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In silico methods for predicting drug–drug interactions with cytochrome P-450s, transporters and beyond $\stackrel{\text{transportent}}{\sim}$

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ABSTRACT

Drug-drug interactions (DDIs) are associated with severe adverse effects that may lead to the patient requiring al-17 ternative therapeutics and could ultimately lead to drug withdrawal from the market if they are severe. To prevent 18 the occurrence of DDI in the clinic, experimental systems to evaluate drug interaction have been integrated into the 19 various stages of the drug discovery and development process. A large body of knowledge about DDI has also accu- 20 mulated through these studies and pharmacovigillence systems. Much of this work to date has focused on the drug 21 metabolizing enzymes such as cytochrome P-450s as well as drug transporters, ion channels and occasionally other 22 proteins. This combined knowledge provides a foundation for a hypothesis-driven in silico approach, using either 23 cheminformatics or physiologically based pharmacokinetics (PK) modeling methods to assess DDI potential. Here 24 we review recent advances in these approaches with emphasis on hypothesis-driven mechanistic models for im- 25 portant protein targets involved in PK-based DDI. Recent efforts with other informatics approaches to detect DDI 26 are highlighted. Besides DDI, we also briefly introduce drug interactions with other substances, such as Traditional 27 Chinese Medicines to illustrate how in silico modeling can be useful in this domain. We also summarize valuable 28 data sources and web-based tools that are available for DDI prediction. We finally explore the challenges we see 29 faced by in silico approaches for predicting DDI and propose future directions to make these computational models 30 more reliable, accurate, and publically accessible. 31

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1. Introduction

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When one drug causes changes in the pharmacological effects or 58 clinical responses of another drug co-administered for co-morbidities, 59

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60 this phenomenon is termed a drug-drug interaction (DDI). In the ma-61 jority of cases a DDI is an undesirable and yet avoidable event. Positive uses of DDIs do exist, for example so called 'boosters' which enhance 62 63 the pharmacokinetics of drugs that are extensively metabolized by P450s [1-3], also prevention of peripheral metabolism of DOPA-64 decarboxylase inhibitors by co-administration of L-DOPA [4]. However 65 we (as have others in past reviews of DDI) [5-7] have focused on the 66 67 negative effects induced by DDIs in this review. DDIs frequently compli-68 cate pharmacotherapy and may lead to adverse outcomes in patients. 69 Several groups have reported on estimates that DDI accounts for more 70 than 30% of all drug adverse reactions [8–10]. Furthermore, a recent study on drugs withdrawn from the market showed that DDIs are one 71of the leading contributing causes to drug failure [11]. Along with an in-7273 creasing frequency of polypharmacy we are currently experiencing [12], these factors make DDIs a developing risk to public health. Even the in-74 creasing use of therapeutic proteins (TP) requires assessment of TP-DDI 75 [13]. There are mainly two types of DDI of concern namely, pharmaco-76 kinetic (PK) or pharmacodynamics (PD). PD-based DDI occurs when 77 the pharmacological effects of a drug are altered (enhanced or dimin-78 ished) by the other drug due to competition at its therapeutic targets 79 or interfering with other cellular factors, such as related signaling path-80 ways. PK-based DDI refers to drug interactions that influence the dispo-81 82 sition of another drug in the body, e.g. its absorption, distribution, 83 metabolism, and elimination (ADME), causing an altered plasma concentration of the first drug that may lead to detrimental consequences 84 (such as toxicity). PK-based DDI is the major focus in this article. 85

Over the past 20 years in vitro approaches have been increasingly 86 87 used in both academia and industry to predict DDI [14,15]. A large number of studies have been conducted to identify and eliminate compounds 88 89 with DDI potential in the early stage of drug development (reviewed in 90 [14,15]). Additionally, the regulatory agencies of the United States and 91 European Union have both issued guidances to help companies evaluate 92DDI potential of a new chemical entity with known drugs [16–19]. Industry and academics have also written white papers for addressing DDI [20, 93 21]. This focus has significantly advanced our understanding of PK-based 94 DDI at the molecular level, in particular about the involvement of drug 95 96 metabolizing enzymes and transporters, resulting in a large amount of 97 experimental data. Furthermore, postmarketing surveillance systems of drugs and de-identified electronic health records of patients are now 98 more publically accessible and represent a rich and fairly reliable resource 99 to identify clinically relevant DDI [22]. These databases specifically pro-100 101 vide information about population-based responses to drug(s). Gathering the experimental and population-based information together creates an 102 103 enormous amount of knowledge on DDI on many levels, e.g. in vitro, 104 in vivo, and in populo. The knowledge pyramid of DDI (shown in Fig. 1A) indicates that the clinical relevance of DDI is improved as the 105106 data levels move upwards, however the difficulty in acquisition is dramatically increased as well. DDI may be uncovered in early drug 107 development or later on during postmarketing surveillance. Ideally the 108 earlier these DDIs are caught the better to address them. It is key to use 109multiple approaches to estimate the likelihood of DDI e.g. for just a 110 111 chemical structure using its 2D sketch to provide an input for in silico ap-112 proaches, or for synthetic compounds with little other activity data DDI can be assessed using in vitro approaches. These methods could be ex-113tended all the way to a FDA-approved drug that have been marketed 114for years but may be repurposed for a new indication, or coadministered 115116 with a new drug for which DDI is unknown.

