Figure 7, target ranges in red font) in that they were laterally shifted left or right (termed D3N-lateral, red) relative to those obtained with the D3N-loose (gray) protocol (little to no pruning control). The accompanying values in parenthesis in Figure 7 specify how many molecules were generated in each case. Results are separated into those (a) employing the “standard” fragment library supplied with DOCK6 (382 fragments, 10,844 torsions) or (b) an alternative “focused” fragment library (389 fragments, 603 torsions) derived from molecules with negative log P values.

Importantly, in each case, use of the D3N-lateral protocol (red) yield distributions that are shifted toward their intended target range (Figure 7 red labels) and they are more tightly focused, which provides evidence that the D3N infrastructure is working as intended. As expected, in all cases, on-the-fly D3N pruning leads to fewer molecules being produced. For SynthA (Figure 7a left), which employs a one-sided boundary, the initially broad D3N-loose distribution (gray, 2 to 6) becomes tightly focused with the D3N-lateral protocol (red, 1 to 4) and the resulting left-shifted peak (~ 3) is close to the intended target (upper range 2). For TPSA (Figure 7a middle), which employs a two-sided boundary, good agreement is also obtained. Here, D3N-lateral (red) results shift right, which nicely spans the intended TPSA target range (150–250), and the distribution peak (~ 170) is near the center (200). For log P however (Figure 7a right), although the D3N-lateral (red) results are significantly more focused and correctly shift left toward the target range (–10 to 0), the ensemble contained very few molecules that extended below –2.5 and the peak was not near the range center (–5).

The absence of designed molecules with negative log P was somewhat surprising, which prompted us to more closely examine molecules in the DrugC data set. De novo design outcomes depend on many factors, including fragment libraries, and many molecules in the DrugC data set with negative log P contained functionality not present in our standard DOCK6 fragment library, for example, phosphates,

tetracycline rings, or β -lactam fused rings. We hypothesized that an alternative library, containing such fragments, would lead to assembling of compounds enriched for negative log P . Figure 7b plots D3N-lateral results using an alternative “focused” library comprising 398 fragments and 603 allowable torsions, which was derived from the disassembly of 494 molecules in the DrugC data set with negative log P values. Reassuringly, the experiment showed a large increase in the number of molecules with negative log P (Figure 7b vs 7a) for both the D3N-lateral protocol (57.05 vs 20.21%, red) and the D3N-loose control protocol (33.46 vs 5.30%, gray). The test also provides context for any given computational protocol, being able to achieve a desired descriptor “range” given the sensitivity of de novo design to the composition of the fragment libraries. They also establish that D3N protocols can be used to shift descriptor distributions regardless of the libraries employed. Notwithstanding the importance of including specific fragment types that may lead to more negative log P values (or other ranges for other properties), for the remainder of the tests in this paper, the standard DOCK6 fragment library was employed.

Multi-Descriptor Design (D3N-Drugc Protocol) Focuses Multiple Descriptors Simultaneously. In a second group of “simple-build” experiments (absence of protein), we evaluated the ability to drive multiple descriptors simultaneously employing ranges derived from molecules in DrugCentral (D3N-drugc protocol, Table 3). Here, although DOCK6 can currently compute 13 RDKit descriptors, of which 7 are available for on-the-fly de novo design, we opted not to drive log S (to avoid multicollinearity, see Figure 4) or #PAINS (initial tests showed that we rarely generate PAINS molecules using the standard fragment library). Thus, the final group of 5 descriptors employed included QED, SynthA, TPSA, log P , and #Stereo. Figure 8 compares distributions obtained using the multi-descriptor D3N-drugc protocol (solid red, pruning at every layer) with D3N-loose (gray, little to no pruning) and the DrugC data set (dashed red). As before, accompanying values in parenthesis specify how many molecules were generated using each protocol.

As shown in Figure 8, compared to using the D3N-loose (gray) protocol, the multi-descriptor D3N-drugc protocol (solid red) yields molecules with distributions that are, in general, more focused (tighter) and shift left or right in the

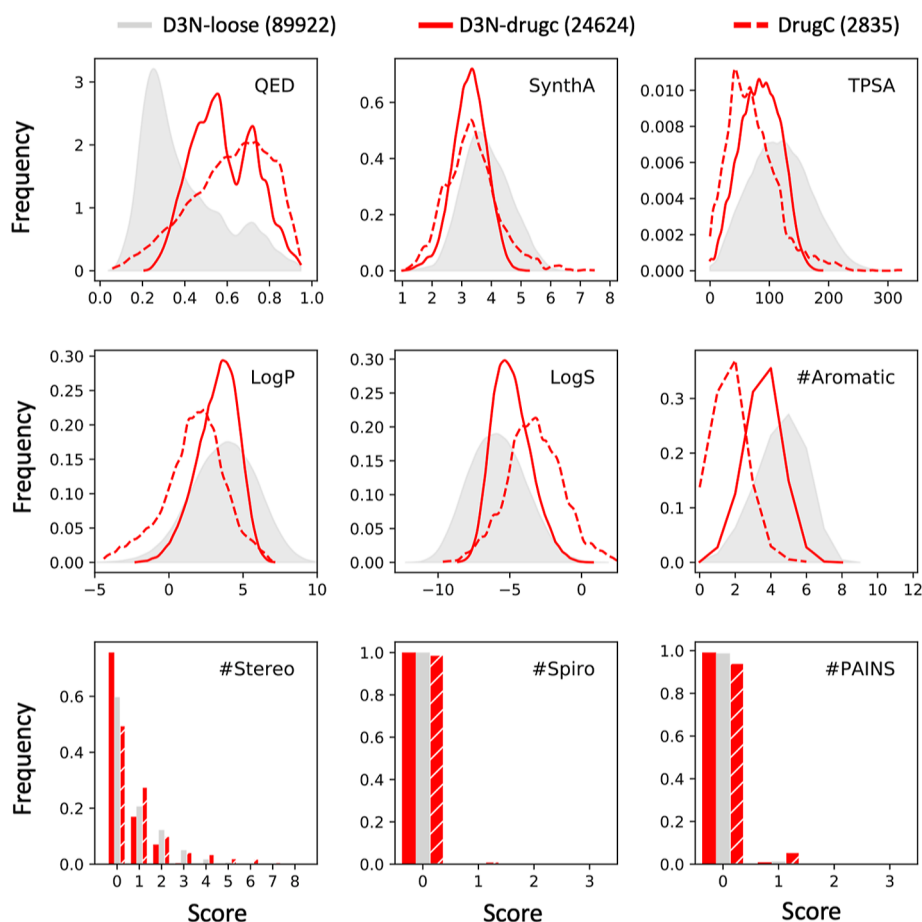


Figure 8. Outcomes from multi-descriptor de novo design using D3N-drug (solid red) protocols driving QED, SynthA, TPSA, log *P*, and #Stereo simultaneously compared to D3N-loose (gray) as a control. The distributions for molecules in the DrugCentral data set (dashed red) are shown for comparison. Multi-descriptor target ranges are listed in Table 3. Values in parenthesis specify how many molecules were generated with each protocol. TPSA values in angstroms squared.

