



# NOVEL APPROACHES IN DRUG DESIGN & DEVELOPMENT

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## ABSTRACT

An essential component of research into finding and maximizing substances for medicinal application is drug design & development. The goal of this technique is to find compounds that may selectively and effectively interact with biological targets by integrating principles from a variety of fields, such as chemistry, biology, pharmacology, and computer science. Technological developments, especially in computational biology and techniques, have completely changed the drug discovery process by making it possible to rationally design compounds with improved safety and efficacy profiles. An outline of the main phases of drug development is given in this abstract, including target validation and identification, lead optimization, and preclinical research. The significance of comprehending target structures and mechanisms is emphasized, along with the use of cutting-edge methods including virtual screening, molecular modeling, and structure-activity relationship (SAR) research. In addition, ways to deal with problems including medication resistance, pharmacokinetic variability, and toxicity evaluation are covered. Delivering safe and effective treatments that answer unmet medical needs is the ultimate goal of drug design, highlighting the multidisciplinary nature and constantly changing approaches in this dynamic discipline.

**Keywords:** Novel drug design, AI-driven discovery, Computational modeling, Targeted therapy, Machine learning, Molecular docking, QSAR, Personalized medicine, Drug repurposing, CRISPR, Pharmacogenomics.

## 1. Introduction

A drug is an external substance used for the purpose of preventing, diagnosing, or treating disease. It alters biological processes. Drugs can be made from synthetic and natural ingredients.[1] The ideal drug should be safe, non-toxic, serve a defined purpose, and have the fewest negative effects feasible. In addition, it should be able to be synthesized, stable chemically and metabolically, soluble in lipids to enable it to diffuse throughout the body and pass through lipid membranes, soluble in water at therapeutic quantities to avoid precipitation in the blood stream, and unique.[2] To achieve their effects, drugs interact with certain targets within the human body. Two distinct types of effects are produced as a result of these interactions: the effects of the drug on the human body and the effects of the body on the drug.[3] These effects are considered in pharmacodynamics and pharmacokinetics. Pharmacodynamics studies adverse medication responses, drug metabolism, and the relationship between dose and effect. Pharmacokinetics studies the entry, distribution, metabolism, and excretion of drugs from your body. ADME, which stands for absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion, is the term used to describe this process.[4]

## 2. Brief Description

The process of discovering, creating, synthesizing, and testing new drugs is known as drug design and development. Here is a quick rundown of the main procedures involved:

A. Finding a biological target (a protein, enzyme, or nucleic acid, for example) that is a part of a disease process and that a medication can alter is the first step in the process.

B. Lead discovery is the process by which scientists find or make compounds, or leads, that may interact with a target and change how it functions.

This may entail natural product screening, virtual screening with computer techniques, or high-throughput screening of sizable chemical libraries.

C. Lead Optimization to enhance a potential lead compound's efficacy, selectivity, and safety profile, additional optimization is performed on it once it has been identified. Preclinical Studies is to evaluate the pharmacological characteristics, toxicity, and potential efficacy of the improved drugs, preclinical studies employ in vitro (cell-based) and in vivo (animal) models.

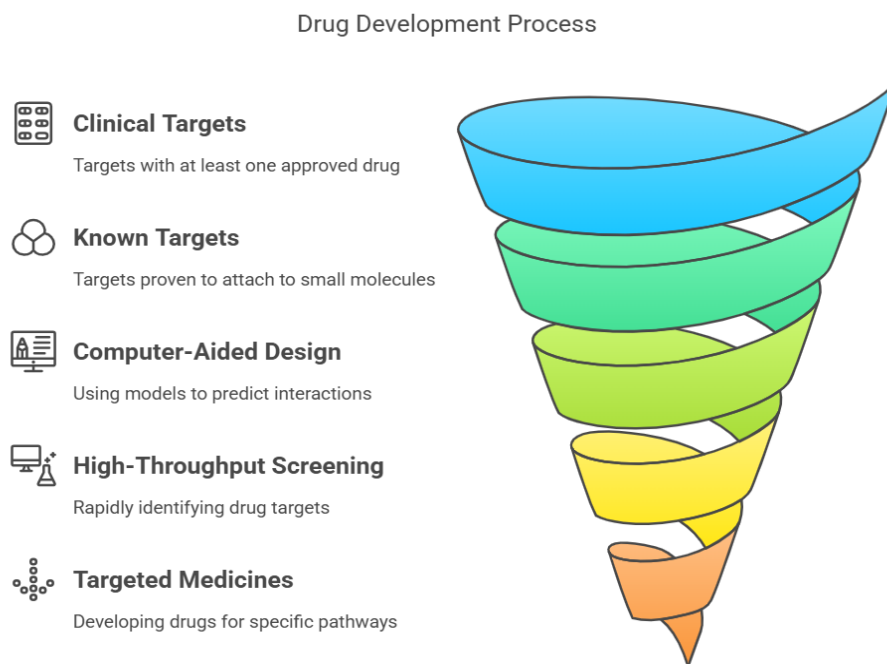
D. Clinical Trials is the following successful preclinical research, a chemical moves on to Phase I clinical trials with human volunteers and Phase II and III patient trials. These studies evaluate possible side effects, safety, dose, and effectiveness. Regulatory Approval is the following the successful conclusion of clinical trials, the drug researcher applies for permission to commercialize the medication to regulatory organizations (like the FDA in the US or the EMA in Europe).

E. Post-Marketing Surveillance is the following a drug's approval and release onto the market, further surveillance is carried out to track any uncommon or long-term side effects as well as to monitor the drug's safety and efficacy in larger populations (Phase IV trials).

## 3. History & Evolution of Drug Design

The science of drug design has achieved significant strides that have elevated it to the forefront of drug discovery both now and in the future. First among these is knowledge of drug-receptor identification. Emil Fisher likened the relationship between a medication and its receptor to that between a key and a lock in the early 1890s.[5] He believed that without altering their conformations, the medication and the receptor interact as solid bodies. Daniel Koshland recently proposed that throughout an encounter, both molecules go through conformational changes and take on the best configuration to bond with one another.[6] An internal molecule that plays a role in the illness is the target macromolecule. Modifying the functionalities of the target macromolecule may alter the pathophysiology, etiology, or only the symptoms. Approximately 3,000 of the 20,000 protein-coding genes in the human genome are thought to constitute components of the so-called druggable proteins or druggable genome. These proteins possess the capacity to bind compounds like drugs. The entire proteome was split into four groups by Oprea et al. Depending on how well we know a specific protein or how much we want to develop it, we classify targets (Figure 1). Some targets have a history in clinical settings. These are big molecules that are linked to at least one approved drug. They comprise 659 of the human proteome, or almost 3% of the total. Transporter proteins make up 25% of them, nuclear receptors make up 3%, ion channels make up 21%, gamma-protein-coupled receptors make up 16%, other kinases make up 9%, and orphan receptors and other protein families make up the remaining 22%.[7] Targets with a clinical history include macromolecules connected to a minimum of one authorized medication. They make up 659 proteins, or 3% of the human proteome. When you break it down, 25% are proteins that transport stuff, 3% are receptors in the nucleus, 21% are channels for ions, 16% are receptors coupled with G-proteins, 9% are other kinds of kinases, and the last 22% are orphan receptors and other protein families we don't know much about yet. Chemically recognized targets include proteins that have been shown to bind potently to tiny molecules—molecules that are not yet medicines. They make up 6% of the proteome in humans. Proteins that are associated with any disease but whose ability to bind to small molecules has not been

investigated are referred to be biologically known targets. The has 53% of human proteins. We can't see some proteins, so they're "dark" targets.[8]



