AAC Accepted Manuscript Posted Online 5 March 2018 Antimicrob, Agents Chemother, doi:10.1128/AAC.02419-17 Copyright © 2018 American Society for Microbiology. All Rights Reserved.

- Title: Topical treatment for cutaneous leishmaniasis dermato-pharmacokinetic led 1
- 2 optimisation of benzoxaboroles
- Journal suggestion: Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy 4
- Byline: Katrien Van Bocxlaer¹, Eric Gaukel², Deirdre Hauser², Seong Hee Park², Sara Schock², 6
- Vanessa Yardley¹, Ryan Randolph², Jacob J. Plattner³, Tejal Merchant³, Simon L. Croft¹, Robert T. 7
- Jacobs³ and Stephen A. Wring² 8
- **Affiliations:** 10

3

5

9

15

19

¹ London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, Faculty of Infections and Tropical Diseases, 11

- Keppel Street, London WC1E 7HT, United Kingdom 12
- ² SCYNEXIS Inc., Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, USA 13
- 14 ³ Anacor Pharmaceuticals, Inc., Palo Alto, California, USA
- 16 Corresponding author: Simon L. Croft, Faculty of Infectious and Tropical Diseases, London
- School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, Keppel Street, London WC1E 7HT, United Kingdom; 17
- 18 simon.croft@lshtm.ac.uk, phone: +44 (0)20 7927 2601, fax: +44 (0)20 7927 2739

Abstract

20

Cutaneous leishmaniasis (CL) is caused by several species of the protozoan parasite Leishmania 21 22 - affecting an estimated 10 million people worldwide. Previously reported strategies for the development of topical CL treatments have focussed primarily on drug permeation and 23 24 formulation optimisation as the means to increase treatment efficacy. Our approach aims to identify compounds with anti-leishmanial activity and properties 25 consistent with topical administration. Of the test compounds, five benzoxaboroles showed 26 potent activity (EC₅₀< 5 μM) against intracellular amastigotes of at least one *Leishmania* species 27 28 and acceptable activity (20 μ M< EC₅₀ <30 μ M) against two more species. Benzoxaborole compounds were further prioritised based upon the in vitro evaluation of progression criteria 29 30 related to skin permeation such as the partition coefficient and solubility. An MDCK-MDR1 31 assay showed overall good permeability and no significant interaction with the P-glycoprotein 32 transporter for all substrates except LSH002 and LSH031. The benzoxaboroles were degraded, to some extent, by skin enzymes but have superior stability than para-hydroxybenzoate 33 34 compounds that are known skin esterase substrates. Permeation evaluation through reconstructed human epidermis showed LSH002 to be most permeable followed by LSH003 and 35 LSH001. Skin disposition studies following finite drug formulation application to mouse skin 36 demonstrated the highest permeation for LSH001 followed by LSH003 and LSH002 with a 37 38 significantly higher amount of LSH001 retained in skin compared to other compounds. Finally, the efficacy of the leads (LSH001, LSH002 and LSH003) was tested in vivo against 39

Leishmania major. LSH001 suppressed lesion growth upon topical application and LSH003

- 41 reduced the lesion size following oral administration.
- 42

Introduction

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

The leishmaniases are a group of neglected tropical diseases, caused by the obligate intracellular protozoan parasite Leishmania that mainly occurs in low- to middle-income countries. Leishmaniasis is endemic in 98 countries over five continents placing 350 million people at risk of infection (1). Over 17 different Leishmania species can cause a variety of clinical symptoms that depend both on host and parasite related factors. The most common form CL is widely distributed, with 70-75% of the estimated cases occurring in Afghanistan, Algeria, Colombia, Brazil, Iran, Syria, Ethiopia, North Sudan, Costa Rica and Peru (1) and continues to spread due to environmental changes such as deforestation, travel, emigration and agricultural practice (2-5). In its simplest form, CL presents as a single local skin lesion that tends to heal spontaneously over a period of 3-18 months leaving scars (6). However, a range of clinical manifestations of variable severity are observed in patients that do not achieve spontaneous clearance of the parasite. These manifestations include nodules, ulcers and plaques depending upon the Leishmania species causing the infection and the status of host immune system (7). Immediate treatment is vital to expedite healing, reduce scar formation, prevent relapse or to prevent parasite dissemination. Drugs commonly utilised to treat CL such as pentavalent antimonials, miltefosine, amphotericin B and paromomycin are limited by parenteral drug administration, toxicity, variable efficacy and cost. Over the past decade, despite efforts in screening and drug discovery to identify new chemical series for visceral leishmaniasis (8, 9), only a few novel chemical classes have been

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on March 8, 2018 by LONDON SCHOOL OF HYGIENE & TROPICAL MED

explored for CL. Instead, research mainly focussed on repurposing existing drugs or novel

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

formulation strategies. For example amphotericin B, currently approved for parenteral delivery has been evaluated for topical delivery in formulations (10) including lipid nano-carriers (11, 12), nano-emulsions (13) or cyclodextrin complexes (14). Similarly, the anti-leishmanial drug paromomycin was formulated in conventional topical vehicles (15-18) and in novel delivery systems including liposomes (19) in an attempt to increase skin permeation. However, the physicochemical properties of both drugs are unfavourable for skin permeation and the reformulation strategies for these compounds have met with limited success. To enable the further development of treatments for CL we previously characterised how Leishmania infection impacts the permeability of the skin barrier and how this might influence topical drug delivery during the acute phase of the treatment (20). These studies have demonstrated that the skin barrier is compromised during the nodular stage of CL suggesting a weaker barrier to dermal delivery. Besides identifying disease related changes to drug delivery, the identification of drug compounds that are active against a broad range of Leishmania parasites is also key (21). Benzoxaborole compounds, characterised by the boron atom incorporated in a ring system fused to an aromatic ring (Table 1), have previously shown activity against bacteria, fungi and protozoans such as Trypanosoma brucei and Plasmodium falciparum (22-27). Phenotypic screenings of a library of benzoxaboroles identified in vitro and in vivo activity of benzoxaboroles 6-carboxamides against T. brucei and T.cruzi, the causative agents of human African trypanosomiasis (HAT) and Chagas disease (22, 28), respectively. Additionally, more

than 2000 compounds were evaluated against L. donovani amastigotes in THP-1 cells to identify

85 drugs to treat visceral leishmaniasis and resulted in several hits with micromolar activity (DNDi funded work, unpublished data). 86 Here we describe an approach for the rational pre-clinical selection of candidate molecules for 87 CL (Figure 1 (A)), using a series of benzoxaboroles that were found to (i) demonstrate activity 88 against a selection of Leishmania species (ii) have the ability to permeate skin and (iii) were 89 appropriately distributed in various skin layers (Figure 1 (B)). 90

Materials and Methods

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

Materials

Compounds were synthesised by Anacor Pharmaceuticals Inc. and SCYNEXIS Inc. (Research Triangle Park, NC) and were of >95% purity as determined by HPLC, LC-MS and ¹H-NMR analyses. Stock solutions (1 mM) were prepared in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) for use in the in vitro experiments. HPLC grade solvents were purchased from Fisher Scientific (Pittsburgh, PA). Formic acid (≥98% purity, Fluka), caffeine, testosterone, 1-octanol, high grade vacuum silicone grease (Dow Corning) were acquired from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). Ammonium formate (99% purity, Alpha Aesar) was purchased from VWR International, LLC (West Chester, PA). Miglyol 840 (propylene glycol dicaprylate / dicaprate) was obtained from Sasol Germany GmbH (Witten, Germany). Phosphate buffered saline (PBS) was supplied by Gibco (Invitrogen Corporation, Carlsbad, CA) as well as the Dulbecco's modification of Eagle's medium with GlutaMAX, the trypsin-EDTA and the Fetal Bovine Serum. Penicillin-Streptomycin solution, Hank's balanced salt solution and HEPES buffer were obtained from Sigma Aldrich.

Mice

Female BALB/c mice (6-8 weeks old) were purchased from Charles River (Margate, UK) and housed in a controlled environment of 55% relative humidity and 26°C. Tap water and a standard laboratory diet were provided ad libitum. All in vivo experiments were carried out under license (PPL 70/8207) at the London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine (LSHTM) after discussion with the veterinarian, clearance through the LSHTM Animal Welfare and Ethical Review Board and according to UK Home Office regulations.

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

Parasite and cell maintenance

L. major (MHOM/SA/85/JISH118); L. panamensis (MHOM/PA/67/BOYNTON); L. aethiopica (MHOM/ET/84/KH); L. mexicana (MNYC/ BZ/62/M379) and L. tropica (MHOM/IR/2013/HTD4) were routinely passaged through BALB/c mice, and low passage number promastigotes (typically below passage number 3) were used for the assays. All promastigotes, except for L. panamensis and L. aethiopica, were maintained in Schneider's insect medium (Sigma Aldrich, UK) supplemented with 10% heat inactivated foetal calf serum (HiFCS) (Harlan, UK) at 26°C. M199 medium supplemented with 10% HiFCS was used for the latter two strains. MDCKII-hMDR1 cells (Netherlands Cancer Institute, Amsterdam, Netherlands) were maintained in Dulbecco's Modified Eagles Medium (DMEM) and KB cells in RPMI-1640 medium supplemented with L-glutamine and 10% HiFCS. Both human-derived cell lines were left in an incubator at 37°C and 5% CO₂ and passaged to new medium once a week (1/10 ratio).

In vitro anti-leishmanial activity

Mouse peritoneal macrophages (PEM) were isolated from CD-1 mice (Charles River, Margate, UK) by abdominal lavage with RPMI-1640 medium containing 1% penicillin and streptomycin. The collected cells were washed, re-suspended and seeded in 16-well Lab-Tek™ slide in RPMI-1640 supplemented with 10% HiFCS at a density of 4×10^4 per well. After 24 hours incubation at 37°C and 5% CO₂/95% air mixture, the adhered PEMs were infected with stationary phase promastigotes at a ratio of 3 (for L. tropica and L. major) or 5 (for L. mexicana, L. aethiopica and L. panamensis) promastigotes to 1 macrophage and maintained at 34°C in a 5% CO₂/95% air

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

mixture. These inoculum ratios were chosen to achieve at least 75% infection of untreated control macrophages after 72 hours of incubation. After 24 hours, the cultures were washed to remove extracellular promastigotes and one slide was fixed with methanol and stained with Giemsa to determine the initial level of infection. If a sufficient level of infection was obtained, experimental drug solutions over a range of 30, 10, 3 and 1 µM were added in quadruplicate at each concentration. Amphotericin B (Fungizone) and miltefosine were included as control drugs. After 72 hours incubation, all slides were methanolfixed and Giemsa-stained. The percentage inhibition was determined by microscopically (400x magnification) counting the

infected macrophages in drug treated cultures compared to untreated cultures. The Hill

coefficient, EC₅₀ and EC₉₀ values were calculated by non-linear sigmoidal curve fitting (variable

In vitro ADME studies—general pharmacokinetic predictions

slope) using Prism Software (GraphPad, Surrey, UK).

