

Lipophilic Efficiency as an Important Metric in the Design of SARS coronavirus 3C-like proteinase (3CL-pro) Inhibitors: Guidepost towards Lead Selection and Optimization in the Treatment of COVID-19

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Received 11 February 2020; revised 30 June 2021; accepted 30 July 2021

Abstract

Pfizer researchers reported in 2018 that lipophilic efficiency (LipE) is an important metric that is increasingly being applied to medicinal chemistry drug discovery programs. In this perspective, drug discovery examples have been strictly applied when adopting LipE to guide medicinal chemistry lead optimization toward candidate drugs with exceptional efficacy and safety *in vivo* potential, especially when guided by optimization based on physicochemical properties. In general, most medicinal chemists only consider potency and try to increase it during hits and lead optimization or when studying the structure-activity relationship. It should be noted that lipophilicity should be considered in conjunction with potency variations to ensure both the safety (drug-likeness) and the efficacy of the candidate drug. Therefore, the aim of this study is to identify successful potential leads against 3CL-pro and optimize them for maximum potency and safety in COVID-19 treatment with a design strategy approach. 3CL-pro inhibitors with lipophilic efficacy and related bioactivity data were obtained from the ChEMBL database and analyzed based on relationship between LipE and logP (lipophilic). The 2D physicochemical descriptors of the compounds were calculated. Quantitative Structural-Activity Relationships (QSAR) model was built, and bioactivities of novel compounds were predicted while molecular mechanism was inferred by docking assay. Based on analysis, 80 novel compounds were found, 6 of the novel compounds (36, 37, 46, 47, 77 and 79) revealed an increase in both LipE and potency with logP decrease, which makes them better alternatives to existing 3CL-pro inhibitors in the treatment of COVID-19.

Keywords: COVID-19; Lipophilic; QSAR model; 3CL-pro inhibitors; drug

1. Introduction

From a global public health and socioeconomic perspective, there is an urgent expectation to come-up with a rapid intervention that includes effective vaccines and antiviral drugs to stop the spread of the current pandemic virus [1] designated as coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), broadcasted by the

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World Health Organization a pandemic [2, 3]. The infection inhibits the liver, respiratory and central nervous systems, the digestive system of humans and animals. Thus the recent name, SARS-CoV-2 agreed upon by scientists due to 82% similarity with the known Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome-Coronavirus (SARS-CoV) [4-6]. The SARS-CoV-2 principal protease (Mpro), also identified as chymotrypsin-like (3CL) protease (3CLpro), is a non-structural protein playing a crucial role through cleavage of the virus-encoded polyproteins for replication and maturation (Coro 21). By so doing, it is rendered as an alluring quarry for the upshot of efficacious antiviral drugs against SARS-CoV-2 virus [7, 8].

The 3CLpro homodimer enzyme (EC: 3.4.22.69; optimal activity at pH 7.5 and 42 °C) is largely maintained among members of Coronaviridae with approximately 40-44% sequence homology. It has three structural segments consisting of domain I (residue 8 - 101) and domain II (residue 102 - 184), with the pair having beta-barrel motifs representing the catalytic region of chymotrypsin, as well as domain III (residue 185 - 200), having helical structure participating in the protein dimerization and enzyme activation [9-13]. A valid approach necessary to design potent drugs for SARS-CoV-2 infection requires the interaction mechanism of protein-ligand. These protein-ligands exhibit an important role in structure-based drug design, while enhancing steric compatibility of drug agents is an effective strategy for generating energy-efficient binding of drug agents to target receptors [14].

Leeson and Springthorpe [16] initially proposed ligand lipophilicity efficiency (LLE or LipE) [15]. And various studies conducted on this ligand have proved it to be an effective and direct means of evaluating the quality of research compounds. Safety of the compounds is assessed by relating lipophilicity and potency. LipE tries to maximize acceptable minimum lipophilicity per unit *in vitro* or in basic terms, to enhance the activity while sustaining low lipophilicity [16]. LipE is estimated as logP (or log *D*) minus logarithm of ligand potency (pK_d, pK_i or pEC₅₀) [17]. Practically, instead of measuring log P, the computed value of clog P is commonly adopted together with the most pertinent *in vitro* strength to predict *in vivo* efficacy [18]. LipE can be adopted to recognize small sized molecules which would otherwise be overlooked due to its low potency and lipophilic value. This is advantageous in view of the fact that size and lipophilicity are largely increased following lead optimization. Thus using small quantity of LipE, makes less lipophilic compounds a beneficial starting point [17, 19, 20].

In recent time, LipE has gained popularity as a direct and important method to modulate lipophilicity, with examples to show for its use in drug optimization. Some notable examples worth mentioning include; CB2 agonists [24], CB2 agonists/CB1 agonists [25], soluble epoxide hydrolase inhibitors [35], twofold PI3K/mTOR inhibitors [27], HIV non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors [28], ATP-competitive Akt inhibitors [26], design of a potent cyclin-dependent kinase 2 (CDK2) inhibitor [21, 22] and protein kinase B inhibitor [23] (see [29, 30] for review). Hence this study aims to select successful leads as starting points towards optimization to design more potent and drug-like clinical candidates as inhibitors of 3CL-pro.

2.0 Materials and methods

2.1 Collection of data and dataset groundwork

The trivial name, source, lipophilic efficiency metrics (LipE), experimental lipophilicity (AlogP) and biological activities (IC₅₀) of 3CLpro inhibitors were obtained from the ChEMBL database. A total of 15 coronavirus 3C-like proteinase Inhibitors were retrieved on the basis of available chemical structures with corresponding bioactivities (IC₅₀) (Figure 1). Bioactivities (IC₅₀) were subsequently adjusted to pIC₅₀ adopting the expression pIC₅₀ = (-log (IC₅₀ X)). 3CLpro inhibitors chemical structures were downloaded from the ChEMBL database as smiles which were then changed to (2D) SDF format on DataWarrior v5.0.0. [31].

2.2 Analysis of Lipophilic efficiency

The lipophilic efficiency of retrieved dataset in relation to their corresponding potency (pIC₅₀) and lipophilicity (logP) was carried out using DataWarrior v5.0.0

2.3 2D QSAR study

The potency of a compound must be quantified by molecular descriptors in order to build a QSAR model [32] and so based on this, CDK descriptor version 1.0 was adopted for the computation of

varied descriptors in the following groups: Hybrid features, Constitutional properties, Topological properties, Electronic properties and Geometric descriptors. The computed properties were organized in a matrix format. These computed properties were preprocessed to determine the correlation coefficient cut-off of 0.99 based on a variance cut-off of 0.0001 and take-away invariables (constant column) by using JFrameVWSP version 1.0. The dataset of 28 molecules retrieved from literature [33] was separated into the test and training dataset by adopting Kennard-Stone method [34]

QSAR model validation is essential to assess how reliable a developed model is [35]. This is usually achieved by evaluating the internal stability and predictive ability of the QSAR models. In this study, the QSAR model developed was authenticated using leave-one-out (LOO) method to achieve internal validation. This was performed by removing a molecule, creating and authenticating the model against the individual molecule for all the Q^2 (rCV^2) values and documented. Equation (1) was used to calculate rCV^2 (cross-validation regression coefficient) to describe the internal stability of the model.

$$rCV^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum (Y_{obs} - Y_{pred})^2}{\sum (Y_{obs} - \bar{Y})^2} \quad (1)$$

Where Y in the stated equation represents the training dataset average activity value. Y_{pred} and Y_{obs} stands for the predicted and observed activity values correspondingly. It is worthy of note that, rCV greater than 0.5 proposes a realistically robust model [36].

