On a Simulation Approach to Drug Blood Brain Barrier Permeation: Neural Net Ensemble Based

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Abstract— **QSAR modeling has been heavily used in recent decades for modeling drug activity. The blood-brain barrier (BBB) presents a real challenge to the pharmaceutical industry. The BBB is a very effective screener of diverse kinds of bacterial infections. Unfortunately, this functionality prevents from many drugs to penetrate it. In order to improve drug development process an assessment model is required. Effective assessment model can drastically reduce the development time, by cutting off drugs with low success rates. It also saves considerable amount of money since clinical trials focus mainly on drugs with higher likelihood of permeation.**

This work addresses the challenge by means of artificial neural net (ANN) based assessment tool. Neural network based approach is well known in the pharmacokinetic domain. In comparison with multi-linear regression, ANNs are more flexible, robust, and better at prediction. Another addressed issue is that drug data often contains correlated or skewed information. This can then lead to the construction of poor regression models.

Embedding 'wisdom of experts' approach, the presented assessment tool is combined of a neural net ensemble, a group of trained neural nets that correspond to an input value set with a prediction of the barrier permeation. The returned output is the median of the ensemble's members output. The input set is composed of drug physicochemical properties such: Lipophilicity, Molecular Size (depends on Molecular Mass/Weight), Plasma Protein Binding, PSA – Polar Surface Area of a molecule, and V_d – Volume of Distribution, and Plasma Half Life (t ½).

Challenged with the relatively small learning data-set, leave one out (LOO) which is a special case of k-fold cross validation is conducted. Although the training effort for building ANNs is much higher, in small data-sets ANNs yield much better model fitting and prediction results than the logistic regression.

Index Terms— **BBB, Pharmacokinetics, Neural net, Brain to plasma ratio.**

I. INTRODUCTION

The blood-brain barrier (BBB) is very effective screener of diverse kinds of bacterial infections. This screening feature of the BBB presents a real challenge to the pharmaceutical industry. Unfortunately, this functionality also prevents many drugs from penetrating it. In order to improve drug development process an assessment model is required. Effective assessment model can drastically reduce development times, by cutting off drugs with low success rates [1]. It also saves considerable amounts of money since clinical trials focus mainly on drugs which are more likely to succeed on their task.

A. Pharmacology perspective

The Blood Brain Barrier (BBB) consists of a monolayer of brain micro vascular endothelial cells (BMVEC), which are joined together by tight junctions and form a cellular membrane [2][3]. BMVECs surrounded by a basement membrane, together with other components: pericytes, astrocytes and microglia, compose a neurovascular unit [3].

The BBB has a carrier function which is responsible for the transport of nutrients into the brain and removal of metabolites from it. While small lipid-soluble molecules (e.g. ethanol) diffuse passively through the BBB, other essential polar nutrients (glucose, amino acids) require some specific transporters. The BBB has also a barrier function that restricts the transport of potentially toxic substances through the BBB. This is achieved by a para-cellular barrier (tight endothelial junctions); trans-cellular barrier (endocytosis and trans-cytosis); enzymatic barrier (proteins with enzymatic activities) and efflux transporters. The specific barrier function of the BBB is important for preventing Central Nervous System (CNS) from harmful xenobiotics, but at the same time, prevents or limits the penetration of many drugs to the CNS [4].

The ability of these drugs to penetrate the BBB or be transported across the BBB is mainly dependent on their physiochemical properties and their affinity to a specific transport system [5].

B. Common Descriptors

Drug distribution into the CNS depends on the physicochemical properties of the compound, including: lipophilicity (logP), molecular weight (MW), and PK parameters such as: protein binding, volume of distribution (V_d), half-life etc. [6].

• Lipophilicity - Compound lipophilicity plays an important role in the absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion (ADME) of therapeutic drugs. Lipophilicity represents the affinity between a molecule and its lipophilic environment. It is commonly measured by its distribution

behavior in a biphasic system, either liquid-liquid (e.g., partition coefficient in 1-octanol/water) or solid liquid (retention on reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography (RPHPLC) or thin-layer chromatography (TLC) system). Lipophilicity refers to the ability of a chemical compound to dissolve in fats, oils, lipids, and non-polar solvents such as hexane or toluene. Lipophilicity is often expressed as Log P, logarithm of partition coefficient P between lipophilic organic phase (1-octanol) and polar aqueous phase. While high degree of lipid solubility favors crossing the BBB by transmembrane diffusion, it also favors uptake by the peripheral tissues, thus it can lower the amount of the drug presented to the BBB [7]. In many situations lipophilicity is a good predictor of BBB penetration [8].