The following descriptors of the test compounds: molecular weight, aqueous solubility and number of H-bond donors and acceptors present were calculated using ChemBioDraw Ultra 13.0 (PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA).

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on March 8, 2018 by LONDON SCHOOL OF HYGIENE & TROPICAL MED

Distribution coefficient. The octanol phase was left to saturate with PBS (pH7.4) on a shaking plate at 32°C for 48 hours. The test compounds were then dissolved in the 1-octanol at a concentration of 1 µg/ml and left to equilibrate with an equal volume of PBS on a shaking plate at 32°C for 48 hours. The 1 ug/ml concentration was selected such that the amount of the

154

155

156

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

candidate drug in each phase did not exceed 10% of the solubility limit of that compound. Aliquots of each phase were taken and diluted in mobile phase followed by LC-MS/MS analysis. Each experiment was conducted in triplicate. The distribution coefficient was calculated as shown in Equation 1:

log D (pH 7.4) = log
$$\left[\frac{[solute]_{oct}}{[solute]_{pbs}^{ion} + [solute]_{pbs}^{neutral}}\right]$$
 Equation 1

In vitro prediction of permeability and Pap-mediated efflux transport. MDCK-MDR1 cells were seeded in the apical chamber of a 12-well Transwell plate (Corning Inc., Lowell, MA) at a density of 6.6x10⁶ cells/well and 1.5 mL of medium was applied in the basolateral chamber. After 24 hours, non-adhered cells were washed away and new medium was applied to both chambers. The cells were incubated for an additional 48 hours at 37°C to form confluent monolayers.

Prior to the addition of the test compounds, the cell culture medium was removed and replaced with transport medium consisting of Hanks's balanced salt solution with 24 mM of glucose and 24 mM of HEPES buffer. The integrity of the monolayers was assured by measuring the trans-epithelial resistance (TEER) for each insert (TEER > 160 Ω cm²). Assays were performed in triplicate by adding 3 µM drug solutions (1 mM DMSO stock solutions diluted in transport medium) in the absence or presence of 2 μ M GF918 (a potent Pgp inhibitor (29)) in the transport buffer of the apical chamber. The comparator controls propranolol and amprenavir for transcellular transport and Pgp efflux respectively were included in each assay. The Transwell plates were incubated on a shaking plate (160 rpm) at 37°C and 5% CO₂ for 1 hour. After incubation, aliquots from both chambers were removed for analysis by LC-MS/MS.

175

176

177

178

179

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

Values for mass balance, apparent permeability for the apical to the basolateral side (Papp) (Equation 2), apparent permeability value for the apical to the basolateral in presence of GF+918 (Papp+GF918), and the absorption quotient (AQ) (Equation 3) were calculated for each compound (30-32). Test compounds with an AQ ≤ 0.3 were considered non-Pgp substrates, while AQ > 0.3 were considered Pgp substrates (31, 32). Acceptance criterion for mass balance was 70-120%.

180
$$P_{app} = \frac{dQ/dt}{c_0 \times A}$$
 Equation 2

$$AQ = \frac{P_{app+GF918} - P_{app}}{P_{app+GF918}}$$
 EQUATION 3

Analysis of test compounds in biological samples

Skin tissue homogenisation. For the preparation of the skin homogenates, 20 ml of ice-cold Dulbecco's modified PBS (pH 7.4) was added to fine pieces of approximately 2 g of shaved dorsal full-thickness BALB/c mouse skin (Bioreclamation LLC., Westbury, NY). The tissue suspension was homogenized using an OMNI probe homogenizer (Kennesaw, GA) and centrifuged for 10 minutes at 800g to sediment cellular residue. The protein content of the supernatant was determined using the Pierce BCA protein assay kit (Pierce, Rockford, IL) and adjusted to 2.5 mg/ml. The supernatant was stored at approximately -80°C until use.

High performance liquid chromatography with tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). Sample analysis was performed by LC-MS/MS. The instrumentation consisted of a CTC Pal Autosampler (Leap Technologies, Carrboro, NC), two Agilent 1100 series pumps (Agilent Technologies Inc.,

195

196

197

198

199

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

Santa Clara, CA), a CH-30 column heater (Eppendorf, Hauppauge, NY) and an API-3000 triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) equipped with a turbo-ion electrospray interface for detection. Chromatography was performed on a Luna C18 reversedphase column (50 x 2 mm; 3 µm) from Phenomenex (Torrance, CA) protected by a matched phase guard column. The mass spectrometer and peripheral devices were controlled using Analyst Software version 1.4.2 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). The mobile phase used to elute the compounds consisted of 5 mM ammonium formate and 0.1% (v/v) formic acid in water (A) and 5 mM ammonium formate and 0.1% (v/v) formic acid in methanol (B). The samples were introduced on the column using 90% A at a flow rate of 600 followed by a step gradient to 90% B between 0.5 and 1min. For analytical chromatography, a linear gradient of 10% A was maintained for 2min after which the mobile phase was switched back to 90% A. This mobile phase composition was maintained till the end of the run (3.5min). Test compounds eluted between 2-3 min. In vitro stability and disposition in skin homogenates

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on March 8, 2018 by LONDON SCHOOL OF HYGIENE & TROPICAL MED

Stability in skin homogenates. The stability of the compounds was measured at protein concentrations of 2.5 mg/ml. Each compound (10 µM) was incubated in mouse skin homogenate on a shaking plate at 32°C. An aliquot of the incubation mixture was collected at 0, 10, 20, 30 minutes, 1 hour and 2 hours and quenched with 4 volumes of ice-cold methanol containing 0.1% formic acid. Samples were centrifuged at 3000xg for 10 minutes at 15°C, and the obtained supernatant was analysed for the test compound by LC-MS/MS. Ethyl- and

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

to a skin temperature of 32°C.

propylparaben, ester compounds known to undergo degradation due to enzymatic hydrolysis to yield hydroxybenzoic acid were included as positive controls. Skin tissue binding. Rapid equilibrium dialysis (RED) devices (Pierce, Rockford, IL) in plate format were used to determine the drug binding to the skin homogenate supernatant. A day prior to the experiment, the Teflon plate was washed with 30% ethanol and rinsed twice with deionized water before leaving it to dry. On the day of the experiment, skin supernatant was thawed and the test compound was added to a final concentration of 10 µM. Samples of fortified skin tissue homogenate (300µl) were added to the sample chambers of the RED devices and PBS (500µl) (Pierce, Rockford, IL) was added to each buffer chamber. Plates were incubated on a shaking plate at 32°C for 2 hours. Aliguots of both phases were collected and treated with 4 volumes of ice-cold methanol with 0.1% of formic acid to precipitate proteins. Treated sample aliquots were centrifuged at 3000xg and 15°C for 10 minutes. The resulting supernatants were assayed for the parent drug concentration by LC-MS/MS. In vitro prediction of skin permeability. The EpiDerm™ Skin Model EPI-606-X was obtained from MatTek Corporation (Ashland, MA, USA). The EPI-606-X model is characterised by an enhanced barrier function and was specifically designed to conduct permeability assays. Upon receipt, the skin tissue (lot 17860) was stored overnight at 2-8°C. On the day of the experiment, the skin inserts were transferred to a 6-well plate containing 2ml of Dulbecco's modified PBS and left to

acclimatise on a heated shaking plate. The temperature was set at 36.6°C which corresponded

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

Due to a low water solubility, the test compounds were prepared in an ethanol/ Miglyol 840 (1:9) vehicle - a solution that has been used for permeation studies with poorly soluble drugs (33). After 1 hour, 1.14 ml of a 100 μg/ml donor solution was applied on the model skin using a positive displacement pipette. The plates were left to incubate with gentle shaking at 95 rpm. Caffeine (log P=-0.08) and testosterone (log P=3.32) were included as control comparator compounds in each assay run. Each control was evaluated at the same concentration as the test compounds. Testosterone, representing a hydrophobic control, was formulated in the ethanol/Myglyol vehicle, and caffeine representing a hydrophilic control, was prepared in Dulbecco's modified PBS. Aliquots were removed from the receiver fluid of each chamber and replaced with fresh PBS at regular time points over the course of 6 hours incubation. The samples were assayed for test compound by LC-MS/MS. The permeation of each compound was evaluated in triplicate. Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS software version 19.0.

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on March 8, 2018 by LONDON SCHOOL OF HYGIENE & TROPICAL MED

Skin disposition

In vitro permeation prediction using full-thickness BALB/c mouse. In vitro permeation studies were conducted in a semi-automated system comprising 6 water-jacketed, static, vertical type Franz diffusion cells (FDC) from Logan instruments Ltd. (Somerset, NJ). The permeation studies had two objectives (Table 2). The first objective was to compare the permeation of the test compounds through BALB/c mouse skin to the permeability determined by means of the RHE assay. Therefore, the experimental conditions were held consistent to those employed for the RHE assay. The second objective was to compare the permeation of the test compounds using

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

fluid was analysed by LC-MS/MS.

model of CL. This in vivo study required a low application volume and a 1% (w/v) drug formulation. For FDC studies, female BALB/c mouse skin was obtained from Bioreclamation IVT (Westbury, NY, USA) and stored at -80°C. On the day of each study skin was thawed and hair removed by careful clipping to avoid skin damage. Excess fat and muscle tissue was removed with the aid of a scalpel. Discs of skin approximately 2.5cm in diameter were cut and mounted between the donor and receptor compartment of each FDC and kept in place by the use of a clamp. Vacuum silicone grease was applied to seal gaps and prevent leakage. The cells were left to equilibrate until the skin temperature stabilised at 32°C. The donor and receptor solutions were prepared as described above. Receptor fluid samples were taken at time intervals over a period of 6 hours. Each test compound was tested in triplicate. Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS software version 19.0. Mass balance during FDC studies. Mass balance study was conducted using the formulations and experimental conditions intended for evaluation in the murine model of CL. The amount of drug that did not permeate into or through the skin (unabsorbed donor fraction) was obtained by gently swabbing the skin surface with a cotton bud at the end of the permeation experiment. This was repeated a second time. The cotton buds were placed in a tube with 1ml of MeOH/PBS (70:30) and left overnight on a shaker (800 rpm). An aliquot of the extraction

the formulation conditions that would be used for topical dose administration in the murine

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

The Franz diffusion cells were dismantled and the mouse skin was removed and placed in a vial. Three rounds of extraction with 1ml of MeOH-PBS (7:3) were conducted. At each time, the vial was left to shake overnight before analysis by LC-MS/MS to extract the amount of drug that permeated into the skin. Acceptable mass balance was 80-120% representing the total compound measured in the unabsorbed donor fraction, methanolic skin extracts, and the samples of receptor chamber fluid. Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS software version 19.0.