**Figure 1.** The way we split up the human druggable proteome depends on how far along the target is in development. Targets we already know about in clinics are proteins that have at least one approved drug. Targets we know about are proteins that have been proven to attach to small molecules—these aren't drugs yet though.[9] Drug design has come a long way over time. It's changed from a process that was mostly trial and error to a complex science that combines computer stuff, genomics, and structural biology. In the past, people often found new drugs by accident or by testing natural products. But now, we know more about how molecules interact, so we can design new drugs on purpose.[10] These days, we use computer models to predict how potential compounds might interact with target molecules. This helps to make drugs work better and have fewer side effects. Also, the rise of high-throughput screening and genomics has allowed scientists to pinpoint drug targets more. This has led to the creation of targeted medicines that are specific to certain biochemical pathways or genetic problems. Despite the fact that new molecules are not created through reproduction, many molecules are first, second, or third generation products that are adaptations of previous designs. The essential component of evolution, variation, is abundant.[11]

**Basic Principles & Objectives:** - With a lengthy history, drug design is a sophisticated field of pharmaceutical research. Since Emil Fisher proposed at the close of the 1800s that the relationship between a drug and its receptor is similar to that between a key and a lock. Currently, the most sophisticated method for drug discovery is drug design. Drug design uses science and tech advances in its big toolbox of methods to reach its main goal: to make safe working focused non-toxic meds that people can handle well. It aims to find and make stuff that treats sicknesses without many side effects. Research tries to find things that work with specific parts in the body—like proteins or DNA—that play a role in causing diseases. Scientists use chemistry, tests, and computer models to make drug candidates better in terms of how they move through the body, if they're safe, and how well they work for use in clinics. So, drug design wants to make things that work with specific body parts to help people get better. It's about knowing how the target is built making stuff that fits with it, and making sure it's both safe and works well.[12]

#### 4. Molecular Targets in Drug Design

**Receptors, Enzymes and other Biological Targets:** - The ligand-binding domain of enzyme-linked receptors, which are transmembrane receptors, is located on the plasma membrane's outside. Catalytic receptors, as they are also called, comprise a wide range of pharmacological targets, including receptor tyrosine kinases (RTKs), receptor serine/threonine kinases (RSTKs), and receptor tyrosine phosphatases. Certain types of enzyme-linked receptors can be categorized based on the function of their enzyme component. One of the smallest groups is formed by the particulate guanylyl cyclases found in the natriuretic peptide receptor family. The receptor tyrosine

kinase (RTK) family is probably the most familiar, with the neurotrophin receptor family being a notable example.[13] One of the most important first steps in a signaling cascade is the activation of the receptor by autophosphorylation on intracellular tyrosine residue(s), which is catalyzed by an intrinsic receptor enzyme. The extrinsic protein tyrosine kinase receptors comprise a third category in which a different protein than the binding site possesses the catalytic activity. The GDNF and ErbB receptor families show this group. In both, a quiet heterodimer part wakes up when a ligand sticks to it. This makes the other part, which can't grab a ligand start signalling by adding phosphate to tyrosine.[14] The TGF- $\beta$  and BMP receptors are examples of the fourth type, the receptor threonine/serine kinase (RTSK) family. This family has a built-in ability to change serine/threonine proteins in its working pair. The chemical end point, or molecule that has the desired effect (agonism antagonism) on the biological target, is easy to spot in a target-based system.[15] Let's look at Gleevec as an example. It's a drug that blocks BCR-ABL kinase stopping an overactive enzyme. We find this enzyme in people who have chronic myelogenous leukemia, so we can zero in on the target pretty well in these cases.[16] At times, we might not know every natural player involved with a biological target. But if we make a synthetic drug that works on the target, it could still be useful (these are called orphan receptors).[17] Additionally, there exist combinations of biological targets (such as homodimers and heterodimers) that have the potential to become new phenotypic targets, as well as combinations of targets and accessory proteins that have the potential to form a new target. All of these concepts should be taken into account when defining a biological target that is therapeutically useful.[18]

### Target Identification and Validation-

**Target Identification:** -Finding targets plays a key role in biomedical studies. It sets the stage to discover drugs and make new ways to treat people.

### Methods of Target Identification-

#### *Gene Research:*

Genetic studies have an essential role in biomedical research as they help scientists identify targets. They provide insights into how genes link to diseases, which is key to finding better treatments. Understanding these connections creates new opportunities to combat illnesses.

#### **Genome-Wide Association Studies (GWAS):**

**Concept:** Genome-Wide Association Studies (GWAS) analyze genetic variations across the entire genome, including small changes in DNA sequences known as single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs). Researchers use GWAS to discover links between specific genetic variations and the likelihood of individuals developing certain diseases.

**Application:** GWAS helps scientists to identify potential target genes or metabolic pathways that play a role in disease development by spotting these genetic variations.

**Example:** GWAS has enabled researchers to uncover many genetic connections linked to diseases such as Alzheimer's, diabetes, and heart problems. These discoveries open up promising paths to create new treatments and deepen our knowledge of these intricate health issues.

#### **Genomic Sequencing:**

**Concept:** Genomic sequencing uses cutting-edge methods to read and study DNA. It can handle huge amounts of genetic information. This includes sequencing the whole genome (WGS) or just the parts that code for proteins (WES).

These techniques help scientists spot rare genetic changes and other differences between people.

**Application:** Genomic sequencing has a key role in finding target genes or pathways that lead to diseases. It also uncovers new genetic issues that cause various health problems. This gives insights into possible treatments and boosts our knowledge of the genetic factors behind diseases.

**Example:** Scientists have used WGS to identify changes in specific genes linked to rare genetic disorders like cystic fibrosis. This approach helps to detect mutations that can result in these uncommon conditions.[19]



### **Functional Genomics:**

In biomedical research, functional genomics is a potent technique for target identification. It aids in our comprehension of the functions, interactions, and roles that genes play in a range of biological processes and illnesses. An outline of functional genomics' relevance to target identification is provided below:

### **Editing Genes using CRISPR-Cas9:**

**Concept:** CRISPR-Cas9 is a groundbreaking tool that gives scientists the ability to make exact changes to genes. It allows them to change, turn on, or turn off specific genes in cells or animals. By changing how genes work, researchers can look into how these changes affect cell processes or disease signs.

**Application:** CRISPR-Cas9 plays a key role to find important genes involved in diseases and to explore possible targets for treatments. It helps scientists' study how genes play a part in different diseases and assess their potential as targets for therapy.

**Example:** Scientists have applied CRISPR-Cas9 to examine the role of genes like KRAS in cancer uncovering new knowledge about how these genes add to the disease.

### **High-Throughput Screening (HTS):**

**Concept:** High-throughput screening (HTS) tests many substances or genetic changes at once to find ones that affect specific biological processes. This method helps to identify potential targets that scientists could change to get therapeutic effects.

**Application:** Researchers use HTS in functional genomics to look for new targets. They check how these targets affect signalling pathways biological functions, or disease-related traits. This helps scientists find molecular targets they could change to treat diseases.

