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DILIsym User Training – Representing Reactive Metabolites in DILIsym

DILIsym Development Team

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Goal for This Training Session

Participants should understand the following general concepts:

- Background and DILIsym design information for reactive metabolite representation within DILIsym

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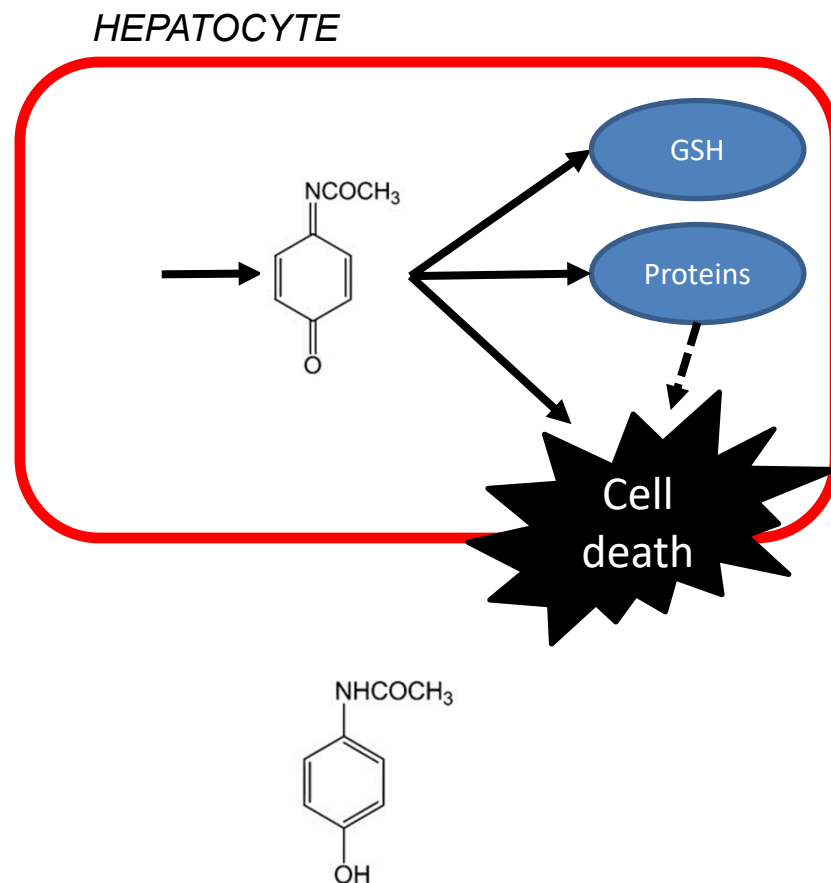
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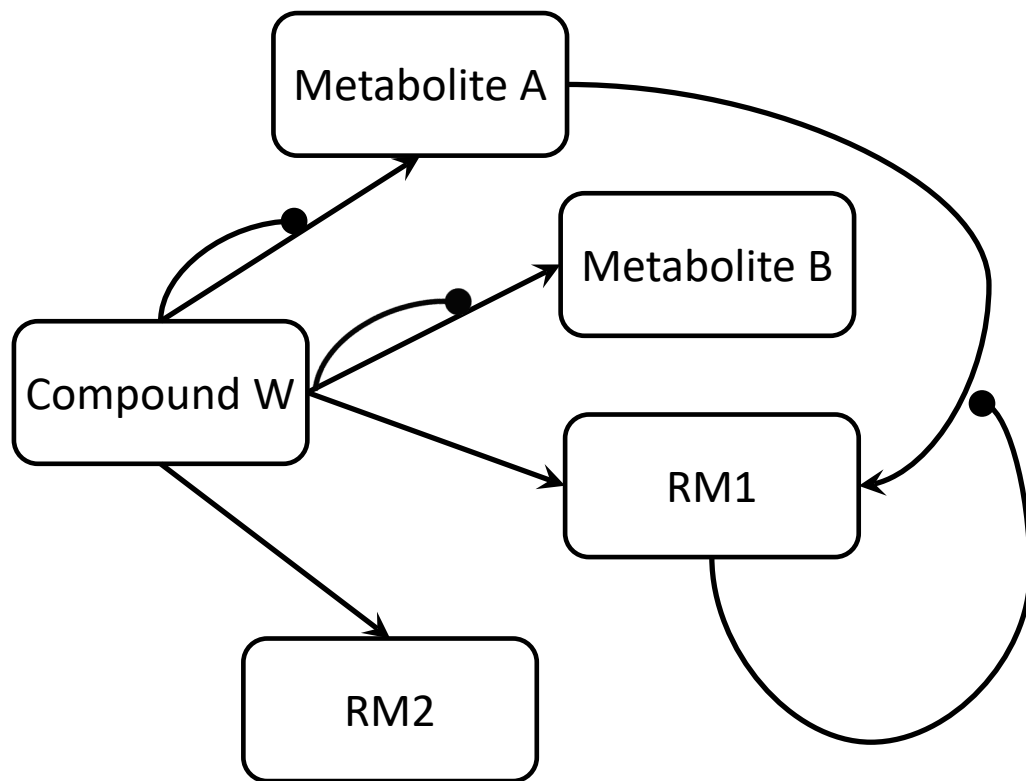
Reactive Metabolite-Mediated DILI