Sequel to the process of internal validation, QSAR model's high predictive power was projected from an external test set of compounds not applied in building the QSAR model. The predictive capacity or external validation obtained was determined by predictive R^2 (R_{pred}^2) based on equation (2).

$$r_{prod}^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum (Y_{pred(test)} - Y_{(test)})^2}{\sum (Y_{(test)} - \overline{Y_{(training)}})^2} \quad (2)$$

$Y_{(test)}$ and $Y_{pred(test)}$ is the observed activity and predicted values for test set compounds respectively.

$Y_{(training)}$ is the average bioactivity of compound in the training set.

QSAR model (R_{pred}^2) greater than 0.6 is the acceptable predictive power for the test set molecules [37-39].

MLR method was used to develop QSAR model from the dataset to exam potential leads against 3CLpro inside a training dataset (28 compounds). CDK algorithm was used to calculate the total molecular descriptor (108) for individual compound.

2.4 Molecular docking

The three-dimension crystal structure of (PDB: 1uj1) from the protein databank was retrieved to prepare the target SARS coronavirus 3C-like proteinase (3CLpro) [40]. Discovery studio 2017R2 was employed to remove all heteroatoms while Pymol tool for non-essential water molecules. Subsequent to receptor and ligands preparation, this study utilized PyRx, AutoDock Vina option based on scoring functions to perform molecular docking analysis. PyRx, AutoDock Vina exhaustive search docking function was used for the analysis. Upon successful minimization process, the resolution of the grid box was centered at $76.0065 \times -11.5107 \times 18.0445$ on the x, y and z axes correspondingly at grid dimension $25 \times 25 \times 25$ Å to specify the binding site (Figure 1).

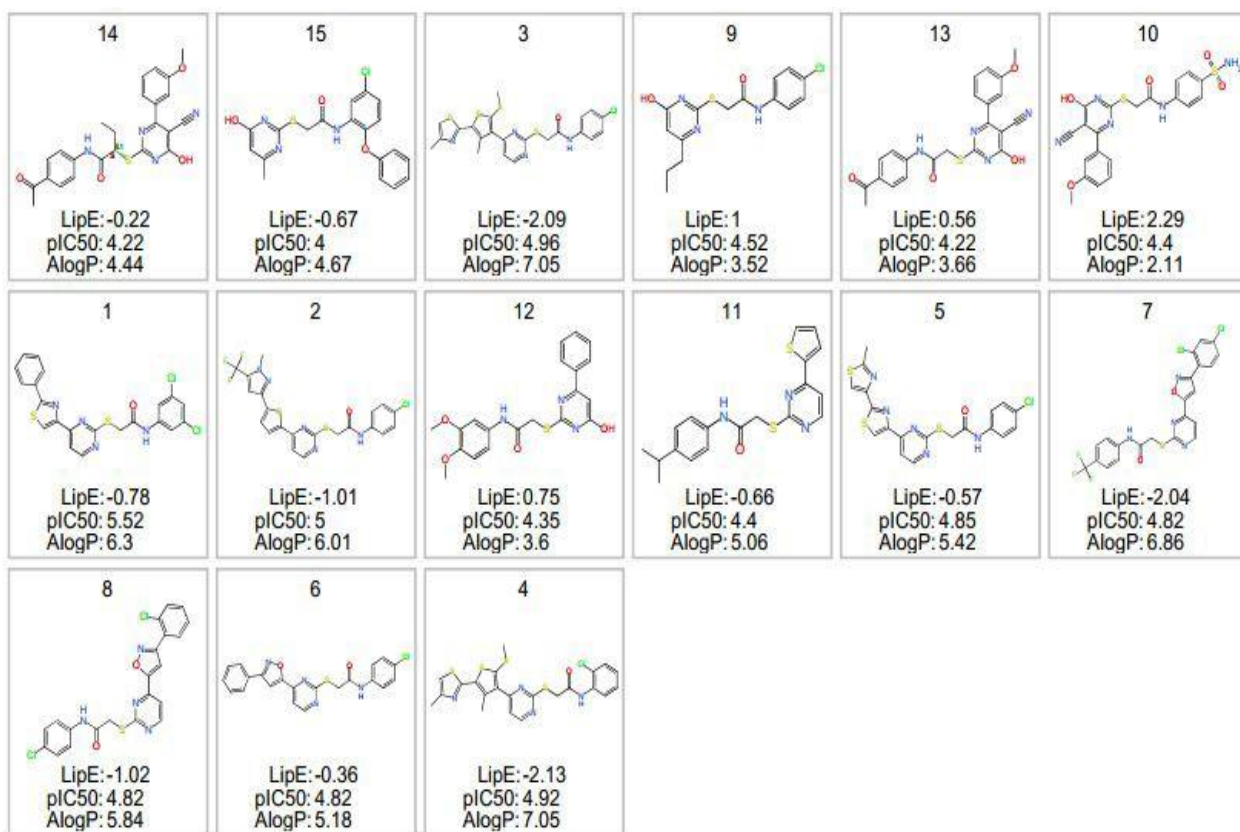


Figure 1: Raw data with corresponding bioactivities (IC₅₀)

3.0 Results and Discussion

Figure 2 shows the relationship between potency (pIC₅₀), lipophilicity (logP) and lipophilic efficiency (LipE) of 3CL-pro inhibitors, which is useful in lead selection and optimization as discussed in the section below:

3.1 Iso-LipE 3CLpro inhibitors

Multiple combinations of pIC₅₀ and logP can lead to the same LipE. On this account, having the knowledge of LipE alone for molecule is not informative [50]. It is necessary to interpret 3CLpro inhibitors in the LipE plot format, to give insight into required procedure for optimization-oriented designs. Based on our analysis, compound 2 had a pIC₅₀ value of 5 with a measured logP of 6.01, resulting in a LipE of -1.01 (Figure 3). Although compound 8 is slightly less potent with a pIC₅₀ value of 4.82, it had a logP of 5.84 which resulted in a comparable lipophilic efficiency of -1.02.

If we consider only the potency, compound 2 ought to appear superior to compound 8. These two compounds are comparably attractive and isoefficient for follow-up. In addition, taking into consideration that both compounds 2 and 8 have logP values of 6.01 and 5.84 respectively, which exceed the required optimum for ADME (Absorption, Distribution, Metabolism, and Excretion) properties (logP: ≤ 5), none is considered a better starting place than the other. Also, compound 11 had a pIC₅₀ value of 4.4 with a measured logP of 5.06, resulting in a lipophilic efficiency of -0.66 while compound 15, with similar potency of pIC₅₀ value of 4, had a logP of 4.67 resulting in a similar lipophilic efficiency of -0.67 (Figure 3). Given that compound 11 had a logP of 5.06 which exceed the required optimum for ADME properties (logP: ≤ 5), compound 15 is a better starting place. In fact, both compounds are isopotent i.e they have similar pIC₅₀ values. This highlights the essence of analyzing LipE changes in the context of logP for selecting a lead compounds [41].