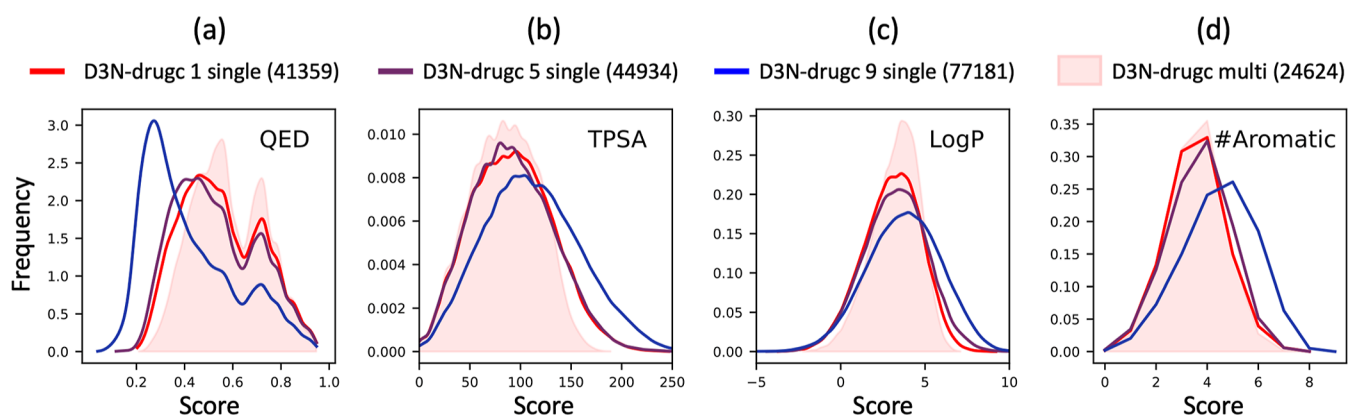


Figure 9. De novo design outcomes in the absence of protein (simple-build protocol) using single descriptor D3N-drug protocols to only drive QED as a function of which growth layer the pruning algorithm takes effect (layer 1 red, layer 5 purple, layer 9 blue). Results from the multi-descriptor D3N-drug protocol are plotted for comparison (pink shaded areas). TPSA values in angstroms squared.

direction of their intended target ranges (DrugCentral distributions, dashed red). This demonstrates that descriptor-based pruning can be used to drive multiple descriptors simultaneously. For QED, TPSA, and to a lesser extent log *P*, the peaks for D3N-drug (solid red) land in-between those of D3N-loose (gray) and the DrugCentral data set (dashed red). QED shows a large shift from a single peak at around 0.25 (D3N-loose, gray, poor drug likeness) to a bimodal shape with

two peaks between 0.5 and 0.7 (D3N-drug, solid red, higher drug likeness). Although not explicitly driven, the D3N-drug distributions (solid red) for log *S* and #Aromatic rings also show significant shifts toward DrugCentral (dashed red) likely as a result of descriptors coupling arising from the strong anti-correlation between log *S* and log *P* (-0.96 , Figure 4) and #Aromatic being a key component of the QED scoring function (additional discussion below).

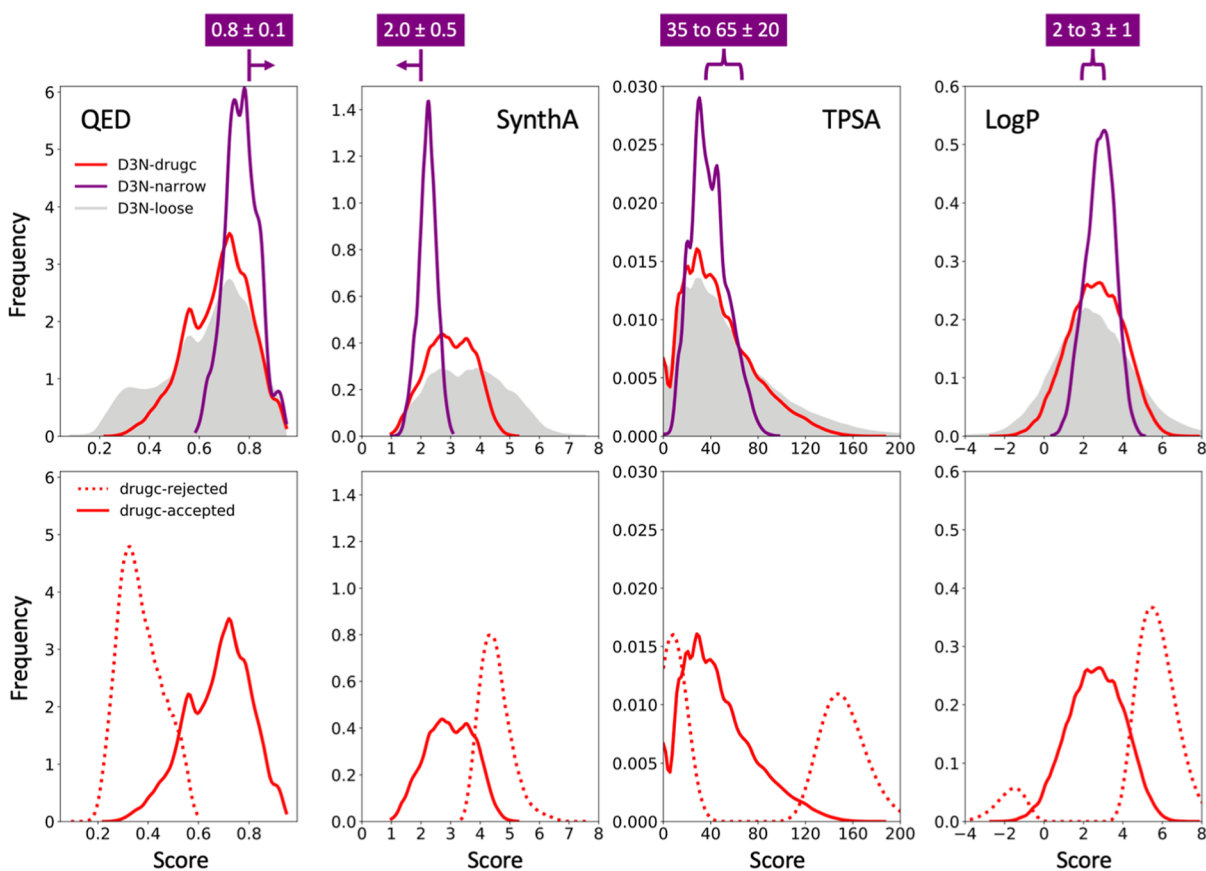


Figure 10. QED, SynthA, TPSA, and $\log P$ distributions obtained using D3N-drugc (red), D3N-loose (gray shade), and D3N-narrow (purple) in 57 protein binding sites starting from 15 fragments as anchors. D3N-drugc and D3N-loose target ranges listed in Table 3. D3N-narrow target ranges shown in purple above each plot. Bottom panels compare distributions for the D3N-drugc rejected (dashed red) and accepted (solid red) molecules. Distributions obtained by Kernel density estimation. TPSA values in angstroms squared.

Single Descriptor Design Can Influence Multiple Descriptors. Of the nine descriptors in Figure 8, the distributions for QED stand out as having the overall poorest agreement between D3N-loose results and the DrugCentral data set (Figure 8 gray vs dashed red). QED is a combination of multiple descriptors including TPSA, $\log P$, and #Aromatic in conjunction with MW, #H-bond donors, #H-bond acceptors, number of rotatable bonds, and number of structural alerts.²⁷ In a third set of “simple-build” experiments (Figure 9), we wanted the extent with which driving QED alone would show a concomitant change in some of the underlying descriptors that make up the total score. We also wanted to examine the behavior of applying the D3N algorithm at different layers of growth. We hypothesized that initiating D3N in early layers would lead to a cumulative effect in terms of more closely matching the intended target range. Figure 9 plots results from driving QED alone (starting at layer 1, 5, or 9) versus driving QED, SynthA, TPSA, $\log P$, and #Stereo simultaneously (starting at layer 1).

As shown in Figure 9a, driving QED alone starting at layer 1 (D3N-drugc 1 single, red) yields a QED distribution which largely mimics the shape from the multi-descriptor distribution (red vs pink shade). Also, the distributions for some of the individual terms that make up QED (there are eight terms total), including TPSA (Figure 9b), $\log P$ (Figure 9c), and #Aromatic (Figure 9d), show a concomitant change, even though they were not specifically pruned to do so, that also approaches the multi-descriptor distributions (Figure 9b–d,

red vs pink). Importantly, as the D3N algorithm becomes initiated earlier in the process, the distributions become progressively focused in a relatively smooth manner (layer 9 blue to layer 5 purple to layer 1 red). Overall, the data in Figure 9 provide additional evidence that the D3N algorithm is well-behaved, demonstrating that changes in a given descriptor distribution can be coupled to driving other descriptors and showing that driving QED alone with a single-descriptor protocol leads to outcomes approaching that of a multi-descriptor protocol.