- Reactive metabolites (RM) are extremely labile metabolites generated in the liver that can covalently bind to cellular proteins or cellular antioxidants
- Ability to cause toxicity determined by amount of reactive metabolite generated and ability of the reactive metabolite to cause cellular stress
 - Reactive metabolites often, but not always, cause oxidative stress
 - Reactive metabolites themselves or adducts to cellular proteins can cause toxicity
- Examples of drugs that have reactive metabolites
 - Acetaminophen
 - Furosemide
 - Cocaine
 - Methapyrilene





Compound Metabolism Representation in DILIsym Includes Two Reactive Metabolites



- DILIsym metabolic scaffold involves four potential metabolic pathways
 - Two stable metabolites and two reactive metabolites
- Reactive metabolites can be generated from parent compound or from Metabolite A
- Metabolism to RM values are difficult to calculate directly
 - Usually need information on RM fate (GSH depletion, protein adducts) from microsomal data in order to properly determine RM metabolism



DILIsym Input Panel Document Provides Insight into Data Needed for RM Determination

	Inputs or Data Needed	Commonly Used Systems/Assays	DILIsym® Preferred Systems	
	Concurrent GSH depletion, parent compound disappearance (and metabolite appearance if possible), protein adduct formation,	Primary hepatocytes; immortalized cell lines transfected with cytochrome P450s or other metabolising enzymes; ¹⁴ C or ³ H label for protein adducts	Primary hepatocytes; parent compound should be measured in the cells if possible, but can be estimated if not; comparisons to immortalized cells lines (HepG2) are useful from a metabolite perspective; data from cell lines transfected with drug metabolising enzymes are useful when available	
	ATP depletion	Primary hepatocytes; immortalized cell lines transfected with cytochrome P450s or other metabolising enzymes; whole-cell ATP	Primary hepatocytes; comparisons to immortalized cells lines (HepG2) are useful from a metabolite perspective; data from cell lines transfected with drug metabolising enzymes are useful when available	
	ROS/RNS indicators	Primary hepatocytes; immortalized cell lines transfected with cytochrome P450s or other metabolising enzymes; TBARS; peroxynitrite; lipid hydroperoxide, fluorescent probes (DCFDA, DHR123);	Primary hepatocytes; comparisons to immortalized cells lines (HepG2) are useful from a metabolite perspective; data from cell lines transfected with drug metabolising enzymes are useful when available	

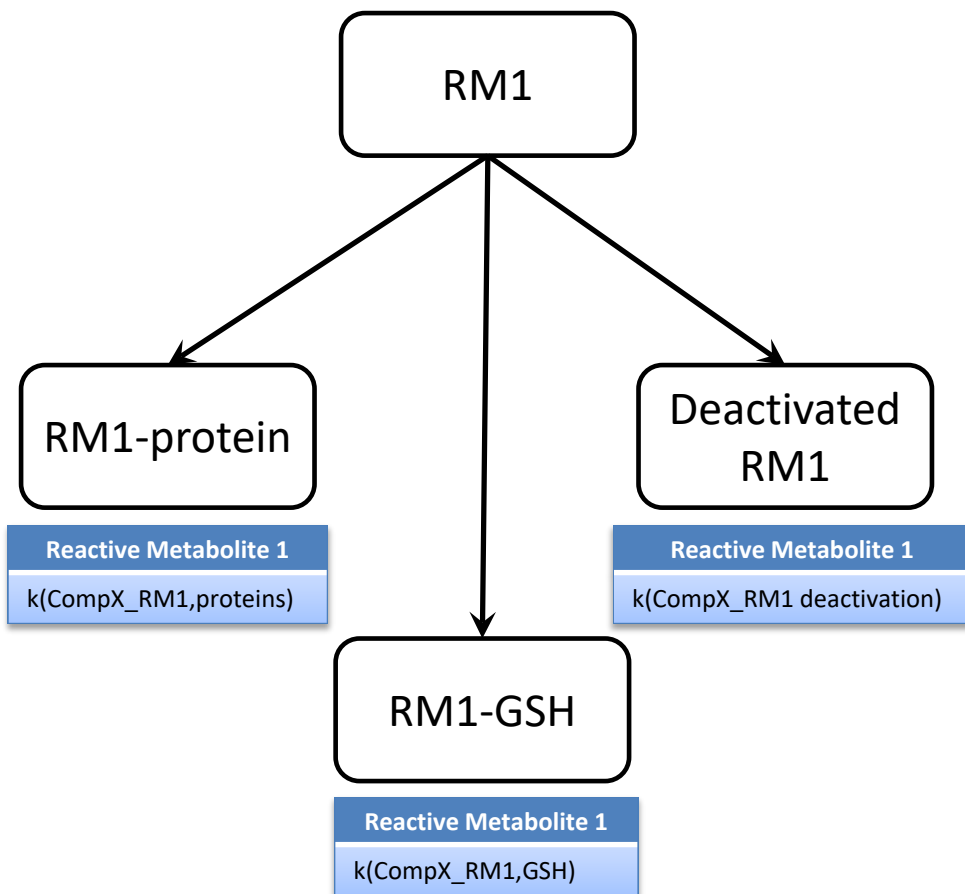
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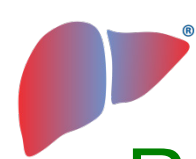
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Reactive Metabolites Can Be Cleared in Several Ways within DILIsym