Efficacy in a murine model of cutaneous leishmaniasis

Drugs and formulation preparation. AmBisome®, a liposomal formulation of amphotericin B for injection was kindly provided by DNDi (Geneva) and prepared according to manufacturer's recommendations. Briefly, AmBisome powder was reconstituted with 12ml of cold sterile ultra-high purity grade water (>18 MΩ.cm, MilliQ, Hertfordshire) to produce a 4 mg/ml amphotericin B liposomal suspension. This suspension was vigorously shaken and incubated at 65°C for 10 minutes after which it was allowed to cool to room temperature. This dispersion was diluted with sterile 5% dextrose solution (w/v) to obtain a final suspension of 0.5mg of amphotericin B/ml. Every other day up to 5 doses, 200ul of this formulation was administered by bolus intravenous injection into a lateral tail vein. Leshcutan® ointment, containing 12% of paromomycin and 15% methylbenzethoniumchloride (Teva, Israel) was purchased from Israelpharm.com and 0.1ml of a 1ml syringe was applied and gently spread over the nodule twice daily for 10 days.

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

The experimental topical formulations containing compounds LSH001, LSH002 and LSH003 respectively were prepared 24 hours prior to the start of dosing. To allow maximal permeation, each test compound was applied as a saturated solution. An excess amount of the test compound was added to a 1:1 (v/v) mixture of propylene glycol (PG) and ethanol (Ethanol). The mixture was left to stir overnight after which it was centrifuged at 15,668 x g for 15 minutes. The supernatant, i.e. a saturated solution, was pipetted into a clean vial and 50ul was applied to each mouse twice a day for 10 days (Table 3). The standard suspension vehicle used to prepare the oral formulations was prepared by weighing and adding each component (0.5% (w/v) carboxymethylcellulose, 0.5% (v/v) benzyl alcohol, 0.4% Tween 80 (v/v) in a 0.9% (v/v) NaCl solution) into a clean glass vial. The mixture was left to stir overnight at room temperature prior to sterilisation by autoclaving. The experimental oral formulations containing either LSH001, LSH002 or LSH003 in the vehicle were prepared by adding the appropriate amount of test compound to the vehicle in order to obtain a final concentration of 2.5mg/ml. The suspension was sonicated for 30 minutes and was administered orally twice a day for 10 days. All formulations, including the AmBisome and topical formulations were stored at 4°C throughout the experiment. Experimental CL model. Sixty female BALB/c mice (6-8 weeks old; Charles River Ltd., UK) were shaved on the rump above the tail and one day later, injected with 2×10^7 stationary phase L. major JISH118 promastigotes (200 μl) subcutaneously on the rump above the tail. Approximately 7 days post infection, small nodules were visible. The nodule size was recorded

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on March 8, 2018 by LONDON SCHOOL OF HYGIENE & TROPICAL MED

daily and when they reached an average diameter of 4.8 mm (±0.8), the mice were randomly

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

allocated in groups of 6 and drug administration was started. Formulations were administered over a period of 10 days. Untreated and topical vehicle only control groups were included. Treatment efficacy was evaluated by lesion size progression, measuring the lesion diameter in 2

dimensions on a daily basis using digital callipers (Jencons Scientific Ltd., UK). The average diameter was plotted as a function of time. Statistical analyses of differences between the average lesion diameter between groups on the last day of treatment was performed using one-way ANOVA with post-hoc Tukey test (SPSS software version 19.0). Three days after the end of treatment, the mice were sacrificed and the lesion was excised and stored at -80°C until the parasite load was quantified using real-time qPCR. Statistical differences in the average parasite numbers between different groups were analysed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey post-hoc test (SPSS software, version 19.0).

Quantification of the parasite load in a CL lesion. On the day of extraction the samples of lesion tissue were defrosted and cut into 2 approximately equal samples. One half was weighed and cut into fine pieces with a surgical blade before placing in a microcentrifuge tube. The proteinase K and lysis buffer were added to the tube and samples were incubated at 56°C until a homogeneous mixture was obtained. The DNA of 200ul of this homogenate was then extracted using the DNeasy blood and tissue kit (Qiagen) and eluted in the same volume. The purity and concentration of DNA was analysed using the NanoDrop™ ND1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

The primer pair and probe, previously designed and validated by Van Der Meide et al (34) targeted a 170-bp region in the Leishmania 18S ribosomal gene and are specific for all

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

Leishmania species. The respective sequences are shown in Table 4. Conventional PCR was performed to confirm the presence of PCR product of the correct size and to verify primer efficacy. 1µl of a 1/100 dilution of the DNA extract was amplified in a final volume of 10µl containing 2µl of KAPA 2G buffer (Kapa Biosystems, Wilmington, MA) and primers at a concentration of 0.4µM. The samples were run in a G-Storm GS4 machine (Somerset, UK). The amplification cycle started with a denaturation step at 95°C for 3 minutes followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 15s, 60°C for 1 minute and 72°C for 30 seconds with a final extension of 72°C for 30 seconds. Each run contained a negative sample whereby the extracted DNA was replaced by UHP water. The PCR products were separated on a 3% agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide and visualised under UV light. A 100-bp DNA ladder was run in parallel with the samples. The parasite load was determined by means of quantitative PCR. For the amplification reaction, 2μl of a 1/100 diluted DNA sample was added to 8μl mix containing 5μl KAPA Probe Fast qPCR master mix (2x) (Kapa Biosystems, Wilmington, MA), 0.4 µM of each primer and 0.25µM of the appropriate probe. The tubes were placed in the 72 sample rotor of the instrument (Rotor Gene 3000, Qiagen) and the reaction with the following conditions was initiated: 95°C for 3 minutes followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 3 seconds and 60°C for 30 seconds. Each run contained a

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on March 8, 2018 by LONDON SCHOOL OF HYGIENE & TROPICAL MED

19

standard curve, a no-template-control and a negative control.

Results

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

Structures of the compounds

Benzoxaborole compounds from 4 different chemical classes that had shown anti-parasitic activity in the P. falciparum, T. brucei, T. cruzi or L. donovani screens were selected from the library for screening against CL causing species. Some of the subclasses tested are shown in Table 1 and include benzoxaborole 6-carboxamides (D), benzoxaborole-5-carboxamides (B), pyrazole 6-carboxamides (C) and benzoxaborininols (E) in which the 5-ring containing the boron atom is replaced by a 6-ring structure.

In vitro anti-leishmanial activity

Twenty-five compounds were screened against intracellular amastigotes. LSH001, LSH003, LSH023, LSH024 and LSH025 were the only five compounds that showed activity against at least one Old World (L. major, L. tropica and L. aethiopica) and one New World (L. mexicana and L. panamensis) species with an EC₅₀ value below 30 μM (Table 5). These five test compounds were most active against L. tropica with an EC₅₀ value below 5 μM followed by L. major with EC₅₀ values in the same range. L. mexicana was the least susceptible species with EC50 values ranging from 9 to 22 μ M. For most tested compounds, the EC50 value against L. mexicana was higher than 30 μM, the highest concentration tested suggesting low activity of the compound. Amphotericin B, included as positive control, had a high activity with EC₅₀ values ranging from 0.049 to 0.685 μM, indicating a tenfold difference in sensitivity between L. major/L. tropica and L. mexicana. Miltefosine, the other control drug, was less active than amphotericin B with EC₅₀ values ranging from 7 to 45 μ M and 10 to 35 μ M respectively.

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

At this stage, it was decided to advance all compounds with potent (EC₅₀ <5uM) and/or moderate activity (5uM<EC50<25uM) against at least one Old World and one New World Leishmania species. Eight compounds (LSH026-034) with promising activity against other Leishmania species (DNDi, unpublished data) were also included in further assays.

Physicochemical properties

An initial computational screening of the test compounds was conducted to evaluate permeation related physicochemical properties i.e. the molecular weight, the presence of Hbond donors or acceptors and the aqueous solubility. The partition coefficient was determined experimentally. It was found that the benzoxaborole test compounds had appropriate physicochemical profiles for skin permeation (Table 6), i.e. a molecular weight below 500 g/mol, a log D (at pH 7.4) between 1-3 (except for LSH002 (logD = 0.44) and LSH032 (logD = 0.88)) and no more than 2 H-bond donor groups.

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on March 8, 2018 by LONDON SCHOOL OF HYGIENE & TROPICAL MED

Intrinsic permeability

The MDCK-MDR1 assay was performed to identify P-glycoprotein (Pgp) substrate and to evaluate passive permeability of the test compounds across simple epithelia such as that of the intestine (35). The test compounds generally demonstrated high passive permeability (Table 7) in the assay with values ranging from 247-688 nm/s (32) except for compound LSH002 that showed a low intrinsic permeability of 32.5 nm/s. Further, only one compound (LSH002; AQ value: 0.492) exceeded the cut-off value (>0.3) for absorptive quotient indicating it was a potential substrate for the efflux transporter Pgp. For comparison, Amprenavir, the positive control included as a known Pgp substrate afforded an AQ value of 0.846. Interestingly, the

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on March 8, 2018 by LONDON SCHOOL OF HYGIENE & TROPICAL MED

most active compounds during in vitro susceptibility studies all showed permeability values above 300 nm/s and were no Pgp substrates.

Previous research suggested an enhanced permeability of hydrophilic compounds in Leishmania-infected skin (20). Compounds LSH002 and LSH032 were therefore included in further assays despite their less favourable physicochemical properties and/or intrinsic permeability.