D3N of Ligands in Protein Binding Sites. Multi-Descriptor Design in Proteins Yields Focused Distributions. The three different D3N simple-build experiments, described above, demonstrate that it is possible to bias chemical searching to regions defined by the user in the absence of a protein. This is to be expected, given that the pruning is primarily driven by the descriptors themselves, although other properties are also at play (i.e., newly formed bonds must be allowable and other properties including MW, number of rotatable bonds, and formal charge, among others in Table 2, must be met). In this section, we evaluate the ability to generate drug-like candidates in clinically relevant protein targets taken from our SB2012 docking database.^{23,39} In contrast to simple build, D3N growth in a protein will be heavily influenced by the protein–ligand interaction energy. Growth here was seeded in 57 individual binding site structures (see Table 1 for individual pdb codes) comprising 8 protein families: acetylcholinesterase (5 systems), cyclo-

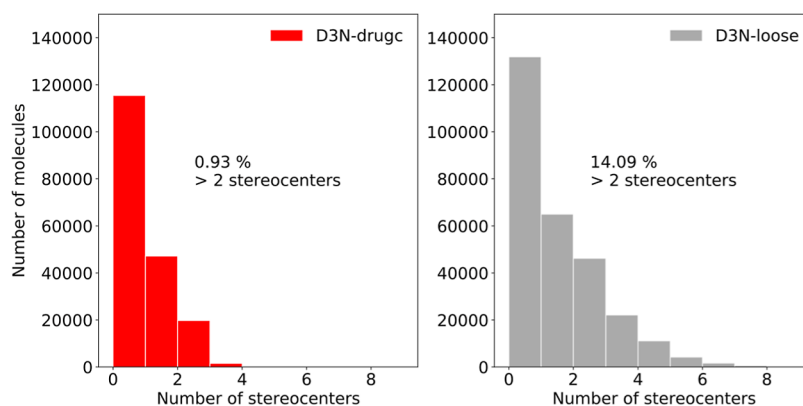


Figure 11. Histogram populations for #Stereo (number of ligand stereocenters) using D3N-drugc (red) or D3N-loose (gray) simulation protocols in 57 protein binding sites.

oxygenase (6 systems), EGFR (5 systems), HIV protease (12 systems), HIV reverse transcriptase (10 systems), IGF1R (4 systems), neuraminidase (10 systems), and streptavidin (5 systems). The protein environment simulations take significantly longer than the previous simple-build experiments; thus, only 15 fragments (see [Computational Methods and Details](#)) were used to seed ligand growth in each of the 57 systems.

Figures 10 and 11 show descriptor distributions for QED, SynthA, TPSA, log *P* (Figure 10 top), and #Stereo (Figure 11) driving all five descriptors simultaneously using the same D3N-drugc (red) or D3N-loose (gray) ranges employed in the earlier simple-build experiments (Table 3). Results for a third protocol, termed D3N-narrow (purple), are shown in Figure 10 to highlight the ability of the algorithm to generate narrow distributions (target ranges shown above each plot). As expected, in every case, the distributions from D3N-drugc (red) and D3N-narrow (purple) are more focused relative to D3N-loose (gray). The D3N-narrow results (purple) in particular show extreme focusing (Figure 10 top, purple) and yield peak locations in close agreement with the intended target ranges listed above each plot. As shown in Figure 11, use of a #Stereo upper target range of 2 with the D3N-drugc protocol (0.93%, red) leads to very few molecules with more than two stereocenters compared to the D3N-loose protocol (14.1%, gray).

To further probe the algorithm, Figure 10 (bottom) plots descriptor distributions using the D3N-drugc protocol based on the rejected (dashed red) or accepted (solid red) molecules, which confirms that the Metropolis-like criteria is being obeyed with regards to enforcing soft-cutoff boundaries (see Figure 3). For TPSA and log *P*, which have two-sided boundaries, the rejected molecule profiles show clear bi-modal distributions (dashed red) spanning opposite sides of the accepted molecule profiles (solid red). Table 4 shows the number of unique molecules generated via the three different protocols. As expected, the construction trend in terms of number of molecules follows D3N-loose (282,989) > D3N-drugc (184,118) > D3N-narrow (11,903), and the trend for rejection is in the opposite order with D3N-loose (724) < D3N-drugc (565,823) < D3N-narrow (651,423). Taken together, these results confirm the ability of the algorithm to successfully create and prune molecules, based on user-defined ranges for descriptors computed using the DOCK6/RDKit interface, for de novo design performed in the context of a protein binding site.

Table 4. Number of Unique Molecules Constructed Using Different D3N Protocols in 57 Proteins Starting from 15 Different Fragments Each as Anchors for Growth over 9 Layers

	D3N-loose	D3N-drugc	D3N-narrow
constructed ^a	282,989	184,118	11,903
D3N-rejected	724	565,823	651,423

^aValues reflect the number of unique molecules created for each anchor simulation with duplicates entries removed (see [Computational Methods and Details](#)).

On-the-Fly Pruning Leads to Molecules Enriched for Favorable Properties. As shown thus far, the DOCK6/RDKit implementation allows users to prune unwanted molecules during the de novo design process but it can also be used as a post-processing filtering tool. To help gauge the added value for using on-the-fly pruning, versus post-simulation filtering, the ensembles created using D3N-loose and D3N-drugc protocols were both processed by applying hard-cut filtering to remove molecules at the boundaries arising from use of the soft-cutoff algorithm. The two data sets were filtered using the same five property cutoffs (D3N-drugc ranges in Table 3) resulting in 39,159 molecules for D3N-loose (from 282,989 raw) and 44,419 molecules for D3N-drugc (from 184,118 raw) as shown in Table 5. From an enrichment standpoint, the filtered D3N-drugc protocol yielded an additional 5260 molecules, which is a 13.43% increase across all 57 systems. Encouragingly, enrichments for all the protein families with the D3N-drugc protocol generated more molecules ranging from 4.87 to 25.56% (Table 5, far right column). Figure 12 also highlights that the filtered ensembles from D3N-drugc (red) contain more molecules than the filtered ensembles from D3N-loose (gray) in terms of favorable QED and SynthA scores and within the target ranges specified for TPSA and log *P*.

As an additional point of comparison for how most users would likely employ de novo design in a practical setting, we compared the results obtained using the “on-the-fly pruning” approach, which yields smooth-tailed distributions (D3N-drugc) versus a brute-force “build-all-then-filter” approach, which yields hard-cut distributions (D3N-loose filtered). Figure S2 visually highlights the differences between the two approaches in terms of cheminformatic scores across the eight protein families. From an energetic standpoint, Figure 13 plots DOCK6 grid scores (non-bonded protein–ligand VDW + ES

Table 5. Number of Molecules from Simulations Using D3N-Loose and D3N-Drug Protocols

protein family (no.)	D3N-loose raw ^a	D3N-drugc raw ^a	D3N-loose filtered ^b	D3N-drugc filtered ^b	relative increase for filtered (drugc vs loose) ^c	
acetylcholinesterase (5)	26,079	16,310	2954	3699	745	25.22
cyclooxygenase (6)	19,237	13,823	4004	4425	421	10.51
EGFR (5)	25,910	15,956	3571	3745	174	4.87
HIV protease (12)	71,480	45,069	7484	8637	1153	15.41
HIV reverse transcriptase (10)	44,793	30,161	8440	8985	545	6.46
IGF1R (4)	22,325	14,227	2903	3165	262	9.02
neuraminidase (10)	49,987	33,671	6111	7673	1562	25.56
streptavidin (5)	23,178	14,901	3692	4090	398	10.78
total (57)	282,989	184,118	39,159	44,419	5260	13.43

^aRaw number of molecules obtained using each method. ^bFiltered number of molecules using D3N-drugc target ranges. ^cRelative increase in filtered molecules (D3N-drugc vs D3N-loose) protocols (# molecules and %).

