Virtual screening identifies novel high-affinity σ_1 receptor ligands

Daniel A. Greenfield*, Hayden R. Schmidt*, Piotr Sliz, and Andrew C. Kruse

Abstract:

The σ_1 receptor is a transmembrane protein implicated in several pathophysiological conditions,

including neurodegenerative disease[1], drug addiction[2], cancer[3], and pain[4]. However, there are no

high-throughput functional assays for σ_1 receptor drug discovery. Here, we assessed high-

throughput structure-based computational docking for discovery of novel ligands of the σ_1

receptor. We screened a library of over 6 million compounds using the Schrödinger Glide

package, followed by experimental characterization of top-scoring candidates. 77% of tested

candidates bound σ_1 with high affinity (10-550 nM). These include compounds with high

selectivity for the σ_1 receptor compared to the genetically unrelated but pharmacologically

similar σ_2 receptor, as well as compounds with substantial cross-reactivity between the two

receptors. These results establish structure-based virtual screening as a highly effective platform

for σ_1 receptor ligand discovery.

Main text:

The σ_1 receptor is an enigmatic intracellular membrane protein that is an active drug

target for the treatment of myriad conditions including neurodegenerative disease[1], pain[4],

cancer[3], and drug abuse[2]. The receptor binds a chemically diverse set of ligands with high

affinity, including many compounds that are designed to bind to other receptors, such as

antidepressants, antipsychotics, and NMDA receptor ligands, among others[5]. Ligands targeting

the σ_1 receptor are in clinical trials for treatment of neuropathic pain[6], ischemic stroke[7], and

Alzheimer's disease[8]. The σ_1 receptor is expressed throughout the human body but is most

highly expressed in the nervous system[5]. It is genetically unique, with no appreciable sequence

similarity to any other gene in the human genome[5]. Even the pharmacologically similar σ_2

receptor is unrelated in sequence, despite its similar ligand affinity profile[9,10].

Despite decades of study, structural data for the σ_1 receptor have only recently become

available[11]. The receptor crystallized as a homotrimer, though it is known to exist in multiple

oligomeric states[12-14]. Each monomer has an occluded ligand binding site containing Glu172 and

Asp126[11], which are essential for ligand binding[15]. The first crystal structure of the human σ_1

receptor was solved with the receptor in complex with PD144418 at 2.5 Å resolution (PDB:

5HK1). Four other receptor-ligand complexes with ligands 4-IBP, haloperidol, NE-100, and (+)-

pentazocine have been reported at crystallographic resolutions of 2.8-3.1 Å[11,16]. As is typical of

σ_1 receptor ligands, these co-crystallized ligands are structurally divergent from one another.

Nonetheless, all five σ_1 receptor-ligand complexes solved to date share some key features, the

most notable of which is an essential electrostatic interaction between a basic amine moiety in

the ligand and the side chain of receptor residue Glu172[11,16]. Given this constraint, we

hypothesized that the σ_1 receptor would be an ideal candidate for *in silico* ligand screening.

In silico screening uses software to estimate ligand binding energy, enabling efficient

prioritization of compounds while sampling a larger chemical space than is readily accessible to

experimental methods[17]. Schrödinger's Drug Discovery Platform Glide module[18,19] is a widely

used ligand docking software and is used as the preferred docking system by the structural

biology groups affiliated with SBGrid[20]. Glide converges upon optimally docked compounds by

sampling the ligand in various states and orientations within the user-defined binding site[18,19].

Candidate ligands that pass through initial space screens (*i.e.*, those that are sterically capable of

fitting into the target site), are scored at increasing precision levels until the final Glide Score is

calculated, with lower Glide Scores indicating a higher predicted binding affinity[19]. Glide

docking has three precision levels, High Throughput Virtual Screening (HTVS), Standard

Precision (SP), and Extra Precision (XP). HTVS is a less stringent method that eliminates ligands

from the sample pool if their volume exceeds the binding site volume. SP and XP are slower,

more intensive algorithms that predict binding chemistry. In the case of the σ_1 receptor, where no

high-throughput biological assays are available, computational docking is potentially useful for

identifying novel compounds that are chemically dissimilar to both one another and to known σ_1

receptor ligands.