**Example:** Scientists have used HTS to find possible targets for diseases. These include infectious diseases, brain disorders, and cancer. This opens up new ways to develop treatments.[20]

### **Target Validation: -**

Finding new drugs involves a crucial step: verifying the importance of identified targets. This process ensures that the selected molecular targets impact disease mechanisms and serve as suitable treatment options. We refer to this stage as target validation, which plays a vital role in the overall drug development journey.

### **Methods of Target Validation-**

#### **Checking genes:**

When researchers alter the genetic material of organisms, we call it genetic validation. They do this to understand how changing a specific gene has an impact on observable traits such as disease progression or treatment response.

This method to check things plays a crucial role in determining if potential treatment targets have any useful effects.

### **Research on Knockout:**

**Concept:** Genetic validation through knockout studies involves removing or turning off a specific gene in an animal model, like a mouse. This technique helps scientists grasp the gene's role by observing how its absence affects visible traits such as disease progression or response to treatments.

**Application:** Knockout studies offer concrete proof about a gene's part in a disease. By triggering changes in the animal that copy disease symptoms, scientists can verify the gene's significance to develop or prevent disease.

**Example:** When researchers eliminated the BRCA1 gene in mice, the mice got breast tumors. This showed that BRCA1 has a key role to stop tumor formation.

### Studies on Knockdowns:

**Concept:** Knockdown methods such as RNA interference (RNAi) lower a gene's expression instead of removing it. This approach allows scientists to examine the gene's function by watching the effects of decreased gene activity.

**Application:** Knockdown studies allow researchers to examine the specific functions of genes in cellular processes, disease mechanisms, or responses to treatments. Scientists can observe how changes in gene activity affect biological functions by reducing gene expression.

**Example:** RNAi to knock down the TP53 gene in cancer cell lines showed its role in controlling the cell cycle and promoting cell death. This provided insights into how it functions in cancer development.

### Genetic Association Studies:

**Concept:** Genetic association studies analyze how genetic variations such as single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) relate to traits like disease susceptibility or response to treatments in large populations.

**Application:** These studies find genetic markers that show if people are more likely to get a disease or respond well to certain treatments. They help make medicine more personal by predicting individual health risks and making treatment plans better.

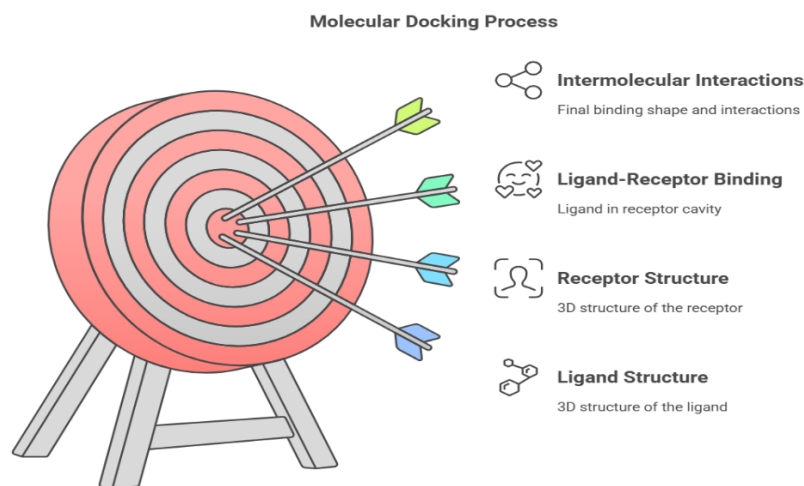
**Example:** Through genetic association studies, researchers found that specific SNPs in the APOE gene make it more likely for someone to get Alzheimer's disease. This sheds light on the genetic factors that play a role in how susceptible someone is to the disease.[21]

## 5. Computational Methods in Drug Design

### Molecular Modelling Techniques-

Molecular modeling has an influence on many advanced medicinal chemistry methods that the research-focused drug industry uses more often to study structure-activity relationships (SAR) [1].

These approaches allow scientists to examine pharmacokinetic traits (ADMET: absorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion, and toxicity) as well as pharmacodynamics data (e.g., potency, affinity, efficacy, and selectivity).[22] Progress in biomolecular spectroscopic tools, like nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) and X-ray crystallography, has led to big steps forward in molecular and structural biology, and has played a key role in the field's achievements. These methods have helped solve over 100,000 three-dimensional protein structures giving key structural insights about important macromolecular drug targets [3]. Efforts to store, organize, and explore this kind of data require more powerful and complex computer tools. From this viewpoint, the careful mix of computer-based and lab-based methods has allowed us to understand the complex features of how molecules interact with each other.[23] Because it can anticipate small-molecule ligand conformation within the proper target binding site with a high degree of accuracy, molecular docking is one of the most widely utilized techniques in SBDD (Figure 1). Molecular docking emerged as a crucial method in drug discovery when the first algorithms were developed in the 1980s. Examples of easily conducted experiments involving important molecular events include ligand binding modalities and the accompanying intermolecular interactions that stabilize the ligand-receptor complex. Moreover, molecular docking algorithms carry out quantitative predictions of binding energetics, generating docked compound rankings according to ligand-receptor complex binding affinities.[24]



**Figure 2.** Overview of the molecular docking process: A) 3D structure of the ligand; B) 3D structure of the receptor; C) The ligand within the receptor binding cavity and possible shapes upon binding; D) The most probable binding shape and the related intermolecular interactions.

The cartoon shows the protein's backbone. Stick models of the ligand (carbon in magenta) and active site residues (carbon in blue) appear. Dashed lines indicate hydrogen bonding, and a white sphere represents water.[25] It takes two processes to determine which binding conformations are most likely to occur: There are two steps in the process: the first one that investigates a vast conformational space representing several possible binding modes, and the second estimating precisely the interaction energy linked to every projected binding conformation. The molecular docking systems use a cyclical process in which particular scoring functions are used to assess the ligand conformation. That process, however, is recursively done until a minimum energy solution is reached.[26]

### Quantitative Structure-Activity Relationship (QSAR): -

Quantitative structure–activity relationships analysis is another ligand-based approach developed over 50 years ago by Hansch and Fujita and has remained up to the present moment as one of the useful methods resulting in mathematical models. It applies regression and other methods for seeking a statistically significant correlation between the chemical structure and continuous, such as pIC<sub>50</sub>, pEC<sub>50</sub>, K<sub>i</sub>, etc., or categorical/binary like active, inactive, toxic, nontoxic, etc., biological/toxicological properties categorization methods in that order — Cherkasov et al., 2014.[27] In the last few decades, innumerable changes have been witnessed in QSAR. The most prominent among them are: one, the extension of molecular descriptors from 1D to Nd; two, different methods pursued in searching for the relationship relating chemical structures to the biological event. QSAR modeling was possible at the beginning only by using small series of congeneric molecules with some very simple regression methods. In the modern age, QSAR modeling has developed, diversified, and grown to modeling and virtual screening of really huge data sets with hundreds of diverse chemical structures applied using a wide array of machine learning techniques. Such topics, reviewing the critical assessment of the benefits and weaknesses of QSAR-based VS in drug discovery, are summarized with an account of some successful QSAR-based compound discoveries that possess desired properties, best practices for QSAR-based VS, and a discussion related to the future potential of the approach.[28]

