

Effective Handling of Induced-Fit Motion in Flexible Docking

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ABSTRACT For structure-based drug design, where various ligand structures need to be docked to a target protein structure, a docking method that can handle conformational flexibility of not only the ligand, but also the protein, is indispensable. We have developed a simple and effective approach for dealing with the local induced-fit motion of the target protein, and implemented it in our docking tool, ADAM. Our approach efficiently combines the following two strategies: a vdW-offset grid in which the protein cavity is enlarged uniformly, and structure optimization allowing the motion of ligand and protein atoms. To examine the effectiveness of our approach, we performed docking validation studies, including redocking in 18 test cases and foreign-docking, in which various ligands from foreign crystal structures of complexes are docked into a target protein structure, in 22 cases (on five target proteins). With the original ADAM, the correct docking modes (RMSD < 2.0 Å) were not present among the top 20 models in one case of redocking and four cases of foreign-docking. When the handling of induced-fit motion was implemented, the correct solutions were acquired in all 40 test cases. In foreign-docking on thymidine kinase, the correct docking modes were obtained as the top-ranked solutions for all 10 test ligands by our combinatorial approach, and this appears to be the best result ever reported with any docking tool. The results of docking validation have thus confirmed the effectiveness of our approach, which can provide reliable docking models even in the case of foreign-docking, where conformational change of the target protein cannot be ignored. We expect that this approach will contribute substantially to actual drug design, including virtual screening. *Proteins* 2006;63:878–891.

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Key words: structure-based drug design; docking validation; docking accuracy; foreign-docking test; redocking test; ligand conformation; protein movement; ADAM; structure optimization; virtual screening

INTRODUCTION

The starting point of successful structure-based drug design is to obtain accurate docking models of arbitrary ligands to the protein of interest. For the purpose of

accurate docking, one of the most important problems is how to explore the whole solution space of docking exhaustively to find the correct docking solution for every protein–ligand. Because the ligand conformation of the bound form often varies greatly from the most stable conformation in the unbound state, an effective docking algorithm needs to consider the degree of freedom for not only relative rotation and translation between protein and ligand, but also ligand conformation. Furthermore, “induced-fit” motion of the target protein accompanying ligand binding has also been widely recognized.^{1–3} The induced-fit motion depends on the structure of the bound ligand. Accordingly, the flexibility of the target should be taken into account in practical drug design, including virtual screening, where it is required to generate correct docking models of various small molecules with different sizes and shapes to one three-dimensional (3D) structure of the target protein. However, the number of possible docking modes to be searched increases explosively with increasing degree of freedom of ligand conformation, let alone protein flexibility. A docking method that can fully handle flexibility of both the ligand and the target protein has not yet been reported, and this remains a very difficult problem.

Regarding ligand flexibility alone, many automated docking tools that treat it (and even small movements of protein side chains, in some cases) have been developed. Pioneering work includes the method of DesJarlais et al.⁴ and that of Leach and Kuntz,⁵ both of which were implemented in the well-known docking tool DOCK.⁶ We subsequently developed a unique automated docking method, ADAM, for flexible ligands and rigid proteins.^{7–9} Since then, many flexible docking tools, which are now widely used, have been reported, for example, AUTODOCK,¹⁰ FlexX,¹¹ GOLD,¹² and Glide.¹³ Most of these methods do not exhaustively explore the solution space of docking, even as regards ligand flexibility, owing to the use of discrete sampling of ligand conformation in some methods and application of a stochastic algorithm in other methods (see Discussion for details). Nevertheless, these methods

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are extensively used for drug design and virtual screening, and successful ligand discoveries have been reported.^{14–16}

On the other hand, a variety of approaches have been developed to deal with protein flexibility, although this is a more challenging task than a consideration of only the ligand flexibility. Some of the reported approaches have restricted the protein flexibility to be considered to changes of side-chain conformation in the ligand-binding region, by rotating the side chains at minimum,^{17,18} by including the side-chain movements in the Monte Carlo step,¹⁹ or by sampling discrete side-chain conformations based on rotamer libraries.^{20–22} Other approaches have tried to deal with the flexibility of protein backbones in addition to side chains, by using ensembles of experimentally determined protein structures^{23–26} or representative structures sampled through molecular dynamics simulations.²⁷ These methods should be capable of wider application than the approaches considering only side-chain motions. However, the variety of available experimental structures or the quality of sampled structures has a great influence on the docking performance with these methods. There have been other approaches to treat larger protein movements.^{28–30} In addition, soft potentials, where van der Waals (vdW) repulsion is reduced, have been used for implicitly handling the small protein motions.^{31,32} This approach is simple and inexpensive. However, Shoichet and coworkers³³ reported that the identification of true ligands is difficult in the case of using soft potential, because the false positives can get as good scores as the true actives.

In this article, we present a simple, practical, and effective approach for docking simulation with handling of both ligand flexibility and protein induced-fit motion. Furthermore, we have validated the performance and usefulness of our approach by applying it to several test systems of target proteins where induced-fit motion has been experimentally observed. The results are also compared with published results obtained with other docking tools.

From a very early version, our docking tool ADAM has been able to explore the solution space extensively and continuously, taking account of all possible conformational flexibility of the ligand, by means of an effective combination of systematic conformational search and several structure-optimization steps.^{7–9} The successful results of application of ADAM for virtual screening include identification of many novel inhibitors of aldose reductase (AR) and acetylcholinesterase (AChE).^{34,35} The unique algorithm of ADAM, which makes efficient use of the H-bonding pattern between ligand and protein as an initial clue to the rapid finding of promising docking modes, has had a great impact on the subsequent development of other flexible docking methods, for example, FlexX,¹¹ SLIDE,^{17,18} Ph4Dock,³⁶ and the method of Makino et al.³⁷ ADAM meets the requirements for extensive exploration of the solution space of docking involving the ligand conformational flexibility, but it has not so far coped with the induced-fit problem. To improve ADAM in this respect, we have developed an approach in which the protein flexibility around the ligand-binding region is implicitly consid-

ered during the docking process, and then is converted to explicit movements of protein atoms through the postdocking optimization. Generally, it is not feasible to exhaustively explore the solution space of docking including protein conformational flexibility, unlike the case of treating only the ligand flexibility. In this regard, our approach is very practical and has the advantage of being easily applicable to virtual screening. In-house use of our approach has already yielded several novel lead compounds as ligands of attractive drug targets (unpublished results).

To confirm the effectiveness of the induced-fit handling and the performance of the current version of ADAM, we have also carried out a series of validation tests. Two methods were used for this docking validation, that is, redocking and foreign-docking. In redocking, the protein and ligand structures are extracted from the crystal structure of their complex and docked together again. Because the protein structure in the complex obtained by cocrystallization with the test ligand is used as the docking input, consideration of induced-fit motion is not necessary. So, the redocking test should be rather easy. Although redocking tests have been performed extensively for evaluation of various docking tools,^{38–41} actual drug design does not require separation and redocking of a protein and ligand from a complex structure, so good results in the redocking test do not necessarily guarantee usefulness in actual drug design. On the other hand, another docking test is to dock various ligands from foreign crystal structures of complexes into a target protein structure. We call this test foreign-docking. Generally, it is hard to obtain the correct solution without taking protein motion at least partly into account, so the foreign-docking test is far more difficult than the redocking test.⁴² However, the nature of foreign-docking test is very similar to that of actual drug design, so the foreign-docking test is likely to be a better touchstone of value for structure-based drug design. Also, as a matter of course, the foreign-docking test, in which protein flexibility cannot be ignored, is indispensable for verifying the effectiveness of our approach to treat induced-fit motion. Therefore, we have focused on the foreign-docking test for evaluation of our method, although the redocking test was also performed for basic checking of the method and to compare the docking accuracy with that of other docking tools.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Handling Local Movement of Protein

In the docking process of ADAM, the ligand-binding region of the protein is represented by a 3D grid.^{43,44} On each 3D grid point, the potential values including vdW and electrostatic potentials are stored, and the intermolecular energies of intermediate (and final) docking models can be estimated very rapidly by using 3D grid data. The 3D grid is prepared in advance of docking calculation, and the protein structure is assumed to be rigid throughout the ADAM process. In this article, we present an implementation to treat the protein induced-fit motion by means of a combination of the following two strategies.

One is the use in the ADAM docking process of the "vdW-offset" grid, the application of which in virtual screening has already been reported.³⁵ In this approach, the vdW energy curve for each atom pair is shifted in calculating the 3D grid data, so that the interatomic contact distances become smaller as the user indicates. As a result, the vdW potential surface is moved to widen the protein cavity uniformly. By means of this simple idea, the generation of docking models has become possible for ligands with large sizes and various shapes, even in cases where some accommodation of protein atoms is necessary for ligand binding. This approach has contributed our successes in virtual screening, including the discovery of novel AChE ligands. However, several problems arise with the use of the vdW-offset grid. The interaction energy would not be estimated properly by using the potential values on the vdW-offset grid, because both the shifted vdW energy curves and the uniform extension of the protein cavity are contrary to reality. Moreover, in ADAM docking models obtained by using the vdW-offset grid, severe clashes are occasionally detected between protein and ligand. This arises because the atomic coordinates of the protein structure are not changed when the potential surface is modified in the vdW-offset grid. To avoid such intermolecular clashes and to properly estimate the interaction energy, structure optimization including the protein atoms around the ligand-binding region and all ligand atoms is needed after the ADAM docking.

For this reason, we have developed a new energy-minimization program, named BLUTO. The BLUTO program is able to rapidly and sequentially converge the total energies of given docking models to the local-minimum states, considering the local motion of protein atoms. The L-BFGS method,⁴⁵ which has the merits of high speed and small memory use, is adopted as the optimization algorithm. Robust convergence can be achieved by a combination of the steepest decent method and L-BFGS optimization, avoiding pseudoconvergence attributable to saddle points on the energy surface. The total energy optimized by BLUTO consists of intermolecular vdW and electrostatic energies and intramolecular energies of ligand and protein. When BLUTO is used for postprocessing of ADAM docking calculations, all energy terms are estimated by using the AMBER94 all-atom force field,⁴⁶ in accordance with ADAM. The protein atoms to be moved in the energy-minimization process can be easily defined by the user, with cutoff distances from the ligand-binding site, and various settings for the movable region are possible by Boolean operation. The BLUTO optimization yields stable docking models without intermolecular clashes.

With the implementation of the above strategies, a reexamination of parameters in the ADAM process was required. It is sufficient that qualitatively correct docking modes are included in the high-ranked solutions generated by ADAM, because the ADAM docking models are optimized to quantitatively more stable ones through the energy-minimization process considering the local protein movements. Accordingly, for reduced computational cost, we have used a 10 times looser criterion than that in the

former version, for convergence in the optimization steps of ADAM docking; specifically, the fractional tolerance for energy-difference of the Powell optimization step was changed from 1.0e-2 to 1.0e-1.

Preparation and Execution of Docking Validation

Figure 1 shows a flow chart of our total process of docking with induced-fit handling. The docking validation in this paper was performed according to this procedure.

Preparation of target protein structure

The target proteins used for docking validation are listed in Table I (for details, see Results).

