POVME 2.0: An Enhanced Tool for Determining Pocket Shape and Volume Characteristics

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ABSTRACT: Analysis of macromolecular/small-molecule binding pockets can provide important insights into molecular recognition and receptor dynamics. Since its release in 2011, the POVME (POocket Volume MEasur) algorithm has been widely adopted as a simple-to-use tool for measuring and characterizing pocket volumes and shapes. Here present POVME 2.0, which is an order of magnitude faster, has improved accuracy, includes a graphical user interface, and can produce volumetric density maps for improved pocket analysis.

INTRODUCTION

Binding-pocket analysis is an active area of research that includes pocket detection and characterization, druggability prediction, and the study of binding-site flexibility. The advent of the Protein Data Bank (PDB) spurred the creation of a number of software packages aimed at facilitating the analysis of macromolecular pockets. In recent years, additional programs have been developed with improved accuracy and increasingly advanced pocket-characterization algorithms, as reviewed by Zheng et al.

Pocket analysis is useful for studying receptor dynamics. One can get a good sense of the full gamut of possible binding-pocket conformational states by obtaining multiple structures from X-ray crystallography, NMR spectroscopy, or molecular dynamics (MD) simulations and comparing pocket volumes and, in particular, shapes. These comparisons facilitate the identification of novel, pharmacologically relevant binding-pocket conformations, as well as transient binding pockets that are not evident when a limited number of static structures are considered.

Additionally, pocket analysis can also be applied to computer-aided drug discovery (CADD). Among the many complex factors that govern molecular recognition, pocket volume and shape are perhaps the most straightforward. Simply put, a ligand will not generally bind to a receptor if it cannot physically fit within the confines of the binding pocket. Consequently, pocket characterization has been used to inform CADD efforts aimed at predicting ligand binding, whether through virtual screening, QSAR, or volumetric similarity searching. Given the astounding variety of pocket geometries possible, this characterization is no trivial task.

To address this challenge, both ligand- and receptor-centric approaches have been developed. Ligand-based methods such as OpenEye’s Rapid Overlay of Chemical Structures (ROCS) algorithm seek to identify novel small-molecule binders by querying a compound database for entries with three-dimensional shapes that are similar to that of a known template ligand as assessed by the degree of volume overlap mismatch. These techniques perform comparably to more traditional virtual-screening methods and have been used to successfully identify a number of experimentally validated ligands (see, for example, refs 51–53).

While ligand-based approaches will certainly continue to have high utility, a more receptor-centric methodology is sometimes advantageous. Bound ligands often occupy only a portion of their respective pockets, on average perhaps as little as a third of the total space available. Analysis of ligand volume and shape alone cannot account for potential interactions with pocket regions that are not occupied by the template ligand itself. In contrast, receptor-based pocket analysis elucidates the volume and shape of the entire cavity, including regions not yet exploited by existing pharmacophores.

Receptor-centric techniques can also be used to select diverse pocket shapes for use in subsequent virtual-screening efforts. It is often helpful to dock a library of small molecules into...
multiple receptor conformations in order to account for receptor flexibility. Carefully selecting conformations with unique pocket geometries has been shown to enhance hit rates and subsequent ligand diversity.\textsuperscript{55–58}

To simplify binding-pocket characterization, we recently developed an algorithm called POVME (POcket Volume MEasurer).\textsuperscript{7} POVME floods a pocket-encompassing region with equidistant points, removes those points that are near receptor atoms, and calculates the volume from the remaining points. The points can themselves be saved, providing a specific description of the pocket shape as well. Inspired by the fairly widespread adoption of our program (at least 43 citations as of June 2014), we have now created a second, much improved version. POVME 2.0 is over an order of magnitude faster than POVME 1.0, includes a graphical user interface (Figure 1) that greatly improves usability, can calculate volumetric density maps to facilitate analysis, and has improved accuracy. POVM 2.0 has been tested on all major operating systems with various versions of python, \texttt{numpy}, and \texttt{scipy}.\textsuperscript{59–63} A copy of the program, which is released under the terms of the GNU General Public License, can be obtained from \url{http://nbcr.ucsd.edu/POVME}. We are hopeful that POVME will be a useful tool for the computational- and medicinal-chemist community.