### Virtual Screening and Docking Studies: -

In drug development programs, virtual screening has been applied as a complementary tool to high throughput screening for identifying bioactive molecules. Among the new techniques, one of the most interesting to the pharmaceutical industry is computer-aided drug design, a successful and less expensive method for finding new compounds of therapeutic potential.[29] Virtual screening is defined beyond physical HTS as a collection of in silico techniques that execute in silico screening of large chemical compound libraries (that are mainly referred to as chemical databases/compound collections) for the identification of a reduced number of potential bioactive compounds, hence their prioritization for synthesis or biological assay. Two major strategies are applied to virtual screening: structure-based screening, also known as docking, based on known biological structures, and ligand-based screening, based on molecular similarity analyses using active compounds as templates.[30] Virtual

screening is aimed at reducing a large virtual chemical space of small organic molecules to a comparatively smaller number of compounds, which would have good chances of becoming therapeutic candidates for synthesis and/or testing against a particular target protein. A number of early drug lead identifications through virtual screening of compound libraries are in vogue in the drug discovery process. The screening for drug-likeness reflects the potential of the molecule to possess the required in vivo pharmacological and physicochemical features; it is also referred to as "drug-like properties." Such intrinsic qualities of molecules, relevant to studies of drug development, are known as drug-like characteristics. In this regard, the physico-chemical properties of a drug molecule and their accurate prediction assume great importance in a successful drug discovery program since they have a significant bearing on the PK of the drug, its metabolic fate, and toxicity in the body.[31]

## 6. Medicinal Chemistry: Structure-Activity Relationship (SAR)

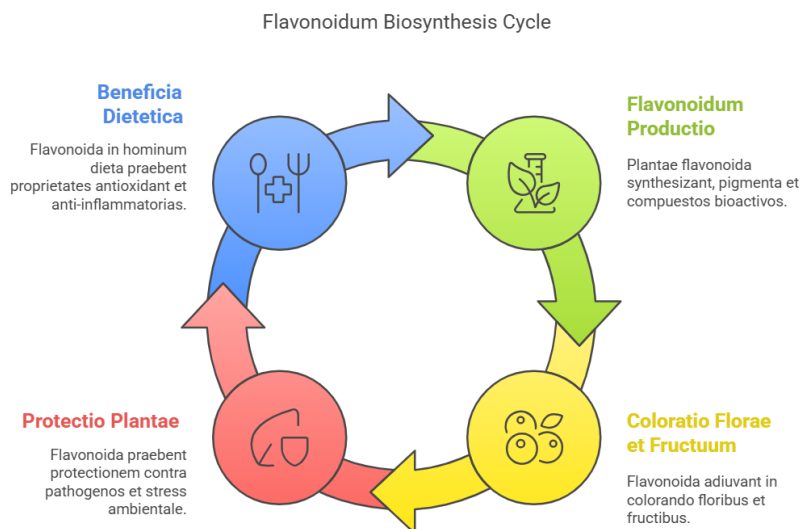
### **Chemical Structure and Biological Activity: -**

In Terms of Plant Flavonoids:

The flavonoids are also one of the secondary metabolites available in abundance in plants, fruits, and seeds. They significantly contribute to the characteristic color, taste, and smell of the said materials. Their functions in plants are quite varied, and include regulation of cell division, attracting pollinating insects, self-defense from biotic and abiotic factors, and so on.[32] For example, flavonoids of plant origin play numerous physiological roles in tolerance to drought, heat, and frost, in addition to their acting as signal molecules, UV filters, and scavengers of reactive oxygen species. It is due to their anti-inflammatory, anti-cancer, anti-aging, cardio-protective, neuroprotective, immunomodulatory, antidiabetic, antibacterial, antiparasitic, and antiviral effects that this arsenal of bioactive substances is related to health benefits in humans. However, it appears that their chemical structure, mainly the presence of hydroxy groups, is responsible for the bioavailability and thus the biological activity of flavonoids in humans.[33] The basic structural arrangement of flavonoids is C6-C3-C6, which consists of two benzene rings (A and B) connected by a three-carbon pyran ring (C). The catechol B-ring's position on the pyran C-ring and the quantity and placement of its hydroxy groups within the B-ring's catechol group both affect flavonoids' antioxidant capacity. These flavonoid functional hydroxyl groups may stabilize free radicals by resonance electron donation, so mediating antioxidant defense.[34]

**Chemical structure:** Flavonoids have about 6000 distinct structural variations and belong to the broad family of phenolic chemicals, sometimes known as polyphenols [10]. Plants make flavonoids using two distinct biosynthetic pathways: the polyketide, which yields blocks for polymeric C2 units, and the phenylpropanoid, which generates the phenylpropanoid skeleton (C6–C3). Chalcone synthase catalyzes the reaction that results in the formation of the 20-hydroxychalcone scaffold, which is also referred to as (E)-1-(2-hydroxyphenyl)-3-phenylprop-2-en-1-one (Figure 1). The reaction is initiated by p-coumaroyl CoA and malonyl CoA. After that, these scaffolds are used in a sequence of enzymatic processes to produce more flavonoids. Numerous factors, including as physical injuries, hormones (such as jasmonic acid), and environmental conditions (like light, temperature, and water availability) might affect the expression of the genes involved in flavonoid production.[35]





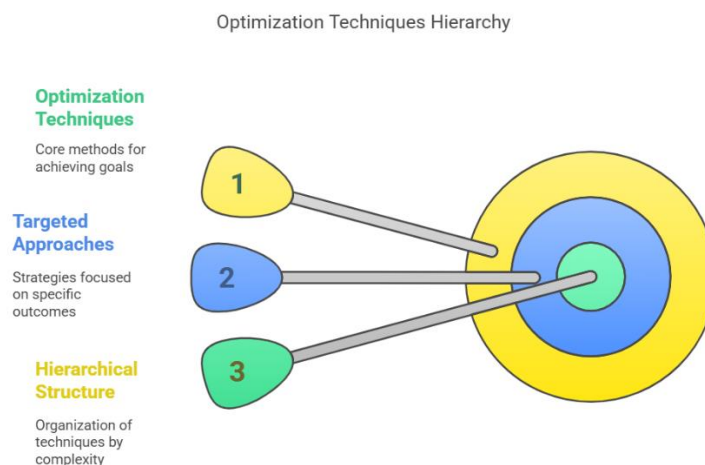
**Figure 3.** Flavonoid biosynthesis.

**Biological Activity:** Scientific studies have evidenced that flavonoids are associated with several human health benefits, and a diet rich in these constituents may prevent certain kinds of chronic diseases. Though flavonoids exhibit a variety of properties, their ability for free radical scavenging and to act as antioxidants is, without any doubt, the most important one. The nature of the functional group itself and its configuration around the nuclear structure define the capacity within the flavonoid classes as an antioxidant. The number, position, and stereochemistry of the hydroxy groups apparently modulate the free radical-scavenging ability both in the catechol B-ring and their placement on the pyran C-ring. During the process of resonance, one electron and a hydrogen atom can be donated to the radical from the functional hydroxy group of the structure to stabilize it and form a relatively stable flavonoid radical.[36] In vitro mechanisms of flavonoids' antioxidant activity: a) Direct ROS-scavenging activity; b) Inhibition of ROS formation by the chelation of trace elements—quercetin has iron-chelating and iron-stabilizing properties; c) Inhibition of enzymes producing free radicals, such as glutathione S-transferase, microsomal monooxygenase, mitochondrial succinoxidase, NADH oxidase, and xanthine oxidase; and d) Activation of antioxidant defenses—for instance, induction of antioxidant enzymes possessing radical-scavenging activity. It is also conceivable that some of these mechanisms interact in synergy, for example, radical scavenging activity combined with the inhibition of certain enzyme functions.[37]