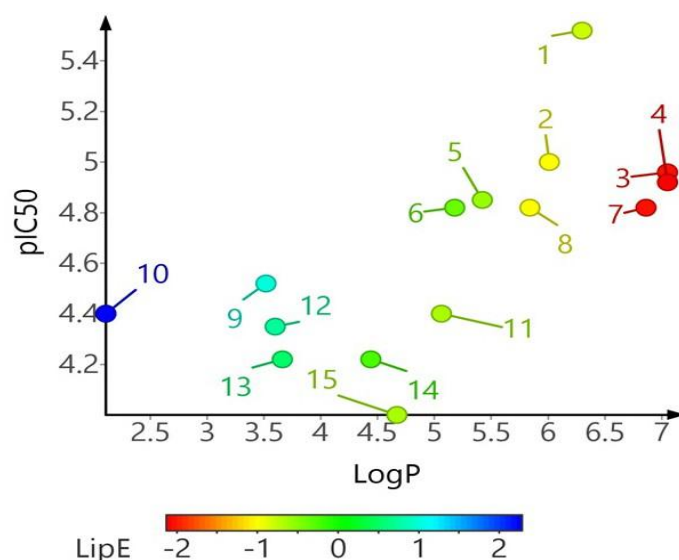


Figure 2: Relationship between pIC_{50} and $\log P$ of 3CL-pro inhibitors in relation to their respective LipE

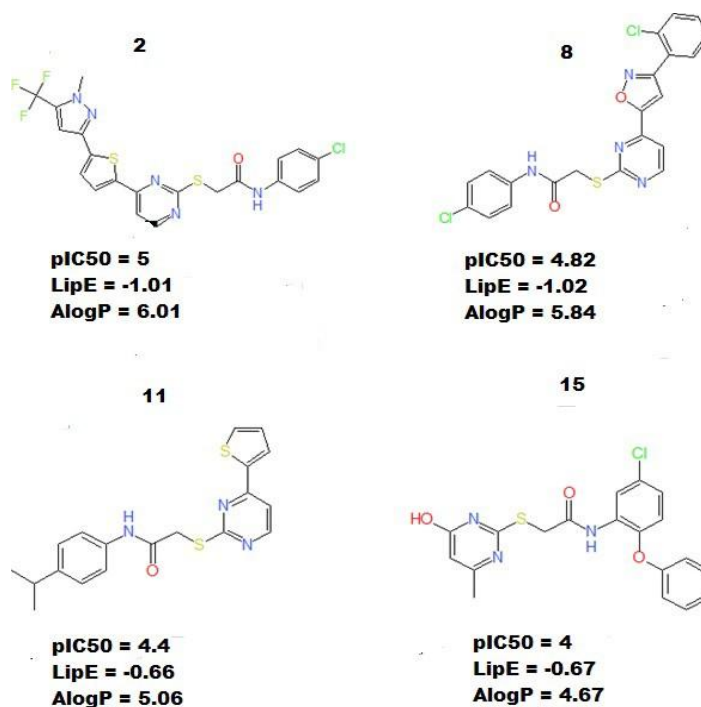


Figure 3: Isoefficient 3CL-pro inhibitors

3.2 Iso-potent Efficiency Changes of 3CLpro inhibitors

Unlike compound 2 and 8; 11 and 15, the compounds with comparable pIC_{50} can have different LipE. Not realizing $\log P$ would make them look alike but then again, the compounds with lower $\log P$ will possess a higher lipophilic efficiency [42]. This is an isopotent efficiency change. It is illustrated by the potency of compounds 6 and 8; 13 and 14, in which reduction in LipE is seen while pIC_{50} is sustained, which leads to an increase in LipE (Figure 4). Compounds 6 and 8; 13 and 14 are the same in terms of pIC_{50} , irrespective of $\log P$ ranging from 3 to 6. Of all these compounds, 13 has appreciably high LipE when compared with the other compounds, thus presenting it as a valuable lead which would have been lost in the subset of equipotent compounds without a LipE-based analysis.

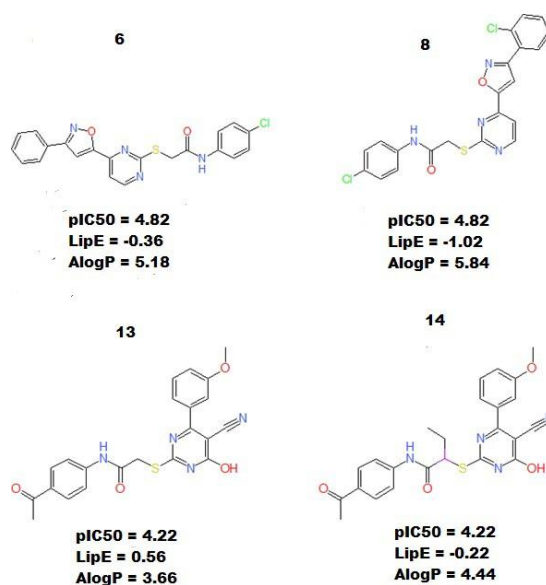


Figure 4: Isopotent 3CL-pro inhibitors

3.3 Isolipophilic LipE Changes of 3CL-pro inhibitors

Invariant logP in relation with pIC₅₀ changes throughout a set of derivatives resulting in isolipophilic modifications of LipE. Generally, isolipophilic variation in efficacy occurs with twosome of enantiomers, even though they are not limited to such examples [42]. This is observed in compound 12 and 13 in which an increase in LipE are observed while lipophilicity is maintained. This resulted in an insignificant increase in potency (Figure 5). Compound 12 and 13 are same in terms of their logP values, despite pIC₅₀ values of 4.35 and 4.22 respectively. 12 possessed slightly higher LipE, making it an indispensable lead. Because logP remain the same, assessment of isolipophilic LipE variations cannot be distinguished from a potency-centric analysis.

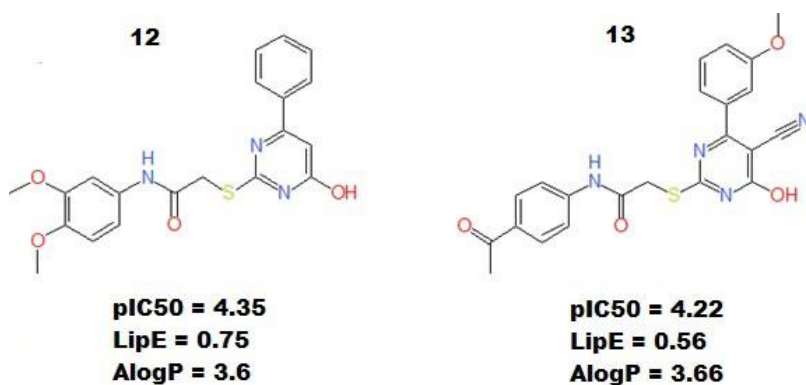


Figure 5: Isolipophilic 3CL-pro Inhibitors

At the same time, decreasing logP and improving potency results in a very large increase in lipophilic efficiency [42-44]. This was achieved by generating novel compounds based on structural modification of the starting chemical entity. Therefore, in a search for a starting chemical specie from our dataset, Compound 1 (with the lowest logP value) and 10 (with the highest potency) reveals an efficiency increase (3-fold) of -0.78 and 2.29 respectively with potency and logP decrease (figure 6). Given that compound 1 had a logP of 6.03 which is over what is optimal for ADME properties (logp: ≤ 5), compound 10 with logP value of 2.11 is a better starting chemical entity.

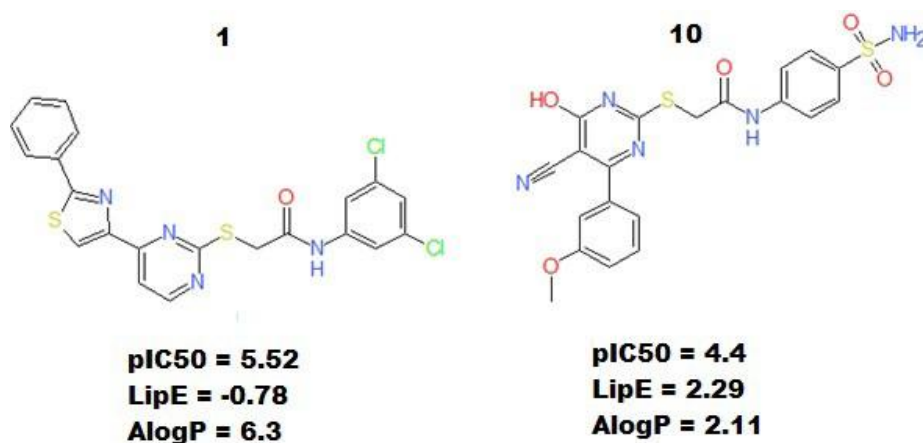


Figure 6: **10-1** showing an efficiency Increase decrease in potency and logP

Quantitative structural-activity relationship analysis (QSAR) is a successful method that has been adopted in reasonable drug design and in understanding drug action mechanism. Bioactivities of compounds are rated as a function of various physicochemical properties in QSAR studies. This makes clear how the variation of biological activity is based on alteration in the chemical structures [45]. These physicochemical properties are quantified in the form of descriptors. Given this, we designed a set of new compounds from compound 10 with a *de novo* design approach using DataWarrior v5.0.0. DataWarrior adopted an evolutionary method that mimics nature by randomly transforming known molecular configurations having small changes to establish novel generations with possibly better structures. Each generation of molecules are tested for robustness with a set of modifiable principles and the most auspicious structures serve as a starting point for subsequent generation. The mutation algorithm executes vicissitudes such as bond order changes, ring aromatisations, replacing an atom, atom insertions, substituent migrations just to mention a few.