• Molecular weight - The diffusion coefficient in liquids is inversely proportional to the hydrodynamic radius of the compound, and the hydrodynamic radius is approximately proportional to the square root of the molecular mass; i.e., the entry of a compound into the CSF depends on the square root of the molecular mass. Although the penetration of large hydrophilic compounds into the CSF is low, there is no absolute cutoff. Molecules as large as 1gM are present in normal CSF at approximately 1/1,000 of their serum concentration. The optimal molecular mass for passage into the brain lies in the region of 300 to 400 Da [9][10][11] [12]. The best approximation of molecular size influence on BBB penetration is that it is inversely related to the square route of a molecular weight [13].

A limited number of drugs with high lipophilicity and low molecular size can penetrate to the brain mainly by passive diffusion.

• Polar Surface Area (PSA) - PSA is defined as the sum of polar atoms surface (oxygen, nitrogen and attached hydrogen) in a molecule. PSA is a commonly used metric for the optimization of a drug's ability to permeate cells. Molecules with a polar surface area of greater than 140 angstroms perform poorly with regard to cell membranes permeation. This parameter has been shown to correlate very well with BBB penetration [14][15]. BBB permeation decreases 100-fold as the surface area of the drug is increased by 2-fold (from 52 angstroms to 105 angstroms) [9].

• Protein binding - The extent of drug distribution into tissues, including the CNS, depends on the degree of plasma protein binding (albumin, α1-acid glycoprotein, and lipoproteins). Drugs which are highly bound confined to the vascular system and as result have a relatively low **Volume of distribution**. Drugs with lower binding degree are more available for distribution to other organs and tissues, including the CNS. Only unbound drug is available for passive diffusion through the BBB and for pharmacologic effect. The penetration rate into the brain is slow for highly protein-bound drugs [16].

• Volume of distribution (V_d) - is a proportionality factor that relates to the amount of a drug to its measured concentration. The apparent volume of distribution is a theoretical volume of fluid into which the total drug administered would have to be diluted to produce the concentration in plasma. Some drugs distribute mostly into fat, others remain in extracellular fluid, while the rest are bound extensively to specific tissues. For a drug that is highly tissue-bound, very little drug remains in the circulation, thus plasma concentration is low and volume of distribution is high [17].

$$V_D = V_P + V_T \left(\frac{f_u}{f_{u_t}} \right) \tag{1}$$

Where:
V_p– Plasma volume
V_T– Apparent tissue volume
f_u– Fraction unbound in plasma
f_{ut}– Fraction unbound in tissue

• Plasma Half Life ($T_{1/2}$) - The biological half-life or elimination half-life of a substance is defined by the time it takes for a substance to lose half of its pharmacologic, physiologic, or radiologic activity. In a medical context, it is usually considered as the time it takes for the blood plasma concentration of a substance to be reduced by one half ("plasma half-life"). The relationship between the biological and plasma half-lives of a substance can be complex depending on the substance in question, due to factors including accumulation in tissues, active metabolites, and receptor interactions.

• Brain/Plasma ratio (Permeation measure) - The most common method to study brain penetration in vivo is the determination of the brain/plasma ratio in rodents. For that, the test compound is dosed and both plasma and brain are sampled. The logBB describes the ratio between brain and blood (or plasma) concentrations and provides a measure of the extent of drug permeation through the BBB

$$LogBB = \frac{AUC_{tot.brain}}{AUC_{tot.blood}} \tag{2}$$

Another in vivo measurement of CNS permeation is the log of the permeability-surface area coefficient (log PS) which is considered to be the most appropriate in vivo measurement [18][19]. However, this is a resource-intensive measure that requires microsurgical expertise. This method's advantage is by eliminating drug's serum binding. Nevertheless, by using log BB together with plasma protein binding, one can produce same or even better results.

During drug development, in vitro, ex vivo and in vivo models have been developed in order to examine the mechanisms by which different drugs penetrate the BBB.

Tissue distribution studies are commonly conducted by a traditional method using radiolabeled compounds. Brain tissue is homogenized and precipitated, and the total brain concentration of the radioactive compound is determined using liquid scintillation counting and related to its concentration in plasma.

An alternative method is quantitative microdialysis, a widely used technique that permits quantifications of drug transport to the brain. Drug concentrations measured by microdialysis are influenced by properties of the probe and perfusion solution, by the post-surgery interval in relation to surgical trauma, and tissue integrity properties [20].

All the mentioned methods for drugs permeation to the BBB are labor intensive, demand expensive compounds and equipment and use many animals. Rapid screening methods can speed up discovery and minimize the number of drug candidates for further detailed studies.

Such computational models which exist since the 1980's are based on drug's lipophilicity, hydrogen-bond potential, pKa/charge and molecular size [21][22][23][24][25]. However, in these models, other factors that can determine drug's concentration at the brain capillary surface, are not included. Factors such plasma protein binding or volume of distribution (V_d), which are present in the presented model

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Section II introduces known structured and non-structured based modeling methods in pharmacokinetics, and present the neural-net based model. In Sections III,IV,V we present data pre-processing, training, and testing results, respectively. Finally, in Section VI, we introduce the architecture for implementation, and show results.