### Optimization Strategies-

Choices, decisions, and compromises are all part of the run called life. How to manage the tension between the several goals and objectives is the real issue. Miettinen, 1999. Finding a new drug with the right pharmacological and pharmacokinetic properties is a series of goals which need to be considered, just like most real-world problems. Such desirable aims to be maximized in the quest for new therapeutic medications are optimization of drug potency, structural innovation, and pharmacokinetic profile, reduction in synthesis costs, and undesired side effects.[38] Because the safety and efficacy of novel medications must be optimized at the same time, this presents a stand-alone multiobjective optimization problem. A wide range of computational methods, such as the quantitative structure-activity relationship (QSAR), have been created to facilitate the logical design of innovative drug-like molecules. Molecular docking and affinity prediction using computer learning-based scoring systems Guedes and associates.[39] Three pharmaceuticals that found their way to commercialization include atazanavir, vaborbactam, and flurbiprofen. Computer-aided drug design took the scientific world to the identification of three pharmaceuticals that found their way to commercialization: atazanavir, vaborbactam, and flurbiprofen.[40] De novo is a Latin word that means "anew," "afresh," or "from the beginning." The objective of de novo drug design (dnDD) is to generate new molecules created from scratch with targeted properties. In this context, multiple qualities would mean multiple goals to be maximized.[41] As far as we know, this would be the very first evaluation in the context of using techniques from the ManyOO besides MultiOO approaches for the dnDD. We have

categorized the vast number of techniques applied to the "multiobjective" and "many-objective" fields into two classes only for the purposes of classification and organization: multiobjective techniques, by which we mean techniques formulating problems with two, or at most, three objectives, and many-objective approaches, as shown in Figure 2, are applied to problems with four or more objectives.[42]



**Figure 4.** In this work, classes of optimization techniques will be used where  $k$  is the number of targets. Figure generated with the Miro software.

## 7. Pharmacokinetics and Pharmacodynamics

### **Absorption, Distribution, Metabolism, Excretion (ADME): -**

Drug concentrations that eventually reach an organ or tissues are determined by biologic and physiological processes that are influenced by the drug's absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion (ADME). The ability to achieve intended therapeutic goals and prevent undesirable adverse drug responses (ADRs) is influenced by ADME characteristics. ADRs can frequently be decreased by selecting the appropriate dosage and delivery method, including with recently introduced biologic medication classes such as antisense oligonucleotide (ASO) medicines.[43]

**Absorption:** Absorption is one of the most important factors influencing pharmacokinetics and refers to a process in which the unmetabolized medication is moved from the administration site into either local or systemic circulation. Several aspects may influence the rate at which drugs are absorbed into the system. This includes first-pass metabolism and pathways for medication delivery. The two parameters alter medication bioavailability, which is the percentage expression of the medication in its bioactive form in relation to the amount of the parent drug supplied. Absorption will cause the plasma medication concentration to peak at some period. Peak plasma time is the time taken to achieve the maximum drug level in plasma, which is an indication of the absorption of the drug.[44]

**Distribution:** The term "distribution" describes how a medication travels across the body's extravascular and intravascular (blood/plasma) spaces. Drugs' distribution and absorption into tissues and organs are impacted by whether they are protein-bound or unbound (Mansoor and Mahabadi, 2021). The distribution of ASO medicines is influenced by their chemical characteristics. This covers elements including size, protein binding, lipophilicity, and acid-base properties. The biodistribution of the ten ASO medications varies greatly.[45] Among the ASO drugs, viltolarsen, golodirsen, nusinersen, eteplirsen, and fomivirsen have a fairly low potential to bind to proteins (<40%), while inotersen, nusinersen in plasma, defibrotide, and mipomersen exhibit a high potential to bind to proteins (>90%). The greater the free-form pool of the drug in circulation, the higher the tissue uptake propensity of the drug for drug action. When injected into the blood stream, the medications bypass the liver's first-pass

metabolism and are 100% bioavailable upon administration via the intrathecal or intravenous route for nusinersen, defibrotide, eteplirsen, golodirsen, viltolarsen, and casimersen. Bioavailability is correlated with the range of distribution.[46]

**Metabolism:** Metabolism is the body's change and breaking down of any medication. Each of the ten ASO drugs licensed by FDA follows a mechanism of degradation that includes activity in both the bloodstream and target cell; this is quite different from the traditional metabolic pathways used for small molecule medicines.[47] During clinical development, no data suggested that fomivirsen was biotransformed by the action of oxidative metabolic pathways; instead, degradation by nucleases, acting through both endonuclease and exonuclease activity in blood and target cells, seemed to be the major pathway.[48] Exonucleases are a class of enzymes responsible for hydrolyzing the phosphodiester linkages joining adjacent nucleotides at the ends of nucleic acid chains. Although the functions of endonucleases are similar, nucleolytic cleavage takes place inside the nucleic acid chain. After it has been distributed in the retina, fomivirsen is degraded by nucleases. Because the resulting metabolites are not present in plasma, there could be less systemic absorption of the metabolites.[49]

**Excretion:** Each of the ASO drugs has its pharmacological feature of excretion. Only a small fraction of the administered fomivirsen was cleared by urine, or feces during the preclinical study of the drug on rabbits. When fomivirsen is administered intravitreally to humans, the half-life is roughly 55 hours. In monkeys, it is believed to be around 78 hours. This does not resemble the excretion mechanism of mipomersen, which consists mainly of urine and renal filtration through "nuclease digested metabolites." There seems to be a universal excretion pathway throughout animals.[50] Renal is one of the pathways through which eteplirsen is cleared. Two thirds of a given dose is cleared by the renal system within 24 hours after intravenous treatment. Studies have shown that after 12 weeks of drug treatment with 30 mg/ kg a week, the total body clearance for eteplirsen is 339 ml/h per kg. The half-life is about 3.4 hours while the peak time is 1.1–1.2 hours. Nusinersen is cleared primarily via the urinary route.

The kidneys clear it out as chain-shortened, that is, pharmacologically inactive oligonucleotides.[51]

#### **Mechanisms of Drug Action: -**

In terms of Antiseizure Drugs: Treatment of epilepsy includes long-term medication to control seizures. Overall, they reduce abnormal hyperexcitability and hypersynchronous activity of brain circuits by modulating basic mechanisms of brain excitability. Antiseizure drugs are not necessarily specific for the pathogenic mechanisms underlying epilepsy, which often are poorly understood.[52] Given that so many genetic epilepsies have had their molecular defects elucidated over the past two decades, interest in developing gene-specific tailored drugs for each disease has grown. Two early examples of this work are cerliponase alfa, used for treating a variant of Batten disease known as CLN2, and everolimus, an inhibitor of mTOR signaling used against tuberous sclerosis. While small compounds acting on diseased proteins, including gain- or loss-of-function mutations of ion channels, are also being investigated, much emphasis is really placed on antisense approaches and viral vector-based gene therapy.[53] Mechanism-based therapies have the theoretical advantage of preventing—or even reversing—some comorbidities, like neurological deficits common in these disorders, in addition to reducing seizure incidence. The early ASDs were discovered accidentally when these drugs were given to epileptic patients; phenobarbital was introduced in 1912 and bromide in 1857.[54]

