A validated and interpretable predictive model of cruzain inhibitors

Jose G. Rosas-Jimenez^{1,2}, Marco A. Garcia-Revilla¹, Abraham Madariaga-Mazon², Karina Martinez-Mayorga^{2*},

1 Departamento de Quimica, Division de Ciencias Naturales y Exactas, Universidad de Guanajuato, Guanajuato, Mexico

2 Instituto de Quimica, Universidad Nacional Autonoma de Mexico, Ciudad de Mexico, Mexico

* kmtzm@unam.mx

Abstract

Chagas disease affects 8–11 million people worldwide, most of them living in Latin America. Moreover, migratory phenomenon have spread the infection beyond endemic areas. Efforts for the development of new pharmacological therapies are paramount, as the pharmacological profile of the two marketed drugs currently available, nifurtimox and benznidazole, needs to be improved. Cruzain, a parasitic cysteine protease, is one of the most attractive biological targets due to its roles in parasite survival and immune evasion. In this work, we generated Quantitative Structure-Activity Relationship linear models for the prediction of pIC₅₀ values of cruzain inhibitors. The statistical parameters for internal and external validation indicate high predictability with a cross-validated correlation coefficient of $q_{ev}^2 = 0.77$ and an external correlation coefficient of $r_{ex}^2 = 0.71$. The applicability domain is quantitatively defined, according to QSAR good practices, using the leverage method. A qualitative interpretation of the model is provided based on protein-ligand interactions obtained from docking studies and structural information codified in the molecular descriptors relevant to the QSAR

model. The model described in this work will be valuable for the discovery of novel cruzain inhibitors.

Author summary

Chagas disease is a major health problem in Latin America. The disease involves a long-lasting silent phase that usually culminates in serious or fatal heart damage. Despite its prevalence, there are only two antichagas approved drugs available. Despite these drugs have been in the market for more than 50 years, significant undesirable side effects and modest effectiveness in the chronic phase are prevalent. The need of new drugs to treat this disease is evident. Cruzain is a vital protein for the survival of *Trypanosoma cruzi*, the parasite causative of Chagas disease. Inhibition of this species-specific protein has been associated with improvements in pharmacological effects in animal models. Thus, blocking the activity of cruzain is an attractive approach for the development of antichagas agents. In this work, we present a validated mathematical model capable of predicting the cruzain inhibition value of a molecule from its chemical structure. This model can contribute to the identification of potential pharmacological alternatives against Chagas disease.

Introduction

Chagas Disease affects 8 - 11 million people in 21 Latin American countries, there is an estimation of 70 - 150 million people at risk of infection [1,2]. Migration phenomenon have contributed to the spread of the parasite into non-endemic areas such as the United States, Europe, New Zealand, and Australia [1]. Chagas disease is a vector-borne parasitic infection caused by *Trypanosoma cruzi* and it is transmitted by the three main genera of triatomine bug, *Triatoma, Rhodnius*, and *Panstrongylus*. World Health Organization has recognized this infection as a Neglected Tropical Disease (NTD) because of its persistence in developing countries, being a major economic and social problem in these regions, and one of the main causes of premature death for heart failure [2–4]. It was previously reported that this disease causes an estimated loss of 752 000 working days in southern American countries [4], which implies an economic burden of about US\$1.2 billion in productivity. Globally, this parasitic infection has an 13 estimated annual cost of \$627.46 million, and 10% of this affects non-endemic 14 countries [4]. Currently, there are only two approved drugs for the treatment of Chagas 15 Disease: Nifurtimox (NFX) and Benznidazole (BZ). Both NFX and BZ have similar efficacy during the acute phase of infection, with 88 - 100 % of negative parasite 17 detection after treatment with NFX and up to 80 % for BZ [5]. However, in the chronic 18 phase, the rate of negative tests for the disease after treatment falls to 7 - 8 % [5], and 19 there are significant side effects, including anorexia, weight loss, paresthesia, nausea, 20 and vomiting, among others [3,5]. Recent therapeutic research is focused on specific 21 biological targets, which include cysteine proteases, enzymes in trypanothione 22 metabolism, enzymes in ergosterol biosynthesis and the kinetoplastid proteasome [5]. 23

Cruzain is a cathepsin L-like cysteine protease present in all stages of the parasite 24 life cycle. It plays significant roles in the trypanosomal growth, survival and evasion 25 from the host immune response. Plasma membrane-anchored cruzain degrades the Fc 26 fraction of antibodies, overcoming the classic path of complement activation [3,6]. In the amastigotic intracellular stage, this cysteine protease degrades transcription factors, such as NFkB and thus prevents the activation of macrophages [3]. Cruzain generates the bloodstream pro-inflammatory peptide Lys-bradykinin, which activates host 30 immune cells, promoting the parasite uptake and spread by phagocytosis [6]. The use of 31 cruzain inhibitors in animal models has shown to be effective in clearing the parasite 32 burden, even in the chronic phase. The vinyl-sulphonic compound known as K777 was 33 one the first proof-of-concept studies about anti-tripanosomal activity of cruzain 34 inhibitors in animal models [7,8]. Parasite death induced by cruzain inhibitors is 35 attributed to the accumulation of a peptide precursor in the Golgi complex. Therefore, these in vitro and in vivo evidence have validated cruzain as a potential biological target for Chagas Disease [3,6]. A variety of chemotypes for cruzain inhibition have been explored through Structure-Activity Relationships (SAR) analysis, high-throughput screening and docking methods. The most potent molecules belong to 40 the vinyl-sulfone derivatives, oxadiazoles, nitrile-containing peptidomimetics, and 41 thiosemicarbazones, with a broad range of biological activities among chemical 42 families [2]. These molecules should be further optimized by increasing their selectivity 43 towards parasite vs human cathepsins, and they should be neutral at physiological pH, 44 to avoid concentration in lysosomes and off-target effects [2].