Dermal stability, binding and permeability

Stability in skin supernatant. An initial rapid drug degradation of the test compounds was observed in skin supernatant (Figure 2) during the first 30 minutes, followed by slower drug metabolism. After two hours, compound recovery was 25 to 60% with LSH001, 002, 024, 025, 028, 031, 032, 034 being moderately stable (% remaining: 25-44) and LSH003, 023, 026, 027, 029, 030, 033, 034 being most stable with 45-75% test compound remaining. The two paraben compounds, ethyl and propyl paraben, known substrates for skin esterases, were observed to break down very quickly in presence of the skin supernatant. The recovery of these labile compounds was 10.9 and 0% respectively after 2 hours of incubation.

Drug binding to skin components. A binding assay showed large variations in unbound fractions among the benzoxaboroles; unbound fractions from 34% to 92% were observed (Table 8). Only 2 compounds had a high free fraction of 85% or more comprising LSH001 and LSH026. The majority of the compounds has a free fraction between 50 and 85% and finally LSH003 and LSH023 with the lowest free fractions of 44 and 34% respectively.

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

RHE permeability. RHE was used to evaluate the passive permeability of the test compounds across multiple layered membranes more representative of skin. The permeation of LSH002 was statistically significant higher compared to LSH001, LSH029 and LSH033 (one-way ANOVA, p<0.05). As anticipated, the high permeability hydrophilic control caffeine showed the highest permeation, which was significantly higher when compared to all the test compounds and testosterone (lower permeability, hydrophobic control) after 6 hours (one-way ANOVA; p < 0.05). When ranking the cumulative amount permeated over 6 hours, the rank order from high to low was as follows: caffeine > LSH002 > LSH003 > LSH023 > testosterone > LSH024 > LSH033 > LSH001 > LSH029. Both caffeine and LSH002 are more hydrophilic compounds as indicated by their low log D of -0.08 and 0.44, respectively. The vehicle in which all drugs were applied was ethanol-Miglyol 840 (1:9). LSH002 even though in solution, might have been closer to saturation exhibiting a higher thermodynamic activity compared to the other test compounds with a higher log D. The higher permeation exhibited by LSH002 could also involve the higher affinity of this compound for the RHE compared to the lipophilic vehicle thereby stimulating its preferential partitioning into the membrane. Based on the overall data set collected, it was decided to select three compounds (LSH001, LSH002 and LSH003) for further study. LSH001 was included because it showed potent antileishmanial activity and was representative of a lipophilic compound, despite lower permeability, that may prove helpful for formulation and skin disposition. LSH002 was included

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on March 8, 2018 by LONDON SCHOOL OF HYGIENE & TROPICAL MED

due to its higher solubility in water and hence a control for disposition in the skin permeation

441

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

449

450

451

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

assay and LSH003 was selected because it was active against the 5 Leishmania species tested and it was ranked second with regards flux in the permeation assay.

Dermal disposition

The objective of the first permeation study in mouse skin was to verify the rank order of the three selected compounds and compare them with the results obtained from the previous permeation experiment where a RHE model was used (Table 9). Therefore, the experimental conditions and drug formulations were similar to the RHE experiment. The results are shown in Figure 3 and indicate that the rank order LSH002 > LSH003 > LSH001 is maintained when using BALB/c mouse skin instead of the RHE membrane. Furthermore, the permeation of LSH002 through BALB/c mouse skin was significantly higher compared to LSH001, LSH003 and testosterone (one-way ANOVA, p<0.05). A second permeation study using BALB/c mouse skin aimed to assess the permeation and skin disposition of the compounds after application of a low volume of a 1% solution of test compound in ethanol-propylene glycol (E-PG) (1:1) solution (28 µL/cm²) comparable with the formulation intended for use in the murine CL model. Permeation (Table 8) was statistically higher for LSH001 and LSH003 (p<0.05, one-way ANOVA) compared to LSH002. The rank order for flux was LSH001 > LSH003 > LSH002. Of note, in the E-PG formulation the more hydrophobic compounds (LSH001 and LSH003) achieved greater permeation than LSH002. There was no difference observed in the lag time for the different compounds (ANOVA; p >0.05). A skin disposition study (Figure 4) was conducted to compare the amount of test compound

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on March 8, 2018 by LONDON SCHOOL OF HYGIENE & TROPICAL MED

that either: remained on the surface of the skin, retained within the dermal layers or had

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

477

478

479

480

481

permeated through the skin. Whilst there was no statistical significant difference between the amounts of compounds that had permeated over 24 hours, the amount of LSH001 in the skin was significantly higher in comparison to LSH002 and LSH003 (one-way ANOVA; p<0.05). The mass balance for the total compound recovering was 84%, 87% and 114% for LSH001, LSH002 and LSH003, respectively indicating excellent mass balance was achieved for all compounds across the compartments.

In vivo anti-leishmanial activity

After 10 days of topical application of the three selected compounds to the closed nodules, LSH001 halted the lesion size progression and the lesions in this group were statistically smaller compared to the vehicle control group (One-way ANOVA, p<0.05) whereas no lesion size reduction was observed for LSH002 or LSH003 (Figure 5 (A)). The lesion sizes and parasite burden per lesion of the groups 3 days after the last drug administration are shown in Figure 5 (B). The parasite load in the group receiving topical LSH001 is slightly lower than in the other topically treated groups however there is no statistically significant difference (One-way ANOVA, p>0.05). Whilst the primary aim of this work was to investigate the potential of benzoxaboroles for topical treatment for CL, the in vitro ADME data suggest good overall permeability. Previous studies of the benzoxaboroles as orally active drugs for HAT suggested good oral bioavailability for this class. Therefore, we administered the three test compounds LH001, LH002 and LH003 orally to CL infected mice. A significant reduction of lesion size was seen for the groups receiving LSH003 by the oral route compared to the relevant control group (One-way ANOVA,

p<0.05). This was also reflected in parasite load as the number parasites per lesion was statistically significant lower compared to the untreated control group (One-way ANOVA, p<0.05). For AmBisome®, the positive control, a statistically significant reduction in lesion diameter and parasite load was observed compared to the control group (p<0.05) except for the LSH001 topical and LSH003 oral groups (p>0.05). This was expected as per previous reports describing a reduction of both lesion size and parasite burden (36).

Discussion

482

483

484

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

494

495

496

497

498

499

500

501

502

Topical treatment for a dermatological infection limited to the more superficial layers of the skin, offers an attractive alternative to the currently used routes of administration for CL treatment as it (i) allows local drug targeting directly to the infection site, (ii) offers the potential to limit adverse effects, (iii) is not invasive and (iv) is easy to apply by the patient. A systematic approach to the identification of potential lead compounds to progress to clinical trials is still lacking. The goal of this work was to explore a novel approach to identify promising compounds for the treatment of CL.

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on March 8, 2018 by LONDON SCHOOL OF HYGIENE & TROPICAL MED

The benzoxaborole class of anti-parasitics has demonstrated efficacy across multiple parasitic disease targets including the Leishmania spp. DNDI-6148 is at the preclinical stage of development for treatment for visceral leishmaniasis (37) and oxaborole SCYX-7158 is now in phase 2 clinical trials for the treatment of HAT (37). The goal of these programs was to identify orally active treatments of these systemic parasitic infections.

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

518

519

520

521

522

523

For successful therapeutic activity in vivo in CL, a drug requires both potent anti-leishmanial activity and an ability to permeate biological membranes in order to reach the Leishmania parasites in the dermal layer of the skin, a process that is impacted by both the physicochemical properties of the drug and the route of administration. Several criteria limit delivery of drugs through the skin; drugs with a molecular weight of < 500 g/mol (38), a partition coefficient between 1 and 3 (39, 40), a low melting point (< 200°C) (41), aqueous solubility >1 mg/ml (42) and less than 2 H-bond donor groups (43) are more likely to permeate. Topically applied drugs also undergo relatively little enzymatic degradation compared to orally administered drugs that need to pass a monolayer of intestinal epithelium and have low hepatic first-pass metabolism before it reaches the blood circulation to allow it to distribute to the skin (40). Whilst each layer of the skin is a potential hurdle to drug permeation, it is the outer layer of the skin, the stratum corneum, that is a highly restrictive permeability barrier formed of 10-15 layers of dead keratinized cells imbedded in an intercellular lipid mixture organised in bilayers (44, 45). This inherent difference between bio-membranes governs the preferential permeability of certain drugs (40). Previously reported strategies for developing topical treatments for CL have focussed solely on formulation optimisation as means to increase treatment efficacy, whereas we wish to identify compounds with intrinsic properties consistent with topical administration. To achieve this objective we systematically evaluated physiologically-based pharmacokinetic parameters and

aimed to correlate these to the physicochemical properties of the compounds. A diverse set of

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

benzoxoboroles associated with good drug-like properties in previous anti-parasitic programs was selected. Compounds were assessed for their likely intrinsic activity against old and new world CL species by measuring the in vitro activity against the intracellular amastigote form using a previously reported assay (46). Dermal drug-like properties were characterised by comparing physicochemical properties, in vitro permeability through MDCK, and RHE models and stability in skin homogenate. Subsequently promising compounds were advanced to whole skin permeability, binding and disposition evaluation. This strategy of selection was employed to advance the most promising compounds to the more complex assays. Ultimately, this strategy identified 3 compounds each with unique features for evaluation in a murine model of CL. Initially, five benzoxaboroles 6-carboxamides showed broad range activity against CL causing species. To complement this intrinsic activity, in vitro membrane permeability assays were employed to assess each compound's ability to cross a cellular barrier. Previously, the MDCK-MDR1 Transwell assay was successfully utilised to classify compounds with a potential high permeability across the gut when P_{app} A→B _{+GF918} >50 nm/s (31) or the blood brain barrier when the $P_{app} A \rightarrow B_{+GF918} > 150$ nm/s and the compound is a non-PgP substrate (47). Whilst for dermal permeation no clear selection criteria were found in literature, our test compounds generally exhibited high permeability with a $P_{app} A \rightarrow B_{+GF918} > 200$ nm/s, except for LSH002 ($P_{app} A \rightarrow B_{+GF918}$ = 32.5 nm/s). Furthermore, the MDCK-MDR1 assay allowed us to identify potential substrates of the P-glycoprotein (PgP) efflux transporter (48-50) which is helpful considering that these Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on March 8, 2018 by LONDON SCHOOL OF HYGIENE & TROPICAL MED

compounds may suffer reduced fraction absorbed following oral delivery (51, 52) but may also