Every structure to be mutated is firstly evaluated for all possible mutations concerning how extensively the alteration will increase or decrease the drug-likeness. Mutations with alteration in the required direction are assigned a higher probability than mutations that reduce drug-likeness. Mutations that would create high ring tension are eliminated from the list. Based on this approach, 81 structures were created that retain the scaffold of compound 10 with the corresponding fitness scores (Figure 7). Compound 17 of the second generation holds the highest fitness scores (0.98817), which makes it closest to the original structure (compound 10, fitness score = 1,000).

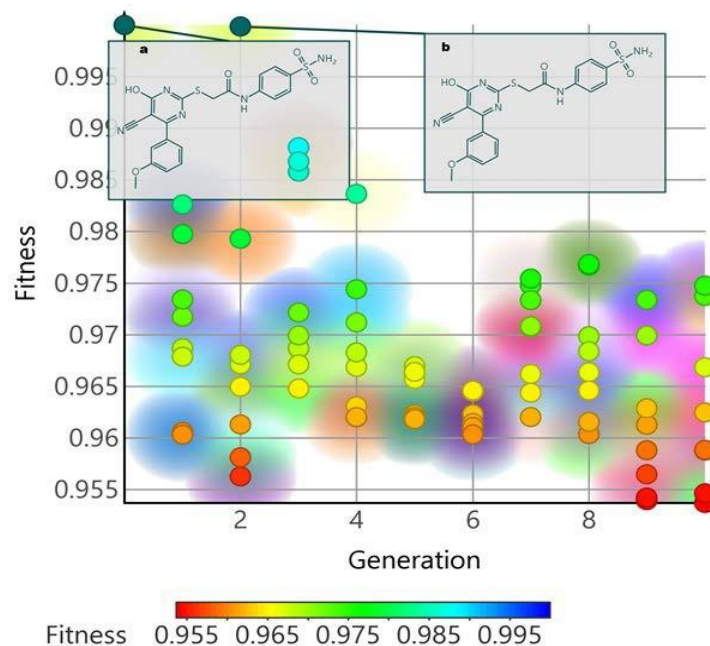


Figure 7: Novel compounds generated based on the structure of the parent molecule (compound 10) (a = Compound 10; b = Compound 17)

Tsai *et al.*, (2006) [33] discovered 28 novel family of SARS-CoV Protease Inhibitors with their corresponding IC_{50} values and shared the same scaffold as compound 10 (Figure 8). In order to predict the bioactivities of the newly generated datasets, a QSAR model was built from the 28 datasets having the same scaffold as the novel compounds.

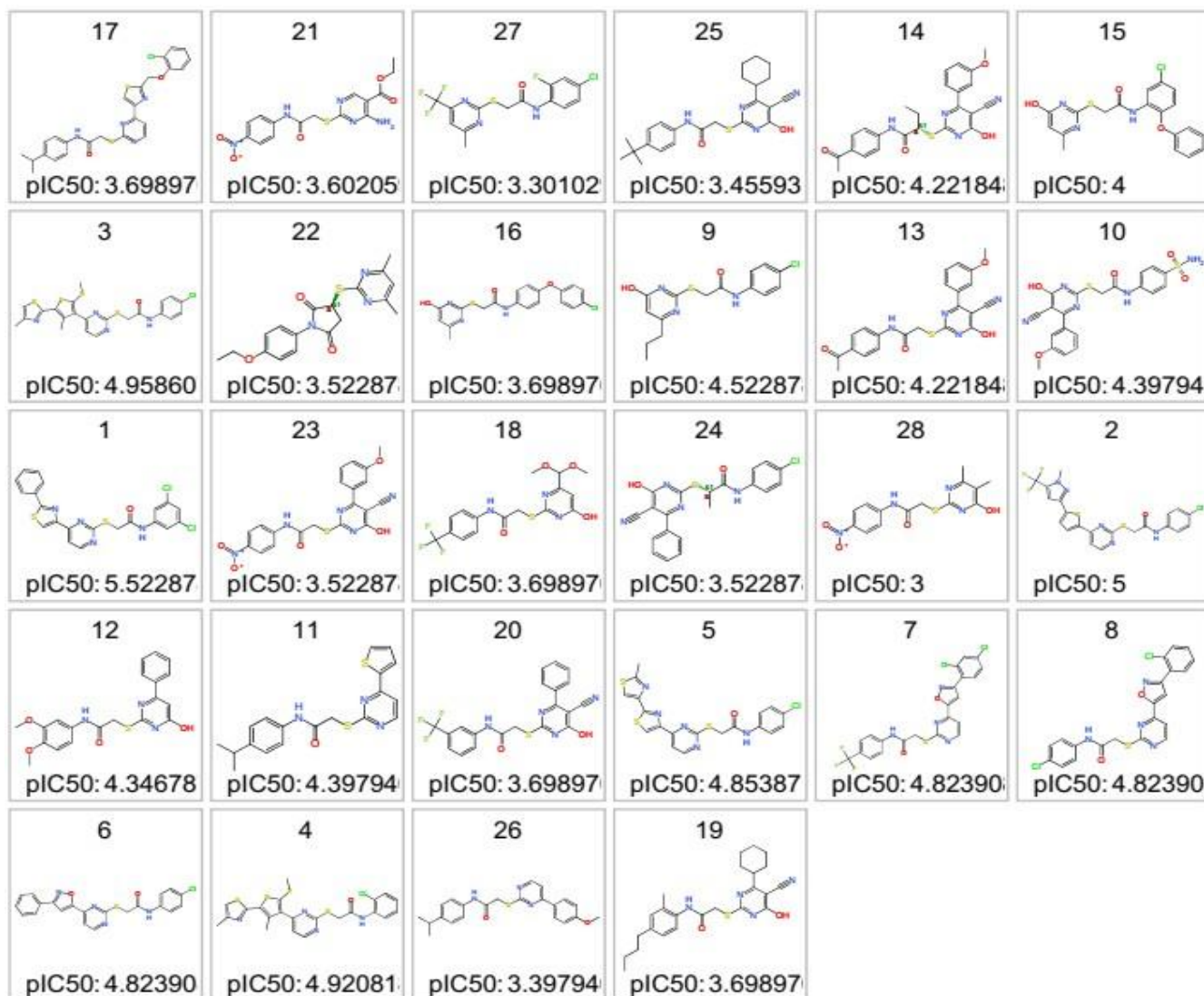


Figure 8: Retrieved chemical structures with same scaffold as compound 10

To analyze the multiplicity of the testing and training set, the Principal Component Analysis approach (PCA) was adopted and the PCA was executed with structural descriptors evaluated for the entire data set. This approach helped to identify homogeneities in the total data, as well as to describe the spatial location of the samples to help in dividing the data into train and test sets.