Quantitative Structure-Activity Relationships (QSAR) is a ligand-based approach that mathematically correlates structural properties of molecules with their biological 47 activity. QSAR modeling is widely used in drug discovery, especially in the prediction of enzyme inhibition and ADME-Tox properties [9]. In virtual screening, validated QSAR 49 models are used for prioritizing molecules for experimental evaluation. Carefully 50 validated QSAR models have rendered novel chemotypes and scaffolds with a desirable 51 biological activity [10]. The quality of a QSAR model can be evaluated using the OECD 52 principles [11]. These principles are a series of guidelines originally developed for the use 53 of QSAR modelling for regulatory purposes, but they became a valuable tool in the standard QSAR practice [11, 12]. In this work, we explored public databases of 55 structurally diverse cruzain inhibitors for the generation of QSAR predictive models of this biological endpoint. The structural properties, encoded by molecular descriptors, are rationalized in terms of protein-inhibitor interactions, using molecular docking, thus 58 providing a possible mechanistic interpretation of the model. This work will be useful in the search of cruzain inhibitors. 60

Materials and methods

Data compilation, curation, and pre-processing

Cruzain inhibitors were collected from the ChEMBL (release 24) database, searching by 63 molecular target using the keyword *cruzain*. Molecules annotated with IC_{50} values were 64 selected and duplicated or missing values compounds were eliminated. Finally, a 65 selection based on the same experimental protocol for IC_{50} determination was performed. The selected experimental procedure is a competitive fluorescence assay in 67 the presence of detergent, as reported by Babaoglu *et al* [13]. The detergent is used to avoid aggregation, which is the main cause of false positives in exploratory and high 69 throughput screens [2, 14]. Structural and biological information of the compounds was verified in the corresponding original publications, and when required, the discrepancies 71 were fixed. IC_{50} values were transformed to pIC_{50} . The final dataset consisted of 110 72 structurally diverse cruzain inhibitors. The 2D and 3D coordinates of these molecules 73

45

61

were calculated from their SMILES representation, using the wash tool in the software 74 Molecular Operating Environment 2019.01 (MOE) [15]. Lastly, the structures were energy minimized using the MMFF94x force field. The curated database is available in 76 S1 Table. 77

To summarize the chemical diversity in the set, the MACCSKeys fingerprints as 78 implemented in RDKit [16] package were calculated for every molecule. A clustering calculation was performed using the affinity propagation algorithm, with the Tanimoto 80 similarity matrix as affinity measure. The chemical structures for the representative 81 molecules in every cluster are presented below. 82

QSAR modeling

Descriptor calculation and feature selection

All molecular descriptors available in MOE were calculated, including topostructural and topochemical indices, subdivided Van der Waals surface areas, VolSurf potentials, 86 and physicochemical properties such as dipolar and hydrophobic moments. The dataset was randomly split into a training set (88 molecules, 80%) and a test set (22 molecules, 80%)88 20%). Descriptors were scaled to [0,1] range using Eq (1) and those in the test set were scaled according to the training set. Constant descriptors (zero variance) were filtered 90 out. 91

$$X_i' = \frac{X_i - X_{i,min}}{X_{i,max} - X_{i,min}} \tag{1}$$

Feature selection and model calculation were performed in Weka 3.8 [17, 18]. 92 Selection of relevant features was carried out using the Correlation-Based Feature 93 Selection (CFS) with a Greedy Stepwise algorithm [19]. Briefly, CFS calculates a merit score, M_s , on a subset of variables through Eq (2), where r_{fc} is the average pair-wise correlation coefficient between features and the dependent variable, r_{ff} is the average 96 pair-wise correlation coefficient between features themselves, and k is the number of 97 features. Higher merit values involve a higher correlation with the dependent variable and a less correlation between features, penalizing high-dimensional sets also. In the qq Greedy Stepwise algorithm, the variables are sequentially added until the merit reaches 100 a maximum. 101

75

$$M_s = \frac{kr_{fc}}{\sqrt{k + k\left(k - 1\right)r_{ff}}}\tag{2}$$

102

103

104

118

The subset of features with the highest score were used in the generation of the Multiple Linear Regression model, as implemented in Weka 3.8.

Model validation

The goodness of fit for the model was estimated by calculating the following statistical 105 parameters: coefficient of determination (R^2) , adjusted coefficient of determination 106 $(R^2-\mathit{adj}),\,F$ statistic (variance ratio) and its associated p-value. Internal validation 107 was carried out through the k-fold leave-some-out cross-validation with k = 10. The 108 cross-validated correlation coefficient (q_{cv}^2) is reported to evaluate the robustness of the 109 model. Model predictability was assessed by applying the generated equation to 110 calculate the biological data of the test set. Using these results, the Golbraikh and 111 Tropsha (G&T) external validation parameters were calculated in the Enalos nodes for 112 Knime [20–22]. Golbraikh and Tropsha parameters use regression through the origin to 113 estimate the deviation of the model with respect to the ideal QSAR regression. 114 Basically, these parameters compare the differences of the coefficients of determination 115 and slopes of the fitted model and the regression forced to the origin, R_0 and k. The 116 model is considered predictive if all parameters are within defined thresholds [20]. 117

Applicability Domain

The predictivity of a QSAR model is framed by the nature of the molecules in the training set. The applicability domain is the quantitative delimitation of the chemical space where predictions are reliable. In this work, the applicability domain was defined using the leverage method [23]. Leverage values, h_i , are computed using Eq (3), where the descriptor matrix of the training set and $\mathbf{x_i}$ is the descriptor vector for a query molecule.

$$h_i = \mathbf{x}_i^T \left(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \right)^{-1} \mathbf{x}_i \tag{3}$$

Basically, leverage values are proportional to the distance of the molecule from the 125 centroid of the training set. Thus, compounds above a threshold are far from the 126 explored chemical space and therefore, their predicted biological activity will be 127 unreliable. Typically, the threshold, h_{max} , is computed with Eq (4), where p is the 128 number of features and n is the number of molecules in the training set. 129

$$h_{max} = 3\frac{p}{n} \tag{4}$$

Leverage and limit values were computed with the Applicability Domain node 130 calculator of Enalos for Knime [24, 25]. Results are presented in a Williams plot 131 (leverage vs standarized residuals), where outliers in the activity domain or structurally 132 influential, can be visually detected. The Williams plot is a representation of the 133 chemical space spanned by the model. 134

Docking calculation

The coordinates of cruzain were downloaded from the Protein Data Bank with PDB-ID 136 code 3KKU [26]. This structure is reported with a resolution of 1.28 Å, and it is 137 co-crystalized with a benzimidazole derived, a non-covalent ligand. The protein was 138 prepared in MOE as follows: hydrogen atoms were added according to protonation 139 states at pH 7.0 and Gasteiger-Marsili charges were computed [27]. The protein 140 structure file was converted to the PDBQT format. Gasteiger charges were also 141 computed for the ligands and they were converted to PDBQT format. The docking 142 calculation was performed in AutoDock Vina [28]. The search space was extended in 143 the binding site of the cruzain with a box of size 24 Å * 30 Å * 20 Å. The docking 144 calculation was performed in 10 repetitions, and the conformations with the best score 145 per molecule were selected to generate a database of bound conformations. These data 146 were used to generate protein-ligand interaction fingerprints in MOE. 147

The similarity maps tool included in the RDKit module for python was used to generate partial charges and SLogP diagrams. These diagrams show the atomic contributions to logP, calculated with the Wildman and Crippen algorithm [29], and the Gasteiger partial charges [27]. The 2D depictions of molecules in the similarity maps were generated by projecting the calculated 3D conformation of the molecules, so that these depictions resemble their docked pose.