546

547

548

549

550

551

552

553

554

555

556

557

558

559

560

561

562

563

564

565

parasites survive and divide inside macrophages meaning that Pgp substrate drugs might potentially be less active compared to drugs that are not Pgp substrates as efflux would attenuate entry into macrophages (53, 54). In fact, reports of inactivity of antimonial drugs against L. donovani in patients were linked to upregulation of Pgp transporters in the host cells, leading to low concentrations of drug in the macrophages and thus disease progression (55). In our set of test compounds, only LSH002 showed an absorption quotient higher than 0.3 indicating it potentially is a Pgp subtrate (31). Moving on from the cellular models of permeation, the permeability of the test compounds was further evaluated in complex RHE that has shown ability to predict dermal permeation (56) allowing us to further rank order our test compounds. The hydrophilic compounds, caffeine and LSH002, showed highest permeation in this model. Caffeine and LSH002 were the most hydrophilic compounds amongst the test compounds as was indicated by their log D value of -0.08 and 0.44 respectively. Hence, LSH002 even though in solution, might have been closer to saturation in the ethanol-Miglyol 840 (1:9) vehicle exhibiting a higher thermodynamic activity compared to the test compounds with a higher log D. The second highest permeation was observed for LSH003 the test compound that also showed good in vitro anti-leishmanial activity against all five spp. LSH001, also active in vitro against all Leishmania spp, showed a slightly lower permeation than testosterone the lipophilic control drug. When evaluating the permeation of these three compounds in BALB/c mouse skin using the

demonstrate reduced ability to penetrate macrophages. This is important because Leishmania

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on March 8, 2018 by LONDON SCHOOL OF HYGIENE & TROPICAL MED

same experimental design, the overall permeation and thus flux of the test compounds and

567

568

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

578

579

580

581

582

583

584

585

586

587

testosterone were lower compared to the permeation through RHE (one-way ANOVA, p < 0.05) (Table 6). Several studies have indicated that RHE is more permeable than animal and human skin (57-59). The rank order of the test compound's permeation through mouse skin was the same as for the RHE (LSH002 > LSH003 > LSH001) and more importantly, the permeation of all test compounds was higher than that of testosterone.

We next explored the metabolic stability of the benzoxaboroles in both liver-based and skinbased assays. Degradation of drugs in the skin has been reported (60-62) with the main site of activity situated in the epidermis (63). We used the supernatant of skin homogenate to determine the drug stability and observed that all benzoxaborole test compounds showed a higher stability compared to the paraben compounds that are known substrates for skin esterases and are therefore expected to breakdown (64). The fraction of parent compound remaining after 2h of incubation was relatively similar for all compounds ranging from approximately 30 to 60%. The skin homogenate was prepared using full-thickness BALB/c mouse skin as opposed to epidermal membranes alone. Epidermal membranes exhibited reduced enzymatic activity compared to full-thickness skin (65), possibly due to the exposure to heat required to separate epidermal and dermal membranes. Furthermore, the in vivo efficacy study will be conducted in female BALB/c mice and thus full-thickness mouse skin was used to assure consistency between the in vitro - in vivo data set. During the preparation of our homogenate intracellular enzymes might have been released contributing to the breakdown of drugs, in which case these results represent an overestimation of drug metabolism (62). How these results compare to human skin is unclear but a study comparing paraben breakdown in rat and human skin, observed a higher metabolism, in the order of magnitudes, for rat skin

589

590

591

592

593

594

595

596

597

598

599

600

601

602

603

604

605

606

607

608

31

indicating that the breakdown in human skin is expected to be lower as compared to the results obtained here (66).

Drug binding to skin proteins can also result in the inability of the drug to reach or distribute to its target; it is the unbound (free) fraction of the drug in the dermis that is pharmacologically active as it can passively permeate into the macrophage and from there into the parasite (67). After incubation in skin homogenate, our test compounds exhibited a range of unbound fractions. A certain level of drug-skin binding is desirable to establish a depot effect leading to slow release of the drug from the skin into the macrophage and Leishmania parasite. As the unbound fractions across a membrane are in equilibrium, drug being taken up by the macrophage will cause drug bound to skin components to be released and become available for uptake into the macrophage. Moreover, the skin binding could prevent systemic exposure and therefore preliminary drug metabolism and excretion.

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on March 8, 2018 by LONDON SCHOOL OF HYGIENE & TROPICAL MED

Prior to in vivo evaluation, the skin disposition of the compounds was evaluated using BALB/c mouse skin under real-life conditions e.g. limited volume of a 1% (w/v) test compound formulation. This showed a lower permeation for LSH002 compared to LSH001 and LSH003 in contrast to its higher permeation shown in the RHE. This is likely due to the change in vehicle and thus saturation therein. LSH001 and LSH003 were applied as suspensions with a maximal thermodynamic activity, while LSH002 was applied as a solution at about 80% of saturation and thus a suboptimal thermodynamic driving force. Also due to its hydrophilic nature, LSH002 is likely to have a higher affinity for the ethanol-PG vehicle compared to the skin causing the drug to remain in the vehicle on the skin surface. In addition, our mass balance data showed a

610

611

612

613

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

625

626

627

628

629

significantly lower drug fraction in the skin for both LSH002 and LSH003 compared to LSH001 (one-way ANOVA; p<0.05). For LSH001 about half of the applied drugs had permeated into the skin. LSH001 has a high log D which is expected to facilitate partitioning and diffusion into the stratum corneum. A high log D, however, is unfavourable for the permeation into the dermis. When evaluating the activity of these test compounds in vivo, LSH001 applied topically was able

to halt the lesion growth, which suggests that the drug was able to permeate through the SC and reach the parasites situated in the lower epidermis and dermis. LSH003 administered orally, significantly reduced the lesion size and parasite burden compared to the LSH001 and LSH002 oral groups. This non-healing BALB/c model is a rigorous test for drugs because (i) upon infection with Leishmania parasites, the mice develop fulminating infections with ulcers that quickly progress to death if left untreated (68), and (ii) the drugs were only applied after establishment of the lesions. For this model lesion size reduction or suppression of lesion growth is regarded as a promising result (68).

The determination of efficacy of the topical formulations can be difficult to gauge as the mice are able to remove the formulation by licking the site. For LSH001, there was no change in lesion progression when the compound was administered orally. This suggests that the drug that permeated the skin exerts the suppression of nodule growth observed upon topical application of the same agent. This correlates with the data obtained from the in vitro permeation experiment using BALB/c mouse skin. Not only did LSH001 show a higher permeation compared to LSH002 and LSH003, the mass balance study also showed a statistically higher concentration of LSH001 in the skin compared to the two other test

631

632

633

634

635

636

637

638

639

640

641

642

643

644

645

646

647

648

649

barriers that occur in vivo.

of clinical candidates (70, 71).

compounds. Of the three in vivo tested compounds, LSH001 also exhibited the highest unbound fraction. It could be hypothesised that even for topical compounds it is beneficial to have a high unbound fraction in order to exert anti-leishmanial activity as opposed to binding to skin. LSH001 suppressed nodule growth when applied topically whereas oral administration with the same agent did not affect lesion size and vice versa for LSH003 whereby oral administration reduced the lesion size but topical administration had no effect. Since LSH001 and LSH003, exhibited the same in vitro activity against L. major, it is thus suggested that the difference in efficacy upon oral administration is due to pharmacokinetic variations between LSH001 and LSH003. Conclusions Previously, the process of drug development for CL mainly focussed on drug activity testing and formulation optimisation. Current in vitro models to test anti-leishmanial activity rely on 2D culture systems that demonstrate activity against the intracellular parasite but correlate poorly

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on March 8, 2018 by LONDON SCHOOL OF HYGIENE & TROPICAL MED

We have shown that a more complete evaluation of a drug candidate is established by incorporating physiologically-based pharmacokinetic assays in our drug discovery, leading to an improved selection of lead candidates, which is essential to improve the likelihood of a success

with results obtained in animal models (69). This "disconnect" is likely to be caused by the

oversimplification of the in vitro model that is unable to account for pharmacokinetic drug

651

652

653

654

655

656

657

658

659

660

661

662

663

664

665

666

enables input from medicinal chemistry to alter the core molecule to optimise physicochemical properties to increase distribution and specificity of the drug in the skin at an early stage of development. Acknowledgements This research was supported by funding from the Bloomsbury Colleges London and the Charlotte and Yule Bogue Research Fund from the University College London **Funding** Each author is, or was, at the time of the work, a paid employee of their affiliated organization. Further this work was financially supported by the Bloomsbury Colleges London and a Bogue fellowship to Katrien Van Bocxlaer. **Transparency declarations** None to declare

Furthermore, this step-wise approach allows evaluation of the test compounds at each stage