\begin{table}[ht]
\centering
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
\textbf{operating system} & \textbf{python version} & \textbf{\texttt{numpy} version} & \textbf{\texttt{scipy} version} \\
\hline
Scientific Linux 6.2 & 2.6.6 & 1.6.2 & 0.11.0 \\
OS X 10.9.1 & 2.7.5 & 1.6.2 & 0.11.0 \\
Windows 7 Home Premium & 2.7.6 & 1.8.0 & 0.13.3 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{Operating-System Compatibility}\label{tab:oscompat}
\end{table}

\section*{MATERIALS AND METHODS}

\textbf{The POVME Algorithm.} Successful POVME use includes three required and two optional steps. Trajectory alignment, the construction of a pocket-encompassing region, and the subsequent identification of the pocket-occupying space are required. Optionally, the user can also instruct POVME to eliminate subregions that fall outside the receptor’s convex hull and/or are noncontiguous with the primary pocket. A detailed description of each of these steps follows.

\textit{1). Aligning the Trajectory.} POVME accepts a multiframe PDB (Protein Data Bank) file as input. We expect that MD simulations will be the most common source of these files, but multiple crystal structures or NMR conformations can also be used. We have found that the computer program Visual Molecular Dynamics (VMD)\textsuperscript{64} is useful for aligning trajectories and converting files to the PDB format, but other software might also be used.

\begin{figure}[ht]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{fig1.pdf}
\caption{POVME 2.0 graphical user interface.}
\end{figure}
packages can also be used for this purpose. Alignment is necessary because the POVME algorithm assumes the pocket being measured does not translate or rotate in space. Different alignment methodologies can subtly alter how this requirement is met, as discussed in the Results and Discussion. A tutorial showing how to align and convert trajectory files using VMD is included in the Supporting Information (Text S1). We note also that single-frame PDB files can likewise serve as POVME input if the user wishes only to characterize a single pocket.

2). Defining a Region That Encompasses All Trajectory Binding Pockets. The user must next define “inclusion” (Figure 2A) and “exclusion” (Figure 2B) regions, respectively. Both of these regions are constructed from a combination of user-specified spheres and rectangular prisms. The required inclusion region should entirely encompass all the binding-pocket conformations of the trajectory. POVME includes a helper script called “POVME Pocket ID,” described in greater detail below, to assist in identifying this region if necessary. The optional exclusion region defines portions of the inclusion region that should be ignored, perhaps because they are not truly associated with the pocket. To generate a grid of equidistant points that encompasses all the binding-pocket conformations of the trajectory (spaced 1.0 Å apart by default), POVME first floods the user-specified inclusion region with points and then removes any points also contained in the optional exclusion region (Figure 2C).

3). Removing Points That Are near Receptor Atoms. As the purpose of POVME is to measure the volume of the binding-pocket cavity, the program next removes any points that are close to receptor atoms, leaving only those points that are likely to be located within the binding pocket itself (Figure 2D). Specifically, the pairwise distances between all atoms and POVME points are calculated. Any point that is closer to a given atom than that atom’s van der Waals radius, plus a user-specified tolerance (1.09 Å, the radius of a hydrogen atom, by default), is removed. As POVME is written in python, users can easily modify the default radii or add new radius values for novel constituent atom types. If the user wishes to ignore all receptor hydrogen atoms when calculating pocket volumes, the hydrogen radius specified in the script can be set to 0.0 Å.

4). Removing Points Outside the Receptor’s Convex Hull. In its current version, 2.0 introduces an optional new feature for removing points that lie entirely outside the binding pocket. Specifically, the gift-wrapping algorithm is used in combination with the Akl-Toussaint heuristic to define the convex hull of receptor atoms near the user-defined inclusion region. The gift-wrapping algorithm runs in \( O(n^2) \) time, where \( n \) is the number of atoms in the receptor structure, it is not necessarily the fastest algorithm for computing the convex hull. However, by coupling it with the Akl-Toussaint heuristic, the expected running time is lowered to \( O(n) \). Ultimately, any points that fall outside the convex hull are removed (Figure 2E). This feature is particularly useful when the user defines an inclusion region that protrudes into the surrounding solvent-occupied space.

