
Advances in the Application of Machine Learning Techniques in Drug Discovery, Design and Development

S.J. Barrett† and W.B. Langdon*

† Analysis Applications, Research and Technologies, GlaxoSmithKline R&D, Greenford Rd, Greenford, Middlesex, UB6 0HE. UK

*Computer Science, University of Essex, Colchester CO4 3SQ, UK

Abstract. Machine learning tools, in particular support vector machines (SVM), Particle Swarm Optimisation (PSO) and Genetic Programming (GP), are increasingly used in pharmaceuticals research and development. They are inherently suitable for use with 'noisy', high dimensional (many variables) data, as is commonly used in cheminformatic (i.e. In silico screening), bioinformatic (i.e. bio-marker studies, using DNA chip data) and other types of drug research studies. These aspects are demonstrated via review of their current usage and future prospects in context with drug discovery activities.

1 Introduction

Pharmaceutical discovery and development is an evolving [Ratti & Trist, 2001] cascade of extremely complex and costly research, comprising many facets [Ng, 2004] which create a vast diversity of data and sub-problems [Butte, 2002; Schrattenholtz, 2004; Watkins & German, 2002; Roses, 2002]. Drug design and optimisation increasingly uses computers [Hou and Xu, 2004; Schneider and Fechner, 2005] and more commonly against vast 'integrated' research datasets constructed from large inhomogeneous combinations of data (from disparate sources and disciplines) to answer novel lines of inquiry, and for the generation of research hypotheses.

Conventional statistical methods are currently better known and understood by Pharmaceuticals R&D scientists who benefit from the traditional statistical support toward design of experiments, data assessment, etc. However statistical groups are increasingly using other computational methods and recognising alternative approaches [Hand, 1999; Breiman, 2001], as existing (usually hypothesis testing) methods are found lacking. This is generally due to the increasing need for data exploration and hypothesis generation in the face of growing data, problem complexities, and *ad hoc* experimental design inadequacies from compromises due to cost and lack of prior knowledge. As individual techniques may only partly cope with these problems, multiple methods are often used for comparative analyses. Whilst conventional multivariate statistical methods remain of great utility, most are inherently linear lessening their suitability for a plethora of newer, more complex problems. Consequently, evaluation and early uptake of novel computational approaches continues within pharmaceuticals research, with scientists increasingly turning to recursive partitioning, Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) and other methods. Whilst ANNs and genetic algorithms are established in traditional

application areas [Jones, 1999; Solmajer and Zupan, 2004], tracking the uptake of more recent machine learning approaches is difficult due to the diversity of new applications and fragmented literature.

The newer predictive modeling approaches include Support Vector Machines (SVM) and evolutionary computing paradigms such as Genetic programming and Particle Swarm Optimisation (PSO). SVM algorithms arose [Boser *et al.*, 1992] from concepts of structural risk minimisation and statistical learning theory [Vapnik, 1995]. SVMs are commonly used for classification (SVC) and regression (SVR). They are a sophisticated synthesis of ANN-like hyperplane methodology, backed by a sound theory of learning and convergence, applying robust linear methods (and within kernel spaces for non-linear classifiers) to give excellent generalisation characteristics [Shawe-Taylor and Cristianini, 2000]. In contrast to the rigorous mathematical approach of SVMs, genetic programming [Banzhaf, *et al.*, 1998] appeals to metaphor. GP uses Darwin's natural selection to evolve a population of computer programs. The better programs are selected to be parents for the next generation. Children are created by crossover and mutation. Some are better and some are worse than their parents. Selection continually encourages better individuals to pass on their genes. Overtime and successive generations the population improves until an individual with satisfactory performance is found. Many drug discovery problems can be expressed as the problem of finding a computer program, and GP is general purpose requiring minimal assumptions and capable of solving very difficult problems. Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) was inspired by swarms of insects, shoals of fish, etc [Eberhart, Kennedy and Shi, 2001]. In PSO's the creatures are abstracted to moving particles. These fly over the problem space. If they find a good point they are randomly attracted back to it. Fundamentally PSO also have a similar social force which attracts all the particles to the best solution to the problem found by the whole swarm.