The target protein structures were taken from the Protein Data Bank (PDB).⁴⁷ Ligand and water molecules were removed from the PDB structure, except for an important water molecule in the active site of HIV-1 protease (4phv), according to the conditions of the FlexX test.¹¹ All hydrogen atoms were added to the protein structure, because the all-atom model is currently used in our docking. The AMBER94 force field type, AMBER94 atomic charge,⁴⁶ and ADAM H-bonding type⁹ were assigned for each atom. For a metal ion, the charge value of +1.0 was assumed. The above-mentioned preparation of protein structures was automatically performed by the program PDBFIL.^{43,44}

For each target protein structure, the ligand-binding region was indicated so as to fully include the binding site of test ligands. Then, a 3D grid with a regular interval of 0.4 Å was generated inside the ligand-binding region by using the CALGRID program.^{43,44} Two sorts of 3D grid were generated, that is, a normal grid and a vdW-offset grid, for comparison. For the vdW-offset grid in most of the test cases, the offset value of 0.3 Å was applied to all protein atoms inside the ligand-binding region. This setting means that the vdW energy curve for each atom pair is shifted by 0.3 Å to enlarge the protein cavity. The only exception was TK, for which the larger offset value of 0.5 Å was used because of the greater extent of protein conformational change around the ligand-binding cavity. Furthermore, CALGRID also generated the H-bonding dummy atoms, which are necessary for predicting the possible H-bonding schemes and for accelerating the docking process by making use of the distance relation of H-bonding pattern. From among the H-bonding dummy atoms automatically generated, two to six were selected for each protein system. These dummy atoms were not chosen only for the docking of particular ligands (i.e., the ligands used in this validation), but can also be used for the docking of various other ligands or for virtual screening. The criteria for selecting dummy atoms were as follows: (1) select dummy atoms at the bottom of hydrophilic pockets, especially those at sites where strong H-bonds or salt bridges are expected, (2) select dummy atoms at coordination sites to metal ions, (3) in the case of serine protease, select dummy atoms at sites where β -sheet-like interaction with the protein backbone is expected, (4) exclude dummy atoms at the edge of the grid region and in regions exposed to the solvent. Based on these criteria, we selected dummy

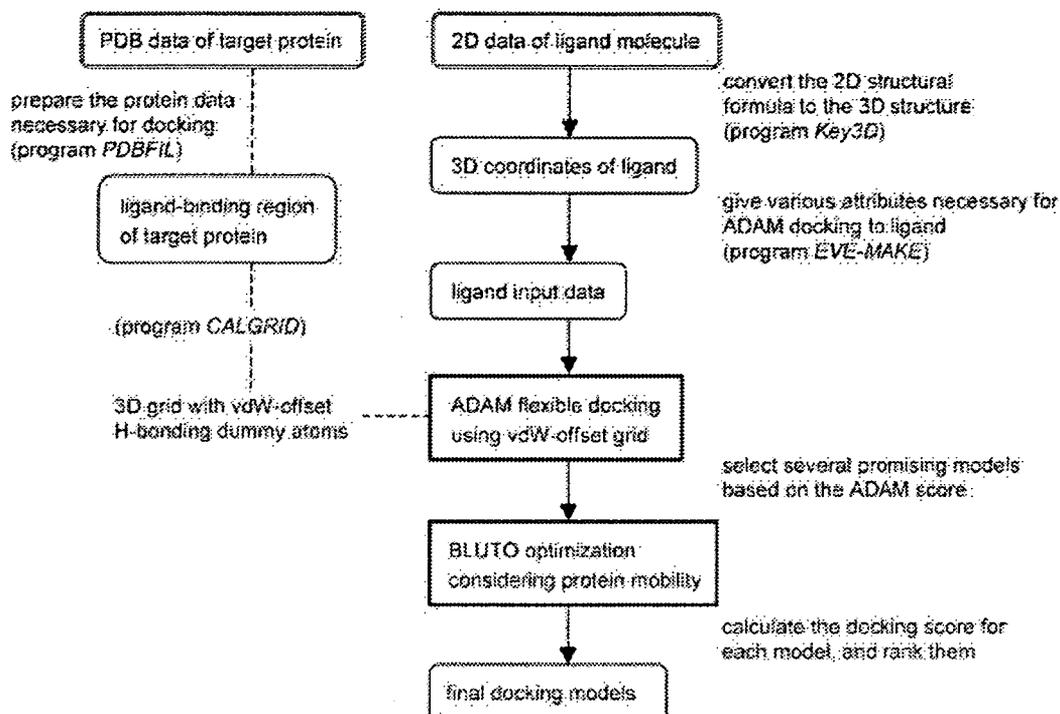


Fig. 1. Flow chart of our docking approach with handling of protein induced-fit motion.

atoms that were distributed sparsely, centering on the bottom of the protein cavity apart from the solvent-accessible region. We considered that a quite small number of dummy atoms was sufficient, because the matching of the H-bonding pattern by means of dummy atoms only provides an initial clue to search intermediate docking modes at the early stage of the calculation, and the solution space of docking is extensively explored in the subsequent steps of systematic conformational search and structure optimization.

Preparation of ligand structure

The 2D chemical structures of all ligands were drawn by ISIS-Draw.⁴⁸ Figure 2 shows the chemical structures of ligands used in the foreign-docking test; for the ligands in the redocking test, see ref. 11. The 2D structures of ligands were automatically converted to 3D structures, by using our program Key3D. Key3D is a useful tool for converting the 2D information (i.e., chemical structural formula) of small molecules to 3D structures with high accuracy of bond lengths, bond angles, and ring conformations, by means of the techniques of distance geometry and structure optimization. In the conversion of 2D ligand structures to 3D ones, we assumed the same protonation states as in the literature reporting the corresponding docking validation.^{11,49} As for the ligands not included in this literature, that is, the foreign-docking test cases other than the thymidine kinase (TK) system, the protonation states were assumed to be as shown in Figure 2. The MNDO-MULLIKEN atomic charge was calculated for each atom in the ligand, by using Key3D as an interface to

the MOPAC93 program.⁵⁰ Furthermore, the KMF atomic type, which is our original force field type, was assigned to each atom through Key3D. Key3D also provided the KMF parameter set that included all force field parameters necessary for calculating the energies of the ligands in test cases based on the AMBER force field function. Details of Key3D and KMF will be reported elsewhere. The other attributes necessary for ADAM docking, that is, H-bonding atom types and settings of bond rotation, were automatically generated by our EVE-MAKE program.³⁵

Execution of ADAM docking and BLUTO optimization

The ADAM calculation was executed with the current default parameters: that is, the threshold of total potential energy for the intermediate docking model (E_{three}) is 10,000 kcal/mol, the weighting on the H-bonding term in the total potential energy (W_{hb}) is 1.0, and the other parameters are the same as in ref. 9. The top 20 docking models generated by ADAM were subjected to structure optimization by BLUTO. In this step, all the ligand atoms and the protein side-chain atoms within 7 Å around the ligand were allowed to move, and a distance-dependent dielectric constant of $2.0r$ (r is an interatomic distance in Å units) was used. The resulting final docking models were reranked according to the conventional score, which is the summation of the intermolecular vdW and electrostatic energy terms and ligand intramolecular energy term calculated by the AMBER94 all-atom force field. This conventional score value for reranking, together with the

TABLE I. Redocking and Foreign-Docking Test Cases

Code	Target protein		Ligand	
	PDB ^a	Name	PDB ^b	Name
Redocking test				
5tim	5tim	triosephosphate isomerase	5tim	sulfate
1ldm	1ldm	lactate dehydrogenase	1ldm	oxamate
2pjh	2pjh	<i>p</i> -hydroxybenzoate hydroxylase	2pjh	<i>p</i> -hydroxybenzoate
3ptb	3ptb	β -trypsin	3ptb	benzamidine
1ulb	1ulb	purine nucleoside phosphorylase	1ulb	guanine
3tpi	3tpi	trypsinogen	3tpi	Ile-Val
4tsl	4tsl	tyrosyl-transfer-RNA synthetase	4tsl	tyrosine
4dfr	4dfr	dihydrofolate reductase	4dfr	methotrexate
1stp	1stp	streptavidin	1stp	biotin
1dwd	1dwd	α -thrombin	1dwd	NAPAP
1dwc	1dwc	α -thrombin	1dwc	argatroban
1rnt	1rnt	ribonuclease T ₁	1rnt	2'-GMP
1tmn	1tmn	thermolysin	1tmn	N-(1-carboxy-3-phenylpropyl)-L-leucyl-L-tryptophan
4tlm	4tlm	thermolysin	4tlm	L-leucyl-hydroxylamine
3cpa	3cpa	carboxypeptidase A	3cpa	glycyl-L-tyrosine
2ctc	2ctc	carboxypeptidase A	2ctc	L-phenyl lactate
4phv	4phv	HIV-1 protease	4phv	<i>N,N</i> -bis-(2(R)-hydroxy-1(S)-indanyl-2,6-(R,R)-diphenylmethyl-4-hydroxy-1,7-heptanediamide
121p	121p	H-ras p21 protein	121p	guanosine 5'-B,C-methylene-triphosphate
Foreign-docking test				
COX01	4cox	cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2)	4cox	indomethacin
COX02			6cox	SC-558
COX03			3pgh	flurbiprofen
PKA01	1ydt	cAMP-dependent protein kinase (PKA)	1ydr	H-7
PKA02			1yds	H-8
PKA03			1ydt	H-89
AR01	1ah3	aldose reductase (AR)	1ah3	tolrestat
AR02			1ah0	sorbinil
ER01	3ert	estrogen receptor α (ER α)	3ert	4-hydroxytamoxifen (antagonist)
ER02			1ere	17 β -estradiol (agonist)
ER03			3erd	diethylstilbestrol (agonist)
ER04			1err	raloxifene (antagonist)
TK01	1kim	thymidine kinase (TK)	1kim	deoxythymidine (dT)
TK02			1ki7	5-iododeoxyuridine (idu)
TK03			1ki6	5-iodouracil anhydrohexitol nucleoside (ahiu)
TK04			1e2p	6-(dihydroxyisobutyl)thymine (dhbt)
TK05			1e2m	6-(3-hydroxypropyl)thymine (hpt)
TK06			1e2n	(6-[6-hydroxymethyl-5-methyl-2,4-dioxo-hexahydro-pyrimidin-5-yl-methyl]-5-methyl-1H-pyrimidine-2,4-dione (hmtt)
TK07			1e2k	(North)-methanocarbothymidine (mct)
TK08			2ki5	aciclovir (acv)
TK09			1ki2	ganciclovir (gcv)
TK10			1ki3	peniclovir (pcv)

^aThe protein structure taken from the PDB data in this column was used in the docking test. For each system in the foreign-docking test, the common PDB structure of the target protein was used for docking of various test ligands.

^bNo 3D information about the ligand was taken from the PDB data in this column. Instead, the 3D coordinates of all ligands were generated from the 2D drawing, by using our Key3D program.

decomposition of each energy term, were output directly from BLUTO when the optimization process finished.