References 667

- 668 Alvar J, Velez ID, Bern C, Herrero M, Desjeux P, Cano J, Jannin J, den Boer M. 2012. Leishmaniasis Worldwide and Global Estimates of Its Incidence. PLoS One 7:e35671. 669
- Desjeux P. 2001. The increase in risk factors for leishmaniasis worldwide. Transactions of the 670 2. 671 Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 95.
- Alirol E, Getaz L, Stoll B, Chappuis F, Loutan L. 2011. Urbanisation and infectious diseases in a 672 3. globalised world. The Lancet Infectious Diseases 11:131-141. 673
- Rangel EF, da Costa SM, Carvalho BM. 2014. Environmental Changes and the Geographic 674 4. 675 Spreading of American Cutaneous Leishmaniasis in Brazil. In Claborn D (ed), Leishmaniasis -676 Trends in Epidemiology, Diagnosis and Treatment.
- 677 5. Hayani K, Dandashli A, Weisshaar E. 2014. Cutaneous Leishmaniasis in Syria: Clinical Features, 678 Current Status and the Effects of War. Acta Derm Venereol doi:10.2340/00015555-1988.
- 679 Kassi M, Afghan A, Rehman R, Kasi PM. 2008. Marring leishmaniasis: the stigmatization and the 680 impact of cutaneous leishmaniasis in Pakistan and Afghanistan. Plos Neglected Tropical Diseases 681 **2:**1-3.
- Alvar J, Croft S, Olliaro P. 2006. Chemotherapy in the treatment and control of leishmaniasis. 682 7. 683 Advances in Parasitology 61:223-274.
- 684 8. De Rycker M, Hallyburton I, Thomas J, Campbell L, Wyllie S, Joshi D, Cameron S, Gilbert IH, 685 Wyatt PG, Frearson JA, Fairlamb AH, Gray DW. 2013. Comparison of a high-throughput high-686 content intracellular Leishmania donovani assay with an axenic amastigote assay. Antimicrob 687 Agents Chemother 57:2913-2922.
- Pena I, Pilar Manzano M, Cantizani J, Kessler A, Alonso-Padilla J, Bardera AI, Alvarez E, 688 9. 689 Colmenarejo G, Cotillo I, Roquero I, de Dios-Anton F, Barroso V, Rodriguez A, Gray DW, 690 Navarro M, Kumar V, Sherstnev A, Drewry DH, Brown JR, Fiandor JM, Julio Martin J. 2015. 691 New compound sets identified from high throughput phenotypic screening against three 692 kinetoplastid parasites: an open resource. Sci Rep 5:8771.
- 693 10. Carneiro G, Aguiar MG, Fernandes AP, Ferreira LA. 2012. Drug delivery systems for the topical 694 treatment of cutaneous leishmaniasis. Expert Opin Drug Deliv T - aheadofprint.
- 695 11. Frankenburg S, Glick D, Klaus S, Barenholz Y. 1998. Efficacious topical treatment for murine 696 cutaneous leishmaniasis with ethanolic formulations of amphotericin B. Antimicrob Agent 697 Chemother 42:3092-3096.
- 698 12. Vardy D, Barenholz Y, Naftoliev N, Klaus S, Gilead L, Frankenburg S. 2001. Efficacious topical 699 treatment for human cutaneous leishmaniasis with ethanolic lipid amphotericin B. Trans R Soc 700 Trop Med Hyg 95:184-186.
- 701 Hussain A, Samad A, Nazish I, Ahmed FJ. 2014. Nanocarrier-based topical drug delivery for an 13. 702 antifungal drug. Drug Dev Ind Pharm 40:527-541.
- 703 Ruiz HK, Serrano DR, Dea-Ayuela MA, Bilbao-Ramos PE, Bolas-Fernandez F, Torrado JJ, Molero 14. 704 G. 2014. New amphotericin B-gamma cyclodextrin formulation for topical use with synergistic 705 activity against diverse fungal species and Leishmania spp. 706 doi:10.1016/j.ijpharm.2014.07.004.
- 707 15. El-On J, Jacobs GP, Witztum E, Greenblatt CL. 1984. Development of topical treatment for 708 cutaneous leishmaniasis caused by Leishmania major in experimental animals. Antimicrob 709 Agents Chemother 26:745-751.
- 710 16. El-On J, Jacobs GP, Weinrauch L. 1988. Topical chemotherapy of cutaneous Leishmaniasis. 711 Parasitology Today 4:76-81.
- 712 Carter KC, Alexander J, Baillie AJ. 1989. Studies on the topical treatment of experimental 17. 713 cutaneous leishmaniasis: the therapeutic effect of methyl benzethonium chloride and the

- aminoglycosides, gentamicin and paromomycin. Annals of Tropical and Medicine and 715 Parasitology 83:233-239. 716 18. Grogl M, Schuster BG, Ellis WY, Berman JD. 1999. Successful topical treatment of murine 717 cutaneous leishmaniasis with a combination of paromomycin (Aminosidine) and gentamicin. 718 Journal of Parasitology 85:354-359.
- 719 19. Ferreira LS, Ramaldes GA, Nunan EA, Ferreira LA. 2004. In vitro skin permeation and retention 720 of paromomycin from liposomes for topical treatment of cutaneous leishmaniasis. Drug 721 Development and Industrial Pharmacy 30:289-296.
- 722 20. Van Bocxlaer K, Yardley V, Murdan S, Croft SL. 2015. Drug permeation and barrier damage in 723 Leishmania-infected mouse skin. JAC.
- 724 21. Croft SL, Seifert K, Yardley V. 2006. Current scenario of drug development for leishmaniasis. 725 Indian Journal of Medical Research 123:399-410.
- 726 22. Jacobs RT, Plattner JJ, Keenan M. 2011. Boron-based drugs as antiprotozoals. Current Opinion 727 in Infectious Diseases 24:586-592.
- Zhang YK, Plattner JJ, Freund YR, Easom EE, Zhou Y, Gut J, Rosenthal PJ, Waterson D, Gamo FJ, 728 23. 729 Angulo-Barturen I, Ge M, Li Z, Li L, Jian Y, Cui H, Wang H, Yang J. 2011. Synthesis and structure-730 activity relationships of novel benzoxaboroles as a new class of antimalarial agents. Bioorg Med 731 Chem Lett 21:644-651.
- 732 24. Zhang YK, Plattner JJ, Freund YR, Easom EE, Zhou Y, Ye L, Zhou H, Waterson D, Gamo FJ, Sanz 733 LM, Ge M, Li Z, Li L, Wang H, Cui H. 2012. Benzoxaborole antimalarial agents. Part 2: Discovery 734 of fluoro-substituted 7-(2-carboxyethyl)-1,3-dihydro-1-hydroxy-2,1-benzoxaboroles. Bioorg Med 735 Chem Lett 22:1299-1307.
- 736 25. Jacobs RT, Plattner JJ, Nare B, Wring SA, Chen D, Freund Y, Gaukel EG, Orr MD, Perales JB, 737 Jenks M, Noe RA, Sligar JM, Zhang YK, Bacchi CJ, Yarlett N, Don R. 2011. Benzoxaboroles: a new 738 class of potential drugs for human African trypanosomiasis. Future Medicinal Chemistry 3:1259-739
- 740 26. Hu Q-H, Liu R-J, Fang Z-P, Zhang J, Ding Y-Y, Tan M, Wang M, Pan W, Zhou H-C, Wang E-D. 741 2013. Discovery of a potent benzoxaborole-based anti-pneumococcal agent targeting leucyl-742 tRNA synthetase. Sci Rep 3.
- 743 27. Liu CT, Tomsho JW, Benkovic SJ. 2014. The unique chemistry of benzoxaboroles: Current and 744 emerging applications in biotechnology and therapeutic treatments. Bioorganic & Medicinal 745 Chemistry 22:4462-4473.
- Nare B, Wring S, Bacchi C, Beaudet B, Bowling T, Brun R, Chen D, Ding C, Freund Y, Gaukel E, 746 28. 747 Hussain A, Jarnagin K, Jenks M, Kaiser M, Mercer L, Mejia E, Noe A, Orr M, Parham R, Plattner 748 J, Randolph R, Rattendi D, Rewerts C, Sligar J, Yarlett N, Don R, Jacobs R. 2010. Discovery of 749 novel orally bioavailable oxaborole 6-carboxamides that demonstrate cure in a murine model of 750 late-stage central nervous system african trypanosomiasis. Antimicrobial Agents and 751 Chemotherapy **54:**4379-4388.
- 752 29. Edwards JE, Brouwer KR, McNamara PJ. 2002. GF120918, a P-glycoprotein modulator, increases 753 the concentration of unbound amprenavir in the central nervous system in rats. Antimicrob 754 Agents Chemother 46:2284-2286.
- 755 30. Troutman MD, Thakker DR. 2003. Novel experimental parameters to quantify the modulation of 756 absorptive and secretory transport of compounds by P-glycoprotein in cell culture models of 757 intestinal epithelium. Pharmaceutical Research 20:1210-1224.
- 758 31. Thiel-Demby VE, Tippin TK, Humphreys JE, Serabjit-Singh CJ, Polli JW. 2004. In vitro absorption 759 and secretory quotients: practical criteria derived from a study of 331 compounds to assess for 760 the impact of P-glycoprotein-mediated efflux on drug candidates. Journal of Pharmaceutical 761 Sciences 93:2567-2572.

- 762 32. Thiel-Demby VE, Humphreys JE, St John Williams LA, Ellens HM, Shah N, Ayrton AD, Polli JW. 763 2009. Biopharmaceutics classification system: validation and learnings of an in vitro permeability 764 assay. Mol Pharm 6:11-18.
- 765 33. Mahjour M, Mauser BE, Rashidbaigi ZA, Fawzi MB. 1993. Effects of propylene glycol diesters of 766 caprylic and capric acids (Miglyol® 840) and ethanol binary systems on in vitro skin permeation 767 of drugs. International Journal of Pharmaceutics 95:161-169.
- 768 34. van der Meide W, Guerra J, Schoone G, Farenhorst M, Coelho L, Faber W, Peekel I, Schallig H. 769 2008. Comparison between quantitative nucleic acid sequence-based amplification, real-time 770 reverse transcriptase PCR, and real-time PCR for quantification of Leishmania parasites. Journal 771 of Clinical Microbiology 46:73-78.
- 772 35. Irvine JD, Takahashi L, Lockhart K, Cheong J, Tolan JW, Selick HE, Grove JR. 1999. MDCK 773 (Madin-Darby Canine Kidney) Cells: A Tool for Membrane Permeability Screening. Journal of 774 Pharmaceutical Sciences 88:28-33.
- 775 36. Costa IS, de Souza GF, de Oliveira MG, Abrahamsohn Ide A. 2013. S-nitrosoglutathione (GSNO) 776 is cytotoxic to intracellular amastigotes and promotes healing of topically treated Leishmania 777 major or Leishmania braziliensis skin lesions. J Antimicrob Chemother 68:2561-2568.
- 778 37. initiative D-DfND. 2016. DNDi portfolio June 2016, on DNDi - Drugs for Neglected Diseases 779 initiative. http://www.dndi.org/diseases-projects/portfolio/. Accessed 15-03-2017.
- 780 38. Bos JD, Meinardi MM. 2000. The 500 Dalton rule for the skin penetration of chemical 781 compounds and drugs. Exp Dermatol 9:165-169.
- 782 39. Hadgraft J, Pugh WJ. 1998. The selection and design of topical and transdermal agents: a 783 review. Journal of Investigative Dermatology: Symposium Proceeding 3:131-135.
- 784 40. Choy YB, Prausnitz MR. 2011. The rule of five for non-oral routes of drug delivery: ophthalmic, 785 inhalation and transdermal. Pharm Res 28:943-948.
- 786 41. Vecchia BE, Bunge AL. 2002. Evaluating the Transdermal Permeability of Chemicals, 787 Transdermal Drug Delivery doi:doi:10.1201/9780203909683.ch210.1201/9780203909683.ch2. CRC Press. 788
- 789 42. Naik A, Kalia YN, Guy RH. 2000. Transdermal drug delivery: overcoming the skin's barrier 790 function. Pharmaceutical Science and Technology Today 3:318-326.
- 791 43. Roberts MS, Pugh WJ, Hadgraft J. 1996. Epidermal permeability: Penetrant structure 792 relationships .2. The effect of H-bonding groups in penetrants on their diffusion through the 793 stratum corneum. International Journal of Pharmaceutics 132:23-32.
- 794 44. Brody I. 1977. Ultrastructure of the stratum corneum. International Journal of Dermatology 795 **16:**245-256.
- 796 45. Downing DT, Stewart ME, Wertz PW, Colton SW, Strauss JS. 1983. Skin lipids. Comparative 797 Biochemistry and Physiology B 76:673-678.
- 798 46. Neal RA, Croft SL. 1984. An in-vitro system for determining the activity of compounds against 799 the intracellular amastigote form of Leishmania donovani. J Antimicrob Chemother 14:463-475.
- 800 47. Mahar Doan KM, Wring SA, Shampine LJ, Jordan KH, Bishop JP, Kratz J, Yang E, Serabjit-Singh 801 CJ, Adkison KK, Polli JW. 2004. Steady-state brain concentrations of antihistamines in rats: 802 interplay of membrane permeability, P-glycoprotein efflux and plasma protein binding. 803 Pharmacology 72:92-98.
- 804 48. Evers R, Kool M, Smith AJ, van Deemter L, de Haas M, Borst P. 2000. Inhibitory effect of the 805 reversal agents V-104, GF120918 and Pluronic L61 on MDR1 Pgp-, MRP1- and MRP2-mediated 806 transport. Br J Cancer 83:366-374.
- 807 49. Tran TT, Mittal A, Aldinger T, Polli JW, Ayrton A, Ellens H, Bentz J. 2005. The elementary mass 808 action rate constants of P-gp transport for a confluent monolayer of MDCKII-hMDR1 cells. 809 Biophys J 88:715-738.