Prior to docking experiments, a grid for Glide docking was established as a 10 Å cube

centered between the carboxylates of Glu172 and Asp126. In pilot docking test, this resulted in

known binders occupying a similar pose within the orthosteric site to that observed in crystal

structures. Enrichment plots were calculated to assess docking paradigms, following previously

reported approaches[17,21]. To compare enrichment with different approaches, we used 32

conformers of 15 known binders and 100,000 randomly selected eMolecules compounds of

similar molecular weight into a test subset (see Methods). The enrichment plots generated over

this subset confirmed that we were adequately predicting the binding mode of σ_1 ligands in the

docking protocol. The docking algorithm recovered (scored) over 90% of known binders, with a

high proportion of the known binders being in the top 10% of scored compounds. Additionally,

through visual confirmation of Glide successfully docking the co-crystallized ligand in a similar

configuration as it is bound (Figure 2A), the docking protocol demonstrated potential predictive

value.

Superimposition of the enrichment plots generated at the varying precision levels

demonstrated consistently higher recovery rates of known binders in flexible docking compared

to rigid docking. Extra precision flexible docking yielded the highest recovery rate (number of

known binders scored/total number of binders in subset tested) of known binders at 90.63%,

followed by standard precision flexible docking at just under 81.25%, extra precision standard

docking at 43.75%, and standard precision rigid docking at just below 33.33%. However,

flexible SP docking appeared better at recovering known binders early in the ranked database. It

is interesting that SP recovered more known binders quickly, as XP is considered to be the most

rigorous scoring paradigm, thus it would have been reasonable to see XP recover more known

binders overall and recover more in the top 10% of the tested ligands. The relationship between

SP and XP flexible and rigid docking is shown in Figure 2B.

In the docking experiment, compounds were selected from a starting library of over 6

million compounds through four sequential iterations of the docking protocol with increasing

precision levels. Approximately1.6 million compounds passed through high-throughput virtual

screening (HTVS) and went into SP, 71189 compounds from SP to XP, and 2625 compounds

from XP to Flexible XP docking (see Figure 2C). From HTVS to SP all ligands that scored better

than the re-docked co-crystallized ligand were selected. For the transition from SP to XP, the

mean of all output scores in SP was found and all scores beyond 2 standard deviations from that

mean were selected, and for all other precision levels chose ligands further than 1 standard

deviation from the mean.

K-means clustering was applied to ligands based on volume occupied in binding site in

an attempt to select a unique set of ligands to experimentally validate. After collapsing many

sparse clusters, we found 3 main clusters with a total of 250 chemically and structurally diverse

compounds. After visual inspection of the docked structures, the top 100 compounds were

ranked based on glide score and the chemical plausibility of the docked pose. Of these, 17

representative compounds that were chemically divergent from one another and significantly

different from existing σ_1 receptor ligands were chosen for experimental assessment.

Among compounds purchased, 9 passed LC/MS inspection for purity and expected

molecular weight and were characterized further (Figures S1 and S2). Figure S3 depicts the

results from our initial screen of the compounds. Of the 9 compounds experimentally tested, 7

bound the σ_1 receptor with <1 μM affinity (Table 1 and Figure S3B). Compound **2** bound with

10 nM affinity (Table 1). Compounds **3**, **4**, **5** and **9** also bound with < 100 nM affinity, while

compounds **6** and **8** bound with 132 and 550 nM affinity respectively.

Though the σ_1 and σ_2 receptors are genetically unrelated, they have very similar

pharmacological profiles and development of selective compounds can be challenging[22]. We

reasoned that our structure-guided approach and the chemical diversity of our ligands might

allow the discovery of subtype-selective probes. The 9 compounds tested for σ_1 receptor binding

were also tested for cross-reactivity with the σ_2 receptor (Figures S3C and S3D, Table 1). Of the

compounds that bound well to σ_1 receptor, only compound **2** bound σ_2 with <100 nM affinity

(Table 1). The other compounds did not bind as well to σ_2 in the initial screen as they did to σ_1,

with most exhibiting >1 μM affinity for the σ_2 receptor.