The accuracy of the docking model was estimated on the basis of root-mean-squares (RMS) deviation for all the

nonhydrogen atoms of the ligand from the reference coordinates, that is, the corresponding ligand coordinates in the crystal structure of the complex. In the foreign-docking test, the reference coordinates of the foreign ligand were

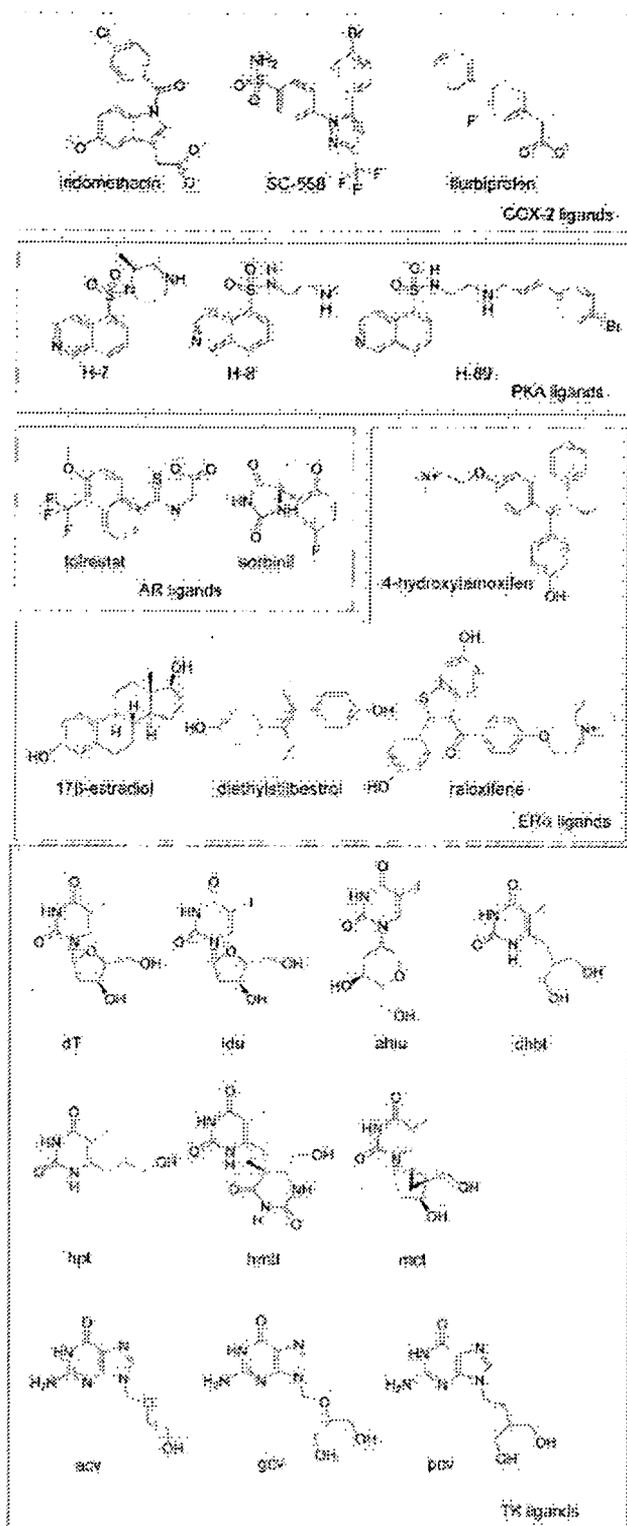


Fig. 2. The chemical structures of ligands used in the foreign-docking test.

determined by superposing the C α atoms of the protein structure together with the foreign ligand on those of the target protein structure. It should be noted that intermolecular atomic clashes were seen in reference structures thus obtained in some cases of foreign-docking (i.e., AR02; ER03 and ER04; hmtt, mct, acv, gcv, and pcv for the TK system). Because the RMS deviation is not necessarily a sensitive barometer of the resemblance of the binding modes and might occasionally be inconsistent with researchers' intuitive evaluation, we also observed each docking model carefully on the 3D graphics to check how well the protein-ligand contacts in the corresponding crystal structure were reproduced, and to examine the merits and limitations of our approach.

RESULTS

Test Cases

All the test cases selected for docking validation of our approach are listed in Table I.

First, the test cases used in the evaluation of FlexX were adopted for the redocking test.¹¹ The test cases of FlexX include both rigid and flexible ligands, as well as several metalloproteins containing zinc or magnesium. Such protein-ligand systems are suitable for our purpose. The case of ribonuclease A and uridine vanadate was excluded, because the parameters for the vanadium atom have not been determined in the KMF parameter set.

Next, for the foreign-docking test, we chose five protein systems (22 protein-ligand cases), from the viewpoint of diversity of protein family, variety of shapes and physico-chemical properties of the ligand-binding cavities, and potential value as a drug target. Although most of the foreign-docking test cases here were not used in the comparative evaluation studies of other well-known docking methods, TK has been used to validate the docking accuracies of many representative tools.^{13,49,51} We used the same TK structure as was employed in the preceding validation reports (1kim, monomer A),⁵² to allow direct comparison.

Among the five protein systems used in the foreign-docking test, cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) and cAMP-dependent protein kinase (PKA) show only small conformational differences of side chains among the cocrystal structures of test ligands. On the other hand, AR and estrogen receptor α (ER α) show substantial induced-fit motion of several side chains around the ligand-binding cavity in the cocrystal structures.^{53,54} For ER α , especially large conformational differences, including movements of backbone atoms, can be observed between agonist- and antagonist-bound forms: the agonist-bound form has a small, closed binding site, while the antagonist-bound form has a wider, open binding site. Moreover, comparison of the two antagonist-bound structures (antagonists in this test: 4-hydroxytamoxifen and raloxifene) shows side-chain conformational changes of several residues that constitute the binding cavity, although the two agonist-bound structures are very similar. For TK as well, conformational changes of several side chains around the ligand-binding cavity are observed in the crystal structures of the complexes with test ligands,

TABLE II. Closest RMS Deviations of the Two ADAM Docking Calculations Using Normal and vdW-Offset Grids

Code	Closest RMSD (Å)	
	Using normal grid	Using vdW-offset grid
Redocking test		
5tim	1.19	1.25
1ldm	0.52	0.67
2phh	0.58	0.96
3ptb	0.60	0.84
1ulb	0.35	0.60
3tpi	0.81	1.28
4tsl	0.90	0.84
4dfr	1.68	1.10
1stp	0.75	0.71
1dwd	1.83	1.77
1dwc	1.50	1.29
1rnt	0.87	0.93
1trn	1.80	1.39
4tln	1.54	1.82
3cpa	1.09	0.71
2ctc	0.41	0.46
4phv	4.47	1.02
121p	1.72	1.28
Foreign-docking test		
COX01	1.34	1.17
COX02	0.80	1.11
COX03	0.76	1.18
PKA01	0.78	0.46
PKA02	1.05	0.88
PKA03	1.26	0.97
AR01	0.57	0.72
AR02	0.63	0.67
ER01	2.57	1.32
ER02	6.21	0.64
ER03	1.20	1.21
ER04	5.10	1.98
TK01	0.58	0.70
TK02	0.56	0.86
TK03	1.19	0.69
TK04	0.74	0.83
TK05	0.49	0.83
TK06	1.19	0.95
TK07	0.78	0.77
TK08	1.88	1.34
TK09	2.04	1.39
TK10	1.11	1.56

The closest RMS deviations among the top 20 docking models are listed.

although positional changes of backbone atoms are not seen. As noted above, AR, ER α and TK should provide more challenging cases than COX-2 and PKA in this foreign-docking test.

Effects of vdW-Offset Grid

We have shown that the vdW-offset grid contributed to successful virtual screening,³⁵ but we have not yet examined the effects of the vdW-offset grid on docking accuracy. Table II shows the closest RMS deviations (RMSD) among the top 20 docking models, comparing the two ADAM docking calculations using normal and vdW-offset grids. In

the redocking test, the correct docking modes (i.e., RMSD < 2.0 Å) were predicted for almost all the test cases, when using either grid. The only incorrect case was the redocking calculation of HIV-1 protease/inhibitor (4phv) by using the normal grid (RMSD 4.47 Å). In the crystal structure of 4phv, the target protein has a closed binding cavity, and the large inhibitor fits there tightly. Owing to this tightness of fit, interatomic clashes would be likely to occur between protein and ligand in the docking process using the normal grid, and consequently, the correct mode would be eliminated by the energy criterion. The change of internal parameters of ADAM in the current version might make such cases more problematic than formerly, because the optimization steps for resolving the clashes are truncated as premises for the postdocking BLUTO optimization. When the vdW-offset grid was substituted for the normal one, the intermolecular clashes were reduced and the correct mode was successfully obtained in the case of 4phv (RMSD 1.02 Å).

In the foreign-docking test, comparable results were obtained from the two docking calculations using the normal and vdW-offset grids, for the cases of COX-2 and PKA, where the side-chain conformational changes are small for the test ligands, and even for the cases of AR and TK with larger induced-fit movements. However, for the case of ER α , with a drastic induced-fit, remarkable differences of the closest RMS deviations were seen between the two calculations. In particular, the effects of the vdW-offset grid were well demonstrated in the cases of 17 β -estradiol (ER02) and raloxifene (ER04). Although the agonist estradiol is a ligand of small size, only incorrect modes where the ligand orientation was inverted from that of the cocrystal mode could be obtained by using the normal grid (RMSD 6.21 Å). The target ER α structure in antagonist-bound form (3ert) has an open ligand-binding cavity, but the region to which the agonist binds is somewhat narrower than that in the agonist-bound structure. This may account for the incorrect results in the case of estradiol. Also, in the case of raloxifene, the head moiety including benzothiophene and the phenol ring could not be properly fitted to the agonist-bound site of 3ert when the site was represented by the normal grid (RMSD 5.10 Å). By adopting the vdW-offset grid, the docking accuracy was improved dramatically for both estradiol (RMSD 0.64 Å) and raloxifene (RMSD 1.98 Å). These results illustrate the advantages of the vdW-offset grid in the treatment of induced-fit motion of the target protein.

As for the speed of ADAM docking calculations using the two grids, the CPU times were 1–72 s for the normal grid and 1–115 s for the vdW-offset grid, on our Linux machine (Intel Xeon CPU 3.06 GHz). The time was somewhat longer using the vdW-offset grid compared to the normal grid, because the protein cavity to be searched becomes wider when the vdW-offset strategy is adopted. However, the ADAM calculation was completed in a practical time in both cases. Moreover, in the application to virtual screening, the average computational time per molecule is greatly reduced, because most compounds in databases cannot bind stably to the target protein and the docking trials for

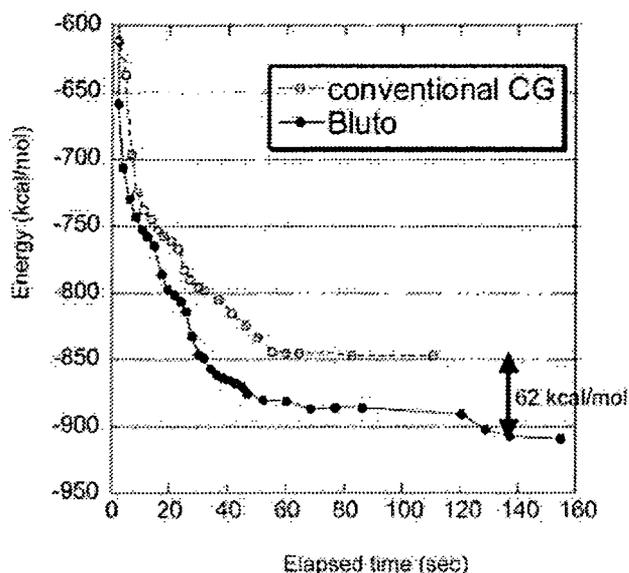


Fig. 3. Energy convergences in BLUTO and conventional CG optimization. In both optimizations, the same AMBER94 force field function and parameters were used.

such compounds are stopped at an early stage of calculation.