II. MODELING TECHNIQUES

Diverse modeling techniques such multi-linear regression, clustering, Neural nets, Bayesian neural nets [26], and decision-trees [27] where introduced with regard to pharmacokinetics modeling.

A fashionable classification of BBB permeation as appear in some published papers is to classify the BBB permeation measure into two classes: "good" (CNSp+), and "bad" (CNSp-) [28]. While the measure is indeed qualitative, a finer resolution classification may provide better comparable order between candidate drugs performance.

A neural network (ANN) is a mathematical model which is based on the biological brain structure. Interconnected processing units that form a network.

A. ANN for Pharmakokinetic Modeling

Neural network based approach is well known in the pharmacokinetic domain [28]. In comparison with multi-linear regression, ANNs are more flexible, robust, and better at prediction [29]. Furthermore, multi-linear regression is more sensitive to the relationship between the number of patterns and number of variables, thus it needs to be monitored in order to avoid chance effects [30]. Another disadvantage is that drug data often contains correlated or skewed information. This can then lead to the construction of poor regression models [29].

A distinguishing feature of neural networks is that knowledge is distributed throughout the network itself rather than being explicitly written into the program. The network then learns through exposure to diverse input set with known output.
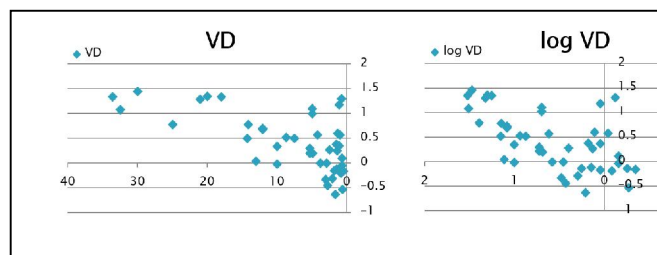

Fig. 1. Better uniformity in distribution with Log V_D

III. DATA PRE-PROCESSING

Relevant data of 47 drugs was collected from the literature. Only drugs for which all required metrics were available, were collected.

A. Consideration

Neural network training can be executed in a more efficient manner if certain preprocessing steps on the network inputs and targets are performed. Prior the network design process, the data is collected and prepared. It is generally difficult to incorporate prior knowledge into a neural network; therefore the network can only be as accurate as the data that is used for training it. After the data has been collected, there are two crucial steps to be performed before training starts: the data is uniformly distributed and then normalized.

B. Data Distribution

Some properties of the collected drugs have poor distribution. ANN prediction results tend to be more promising when the data is properly distributed. In order to improve the data distribution log operator was applied on V_d, Half Life and Brain to Plasma Ratio properties. V_d values are presented in Fig. 1. It can be concluded from Fig. 1 that input data has better distribution using a log operation with regard to V_d.

C. Normalization

Normalized data has a common base, which means that every member is evaluated for each metric with respect to other members metric in the group on a scale range of [-1,1]. ANN's perform much better on normalized data sets. The normalization step was applied on the input and the target vectors of the data set (BBB permeability).

D. Measures and precision concern

As mentioned in Section II the permeability measure should be qualitative rather than quantitative. This is due to the fuzzy nature of measurement and lack of persistence. For example, plasma to brain ratio of Clozapine (Clozaril) appears as 24 [31], or 4.1 [32], which is a large gap.

Therefore it was decided that the drugs will be divided into four permeability groups in the range 1-4 where 1 is the least permeable drug, and 4 is the most. A deviation value of 1 is acceptable, and considered a success. That means that a drug that was detected as group 3 and is actually a member of group 4, will be considered a positive detection.

IV. TRAINING

The chosen ANN topology was a feed-forward back propagation network. In such topology, each input measure is connected to an input neuron; there may be one or more hidden layer neurons, and an output neuron that provides the output measure (permeability).

A. Hidden layer size

One should take into consideration when comparing networks with relatively similar accuracy, that the smaller the network, the more general it is in terms of model. When the network size increases, it may just encapsulate the specific data set instead of the general model. In order to determine the proper hidden layer size, an initial training
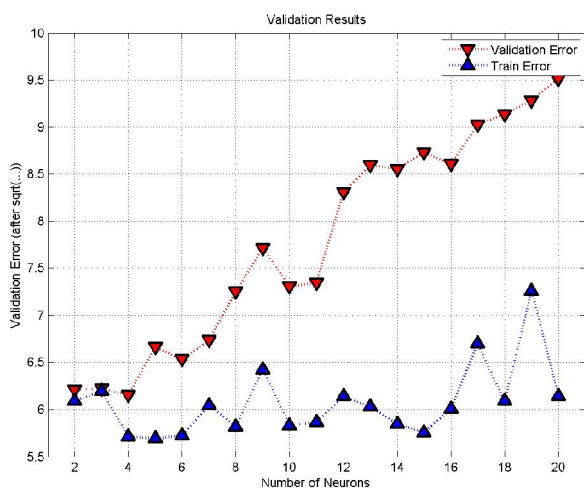

Fig. 2. Validation/training error vs. hidden layer size

phase was conducted on networks with variable hidden layer size. As reflected in Fig. 2, it infers that a hidden layer of 2 to 3 neurons provides best results. Bigger layers maybe provide better results with respect to the training error, but this result is actually misleading since it is a symptom of over-fitting. As shown in Fig. 2, beyond 3 neurons in the hidden layer, the validation error actually increases and those networks reduce generalization.