We here review the current status of pharmaceutically relevant applications of Support Vector Machines (SVMs), Genetic Programming and Particle Swarm Optimisation and assess briefly assess their future.

2 SVM Applications in Pharmaceuticals Research

2.1 SVM in Cheminformatics and Quantitative Structure-Activity Relationship (QSAR) Modelling

Cheminformatics in drug discovery has been reviewed by [Xu and Hagler, 2002]. An early task is the creation of virtual representations of molecules and assessment of their likely suitability for synthesis and viability for development for use in the body. SVC predictions of 'drug-likeness' from virtually-represented molecules are reportedly more robust than those from ANNs [Byvatov *et al.* 2004], achieving success in predicting chemists' intuitive assessments [Takaoka *et al.*, 2003]. Cheminformatics combines chemical properties and high-throughput screening measurements, in large scale QSAR. Trained SVM-QSAR classifiers now enable 'virtual screening' for discovering molecules with specific therapeutic target affinities from millions of virtual representations [Jorissen and Gilson, 2005], reducing the scale of subsequent 'physical' screening of synthesised molecules. SVC 'active learning' has been used to

reduce the number of drug-optimising synthesis-biotesting cycles [Warmuth et al., 2003]. Studying bio-active conformations of molecules aids understanding of mechanisms of action for improving specificity and selectivity and [Byvatov et al., 2005b] have used SVM methodology to study molecular pharmacophore patterns. [Chen, 2004] reports on SVM uses in the wider field of chemistry.

Predicting activity toward specific therapeutic targets. G-protein coupled receptors (GPCRs) are the major class of drug targets. [Suwa et al., 2004] provided physico-chemical features of GPCRs and their ligands to a Radial Basis Function-SVC (RBF-SVC) to predict specific G-protein couplings. [Cheng et al., 2004] used an RBF-SVC to predict antagonist compound metabolism and inhibitory activity toward human glucagon receptor to select 3D QSAR features. [Byvatov, et al., 2005] used binary SVC active learning to enrich dopamine receptor agonists, applying SVR to the enriched set to predict D2/ D3 receptor selectivity. [Takahashi et al., 2005] used multi-class SVC to predict D1 receptor agonists, antagonists and inactives. [Burbidge, 2004] applied SVM to a variety of monoamine QSAR problems, but good performance could come with non-sparsity: a large number of training points as support vectors can severely reduce prediction speed in virtual screening. [Burbidge et al., 2001a] devised an algorithm to counter this.

Predicting Absorption Distribution Metabolism Excretion Toxic (ADMET) effects. [Burbidge, et al., 2001b] favourably compared SVC to ANNs, decision trees and K-nearest-neighbour (k-NN) classifiers for predicting human blood-brain barrier penetration, human oral bioavailability and protein-binding. [Brenemann et al. 2003] applied SVM to cell permeability prediction. Bacterial P-glycoprotein (P-gp) mediated efflux of substrate antibiotics results in drug resistance. [Xue et al., 2004a] used Gaussian SVC Recursive Feature Elimination (SVC-RFE) to predict P-gp substrates, outperforming ANN and k-NN. [Xue et al., 2004b] used similar approach for predicting human intestinal absorption and serum albumin binding. [Doniger et al., 2002] demonstrated benefits of RBF-SVC over ANNs against a small dataset to predict central nervous system (Blood-Brain Barrier) permeability. [Norinder, 2003] had overfitting problems with SVR, needing simplex optimization for parameter and feature selection to achieve good predictors for BBB penetration and human intestinal absorption. [Liu et al., 2005] used Gaussian SVR for predicting human oral drug absorption.

[Yap et al., 2004] used Gaussian SVC to differentiate drugs that can cause *torsade de pointes* (TdP), an adverse drug reaction which involves multiple mechanisms. Prediction accuracy compared favourably with k-NN, ANN and C4.5. [Xue et al., 2004b] also used SVC, but with RFE to predict TdP inhibition. [Tobita, et al., 2005] used RBF-SVC to predict chemical inhibition of *HERG* potassium channel that is associated with heart arrhythmia which can trigger TdP. Non-Steroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drugs reduce inflammation by blocking cyclo-oxygenase enzymes and selective blocking of the COX-2 form reduces gastro-intestinal side effects. [Liu, et al., 2004] employed RBF SVC/SVR to discriminate between COX inhibitors.