5). Removing Points That Are Not Contiguous with the Primary Pocket. Like the original POVME program, version 2.0 retains the optional ability to remove isolated patches of points that are not contiguous with the primary binding pocket. This feature requires that the user define a third region, again using spheres and rectangular prisms, that always falls within the primary binding-pocket region regardless of the trajectory frame considered (Figure 2F). All pocket-occupying points within or contiguous to this region are retained, but isolated patches of points that are not directly connected are deleted (Figure 2G).

POVME Output. By default, POVME writes a number of files to the disk. The calculated pocket volumes, as well as user-defined parameters and progress messages, are saved to a simple text-based log file. POVME can also be instructed to save the volume measurements to a second file in a simple tabular format that can be easily pasted into popular spreadsheet programs. Pocket-occupying points are equidistant (1.0 Å by default), so each point is associated with an identical cubical volume (e.g., 1.0 Å³). The volume of a whole pocket is calculated by simply summing the individual volumes associated with each unique point.

POVME also optionally saves the pocket-occupying points of each frame to PDB file(s) on the disk. The user can instruct the program to save these points to separate files and/or to a single PDB trajectory. Some visualization programs (e.g., VMD) are only compatible with trajectories that have the same number of atoms in each frame. POVME can optionally write extra points to the origin \((0.0, 0.0, 0.0)\) on a frame-by-frame basis to satisfy this requirement. As these POVME frames are formatted similarly to those produced by SiteMap, they are also compatible with the pocket-shape volumetric overlap clustering tools produced by Schrödinger.

Finally, POVME also optionally saves a volumetric density map in the Data Explorer (DX) format, similar to the...
A volumetric density value is associated with each of the pocket-occupying points by calculating the fraction of all trajectory pockets that include the given point. If the density map is displayed as an isosurface, the value of the isosurface expresses the fraction of time (e.g., over the course of the simulation) that the pocket included the displayed volume.

The POVM E Pocket ID Algorithm. The POVM E distribution file also includes POVM E Pocket ID, a simple script that identifies binding pockets and generates appropriate POVM E inclusion regions. After loading the heavy atoms from a PDB file, the algorithm identifies pockets by 1) covering the entire protein in a low-resolution 3D grid of equidistant points (spaced 4.0 Å apart by default), 2) removing points that come within a user-specified distance of any protein atom (3.0 Å by default), and 3) removing points that fall outside the convex hull defined by the protein alpha carbons. The remaining points tend to congregate in binding pockets.

These points are then replaced with smaller higher-resolution 3D grids of equidistant points (spaced 1.0 Å apart by default). These higher-resolution points are subjected to the same protocol (i.e., points are removed if they are too close to protein atoms or fall outside the convex hull), thus providing a more detailed description of binding-pocket geometries. As stray, isolated points often remain, the algorithm iteratively removes points that have fewer than a user-specified number of neighbors (4 by default) until no such points remain.

Finally, stretches of contiguous high-resolution points are grouped together, thus partitioning the points according to their associated pockets. The points of each pocket are further divided into a user-defined number of clusters (5 by default) using the k-means clustering algorithm, and encompassing spheres are generated for each cluster.

The script outputs a separate PDB file for the points of each pocket. Within each of these files, each cluster of points is assigned a unique PDB chain id. The PDB header describes the inclusion-region sphere associated with each chain/cluster, formatted for use in a POVM E input file. Once the user has determined via visualization which of the identified pockets is of greatest interest, he or she can select which calculated spheres are required to entirely encompass that pocket.

Test System: RNA Editing Ligase 1. The 1XDN crystal structure, which includes enzyme residues S2–365 as well as an active-site ATP molecule and magnesium ion, was obtained from the Protein Data Bank. Selenomethionine residues were replaced with methionine. All crystallographic water molecules were retained. The AMBER LEaP module was used to submerge the protein in a rectangular box of water molecules that extended 10 Å beyond the system atoms in all three Cartesian dimensions. Monovalent ions were added to neutralize the system and to bring it to a 0.1 M salt concentration. The protein and water atoms were parameterized using the Amber99SB force field and the TIP4P-ew water model, respectively. Additionally, the parameters for ATP, magnesium, and monovalent ions developed by Meagher et al., Allner et al., and Joung and Cheatham were used, respectively.