The PCA result revealed three main components (PC1, PC2 and PC3), elucidated as 99.998% of the entire variables which are as follows: PC1 = 41.975%, PC2 = 33.541% and PC3 = 24.482%. Given that the first three principal components can account for most of the variables, the different score plot is a dependable exemplification of the spatial allotment of points for the whole data. The compounds distribution over the initial three principal components space is shown by the plot of PC1, PC2 and PC3 (Figure 9) with PC1 and PC2 covering the largest variability in the total data (Figure 10). This number revealed that the samples of the test and training sets appear to be uniformly strewn in the three-dimensional space and consequently, it was possible to divide the dataset. In addition, the compounds in the training sets are represented in the whole dataset.

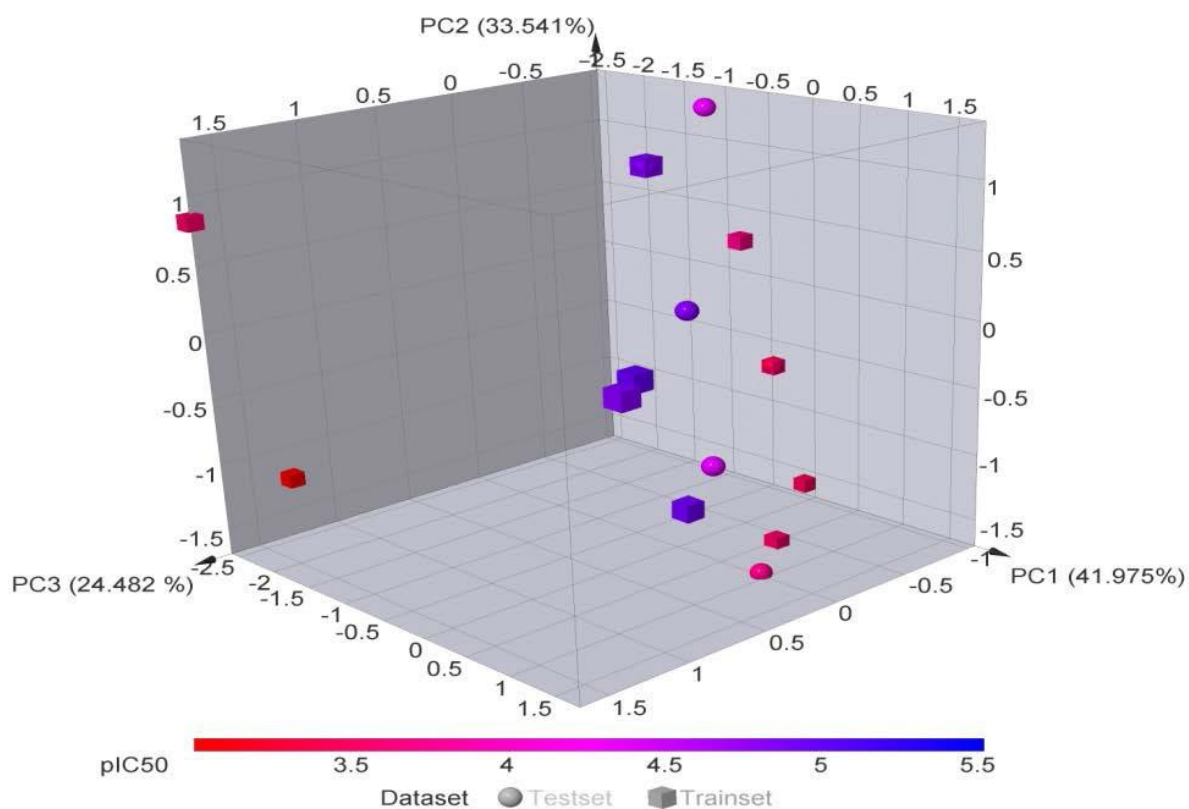


Figure 9: Analysis of the primary component of the test and train sets

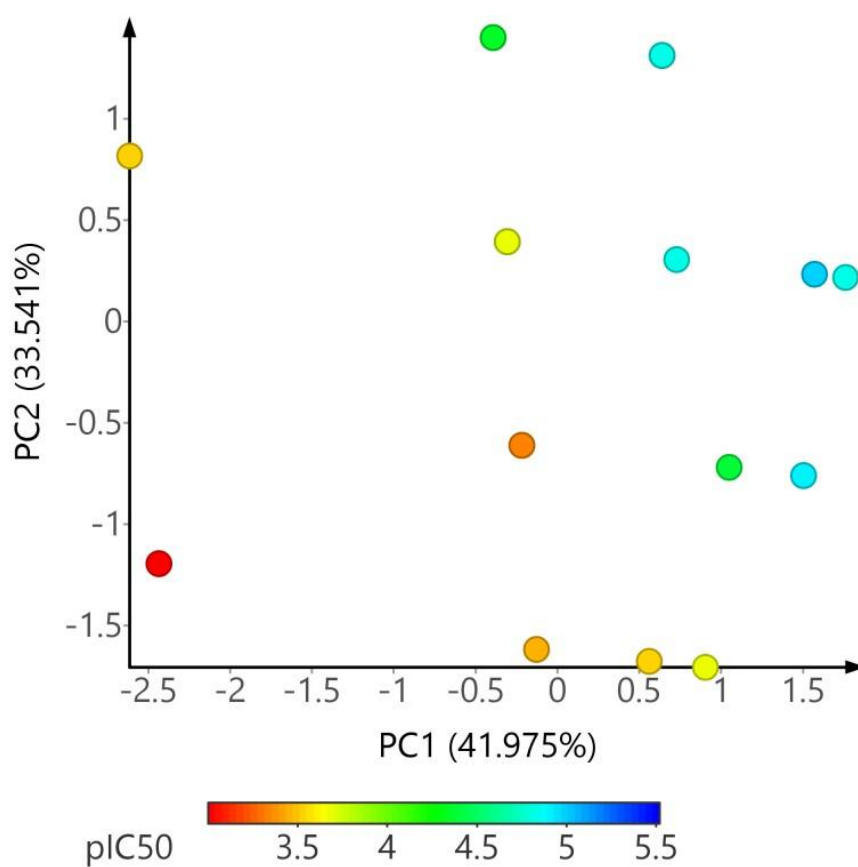


Figure 10: Analysis of principle component with PC1 and PC2

The next step after analyzing the separation of the dataset into the test and training set was to identify and choose the major factors that are most important for the SARS-CoV protease inhibition activity of the 28 new inhibitors. Genetic algorithm (GA) was applied as the method for selecting variables to select only the most important (relevant) combinations to obtain the model with the utmost predictive power by employing training dataset. The three (3) most important descriptors according to the GA approach, are SCH-5, C1SP3 and khs.ddsN based on the variance cut-off of 0.01 and inter correlation cut-off of 0.9. In this study, these descriptors have been shown to be related to the studied biological response and are described in Table 1.

In general, the quality of a model is described by its predictability in a QSAR study. The techniques adopted in this study were performed to correlate physicochemical descriptors of 28 3CL-pro inhibitors from their inhibitory training set. Physicochemical descriptors were taken as individual variables and the inhibitory activity of the 3CL-pro target was taken as dependent variables.

The data set of 28 compounds was divided into training set of 19 compounds in order to create and test the model. The datasets were subsequently utilized to construct the model and a test set of 9 compounds, which were used to test the structured model. The resulting linear equation based on the MLR is as follows (equation 3):

$$pIC_{50} = 4.52085(\pm 0.2233) - 0.2688(\pm 0.08067) C1SP3 + 4.92257(\pm 0.79286) SCH-5 - 0.51868(\pm 0.18816) khs.ddsN \quad (3)$$

R^2 (regression coefficient) = 0.82776,

SEE (standard error of estimate) = 0.28645,

Q^2 (cross-validation regression coefficient) = 0.6468,

SDEP (standard deviation of error of prediction) = 0.3829

r^2 (LOO) ((Leave out one cross validation) = 0.7077

PRESS (predicted residual sum of squares) = 1.23081

F (variance ratio) = 24.02849 (DF: 3, 15), r^2_{pred} (external predictive power) = 0.80913

Equation (5) suggests that the model established with GA-MLR presented an excellent tetragonal correlation coefficient (R^2) value with both internal and external predictive power (r^2_{pred}) having excellent values. The developed QSAR model derived by GA-MLR showed a noteworthy connection between dependent variable (pIC_{50} values) and the carefully chosen descriptors (independent variables).