## **8. Drug Formulation and Delivery**

#### **Formulation Development: -**

In the use of Nanoemulsion:

A relatively small number of medications have shown clinical success, despite the huge number of treatments that have been discovered. The poor site specificity and poorer "bioavailability" are typically blamed for the lower success rate. These parameters are primarily influenced by organ physiology, metabolism, and the route of drug administration. The systemic approach causes pain at the injection site, necessitates frequent dosage, and depicts fast fluctuations in medication plasma levels, either below or above. As a result, systemic drug distribution might occasionally cause discomfort. Although the oral route is the most popular and recommended method of administration, there are a number of potential risks connected with it, including first pass metabolism, sensitivity

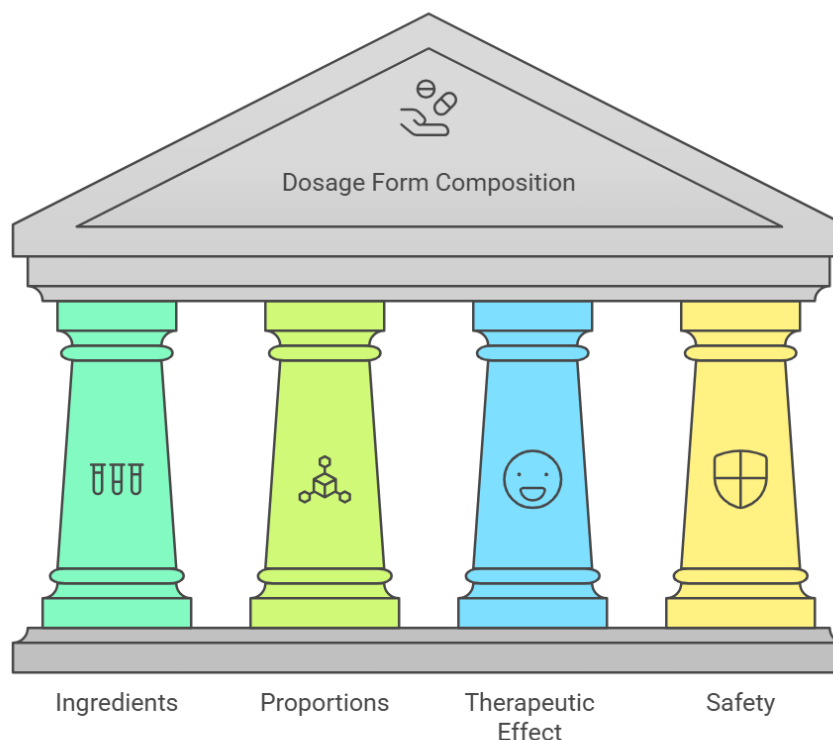
to degradation in the stomach environment, and potential drug and food interactions.[55] Simultaneously, the skin is the most practical place for medication administration due to its versatility. Preferably, it has been used to treat a variety of skin conditions, including dermatitis, psoriasis, inflammation, and microbial infections. Drugs administered transdermally have long been used to treat a variety of systemic conditions, including cancer, diabetes, rheumatoid arthritis, and hypertension. It assists in overcoming the disadvantages of oral and intravenous methods.[56] Dermal and transdermal methods provide more drug absorption surface area, greater accessibility, and the ability to stop therapy if necessary. The administration of medications via the skin aids in the treatment of both systemic and topical illnesses. Its painless delivery system, ability to help patients self-medicate, preference for long-term treatment of conditions including chronic pain, and avoidance of hepatic first pass metabolism make it an excellent choice. Since these routes are intended to deliver medications for a period of time ranging from days to months, they are economical on a monthly basis. The growing market indicates that these drug administration routes are highly favored. With a growth rate of 3.50%, the global market for topical dosage forms alone was valued at \$9.44 billion in 2013 and is projected to reach \$11.21 billion by 2018. Researchers are now interested in studying medicine delivery through the skin. The majority of currently available medications have limited applications since they need to have their physicochemical properties changed before being administered.[57] Drugs that fall into classes II and IV of the Biopharmaceutical Classification System (BCS) and possess undesirable physicochemical characteristics, such as high first pass metabolism and rapid degradation in the stomach environment, may be good candidates for transdermal and dermal administration.[58] Many attempts have been made up to this point to take advantage of the various formulation techniques for medication delivery via the skin. The greater globule size, slow penetration, quick volatilization of highly volatile substances, degradation by the environment, photo-instability, and many other factors limit the dermal and transdermal delivery of semisolid preparations.[59]

#### **Controlled Release Systems: -**

According to the FDA, an API is a substance that is officially recognized in a pharmacopoeia and is intended for use in the diagnosis, cure, mitigation, treatment, or prevention of disease.[60] The process of giving a patient medication in a way that enhances the concentration of the drug in some areas of the body relative to other areas is known as drug delivery. Any delivery system's ultimate objective is to target, confine, and extend the medication with a protected interaction within the sick tissue. Each dosage form is a mix of consisting of the non-drug component known as excipients/additives and the drug known as active pharmaceutical ingredients (APIs) (Figure 1). The actual chemical elements that are employed to treat illnesses.[61]

**Need for a Dosage Form:** Drug delivery systems (DDS) are typically favored since it is uncommon to employ active pharmaceutical ingredients (APIs) "as they are" in clinical settings for a number of reasons. Handling APIs and accurately dosing very powerful medications (e.g., low mg and µg dosages) might be challenging or impossible. It may not be viable or practicable to provide medications into the vaginal or rectal canals of the body because they may break down there (e.g., low pH in the stomach) and when the drug concentration is high at the injection site, it may result in localized irritations or damage. Certain APIs are environmentally sensitive and may gain from lessening exposure to external elements (temperature, moisture, and light) and pH), or because of their inherent chemical instability, they require chemical stabilization. Patient compliance is decreased by APIs because they typically have unpleasant organoleptic properties (taste, smell, and compliance).[62]

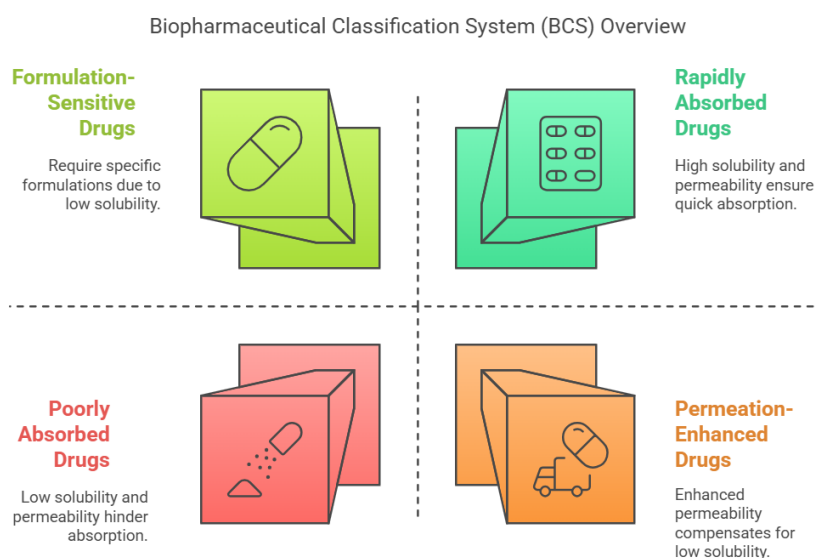




**Figure 5:** Composition of the dosage form.

### Biopharmaceutics Classification System (BCS) Classification of Drugs:

Drugs are categorized into four groups by the Biopharmaceutics Classification System according to their intestinal permeability and solubility (Figure 2). Class I medications are well absorbed, have high solubility and permeability, and have an absorption rate higher than excretion (e.g., paracetamol, metoprolol, etc.). The bioavailability of class II medications, which include glibenclamide, aceclofenac, and others, is restricted by their rate of solvation and their high permeability but poor solubility.[63] Class III medications have a high solubility but a poor permeability where the drug solvates quickly, but the rate of penetration limits the amount absorbed. If the permeability and duration of the gastrointestinal tract are not altered by the formulation, then Class I criteria (cimetidine, for example) can be used. Drugs of class IV have minimal permeability. Its low solubility, as well as inadequate intestinal absorption as a result, their bioavailability is low and their variability is high.[64]