B. Early stopping

In machine learning, early stopping is a known method for improving generalization. The data is divided into training-set and validation-set.

The training set is used for computing the gradient and updating the network weights and biases. The validation set is used for monitoring. The error on the validation set is monitored during the training process. The validation error normally decreases during the initial phase of training, as does the training set error. However, when the network begins to over-fit the data, the error on the validation set typically begins to rise. When the validation error increases for a specified number of iterations, or beyond a predefined threshold −Alpha, the training is stopped. Early stopping is effectively limiting the used weights in the network and thus imposes regularization. This procedure is illustrated in Fig. 3
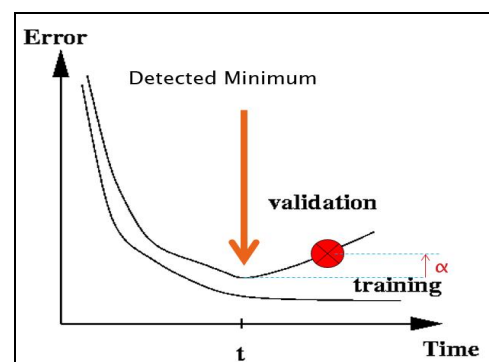

Fig. 3. Early stopping training

C. Cross validation

In small data sets leave-one-out (LOO) cross-validation is normally applied. This is a special case of k-fold cross validation [28][33]. With a very small sample size (18 bankrupt and 18 non-bankrupt firms), Fletcher and Goss employ an 18-fold cross-validation method for model selection. Although the training effort for building ANNs is much higher, ANNs yield much better model fitting and prediction results than the logistic regression [34].

D. Net tournament

During the cross validation, and for each fold, a tournament between 100 networks was conducted. Only the winner network with best results during this fold (minimal error) was retained, as illustrated in Fig. 4. The algorithm described above is illustrated in Algorithm 1.

Part 1 – Preprocessing

▪ *Distribute data.*

▪ *Normalize data.*

▪ *Predefine the quantity of neurons in hidden layer. Parameter named (n_q).*

Part 2 – Build the ensemble

1. *Randomly divide the data into training (80%) and testing (20%) sets (ts). Testing set consists of drugs that contain no extreme values (1or -1).*

2. *For every fold (drug) $f \in$ training_set, use f as the validation_set and training_set\f as learning_set (LOOCV):*

   v_g *is a validation group, which $|v_g|=1$.*

   t_g *is a training group. $t_g = $ training_set\ v_g.*

   2.1. *For j = 1 to 100*

      2.1.1. *Create NN (n_j) with n_q neurons in hidden layer.*

      2.1.2. *Train n_j using t_g according to "Early-Stop Strategy".*

      2.1.3. *Validate n_j using v_g.*

      2.1.4. *Save n_j with its error in array nj_array.*

   2.2. *Select the best NN in nj_array array – NN_x with minimal training error.*

   2.3. *Insert NN_x to ensemble (nne)*

Algorithm 1

E. ANN ensemble

Since a network training tournament is performed for each fold, the outcome is a group of winning ANN's, one for each sample. Most often one would pick the best performing network. Nevertheless, here we suggest a different approach, i.e. a neural net ensemble. A neural net ensemble is a group of ANN's that provides a single output to a given input. This output can be the average of the ensemble members output, a quorum based result, median, etc. In this work we have used the median of ensemble members output as the ensemble's output.
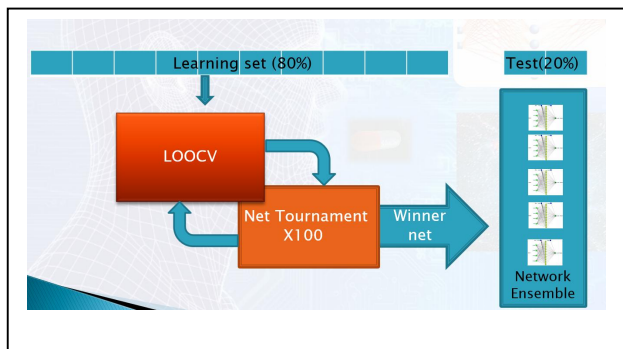

Fig. 4. Design structure of the learning phase and ensemble generation

V. TESTING

• The preprocessed data was repetitively (several hundred test cycles), and randomly divided into a Training (80%) and Testing (20%) groups

• The training set was utilized to generate the ANN ensemble.