An 82.8% correlation exists among the activity and selected descriptors in the training dataset, determined based on value of the regression ($R^2=0.82776$). Meanwhile, the value of the cross-validation regression coefficient ($Q^2 = 0.6468$) put forward ~64.7% prediction exactitude of this QSAR model.

Figure 11 shows the predicted and observed biological activities of the training and test datasets. Figure 12 is the predicted pIC_{50} plot versus the experimental pIC_{50} which revealed that there is a good agreement between the predicted and experimental activity values.

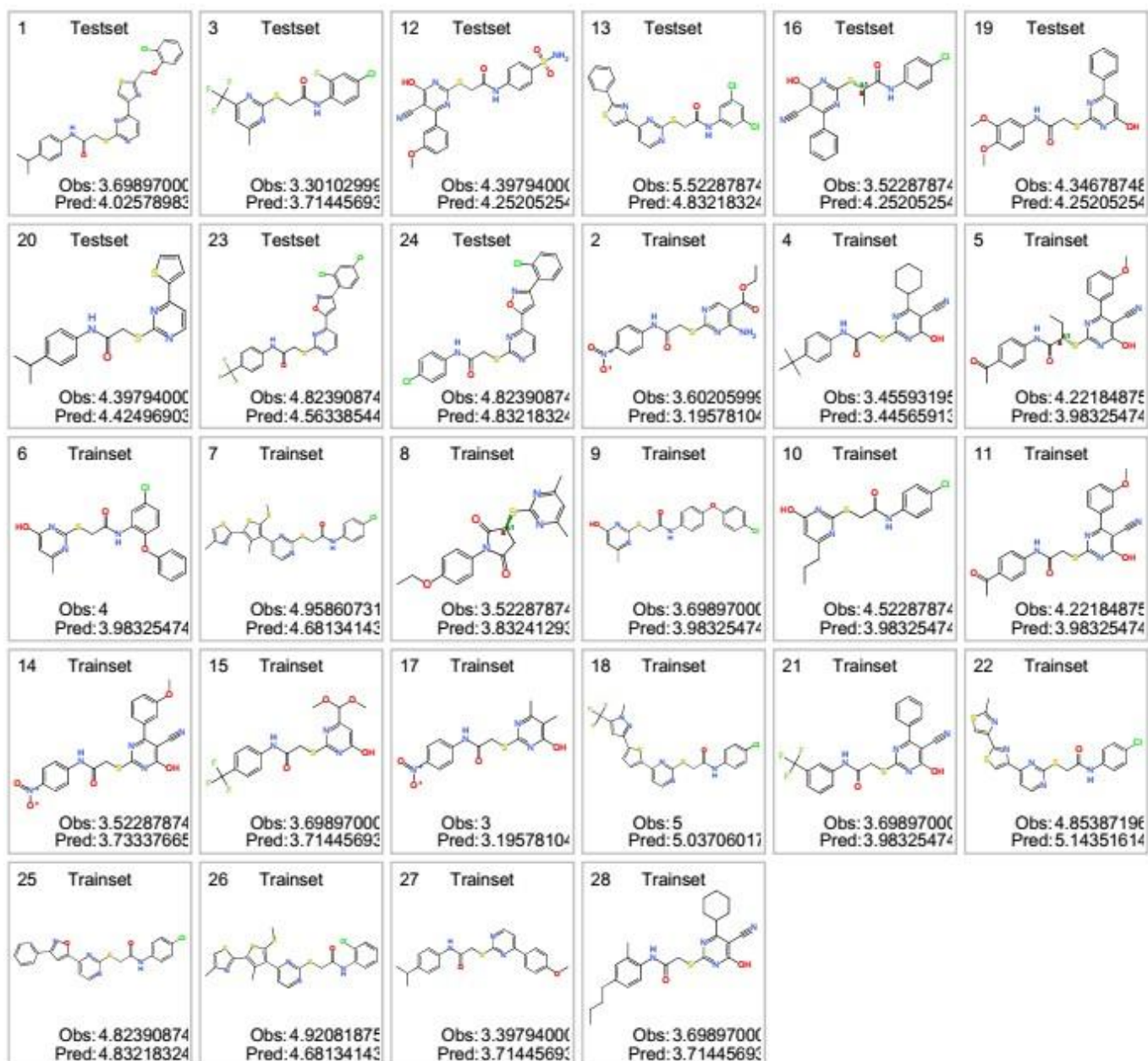


Figure 11: Experimental and Predicted bioactivities of the Train and Test set

Table 1: GA selected descriptors with their corresponding description

S/N	Descriptors	Description	Contribution
1	C1SP3	Singly bound carbon bound to one other carbon	Negative Contribution
2	SCH-5	Simple chain, order 5	Positive Contribution
3	khs.ddsN	Description not available in the database	Negative Contribution

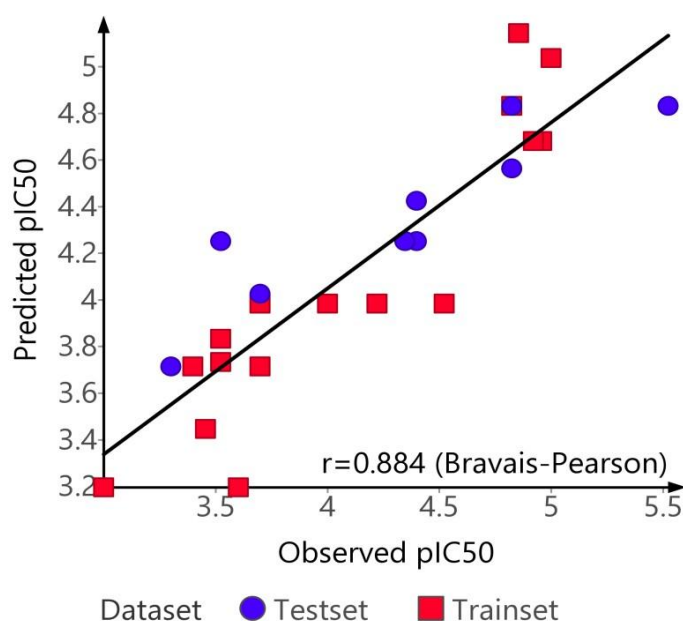


Figure 12: The predicted pIC₅₀ values using MLR modeling against the experimental (observed) pIC₅₀ values

The three descriptors for the best model (GA-MLR) used for PC1–PC2 loadings plot is shown in Figure 13. For the loadings, it was affirmed that the compounds with greater biological activity values, situated on the right side presented a larger influence on the SCH-5 descriptor located on the same side as in Figure 8. Conversely, compounds with lesser biological activity values on the left side have extra distinct contributions from the other descriptors (mostly from khs.ddsN and C1SP3).