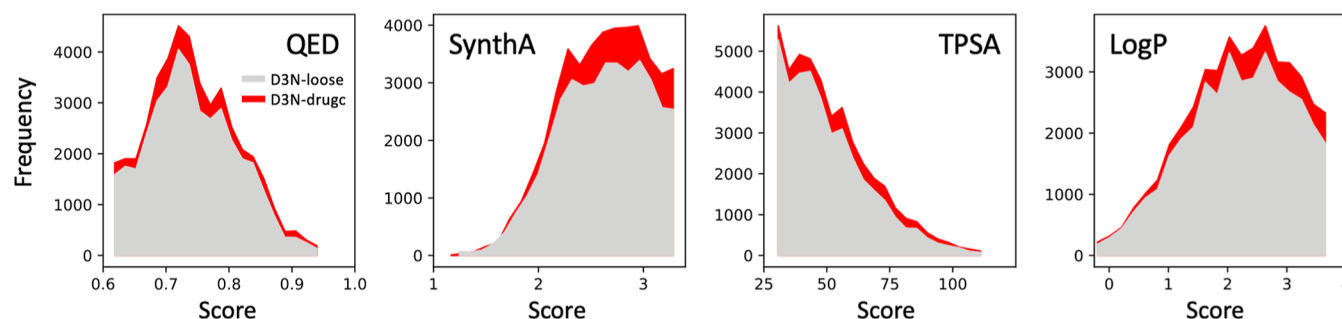


Figure 12. Added value for on-the-fly pruning versus hard-cut filtering. Panels compare D3N-loose (gray, 39,159 molecules) and D3N-drugc (red, 44,419 molecules) from ensembles filtered to remove molecules with descriptor values outside the D3N-drugc target ranges.

energy) along with the number of top-scoring molecules for the range -50 kcal/mol and below (left of vertical black dotted line). As expected, across all protein families (57 systems), the aggressive pruning strategy in conjunction with Metropolis-like smoothing (a desirable attribute of the D3N-drugc method) yields significant enrichment compared to the brute-force filtered approach (Figure 13, bottom right plot 23,308 red vs 1556 gray molecules). Across each individual protein family, the enrichment was varied. For example, growth in acetylcholinesterase yielded 2786 additional molecules (2999 red vs 213 gray) while growth in cyclooxygenase yielded a smaller increase (655 red vs 49 gray). For HIVPR, the increase was particularly large (10,700 red vs 427 gray).

The analysis above emphasizes the key differences likely to occur as a result of using either modeling approach out of the box. From an academic standpoint however, it is noteworthy that there is also enrichment when the underlying smoothed-tail D3N-drugc results are hard-cut filtered and only the molecules with DOCK6 grid scores <-50 kcal/mol are retained. Although, in practice, users would have no need to filter out the D3N-drugc outcomes since by design the method already biases the descriptor distributions; thus, the analysis here is largely theoretical. Nevertheless, with both data sets hard-filtered, as shown in Figure 14, use of D3N-drugc yields enrichment in the number of top scoring molecules versus D3N-loose (red vs gray bars) in 7 out of 8 cases. While the numerical improvements (indicated above each red bar) are not as large as the analysis shown in Figure 13, they do establish a desirable outcome. For example, many research groups (especially smaller academic labs) may only have resources to synthesize and/or purchase a limited number of molecules for biological testing for any given lead-discovery

project. Thus, any enrichment in the number of “quality” molecules, in terms of their cheminformatics properties and protein–ligand scores, is likely to be beneficial, especially for those in the top-ranked range (DOCK6 scores -50 kcal/mol and below). While additional testing is necessary to determine if these are general trends, the results in this section provide strong evidence that on-the-fly layer-by-layer pruning adds quantitative value relative to a build-all and filter approach.

Apparent Influence of the Protein Environment on Drug Likeness. Interestingly, a comparison between molecules constructed using the D3N-loose protocol in protein binding sites (D3N-loose_protein = yes) and those constructed in the absence of protein (D3N-loose_protein = no) brings to light an implicit bias toward the construction of compounds with more favorable QED scores prior to use of any RDKit descriptors. As shown in Figure 15, D3N-loose_protein = no simulations generate compounds with QED scores closer to 0 (less drug like), which show a strong well-defined peak at about 0.25 (gray shade). Conversely, the same D3N-loose protocols, but executed in protein binding sites (D3N-loose_protein = yes, green), yield a right-shifted QED distribution with population peak at about 0.7 (more drug like). Further, this D3N-loose_protein = yes profile for QED shows remarkable agreement with the distribution generated from approved drugs and active pharmaceutical agents in the DrugC data set (Figure 15, red). This interesting result suggests that the protein environment alone inherently biases de novo growth toward the generation of more drug-like molecules. It is likely that this observation is multi-faceted but attributable in part to the physics-based scoring functions used during growth for ranking and pruning. In the absence of protein (simple-build protocol), the primary energy function

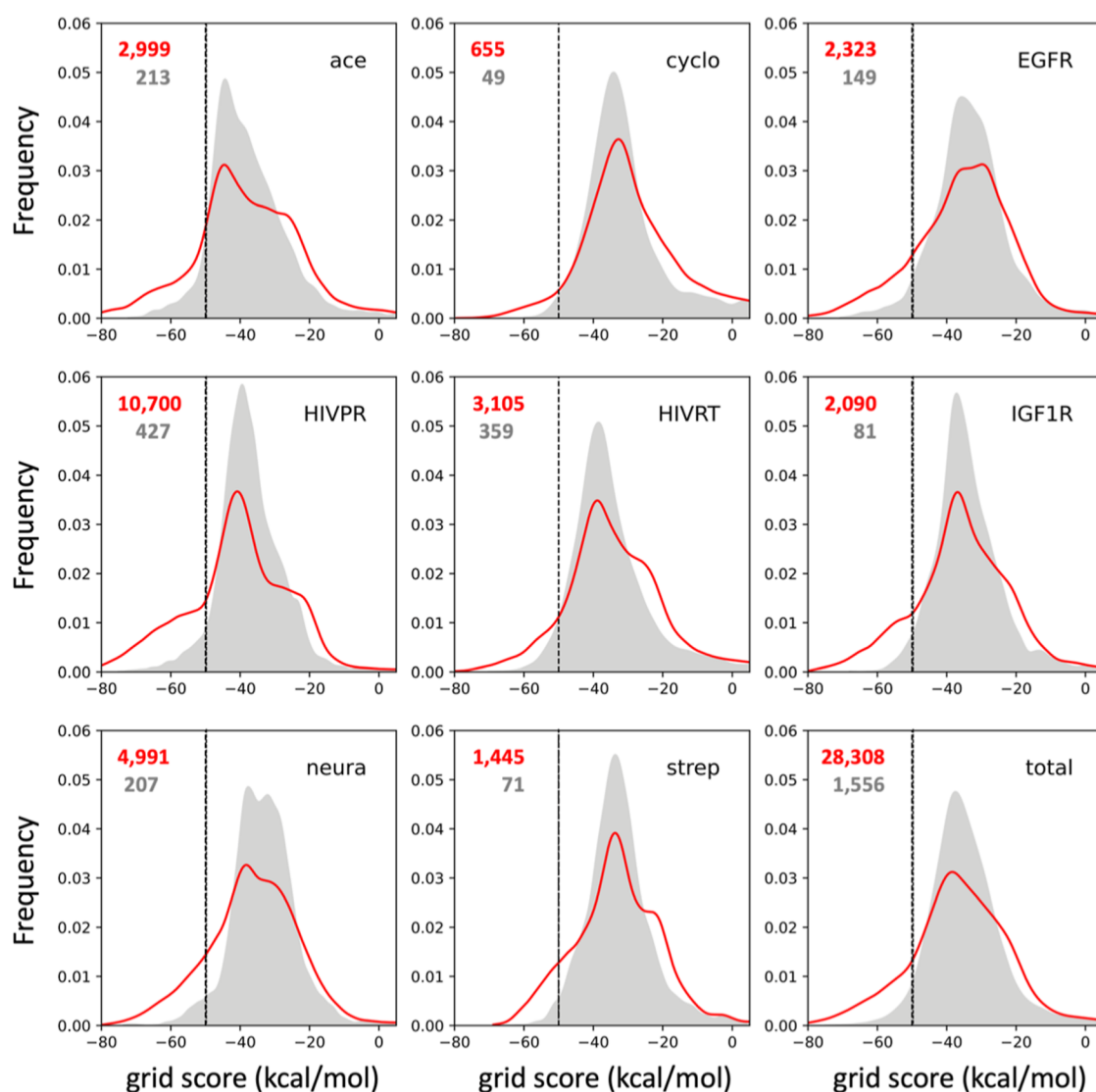


Figure 13. DOCK6 energy scores from molecules in the D3N-drug ensemble (red line) versus molecules in the D3N-loose ensemble filtered afterward by the D3N-drug target ranges (gray area) by protein family. Energies in kcal/mol.