To our knowledge, this work represents the first purely structure-based virtual screen on

the σ_1 receptor without the use of additional pharmacophore modeling. We found several ligands

that bound with high affinity and had good selectivity for the σ_1 receptor over the

pharmacologically similar σ_2 receptor. This work demonstrates that the σ_1 receptor is highly

amenable to *in silico* structure-based drug discovery, and that such approaches represent a viable

way to identify novel σ_1 receptor ligands at relatively low cost.

The σ_1 receptor is an especially interesting target for virtual screening because of its

potential therapeutic relevance and the lack of functional assays suited to experimental high-

throughput screening. Previous work has identified the minimal chemical features of σ_1 ligands

to be a basic amine flanked by two hydrophobic regions, one that is 6-10 Å and another that is

2.5-3.9 Å[23]. Later work has refined this model, but the basic elements have remained

unchanged[24-27].

There have been previous attempts to design and discover σ_1 receptor ligands through

computational pharmacophore modeling[24,25]. These studies found high-affinity binders but were

limited to the discovery of compounds with very similar chemical features to reference ligands.

In another effort, a computationally predicted structural model of the σ_1 receptor was developed

and used for ligand screening[28]. However, this model showed little similarity to the

experimentally determined σ_1 receptor structure, and it only led to the identification of

compounds with poorer affinity than that of a reference ligand, indicating that it offered little if

any value in guiding ligand discovery.

More recent efforts have combined structural information from the σ_1 receptor crystal

structure with pharmacophore modelling or quantitative structure-affinity relationship (QSAR)

approaches[26,27]. One recent report used the crystal structure of the σ_1 receptor bound to

PD144418 (PDB ID: 5HK1) to align 180 σ_1 receptor antagonists and develop a 3D-QSAR model

for σ_1 antagonists[26]. This model was able to accurately predict ligands that would bind the σ_1

receptor with high affinity from the Drugbank Database of FDA approved drugs, with the top

hits binding the receptor with 58 nM and 160 nM affinity[26]. Similarly, another recent study used

the same crystal structure to develop a predictive pharmacophore model, which was able to

accurately predict binders from a set of 3,707,672 conformers of 25,676 compounds previously

screened for σ_1 receptor affinity[27]. Interestingly, this study found that the pharmacophore model

derived from the σ_1 crystal structure was more accurate for this set of compounds than docking

into the structure directly using LibDock[27,29,30]. Neither of these models were used to identify

uncharacterized compounds, though some of the FDA approved drugs were not known to bind

σ_1 receptor previously[26,27].

Here, we show that Schrödinger Glide docking allows for the identification of novel σ_1

receptor ligands. Starting with a computational library of over 6 million compounds, we were

able to select only 9 for experimental characterization and still found 7 binders with sub-

micromolar affinity, corresponding to a success rate of approximately 77%. This compares

favorably to other docking studies. Of 54 recent docking studies, only 8 had higher hit rates and

only 3 found compounds with better affinity than the best hit of 10 nM reported here, despite the

use of significantly larger screening libraries in some cases[31]. This may be because the σ_1

receptor is particularly well suited to computational docking. Most high-affinity ligands found to

date bind with only a single electrostatic interaction between a primary amine and Glu172, and

affinity is likely driven largely by hydrophobic interactions and steric constraints. This relatively

simple binding mode may be easier to accurately predict by docking than more complex ones.

Indeed, constraining ligands to be docked near Glu172 and Asp126 was sufficient to successfully

find binders, without requiring a more complex pharmacophore model.

In addition to having high affinity for the σ_1 receptor, most compounds tested here

exhibited high selectivity for the σ_1 receptor over the pharmacologically similar σ_2 receptor. Few

compounds bound to σ_2 with sub-micromolar affinity, and almost all tested compounds had

higher affinity for the σ_1 receptor than the σ_2 receptor. For example, Compound **5** exhibited 81

nM affinity for the σ_1 receptor yet bound with >10 µM affinity to the σ_2 receptor. In contrast,

compounds 2 and 6 showed high affinity for both σ_1 and the σ_2 receptor, indicating that non-

selective ligands can also be identified by virtual screening even against just one receptor type.