• Drug data from the test group was presented to the ensemble, and its output was compared to the known one- in terms of permeation group membership.

• Results were grouped with accordance to the delta between the predicted and actual permeability group (see Section III.D)
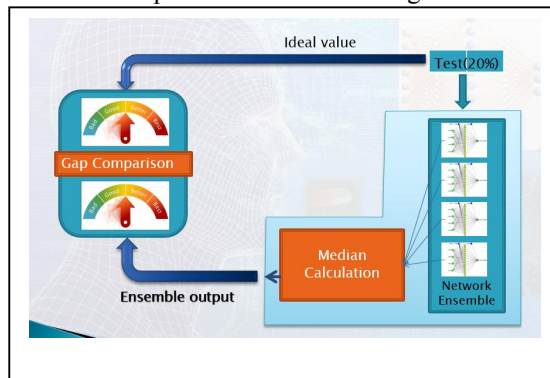
The test phase is illustrated in Fig. 5.

Fig. 5. Test phase

VI. ARCHITECTURE

The first analysis to determine the hidden layer size was conducted both on Matlab and the Encog framework.

Next phases as described in Section V, were implemented in C# using the Encog .NET package. Data was saved on a server database. The application was designed as a client/server 3-Tier architecture application:
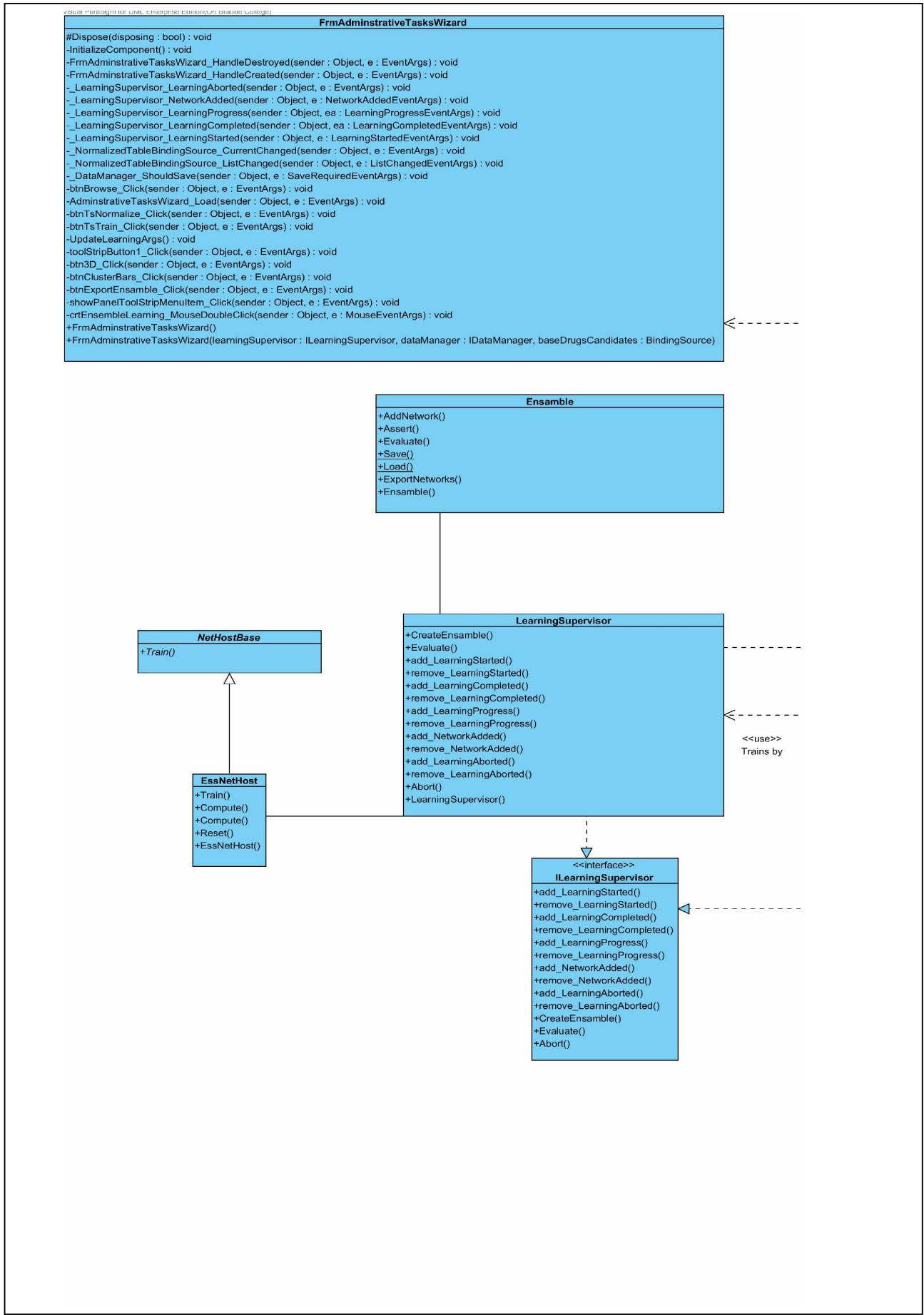
Presentation tier - This is the topmost level of the application. The presentation tier displays a user interface, which enables a convenient (a user friendly) access to the model. It communicates with other tiers by outputting results to the application tier.