Results and Discussion

In this work, we present the preparation and analysis of a data set of 110 cruzain 155 inhibitors annotated with pIC_{50} values. The distributions of the biological activity 156 values of the training and test sets are shown in Fig 1. The pIC_{50} values ranges from 157 3.48 to 10.0 units, from nanomolar to sub-millimolar scale. Typically, the reported 158 experimental error for this biological assay is around 2.0 μM , which implies that the 159 range of pIC_{50} values of this dataset is more than five times higher than the 160 experimental error, in agreement with general recommendations and best practices for 161 QSAR modeling [10]. Noteworthy, the biological activity values of the test set lie within 162 that of the training set as shown in the histogram of the Fig 1 and with no gaps within 163 bins. 164

Fig 1. Distribution of pIC_{50} values of 110 cruzain inhibitors. Molecules in the training set (88) are shown in gray, and 22 molecules in the test set are shown in black. The inhibitory potency of the test set fall within interval of pIC_{50} values of the training set.

To summarize the chemical diversity contained in the dataset, we performed a 165 clustering analysis with the affinity propagation algorithm, using Tanimoto similarity 166 from MACCSKeys fingerprints as affinity measure, in the RDKit and Sci-Kit learn 167 modules in Python. Fig 2 depicts the calculated clusters, along with the representative 168 structure from every cluster. The chemical families include thiosemicarbazones, 169 acylhydrazines, oxadiazoles and nitrile-containing peptidomimetics. Thiosemicarbazones 170 are the most numerous compounds in the set and peptidomimetics are the most potent 171 known inhibitors, as has been reported previously [2] 172

Fig 2. Representation of the molecular diversity in the dataset. Molecules are grouped according to the clustering results by affinity propagation. Structures for representative molecules, highlighted with a cross-shaped mark, are shown for every cluster.

The MLR algorithm generates an explicit equation, consisting of a linear 173 combination of molecular descriptors. After selecting the feature subset which renders 174 the maximum merit score, as described in the methods section, Eq 5 was obtained for 175 the estimation of pIC_{50} values. A brief definition of the descriptors involved in the 176 model is presented in Table 1. In general, these descriptors account for electrostatic 177

(E_{ele} and PEOE descriptors), hydrophobic (SLOGP and vsurf_ID8 descriptors) and ¹⁷⁸ hydrophilic (vsurf_W related descriptors) properties. These features are crucial for the ¹⁷⁹ establishment of potential intermolecular interactions required for the binding of ligands ¹⁸⁰ into the active site. Therefore, the linear equation may be related to the presence of ¹⁸¹ such features in the binding process. ¹⁸²

 $-log (IC_{50}) = pIC_{50} = -1.30a_nF+3.62E_{ele}+2.34GCUT_SLOGP2+2.46PEOE_VSA(-1)$ +2.18PEOE_VSA(-3)-1.24SLOGP_VSA4+0.69SLOGP_VSA9-1.07vsurf_DW12 -1.56vsurf_EWmin1+1.69vsurf_ID8+1.21vsurf_Wp5+1.06 (5)

Table 1. Definition of molecular descriptors selected in the linear equation of the model.

Descriptor	Definition
a_nF	Number of fluorine atoms
E _{ele}	Electrostatic component of potential energy
GCUT_SLOGP_2	The GCUT descriptors using atomic contribution to logP using the Wildman and Crippen SlogP method.
PEOE_VSA1	Sum of v_i where q_i is in the range $[-0.10, -0.05)$.
PEOE_VSA-3	Sum of v_i where q_i is in the range $[-0.20, -0.15)$.
SLOGP_VSA4	Sum of v_i such that L_i is in [0.1, 0.15).
SLOGP_VSA9	Sum of v_i such that $L_i > 0.40$
vsurf_DW12	Contact distances of vsurf_EWmin
vsurf_EWmin1	Lowest hydrophilic energy
vsurf_ID8	Hydrophobic integy moment (-1.6 kcal/mol)
$vsurf_Wp5$	Polar volume (-3.0 kcal/mol)

 v_i is the atomic Van der Waals surface area of atom i, q_i is the Gasteiger-Marsili partial charge over the atom i, and L_i is the Wildman-Crippen atomic contribution to LogP.

Statistical parameters describing the goodness of fit for the model are presented in 183 Table 2. Coefficients of determination near to 1 indicates that a high ratio of variance 184 present in the original data is explained by the model. In this case, 83% of the variance 185 already present in the pIC_{50} of the training set is explained by Eq 5. The ratio of the 186 mean squared error of the one-parameter model and the generated model is measured 187 by the F statistic. If this ratio is high enough, the prediction made by Eq 5 has an error 188 less than the native variability in the data. The F value for this model is presented in 189 Table 2 along with its associated p-value. Making the assumptions of the linear 190 model, the probability of finding an F ratio of 34.08 or higher, for a 10 parameter 191 equation, is less than 0.001, if the model error is equal to the variability in data. Given 192

this low probability value, this hypothesis can be rejected and accept that predictions made by the model equation are more accurate than just the mean value around the standard deviation for the original data.

Table 2. Statistical parameters describing the goodness of fit for the model.

Parameter	Value
R^2	0.83
R^2 -adjusted	0.81
F ratio	34.08
<i>p</i> -value	< 0.001

Since conclusions derived from statistical parameters rely on the parametric 196 assumptions, their fulfillment were tested by means of an analysis of residuals, shown in 197 Fig (3). In the linear model, the dependent variable, Y_i , has a normal distribution 198 around the predicted value \hat{Y}_i , thus the prediction error, $Y_i - \hat{Y}_i$, must follow a normal 199 distribution with a mean of 0. The lower panel of Fig (3) shows the quantile plot for the 200 calculated errors and the theoretical normal distribution. Most of the values in the 201 quantile plot follow a straight line, suggesting a very near behavior to a normal 202 distribution, achieving the normality requirement. 203

Fig 3. Histograms with the distibution of residuals, as predicted with Eq 5. The quantile plots, comparing to a normal distribution are also presented, for both the training and the test set. The regression line shows a near behavior to a normal distribution.

Observed and predicted activity values for both training and test sets are shown in 204 Fig (4). The pIC₅₀ values for the training set were calculated in a 10-fold cross 205 validation step, thus the coefficient of determination in Fig (4) corresponds to 206 $Q^2 - LSO$. The test set, not used for the model construction, has a clear behavior near 207 to the linear fit. The R^2 for this external set is 0.71, above the typical threshold of 0.6. 208 However, although a high value of both Q^2 and R^2 is required, it is not sufficient for the 209 predictability estimation since these parameters just measure the linear correspondence 210 between predicted and experimental values but not their 1:1 identity relationship [20]. 211 Since there is not consensus in the establishment of an universal predictability criteria 212 for QSAR modeling, one of the proposed practices is to calculate a set of parameters 213 that could characterize the deviation from an ideal prediction, as suggested by Chirico 214 et al [30] and Gramatica et al [31]. 215 Fig 4. Regression plot for the results of predicted pIC_{50} values. The training set values shown were obtained in a 10-fold cross validation step. The coefficients of determination for both sets $(Q^2 - LSO \text{ and } R^2 - ext)$ are also presented. Continuous and dashed gray lines are the linear fits for training and test set, respectively.