While we focused here on the σ_1 receptor, relatively few highly σ_2 selective compounds are

currently available. The σ_2 structure may allow identification of highly σ_2-selective ligands using

similar approaches to those described here, further expanding the suite of molecular tools

available for σ receptor research.

Materials and Methods

Computational Methods

Prior to docking, the σ_1 receptor structure (PDB ID: 5HK1) was put through the Protein

Preparation Protocol[32]. This added hydrogens, removed co-crystallized water molecules,

enumerated bond orders, optimized the receptor's hydrogen bond network, and ran a restrained

minimization to alleviate backbone clashes within the receptor backbone. Additionally, Asp126

was protonated in our docking screens on the basis of its apparent hydrogen bond with Glu172 in

the crystal structure of the receptor[11].

The eMolecules ligand library was prepared using the Ligand Preparation Protocol[32] to

generate three-dimensional geometries, assign proper bond orders, and generate accessible

tautomer and ionization states for the ligands prior to virtual screening[33].

The grid generation protocol in Glide Docking defines the target area (binding site) for

each ligand to be tested within during the docking program. This was centered between the

carboxylates of Glu172 and Asp126 and was kept constant as the docking precision was

increased. Docking began with high throughput virtual screening (HTVS), in which all

compounds in the eMolecules library were tested. All ligands with Glide scores more favorable
than the score of the re-docked co-crystallized ligand PD144418 were put through standard
precision screening (SP). All compounds scoring better than 1 standard deviation from the mean
were tested in extra precision (XP), and the top 10% of XP ligands were put through flexible XP
docking, where the receptor backbone was given freedom to shift in order to fit ligands to the
orthosteric site.

To preform enrichment analysis similar to previous approaches[34], a set of 15 known σ_1
receptor binders were collected from the PDSP Ki Database[35] and put through the ligand
preparation protocol. These ligands were then tested in varying precision levels after being
merged with a set of 100,000 eMolecules ligands of similar weight to the known binders. The
average molecular weight of the known binders taken from the PDSP Ki Database is 351.07
g/mol, and the sample of ligands that were selected for enrichment with known binders had
molecular weights between 300 and 400 g/mol in an attempt to force Glide to focus on
differences in chemical composition rather than physicochemical descriptors.
Schrodinger Drug Discovery Platform installation was supported by SBGrid Consortium and all
data was generated and processed on SBGrid servers.[20]

Recombinant receptor expression and preparation of *Sf*9 cell membranes

Membranes were prepared from *Sf*9 insect cells infected with baculovirus encoding either
recombinant σ_1 or σ_2 receptor, using a protocol adapted from that of Vilner et al., as previously
described[10,11,22]. Briefly, either the σ_1 receptor or σ_2 receptor, which was recently identified as
TMEM97[10], were expressed in Sf9 cells using the pFastBac baculovirus expression system. Cells
were lysed by osmotic shock and membrane fractions were separated by repeated centrifugation
and washing steps, followed by dounce homogenization. Total protein content was quantified
using the BioRad DC protein assay, and membranes were stored in 100 μL aliquots at a
concentration of 3-10 mg/mL at -80 °C until use.

Screening docking hits for σ_1 and σ_2 receptor binding

Membrane radioligand binding assays were performed as described with slight
modifications[10,11,36]. All compounds were diluted to 10 μM in 50 mM Tris pH 8.0. Membrane

samples were also diluted and homogenized in 50 mM Tris pH 8.0 using a needle and syringe. A

total of 2.5 μg of protein was added to each well of a 96-well block in a final volume of 100 μL,

which also contained 1 μM of the compound and 10 nM of the appropriate radioligand (^{3}H (+)-

pentazocine for the σ_1 receptor, and ^{3}H DTG for the σ_2 receptor). All reactions were performed

in triplicate. Haloperidol was used as a positive control, and buffer alone served as a negative

control. Samples were incubated at room temperature with shaking for 1.5 h. The reaction was

then terminated and samples were then applied to glass fiber filters (Merck Millipore) using a

Brandel cell harvester. Filters were soaked with 0.3% (w/v) polyethylimine prior to use. After

harvesting, filters were soaked overnight in scintillation vials containing 5 mL of Cytoscint

scintillation fluid and measured on a Beckman Coulter LS 6500 scintillation counter.