Test of BLUTO Convergence

Prior to examination of the effects of combining the optimization process including protein and ligand atoms with the vdW-offset grid approach, we tested the performance of our new structure-optimization tool, BLUTO. Energy minimization of the PDB structure of bovine pancreatic trypsin inhibitor (BPTI; 1bpi)⁵⁶ was performed by using BLUTO and by using the conventional conjugated gradient (CG) method in the AMBER5.0 program.⁵⁶ In this test, all water molecules were excluded, and all of the 892 protein atoms contained in 58 residues were made movable in the optimization process. The dielectric constant was set at 1.0 r and nonbond cutoff at 10.0 Å, and the criterion of convergence was RMS < 0.01 in terms of energy gradient. The calculation was executed on an SGI workstation (CPU 400 MHz R12000). Figure 3 compares the energy convergences in BLUTO and conventional CG optimization, both of which use the same AMBER94 force field function and parameters. The two methods were able to rapidly stabilize the energy value of BPTI from the initial state (207.4 kcal/mol), but the final minimized energy was 62 kcal/mol more stable in the BLUTO optimization (-909 kcal/mol) than in the conventional CG optimization (-847 kcal/mol). Moreover, BLUTO was superior in terms of the speed of energy reduction. To reach the minimized energy value with the conventional CG (-847 kcal/mol) took about 55 s using AMBER5.0, whereas BLUTO required only 30 s. In other words, the BLUTO method was able to stabilize the protein structure with only 55% of the elapsed time of conventional CG. Proteins (and protein-ligand complexes) cases other than BPTI showed a similar tendency (data not shown).

TABLE III. RMS Deviations (in Å) for ADAM Docking Models and BLUTO-Optimized Models

Code	ADAM docking models using vdW-offset grid		BLUTO-optimized models	
	Closest RMSD	RMSD of top-ranked model	Closest RMSD	RMSD of top-ranked model
Redocking test				
5tim	1.25	1.62	1.39	1.41
1ldm	0.67	1.60	0.34	0.43
2phh	0.96	1.27	0.57	0.57
3ptb	0.84	0.88	0.26	0.27
1ulb	0.60	0.74	0.55	0.61
3tpi	1.28	1.63	0.32	0.32
4tsl	0.84	0.86	0.46	0.61
4dfr	1.10	1.28	1.05	1.05
1stp	0.71	1.13	0.42	0.42
1dwd	1.77	3.92	1.27	1.53
1dwc	1.29	1.29	0.81	1.99
1rnt	0.93	1.01	0.41	0.92
1tmn	1.39	2.05	0.87	8.99
4tln	1.82	2.20	1.92	2.07
3cpa	0.71	1.77	0.97	1.08
2ctc	0.46	1.13	0.41	0.47
4phv	1.02	1.02	0.63	0.63
121p	1.28	1.31	1.08	1.08
Foreign-docking test				
COX01	1.17	1.30	0.66	0.91
COX02	1.11	1.30	0.71	0.71
COX03	1.18	2.02	0.86	1.98
PKA01	0.46	0.76	0.65	0.76
PKA02	0.88	0.98	0.68	0.78
PKA03	0.97	1.49	1.03	1.21
AR01	0.72	1.38	0.41	0.43
AR02	0.67	0.67	0.44	0.44
ER01	1.32	1.32	0.59	1.29
ER02	0.64	1.28	0.32	0.63
ER03	1.21	1.61	1.09	2.66
ER04	1.98	4.97	1.06	1.06
TK01	0.70	0.76	0.53	0.75
TK02	0.86	0.86	0.44	0.63
TK03	0.69	0.69	0.49	0.52
TK04	0.83	4.22	0.76	0.92
TK05	0.83	0.83	0.57	0.97
TK06	0.95	1.14	0.95	1.42
TK07	0.77	0.80	0.67	0.88
TK08	1.34	2.63	1.35	1.89
TK09	1.39	2.51	1.28	1.83
TK10	1.56	6.31	1.35	1.70

The closest RMS deviations were selected from among the top 20 docking models.

Effects of BLUTO Optimization

Next, we examined the effects of BLUTO optimization on the docking accuracy for various protein-ligand sets, especially those in which induced-fit is anticipated. Table III compares the RMS deviations of docking models that were subjected to the BLUTO optimization with those of ADAM docking models without BLUTO optimization. The closest RMS deviations of ADAM docking models were

satisfactory in all test cases, owing to the use of the vdW-offset grid. However, when the vdW-offset grid is used, the proper calculation of intermolecular energies cannot necessarily be expected, as mentioned in Materials and Methods. So, it is not surprising if the correct docking model cannot be selected as the top-scoring one in several cases. In this docking validation, typical examples are the cases of ER04, TK04, and TK10 in the foreign-docking test. Figure 4 shows the docking modes in the top-ranked models of ADAM output and in the top models reranked after BLUTO optimization, for ER04 and TK10. In these cases, small interatomic clashes between protein and ligand were observed in the top-ranked models of ADAM docking. A clash between the hydroxyl group on the benzothiophene ring in raloxifene and Gly521 C α (2.7 Å) was seen in the top-ranked ADAM model for ER04 [Fig. 4(a)], while for TK10, the two oxygens in the ligand side chain clashed with Ala168 C α (3.0 Å) and Tyr132 C ϵ (2.4 Å), respectively [Fig. 4(c)]. Also, clashes between one of the terminal hydroxyl groups in the ligand dhbt and Ile100 C γ 2 (2.7 Å) were observed for TK04. Despite these intermolecular clashes, the energy values were low, because energy calculation was carried out using grids where the vdW energy curve was shifted. By performing the BLUTO optimization in such cases involving protein motion, the intermolecular clashes in the ADAM docking models are removed, and in consequence, proper energy evaluation becomes possible. In the above cases, the top-ranked models obtained after BLUTO optimization and reranking were in agreement with the cocrystal modes, as shown in Table III and Figure 4(b) and (d). The effect of the BLUTO optimization is well illustrated in the improvement of the docking modes of top-ranked models in these cases. Furthermore, BLUTO optimization also greatly improves the docking accuracy in cases where no marked interatomic clashes are observed in the ADAM top model (i.e., TK08), and even for the redocking test cases (i.e., 1dwd). The improved fitting between protein and ligand owing to the postdocking optimization should contribute to the superior energy evaluation and the reliable discrimination of correct solutions.

Conversely, in the cases of 1tmn and ER03, the top-ranked models after BLUTO optimization showed different binding modes from the crystal structures (RMSD: 8.99 Å for 1tmn, 2.66 Å for ER03), although the correct solutions were ranked as top in the ADAM output (RMSD: 2.05 Å for 1tmn, 1.61 Å for ER03). For the ER03 case, the rather large RMSD of the top-ranked model after BLUTO arises because the double bond at the center of diethylstilbestrol was reversed from that in the cocrystal mode. The binding positions of one of the aromatic rings and two ethyl groups were almost correct, but the other aromatic ring has shifted slightly from the cocrystal mode, being influenced by the inversion of the central double bond. In the case of 1tmn, the model where the whole ligand structure was completely reversed from the correct solution was chosen as the top-ranked solution by reranking. We consider that this incorrect result is not due to a negative effect of BLUTO optimization, but rather reflects a prob-

lem with the score used for reranking. The details are discussed later.

To assess the effects of BLUTO optimization further, we examined the RMSD changes produced by the optimization (Table IV). An RMSD change in Table IV means the difference between RMSD of the top-ranked solution after BLUTO and that of the corresponding solution before BLUTO. In 58% of all the test cases, the docking accuracy was improved by the BLUTO optimization (i.e., RMS deviations were reduced by more than 0.3 Å), and there was no case where the accuracy was degraded. This result clearly shows the effectiveness of BLUTO optimization. No marked difference in improvement of accuracy was observed in the foreign-docking test (59%) versus the redocking test (56%). In the current version of ADAM, the use of looser convergence criteria to achieve faster calculation means that the docking accuracy can be improved by the postdocking optimization even in the redocking cases, as well as in the foreign-docking cases.

As for the speed of BLUTO optimization, the CPU time was 2–18 s per docking model on our Linux machine (Intel Xeon CPU 3.06 GHz). This running time is fairly short for simple optimization of a protein–ligand complex structure. In the application to virtual screening, the BLUTO optimization is performed for only a small number of docking models for hit compounds that meet the user's criteria, so the adoption of BLUTO step would not cause an explosive increase of overall running time.

Comparison with Other Docking Methods

Figure 5 and Table V compare the docking accuracy of our method with that of the other docking tools, for which validation reports have been published. In the redocking test (Fig. 5), both ADAM and ADAM + BLUTO showed comparable accuracy to Glide,¹³ and superior accuracy to FlexX¹¹ (as for GOLD,¹² only a part of these redocking cases has been reported; <http://www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk>). Also, it is clear from Figure 5 that BLUTO optimization increased the number of "accurate" solutions (RMSD <1.2 Å), compared to the ADAM output. However, as noted in Introduction, a truly useful method must demonstrate power in foreign-docking cases, which are more relevant to practical molecular design. Table V compares the docking accuracy of our combinatorial approach and other well-known docking tools for TK in the foreign-docking test. Induced-fit motion is observed in the TK system, and correct docking modes were obtained for only a part of test ligands by the other docking tools, that is, DOCK, FlexX, GOLD,⁴⁹ Surflex,⁵¹ and Glide.¹³ On the other hand, ADAM + BLUTO gave correct solutions for all TK ligands. In particular, for the purine ligands (acv, gcv, pcv), which have different core structures from the cocrystallized ligand in 1kim, the other methods failed to generate the correct docking modes, while our method provided them as top-ranking solutions. To our knowledge, our approach offers better docking accuracy for the TK cases than any other currently available docking method.