The REL1 system was subjected to five 5000-step energy minimizations using the NAMD molecular-dynamics simulation package to gradually introduce full flexibility. We first allowed only hydrogen atoms to move, second released all water molecules, third released ions and ATP, fourth released the protein amino-acid side chains, and fifth removed all constraints. The system was then heated from 0 to 310 K in an NVT ensemble for 500 ps, with the protein backbone restrained. Equilibration was achieved in two segments, each consisting of a 250 ps simulation in the NPT ensemble. In the first segment, the protein backbone was restrained; in the second, no restraints were applied.

Five production simulations were performed, starting from the fully equilibrated structure. A total of 650 ns were simulated (one simulation of 250 ns and four of 100 ns). Different random seeds were used for each productive simulation to generate different starting velocities.

To study the flexibility of the REL1 active site, we extracted 6,500 frames from the simulations, evenly spaced 100 ps apart. All waters, counterions, ATP molecules, and magnesium ions were removed. VMD’s RMSD Trajectory Tool was used to align the extracted frames. In order to determine how differing alignment methodologies would impact the POVM E analysis, we used several different protocols. The extracted frames were concatenated and aligned by 1) the atoms of the bound ATP ligand; 2) the atoms of the active-site residues (e.g., any residue within 5 Å of the crystallographic ligand); 3) the alpha-carbon atoms (Cα) of the active-site residues; and 4) the Cα of the entire protein. Each of these four aligned trajectories was saved as a separate multiframe PDB file (Text S1).

Separate POVM E analyses were performed for each aligned trajectory. In each case, we characterized the combined ATP/ transient pockets using an inclusion region defined by 10 carefully positioned spheres, chosen by visualizing the system in VMD. This region was filled with equidistant points spaced 1.0 Å apart. No exclusion regions were required. Points that were not contiguous with those contained within a small sphere centered at the opening of the ATP-binding pocket were discarded. The new convex-hull feature was enabled.

To benchmark POVM E 1.0 and POVM E 2.0, we further considered the REL1 trajectory aligned by all Cα. Additional analyses of this trajectory were performed using POVM E 1.0 and POVM E 2.0 with the new convex-hull feature disabled.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As pocket volume and shape play critical roles in determining small-molecule binding, they are often the focus of computer- docking campaigns, QSAR studies, and molecular-dynamics analyses. We previously created a novel algorithm for characterizing macromolecular pockets called POVM E (Pocket Volume MEasurer) that has been widely adopted. We here present a much-improved version of the algorithm, POVM E 2.0.

POVM E 2.0 has four primary advantages over previous versions. First, it is an order of magnitude faster because it relies on the numpy and scipy python modules to perform matrix-based calculations at nearly the speed of compiled C programs. Additionally, the user can instruct POVM E 2.0 to take advantage of multiple processors to further improve the speed of the calculation.

Second, POVM E 2.0 comes with an optional graphical user interface (GUI) to facilitate usability (Figure 1). The GUI requires that Tkinter, a python binding to the Tk GUI toolkit, be installed. Fortunately, Tkinter is included in the standard Windows and OS X python distributions, as well as many Linux distributions.

Third, POVM E 2.0 includes a new convex-hull-clipping option that improves the accuracy of the volume calculation. Portions of the binding pocket that fall outside the convex hull of nearby receptor atoms are discarded; consequently, only
portions of the pocket that are truly interior to the protein surface are considered.

Fourth, unlike the original version, POVME 2.0 can analyze entire trajectories in addition to single protein conformations. With POVME 1.0, users were required to save each trajectory frame as a separate PDB file in order to study changes in pocket volume and shape over the course of a MD trajectory. In contrast, POVME 2.0 can read multiframe trajectory files without requiring that each frame be saved separately. When analyzing MD trajectories, POVME outputs both frame-by-frame and whole-trajectory analyses. For frame-by-frame analysis, POVME saves the individual pocket shapes in the PDB format. For whole-trajectory analysis, POVME creates volumetric density maps showing the frequency with which different regions of the protein are included in the pocket over the course of the trajectory.