The G&T criteria measure the agreement between experimental and predicted 216 values [20, 30, 31]. These validation parameters were developed following the idea that 217 the regression line for a predictive model should be the identity relation, $Y_i = \hat{Y}_i$. Thus, 218 the values of the G&T criteria measure the deviation of the least-squares line for the 219 model from the identity straight line. Table 3 shows the results of these criteria, for the 220 external evaluation used in this work, along with their acceptance thresholds as 221 suggested by the authors. All the values are within the acceptable range, indicating a 222 good agreement between the experimental information and the predictions of the model 223 using the external test set. 224

 Table 3. Golbraikh and Tropsha parameters and criteria for external validation calculated for the model

G&T Criterion	Value
$R^2 > 0.6$	0.71
$R_{cvext}^2 > 0.5$	0.66
$(R^2 - R_0^2)/R^2 < 0.1$	0.05
$(R^2 - R_0^{\prime 2})/R^2 < 0.1$	0.02
$ABS(R_0^2 - R_0^{\prime 2}) < 0.1$	0.02
0.85 < k < 1.15	0.95
0.85 < k' < 1.15	1.03

Applicability domain was defined using the leverage method, using both the training 225 set and the test set. Williams plot for the dataset is presented in Fig (5). Because 226 leverage is a projection of the distance from the training set, the distribution of the 227 molecules in the Williams plot is a representation of the chemical space covered by the 228 model. Standardized residuals are distributed around the expected value of 0, as was 229 shown previously, for both the training and test sets. It is interesting to note that most 230 of the test molecules follow a distribution similar to those in the training set, and their 231 residuals are inside the expected errors predicted for the training set. It is also 232 remarkable that two molecules in the training set and three in the test set display 233 leverage values higher than the calculated limit. In these regions, any prediction made 234 by the model is considered an extrapolation and its reliability is low. 235

Most of the molecular descriptors shown in Table 1 are related to potential

Fig 5. Williams plot for the applicability domain definition, using the leverage method.

intermolecular interactions. To rationalize the binding recognition process of cruzain 237 inhibitors, based on the analysis of the molecular descriptors obtained in the QSAR 238 model, molecular docking simulations were performed. PLIF histograms in Fig (6) 239 summarize these results from the database of bound conformations. Fig (6A) shows 240 interactions involving atom pairs between the protein and the ligand, whereas Fig (6B) 241 summarizes surface contact interactions. These histograms show that hydrogen bond 242 formation and polar contacts are predominant in the S1 subsite and near the catalytic 243 site, whereas in S2 and S1' subsites, hydrophobic contacts and π interactions are more 244 favorable. Regarding with such interactions, molecular descriptor vsurf_ID8 is the 245 hydrophobic integy moment (INTEraction energy) at -1.6 kcal/mol as defined by 246 Cruciani et al [32]. Basically, the hydrophobic integy moment is the unbalance between 247 the center of mass of the molecules and the hydrophobic regions. Thus, the descriptor 248 may be related to the complementariety of inhibitors with the binding site, i.e. the 249 ability to form hydrogen bonds or polar contacts with the catalytic site or the S1 250 subsite and hydrophobic or π interactions in the S2 or S1' subsites. 251

Fig 6. PLIF results for the docking calculation of the cruzain inhibitors in the dataset. A: PLIF histogram for potential contacts. The color of the bars represents the binding subsite in the cruzain. The code on the top of the bar is the kind of interaction: D, A, side chain hydrogen bond donors or acceptors; d, a, backbone hydrogen bond donors or acceptors, and R, arene or π interactions. B: PLIF histogram for surface contacts. The color of the bars represents the binding subsite in the cruzain. The code on the top of the bar is the kind of surface contact: H, hydrophobic; P, partial hydrophobic; Q, charged; X, other, and C total

Subdivided Van der Waals surface area descriptors are defined in terms of properties 252 which can be divided into atomic contributions. In this case, partial charges and logP 253 contributions take into consideration the total available surface area for certain types of 254 electrostatic and hydrophobic contacts. Fig (7) shows the predicted conformations for 255 some of the molecules in the set, along with their 2D representation depicting the 256 partial charges and the atomic contributions to logP. PEOE_VSA_-1 and PEOE_VSA_-3 257 account the total surface area for atoms whose partial charges are in the ranges 258 [-0.10, -0.05) and [-0.20, -0.15), respectively. Atoms with partial charges related to 259 PEOE_VSA_-1 are often carbon atoms in aromatic rings and saturated chains. These 260

molecular fragments bind to hydrophobic cavities, mainly in S2 and S1' subsites and	261
remarkably they have close contacts with TRP-184. On the other hand, partial charges	262
accounted by PEOE_VSA3 are related to nitrogen-nitrogen containing groups, such as	263
thiosemicarbazones, acylhydrazines and oxadiazoles. This partial charge is also	264
associated with nitrile nitrogen, which is a chemical group present in the	265
peptidomimetics, the most active compounds in the set. All these groups are frequently	266
used as mimetics of the peptide bond since they can exert polar interactions required for	267
the backbone recognition near the catalytic and S1 subsites.	268

Fig 7. Binding conformations predicted by docking and visualization of descriptors related to partial charges and logP contributions. 2D depictions were generated as projections of their 3D conformations. The lines inside color bars are the ranges which contribute to the binned Van der Waals surface area descriptors in the QSAR model. In the 3D representation, cruzain subsites are shown in colors: yellow for the catalytic triad, red for S1 subsite, raspberry for the S2 subsite, deepsalmon for S3 subsite, tv_blue for S1' subsite and lightblue for S2' subsite (colors as defined by Pymol).

Regarding with surface descriptors, SLOGP_VSA4 and SLOGP_VSA9 measure the total surface area for logP atomic contributions in the ranges [0.1, 0.15) and > 0.4, 270 respectively. Most of the atomic fragments related to SLOGP_VSA4 are oxygen atoms 271 in carbonyl groups directly attached to aromatic rings. However, the coefficient for this 272 descriptor in the model equation is negative, indicating that this feature is unfavorable 273 for biological activity. The last of the subdivided Van der Waals surface area descriptor 274 takes into consideration mostly halogen atoms bound to aromatic or aliphatic groups. 275 The most potent compounds in the data set are also rich in halogen-containing groups. 276 Halogenated substituents are frequently used, among with other effects, to fulfill steric 277 contacts into protein cavities, so they can exert a shape-complementary effect with the 278 cruzain binding site, particularly in the well-defined S2 cavity and in the clefts formed 279 by the S1 and S1' subsites. 280