When comparing the docking validation results of various methods, we should take account of differences in the

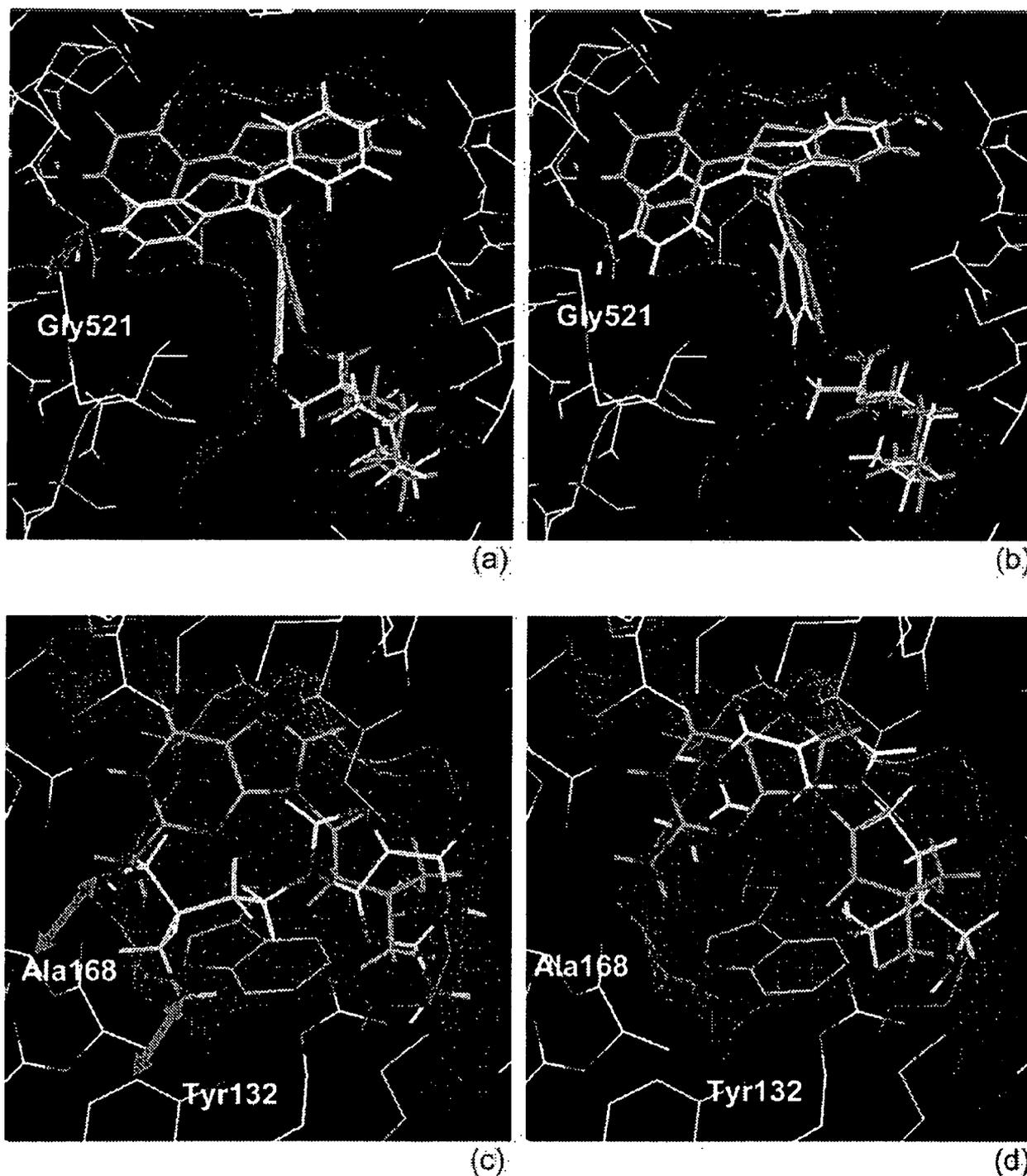


Fig. 4. Docking modes in the top-ranked models of ADAM output and in the top models reranked after BLUTO optimization, for foreign-docking of ER04 and TK10. Each docking model is compared with the reference ligand structure, which was obtained by superposition of the cocrystal structure on the target protein structure (3ert for ER04; 1kim for TK10). (a) Top model of ADAM docking (carbons and hydrogens are yellow) and reference structure (green) for ER04 case; (b) top model reranked after BLUTO optimization (yellow) and reference structure (green) for ER04 case; (c) top model of ADAM docking (yellow) and reference structure (green) for TK10 case; (d) top model reranked after BLUTO optimization (yellow) and reference structure (green) for TK10 case. The shape of the ligand-binding region is displayed as a birdcage model. The double-headed arrow in pink represents the interatomic clash observed in the docking model. Hydrogens in the protein are omitted for clarity. Note that intermolecular atomic clashes also exist between the superposed reference structure of the ligand and the target protein structure, in the cases of both ER04 and TK10 (arrows are not shown).

TABLE IV. Rmsd Changes Produced by the BLUTO Optimization

	Accuracy was improved (RMSD change < -0.3 Å)	Not changed (RMSD change: -0.3 ~ +0.3 Å)	Accuracy was degraded (RMSD change > +0.3 Å)
Redocking test	10	8	0
Foreign-docking test	13	9	0

RMSD change was calculated as follows: [RMSD of top solution after BLUTO] - [RMSD of the corresponding solution before BLUTO].

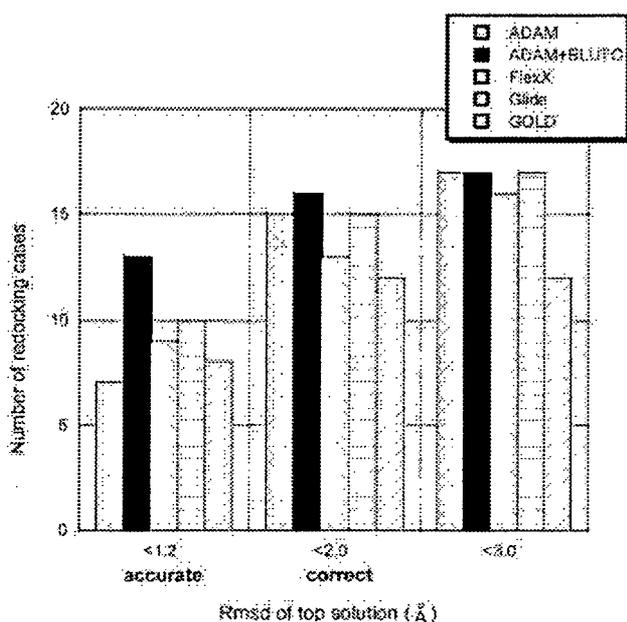


Fig. 5. Comparison of accuracy of several docking methods in the redocking test. The RMS deviations of top-ranked solutions in redocking test cases are compared, for ADAM, ADAM + BLUTO, FlexX, Glide, and GOLD. Data for FlexX, Glide, and GOLD are taken from refs. 11, 13, and 57, respectively. For GOLD, only 12 among the total of 18 redocking cases are available.

calculation conditions. One of the considerations is how the ligand input structure is prepared. In the redocking and foreign-docking tests in this article, the ligand input structures were computationally generated from the 2D chemical drawing, by using our Key3D program. On the other hand, in the redocking test of FlexX, GOLD and Glide (Fig. 5) and in the foreign-docking of TK by Glide (Table V), the ligand structures were originally taken from the PDB data (i.e., the answers of docking tests), and then those coordinates were varied by means of energy minimization and/or bond rotation (in the TK foreign-docking test of DOCK, FlexX, and GOLD, Bissantz et al. generated ligand input structures with Corina, and as for Surflex, the preparation of ligand structures is not clearly described in the article). Needless to say, such ligand preparation utilizing the answers of docking test is undesirable even if

TABLE V. Accuracy in Foreign-Docking of TK Ligands

Code (ligand)	RMSD (Å) of top solution					
	ADAM + BLUTO	DOCK	FlexX	GOLD	Surflex	Glide
TK01 (dT)	0.75	0.82	0.78	0.72	0.74	0.45
TK02 (idu)	0.63	9.33	1.03	0.77	1.05	0.35
TK03 (ahiu)	0.52	1.16	0.88	0.63	0.87	0.54
TK04 (dhbt)	0.92	2.02	3.65	0.93	0.96	0.68
TK05 (hpt)	0.97	1.02	4.18	0.49	1.90	1.58
TK06 (hmtt)	1.42	9.62	13.30	2.33	1.78	2.83
TK07 (mct)	0.88	7.56	1.11	1.19	0.87	0.79
TK08 (acv)	1.89	3.08	2.71	2.74	3.51	4.22
TK09 (gcv)	1.83	3.01	6.07	3.11	3.54	3.19
TK10 (pcv)	1.70	4.10	5.96	3.01	3.84	3.53

Data for DOCK, FlexX, and GOLD are taken from Bissantz et al.⁴⁹ Data for Surflex and Glide are taken from Jain⁵¹ and Friesner et al.,⁴³ respectively.

the coordinates are modified, because no information on the binding geometry of a ligand would be available in advance in actual drug design. Some docking methods generate the ligand conformations without depending on the torsion angles in the input coordinates, but even for such methods, the bond lengths, angles and out-of-plane angles might still affect the docking results. In particular, when the ligand structure has nitrogen atoms with complicated orbital hybridization, the prediction of proper geometry (specifically, out-of-plane angles) around the nitrogens is not easy. Accordingly, it is expected that the use of computationally generated structures for ligand input will make the docking test more difficult. Considering the above issues, the high accuracy of our results under unfavorable conditions is impressive.

DISCUSSION

We have developed an approach in which the vdW-offset grid and structure optimization involving the movements of protein atoms are effectively combined, to improve docking accuracy, especially in the systems with protein induced fit. The results of 18 redocking tests and 22 foreign-docking tests support the usefulness of our combinatorial approach, as shown in Figure 6. In a total of five cases (one redocking case and four foreign-docking cases) where the cocrystal modes could not be reproduced by the native ADAM process, the correct docking modes were obtained by adopting our approach. In particular, in the foreign-docking test on the ER α system, where a large induced-fit is experimentally observed, remarkable improvements in docking accuracy have been achieved by using our new approach, as described in Results. Because the handling of induced-fit motion is an inevitable issue in drug design, our achievement should be very valuable in practice.

In recent years, the redocking test has frequently been carried out for various docking tools. However, accuracy in the redocking test cannot show how helpful the docking tool would be for actual molecular design, especially for virtual screening, where a number of small molecules with

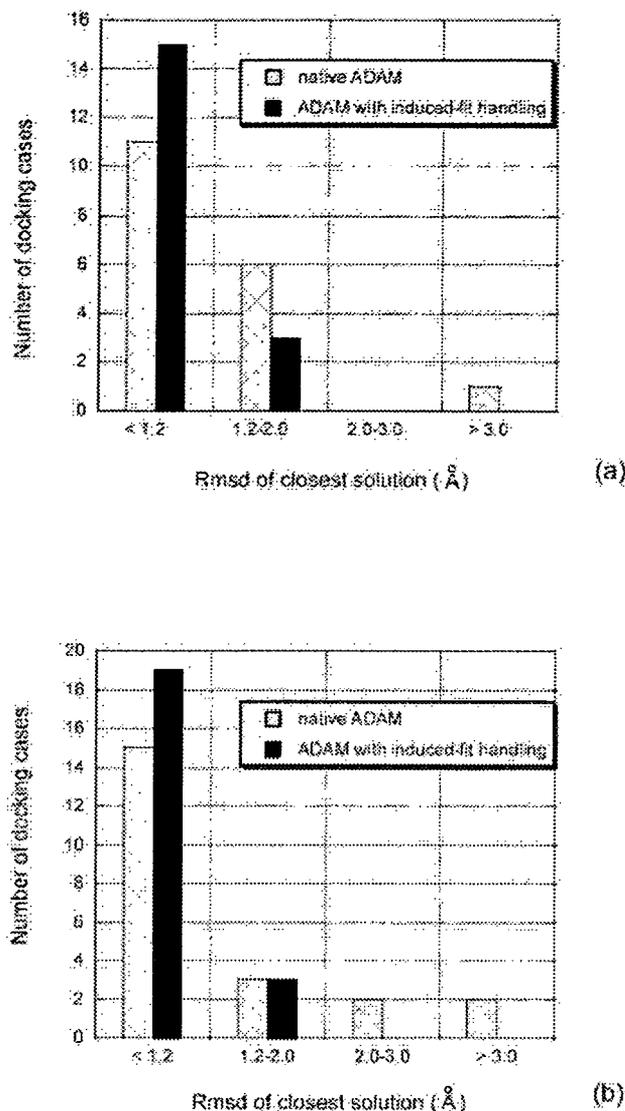


Fig. 6. Improvements of docking accuracy by our approach to handle induced fit. The RMS deviations of the closest docking models by native ADAM and by ADAM with induced-fit handling are compared for (a) redocking test, and (b) foreign-docking test.

various sizes and shapes are docked to a target protein structure. Rather, the redocking test should be regarded only as a basic functional check of the docking method. If a docking validation more closely resembling actual drug design, that is, the foreign-docking test, is adopted, the particular features and problems of each docking tool will become more apparent. Another method of docking validation is cross-docking, where the docking calculations are performed for all combinations of available protein conformers and test ligands. However, in molecular design, including virtual screening, the key point is how well a variety of ligands can be docked to a single favorable conformer of the target protein. So, we consider that the foreign-docking test using a representative conformer of each target protein is appropriate for evaluation of the usefulness of a

docking tool. As for the ligand input structure, the 3D structure converted computationally from the 2D structural formula should be used for the docking assessment, instead of a structure based on the answer itself, derived from the PDB data. We believe our present docking validation directly reflects usefulness in actual drug design, because it has been performed focusing on the foreign-docking test, with the use of computationally generated structures as ligand input.