Cytochrome p450 (CYP) enzymes are important chemical (and drug substrate) metabolisers within the body, and significant drug inhibition of these is to be avoided. Superior prediction of CYP3A4 inhibition has been reported with SVC compared to other methods [Merkwirth et al., 2004; Arimoto & Gifford, 2005]. SVM methods

have also been used to predict CYP2D6, CYP2C9 [Yap & Chen, 2005] and CYP1A2 inhibition [Kless & Eitrich, 2004].

2.2 SVM in Bioinformatics

SVM application in bioinformatics has been reviewed by [Byvatov and Schneider, 2003]. Here we present an update.

Gene Expression Micro-Array Data in the Prediction of Disease Traits. As with SNPs data, input dimensionality can be extremely large (10Ks of genes) whilst the number of examples is relatively small (typically 10s to 100s). Whilst SVMs are relatively well suited to this situation, [Malossini *et al.*, 2004] showed significant performance degradation with just a few incorrectly labelled training examples (as can occur in complex disease diagnosis). Large numbers of correlated and irrelevant genes also diminish performance, making feature selection essential. [Guyon *et al.*, 2002] invented Recursive Feature Elimination (RFE), employing SVC within a wrapper-based approach although [Ambroise and McLachan, 2002] reported gene selection bias with this. Related ‘entropic’ [Furlanello *et al.*, 2003] and Recursive Feature Replacement (RFR) [Fujarewicz and Wiench, 2003] followed outperforming earlier methods, with RFR best for smaller gene subsets [Simek *et al.*, 2004]. [Fung and Mangasarian, 2004] have achieved sparse models directly with fast linear programming SVC. SVCs are regularly used to predict cancer cases using gene expression training data [Wang *et al.*, 2005], and chemo-genomic studies (of functional relationships between genes and drugs) are also increasing [Bao and Sun, 2002; Thukral *et al.*, 2005].

Receptor Classification and Protein Function Annotation. SVM methods are now often employed to predict the functional classes of proteins from sequence data, i.e. GPCR families or nuclear receptor sub-family [Bhasin and Raghava, 2004a,b] and enzyme class [Dobson and Doig, 2005].

Gene Functional Classes and Annotation. [Brown *et al.*, 2000] first employed SVC to predict functional classes of genes, others have continued in this vein, i.e. [Vinayagam *et al.*, 2004] devised a large-scale gene annotation system exploiting the gene-ontology DAG structure using multiple SVCs for prediction correctness.

Proteomics/Protein Expression. [Jong *et al.*, 2004] Studied predictability of prostate and ovarian cancers using SELDI-TOF mass spectrometry (MS), achieving excellent performance with linear SVC. [Seike *et al.*, 2004] used SVC within a methodology to rank protein spots (in expression profiles from 2D-gel electrophoresis) in terms of their discriminatory ability for human cancers. [Prados *et al.*, 2004] found linear-SVC to out-perform k-NN, ANN and decision tree approaches in predicting ischemic and haemorrhagic stroke from SELDI-MS data applying weight interrogation to identify candidate biomarkers. [Bock and Gough, 2003] used SVC in a system generating protein-protein interaction hypotheses for constructing protein interaction networks.

Other Bioinformatics Applications. [Schneider and Fechner, 2004] have reviewed machine learning approaches (including SVMs) to protein sub-cellular localisation for target identification in drug discovery. There is a growing use of SVC prediction of functionally critical sites within proteins, i.e. sites of: phosphorylation [Kim *et al.*,

2004], ATP-binding [Guo, *et al.*, 2005], catalysis [Dubey *et al.*, 2005] and cleaving [Yang and Chou, 2004]. Specialist kernels have arisen here, i.e. for protein homology [Saigo *et al.*, 2004]) and siRNA design for 'gene-silencing' [Teramoto *et al.*, 2005].