Application tier (business logic) - The logic controls the application's functionality by performing detailed processing.

Data tier – A delegator to the database server. Here information is stored and retrieved. This tier keeps the data in neutral and independent form with regards to the application servers or business logic. Giving data its own tier also improves scalability and performance.

A class diagram of the stated architecture is illustrated in Fig. 6

Fig. 7 shows the experiments view, in which stored medicines are evaluated with respect to the pre-loaded ensemble. The right hand side column represents the predicted permeation quality.
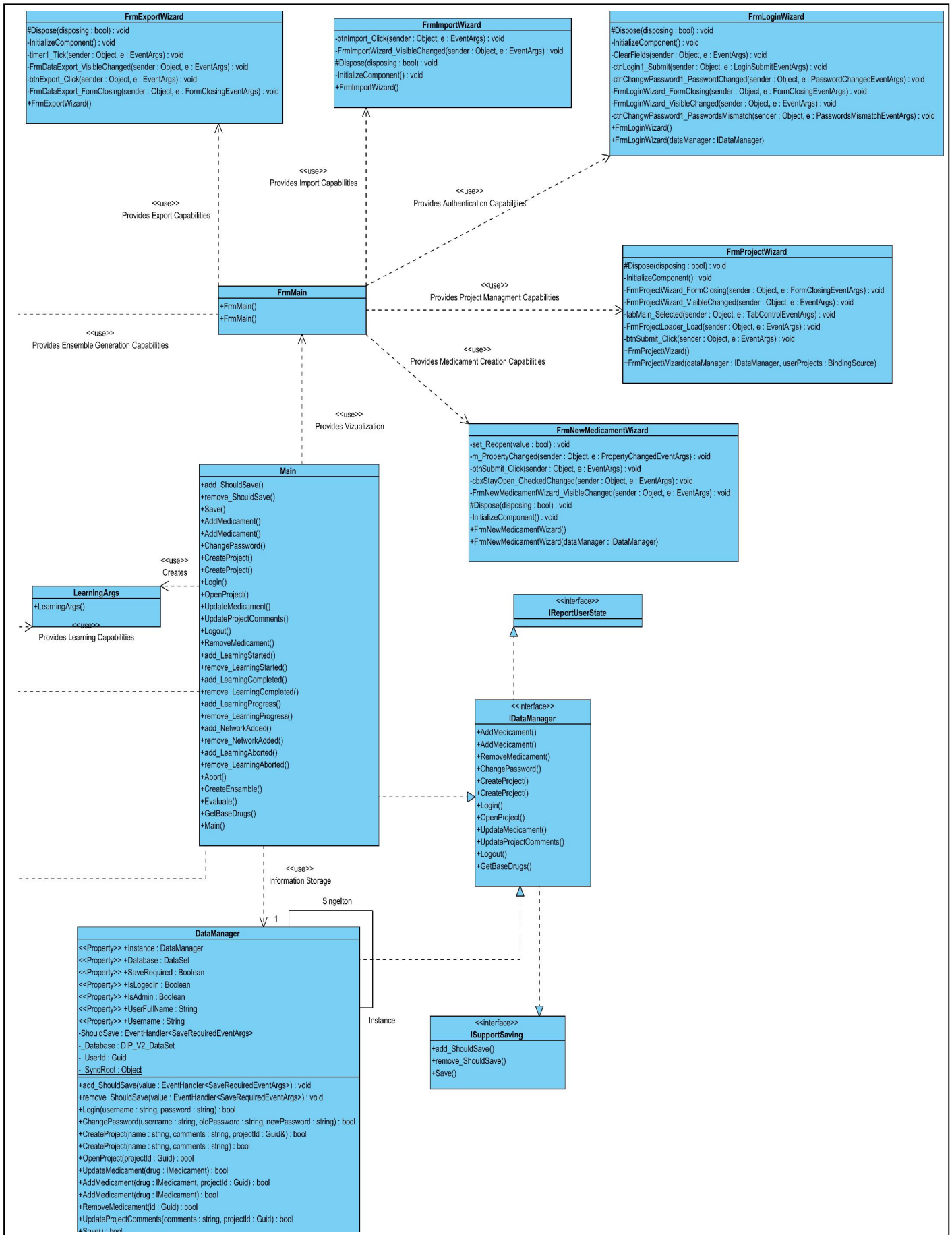
Visual Paradigm for UML Enterprise Edition(Ort Braude College)