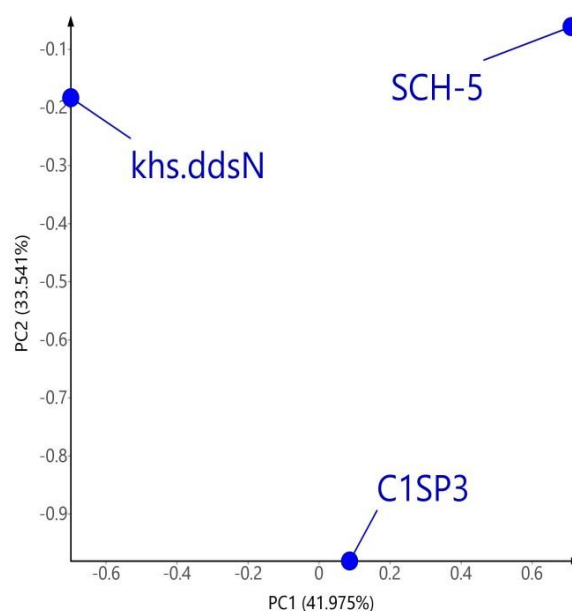


Figure 13: PC1–PC2 loadings plot using the three descriptors for the best model (GA-MLR)

The Y randomization test performed to guarantee that there are no random correlations was used in this study to validate the recognized QSAR model and also to ensure that the selected descriptors are not random. Therefore, results of the model should be of low statistical quality. Random MLR models created was done randomly by rearranging the dependent variable while maintaining the individual variables. The recently built QSAR models will predictably have significant R^2 and Q^2 low values for

more than a few trials, thus confirming that developed QSAR models are robust. Approximately hundred trials of Y-randomization were conducted in this study which gave lesser values for R^2 and Q^2 , thereby authenticating the initial model (the established GA-MLR model) (Figure 14).

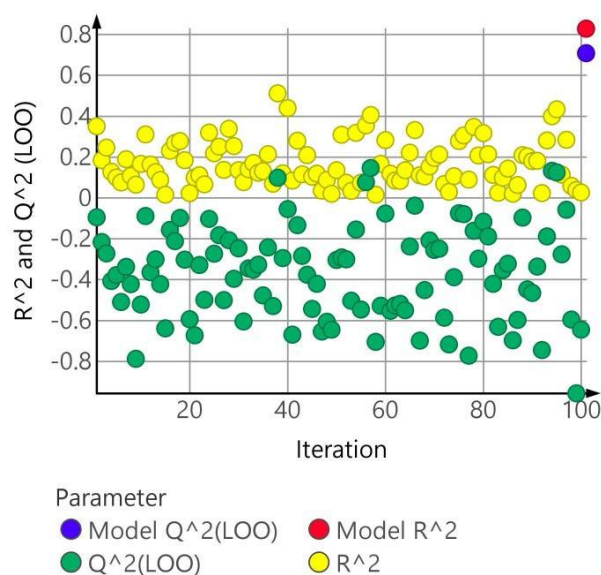


Figure 14: R^2 train and Q^2 LOO values following numerous Y-randomization tests for GA-MLR

The residue for the predicted values of pIC_{50} for the training and test sets against the experimental pIC_{50} values is plotted as presented in Figure 15. It was observed that the model did not indicate relative and systematic error at all, since the propagation of the residues on the horizontal lines is random.

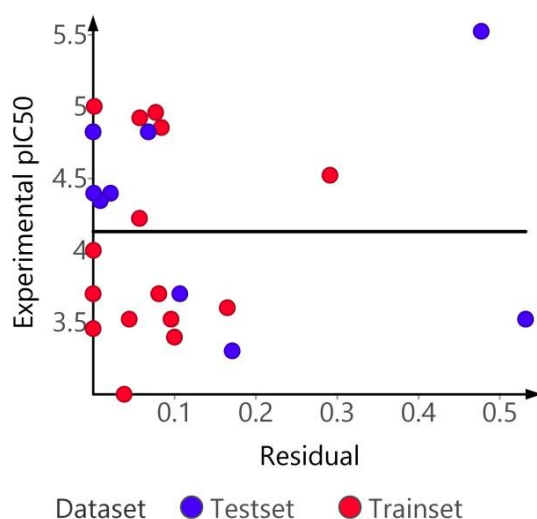


Figure 15: The residual against the experimental pIC_{50} by adopting GA-MLR

Furthermore, QSAR model was utilized to envisage the bioactivities of the novel compounds from their respective 2D physicochemical properties (SCH-5, khs.ddsN and C1SP3). The compound in generation 0 represents the parent molecule (compound 10), and has a predicted pIC_{50} value of 4.49. Twenty compounds across generation 3-10 have a predicted pIC_{50} values higher than the parent molecule, which makes them more potent than the parent molecule (Figure 16). From the predicted pIC_{50} we computed LipE and clogP for each of the novel compounds using Datawarrior v5.0.

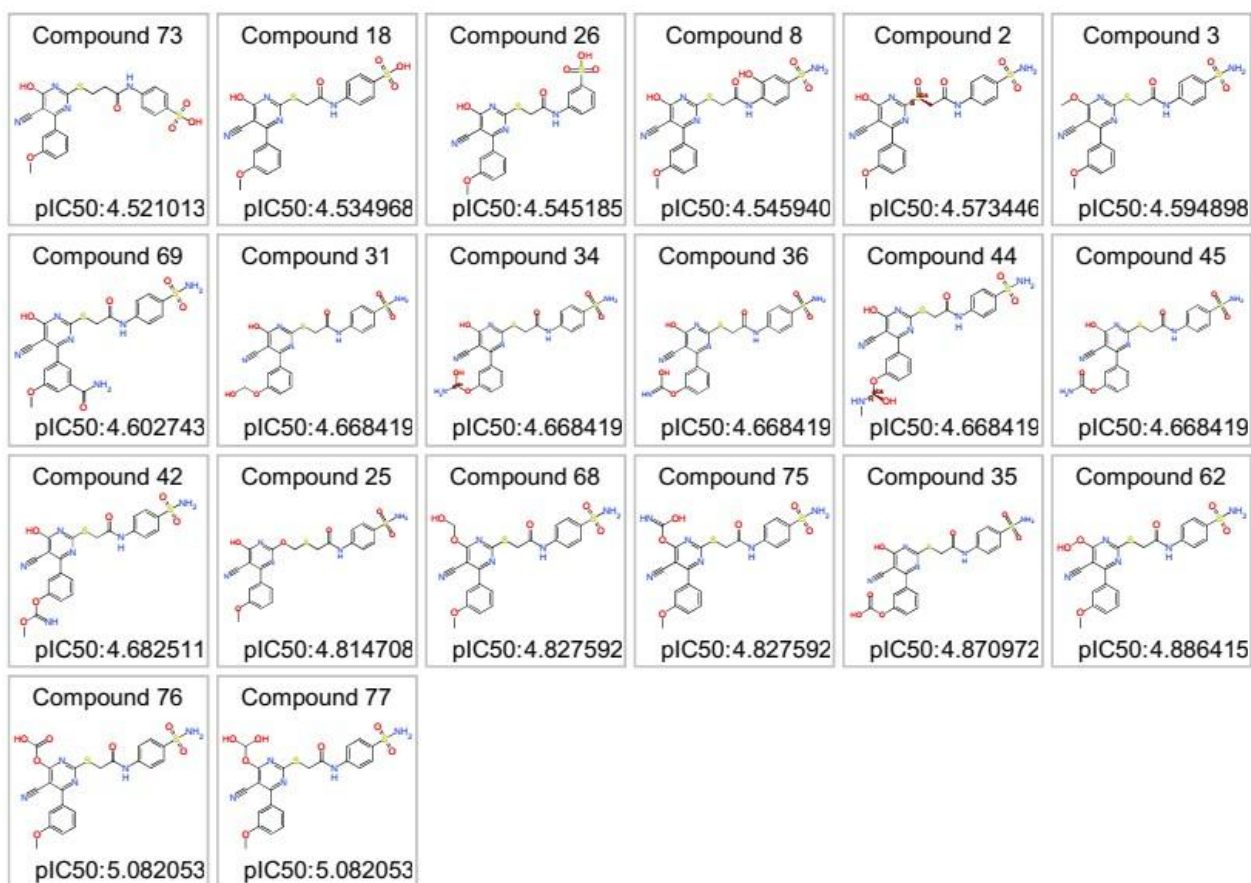


Figure 16: *De novo* synthesized compounds with higher predicted bioactivities

Increase in LipE can be attained by modifying the ligand to impact lipophilicity, potency or both. The biggest assured impact of LipE frequently occurs when adjustments improve potency and concurrently lower lipophilicity [33]. Based on our design strategy, 6 of the novel compounds (36, 37, 46, 47, 77 and 79) revealed an increase in both LipE and potency with logP decrease (Figure 17).