Volsurf descriptors are calculated from grids extended around the molecule, and then computing the interaction energy of this molecule with a probe on each of the grid points. DW12, EWmin1 and Wp5 are calculated using a water molecule as a probe, and thus are representative of polar interactions. For an energy isovalue of -3.0 kcal/mol, the field is representative of favorable polar and hydrogen bond donor-acceptor regions [32]. The total polar volume at this energy (Wp5) is positively correlated with biological

activity, as can be deduced from its coefficient in the model equation. Furthermore, 287 EWmin1 indicates that a lowest hydrophilic interaction energy is more favorable for 288 cruzain inhibition. Fig (8) shows isosurfaces for the interaction fields at a level of -3.0289 kcal/mol, with the same molecules as in Fig (7). It is clear from these representations 290 that polar volumes extend around hydrogen bond donors and acceptors, mainly on 291 those groups that mimic the peptide bond. Thus, these grid-based descriptors account 292 for the ability of inhibitors to form hydrogen bonds in the binding site for the peptide 293 bond recognition. 294

Fig 8. Polar surfaces at an isovalue of -3.0 kcal/mol. These interaction grids are calculated using a water molecule in every point and are indicative of polar interactions.

The interpretation provided above is based on the physical meaning of descriptors in terms of protein-ligand interactions. The model equation summarizes the presence of chemical fragments whose atoms meet the electrostatic and hydrophobic requirements for the binding into cruzain subsites but also their spatial distribution, as described by their integy moments and polar molecular fields. These requirements resemble a pharmacophore model that molecules within the applicability domain must meet to bind into the protein and exert its inhibitory effect.

In summary, we have presented a QSAR model with a well-defined endpoint, as 302 described in methodology section for the criteria of data selection. The algorithm is 303 unambiguously presented, which consists in the application of Eq 5 to calculate the 304 predicted pIC_{50} for cruzain inhibition, given the required descriptors. The applicability 305 domain is defined using the leverage method, and a limit value is also given for the 306 reliability of predictions. The statistics for the goodness-of-fit, robustness and 307 predictability were calculated and all of them fall within the generally accepted 308 thresholds. Finally, a possible mechanistic interpretation of the model is proposed, in 309 terms of intermolecular interactions. Thus, in this study, the five OECD principles for 310 good practices in QSAR modeling are fulfilled. These principles are quality standards 311 for QSAR development, mainly in regulatory purposes. Under these criteria, our 312 QSAR model is predictive and could be used in the search of new inhibitors or in the 313 rational design of new compounds with this biological activity. 314

Conclusion

A Quantitative Structure-Activity Relationship model was developed for the calculation 316 of pIC_{50} values of cruzain inhibitors using multiple linear regression. The statistical 317 parameters describing its performance agree with the general recommendations for 318 QSAR modeling. In particular, the external validation demonstrates high predictability, 319 since the calculated statistical parameters are above the recommended thresholds, 320 considering its applicability domain. The molecular descriptors selected in the model 321 equation are related to the potential formation of intermolecular interactions as shown 322 in the binding modes calculated by docking. The linear equation integrates partial 323 charge, hydrophobic potentials, and energy with spatial distribution and volume 324 availability for polar interactions, indicating that there is a pharmacophoric-like 325 recognition in the core of this QSAR model. The use and interpretation of this model 326 could guide in the search, development and rational design of cruzain inhibitors as 327 possible pharmacological treatment of Chagas disease. 328

Supporting information

S1 Table. Data set of cruzain inhibitors. Table with the cruzain inhibitors, 330 incluiding SMILES representation, activity values (pIC₅₀), and calculated descriptors. 331

Acknowledgments

K.M.-M. thanks DGAPA-UNAM (PAPIIT IN210518) and Instituto de Química, UNAM
 for finantial support. J.G.R.-J. thanks Biosen Institute for scholarship. Authors thank
 AutoDock Vina, Weka, Knime, RDKit, and Sci-Kit Learn developers for making
 machine learning and chemoinformatics tools freely available for academic purposes.

References

 Flores-Ferrer A, Marcou O, Waleckx E, Dumonteil E, Gourbière S. Evolutionary ecology of Chagas disease; what do we know and what do we need? Evolutionary Applications. 2018;11(4):470–487. doi:10.1111/eva.12582. 315