2.3 SVM in Clinical Diagnosis and Epidemiology

Molecular Genetic Epidemiology. Single-Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs) are common individual base changes within human DNA. Millions have been identified. Unlike gene expression measures, SNPs represent unchanging patient-specific variation that may relate to an individuals' prognosis. The feasibility of using SVC methodology to predict disease using multiple SNP variations has been demonstrated for coronary heart disease [Yoon *et al.*, 2003] and breast cancer [Listgarten *et al.*, 2004]. [Barrett, 2005] used SVC to find SNPs associated with drug effect via iterative training and SNP-removal using 1-norm linear SVC weight-vector interrogation.

Epidemiology and Clinical Diagnostics. Apart from in the 'molecular-related' contexts (as above) the use of SVM in epidemiology remains in its infancy. Observing that variable interactions are often not considered in standard univariate analyses, [Fradkin, 2005] discusses the potential of SVM models to provide an alternative to the standard logistic regression method used to identify risk factors in cross-sectional studies. In the only reported study of SVM modelling of large epidemiological observational data, [Muchnik, 2001] used the SEER database, computing multiple SVC models (using variable perturbation) to identify candidate epidemiological factors influencing on breast cancer survival time.[Härdle and Moro, 2004] used SVM to achieve breast cancer survival analysis. [Zhao *et al.*, 2004] used SVC to differentiate anorexic patients. There is a much wider use of SVC in clinical diagnostics with large complex data from sophisticated equipment such as EEG (epilepsy: [Miwakeichi *et al.*, 2001]; CT (colon cancer: [Jerebko, *et al.*, 2005]), MRI (brain glioma: [Li *et al.*, 2005]) and sonography (breast cancer: [Huang & Chen, 2005]).

3 Drug Research Applications of Genetic Programming

In most Pharmaceutical applications, GP evolves predictive models. Typically these take data (i.e. number of positively charged ions, presence of aromatic rings, , etc.) and predict whether a molecule inhibits an enzyme or not. There are now at least two annual workshops on EC uses in Biology: BioGEC (2002-06) and EvoBIO (2003-06).

3.1 GP in Cheminformatics and QSAR.

GP has been used for combinatorial design [Nicolotti *et al.*, 2002], modelling drug bioavailability [Langdon *et al.*, 2002] and HERG inhibition [Bains *et al.*, 2004], whilst ensembles of ANNs have been evolved to predict p450 inhibition [Langdon *et al.*, 2002a].

3.2 GP in Bioinformatics.

Hot topics include: DNA and protein sequence alignment [Shyu *et al.*, 2004]; protein localisation [Heddad *et al.*, 2004]; using genetic algorithms etc. to infer phylogenetics

trees [Congdon and Septor, 2003]; classification and prediction [Hong and Cho, 2004]; recognising transmembrane regions of proteins [Koza and Andre, 1996]; and finding DNA promoters [Howard and Benson, 2003] and gene regulatory sites. Infra-red spectroscopy, DNA chip and Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs) [Reif et al., 2004] datasets have huge numbers of features. Often the immediate problem is to discover which of the thousands are relevant. In [Johnson et al., 2003] isolation of the relevant wave numbers using GP revealed new insights into commercial crops. GP has also been used to sift thousands of inputs in DNA chip data to discover which genes are important to a metabolic process [Langdon and Buxton, 2004; Moore et al., 2002] or to reduce the number of inputs required so a diagnostic test is practicable [Deutsch, 2003]. While GAs can achieve high multi-class accuracy [Ooi and Tan, 2003] they are also commonly combined with other classifiers, e.g. linear [Smits et al., 2005], SVM [Li et al., 2005], naive Bayes [Ando and Iba, 2004] and k-nearest neighbour. It is no wonder that GP is increasingly being used in Bioinformatics data mining [Kell, 2002]; modelling genetic interactions [Moore and Hahn, 2004] and organisms; inferring metabolic pathways [Koza et al., 2001; Tsai and Wang, 2005] and gene regulatory networks.