**Figure 6:** Drug classification according to BCS.

## 9. Regulatory Aspects and Clinical Trials

### Drug Approval Process: -

Regulation of the development, production, distribution, and promotion of medical devices and drugs embodies conflicting goals: it needs to ensure that new and effective medical interventions are quickly distributed to the general public while protecting vulnerable patients from unsafe or ineffective medicines and from deceptive promotional practices touting unproven remedies. In the US, these regulatory roles fall within the responsibility of the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA).[65] Firstly, what is a drug? The FDA does not classify all substances taken by patients "for their health" as drugs. Herbal items, vitamins, and other complementary therapies are classified as "dietary supplements" by the FDA. As such, they are not subject to the stringent testing necessary for chemicals that are classified as "drugs," but they are governed by the FDA's Center for Drug Evaluation and Research (CDER) and criteria set forth by the Dietary Supplement Health and Education Act of 1994.[66] Every new drug development process follows a standard route before it ever reaches the hands of a clinical researcher. Drugs are conceptualized through basic research, which is followed by pre-clinical development that includes in vivo and in vitro testing as well as the construction of drug prototypes. When a drug is prepared for clinical research, but before it is tested on humans issues, the FDA needs to be consulted by the drug developer. This procedure starts as soon as the drug's sponsor an application for an investigational novel drug (IND) is submitted by the medication manufacturer or distributor to the agency.[67] According to federal legislation, a medication cannot be used unless it is the subject of an authorized marketing application. lawfully transported beyond state boundaries. An authorized IND program gives the creator access to a technological waiver of this federal law, in order for clinical Drugs might be distributed by researchers to various studies centers around the country.[68] THE IND APPLICATION: THREE EASY ROADS TO APPROVAL.

Three kinds of applications are possible for an IND: Treatment IND, Emergency Use Investigational Novel Drug-EIND, and Investigator IND. The two types of INDs are "commercial" and "research".

- **First path:** Investigator's IND. A physician may file an investigator IND on behalf of a medical facility or a "sponsor" such as a drug company. Besides preparing the administration and dispensing of the drug, the investigator will initiate and conduct the investigation.[69]
- **Second path:** The EIND, when an emergency arises that prevents an IND or IRB approval from being granted in time, an EIND requests that the FDA approve the use of an experimental medicine (26). This kind of application can also be filed to approve use in a patient or patients who do not fit the study's eligibility requirements or in the absence of an approved research protocol.[70]
- **Third path:** the IND therapy. Before the trials are finished, the FDA reviews the application, and final approval is granted, treatment IND applications request permission to use an investigational medicine that is demonstrating promise in clinical research.[71]

### Ethical Considerations In Clinical Trials: -

Research on novel drugs or clinical entities is not always included in the definition of clinical research. It encompasses all forms of study in which recruiting human subjects is a component. Clinical research encompasses various fields and is not just restricted to diagnosis and therapy. The scope of clinical research also includes fields related to public health, such as vaccine-prevention, epidemiological research, patient record analysis, and study on preserved biological specimens. Under its purview, clinical research guarantees that the study is conducted in accordance with the standards and tenets established by regional, national, and worldwide organizations such as the International Council for Harmonization (ICH) and the Institutional Ethics Committee (IEC). The ethical considerations surrounding the protection of study participants' rights, safety, well-being, autonomy, and entitlement to remuneration take more significance because clinical research involves human subjects.[72] On the other hand, there is a report that in conducting an approval process relating to conducting research in clinical trials, it is IEC which takes much concern in the area of science, ethics and data quality. A review of this nature would ensure that research has been done in order to contribute to human knowledge and promote the well-being of society at large without putting study participants at a high risk. Before initiating any clinical research, it is necessary to give an outlook on the general ethical considerations and the review process incorporated. Since clinical research involves human participation in the form of study subjects, people are recruited in line with certain set standards and informed consent guidelines provided for by the regulatory organisations.[73] Several basic

principles are to be considered at the front end and before enrollment of study participants, namely: respect for autonomy-the participant should be free to choose whether or not to participate in the study, and at no time should the participant experience harm; beneficence-participants must benefit at all times and never be harmed; nonmaleficence-participants should be completely informed regarding the process of the study at all times; and justice-participants should always, at all times, be given the best deal whatever the outcome of the study. General and basic concepts of clinical drug evaluation are discussed, covering the various phases of a clinical trial, detail in drug trials, surgical procedures, device trials, vaccine trials, trials on herbal medicine, and methods of monitoring and reporting adverse drug reactions. The complexities in conducting clinical research in human beings have been demonstrated to increase progressively over the years. The fundamental principles of human clinical research conduct are autonomy, beneficence, non-maleficence, and justice.[74]

## 10. Challenges and Future Trends in Drug Design and Development

### **Emerging Technologies: -**

The world is moving forward swiftly with the use of technology to enhance the level of life and make people more productive and efficient. It may seem impossible, but you will be able to experience virtual reality while still being inside the room. This will be made possible through creating a computerized graphical environment that allows for real-time functions and object interactions in the space you occupy. Biotechnology lies at the core of the "precision medicine" concept for cancer patient treatment - by two ways: Essentially, the treatment is designed and created especially for the patient based on his or her genetic signature and tumor profile, including testing and monitoring the clinical outcome of this therapy.[75] On the other hand, the patient might have to stop taking medicine in case the response is not as well as it should be. Indeed, in light of this example, endocrinopathies that often accompany anti-checkpoint immune neo-adjuvant therapy could cause detrimental effects even doubling the number of hormone-producing cells. For instance, interruption of the drug dosage, development of tumor resistance to drugs, and drug toxicity are the adverse effects that can occur during the treatment of cancer. Solar technologies are currently the most developed because of the high efficiency of materials and low costs for installation coupled with a high level of safety and security. Besides, this energy is not only cheap but likewise, a clean energy source and the earth is able to regenerate it over and over again. There are some technical issues with renewable energy supply like the high cost of solar panels that decrease the speed of energy production among other challenges. For example, the use of energy-efficient technologies in mining operations can reduce the amount of power needed.[76] These are the advances in green renewable energies: improvement of photovoltaic cell structures has caused for solar cells to generate bigger power while making them cheaper at the same time, geothermal heat has become more practical, wind turbines have been more efficient and be it through Smart Grid or energy storage technologies, the efficiency of energy usage is increasing in all the fields of life.[77] Drug discovery is the process of investigation of certain molecules that can interfere with the function of a target and promote or inhibit its activity. Further, the universally stated strategy for the design of novel vaccine candidates consists in the selection of rational subunit antigen combinations by the Knowledge-Based Machine Learning (KBML) meta-model in conjunction with as many computational tools as possible. This report describes the implementation of a rigorous computational analysis for the predictions of the SEC-motif annotations, an extremely important structural feature for SEC family members. We also emphasize the potential of the proposed meta-tomics methods aided by temporal networking experiments. They are prominent among the special side effects of such medications, and generally, the disease can be diagnosed and cured at an earlier stage through molecular oncology or ameliorated with drug combinations. However, this article primarily focuses on discussing the bleaching of coral reefs, their causes, and the possible solutions. These are not just technical matters however but things concerning life and death which are of relevance to many people.[78] In addition, the differences in coding practice for genes between the oncogenes of the patient group could have led to the different responses to the treatment. The problem of cancer is during this time when almost 30% of the world population is immunocompromised by various infective conditions is getting significant. The suitability of the drug for the person based on genetics and the treatment process is the study area in personalized cancer medicine. Furthermore, the sensitive technology should be built safely and socio-technologies should be evolved to guide the activities within the area and the needed infrastructure should be installed with caution.