FrmAdminstrativeTasksWizard

#Dispose(disposing : bool) : void
-InitializeComponent() : void
-FrmAdminstrativeTasksWizard_HandleDestroyed(sender : Object, e : EventArgs) : void
-FrmAdminstrativeTasksWizard_HandleCreated(sender : Object, e : EventArgs) : void
-_LearningSupervisor_LearningAborted(sender : Object, e : EventArgs) : void
-_LearningSupervisor_NetworkAdded(sender : Object, e : NetworkAddedEventArgs) : void
-_LearningSupervisor_LearningProgress(sender : Object, ea : LearningProgressEventArgs) : void
-_LearningSupervisor_LearningCompleted(sender : Object, ea : LearningCompletedEventArgs) : void
-_LearningSupervisor_LearningStarted(sender : Object, e : LearningStartedEventArgs) : void
-_NormalizedTableBindingSource_CurrentChanged(sender : Object, e : EventArgs) : void
-_NormalizedTableBindingSource_ListChanged(sender : Object, e : ListChangedEventArgs) : void
-_DataManager_ShouldSave(sender : Object, e : SaveRequiredEventArgs) : void
-btnBrowse_Click(sender : Object, e : EventArgs) : void
-AdminstrativeTasksWizard_Load(sender : Object, e : EventArgs) : void
-btnTsNormalize_Click(sender : Object, e : EventArgs) : void
-btnTsTrain_Click(sender : Object, e : EventArgs) : void
-UpdateLearningArgs() : void
-toolStripButton1_Click(sender : Object, e : EventArgs) : void
-btn3D_Click(sender : Object, e : EventArgs) : void
-btnClusterBars_Click(sender : Object, e : EventArgs) : void
-btnExportEnsamble_Click(sender : Object, e : EventArgs) : void
-showPanelToolStripMenuItem_Click(sender : Object, e : EventArgs) : void
-crtEnsembleLearning_MouseDoubleClick(sender : Object, e : MouseEventArgs) : void
+FrmAdminstrativeTasksWizard()
+FrmAdminstrativeTasksWizard(learningSupervisor : ILearningSupervisor, dataManager : IDataManager, baseDrugsCandidates : BindingSource)

Ensamble

+AddNetwork()
+Assert()
+Evaluate()
+Save()
+Load()
+ExportNetworks()
+Ensamble()

NetHostBase

+Train()

EssNetHost

+Train()
+Compute()
+Compute()
+Reset()
+EssNetHost()

LearningSupervisor

+CreateEnsamble()
+Evaluate()
+add_LearningStarted()
+remove_LearningStarted()
+add_LearningCompleted()
+remove_LearningCompleted()
+add_LearningProgress()
+remove_LearningProgress()
+add_NetworkAdded()
+remove_NetworkAdded()
+add_LearningAborted()
+remove_LearningAborted()
+Abort()
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+add_LearningStarted()
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+add_LearningAborted()
+remove_LearningAborted()
+CreateEnsamble()
+Evaluate()
+Abort()

Fig. 6. Modeler application Class-Diagram

Fig. 7.   Researcher experiment UI interface

An illustrative screenshot of the training phase is presented in Fig. 8. where the validation status of the current fold is shown along the ensemble overall score.

Fig. 9 provides a graphical presentation of the results. The presented results are the average of several hundred runs. In addition, diverse early stopping settings were investigated in terms of maximal number of epochs [15K-100K], and alpha [5%-20%] values. Most combinations provided a similar and satisfactory result of 89% success rate. Maximal accuracy was reached with 15K epochs limit and an Alpha of 5%.

neural-net ensemble that provides finer permeation resolution while coping with relatively smaller data sets which is extremely challenging. The benefits of this approach have been discussed in this work.

A promising avenue for a future research involves larger dataset incorporation. We also intend to extend our model with metrics such as: Hydrogen-bonding (Hydrogen bond acceptor/donor), and drug's affinity to efflux transporters such as P-glycoprotein (P-gp). Since there is a correlation between the neural net input layer size and the recommended dataset size, such an extension would also require an essential extension of the dataset size.

VII.   CONCLUSION

In this paper, we propose a new ensemble neural net based mechanism as an evaluator for drug-BBB permeation. Design time evaluator for drug development – in particular, by providing finer permeation classification, with relatively high success rates. Due to the small given data set, a leave one out cross validation technique was performed.

Our goal is to develop an approach that allows an interactive drug design that is less labor intensive, or demand expensive with respect to compounds/equipment, thus uses less animals in pre-clinical stages. This can be achieved by using such a mechanism for scoring candidates, while excluding inferior candidates, and performing the more expensive pre-clinical stages on the provided best candidates.