- Reactive metabolites have three potential modes of clearance
 - Adduction to cellular proteins
 - Conjugation with glutathione
 - Deactivation
 - Each is represented by a first-order process relative to the RM
- *In vitro* data determine which method(s) of clearance to model
 - GSH trapping assay can determine whether GSH conjugation is occurring
 - Protein binding is generally present with reactive metabolites
 - Deactivation occurs when the reactive metabolite is an intermediate; downstream metabolites will appear in a microsomal study



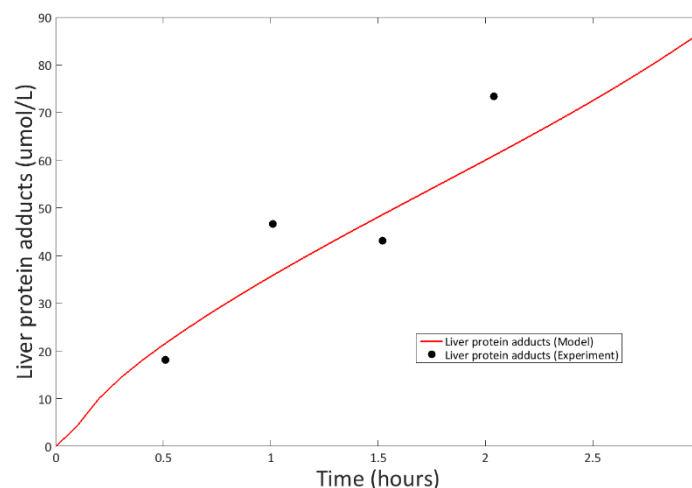
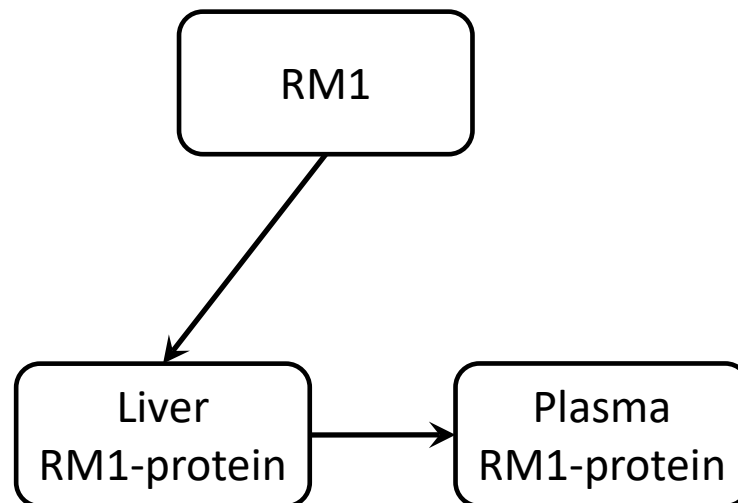
Reactive Metabolite Clearance Assumptions

- Reactive metabolites exist in the liver only
 - RM scaffold cannot be used to represent stable metabolites that require plasma tracking
 - Upon cell death, intracellular RM turns into plasma RM protein adducts
- Deactivated RM and RM-GSH are not cleared from the liver
 - Cumulative amount of each produced on a per-cell basis is calculated over the course of the simulation
 - Not released into the blood stream after cell death