Saturation binding in *Sf*9 cell membranes.

^{3}H (+)-pentazocine and ^{3}H DTG saturation binding to *Sf*9 membranes respectively

expressing σ_1 or σ_2 receptor were determined using a saturation binding assay similar to that

described by Chu and Ruoho[36],which we have described previously[10,11]. The membranes (2.5 μg

and 0.5 μg total protein per reaction for σ_1 and σ_2 expressing membranes, respectively) were

incubated in a 100 μL reaction buffered with 50 mM Tris pH 8.0, containing 0-300 nM ^{3}H (+)-

pentazocine for σ_1 binding, or 0-300 nM ^{3}H DTG for σ_2 receptor binding. In the σ_2 receptor

binding assay, concentrations of 100 and 300 nM DTG were achieved by isotopic dilution to

minimize ^{3}H DTG expenditure. For both receptors, nonspecific binding was assayed by parallel

reactions containing 2 μM haloperidol. Reactions were incubated at 37 °C for 1.5 h and then

terminated, filtered, and measured as for the single-point binding described previously. All

reactions were performed in triplicate in a 96-well block. K_D values were calculated using non-

linear regression tools in Graphpad Prism.

Competition binding assays in *Sf*9 membranes.

^{3}H (+)-pentazocine or ^{3}H DTG competition curves testing the binding the docked

compounds to the σ_1 and σ_2 receptors respectively, were performed similarly to the protocol

described by Chu and Ruoho[36],with slight modifications we have used previously[10,11]. Briefly,

*Sf*9 insect membranes overexpressing either σ_1 receptor (2.5 μg of total protein per reaction) or

σ_2 receptor (0.5 -- 2.5 μg total protein per reaction) were incubated in a 100 μL reaction buffered

with 50 mM Tris pH 8.0, with the appropriate radioligand at a 10 nM concentration and eight

competing cold compound concentrations ranging from 10 pM – 100 μM. Reactions were

incubated at 37 °C for 1.5 h to reach equilibrium, and then terminated by filtration as described

previously. K_i values were computed by directly fitting the data and using the experimentally

determined probe K_D to calculate a K_i value, using the Graphpad Prism software. This process

implicitly uses a Cheng-Prusoff correction, so no secondary correction was applied.

LC/MS analysis of compound purity

Purchased compounds were analyzed on an Agilent QTOF 6530. Samples were separated

by reverse-phase HPLC (Agilent Extend C18 column 1.8 μM, 50 x 2.1 mm) at a flow rate of 0.3

mL min^{-1} in H_2O with 0.1% formic acid for 15 min followed by a 5 min elution in 10-100%

acetonitrile. Data were analyzed using Agilent MassHunter Quantitative Analysis Software.

HRMS (ESI+) *m/z* calcd for $C_{20}H_{31}N_3O$ [M + H] 342.2540, found 342.2545 (error 1.5 ppm);

HRMS (ESI+) *m/z* calcd for $C_{20}H_{26}N_2O$ [M + H] 311.2118, found 311.2117 (error 0.3 ppm);

HRMS (ESI+) *m/z* calcd for $C_{18}H_{22}N_4OS$ [M + H] 343.1587, found 343.1587 (error <0.3 ppm);

HRMS (ESI+) *m/z* calcd for $C_{18}H_{15}N_2OF_3$ [M + H] 333.1209, found 333.1231 (error 6.6 ppm);

HRMS (ESI+) *m/z* calcd for $C_{19}H_{21}N_3O$ [M + H] 308.1757, found 308.1764 (error 2.3 ppm);