Our specific contribution in this work is threefold. We have incorporated plasma protein binding as an input parameter of the model; We have extended the fissionable binary classification CNSp+, CNSp- to a wider four values set; We also propose a new modeling mechanism using

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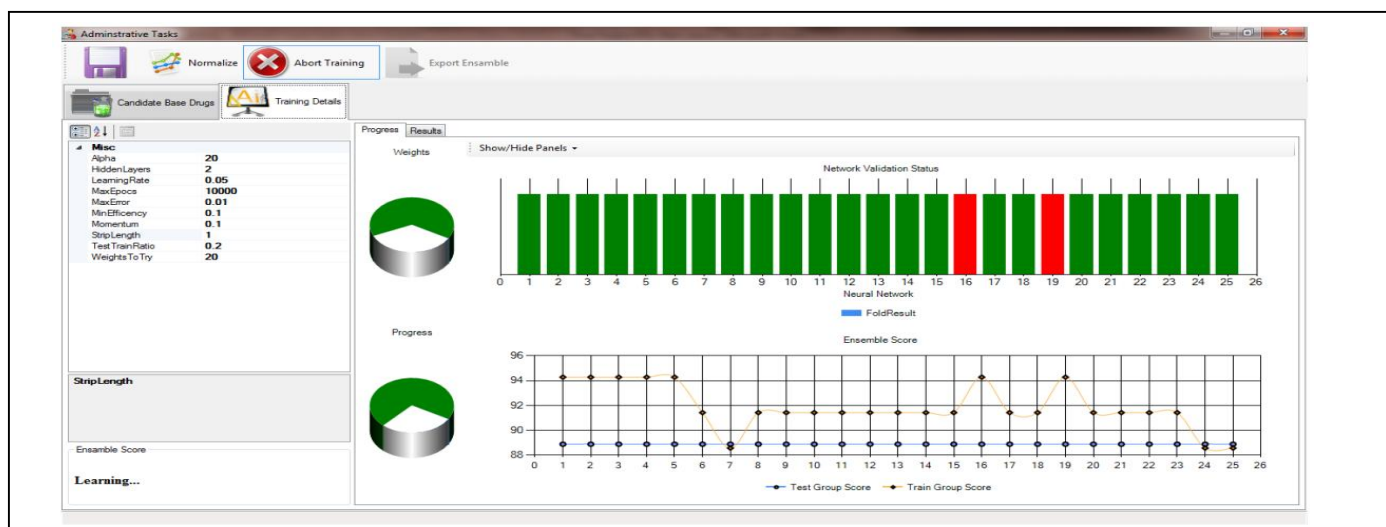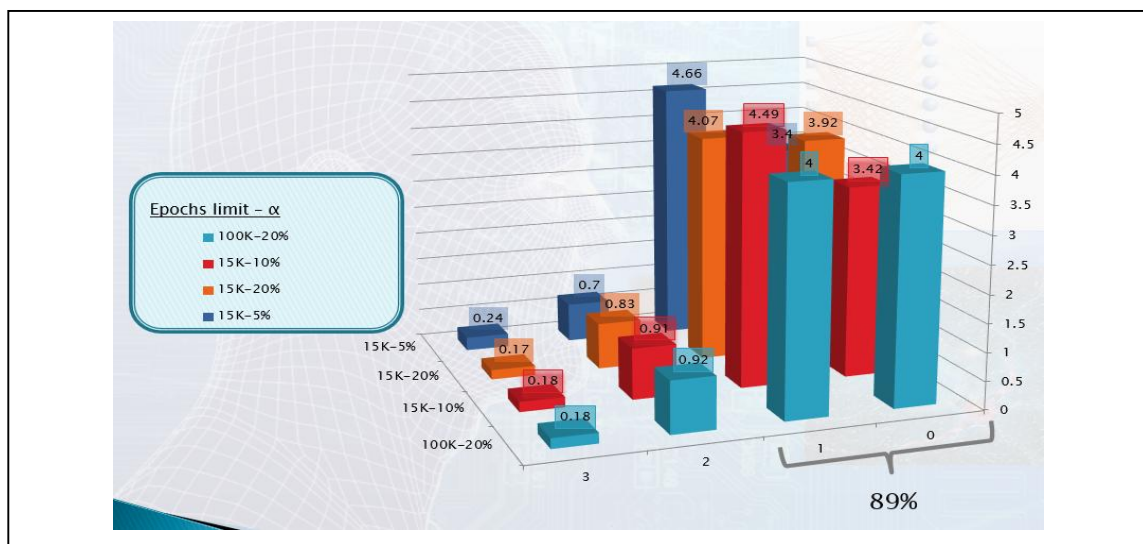
Fig. 8.   Training phase UI

Fig. 9.   Permeability group detection precision

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