Protein Adducts in DILIsym

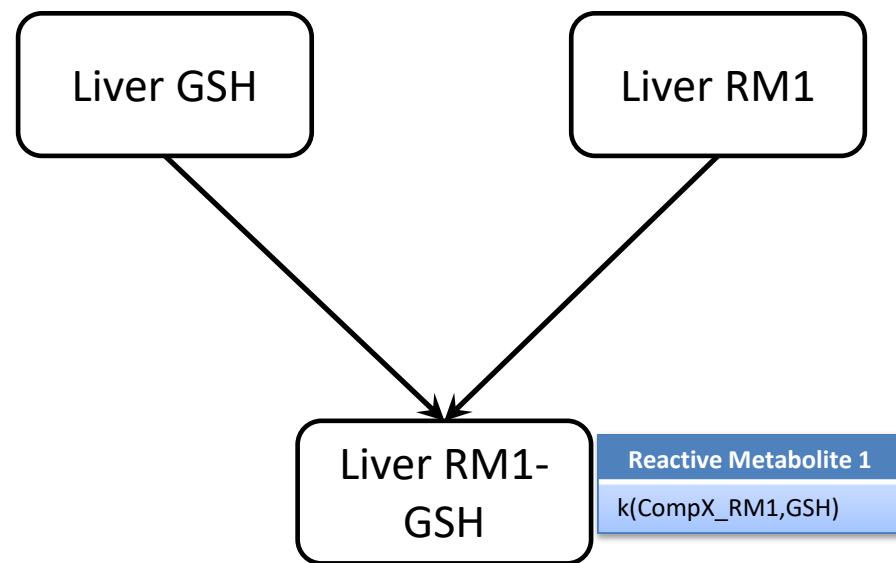
- Protein binding is a first-order process
- Protein adducts can cause toxicity
 - All DILIsym toxicity mechanisms available to protein adducts
 - Adducts do not cause ROS in current APAP model
- Protein adducts are actively transported out of the hepatocyte
 - Adducts cleared from plasma by half-life
- Adducts can serve as a biomarker for validation
 - Example: APAP adducts in rat liver validated with data from Speeg 1985





GSH Binds and Neutralizes Reactive Metabolites

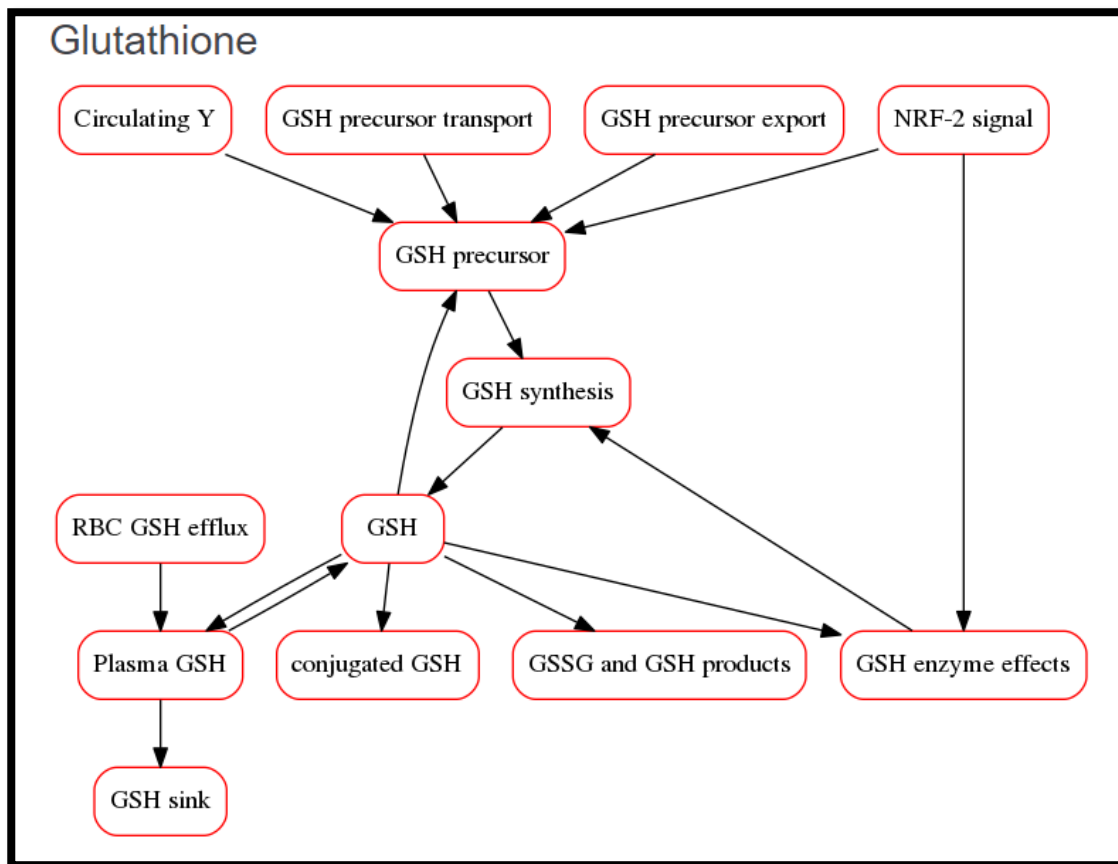
- RM-GSH reaction is second-order (first order with respect to both molecules)
 - Allows GSH depletion to occur
- RM-GSH conjugation product is **not** available to cause toxicity within the software
- Rate constant is extremely high in APAP case in order to reflect immediate reaction
 - Other RMs might not conjugate with GSH as readily
 - Rate constant can be determined by using *in vitro* GSH binding assays if expected to be in competition with other RM reactions *in vivo*