- 810 50. Acharya P, O'Connor MP, Polli JW, Ayrton A, Ellens H, Bentz J. 2008. Kinetic identification of 811 membrane transporters that assist P-glycoprotein-mediated transport of digoxin and 812 loperamide through a confluent monolayer of MDCKII-hMDR1 cells. Drug Metab Dispos 36:452-813
- 814 51. Janneh O, Jones E, Chandler B, Owen A, Khoo SH. 2007. Inhibition of P-glycoprotein and 815 multidrug resistance-associated proteins modulates the intracellular concentration of lopinavir 816 in cultured CD4 T cells and primary human lymphocytes. J Antimicrob Chemother 60:987-993.
- 817 52. Jovelet C, Deroussent A, Broutin S, Paci A, Farinotti R, Bidart JM, Gil S. 2013. Influence of the 818 multidrug transporter P-glycoprotein on the intracellular pharmacokinetics of vandetanib. Eur J 819 Drug Metab Pharmacokinet 38:149-157.
- 820 53. Lemaire S, Van Bambeke F, Mingeot-Leclercq MP, Tulkens PM. 2007. Modulation of the cellular 821 accumulation and intracellular activity of daptomycin towards phagocytized Staphylococcus 822 aureus by the P-glycoprotein (MDR1) efflux transporter in human THP-1 macrophages and 823 madin-darby canine kidney cells. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 51:2748-2757.
- 824 54. Seral C. Carryn S. Tulkens PM. Van Bambeke F. 2003. Influence of P-glycoprotein and MRP 825 efflux pump inhibitors on the intracellular activity of azithromycin and ciprofloxacin in 826 macrophages infected by Listeria monocytogenes or Staphylococcus aureus. J Antimicrob 827 Chemother 51:1167-1173.
- 828 55. Mookerjee Basu J, Mookerjee A, Banerjee R, Saha M, Singh S, Naskar K, Tripathy G, Sinha PK, 829 Pandey K, Sundar S, Bimal S, Das PK, Choudhuri SK, Roy S. 2008. Inhibition of ABC transporters 830 abolishes antimony resistance in Leishmania Infection. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 52:1080-831 1093.
- 832 56. Alvarez-Figueroa MJ, Pessoa-Mahana CD, Palavecino-Gonzalez ME, Mella-Raipan J, Espinosa-833 Bustos C, Lagos-Munoz ME. 2011. Evaluation of the membrane permeability (PAMPA and skin) 834 of benzimidazoles with potential cannabinoid activity and their relation with the 835 Biopharmaceutics Classification System (BCS). AAPS PharmSciTech 12:573-578.
- 836 57. Schreiber S, Mahmoud A, Vuia A, Rubbelke MK, Schmidt E, Schaller A, Kandarova H, Haberland 837 A, Schafer UF, Bock U, Korting HC, Liebsch A, Schafer-Korting A. 2005. Reconstructed epidermis 838 versus human and animal skin in skin absorption studies. Toxicology in Vitro 19:813-822.
- 839 Schafer-Korting M, Bock U, Gamer A, Haberland A, Haltner-Ukomadu E, Kaca M, Kamp H, 840 Kietzmann M, Korting HC, Krachter HU, Lehr CM, Liebsch M, Mehling A, Netzlaff F, Niedorf F, 841 Rubbelke MK, Schafer U, Schmidt E, Schreiber S, Schroder KR, Spielmann H, Vuia A. 2006. 842 Reconstructed human epidermis for skin absorption testing: results of the German prevalidation 843 study. Altern Lab Anim 34:283-294.
- 844 59. Lotte C, Patouillet C, Zanini M, Messager A, Roguet R. 2002. Permeation and Skin Absorption: 845 Reproducibility of Various Industrial Reconstructed Human Skin Models. Skin Pharmacology and 846 Physiology **15(suppl 1):**18-30.
- 847 60. Kao J, Patterson FK, Hall J. 1985. Skin penetration and metabolism of topically applied chemicals 848 in six mammalian species, including man: an in vitro study with benzo[a]pyrene and 849 testosterone. Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology 81:502-516.
- 850 61. Muller B, Kasper M, Surber C, Imanidis G. 2003. Permeation, metabolism and site of action 851 concentration of nicotinic acid derivatives in human skin. Correlation with topical 852 pharmacological effect. Eur J Pharm Sci 20:181-195.
- 853 62. Morris AP, Brain KR, Heard CM. 2009. Skin permeation and ex vivo skin metabolism of O-acyl 854 haloperidol ester prodrugs. Int J Pharm 367:44-50.
- 855 63. Montagna W. 1955. Histology and cytochemistry of human skin: IX. The distribution of non-856 specific esterases The Journal of Biophysical and Biochemical Cytology 1:13-16.

- 857 64. Ozaki H, Sugihara K, Watanabe Y, Fujino C, Uramaru N, Sone T, Ohta S, Kitamura S. 2013. 858 Comparative study of the hydrolytic metabolism of methyl-, ethyl-, propyl-, butyl-, heptyl- and 859 dodecylparaben by microsomes of various rat and human tissues. Xenobiotica 43:1064-1072.
- 860 65. Bonina FP, Puglia C, Barbuzzi T, de Caprariis P, Palagiano F, Rimoli MG, Saija A. 2001. In vitro 861 and in vivo evaluation of polyoxyethylene esters as dermal prodrugs of ketoprofen, naproxen 862 and diclofenac. European Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences 14:123-134.
- 863 66. Harville HM, Voorman R, Prusakiewicz JJ. 2007. Comparison of paraben stability in human and 864 rat skin. Drug Metab Lett 1:17-21.
- 865 67. Gonzalez D, Schmidt S, Derendorf H. 2013. Importance of relating efficacy measures to 866 unbound drug concentrations for anti-infective agents. Clin Microbiol Rev 26:274-288.
- 867 68. Yardley V, Croft SL. 1999. Animal Models of Cutaneous Leishmaniasis, p 775-781. In Zak O (ed), 868 Handbook of Animals of Infection. Academic Press London.
- 869 69. Coelho AC, Trinconi CT, Costa CH, Uliana SR. 2014. In vitro and in vivo miltefosine susceptibility 870 of a Leishmania amazonensis isolate from a patient with diffuse cutaneous leishmaniasis. PLoS 871 Negl Trop Dis 8:e2999.
- Katsuno K, Burrows JN, Duncan K, Hooft van Huijsduijnen R, Kaneko T, Kita K, Mowbray CE, 872 70. 873 Schmatz D, Warner P, Slingsby BT. 2015. Hit and lead criteria in drug discovery for infectious 874 diseases of the developing world. Nat Rev Drug Discov 14:751-758.
- 875 71. Grogl M, Hickman M, Ellis W, Hudson T, Lazo JS, Sharlow ER, Johnson J, Berman J, Sciotti RJ. 876 2013. Drug discovery algorithm for cutaneous leishmaniasis. Am J Trop Med Hyg 88:216-221.

878

Tables

Table 1. The general structure of benzoxaboroles (A) and subclasses: benzoxaborole 6carboxamides (D), benzoxaboroles 5-carboxamides (B), pyrazole 6-carboxamides (C), benzoxaborininols (E).

General benzoxaboroles structure

		11/2	
Chemical sub class		Modification	Compound ID
Benzoxaborole 6-	R1	Ro. N.	LSH006, LSH009, LSH010, LSH011,
carboxamide		R ₃ N	LSH012, LSH015, LSH016, LSH019,
			LSH020, LSH021, LSH023, LSH024,
		-	LSH025
Benzoxaborole 5-	R2	T Z	LSH002, LSH031
carboxamide		R ₃	
Pyrazole 6-	R1	R ₄	LSH022, LSH027, LSH028, LSH029
carboxamides		N H N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N	
benzoxaborininole		R ₁ OH B	LSH001, LSH033
Other			LSH004, LSH005, LSH007, LSH013,
			LSH017,LSH018, LSH034

883 Table 2. Summary of the experimental conditions for the different permeation experiments.

Permeation Compounds experiment		Donor vehicle	Concentration (µg/ml)	Volume/ skin surface (μl/cm²)
RHE 1	LSH001; LSH003; LSH011; LSH012; LSH023; LSH024; LSH029; LSH034; caffeine; testosterone	Ethanol – Miglyol 840 (1:9) Except for caffeine	100	300
FDC 1	Mix1: LSH001; LSH002 Mix2: LSH003; LSH034	Ethanol – Miglyol 840 (1:9)	100	300
FDC 2	LSH001; LSH002; LSH003	Ethanol – PG (1:1)	10 000 (1% w/v)	28.4

Table 3. Summary of the different *in vivo* experimental groups with their treatment regimen.