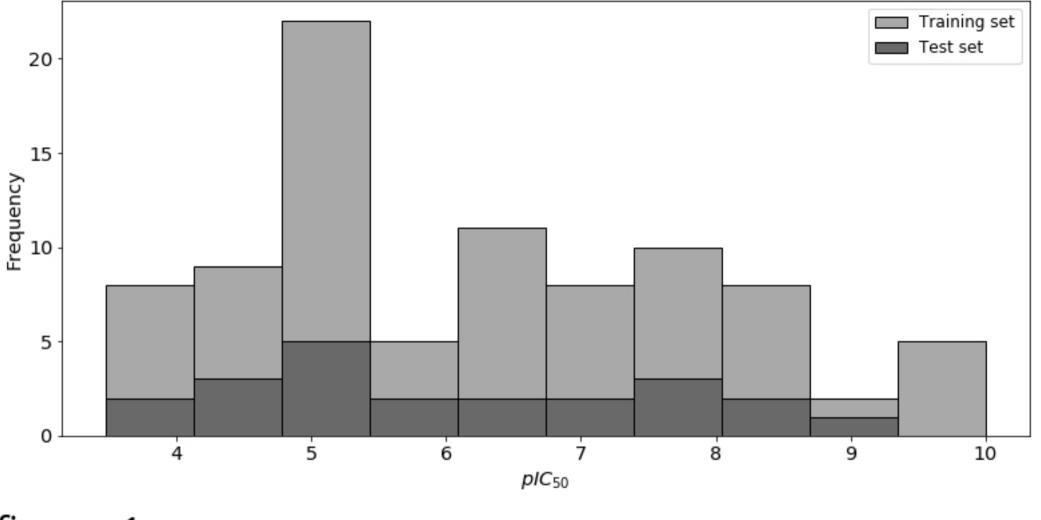
329

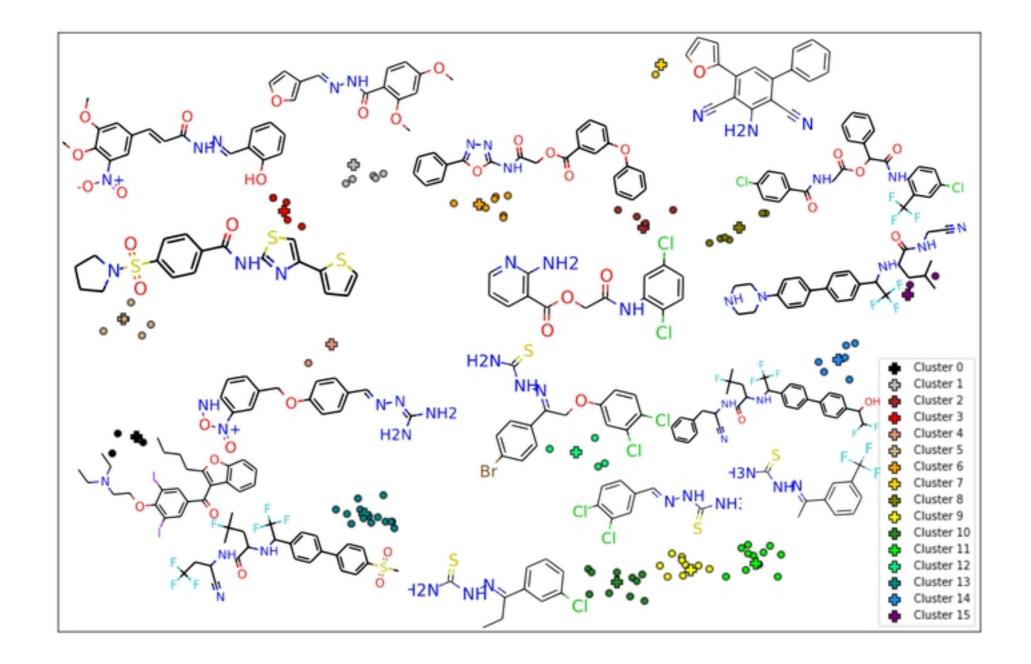
- Martinez-Mayorga K, Byler KG, Ramirez-Hernandez AI, Terrazas-Alvares DE. Cruzain inhibitors: efforts made, current leads and a structural outlook of new hits. Drug Discovery Today. 2015;20(7):890–898. doi:10.1016/J.DRUDIS.2015.02.004.
- Ferreira LG, Andricopulo AD. Targeting cysteine proteases in trypanosomatid disease drug discovery. Pharmacology & Therapeutics. 2017;180:49–61. doi:10.1016/J.PHARMTHERA.2017.06.004.
- Pérez-Molina JA, Molina I. Chagas disease. The Lancet. 2018;391(10115):82–94. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(17)31612-4.
- Carneiro CM, Sánchez-Montalvá A, Corrêa-Oliveira R, Sales Junior PA, Fonseca Murta SM, Salvador F, et al. Experimental and Clinical Treatment of Chagas Disease: A Review. The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene. 2017;97(5):1289–1303. doi:10.4269/ajtmh.16-0761.
- Sajid M, Robertson SA, Brinen LS, McKerrow JH. Cruzain. Springer, Boston, MA; 2011. p. 100-115. Available from: http://link.springer.com/10.1007/978-1-4419-8414-2{_}7.
- Engel JC, Doyle PS, Hsieh I, McKerrow JH. Cysteine protease inhibitors cure an experimental Trypanosoma cruzi infection. Journal of Experimental Medicine. 1998;188(4):725–734. doi:10.1084/jem.188.4.725.
- Palmer JT, Rasnick D, Klaus JL, Brömme D. Vinyl Sulfones as Mechanism-Based Cysteine Protease Inhibitors. Journal of Medicinal Chemistry. 1995;38(17):3193–3196. doi:10.1021/jm00017a002.
- 9. Gini G. QSAR: What Else? Humana Press, New York, NY; 2018. p. 79–105. Available from: http://link.springer.com/10.1007/978-1-4939-7899-1{_}3.
- Tropsha A. Best Practices for QSAR Model Development, Validation, and Exploitation. Molecular Informatics. 2010;29(6-7):476–488. doi:10.1002/minf.201000061.

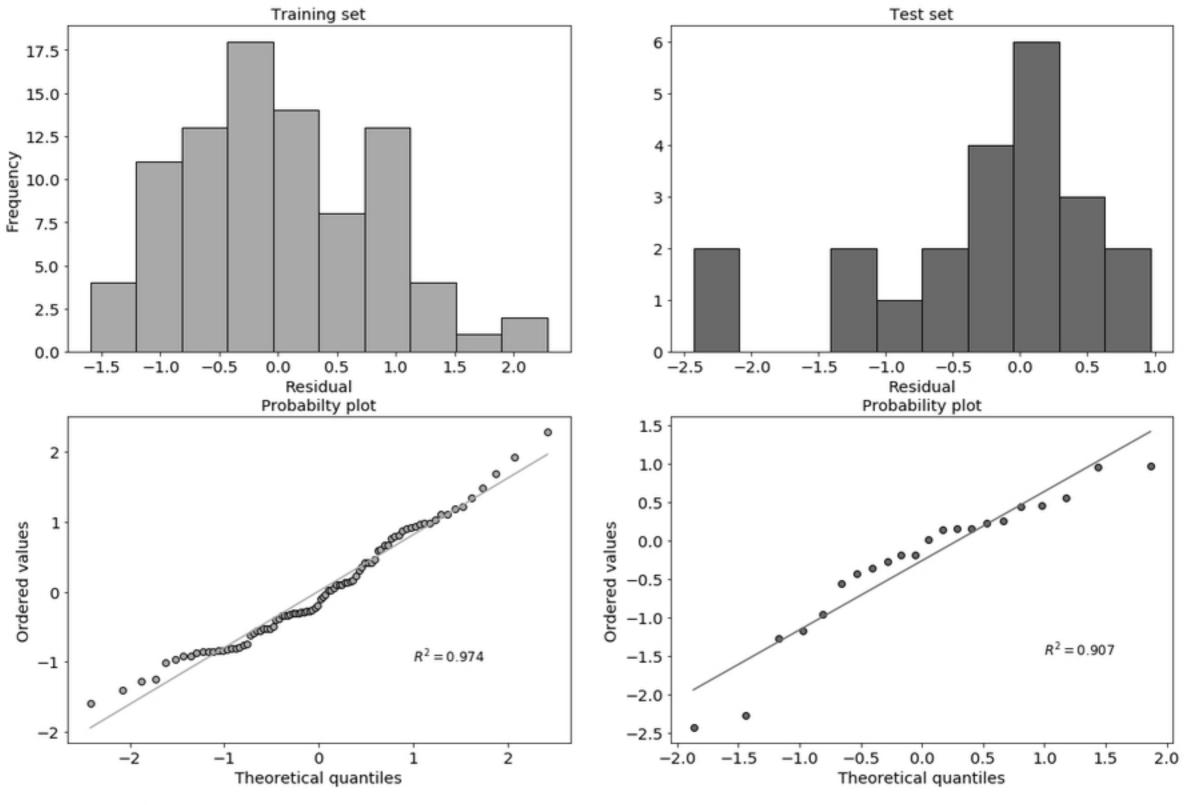
- Gómez-Jiménez G, Gonzalez-Ponce K, Castillo-Pazos DJ, Madariaga-Mazon A, Barroso-Flores J, Cortes-Guzman F, et al. The OECD Principles for (Q)SAR Models in the Context of Knowledge Discovery in Databases (KDD). In: Advances in Protein Chemistry and Structural Biology. vol. 113. Academic Press Inc.; 2018. p. 85–117.
- Gramatica P. Principles of QSAR Modeling. International Journal of Quantitative Structure-Property Relationships. 2020;5(3):1–37. doi:10.4018/IJQSPR.20200701.oa1.
- Babaoglu K, Simconov A, Irwin JJ, Nelson ME, Feng B, Thomas CJ, et al. Comprehensive mechanistic analysis of hits from high-throughput and docking screens against β-lactamase. Journal of Medicinal Chemistry. 2008;51(8):2502–2511. doi:10.1021/jm701500e.
- Irwin JJ, Duan D, Torosyan H, Doak AK, Ziebart KT, Sterling T, et al. An Aggregation Advisor for Ligand Discovery. Journal of Medicinal Chemistry. 2015;58(17):7076–7087. doi:10.1021/acs.jmedchem.5b01105.
- 15. ULC CCG. Molecular Operating Environment (MOE); 2019.
- RDKit: Open-source cheminformatics; 2020. Available from: https://www.rdkit.org/.
- 17. Frank E, Hall MA, Witten IH, Kaufmann M. WEKA Workbench Online Appendix for "Data Mining: Practical Machine Learning Tools and Techniques"; 2016. Available from: https://www.cs.waikato.ac.nz/ml/weka/ Witten{_}et{_}al{_}2016{_}appendix.pdf.
- 18. Hall M, Frank E, Holmes G, Pfahringer B, Reutemann P, Witten IH. The WEKA Data Mining Software: An Update; 2009. Available from: https://www.kdd.org/exploration{_}files/p2V11n1.pdf.
- 19. Hall MA. Correlation-based Feature Selection for Machine Learning. The University of Waikato; 1999. Available from: https://www.cs.waikato.ac.nz/{~}mhall/thesis.pdf.