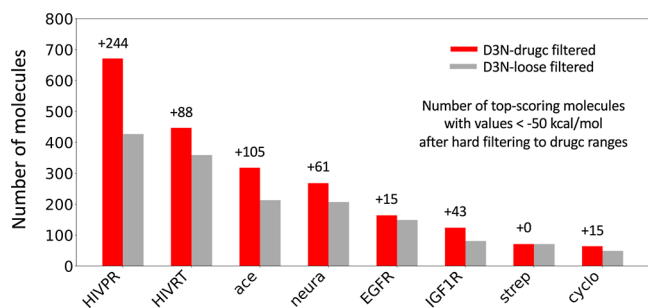


Figure 14. Number of top-scoring molecules from D3N-drug filtered and D3N-loose filtered protocols for the DOCK6 grid score range -50 kcal/mol and below arranged by protein family. Values above each red bar indicate increases arising from use of the D3N-drug filtered versus D3N-loose filtered protocol.

employed is a simple non-bonded intramolecular energy of the ligand (VDW repulsive term), which primarily enforces linear conformations. In contrast, in protein environments, the primary energy function is the standard DOCK6 grid score comprising the pairwise sum of all non-bonded intermolecular

interactions between the protein and ligand (VDW plus ES energies, see [Computational Methods and Details](#)).

An examination of the underlying terms that make up the QED score reveals that the D3N-loose_protein = yes simulations (green) yield smaller and more compact molecules compared to D3N-loose_protein = no simulations (gray), as highlighted by the shifts in MW and TPSA subplots ([Figure 15](#) green vs gray). Here, D3N-loose_protein = no yields molecules with MW that shift toward the user-defined upper limit, in this case, 550 g/mol. In contrast, D3N-loose_protein = yes yields a MW distribution peaking around ~ 250 . Since the terms are not being explicitly driven, it is likely that the trend toward smaller MW is a result of binding sites having finite volume. The other descriptors in [Figure 15](#), with the exception of $\log P$ and #Alerts, would also be expected to be correlated with molecular size, in particular, smaller numbers of ligand #Rotatable bonds, smaller TPSA, and fewer aromatic rings. As pointed out by a reviewer, our observations also likely reflect the choice of proteins employed in the study, for which all are drug targets with the exception of streptavidin. Also, for binding pockets with different characters (i.e., larger or more polar), it can be speculated that the ligand properties would

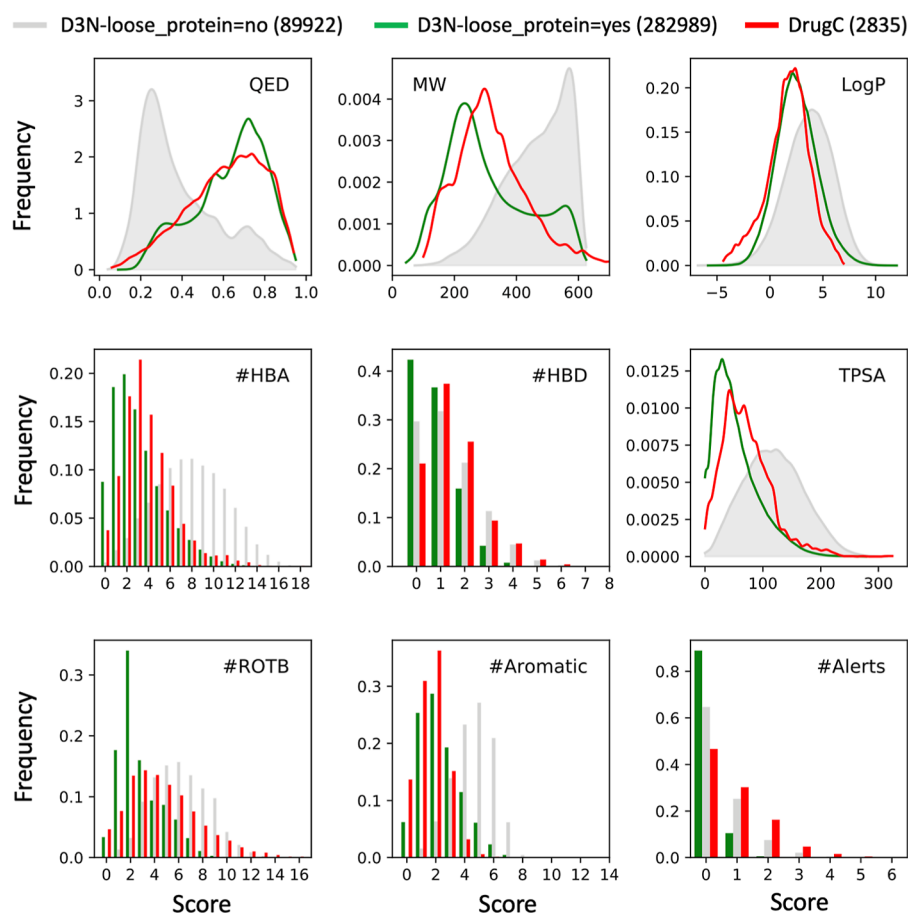


Figure 15. Comparison of QED scores, and the eight underlying descriptors that make up QED, derived from ensembles generated in the absence of a proton (gray, D3N-loose_protein = no) and in protein binding sites (green, D3N-loose_protein = yes). For comparison, distributions from molecules in the DrugC data set are also plotted (red, DrugC). MW in g/mol, TPSA in angstroms squared.

Table 6. Descriptor Values for Reference Ligands and Derived Target Ranges for D3N-Pinpoint Simulations

pdb code	QED		SynthA		TPSA		log <i>P</i>		#Stereo	
	ref ligand ^a	D3N-pinpoint ^b	ref ligand	D3N-pinpoint	ref ligand	D3N-pinpoint	ref ligand	D3N-pinpoint	ref ligand	D3N-pinpoint
1A9U	0.56	0.46	2.84	3.84	58.6	48 to 68	4.68	3.68 to 5.68	1	2
1AGW	0.69	0.59	2.34	3.34	52.7	42 to 62	2.46	1.46 to 3.46	0	1
1EQH	0.83	0.72	2.65	3.65	40.1	30 to 50	2.35	1.34 to 3.34	1	2
1HW9	0.51	0.41	4.89	5.88	106.9	96 to 116	2.77	1.77 to 3.77	7	8
1IKW	0.73	0.63	3.57	4.56	38.3	28 to 48	4.07	3.07 to 5.07	1	2
3CL0	0.64	0.53	4.82	5.81	106.1	96 to 116	-1.24	-2.20 to -0.20	3	4

^aDescriptor values for reference ligands. ^bTarget ranges for D3N-pinpoint calculations (std dev: QED = 0.05, SynthA = 0.10, TPSA = 5.0, log *P* = 0.10). TPSA values in angstroms squared.

change accordingly. In any event, the data in Figure 15 suggest that simulations in proteins (green) of similar character as studied here will have an inherent advantage in terms of generating more “drug-like” molecules using metrics such as QED with property distributions similar to compounds in the DrugC data set (red). Use of additional biasing, via the new DOCK6/RDKit interface, in some sense, makes an already reasonable situation even better. In contrast, if using the current DOCK6 protocols to design compounds in the absence of protein, it would be recommended to apply D3N-drugc ranges in Table 3, or other equivalent user-defined ranges, as these boundary conditions help bias construction toward drug-like space.