Glutathione (GSH) Sub-model in DILIsym

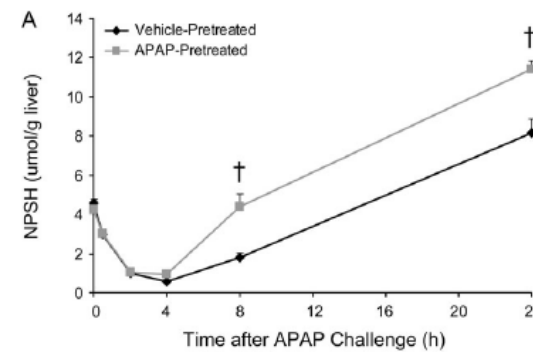
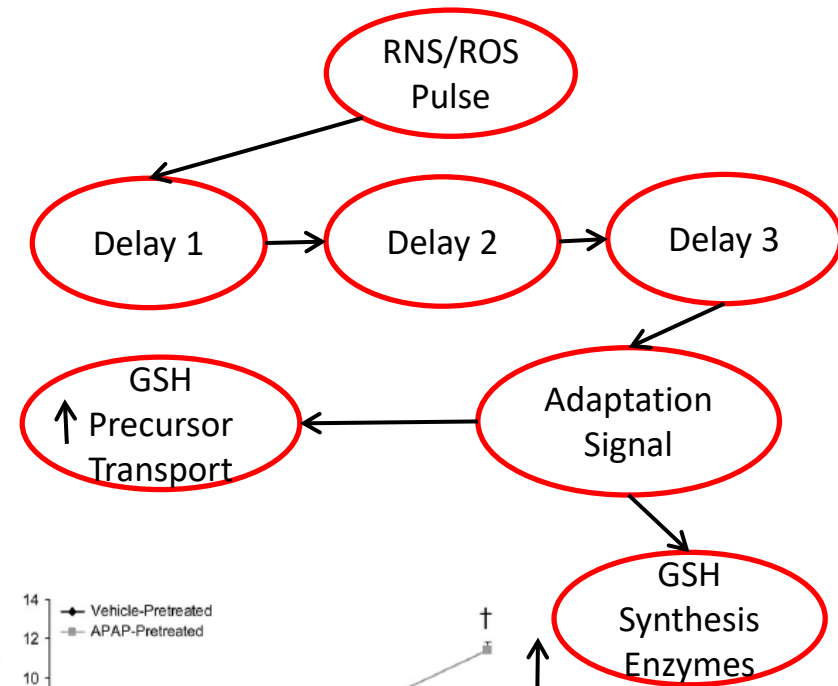
- DILIsym contains a model of GSH homeostasis and conjugation to reactive metabolites
- ***In DILIsym currently, GSH exists only for conjugation by reactive metabolites***
 - ***GSH is not affected by cellular oxidative stress from other sources***
- Baseline GSH can vary across a population
 - Important for susceptibility to RM-mediated toxicity
- N-acetylcysteine can serve as a GSH precursor, boosting GSH levels
 - Uses existing Compound Y scaffold





ROS Increase Regulates Glutathione Synthesis and Transport Via NRF-2 in DILIsym

- Glutathione synthesis is regulated by the nuclear transcription factor NRF-2
 - NRF-2 increases glutathione precursor transport and glutathione synthesis in reaction to oxidative stress
- NRF-2 activity is delayed after ROS insult
 - Effect lasts for about four days
- NRF-2 activity explains clinically/preclinically observed autoprotection from APAP toxicity
 - Non-lethal doses of APAP protect against following doses of APAP that would otherwise be lethal