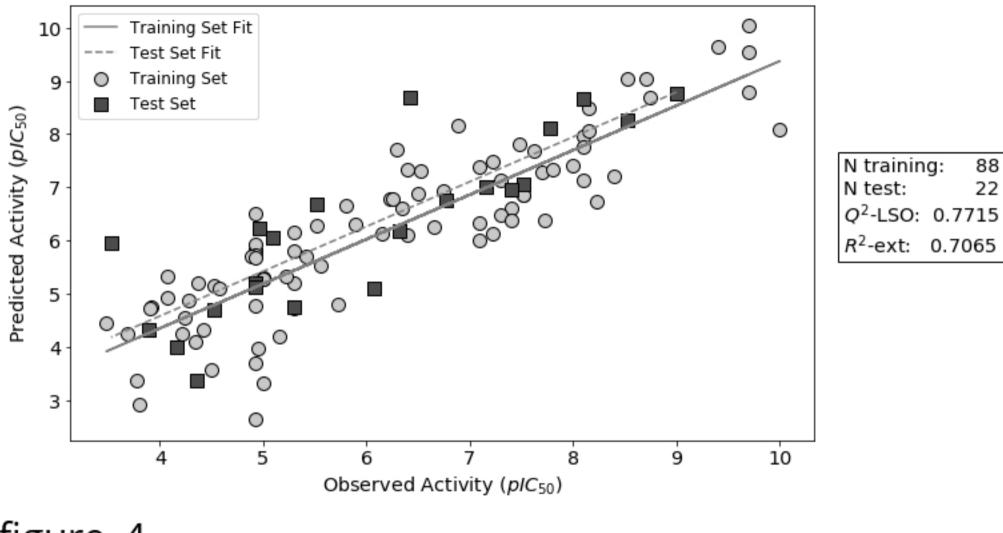
- Golbraikh A, Tropsha A. Beware of q2! Journal of Molecular Graphics and Modelling. 2002;20(4):269–276. doi:10.1016/S1093-3263(01)00123-1.
- Melagraki G, Afantitis A. Enalos KNIME nodes: Exploring corrosion inhibition of steel in acidic medium. Chemometrics and Intelligent Laboratory Systems. 2013;123:9–14. doi:10.1016/J.CHEMOLAB.2013.02.003.
- 22. Vrontaki E, Melagraki G, Mavromoustakos T, Afantitis A. Searching for anthranilic acid-based thumb pocket 2 HCV NS5B polymerase inhibitors through a combination of molecular docking, 3D-QSAR and virtual screening. Journal of Enzyme Inhibition and Medicinal Chemistry. 2016;31(1):38–52. doi:10.3109/14756366.2014.1003925.
- Sahigara F, Mansouri K, Ballabio D, Mauri A, Consonni V, Todeschini R, et al. Comparison of Different Approaches to Define the Applicability Domain of QSAR Models. Molecules. 2012;17(5):4791–4810. doi:10.3390/molecules17054791.
- 24. Afantitis A, Melagraki G, Sarimveis H, Koutentis P, Markopoulos J, Igglessi-Markopoulou O. Development and Evaluation of a QSPR Model for the Prediction of Diamagnetic Susceptibility. QSAR & Combinatorial Science. 2008;27(4):432–436. doi:10.1002/qsar.200730083.
- 25. Melagraki G, Afantitis A, Sarimveis H, Koutentis PA, Kollias G, Igglessi-Markopoulou O. Predictive QSAR workflow for the in silico identification and screening of novel HDAC inhibitors. Molecular Diversity. 2009;13(3):301–311. doi:10.1007/s11030-009-9115-2.
- 26. Ferreira RS, Simeonov A, Jadhav A, Eidam O, Mott BT, Keiser MJ, et al. Complementarity Between a Docking and a High-Throughput Screen in Discovering New Cruzain Inhibitors. Journal of Medicinal Chemistry. 2010;53(13):4891–4905. doi:10.1021/jm100488w.
- Gasteiger J, Marsili M. Iterative partial equalization of orbital electronegativity—a rapid access to atomic charges. Tetrahedron. 1980;36(22):3219–3228. doi:10.1016/0040-4020(80)80168-2.