D3N Protocols Can Yield “Pinpoint” Descriptor Ranges. The results in Figure 10 confirm that DOCK_D3N can be

used to grow molecules from scratch in a protein binding site that fall within a user-defined set of ranges for descriptors. In this section, we explore the ability of the algorithm to generate molecules with enhanced protein interactions while simultaneously matching descriptor values of a given reference ligand (termed D3N-pinpoint protocol). For these experiments, six clinically relevant protein–ligand systems from our SB2012^{23,39} test set were selected: (1) SB203580 with MAP kinase (pdb 1A9U),⁵³ (2) SU2 with FGFR1 kinase domain (pdb 1AGW),⁵⁴ (3) flurbiprofen with COX-1 (pdb 1EQH),⁵⁵ (4) simvastatin with HMG-CoA reductase (pdb 1HW9),⁵⁶ (5) efavirenz with HIV reverse transcriptase (pdb 1IKW),⁵⁷ and (6) oseltamivir with neuraminidase (pdb 3CL0).⁵⁸ Table 6 shows descriptor values for each reference ligand (computed using DOCK6/RDKit) along with the D3N-pinpoint target

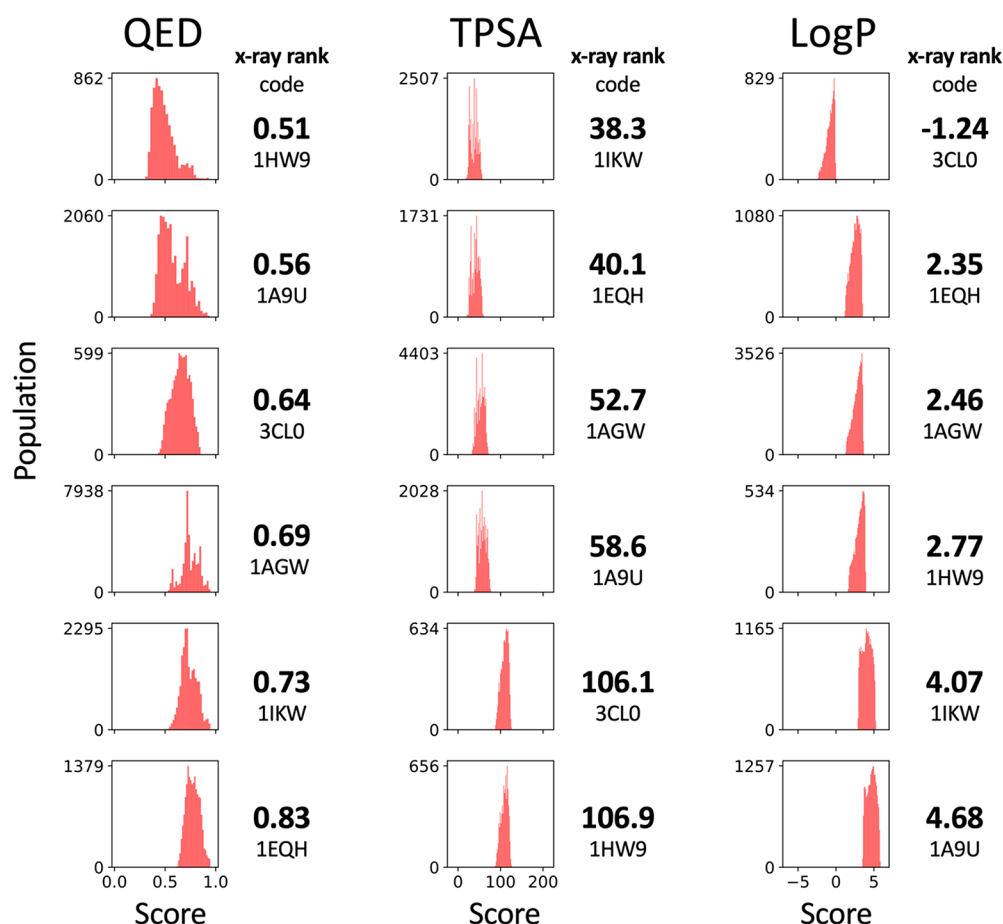


Figure 16. Descriptor distributions for the top 500 molecules, constructed using D3N-pinpoint protocols (Table 6), with subplots arranged in increasing order based on the QED, TPSA, or log P values for the six reference ligands.

ranges derived from each reference for the five D3N descriptors being driven.

Preliminary tests showed that the very extreme pinpoint ranges in Table 6 led to excessive pruning. To bolster sampling under these conditions, we increased the values for three key de novo design parameters: $dn_num_random_picks$ (20 to 50), $dn_max_root_size$ (25 to 50), and $dn_max_layer_size$ (25 to 50). We also increased the number of anchors used to seed ligand growth (15 to 380). As noted in methods, the pinpoint simulations also included FPS terms^{20,36} in the primary scoring function, which helps bias growth toward per-residue VDW and ES patterns made by the reference ligand. The overall objective was to generate topologically different molecules but with characteristics similar to the reference. For each system, the ensembles resulting from different anchors were pooled together, rank ordered, and the top 500 molecules were retained for analysis.

Figure 16 plots D3N-pinpoint results with subplots ordered based on the scores for the six reference ligands (ref ligand rank in bold font, plots arranged from low to high). Readers should note that the order of systems for the three descriptors are different. For example, QED values for the six references go from 0.51 (1HW9) to 0.83 (1EQH), TPSA goes from 38.3 (1IKW) to 106.9 (1HW9), and log P goes from -1.24 (3CLO) to 4.68 (1A9U). Notably, the associated distributions from the D3N-pinpoint simulations appear to be well-correlated in terms of the reference ligand rank trends. For example, the QED score for the reference ligand in 1HW9 (0.51) is the

lowest among the six systems examined and the resultant QED profile from D3N-point simulations in 1HW9 is shifted farthest left. Conversely, the reference ligand in 1EQH has the highest QED score (0.83) and the D3N-pinpoint distribution is shifted furthest right. The recognizable left to right progression, while traveling down each row, for the three descriptors plotted, provides evidence that the D3N algorithm can be used to tune molecular outcomes about a desired descriptor value.

D3N Searching Yields Enhanced Interactions. An examination of top-scoring molecules from the D3N-pinpoint simulations shows that there is significant chemical searching about each binding site, which can be visualized by plotting H-bond patterns. Figure 17 shows specific H-bond interactions (discussions employ pdb numbering) made by the six reference ligands (top panels, green ligand, magenta labeled residues) with those made by the 500 top-scoring molecules constructed during each D3N simulation (bottom panels, magenta and orange labeled residues). To emphasize trends, molecules grown using D3N are hidden and only a subset of binding site residues are shown. Reassuringly, in each case, newly constructed molecules recapitulate key ES interactions made by each reference (magenta-labeled residues) and explore additional regions in the binding site (orange-labeled residues). For example, D3N simulations in Map kinase (Figure 17a) yield ligand ensembles with highly populated H-bonds at residues Lys53 and Met109 (bottom panel, magenta residues), which correspond to the two H-bonds made by the reference ligand (top panel, magenta residues). Also, the