In the redocking test, our docking approach provided results superior or equal to those of other docking tools, despite having used more demanding calculation conditions. Moreover, in the case of TK with induced-fit motion, our approach gave the best results that have ever been reported. The high accuracy of our docking method is considered to be due to the exhaustive and effective searching of the docking solution space by the ADAM algorithm, as well as the success in handling local induced-fit movements. The ADAM algorithm rarely fails to find the correct answer, because ADAM does not sample only discrete points in the docking solution space. Flexible docking methods other than ADAM generally perform conformational analysis of the ligand molecule in advance of the docking calculation or in the first step of docking, and a restricted number of the ligand conformations is selected to be used in the subsequent docking process. Methods of this type, for example, FlexX¹¹ and Glide,¹³ have the common risk of getting only incorrect answers if the bound conformation is not included in the initial ligand conformation list. Surflex⁵¹ has also a similar limitation, and in addition, the docking results seem to show dependency on the input ligand conformation. As an alternative approach, stochastic methods, which make use of the Monte Carlo method or the Genetic Algorithm, have been reported; representatives are GOLD¹² and AUTODOCK.¹⁰ These methods also have a problem, in that the stochastic algorithm cannot fully cover the possibilities of ligand position and conformation in one docking run. Even if many runs are executed, the correct answer may not be obtained.

Our approach to handle induced-fit motion was successful in the foreign-docking test as well as the redocking test, but it is not surprising that our method also has some limitations. In our approach, drastic induced-fit motion including large movements of backbone atoms still cannot be handled. For instance, an ER α antagonist of large size cannot be docked properly to the agonist-bound protein structure, where the ligand-binding cavity is small and closed. This limitation in cases of major induced-fit is shared by many other approaches to protein flexibility, that is, methods handling only the side-chain motion and those using soft potential. A practical and simple strategy to overcome this difficulty would be to select the protein structure where the ligand-binding cavity is as wide as possible. In the foreign-docking of ER α ligands, our procedure yielded satisfactory results when we adopted the antagonist-bound form with a wider binding cavity as target protein structure. If a suitable crystal structure is not available, a protein conformation with a wider cavity

may be prepared by using the techniques of structure modeling and/or molecular dynamics on the basis of structural information about the target protein itself and/or homologous proteins, although this task may not be easy.

For further improvement in the docking accuracy, development of a reliable docking score is indispensable. In this validation study, the very simple, conventional score based on the force field energy was used. This score does not consider several important factors, such as desolvation costs and intramolecular energy changes of target protein, and this omission seems to have caused incorrect ranking of docking models in some cases. For example, the incorrect model was ranked first in the case of the 1tmn redocking test, even though a docking model that reproduced well the cocrystal mode was also generated. To tackle this difficult but important problem, we have been developing a more efficient docking score for properly discriminating the correct model. With this new score, the correct docking model was identified as the top-ranking result even for 1tmn in a preliminary test (data not shown). Further optimization of our new scoring system should lead to more accurate docking models that will give superior results in drug design.

CONCLUSION

We have developed a simple and effective approach for handling the local induced-fit motion of the target protein in the flexible docking. To examine the effectiveness of our approach, validation tests were performed under severe conditions of ligand input structure. In the foreign-docking test cases where substantial induced-fit movements are observed in the cocrystal structures, the docking accuracy was improved remarkably by adopting our approach to treat local protein motions, and excellent results were obtained. It is noteworthy that our approach produced superior results to the other available methods in the foreign-docking test, which is directly relevant to usefulness in actual drug design. The limitation of our approach is that large conformational change of the target protein cannot be treated. In such cases, we recommend use of the protein structure in which the ligand-binding cavity is as wide as possible, selected from available crystal structures or computationally sampled conformations. We expect that the predictive power of our approach will be further improved by the incorporation of a new docking score, which is currently under development.

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Starting Point to Molecular Design: Efficient Automated 3D Model Builder Key3D

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Obtaining three-dimensional (3D) structures from structural formulae is a crucial process in molecular design. We have developed a new 3D model builder, Key3D, in which the simplified distance geometry technique and structure optimization based on the MMFF force field are combined. In an evaluation study using 598 crystal structures, the high performance and accuracy of Key3D were demonstrated. In the “flexible-fitting” test, which is focused on practical usefulness in the molecular design process, 88% of the Key3D structures acceptably reproduced the reference crystal structures (root-mean-square deviation <0.6 Å) upon rotation of acyclic bonds. These results indicate that Key3D will be very effective in providing starting points for practical molecular design.

Key words three-dimensional (3D) structure; drug design; Key3D; distance geometry; MMFF force field; MO calculation

Three-dimensional (3D) molecular structures are required in many fields of molecular design, such as docking simulation, virtual screening, molecular superposition and evaluation of quantitative structure–activity relationships, and methods to generate 3D structures of small molecules from two-dimensional (2D) structures play a key role in providing starting points.

A number of automated 3D model builders have been developed.²⁾ CORINA,³⁾ CONCORD,^{4,5)} and CONVERTER⁶⁾ are the most widely used methods. Two representative approaches to create 3D structures are a rule-based algorithm and the use of the distance geometry method. The rule-based approach is very rapid in general, and high accuracy can be expected with molecules for which all the components are incorporated in the internal rules and library. However, this approach is inevitably restricted by the number and quality of internal rules and the library size. Methods based on a distance geometry algorithm can handle a wide range of structures without the limitations of the rule-based approach, but require longer computational time.

Although various 3D model builders have been developed and subsequently improved in various respects, these methods may still not necessarily be adequate for providing starting points for actual molecular design. For instance, it has been reported that the accuracies of docking models which are generated starting from the CORINA structures are lower than those obtained using the structures optimized with the Merck molecular force field (MMFF94),^{7–11)} even though CORINA is one of the most sophisticated methods currently available.¹²⁾ We set out to develop a new 3D model builder with particular emphasis on the generation of high-quality 3D structures that would be suitable for molecular design. We named our method Key3D.

In developing Key3D, we assigned high priority to both accuracy of the converted 3D structure and the conversion rate. We chose an approach based on distance geometry technique, because it does not depend on a fragment library from which data may be missing. Regarding accuracy, we placed stronger emphasis on the accuracy of bond lengths, bond angles and ring conformations than on the conformations of acyclic moieties. The acyclic portion of ligand molecule has

large conformational flexibility, and the conformation in the free state is often very different from that in the bound form to the target protein. So, the bound conformation of the ligand should be predicted in the molecular design stage, *e.g.*, by docking or molecular superposition, taking into account the intermolecular interaction with the target protein. Currently, many programs for molecular design can deal with conformational flexibility of an acyclic moiety of a ligand.^{12–17)} Besides structural accuracy and conversion rate, computational speed is also an important factor. However, there is a trade-off between structural accuracy and calculation speed, and in Key3D, structural accuracy is given priority over speed. This is because the generation of 3D structures needs to be performed only once when constructing a 3D database, and the 3D structures stored in the database can be used as many times as needed. Nevertheless, we tried to speed up the calculation as much as possible by significant simplification of the distance geometry procedure. Also, to enhance the quality of the created 3D structures, structure optimization is performed with MMFF94, which offers high accuracy and reliability in handling small organic molecules. In addition, molecular design based on 3D structures requires the proper handling of stereochemistry (*i.e.*, generation of structures with correct stereochemistry and enumeration of possible stereoisomers) and control of the protonation state, depending on the calculation model. Key3D was designed to meet these requirements.

In this paper, we describe in detail the Key3D algorithm. Then, we evaluate the performance of Key3D. For assessing the validity of the Key3D structures as inputs to molecular design tools, we have developed a “flexible-fitting test” method where the accuracy in terms of only bond lengths, bond angles and ring conformation can be estimated by allowing free rotation of acyclic bonds. Use of the Key3D structures as inputs for ADAM flexible docking, and validation of the docking accuracy have already been reported.¹⁸⁾

Methods

Flowchart of Key3D Figure 1 shows a flowchart of the Key3D method. Letters in parentheses in Fig. 1 correspond to the following sections.

(a) The structural formula prepared by using chemical structure drawing tools such as ISIS/DRAW (MDL Information Systems, Inc.) or ChemDraw

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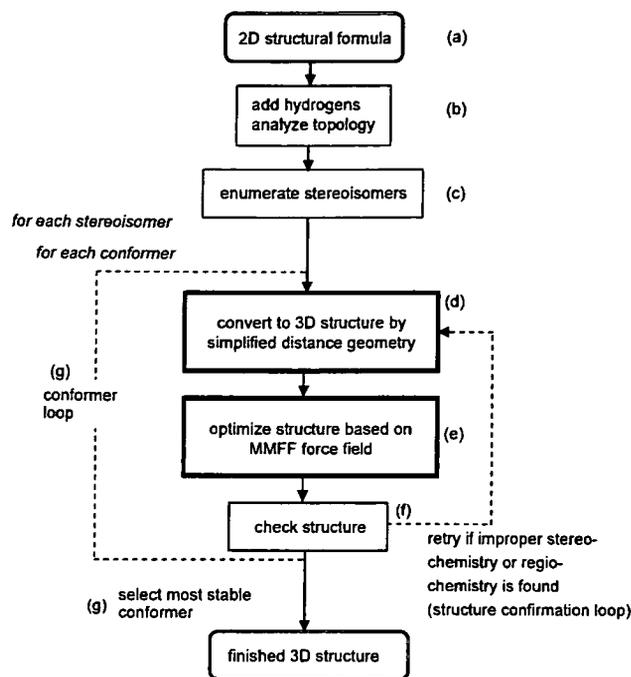


Fig. 1. Flowchart of Our 3D Model Builder, Key3D

Letters in parentheses correspond to the descriptions in the text.

(CambridgeSoft.Com) should be stored in the appropriate file format, *i.e.*, MDL format or MOL2 format of Tripos. Key3D reads this 2D topology data. Only atomic species and a connection table for the non-hydrogen atoms are needed as the 2D information. The elements that Key3D can deal with are H, C, N, O, Si, P, S, F, Cl, Br and I. Other elements are rarely found in general drug-like and bioactive molecules.

(b) The ring systems are identified, and the functional groups for which neutral and ionized forms are possible, *e.g.*, carboxylate, phosphate and amidino groups, are extracted. The protonation states for these groups can be designated by the user. According to the bond order and the designated protonation states, hydrogen atoms are added to the input structure.