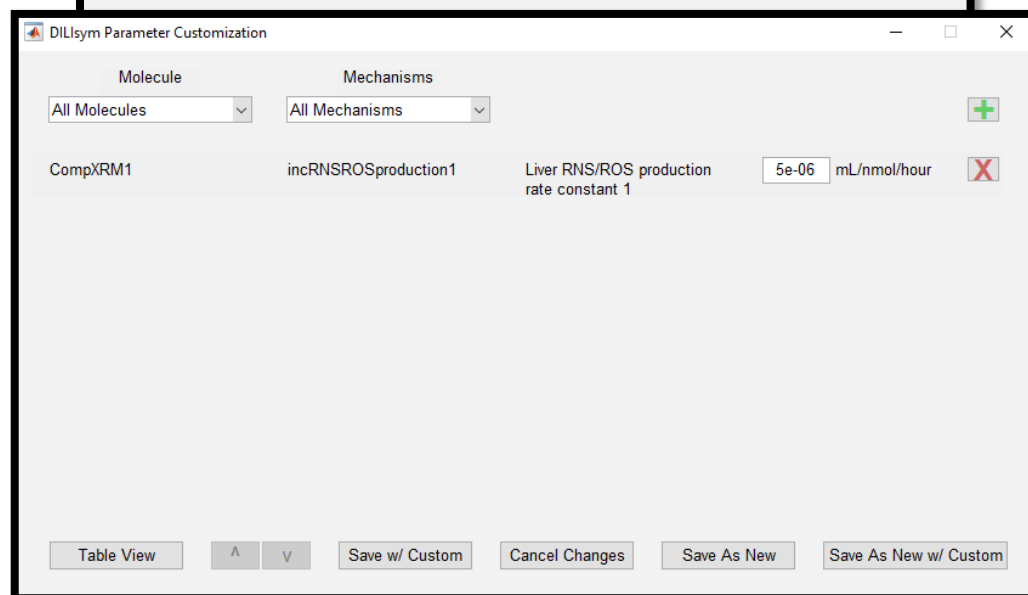
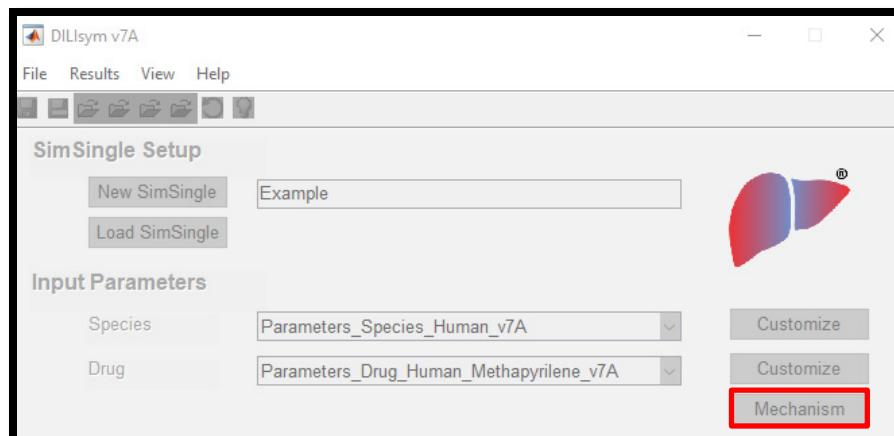
Aleksunes Tox Sci 2008

MICE



How Reactive Metabolites Can Cause Toxicity in DILIsym

- Reactive metabolites can cause toxicity either alone or as protein adducts
 - **GSH conjugates and deactivated metabolites cannot cause toxicity**
- **Reactive metabolites and protein adducts can be selected as instigators of any mechanism currently represented in DILIsym**
- Current assumption for methapyrilene (and APAP, CCl₄) is that reactive metabolites themselves cause oxidative stress
 - Governed by the parameters “Liver RNS/ROS production rate constants”
 - Molecules can be parameterized to produce oxidative stress with a linear or non-linear equation