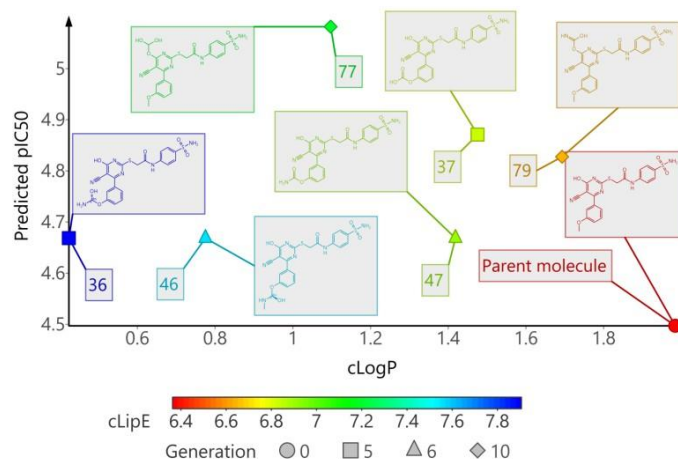


Figure 17: Optimized compounds based on bioactivities, logP and LipE

In order to have a better understanding of the molecular mechanism underlying the action of the unique compounds selected on the basis of their bioactivities and LipE, molecular docking was employed in this study. In the present study, the six selected compounds and their parent molecule were docked into the binding pocket of SARS coronavirus 3C-like proteinase for their inhibitory (antagonistic) (Figure 18a and b) properties. Compound 77 showed a better binding affinity, -

7.4kcal/mol, when compared with the parent molecule (compound 10; -7.3kcal/mol) and thus is considered as the lead compound (Figure 19).

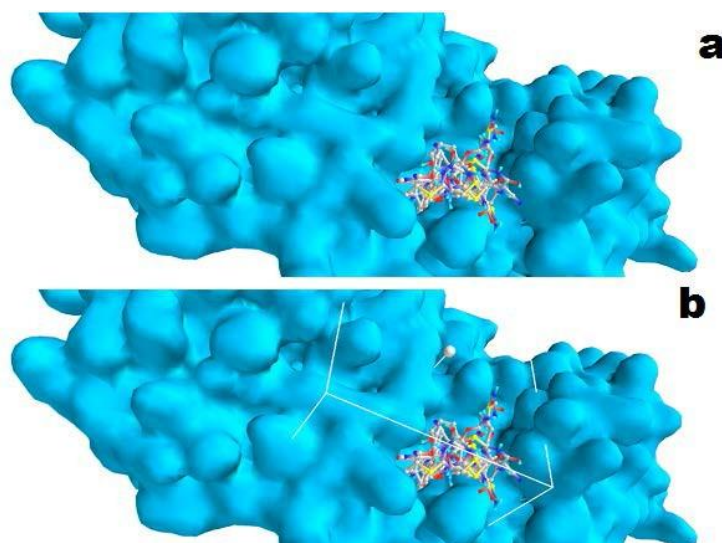


Figure 18: (a) Grid box within which the ligand binds 76.0065 * -11.5107 * 18.0445 along the x, y and z axes correspondingly (b) Compounds within binding pockets

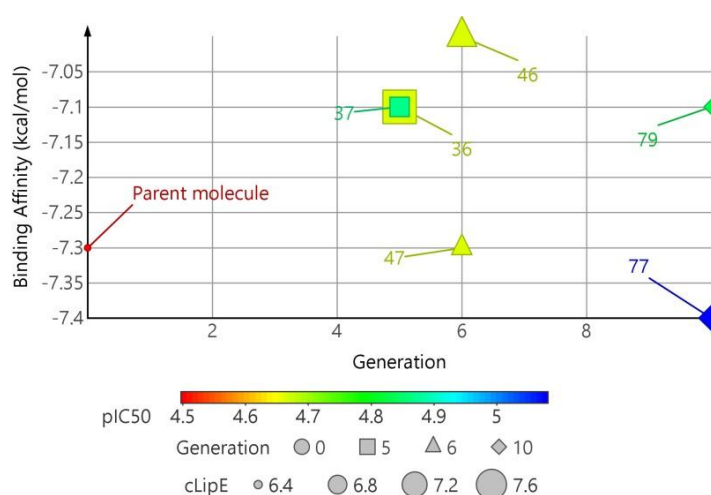


Figure 19: Binding affinities of selected 3CL-pro inhibitors

The highest binding energy of -7.4kcal/mol attributed to compound 77 is considered to be as a result of chemical interactions at the receptor's active site (Figure 20a) which includes: Five (5) hydrogen bonds involving GLN110, ASN151 and HIS246 residues; Three (3) hydrophobic interactions involving VAL104, LEU202 and ILE249 residues. However, that of compound 10 serving as the reference molecule presents the following chemical interactions at the binding pocket (Figure 20b): Four (4) hydrogen bonds involving ASN151, ASP295 and THR111 residues with two (2) hydrophobic interactions involving ILE249 and PRO293. Therefore, the consequence of higher binding affinity of compound 77 within SARS coronavirus 3C-like proteinase drug-able pocket is due to the presence of more hydrophobic interactions and more hydrogen bonds when compared to compound 10.

Hydrogen (H)-bonds potentiates varied cellular functions by accelerating molecular interactions. In order words, hydrogen bonds are considered to be facilitators of protein-ligand binding [48, 49]. Previous studies have shown that interdependent receptor-ligand H-bond pairings potentiate high-affinity binding, which corresponds to an increase in binding affinity [50]. Additionally, ASN151 was predicted to be universally implicated in hydrogen bonding with the ligands within SARS coronavirus 3C-like proteinase drug-able pocket.

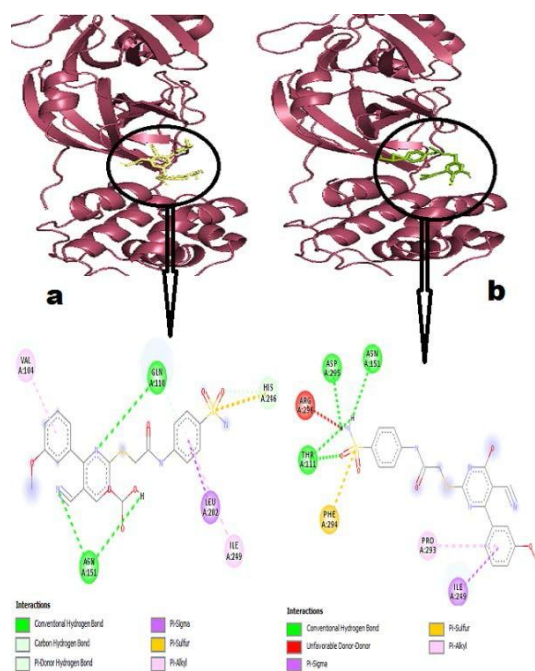


Figure 20: 3D and 2D interactions (a) compound 77 (b) compound 10

Conclusion

This study has maximized the combination of LipE and logP to select potent leads against SARS coronavirus 3C-like proteinase Inhibitors and to optimize these leads based on changes in their physicochemical properties in order to discover highly efficient and reliable clinical candidates for the cure of COVID-19. Six novel compounds (36, 37, 46, 47, 77 and 79) were suggested for further *in vitro* and preclinical testing based on their predicted efficiencies values and potency.

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