**Fig 7.** The primary components that make up the document.

Numerous innovative AI-based strategies are on the rise from the very inception of DL process up to the level where the AI models have advanced and the data for pharmacology is increasing. Big drug companies have also turned to AI due to rapid progress in DL for providing better diagnostics, replacing ineffective and outdated methods, and thus uplifting patients' satisfaction through R&D, however, it has also proved as a money-making mechanism for these companies.[79] Meanwhile, DL is a fantastic technology; however, it can be a mighty and delicate mission. Fulfilling it is not always done about the man himself but the AI also has the possibility of delivering efficient drugs by the use of the various models. Consequently, the SLR proposed in this study involves updated DL methods and their applications to drug discovery. Additionally, aside from the ambiguous breakthroughs like XAI and DT and their functionality in drug discovery problems, this review study could be classified as one of the most original as it is the first to apply various DL models and techniques for such types of drug discovery problems as DTIs, DDIs similarity, drug sensitivity and response, and drug-side effect predictions. The most frequent datasets are likewise offered to the researchers in the field by the article.[80]

### **Personalized Medicine and Beyond: -**

Proteomics, DNA sequencing, imaging protocols, and wireless monitoring devices are examples of novel, high-throughput, data-intensive biomedical assays that have been used to study disease processes. These assays have revealed significant inter-individual variation in the mechanisms and contributing factors of disease processes as well as their effects. This has sparked debate over how much this inter-individual diversity should influence choices about an individual's best course of action when it comes to monitoring, treating, or preventing a disease. In fact, the underlying heterogeneity of many disease processes is now generally accepted to imply that treatment plans for an individual with a disease, as well as any monitoring or preventative measures, need to be "personalized" to that person's specific biochemical, physiological, behavioral, and environmental exposure profiles.[81] Below is a series of well-written reviews as well as an increasing number of textbooks developed for physicians and medical students. It is important to note that though many use the terms individualized and precision medicine interchangeably with the term "personalized medicine" we do here, many have argued there are some significant, albeit often subtle, differences between the two. There are many challenges associated with personalized drugs, especially in obtaining regulatory agencies' approval for routine use. Furthermore, there have been numerous problems with the widespread adoption of tailored medications by various healthcare stakeholders, including doctors, executives in the field, insurance providers, and, in the end, patients.[82] Each of these challenges, in effect, has at its heart the need to be able to prove that personalized medicine approaches serve no more than to do a better job than the methods already in place in traditional medicine. This is particularly relevant given the high cost of most customized or personalized medicines, including autologous transplants of Chimeric Antigen Receptor T cells or CAR-T cells for particular forms of cancer and specific mutation-targeting drugs such as ivacaftor used in the treatment of cystic fibrosis. We also discuss how to illustrate that the processes and approaches of personalized medicine are superior to those of traditional medicine. Importantly, we distinguish between cases and challenges relevant to: personalized health monitoring, personalized disease prevention, and personalized overt illness treatment[83] The development of customized medicine is foreshadowed in many ways by the history of western medicine. To keep things brief, we won't cover every one of these events; instead, we'll concentrate on a



select number that we believe best capture the fundamental ideas of customized medicine. The English physician Archibald Garrod started researching illnesses that would later be referred to as inborn errors of metabolism more than a century ago. Garrod investigated several rare disorders such as alkaptonuria, albinism, cystinuria, and pentosuria that have overt, apparent phenotypic characteristics.[84]

## 11. CONCLUSION

It goes without saying that the introduction of novel techniques and technologies has placed the arenas of drug design and development into an entirely new environment within the last few years. These innovative methods bear immense impact on the mode of discovering and developing drugs and substantially raise the quality of care that patients receive as we approach a new era in medicine. One of the most major advances involves the application of computational methods in the design of medications. Drug discovery has long been a time-consuming and tedious process, in which trial-and-error approaches were often utilized. With advanced computer models and simulations today, it is possible for researchers to foresee the kinds of molecular interactions that potential drugs will have with their targets. This predictive power decreases dependency on time-consuming laboratory testing and speeds up the process of selecting potential candidates. Nowadays, methods such as virtual screening, molecular docking, and QSAR modeling—that enable a scientist to generate more successful drug designs—are employed. Another key revolution in methodological approaches for new drug finding has involved HTS. This technology will enable scientists to quickly screen thousands of chemicals for potential medicinal benefits. HTS has done much more than simply simplify the process of identifying drug candidates and, consequently, shortening development times and making the process of finding successful medicines more likely. In combination with other developments in automation and robotics, HTS has become a key tool in modern drug discovery. Other revolutionary findings in drug development concern personalized medicine. Treatments can be more precisely and successfully tailored to the particular characteristics of each patient, including his or her genetic makeup. Proteomic and genomic analysis has facilitated the identification of new therapeutic targets and biomarkers, which, in turn, has assisted in the development of medicines targeted at the molecular level at the root causes of disease. This tailored approach makes the healthcare model more complex and patient-centered, while at the same time increasing the efficacy of therapies and reducing their side effects. The spectrum of available therapies has also expanded with the development of biologics and biopharmaceuticals. In the lead of this revolution are monoclonal antibodies, gene therapies, and cell therapies, bringing new hope for those diseases that were beyond treatment options previously. These novel interventions often involve targeting specific cells or pathways, precision and specificity which may be out of reach of ordinary small molecule drugs. The integration of the state-of-the-art approaches—high-throughput screening, personalized medicine, computational methodologies, and sophisticated biologics—represents the most dramatic advancement in drug discovery. Each of these technologies at its further advanced level is capable of enhancing the safety and effectiveness of new medicines beyond accelerating the process for drug development. The challenge ahead will be to incorporate such novel approaches into an expedient and efficient pipeline of drug development. In order for the full exploitation of these novel technologies, interaction among basic researchers, clinicians, and participants from industry is necessary. It will also be important from ethical, legal, and financial points of view that access to new medicines becomes possible for all patients. Conclusion Cutting-edge approaches in drug discovery and development are revolutionizing healthcare. We are at the cusp of a new frontier where medicines administered will be more personalized to a particular patient and more effective due to integration of advanced technologies and deeper biological insight. As we continue to study and perfect these technologies, an opportunity to improve health outcomes and quality of life for individuals worldwide is within reach

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