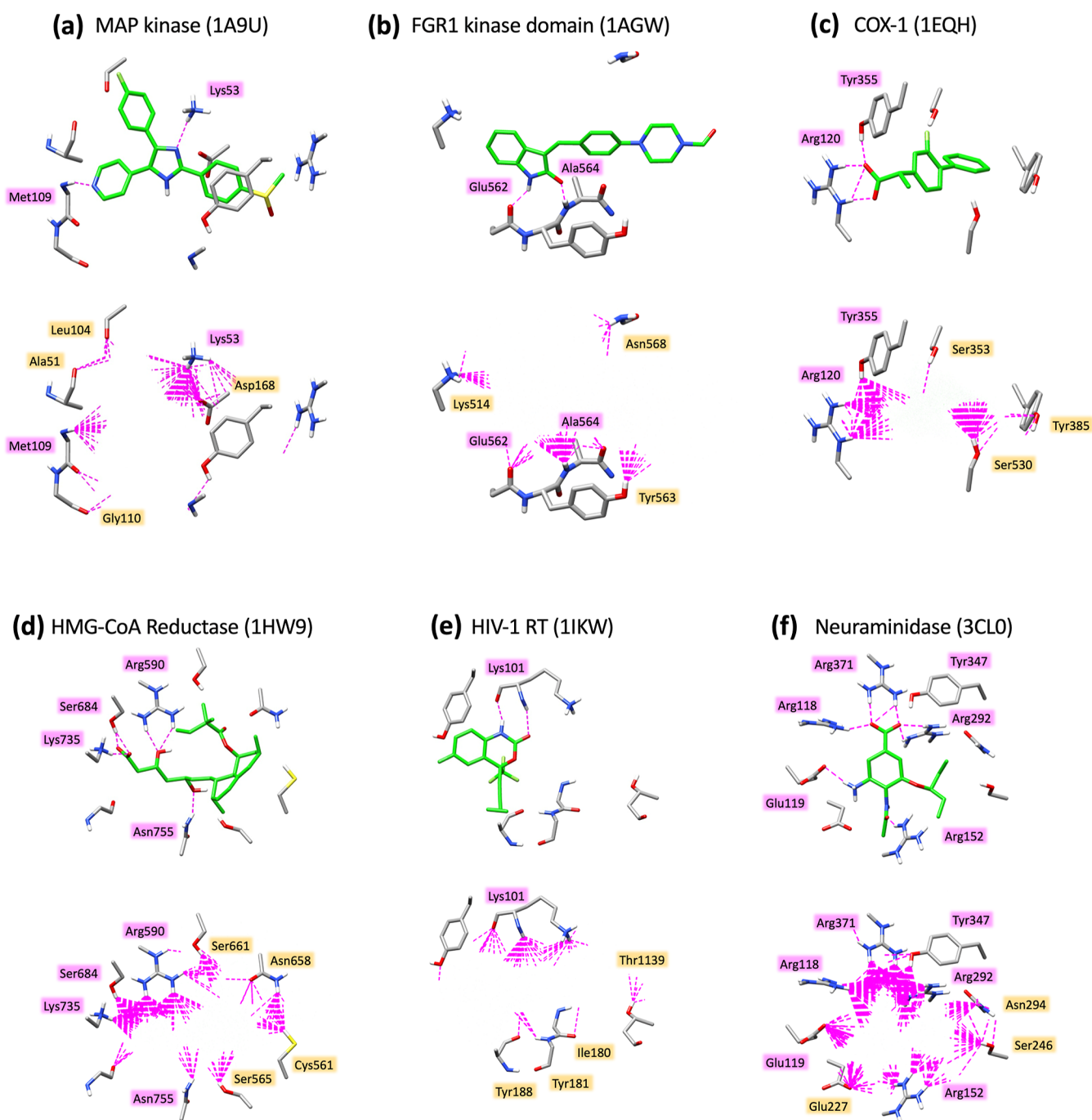


Figure 17. H-bond patterns (dashed magenta lines) made by six reference ligands (top panels, ref ligand pose in green) and top-scoring ensembles ($N = 500$ molecules) from D3N-pinpoint simulations (bottom panels, D3N molecules hidden for clarity) for (a) SB203580 with Map kinase (1A9U), SU2 with FGR1 kinase domain (1AGW), flurbiprofen with COX-1 (1EQH), simvastatin HMG-CoA reductase (1HW9), efavirenz with HIV-1RT (1IKW), and oseltamivir with neuraminidase (3CL0). H-bonds calculated using the Chimera⁵⁹ program with default settings. Select binding site residues shown in gray.

algorithm explores additional H-bonding, which is observed at positions Ala51, Leu104, Gly110, and Asp168 (bottom panel, orange residues). Likewise, for the FGR1 kinase domain (Figure 17b), the D3N ensembles yield significant H-bond populations at Gly562 and Ala564 (bottom panel, magenta residues), corresponding to those made by the reference ligand (top panel, magenta residues), and there are additional interaction patterns seen with Lys514, Asn568, and Tyr563 (bottom panel, orange residues). An examination of the

remaining four protein systems in Figure 17c–f shows similar trends.

In terms of specific molecules, Figure 18 compares the pose of each reference ligand (green) with the top scoring pose from each D3N simulation (orange) along with their respective MGEs (VDW + ES terms) and RDKit descriptor scores for QED, SynthA, TPSA, and log P . As expected, the descriptor values from the D3N-pinpoint simulations mirror their respective references (Figure 18 tables, reference ligand versus D3N top score). As an example, for 1A9U, both TPSA scores

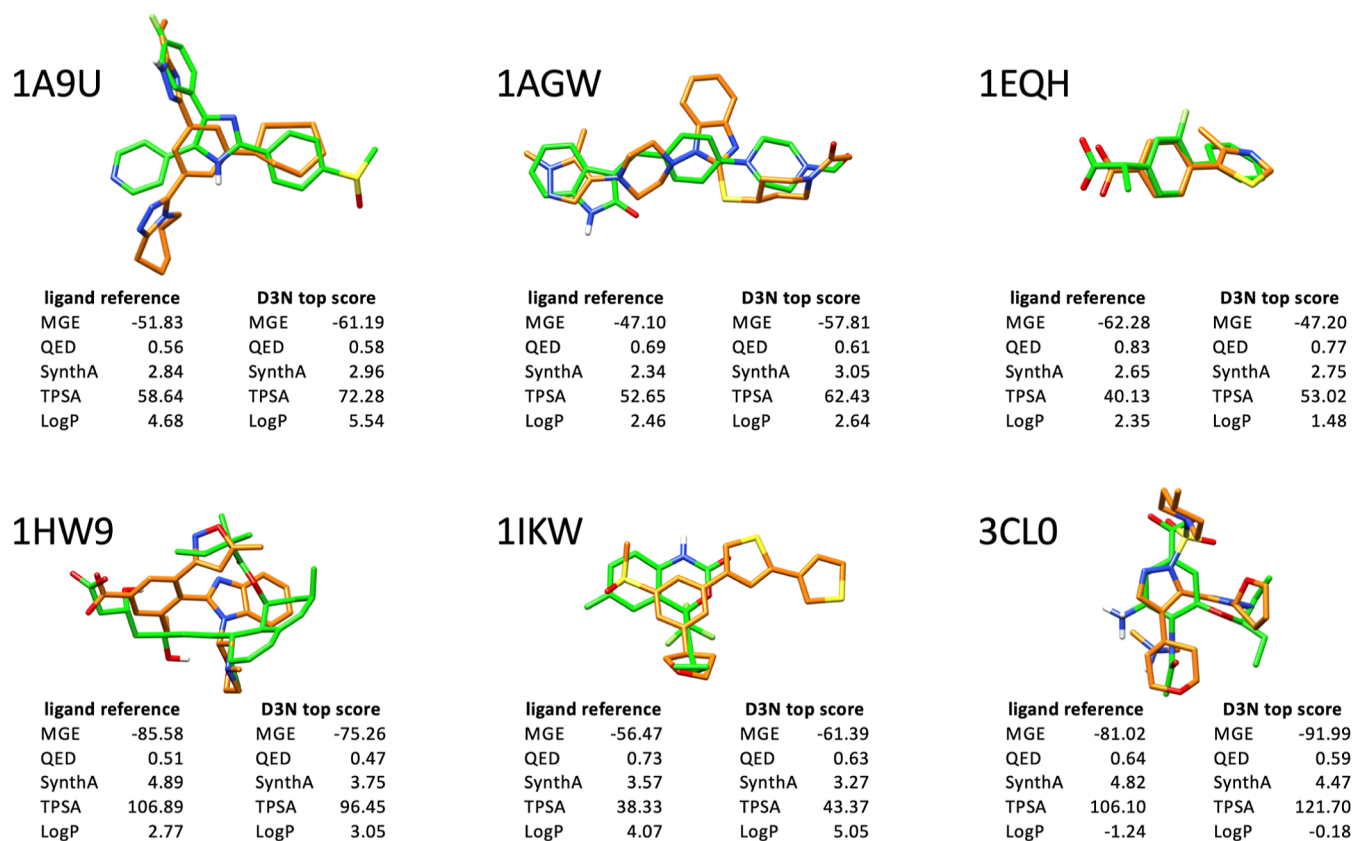


Figure 18. Comparison between the top-scoring D3N-pinpoint pose (orange) and its respective reference ligand pose (green), along with MGE, QED, SynthA, TPSA, and log *P* scores. Protein residues hidden for clarity. MGE in kcal/mol. TPSA in angstroms squared.