Group	Formulation	Active compound	Vehicle	Administration route	Treatment regimen
1	Untreated control	None	None	None	None
2	AmBisome®	Amphotericin B	Dextrose 5%	IV	25mg/kg/b.i.d, 5 doses
3	Leshcutan®	Paromomycin sulphate 15%	Methylbenzethonium chloride 12% in vaseline	Topical	0.1ml 2/day for 10 days
4	Vehicle control	N/A	PG/Ethanol (1:1)	Topical	2x50µl/day for 10 days
5	Topical formulation 1	LSH001			
6	Topical formulation 2	LSH002	Saturated drug solution in PG/Ethanol (1:1)	Topical	2x50µl/day for 10 days
7	Topical formulation 3	LSH003			
8	Oral formulation 1	LSH001			
9	Oral formulation 2	LSH002	Standard suspended vehicle	Oral	2x25mg/kg/day for 10 days
10	Oral formulation 3	LSH003			

886

888 Table 4. The sequences of the primer and probes used in the PCR and qPCR reactions.

	Gene	Primer/probe	Primer Sequence
Leishmania	18S rDNA	Forward primer	5'-C CAA AGT GTG GAG ATC GAA G-3'
		Reverse primer	5'-GGC CGG TAA AGG CCG AAT AG-3'
species	(170-bp)	Probe	5'-6FAM ACCATTGTAGTCCACACTGC-NFQ-MGB

Table 5. Activity of benzoxaborole compounds against intracellular *Leishmania* amastigotes

	(EC ₅₀ values (μ M) and 95% CI, n=number of experiment repeats).					
Compound	n	L. tropica	L. major	L. aethiopica	L. mexicana	L. panamensis
Amphotericin B		0.066 (0.062-0.070) 0.083 (0.078-0.089)	0.043 (0.037-0.049) 0.049 (0.043-0.056)	0.115 (0.107-0.122) 0.107 (0.096-0.119)	0.430 (0.394-0.460) 0.685 (0.553-0.692)	0.143 (0.131-0.156) 0.115 (0.093-0.142)
Miltefosine		19.99 (17.40-22.97) 9.44 (7.78-11.45)	44.85 (22.02-77.28) 26.58 (21.30-33.15)	7.79 (6.20-9.78) 7.95 (7.26-8.69)	31.04 (28.56-33.73) 45.86 (36.61-57.45)	19.98 (16.17-24.69) 23.11 (20.41-26.18)
LSH001		2.01 (1.52-2.67) 3.12 (2.38-4.09))	4.26 (2.97-6.11) 7.61 (5.48-10.57)	22.10 (15.07-32.41) 26.83 (19.40-37.11)	23.04 (15.99-33.19) 16.94 (9.62-29.83)	18.82 (14.08-25.14) 13.96 (10.06-19.44)
LSH002	1	14.96 (11.38-19.67)	16.52 (11.56-23.61)	> 30	> 30	> 30
LSH003		2.46 (1.78-3.41) 3.94 (2.96-5.25))	3.93 (3.32-4.64) 3.10 (2.25-4.26))	11.12 (7.67-16.13) > 30	18.94 (10.78-33.29) > 30	8.09 (6.56-9.96) 19.05 (15.03-24.16)
LSH004	1	16.08 (13.70-18.80)	-	29.97 (19.04-47.16)	> 30	> 30
LSH005	1	6.81 (5.84-7.94)	-	21.25 (13.18-34.26)	> 30	> 30
LSH006	1	> 30	-	25.36 (15.88-40.50)	> 30	> 30
LSH007	1	5.71 (4.39-7.43)	-	27.18 (17.16-43.04)	> 30	> 30
LSH008	1	> 30	-	> 30	> 30	> 30
LSH009	1	3.08 (2.51-3.79)	-	17.66 (12.10-25.76)	> 30	> 30
LSH010	1	6.23 (5.49-7.06)	> 30	11.71 (7.22-19.00)	> 30	> 30
LSH011	1	2.31 (1.73-3.08)	9.92 (8.49-11.59)	> 30	> 30	> 30
LSH012	1	24.61	9.52	> 30	> 30	> 30

and	
Agents	erapy
crobial /	hemoth
Antimie	U

		(14.31-42.30)	(6.80-13.32)			
LSH013	1	> 30*	> 30	> 30	> 30	> 30
LSH014	1		4.15 (3.42-5.04)	> 30	> 30	29.59 (20.59-42.53)
LSH015	1	6.92 (4.95-9.66)	> 30	> 30	> 30	> 30
LSH016	1	5.40 (4.02-7.26)	> 30	21.84 (14.60-32.66)	> 30	> 30
LSH017	1	> 30	> 30	> 30	> 30	> 30
LSH018	1	> 30	> 30	> 30	> 30	> 30
LSH019	1	21.01 (4.07-108.4)	> 30	> 30	> 30	> 30
LSH020	1	> 30	> 30	> 30	> 30	> 30
LSH021	1	28.81 (17.03-48.74)	> 30	> 30	> 30	> 30
LSH022	1	> 30	> 30	> 30	> 30	> 30
LSH023	1	1.19* (0.78-1.80)	1.57 (1.17-2.10)	23.05 (10.09-52.62)	6.31 (4.18-9.54)	2.98 (2.28-3.90)
LSH024	1	4.72* (3.31-6.74)	13.96 (11.52-16.91)	> 30	> 30	22.34 (17.66-28.25)
LSH025	1	2.21* (1.51-3.25)	5.93 (5.08-6.92)	> 30	25.39 (15.81-40.78)	15.85 (12.85-19.56)

Table 6. Physicochemical properties of benzoxaborole compounds.

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on March 8, 2018 by LONDON SCHOOL OF HYGIENE & TROPICAL MED

Compound	Molecular weight* (g/mol)	H bond donor/acceptor*	Aqueous solubility* (μg/ml)	Log D (pH 7.4)**
Ideal skin permeant	< 500	< 3		1-3
LSH001	387	2/5	9	> 2.63
LSH002	421	2/5	37	0.44±0.06
LSH003	321	2/7	165	2.18±0.08
LSH023	334	2/5	103	2.45±0.04
LSH024	368	2/6	45	2.16±0.07
LSH026	306	2/4	22	1.86±0.07
LSH027	325	2/8	103	1.53***
LSH028	334	2/6	53	1.86±0.02
LSH029	393	2/11	14	1.95±0.10
LSH030	373	2/5	13	1.94±0.06
LSH032	386	2/5	11	0.88±0.15
LSH033	400	2/5	7	1.70±0.15

^{*} Data obtained using ChemBio 3D Ultra 13.0 modeling software

894 895

896

892

^{**} Experimental data, Mean±SD, n=3

^{***} Experimental data, n=1

Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy

Table 7. The P_{app} values with and without GF918 and the absorptive quotient (AQ) for the MDCK-MDR1 assay.

WIDCK-WIDKI assay.				
Compound	P _{app} (nm/s)	$P_{app + GF918}(nm/s)$	AQ	
Amprenavir	58.3	378	0.846	
Propranolol	395	441	0.104	
LSH001	583	599	0.027	
LSH002	16.5	32.5	0.492	
LSH003	626	635	0.014	
LSH023	605	593	-0.020	
LSH024	236	314	0.248	
LSH025	322	349	0.077	
LSH026	652	655	0.005	
LSH027	209	247	0.154	
LSH028	397	424	0.064	
LSH029	229	268	0.146	
LSH030	436	524	0.168	
LSH032	232	327	0.291	
LSH033	404	482	0.162	
LSH034	543	538	-0.009	

901 902

903

899 900

Table 8. Fractions of unbound compound and remaining compound after 2 hours incubation with mouse skin supernatant (protein content 2.5 mg/ml).

Compound	% unbound	% remaining test compound	
ethyl paraben		10.9	
propyl paraben		0.0	
LSH001	87	44.1	
LSH002	59	28.0	
LSH003	44	51.0	
LSH023	34	50.2	
LSH024	50	35.0	
LSH025	66	34.3	
LSH026	92	50.8	
LSH027	62	53.8	
LSH028	60	41.5	
LSH029	79	64.2	
LSH030	67	46.2	
LSH032	57	41.7	
LSH033	65	46.3	

904 905

906

Table 9. The permeation parameters: flux and lag time when using RHE and BALB/c mouse skin under same conditions and BALB/c mouse skin when applying a low volume (mean±sd; n=3 except for * where n=2).

	RHE	BALB/c	BALB/c Low volume
Testosterone			
flux (ng/cm ² /h)	28.0±0.8	2.2±0.8	
lag time (h)	0.7±0.1	1.1±0.6	
LSH001			
flux (ng/cm ² /h)	21.8±0.1	6.6±0.3*	88.7±8.8
lag time (h)	2.2±0.1	2.4±0.4	2.7±0.5*
LSH002			
flux (ng/cm ² /h)	143.9±44.2	35.8±0.9*	13.5±8.7*
lag time (h)	1.7±0.8	2.8±0.3	2.7±0.7
LSH003			
flux (ng/cm ² /h)	45.1±5.9	8.0±1.5*	71.8±18.0
lag time (h)	2.1±0.1	2.5±0.3	2.7±0.9

909

Figure Legends

912

913 914

915

916

917

918

919 920

921

922

923

924

925

926

927

928 929

930

931

932

Figure 1. Drug delivery for CL. (A) Progression pathway during lead optimization of drugs as potential topical treatment for CL. (B) Histology of BALB/c mouse skin infected with L. major. (A) Schematic of the route of the active drug through Leishmania infected BALB/c mouse skin before reaching (B) the Leishmania amastigotes situated in phagolysosome of dermal macrophages. Figure 2. In vitro stability of test compounds in skin homogenate. The remaining fraction (%) of test compound left in supernatant with a protein content of 2.5mg/ml as a function of time (mean±SD, n=3) Figure 3. In vitro permeation through BALB/c mouse skin. The cumulative amount permeated in time for LSH001, LSH002 and LSH003 using Franz diffusion cells (mean±SD, n=3). Figure 4. Skin disposition evaluation. The amounts of benzoxaboroles that permeated or were found in and on the skin expressed as percentage of the dosage retrieved. Figure 5. In vivo anti-leishmanial activity of benzoxaboroles upon oral and topical application. (A) The progression of the main lesion size (measured using digital callipers) per group in function of time post infection (n=6, mean±SD); (B) The average number of amastigotes found per lesion as analysed by qPCR and the average lesion size per group 3 days after the end of the treatment (mean±SD, n=5).