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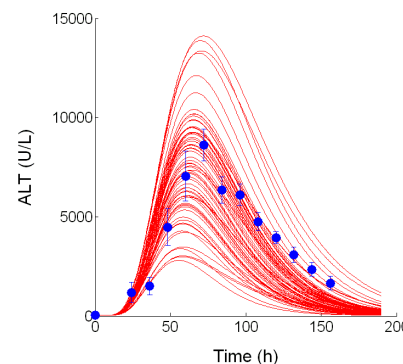
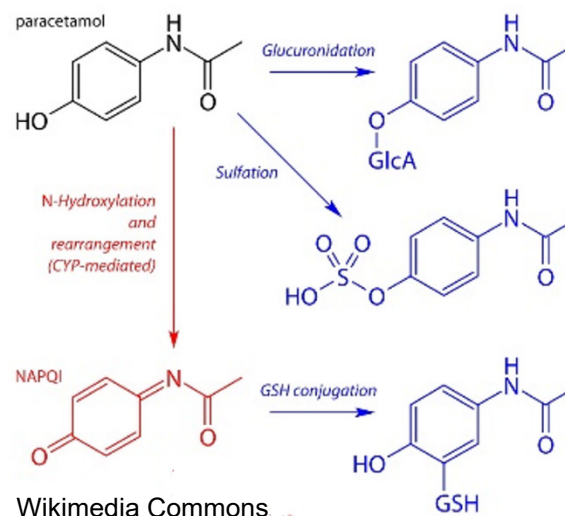
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Acetaminophen Toxicity is Represented Extensively in DILIsym

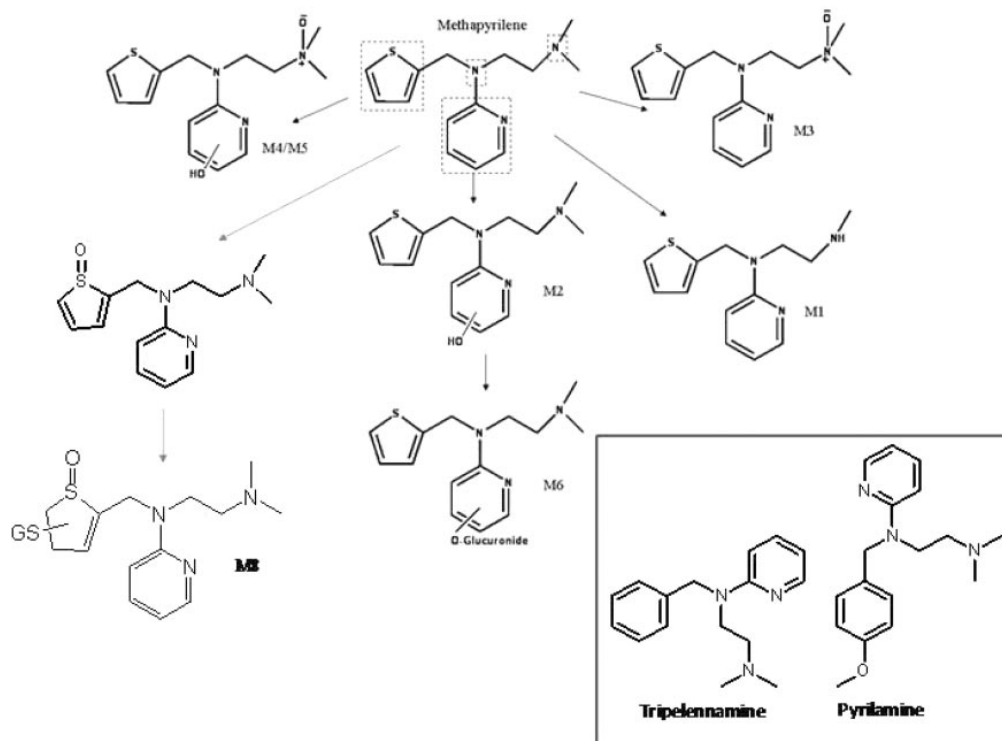
- Acetaminophen (APAP) is the drug most commonly implemented in DILI in the US and Europe
- APAP is metabolized into three metabolites, including NAPQI, which is reactive
 - Significant species differences in metabolism
- GSH quenches NAPQI easily; toxicity occurs when GSH is depleted and NAPQI can accumulate, causing oxidative stress
- Oxidative stress model in DILIsym was calibrated using APAP data in rats, mice, and humans
 - Immune response model also frequently leverages data from the APAP literature





Representing Methapyrilene Requires Combining Several Metabolites from Microsome Studies

- Graham 2008 contains microsome metabolism data used to parameterize methapyrilene metabolism parameters
 - Percentage of initial incubation of MP transformed into various metabolites was reported
- V_{\max} values are determined by calculating the values of V_{\max} that produce the appropriate percentages after the correct amount of time
 - K_m values are assumed from reported values for similar metabolism pathways
 - K_m could be calculated using microsome incubations at different concentrations; in practice, these data rarely exist
- GSH depletion dynamics similar to acetaminophen
 - Can assume same GSH binding rate constant



Graham JPET 2008

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Drug Metabolism Flux Data is Optimal for Determination of Reactive Metabolite Generate Rates