(58.64, 72.28) and both log *P* scores (4.68, 5.53) are similar in terms of numerical value. Also, for 3CL0, the D3N scores shift accordingly to mimic the larger TPSA (106.10, 121.70) and negative log *P* (-1.24 , -0.18) values of the reference. The molecules also show reasonable 3D overlap in the binding site, which occurs in part because the MGS + FPS scoring function helps keep growth from expanding too far outside of the binding pocket. Descriptor comparisons for the four other systems in Figure 18 follow similar trends. Of particular interest, in four out of six cases (1A9U, 1AGW, 1IKW, 3CL0), the top scoring D3N molecules in Figure 18 yield a more favorable MGE score relative to its reference. This favorable outcome suggests that the D3N pinpoint protocol will be useful to explore a generation of new compounds, with enhanced binding site interactions, while conforming to an underlying descriptor space defined by a known compound or reference.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, this work presents the development and testing of a new DN approach for the program DOCK6 termed D3N, which aims to bias the construction of new small organic molecules to conform to a set of user-defined properties. The new D3N method makes use of descriptors computed through integration of DOCK6 with the open-source cheminformatics package RDKit. At each stage (layer) of ligand growth, if values for a given descriptor (or descriptors) fall outside of the target range(s) defined by the user, the molecule is likely pruned (Figure 1). Layer-by-layer growth requires fragment libraries, which for the present work were derived from deconstruction of 13M drug-like molecules (Figure 2). D3N pruning makes

use of a Metropolis-like scheme, permitting some molecules at the descriptor boundaries to propagate, which yields smooth-tailed distributions (Figure 3). Pruning is also executed in coordination with existing routines, which control, for example, molecular and conformational diversity, size, formal charge, and interaction energy. The DOCK6/RDKit method can be used to bias growth based on a single descriptor at a time, a single descriptor that includes multiple underlying terms in the function, or multiple descriptors simultaneously. The current implementation allows for 13 RDKit descriptors to be computed (see Introduction), of which 7 can be used for D3N growth. The simulations discussed in this work employed up to 5 descriptors simultaneously (QED, SynthA, TPSA, log *P*, #Stereo). The new DOCK6/RDKit implementation yielded results essentially identical to the standard Python/RDKit distribution for 13 million molecules and 9 descriptors, thereby confirming the integrity of the RDKit integration (Figure 5). The validation process also confirmed the reliability of MOL2 to SMILES conversions (Figure 6). The DOCK6/RDKit implementation can also be used to process large ligand libraries (via the database filter/utilities class) to help prioritize compounds for standard virtual screening, either before or after docking has occurred. As an example, users can easily explore different rank ordering options using DOCK6 MOL2 files containing descriptor values and other scoring terms in conjunction with the UCSF Chimera program (ViewDock utility).

In comprehensive testing, five different D3N protocols were evaluated, including those that specified loose ranges with little to no pruning (D3N-loose), ranges based on approved small-molecule drugs and active pharmaceutical agents (D3N-

drugc), ranges designed to laterally shift D3N-drugc distributions left or right (D3N-lateral), ranges that were narrower than the D3N-drugc targets (D3N-narrow), and ranges designed to give tight pinpoint distributions (D3N-pinpoint). Notably, in all cases, use of these different protocols, relative to using D3N-loose as a control, led to descriptor populations that shift left or right or are narrower, which indicates that the DOCK6/RDKit D3N infrastructure is working as intended. Particularly striking changes were observed using the D3N-lateral protocol in the absence of protein (Figures 7 red vs gray), the D3N-narrow protocol in 57 protein systems (Figure 10 purple vs gray), and the D3N-pinpoint protocol in 6 protein binding sites (Figure 16, Table 6). Layer-by-layer growth experiments confirmed that the D3N protocol can be initiated at any point during a DOCK_DN simulation, and descriptor ranges approach their targets more completely when the algorithm is applied in earlier layers (Figure 9). Our studies also highlight that for functions such as QED, comprising multiple descriptors, driving the primary function alone will show concomitant changes in the underlying descriptors themselves (Figure 9). Outcomes for log *P* calculations were also observed to be influenced by the underlying composition of the fragment libraries used during ligand growth (Figure 7).

For the D3N-drugc simulations in 57 proteins, relative to the D3N-loose control, a comparison of results hard-filtered to the same cutoffs showed that there was added value in terms of an increase in the number of designed molecules (13.4%) with more favorable QED, SynthA, TPSA, and log *P* scores (Figure 12 red vs gray area, Table 5). By protein family, the increases ranged from 4.87 to 25.56% (Table 5). Also, for the top-scoring range, grid scores of -50 kcal/mol and below, the D3N-drugc filtered protocol yielded more molecules than D3N-loose filtered for 7 out of 8 protein families (Figure 14). A particularly interesting observation was the apparent influence on increased drug likeness (QED) when growth was initiated in binding sites compared to the absence of protein, before additional D3N biasing (Figure 15). An examination of the underlying QED terms showed that molecules constructed in binding sites were smaller, which is likely due to differences in scoring function (internal energy only versus non-bonded protein interactions) and the sites being of finite volume. Simulations using the D3N-pinpoint protocol, for 6 clinically relevant drug targets, showed that the algorithm was effective at generating descriptor distributions, which tracked the descriptor trends made by the cognate reference ligand (Figure 16). An examination of H-bond patterns, for the 500 top-scoring molecules in each of the 6 sites, showed high density with residues known to be engaged by the reference and at other sites, which indicates robust chemical searching and sampling (Figure 17). Also, in 4 out of 6 cases, the top-scoring D3N molecule yielded a DOCK energy score more favorable than the reference while retaining similar descriptor values (Figure 18).

In summary, the new D3N approach is an important building block of our long-term strategy to develop an extensive DN platform for which the whole is greater than the sum of the individual parts. The comprehensive experiments outlined in this paper indicate that the DOCK_D3N algorithm will aggressively prune molecules when descriptors fall outside of the target ranges, leading to descriptor populations enriched for specific properties. Planned future work includes implementation of additional RDKit descriptors

and adopting the interface for use with the DOCK6 genetic algorithm recently reported by Prentis et al.²⁶ As with all our prior development efforts, the D3N method will be included in a forthcoming public release of DOCK for use by the community. We hypothesize that the GA interface may show enhanced convergence because the limitation that molecules must be correctly built to “spec” in only nine layers of de novo growth will be lifted.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Data Availability Statement

The RDKit interface for DOCK6 described in this work will be made available for use by the community to coincide with publication of the manuscript or shortly thereafter. Until the official release date, interested users with a valid DOCK6 license can obtain the software directly from the corresponding author. DOCK6 is free for academics, including all source code, and is available at https://dock.compbio.ucsf.edu/DOCK_6/index.htm. RDKit is open-source and available at <https://www.rdkit.org>. Compilation will require the 2019.09.01 release of RDKit (<http://www.rdkit.org/>), Boost 1.71.0 (<http://www.boost.org/>), Eigen 3.3.9 (<http://www.eigen.tuxfamily.org/>), and Anaconda3 (<http://www.anaconda.com/>). Protein simulations employed systems in the SB2012 protein data set available at http://ringo.ams.stonybrook.edu/index.php/Rizzo_Lab_Downloads. Data analysis and plotting was performed with pandas v1.1.4 (<http://www.pandas.pydata.org/>) and matplotlib v3.6.0 (<http://www.matplotlib.org/>) in conjunction with python v3.9 (<http://www.python.org/>). The program UCSF Chimera (<http://www.cgl.ucsf.edu/chimera>) was also used for data analysis and visualization.

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.jcim.3c01031>.

Procedures used to determine default descriptor ranges and comparisons between DrugCentral and ZINC databases and comparison of results using D3N-pinpoint and D3N-loose protocols (PDF)

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Author Contributions

G.D.R.M. and S.P. contributed equally to this paper. G.D.R.M. conceptualized and implemented the DOCK6/RDKit interface, designed the D3N algorithm, performed protein experiments, and wrote the initial draft with assistance from S.P. S.P. implemented routines to enable DOCK6 to compute QED and SynthA descriptors, designed the studies involving code validation, and performed and analyzed simple-build and pinpoint experiments. R.C.R. provided overall mentorship in designing experiments and significantly contributed to data analysis and manuscript editing.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This paper is dedicated to Professor Irwin D. “Tack” Kuntz on the occasion of his 84th birthday. This work was supported by an NIH grant R35GM126906 (to R.C.R.) with student support from T32GM136572 (to S.P.). The authors would like to thank past and present Rizzo Lab members for computational assistance and discussions, in particular, Dr. L.P. and J.B. for algorithm discussion, Dr. T.B. for implementing the DOCK6 simple-build scoring function, and Christopher Corbo for organizing the DrugCentral data set. Additional thanks are given to the Stony Brook University Office of the Vice President for Research, Stony Brook Research Computing and Cyberinfrastructure, and the Institute for Advanced Computational Science at Stony Brook University for access to the high-performance Lired and SeaWulf computing systems, the latter of which was made possible by a National Science Foundation grant (#1531492).

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