**Test Case: Trypanosoma brucei RNA Editing Ligase 1 (REL1).** To demonstrate the utility of this new POVME implementation, we used it to analyze an MD simulation of RNA editing ligase 1 (REL1) from the parasite Trypanosoma brucei, the etiological agent of African sleeping sickness. REL1 is a critical component of the T. brucei editosome, which edits transcriptional RNA prior to translation. This extensive RNA-editing process is essential for trypanosomatid survival, and REL1 has been shown to be a viable drug target.\(^76,77\) Indeed, REL1 inhibitors have been identified that kill the whole-cell parasite.\(^78\)

Previous studies of related crystal structures have hinted at the existence of a transient subpocket connected to the distal portion of the primary ATP-binding site that may provide unique opportunities for drug discovery.\(^79\) Compounds that bind to the REL1 primary site may also target other ATP-binding proteins with structurally similar pockets; however, compounds that bind to the unique transient pocket may prove more target specific.

To better characterize the dynamics of the REL1 pockets, we examined 6,500 combined ATP-transient pockets extracted from 650 ns of MD simulations. We first aligned the trajectory to ensure that the binding pocket was consistently in the same location. As with other pocket-analysis programs,\(^2,17,80\) simulation-trajectory alignment impacts the calculation of the average volumetric density maps. To demonstrate this sensitivity, we performed four separate POVME analyses, aligning the REL1 trajectory by 1) all ATP-ligand atoms; 2) all the atoms of the active-site residues; 3) the alpha-carbon (C\(_\alpha\)) atoms of the active-site residues; and 4) the C\(_\alpha\) atoms of the entire protein. Volumetric density maps were calculated for each of these aligned trajectories and were visualized superimposed on the receptor structure using VMD. When displayed as an isosurface, these density maps show the fraction of frames with measured pockets that included the displayed volume.

For the purposes of comparison, we judged the utility of each alignment protocol by how consistently the associated POVME analysis captured the ATP-binding-pocket region over the course of the entire trajectory. As our simulations included a bound ATP ligand, the ATP-binding subpocket should always be open (i.e., the region of the volumetric map corresponding to ATP in our simulations should have a high density, in excess of 95%).

When the trajectory was aligned by all active-site C\(_\alpha\) atoms, the POVME-identified pocket consistently included the ATP-binding region (Figure 3B). We also found that aligning by all active-site atoms or even the atoms of the bound ligand itself led to similar POVME results (Figure S1). In contrast, the pocket analysis was less than optimal when the trajectory was aligned by the C\(_\alpha\) atoms of the whole receptor (Figure 3C), likely because substantial protein motions distant from the active site led to poor binding-pocket alignment. Consequently, the transient pocket was identified as open only half as often when the trajectory was aligned by all C\(_\alpha\) atoms vs active-site C\(_\alpha\) atoms.

While the best protocol to use is likely system dependent, based on these REL1 results we concur with others in recommending that trajectories be aligned by active-site C\(_\alpha\) atoms.\(^80\) This alignment 1) consistently identified the ATP-binding pocket; 2) does not rely on the presence of a bound ligand and so can be applied to apo systems as well; and 3) requires fewer atoms. When the binding pocket is partly composed of flexible loops, aligning by pocket C\(_\alpha\) atoms that belong to stable secondary-structure elements may be more appropriate.

When the active-site-C\(_\alpha\) alignment was used, POVME analysis revealed the full dynamics of the transient REL1 pocket, as indicated by the density maps in Figures 3B and 3D at isovolumes of 95% and 25%, respectively. As expected given that we simulated the holo protein, the primary ATP-binding pocket was persistently open throughout the entire simulation (Figure 3D, 95% isovalue). The intermittent transient pocket was open at least 25% of the time (Figure 3D), suggesting a persistence sufficient to support our hypothesis of druggability.