3.3 GP in Clinical Diagnosis and Epidemiology Research.

So far, GP is not so used, although GP has been applied to diagnosing pulmonary embolism [Biesheuvel, 2005] and atherosclerosis risk [Sebag et al., 2004].

4 Biological Applications of Particle Swarm Optimisation

Unlike GP, the current use of PSOs in pharmaceutical research is relatively unexplored. Commonly PSOs are used in hybrids with other approaches. PSOs naturally search widely, making them suited to finding good regions. Exploitive local method is then used to refine the good starting points found by PSOs into excellent solutions.

4.1 PSO in Cheminformatics and QSAR.

In QSAR a few teams have used a two stage approach. In the first stage a binary PSO is used to select a few (typically 3-7) features as inputs to supervised learning method. In [Lu et al., 2004] the BPSO selects 7 of 85 features. Then linear models of drug activity (IC₅₀) with two enzymes, COX-1 and COX-2, are constructed. (In [Lin et al., 2005] they use a PSO to divide low dimensional, e.g. 5 features, chemical spaces into pieces. A linear model is fitted to each sub-region.) To aid *in silico* design of drugs, [Lu et al., 2004] produce models which may differentiate between binding to the two enzymes by (virtual) chemicals.

[Wang et al., 2004] and [Shen et al., 2004] use feed-forward ANN to classify the Bio-activity of chemicals using a few (3-6) features selected by a BPSO. They also consider replacing the ANN by a k-nearest neighbour classifier in combination with kernel regression. While they note some differences, many approaches turn out to be equally good at predicting which chemicals will be carcinogenic. The datasets typically only cover a few (31-256) chemicals but, for each one, a large number (27-428) of features are computed from its chemical formula. One can reasonably argue that

some form of "feature selection", i.e. choosing which attributes can be used by the ANN, is essential. Even so, given the small number of chemicals involved, [Agrafiotis and Cedeno, 2002; Cedeno and Agrafiotis, 2003; Wang *et al.*, 2004] are still careful to prevent over fitting, e.g. by the use of "leave-n-out" cross-validation.

4.2 PSO in Bioinformatics.

DNA chip experiments often mean under-constrained biomarker search problems (many variables vs few examples). [Xiao *et al.*, 2003] use self organising maps (SOM) to pick clusters of similar genes from datasets with thousands. The PSO is seeded with crude SOM results to refine the clusters.

4.3 PSO in Clinical Diagnosis and Epidemiology Research.

Two and three dimensional medical images, such as X-Rays and MRI, can contain millions of data per subject. [Wachowiak *et al.*, 2004] propose a hybrid PSO to match images taken at different times and/or with different techniques (e.g. ultrasound, CT). Best results came by combining expert medical knowledge to give an initial alignment and a PSO. [Eberhart and Hu, 1999] used a PSO to train an ANN which, using wrist accelerometer data, identifies essential tremor and Parkinson's disease sufferers.

5 Discussion

Whilst the above survey clearly demonstrates a wide coverage of relevant problem areas, it remains unclear as to the underlying extent to which these approaches are actually deployed across the pharmaceuticals industry so their overall importance there is difficult to ascertain. Although becoming less sporadic, it seems that the use of machine learning is still largely driven by individuals either with their own expertise and/or external expert resources.

Machine learning has however proved its worth in many areas for fundamental reasons (for instance model transparency is a recognized benefit of evolutionary methods and SVMs are well known for their generalization). For these newer technologies to make further applications advances there is a need for ease-of-use; easier derivation of problem-specific representations; adequate ways of handling missing data; more widespread generation of reliable prediction confidence measures and attention to statistical power of datasets in model selection. Encouragingly, the machine learning research community is responding to publicised need. Deficiencies in individual methods are being countered by customizations, ensemble and hybrid approaches [Langdon *et al.*, 2003a; Runarsson and Sigurdsson, 2004; Li, *et al.*, 2005b; Howley and Madden, 2005; Igel, 2005]. These remain the domain of experts and ease of blending of techniques incorporating multi-objective and constraint-based capabilities is awaited with anticipation.

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