- Microsomal metabolism data is key to the determination of reactive metabolite generation rates
 - RM and its products are often not easily measured *in vivo*
 - Also key to determining GSH binding rate, protein adduction rate, etc.
 - Training sessions contain detailed steps for converting microsomal metabolism data to V_{max} and K_m for input into DILIsym
- In vivo* data can be used to eliminate certain pathways
 - Furosemide example: no GSH depletion *in vivo* means that pathway can be ignored
- Mechanistic data are still required for determining active toxicity pathways
 - ROS is usually the appropriate pathway but not always

Other (mol/mL soln)	C(calculated)	C	Covalent bind	Vmax	3.25E-08 mol/mL soln/hour
0.00E+00	2.00E-07	200	0.00E+00	Km	500 uM
6.32E-09	1.90E-07	189.744	0.00E+00	Vmax	4.92E-05 mol/hour/kg ^{0.75}
1.26E-08	1.79E-07	179.4968	1.48E-11	Km	5.00E-07 mol/mL
1.86E-08	1.70E-07	169.695	4.45E-11		
2.44E-08	1.60E-07	160.3283	8.85E-11	Vmax	2.49E-08 mol/mL soln/hour
2.98E-08	1.51E-07	151.3862	1.46E-10	Km	500 uM
3.50E-08	1.43E-07	142.8576	2.17E-10	Vmax	3.77E-05 mol/hour/kg ^{0.75}
4.00E-08	1.35E-07	134.7312	3.00E-10	Km	5.00E-07 mol/mL
4.46E-08	1.27E-07	126.9952	3.96E-10		
4.91E-08	1.20E-07	119.6376	5.02E-10		
5.33E-08	1.13E-07	112.6463	6.20E-10		
5.73E-08	1.06E-07	106.0087	7.48E-10	Vmax	1.58E-07 mol/mL soln/hour
6.11E-08	9.97E-08	99.71247	8.87E-10	Km	1000 uM
6.47E-08	9.37E-08	93.74502	1.03E-09	Vmax	2.39E-04 mol/hour/kg ^{0.75}
6.81E-08	8.81E-08	88.09378	1.19E-09	Km	1.00E-06 mol/mL
7.13E-08	8.27E-08	82.74623	1.36E-09		
7.43E-08	7.77E-08	77.68993	1.53E-09		
7.71E-08	7.29E-08	72.91256	1.71E-09	Covalent binding rate	
7.98E-08	6.84E-08	68.40196	1.90E-09	k(proteins, RM)	2.66E-02 1/hour
8.23E-08	6.41E-08	64.14618	2.09E-09	GSH adduct	
8.47E-08	6.01E-08	60.13347	2.29E-09	to protein adduct	
8.70E-08	5.64E-08	56.35238	2.50E-09	ratio at 6 hours	11.04762
8.91E-08	5.28E-08	52.79171	2.72E-09	% going to protein	9.051724
9.11E-08	4.94E-08	49.44057	2.93E-09	versus GSH	
9.29E-08	4.63E-08	46.28841	3.16E-09		
9.34E-08	4.80E-08		3.16E-09		
9.29E-08	4.63E-08		3.16E-09		
2.38E-19	2.94E-18		2.07E-47		
0.000511421			Sum of Sq	2.07E-29	



Overview of Oxidative Stress in DILIsym

- Hepatocytes are generating reactive oxygen and nitrogen species (RNS/ROS) and clearing them constantly
 - Antioxidants in liver take care of baseline oxidative stress, facilitating homeostasis
- Both reactive metabolites and stable molecules (parent or metabolite) can increase concentrations of RNS/ROS in the liver
 - Can be caused by molecules interfering with mitochondrial function or disturbing the antioxidant pool, for example
 - This disturbs the homeostasis, causing oxidative stress
- Build-up of saturated fatty acids leads to oxidative stress
- Oxidative stress can lead to apoptosis or necrosis
 - Dependent on cellular energy state



Limitations of Oxidative Stress Model

- Current oxidative stress sub-model represents antioxidant status as a first-order clearance term of RNS/ROS
 - Inter-individual variability included in SimPops
 - Explicit antioxidant activity, effect of diet, etc. not included currently
- GSH sub-model only impacts reactive metabolites via buffering (conjugation)
 - Cellular glutathione status does not act on RNS/ROS directly
 - GSH depletion cannot be caused by parent drug or non-reactive metabolites
- RNS/ROS production is independent of mitochondrial dysfunction and bile acid accumulation
 - Physiologically, mitochondrial dysfunction can lead to RNS/ROS; this is not modeled within DILIsym currently
 - For novel compounds, we take this into account by measuring both RNS/ROS production and mitochondrial dysfunction as part of the Input Panel