**Benchmarking/Insights into Use.** To verify that the results of POVME 2.0 are comparable to those of the previous

![Figure 3. Volumetric density maps of the REL1 active site. Some regions of the protein have been removed to facilitate visualization. A) The crystallographic pose of the bound ATP molecule. Crystallographic water molecules indicate the location of a secondary binding pocket that is transiently accessible from the ATP-binding pocket. B) The region of the binding pocket identified as “open” at at least 95% of the time when the trajectory was aligned by the active-site C\(_\alpha\) atoms. C) The same region when the trajectory was aligned by the C\(_\alpha\) atoms of the whole protein. D) The region of the binding pocket identified as “open” at least 25% of the time when the active-site-C\(_\alpha\) alignment was again used.](image-url)
version, we similarly analyzed a REL1 trajectory using POVME 1.0. When the convex-hull algorithm was disabled, both
POVME 1.0 and 2.0 gave nearly identical volume measurements (Figure 4 graph, in black). When the new convex-hull
feature was enabled, POVME-calculated volumes were lower, as expected (Figure 4 graph, in gray). To verify that the volumes
calculated both with and without the convex-hull feature were correlated, we performed a linear regression. A two-tailed
calculated both with and without the convex-hull feature were expected (Figure 4 graph, in gray). To verify that the volumes
feature was enabled, POVME-calculated volumes were lower, as expected (Figure 4 graph, in gray). To verify that the volumes
POVME 1.0 and 2.0 benchmarks. The graph shows
benchmark REL1 pocket volumes as a function of simulation time. POVME 1.0 and 2.0 give nearly the same volume measurements (in
black). When the POVME 2.0 convex-hull option is enabled, the volumes are smaller (in gray). The bottom panel, generated using the
1XDN crystal structure, illustrates the difference. When the convex-hull option is enabled, the region of the binding pocket is more
accurately captured (solid gray) than when it is deactivated (black wireframe). Some portions of the protein have been removed to
facilitate visualization.

Figure 4. POVME 1.0 and 2.0 benchmarks. The graph shows benchmark REL1 pocket volumes as a function of simulation time. POVME 1.0 and 2.0 give nearly the same volume measurements (in black). When the POVME 2.0 convex-hull option is enabled, the volumes are smaller (in gray). The bottom panel, generated using the 1XDN crystal structure, illustrates the difference. When the convex-hull option is enabled, the region of the binding pocket is more accurately captured (solid gray) than when it is deactivated (black wireframe). Some portions of the protein have been removed to facilitate visualization.

and if the system being studied has highly flexible pocket-
adjacent surface residues, using the convex-hull feature can
introduce substantial “noise” into the total-volume calculations.
This noise can make it difficult to detect subtle changes in the
total volume caused by actual pocket dynamics, especially if the
pocket itself is relatively stable. To overcome this challenge, we
recommend carefully defining the POVME inclusion region to
encompass only the pocket itself. If the convex-hull feature is
used at all, rely on it only as a secondary refinement to better
account for those rare frames when the pocket opening “pulls
back,” causing a few POVME points that are typically located
within the pocket to barely fall outside the pocket boundaries.

Software Comparison. Pocket Identification. Many
approaches have been developed to identify and measure protein pockets (see recent reviews81,82). These approaches are
commonly divided into geometry- and energy-based detection
algorithms.17,81,82 We here limit our comparison to free
software packages that natively process ensembles of structures,
whether derived from multiple crystal structures or MD
simulations, without requiring custom scripting. Software
packages with this native support, including POVME 2.0,
EPOSBP9, MDpocket12, PocketAnalyzerPCA80 and trj_cavity83
can output ensemble-dependent features such as the frequency
of transient subpocket opening and the pocket size over
multiple frames.

For all these programs, pocket identification is the initial step. POVME 2.0 pocket-defining regions can be generated automatically using the new grid-based POVME Pocket ID
helper script described above. PocketAnalyzerPCA and trj_cavity
use similar grid-based detection algorithms. PocketAnalyzerPCA
implements a variant of the LIGSITE algorithm84,85 and
trj_cavity employs a novel neighbor-search method. In contrast,
MDpocket uses fpocket to detect and calculate pocket
properties. Fpocket calls the Qhull algorithm86 to perform a
Voronoi tessellation of the receptor; the coordinates of each
Voronoi vertex, together with the associated atomic and vertex
neighbors, constitute an “α-sphere” with a distinct radius. The
collection of all α-spheres is then used to locate protein
pockets. Finally, EPOSBP relies on the PASS algorithm, which
first covers the entire protein surface with spheres and then
removes spheres with low burial counts. As a second step, the
algorithm covers the remaining spheres from the first step with an
additional layer of spheres. Pockets are enumerated once
repeating this process iteratively has successfully filled all
cavities. EPOSBP also maps the identified pockets to a set of
pocket-lining atoms (PLAs), avoiding the need to align the
trajectory.