HRMS (ESI+) *m/z* calcd for $C_{18}H_{19}N_3OClF$ [M + H] 348.1273, found 348.1279 (error 1.7 ppm);

HRMS (ESI+) *m/z* calcd for $C_{22}H_{23}N_3O$ [M + H] 346.1914, found 346.1912 (error 0.6 ppm);

HRMS (ESI+) *m/z* calcd for $C_{19}H_{19}N_2OF_3$ [M + H] 349.1522, found 349.1538 (error 4.6 ppm);

HRMS (ESI+) *m/z* calcd for $C_{20}H_{19}N_2OF_3$ [M + H] 361.1522, found 361.1545 (error 6.4 ppm).

Author Information:

Supporting Information: Binding data, Compounds tested in binding assays, eMolecules ligand

library information, Compound similarity

Corresponding Author Information: Andrew C. Kruse, Department of Biological Chemistry and

Molecular Pharmacology, Blavatnik Institute, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA 02115,

andrew_kruse@hms.harvard.edu

Present/Current Author Addresses:

Daniel A. Greenfield - Graduate Student, Harvard Biophysics PhD Program, Boston, MA 02115,

USA. dgreenfield@g.harvard.edu

Hayden R. Schmidt - Department of Biological Chemistry & Molecular Pharmacology, Harvard

Medical School, Boston, MA 02115, USA. haydenrschmidt92@gmail.com

Present address: Center for Integrative Genomics, Génopode Building, Faculty of Biology and

Medicine, University of Lausanne, CH-1015, Lausanne, Switzerland.

Piotr Sliz - Computational Health Informatics Program (CHIP), Boston Children's Hospital,

Boston, MA, USA and Department of Biological Chemistry and Molecular Pharmacology,

Blavatnik Institute, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA. Electronic address:

piotr.sliz@childrens.harvard.edu.

Author Contributions

D.A.G. designed and carried out computational docking and analysis of results, and together

with H.R.S. performed radioligand binding assays and associated data analysis. H.R.S.

conducted LC-MS for assessment of compound purity. P.S. Co-designed the computational

pipeline and co-supervised the docking experiments. A.C.K. supervised the work and together

with D.A.G. and H.R.S. wrote the manuscript.

Acknowledgements:

We thank Dr. Matthew Henke and the Harvard Medical School Analytical Chemistry core, and

Dr. Meredith Skiba for assistance with LC/MS. This work was supported by NIH grant

R01GM119185 (A.C.K.), and grant number FG-2017-9226 from the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation

(A.C.K.). H.R.S is supported by an NSF Graduate Research Fellowship DGE1745303. D.A.G is

supported by BCMP Scholars Internship Program and Molecular Biophysics Training Grant

NIGMS T32 GM008313.

Abbreviations Used: NMDA, N-methyl-D-aspartate; ECFP, Extended Connectivity Fingerprints;

HTVS, High Throughput Virtual Screening; SP, Standard Precision Virtual Screening; XP, Extra

Precision Virtual Screening; 4-IBP, N-(benzylpiperidin-4yl)-4-iodobenzamide; PD144418,

1,2,3,6-tetrahydro-5-[3-(4-methylphenyl)-5-isoxazolyl]-1-propylpyridine; NE-100, *N*, *N*-

dipropyl-2-[4-methoxy-3-(2-phenylethoxy)phenyl]-ehthylamine monohydrochloride; DTG, 1,3-

Di-(2-tolyl)guanidine

References:

Nguyen, L. *et al.* Role of sigma-1 receptors in neurodegenerative diseases. *J Pharmacol Sci* **127**, 17-29, doi:10.1016/j.jphs.2014.12.005 (2015).

Katz, J. L., Hong, W. C., Hiranita, T. & Su, T. P. A role for sigma receptors in stimulant self-administration and addiction. *Behav Pharmacol* **27**, 100-115, doi:10.1097/FBP.0000000000000209 (2016).

Kim, F. J. & Maher, C. M. Sigma1 Pharmacology in the Context of Cancer. *Handb Exp Pharmacol* **244**, 237-308, doi:10.1007/164_2017_38 (2017).