(c) Analysis of stereochemistry is performed, and the stereoisomers to be generated are enumerated. When the stereochemistry is clearly defined in the input data (*e.g.*, as the bond records), Key3D creates the 3D structure of the corresponding isomer. If the molecule contains asymmetric centers with ambiguous stereochemistry, all the possible stereoisomers can be generated. However, when a large database has to be handled, it is impractical in terms of disk space to generate all possible 2^n isomers for n asymmetric centers of ambiguous configuration. So, the number of chiral centers to be considered in creating stereoisomers is limited to a maximum of six in the current version, and the user also can control the number of isomers to be generated.

(d) For each stereoisomer, a 3D structure is constructed by means of the simplified distance geometry method, as described later.

(e) The constructed 3D structure is subjected to structure optimization based on MMFF94, to improve its quality. The original parameter set of MMFF94 accommodates a wide variety of small organic molecules, but not all. We have added some parameters to the original set so that most molecules in commercial compound libraries, such as Available Chemicals Directory (MDL Information Systems, Inc.) and MAYBRIDGE database, can be handled properly.

(f) Key3D examines whether the stereochemistry and regiochemistry of the generated 3D structure are consistent with the expected ones. If any inconsistency is found, Key3D retries the construction of 3D structure by returning to the distance geometry step (this cycle is called the "structure confirmation loop").

(g) The cycles of generation of 3D structure by the distance geometry method and structure optimization (d–f) are iterated several times, and as the result, a given number of conformers is produced for each stereoisomer ("conformer loop"). In general, satisfactory results can be obtained through three to five iterations. The conformer with the lowest MMFF energy is selected for each stereoisomer and output. The user can choose to output all of

the created conformers.

Simplified Distance Geometry in Key3D We describe here the simplified distance geometry technique that has been used in generating 3D structures in Key3D. Good reviews of the standard distance geometry method have been published,^{19,20} so we will focus on our modifications.

First, a distance bounds matrix that contains the maximum and minimum possible distances (upper and lower bounds) between each atom pair in the molecule is prepared as in the standard distance geometry method. The simplified method in Key3D skips the succeeding steps of smoothing, metrization and embedding, among which the metrization step requires a particularly large computational time. Instead of the crude Cartesian coordinates generated through these standard procedures, Key3D initially places atoms at random positions in a large 3D cube, 90 Å on a side. Then, minimization of an error function, which corresponds to the final step of the standard distance geometry, is performed. The error function is as follows:

$$E = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^N \left[\max \left[0, \left(\frac{d_{ij}^2}{u_{ij}^2} - 1 \right)^2 \right] + \max \left[0, \left(\frac{2l_{ij}^2}{l_{ij}^2 + d_{ij}^2} - 1 \right)^2 \right] \right] + c \sum_{k=0}^{N_{\text{chiral}}} (V_k - V_k^*)^2 \quad (1)$$

where N is the number of atoms, d_{ij} is the distance between atoms i and j , u_{ij} and l_{ij} are the upper and lower bounds, N_{chiral} is the number of chiral constraints, V_k is the chiral volume for a given chiral constraint k , and V_k^* is the desired value on that chiral volume. This error function is commonly used in the standard distance geometry calculation. The first term is for distance errors, and the second term corresponds to chiral errors. The coefficient c for the chiral term has been introduced so that Key3D calculation reaches more desirable structures in terms of both accuracy of bond lengths and angles and correctness of stereochemistry and planarity. The value of 0.25 has been given to the coefficient c for asymmetric centers and 1.0 for planar groups.

The stereochemistry is enforced to be the desired one by means of the chiral term of the error function, and the regiochemistry can also be controlled to some degree by the distance bounds of 1,4 atom pairs (*i.e.*, atoms separated by three bonds). Nevertheless, the minimization of the error function starting from random coordinates occasionally results in a 3D structure with incorrect stereochemistry or regiochemistry. To deal with this problem, the "structure confirmation loop" has been implemented. Key3D checks the structure after the structure optimization step, and if it has undesired stereochemistry or regiochemistry, Key3D goes back to the generation of random coordinates to try to construct another structure.

Evaluation of Key3D. Test Set A dataset of X-ray structures that Sadowski *et al.*²¹ selected from the Cambridge Structural Database (CSD)²² was used to evaluate the performance of Key3D. This test set does not focus on the drug-like structures that we place emphasis on, but it contains a wide variety of small molecules with high quality structures. The binding coordinates of ligand molecules are available from the Protein Data Bank (PDB),²³ but they were not used in our evaluation study. This is because the ligand coordinates in the PDB data have lower resolution than those in the CSD, and moreover, Key3D does not aim at the reproduction of bound conformation as stated in the introduction.

The test set contains a total of 639 structures, of which compounds including elements other than H, C, N, O, Si, P, S, F, Cl, Br and I are not targets of Key3D. We therefore used 598 molecules, excluding such compounds, in this validation study. The test set includes 213 molecules with one or more asymmetric centers (up to 17 asymmetric centers).

Sadowski *et al.* have carried out detailed comparative evaluation using this dataset for various 3D model builders including CORINA and CONCORD, and the results were reported in their paper.²¹ However, their comparative study was carried out more than 10 years ago, so direct comparison of the performance between Key3D and the other methods studied in the paper is difficult.

Evaluation Tests Information only on atomic species, connectivity and stereochemistry was input to Key3D. Three cycles of conformer loop were designated in the Key3D calculation. The dielectric constant used in the MMFF structure optimization was set to 78.0.

We used the same test procedures as performed by Sadowski *et al.*,²¹ with several modifications. The conversion rate, the number of program crashes, the number of asymmetric centers of incorrect stereochemistry, and the number of double bonds of incorrect regiochemistry were checked. To check CPU time, the calculation time on our Linux machine (Intel Xeon CPU 3.06 GHz) was measured. Close contact ratio (CCR),²¹ which is the ratio be-

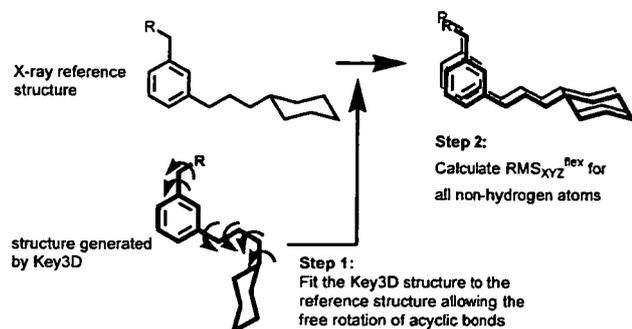


Fig. 2. Procedure of the Flexible-Fitting Test

tween the actual interatomic distance and a minimal acceptable distance, was measured as in the original procedure. The root-mean-square deviation (RMSD) for non-hydrogen atoms of the Key3D structure from the X-ray reference coordinates was calculated, as a measure of the accuracy of the created structures. We calculated RMSD for atoms included in ring systems ($\text{RMS}_{\text{XYZ}}^{\text{rings}}$), by means of the procedures described in the literature.

We also checked the occurrence rate of convergence error in single-point SCF calculation of the Key3D structure by using the MOPAC93 program,²⁴⁾ although this test was not included in the report by Sadowski *et al.* The MO calculation occasionally fails to converge even for a 3D structure that seems to have been converted without problems, due to insufficient accuracy or energetic instability of the structure. We used the occurrence rate of convergence error in the MOPAC calculation as a measure of the suitability of the generated structures for general computational chemistry. The MNDO method was used for single-point SCF calculation.

Flexible-Fitting Test In the evaluation by Sadowski *et al.*, the RMSD were calculated in terms of the entire structure (RMS_{XYZ}), the ring moieties ($\text{RMS}_{\text{XYZ}}^{\text{rings}}$), and the torsion angles along the acyclic bonds ($\text{RMS}_{\text{TA}}^{\text{chains}}$). However, many molecular design methods in current use (*e.g.*, automated flexible docking, molecular superposition) are able to take into account the rotation of acyclic bonds, so there is a decreasing need for input structures in which the conformation of the acyclic moiety coincides with that in the crystal structure. Therefore, RMS_{XYZ} and $\text{RMS}_{\text{TA}}^{\text{chains}}$ are considered to be less important, and were not included in this study. The factors that are more important for current molecular design tools are accurate geometries (bond lengths, bond angles, ring conformations), and accurate orientations of substituents in the ring systems (*i.e.*, axial or equatorial position) of the input structures. So, we have developed a procedure for calculating RMSD of all non-hydrogen atoms after fitting the generated structure to the reference crystal structure while allowing the rotation of acyclic bonds ($\text{RMS}_{\text{XYZ}}^{\text{flex}}$). This test procedure is named the flexible-fitting test. Figure 2 summarizes the method. In this procedure, the RMSD is minimized with the torsion angles along acyclic bonds of the generated structure as variables, by using the Simplex method.²⁵⁾ If $\text{RMS}_{\text{XYZ}}^{\text{flex}}$ is close to 0 Å, the geometry of the rigid portion, *i.e.*, overall bond lengths and angles, ring conformations and the orientations of ring substituents, closely coincides with that of the reference structure.

Results and Discussion

Basic Performance Table 1 summarizes the basic performance of Key3D. Key3D was able to convert all of the 598 molecules used in this study (*i.e.*, conversion rate = 100%). This test set corresponds to 93.6% of the 639 test structures in the original set. Key3D experienced no program crash during the calculations, and its robustness has been demonstrated. As for the CPU time, Key3D required an average of 0.49 s per molecule on our Linux machine (Intel Xeon CPU 3.06 GHz). Key3D is slower than the rule-based methods, but it is fast for a method based on distance geometry, which is generally time-consuming. The calculation time of Key3D is acceptable even for handling large compound libraries. No erroneous stereochemistry or regiochemistry was found in the Key3D structures.

Table 1. Performance of Key3D

Evaluation item	
Conversion rate (%)	94 (100) ^{a)}
Program crashes	0
CPU time(s) per molecule	0.49
Erroneous stereochemistry	0
CCR > 0.8 (%)	100
Convergence error in MOPAC 1SCF calculation	0

a) Conversion rate of Key3D was 100% for the structures containing only H, C, N, O, Si, P, S and halogens, whereas it was 94% for all the original test set.

Table 2. Accuracy of the Ring Structures Created by Key3D

$\text{RMS}_{\text{XYZ}}^{\text{rings}}$ (Å)	No. of structures (Percentage of the total)
< 0.3	532 (89%)
0.3–0.6	39 (7%)
0.6–0.9	18 (3%)
0.9–1.2	7 (1%)
1.2–1.5	2
> 1.5	0
Total	598

Sadowski *et al.* established a criterion for acceptable structures without intramolecular clashes, based on analysis of the CCR values of the original X-ray structures; the criterion is $\text{CCR} > 0.8$. All of the 3D structures generated by Key3D satisfied this criterion. It is a major advantage of methods based on distance geometry that few close contacts are included in the created structures, because severe clashes between atoms can be resolved during the step of minimizing the error function. Moreover, Key3D contains the further refinement step of structure optimization based on the MMFF force field so as to relieve structural distortion and intramolecular clashes that cannot be resolved only by the simplified distance geometry step.