Volume Measurements. Pocket volumetric analysis follows
the initial identification step. In order to facilitate comparison,
we repeated the trajectory-based analysis of the REL1 ATP-
binding pocket using several programs (active-site-Cα,
alignment). For each program, a grid resolution of 1.0 Å was used
where appropriate. The remaining parameters were set to their
default values.

Given the set of POVME inclusion and exclusion spheres
chosen, POVME 2.0 without the convex-hull algorithm
generally calculated pocket volumes that were larger than
those determined by other codes. In contrast, when the convex-
hull algorithm was used to ignore regions of space outside the
confines of the pocket, the POVME-calculated volumes
decreased substantially (see Table 2 and Figure S2).

If accuracy is judged by consistency with other programs,
using POVME 2.0 together with the convex-hull algorithm
Table 2. Program Comparisons

| Program                  | Average Volume ± SD | Run Time (1 thread) | Run Time (24 threads) |
|-------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|
| POVME 1.0               |                     |                    |                       |
| POVME 2.0               | 2071.3 ± 129.1      | 16                 | 2                     |
| POVME 2.0/convex hull   | 1021.8 ± 154.8      | 92                 | 8                     |
| trj_cavity              | 814.4 ± 254.6       | 16                 |                       |
| MDpocket                | 523.2 ± 60.5        | 11                 |                       |
| PocketAnalyzerPCA       | 811.5 ± 100.2       | 96*                |                       |
| EPOSBP without clustering|                    | 43                 |                       |
| EPOSBP with clustering  |                     | 259                |                       |

*The average pocket volume (in Å³), plus or minus the standard deviation, measured over the course of a REL1 trajectory using several pocket-analysis programs. Note that the POVME 1.0 results were, for all intents and purposes, identical to the POVME 2.0 results with the convex-hull feature disabled. Additionally, EPOSBP volume measurements are not included because that program does not output volume-per-frame data. The total run times for each program are given in minutes. A PCA calculation accounted for approximately 6 min of the PocketAnalyzerPCA run time (marked with an asterisk). As POVME 2.0 is designed to use multiple processors, the run times for parallel POVME 2.0 calculations are also shown.

leads to substantial improvements when the user wishes to measure pocket volume in absolute terms. Nevertheless, the POVME-calculated volumes are still somewhat larger than those calculated by other algorithms, even with the convex-hull algorithm enabled. This discrepancy does not necessarily mean that POVME volumes are overestimated, as determining the accuracy of these varied methods is not straightforward. Binding pockets are not uniquely defined; they often have an opening toward the solvent, and no commonly agreed upon criteria exists for delineating the exact boundary between the pocket and solvent-filled spaces.

The tunable parameters of each algorithm may also contribute to the differences in calculated volumes. Although it is useful to allow the user to adjust key parameters as required to best analyze a specific pocket of interest, doing so often presents a problem when the parameters are not intuitive. With the end user in mind, POVME 2.0 requires only a small number of parameters with straightforward physical interpretations. We believe this is a distinct advantage of our code. While useful, parameters such as degree of buriedness and minimal cluster size (PocketAnalyzerPCA); PASS input (EPOSBP); and allowed range of α-sphere radii and number of α-spheres per pocket (MDpocket) are less intuitive.

PocketAnalyzerPCA and trj_cavity volumes are somewhat smaller than the POVME volumes obtained when the convex-hull feature is enabled; in contrast, MDpocket volumes are substantially smaller and have only minor fluctuations (Table 2 and Figure S2), possibly because MDpocket uses α-spheres rather than equidistant points. To determine if the volumes calculated using these four methods were even correlated, we first reduced the noise in the data using a simple moving average with a 40-point sample window. We then performed linear regressions to explore the relationships between these averaged POVME volumes and the averaged volumes obtained using PocketAnalyzerPCA, trj_cavity, and MDpocket, respectively. A two-tailed t-test was applied to the Pearson’s correlation coefficients to judge significance. The p-values were 0.46, 0.00, and 0.00 for POVME vs PocketAnalyzerPCA, trj_cavity, and MDpocket, respectively, suggesting that the correlations between POVME volumes and both trj_cavity and MDpocket volumes are statistically significant.

Future efforts will focus on expanding POVME analysis beyond simple volume and shape calculations. We intend to implement other pocket metrics (e.g., pocket surface-area calculations) and analysis tools (e.g., volume-based pharmacophore modeling).