Bruna, J. & Velasco, R. Sigma-1 receptor: a new player in neuroprotection against chemotherapy-induced peripheral neuropathy. *Neural Regen Res* **13**, 775-778, doi:10.4103/1673-5374.232459 (2018).

Walker, J. M. *et al.* Sigma receptors: biology and function. *Pharmacol Rev* **42**, 355-402 (1990).

Bruna, J. *et al.* Efficacy of a Novel Sigma-1 Receptor Antagonist for Oxaliplatin-Induced Neuropathy: A Randomized, Double-Blind, Placebo-Controlled Phase IIa Clinical Trial. *Neurotherapeutics* **15**, 178-189, doi:10.1007/s13311-017-0572-5 (2018).

Urfer, R. *et al.* Phase II trial of the Sigma-1 receptor agonist cutamesine (SA4503) for recovery enhancement after acute ischemic stroke. *Stroke* **45**, 3304-3310, doi:10.1161/STROKEAHA.114.005835 (2014).

(Anavex Life Sciences Corp., 2018).

Hanner, M. *et al.* Purification, molecular cloning, and expression of the mammalian sigma1-binding site. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **93**, 8072-8077 (1996).

Alon, A. *et al.* Identification of the gene that codes for the sigma2 receptor. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **114**, 7160-7165, doi:10.1073/pnas.1705154114 (2017).

Schmidt, H. R. *et al.* Crystal structure of the human sigma1 receptor. *Nature* **532**, 527-530, doi:10.1038/nature17391 (2016).

Gromek, K. A. *et al.* The oligomeric states of the purified sigma-1 receptor are stabilized by ligands. *J Biol Chem* **289**, 20333-20344, doi:10.1074/jbc.M113.537993 (2014).

Mishra, A. K. *et al.* The sigma-1 receptors are present in monomeric and oligomeric forms in living cells in the presence and absence of ligands. *Biochem J* **466**, 263-271, doi:10.1042/BJ20141321 (2015).

Yano H, B. A., Xu M, Guthrie DA, Schneck SN, Abramyan AM, Fant AD, Hong WC, Newman AH, Shi L. Pharmacological profiling of sigma 1 receptor ligands by novel receptor homomer assays. *Neuropharmacology* **133**, 264-275 (2018).

Seth, P. *et al.* Expression pattern of the type 1 sigma receptor in the brain and identity of critical anionic amino acid residues in the ligand-binding domain of the receptor. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1540**, 59-67 (2001).

Schmidt, H. R., Betz, R. M., Dror, R. O. & Kruse, A. C. Structural basis for sigma1 receptor ligand recognition. *Nat Struct Mol Biol* **25**, 981-987, doi:10.1038/s41594-018-0137-2 (2018).

Shoichet, B. Virtual screening of chemical libraries. *Nature*, 862-865 (2004).

Friesner, R. A. B., J. L.; Murphy, R. B.; Halgren, T. A.; Klicic, J. J.; Mainz, D. T.; Repasky, M. P.; Knoll, E. H.; Shaw, D. E.; Shelley, M.; Perry, J. K.; Francis, P.; Shenkin, P. S. Glide: A New Approach for Rapid, Accurate Docking and Scoring. 1. Method and Assessment of Docking Accuracy *J. Med. Chem.* **47**, 1739–1749 (2004).