In the single-point SCF calculation by using MOPAC93, all of the Key3D structures were successfully calculated without convergence failure. Apart from this validation study, we have rarely encountered MOPAC convergence failure for regular organic compound structures converted by Key3D. These results support the suitability of the Key3D structures for computational chemistry.

RMSD from Reference Crystal Structure Table 2 shows the distribution of the RMSD of the ring atoms ($\text{RMS}_{\text{XYZ}}^{\text{rings}}$) at intervals of 0.3 Å. This value reflects the accuracies of bond lengths, bond angles and conformations of the ring systems. In 89% of the structures, Key3D accurately reproduced the cyclic parts of crystal structures ($\text{RMSD} < 0.3$ Å), and demonstrated high accuracy.

The RMSD of ring systems in the Key3D structures were rather large in some cases. There are several possible reasons for this. First, the number of iterations for conformer loops might not be sufficient. Since only three iterations were executed in this test calculation, the conformer resembling the crystal structure may not be produced, especially in the case of highly flexible ring systems. Key3D is able to perform conformational searches in which more conformers are generated and can output all conformers. For seven molecules with $\text{RMS}_{\text{XYZ}}^{\text{rings}}$ of more than 1.0 Å (Fig. 3), we carried out

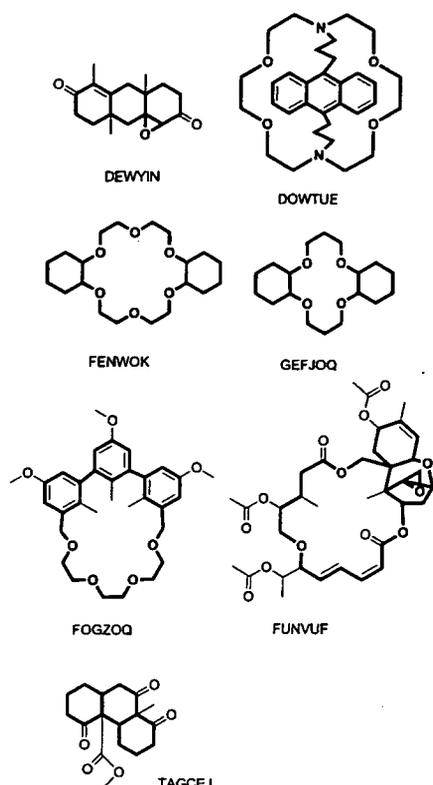


Fig. 3. Chemical Structures and CSD Refcodes of the Molecules with RMS_{XYZ}^{ring} of More Than 1.0 Å

The ring moiety in bold line was used in estimating RMS_{XYZ}^{ring} of each molecule. Stereochemical information is not shown for the sake of clarity.

the Key3D calculation setting the number of the conformer loop to 30. As is shown in Table 3, for all the molecules, a ring conformation closer to the crystal reference structure was found among the 30 generated conformers (the smallest RMSD: 0.05–0.69 Å). The effects of conformational search with increased iterations, taking the case of DEWYIN as an example, is shown in Fig. 4. The smallest-RMSD structure obtained by conformational search had a very similar ring conformation to the crystal structure (RMSD 0.13 Å; Fig. 4b), while the ring conformation generated through only three iterations of the conformer loop was significantly different from the reference one (RMSD 1.18 Å; Fig. 4a). The second possible reason for large RMSD of ring systems is that accurate estimation of the relative stability of generated conformers is still difficult. In the results of conformational search with 30 iteration loops, the ring conformations of the lowest-energy structures were totally different from those of the crystal reference structures in the cases of FENWOK and GEFJOQ (Table 3). The MMFF94 that we have adopted for energy calculation in Key3D is one of the most accurate and reliable force fields for small organic molecules. However, it should be noted that the effect of crystal packing influences the stability of the crystal structure. Since most of the MMFF parameters are based on high-level *ab initio* MO calculations in the gas phase, it may be difficult for the force field to reproduce the effects of crystal packing. We consider that the reproduction of this effect is not necessarily important for the purpose of molecular design.

Flexible-Fitting Test Figure 5 shows the results of the

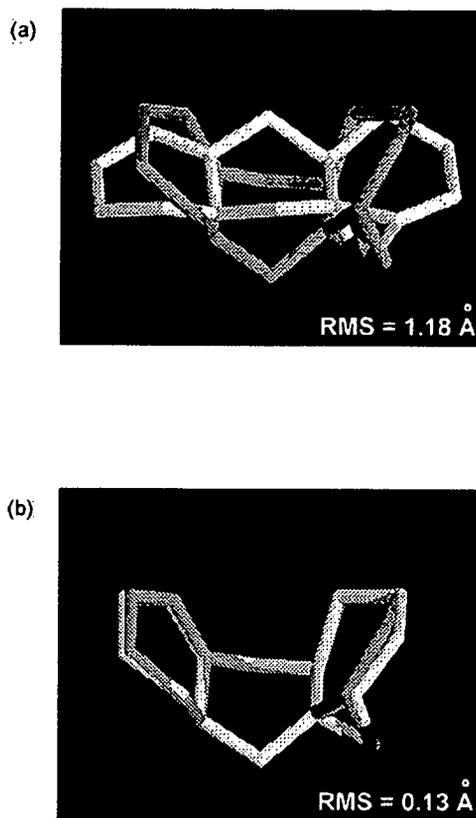


Fig. 4. Key3D Structures of DEWYIN, Obtained with Different Calculation Conditions; (a) Three Iterations of the Conformer Loop (Default Condition), (b) Conformational Search with 30 Conformer Loops

Each Key3D structure is compared with the reference crystal structure. The Key3D structure is shown in white, while the crystal structure is shown in gray. Only atoms included in the ring system are displayed for the sake of clarity.

Table 3. Effects of Conformational Search by Key3D on Accuracy of Ring Structures^{a)}

CSD refcode	The 3D structure obtained by the default conversion condition	The lowest energy structure obtained by conformational search	The smallest-RMSD structure obtained by conformational search
DEWYIN	1.18 (53.0)	0.13 (49.7)	0.13 (49.7)
DOWTUE	1.42 (134.2)	0.83 (123.4)	0.52 (125.8)
FENWOK	1.21 (56.9)	1.21 (56.9)	0.69 (68.7)
FOGZOQ	1.16 (153.4)	0.97 (152.9)	0.50 (155.8)
FUNVUF	1.11 (151.0)	0.52 (131.6)	0.52 (131.6)
GEFJOQ	1.14 (55.2)	1.36 (46.7)	0.54 (61.8)
TAGCEJ	1.02 (65.8)	0.05 (59.5)	0.05 (59.5)

^{a)} The RMSD of the ring atoms is shown in Å unit. The value in parenthesis shows the MMFF force field energy (kcal/mol).

flexible-fitting test of Key3D structures. This test evaluates how accurately the generated structures can reproduce the corresponding crystal structures when free rotations of acyclic bonds are allowed, as in flexible docking and flexible molecular superposition. As shown in Fig. 5, 76% of the total Key3D structures coincided with the reference crystal structures with RMS_{XYZ}^{flex} of less than 0.3 Å. This result demonstrates high accuracy of the Key3D structures and the suitability of Key3D for use in current molecular design procedures. In our experience, an initial ligand structure with

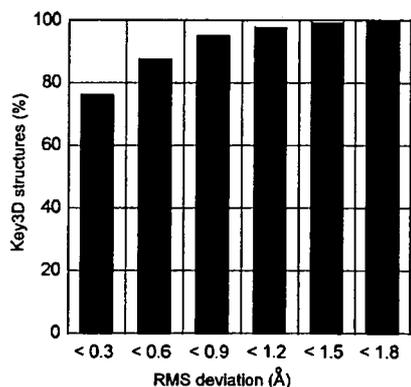


Fig. 5. Accuracy of the Key3D Structures Evaluated by the Flexible-Fitting Test

RMS_{XYZ}^{flex} of less than 0.6 Å can afford an accurate docking model (in general, $RMSD < 1.2$ Å). In this regard, 88% of the Key3D structures were of satisfactory quality. Moreover, further improvement of the accuracy is possible by increasing the number of cycles of the conformer loop. In this study, we used three cycles of the conformer loop. When we increased this to five cycles, the number of accurate Key3D structures ($RMS_{XYZ}^{flex} < 0.3$ Å) increased by 2–3%, although more CPU time was required in proportion to the number of cycles of the conformer loop (data not shown).

In cases where rather large RMSD were observed in the flexible-fitting test, the difference in ring conformation was the major factor. Large RMSD were also observed when the orientation (axial or equatorial) of ring substituent(s) was inconsistent between reference and generated structures, no matter how accurate the other factors (bond length, bond angles, ring conformation) were. More elaborate conformational search by Key3D would lead to the acquisition of more appropriate structures in almost every case, as shown by the results for RMS_{XYZ}^{rings} .

Features of the Key3D Algorithm Here, we summarize the features of Key3D algorithm, based on the results of the evaluation tests described above. Key3D adopts a distance geometry method, which is more flexible than the rule-based approach that is inevitably restricted by the number and quality of internal rules and the library size. To improve the calculation speed of the distance geometry module, we have developed a highly simplified procedure centering on minimization of the error function. In consequence, both the accuracy of the generated structures and the calculation time are satisfactory for actual use in molecular design. The minimization step of the error function also contributes to the very low rate of conversion failure (in this evaluation study, there was no failure of conversion). Moreover, Key3D has been designed to provide good reproducibility of calculations, although a stochastic factor (*i.e.*, use of random numbers) is included in the algorithm. Another method of modified distance geometry depending on the refinement of error function has been developed by Spellmyer *et al.*²⁶⁾ However, to our knowledge, their approach has not yet been validated as a practical 3D model builder. Key3D has the advantage of including all necessary functions for a practically useful and high-quality 3D builder, such as control of stereochemistry and structure optimization using a high-grade force field.

Key3D is also able to perform random conformational search. Since the conformational search by Key3D does not depend on a conformation library, which may restrict the variety of created conformers, Key3D can produce various stable conformations for any molecule. We showed above an example of the generation of a number of ring conformations. For the purpose of general 3D model building, the accuracy of Key3D structures can be improved by designating additional cycles of conformer loops. Thus, the user can easily adjust the balance between quality and speed in Key3D calculation.

Energy minimization of the intermediate structures constructed by the simplified distance geometry, on the basis of the MMFF force field, greatly contributes to the high quality of the Key3D final structures. In most 3D model builders, energy minimization is performed only roughly by using a simple force field, or no minimization is executed, because it requires significant computational time. However, we consider that elaborate structure optimization using an accurate force field is worth the cost of greater calculation time. Key3D has the advantage of directly generating reliable structures with no need for post-processing, and thus is suitable for practical use in actual drug design. For instance, when the Key3D structures were used for input structures in an evaluation test of flexible docking, high docking accuracy was achieved.¹⁸⁾ Furthermore, in our drug discovery projects based on virtual screening, far better results have been obtained by using Key3D than by using CONVERTER, which we had previously adopted.²⁷⁾

There remains some difficulty concerning the energy estimation. In our evaluation, the ring conformation in the lowest-energy structure generated by Key3D was not always consistent with that in the corresponding crystal structure. Nevertheless, ring conformers with small RMSD were found within a moderate energy range. Considering that more than one conformation may exist within the thermally accessible energy range, and that the most stable conformation may be different in the crystal, in solution, or in a protein-bound state, it is likely to be advantageous to provide several low-energy conformers as model structure candidates, for successful molecular design.

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