Over the past 15 years numerous reviews by several groups [23–26] 117 have described computational modeling and how such in silico 118 methods can be used for ADME/Tox predictions. These methods have 119 played an important role in various stages of drug discovery and devel-120opment [27-36]. In silico models have been constructed to predict DDI 121 and assist in decision-making since it is not feasible to test all possible 122combinations of drug interactions experimentally. In addition some 123methods are ideally suited to working with molecules as they are de-124 125 signed. Three groups of in silico approaches have emerged as useful techniques to assess risk of interactions, and they can be applied at dif- 126 ferent points of the life cycle of a molecule to predict unfavorable DDI 127 (Fig. 1B). With an increasing knowledge of multiple mechanisms be- 128 hind DDI, mechanistic models for drug interaction potential evaluation 129 can be constructed. Hypothesis-driven in silico approaches assess DDI 130 potential of compounds or drugs through their interaction profile with 131 important proteins that participate in the DDI, such as cytochrome 132 P450 enzymes [21] and transporters (e.g. P-glycoprotein). The second 133 group of mechanistic models is built by physiologically based PK 134 (PBPK) modeling that extrapolates in vitro PK data of drugs to in vivo 135 risk of DDI. This method uses a mathematical estimation of how the 136 plasma concentration-time course of a drug is altered by another 137 drug. The increasing availability of clinical information about drug ef- 138 fects from drug spontaneous reporting systems and electronic health re- 139 cords has promoted the development of the third group of approaches 140 to the problem of DDI. This is termed 'informatics-driven' methods, 141 which make it possible to identify DDI with high clinical relevance. 142 Both PK- and PD-based DDI can be discovered through this latter ap- 143 proach. We shall briefly review the multiple computational methods 144 and their applications in detecting DDI between existing drugs and 145 novel ones. We shall also explore multiple factors that may complicate 146 in silico predictions of DDI and discuss the potential risk of drug interac- 147 tion with other substances, such as Traditional Chinese Medicines and 148 nanoparticles. 149

2. In silico modeling to predict DDI

Traditionally healthcare professionals in the US rely on the package 151 insert while in Europe the Summary of Product Characteristics (SPC) is 152 useful to alert them about the occurrence of DDIs. However the package 153 insert, SPC or electronic database containing this information clearly is 154 not an exhaustive list of all the potential DDIs. The number of possible 155 drug combinations with the several thousands of approved drugs is enor- 156 mous along with the number of DDIs. Therefore it is important to priori- 157 tize a list of potential DDIs and opt for focused testing in vitro then in vivo 158 or even clinical studies on them. Repositories of preliminary knowledge 159 about DDI are therefore available from preclinical studies, pharmacologi- 160 cal studies on drug PK, clinical trials and pharmacovigilance programs. 161 Such databases are a prerequisite for the development of in silico model- 162 ing methods. While in the past such DDI data was limited, collation of the 163 individual publications and package inserts brings us to the point where 164 some DDIs are known for most new drugs as well as many that did not 165 make it to the market. Computational methods represent techniques to 166 recognize, predict and explain DDI in a high-throughput fashion and fur- 167 ther refine testing. These approaches can also allow the design of candi- 168 date compounds with improved PK properties [37]. When closely 169 integrated with laboratory experiments, in silico modeling may represent 170 an efficient method to predict a DDI and understand the molecular basis 171 of it [38]. 172

2.1. Hypothesis-driven in silico approaches

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A number of key components of ADME processes, such as drug metabolizing enzymes and transporters, have been widely characterized 175 and modeled over the past twenty years. Many clinically relevant PKbased drug interactions have been attributed to modulation of functions 177 of these proteins including CYP3A4, P-glycoprotein (P-gp), and organic 178 anion transporting polypeptide 1B (OATP1B), etc. (Table 1). With the development of high-throughput screening, a large volume of data is now 180 aggregated about pharmacological activities of drugs against these targets and (for some) three-dimensional (3D) structural information is 182 available [39]. This provides an experimental basis for computational 183 modeling interactions between drug(s) and targets. Hypothesis-driven 184 in silico models seek to predict at the specific protein level and understand the underlying mechanisms for previously recognized DDIs. 186 Protein-specific mechanistic models can provide qualitative estimation 187

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