363	19	Friesner, R. A. M., R. B.; Repasky, M. P.; Frye, L. L.; Greenwood, J. R.; Halgren,T. A.;
364		Sanschagrin, P. C.; Mainz, D. T. Extra Precision Glide: Docking and Scoring
365		Incorporating a Model of Hydrophobic Enclosure for Protein-Ligand Complexes. *J. Med.*
366		*Chem.* **49**, 6177–6196 (2006).
367	20	Morin, A. *et al.* Collaboration gets the most out of software. *Elife* **2**, e01456,
368		doi:10.7554/eLife.01456 (2013).
369	21	Shoichet, B. K. & Kobilka, B. K. Structure-based drug screening for G-protein-coupled
370		receptors. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* **33**, 268-272, doi:10.1016/j.tips.2012.03.007 (2012).
371	22	Vilner, B. J., John, C. S. & Bowen, W. D. Sigma-1 and sigma-2 receptors are expressed
372		in a wide variety of human and rodent tumor cell lines. *Cancer Res* **55**, 408-413 (1995).
373	23	Glennon, R. Pharmacophore identification for sigma-1 (sigma1) receptor binding:
374		application of the "deconstruction-reconstruction-elaboration" approach. *Mini Rev Med*
375		*Chem* **5**, 927-940 (2005).
376	24	Laggner, C. *et al.* Discovery of high-affinity ligands of sigma1 receptor, ERG2, and
377		emopamil binding protein by pharmacophore modeling and virtual screening. *J Med*
378		*Chem* **48**, 4754-4764, doi:10.1021/jm049073+ (2005).
379	25	Reutlinger, M., Rodrigues, T., Schneider, P. & Schneider, G. Multi-objective molecular
380		de novo design by adaptive fragment prioritization. *Angew Chem Int Ed Engl* **53**, 4244-
381		4248, doi:10.1002/anie.201310864 (2014).
382	26	Peng Y, D. H., Welsh WJ. Comprehensive 3D-QSAR Model Predicts Binding Affinity of
383		Structurally Diverse Sigma 1 Receptor Ligands. *J. Chem. Inf. Model.* **59**, 486-497 (2018).
384	27	Pascual R., A. C., Plata-Salamán C., Vela J.M. A New Pharmacophore Model for the
385		Design of Sigma-1 Ligands Validated on a Large Experimental Dataset. *Froniters in*
386		*Pharmacology*, doi:10.3389/fphar.2019.00519 (2019).
387	28	Laurini, E. *et al.* Homology Model and Docking-Based Virtual Screening for Ligands of
388		the sigma1 Receptor. *ACS Med Chem Lett* **2**, 834-839, doi:10.1021/ml2001505 (2011).
389	29	Diller, D. J. & Merz, K. M., Jr. High throughput docking for library design and library
390		prioritization. *Proteins* **43**, 113-124 (2001).
391	30	Rao, S. N., Head, M. S., Kulkarni, A. & LaLonde, J. M. Validation studies of the site-
392		directed docking program LibDock. *J Chem Inf Model* **47**, 2159-2171,
393		doi:10.1021/ci6004299 (2007).
394	31	Irwin, J. J. & Shoichet, B. K. Docking Screens for Novel Ligands Conferring New
395		Biology. *J Med Chem* **59**, 4103-4120, doi:10.1021/acs.jmedchem.5b02008 (2016).
396	32	Sastry, G. M., Adzhigirey, M., Day, T., Annabhimoju, R. & Sherman, W. Protein and
397		ligand preparation: parameters, protocols, and influence on virtual screening enrichments.
398		*J Comput Aided Mol Des* **27**, 221-234, doi:10.1007/s10822-013-9644-8 (2013).
399	33	Halgren, T. A. M., R. B.; Friesner, R. A.; Beard, H. S.; Frye, L. L.; Pollard, W. T.; Banks,
400		J. L., . Glide: A New Approach for Rapid, Accurate Docking and Scoring. 2. Enrichment
401		Factors in Database Screening *J. Med. Chem.* **47**, 1750–1759 (2004).
402	34	Huang, N., Shoichet, B. K. & Irwin, J. J. Benchmarking sets for molecular docking. *J*
403		*Med Chem* **49**, 6789-6801, doi:10.1021/jm0608356 (2006).
404	35	Roth B.L., L. E., Patel S., Kroeze W.K. The Multiplicity of Serotonin Receptors:
405		Uselessly Diverse Molecules or an Embarrassment of Riches? *Neuroscientist* **6**, 252-262
406		(2000).
407	36	Chu, U. B. & Ruoho, A. E. Biochemical Pharmacology of the Sigma-1 Receptor. *Mol*
408		*Pharmacol* **89**, 142-153, doi:10.1124/mol.115.101170 (2016).