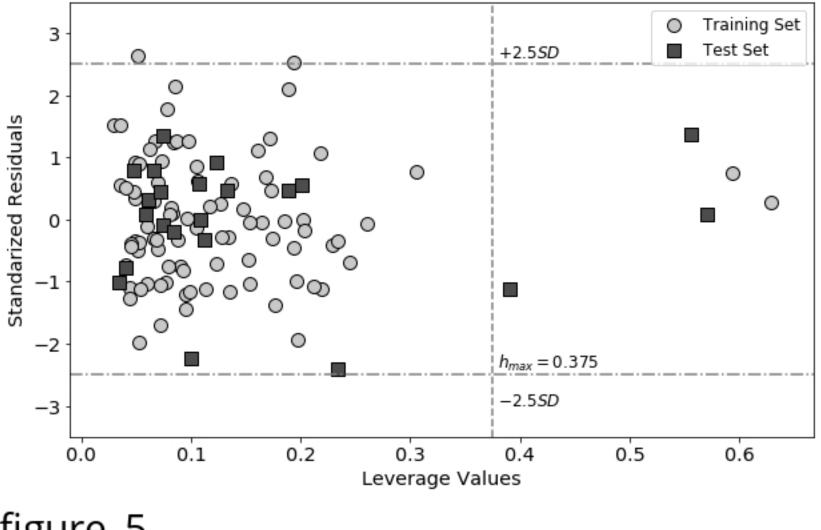
- Trott O, Olson AJ. AutoDock Vina: Improving the speed and accuracy of docking with a new scoring function, efficient optimization, and multithreading. Journal of Computational Chemistry. 2009;31(2):NA–NA. doi:10.1002/jcc.21334.
- Wildman SA, Crippen GM. Prediction of Physicochemical Parameters by Atomic Contributions. Journal of Chemical Information and Computer Sciences. 1999;39(5):868–873. doi:10.1021/ci9903071.
- 30. Chirico N, Gramatica P. Real External Predictivity of QSAR Models: How To Evaluate It? Comparison of Different Validation Criteria and Proposal of Using the Concordance Correlation Coefficient. Journal of Chemical Information and Modeling. 2011;51(9):2320–2335. doi:10.1021/ci200211n.
- Gramatica P, Sangion A. A Historical Excursus on the Statistical Validation Parameters for QSAR Models: A Clarification Concerning Metrics and Terminology. Journal of Chemical Information and Modeling. 2016;56(6):1127–1131. doi:10.1021/acs.jcim.6b00088.
- Cruciani G, Crivori P, Carrupt PA, Testa B. Molecular fields in quantitative structure–permeation relationships: the VolSurf approach. Journal of Molecular Structure: THEOCHEM. 2000;503(1-2):17–30. doi:10.1016/S0166-1280(99)00360-7.

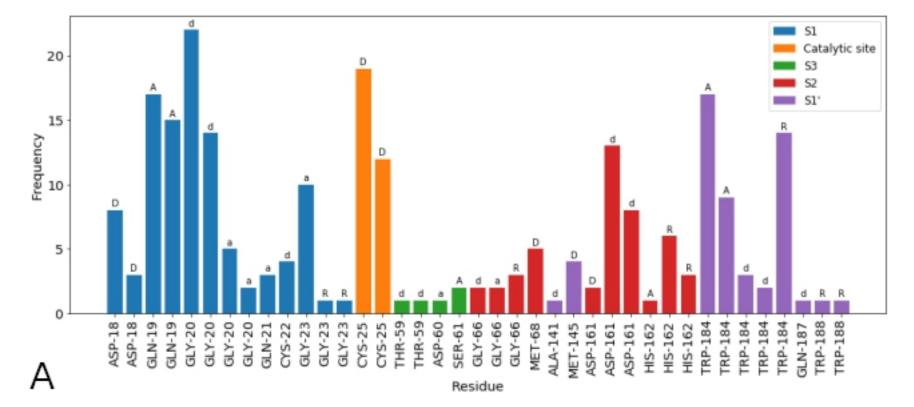


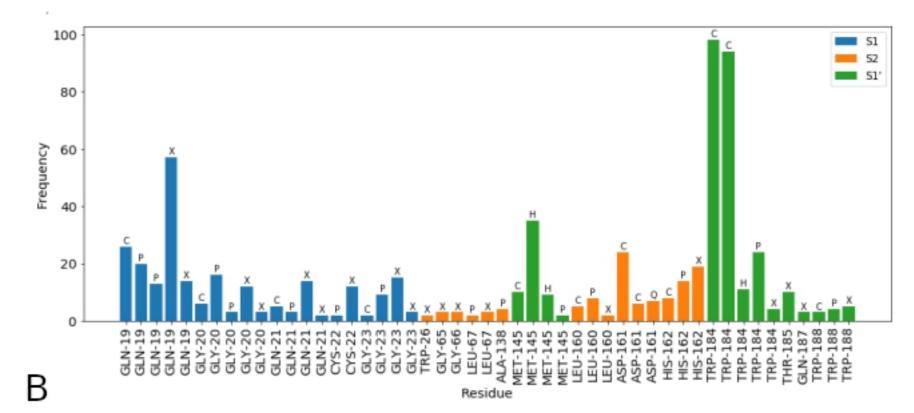


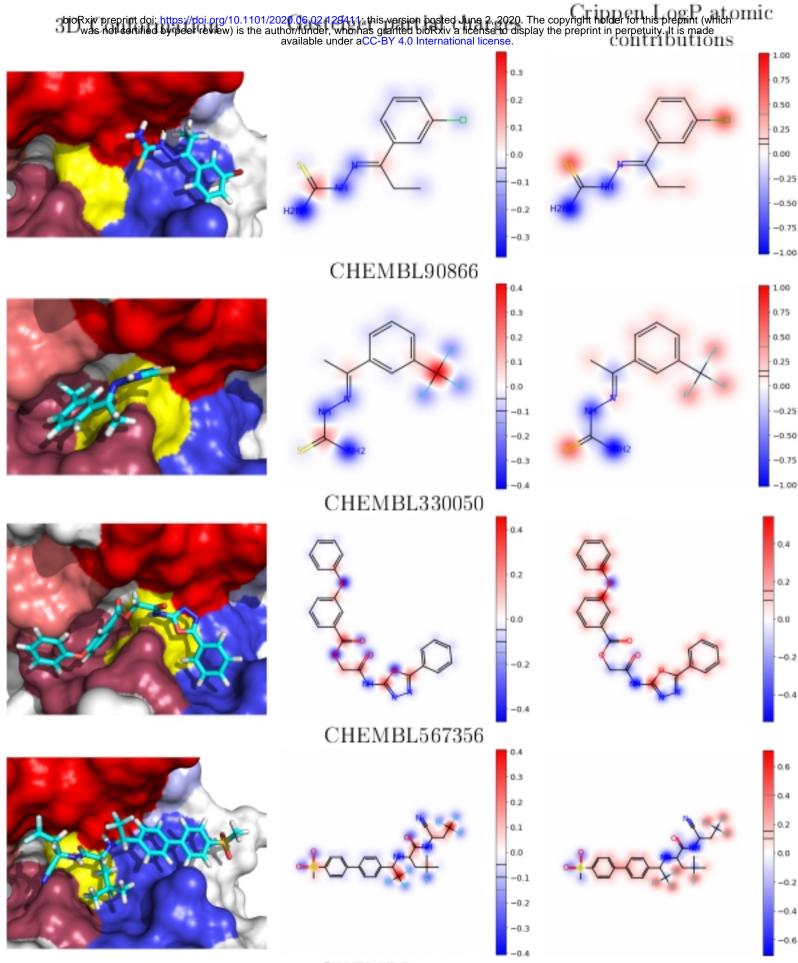












CHEMBL1289553