**Execution Time.** The trajectory-based pocket calculations were also used to compare the execution times of each program (Table 2). All calculations were run on the same machine (2 Intel Xeon X5690 3.47Ghz processors, 6 CPU cores per processor, 2 threads per core = 24 threads total). On a single thread, POVME 2.0 is several orders of magnitude faster than its predecessor. When the convex-hull feature is disabled, POVME 2.0 is also faster than EPOSBP and PocketAnalyzerPCA, comparable to trj_cavity, and only slightly slower than MDpocket. We are exploring alternative methods for optimizing the optional convex-hull feature. Fortunately, the current POVME implementation is highly parallelized; when 24 threads are used rather than one, POVME 2.0 is substantially faster than all other packages tested, even with the convex-hull feature enabled.

**Program Input and Output.** POVME 2.0, trj_cavity, MDpocket, PocketAnalyzerPCA, and EPOSBP all output simple PDB file(s) that are easily visualized with other software packages. POVME 2.0 and MDpocket also output volumetric density maps in the DX format to make exploration of potentially druggable transient subpockets with varying opening frequencies simpler to interpret. Finally, EPOSBP and PocketAnalyzerPCA both have built-in features to cluster pocket shapes. Similarly, POVME output is easily clustered using utilities like the volume-overlap tool in Schrödinger’s Maestro suite.

POVME 2.0 accepts a multiframe PDB file as input. As the PDB format is general purpose and universally accepted, POVME is independent of any specific simulation package or force field. Nevertheless, PDB trajectories can become quite large, so being able to read binary formats specific to selected simulation software packages would also be useful. Indeed, trj_cavity can be compiled to read binary trajectories saved in the Gromacs format. Future implementations of POVME may include support for additional formats, though we do wish to avoid limiting our software to a specific simulation engine. We note that POVME trajectories do not include water molecules, substantially cutting down on the file size even when the PDB format is used. Additionally, freely available software can easily convert binary formats to PDB. A helpful tutorial is included in the Supporting Information that describes how to perform this conversion using VMD (Text S1).

**CONCLUSION**

POVME 2.0 is a much improved version of our popular algorithm for characterizing the volumes and shapes of macromolecular (e.g., protein) binding pockets. Version 2.0 implements a number of enhancements, including speed improvements due to *numpy/scipy* integration and the optional use of multiple processors; better accuracy due to an optional convex-hull implementation; additional volumetric-analysis tools (i.e., volumetric density maps); and a graphical user interface that improves usability.

Although pocket-shape and volumetric analyses are not novel, factors such as the high computational cost of most...
algorithms have discouraged widespread adoption. POVME 2.0 significantly reduces the amount of time required, allowing users to more rapidly analyze large ensembles of pocket shapes derived from multiple experimental structures or simulation methods, such as MD. The added volumetric-density-map analysis feature provides a pocket-centric view of receptor flexibility with potentially useful drug-discovery applications. Indeed, others have shown that docking into structurally distinct binding pockets can lead to enhanced hit rates and chemical diversity.55–58

To demonstrate how POVME 2.0 can provide pharmacologically relevant information about pocket flexibility, we used it to analyze the dynamics of an essential, ATP-binding component of the T. brucei editosome, REL1.76,77 Given that ATP-binding pockets are ubiquitous, small-molecule inhibitors that bind exclusively to the primary REL1 pocket may also bind to the ATP pockets of critical human enzymes, leading to undesirable side effects. Consequently, we considered a unique secondary binding pocket that is transiently accessible from the primary REL1 ATP-binding pocket. POVME suggests this transient pocket assumes an open conformation roughly 25% of the time. Identifying less promiscuous REL1 inhibitors that exploit this unique pocket is an important component of our ongoing efforts to target this crucial enzyme.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information
The Supporting Information contains two files. The first contains Figures S1 and S2. Figure S1 shows the POVME volumetric density maps generated when the REL1 trajectory was aligned by all active-site atoms and the atoms of the bound ligand. Figure S2 shows the pocket volumes calculated over the course of a REL1 molecular dynamics simulation, using several different software packages. The second file, Text S1, contains a tutorial that shows how VMD can be used to align a trajectory. The same tutorial also shows how to save a trajectory in the multiframe PDB format for subsequent POVME analysis. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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Notes
The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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