

MultiCASE CASE Ultra model for respiratory sensitisation in humans

1. QSAR identifier

1.1 QSAR identifier (title)

MultiCASE CASE Ultra model for respiratory sensitisation in humans, Danish QSAR Group at DTU Food.

1.2 Other related models

Leadscope Enterprise model for respiratory sensitisation in humans, Danish QSAR Group at DTU Food.

SciMatics SciQSAR model for respiratory sensitisation in humans, Danish QSAR Group at DTU Food.

1.3. Software coding the model

MultiCASE CASE Ultra 1.4.6.6 64-bit.

2. General information

2.1 Date of QMRF

January 2015.

2.2 QMRF author(s) and contact details

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2.3 Date of QMRF update(s)

2.4 QMRF update(s)

2.5 Model developer(s) and contact details

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2.6 Date of model development and/or publication

January 2014.

2.7 Reference(s) to main scientific papers and/or software package

Klopman, G. (1992) MULTICASE 1. A Hierarchical Computer Automated Structure Evaluation Program. *Quant. Struct.-Act. Relat.*, 11, 176 - 184.

Chakravarti, S.K., Saiakhov, R.D., and Klopman, G. (2012) Optimizing Predictive Performance of CASE Ultra Expert System Models Using the Applicability Domains of Individual Toxicity Alerts. *J. Chem. Inf. Model.*, 52, 2609 –2618.

Saiakhov, R.D., Chakravarti, S.K., and Klopman, G. (2013) Effectiveness of CASE Ultra Expert System in Evaluating Adverse Effects of Drugs. *Mol. Inf.*, 32, 87 – 97.

2.8 Availability of information about the model

The training set is non-proprietary and data were compiled from Graham *et al.* (1997) and Graham *et al.* (1996) (for more details see 3.6). The model algorithm is proprietary from commercial software.

2.9 Availability of another QMRF for exactly the same model

3. Defining the endpoint

3.1 Species

Human (clinical data).

3.2 Endpoint

QMRF 4. Human Health Effects

QMRF 4. 7. Respiratory sensitization

3.3 Comment on endpoint

Respiratory hypersensitivity is characterized by acute episodes of wheeze, cough, chest tightness, and dyspnoea. Still very little is known about the pathophysiological mechanism(s) causing this reaction. Covalent binding to carrier proteins have been suggested as the Molecular Initiating Event (MIE), a key event in the respiratory sensitisation pathway. Low molecular weight chemicals need to have more than a single functional group with the ability to covalently bind to and cross-link proteins in order to cause respiratory sensitisation (Enoch *et al.* 2009).

The potential of a chemical to cause respiratory sensitisation is an important consideration in chemical risk assessment. Unfortunately this assessment is made more challenging by the lack of suitable animal tests and alternative methods. Available data are very limited and are mainly from reports on human sensitisation in the industrial workplace (Serafimova & Worth 2012).

3.4 Endpoint units

CASE unit, 79 for positives and 10 for negatives.

3.5 Dependent variable

Respiratory sensitisation in humans, positive or negative.

3.6 Experimental protocol

Data for this model was originally compiled by Graham *et al.* (1997) who identified respiratory sensitizers from a thorough search of the medical literature from the past 30 years.

Criteria for including a chemical as a sensitizer were formulated in accordance with the "Guidelines for Diagnosis and Treatment of Asthma" (NIH 1991)) and included: (1) inhalation challenge of the patient with the chemical, and (2) report of a drop of more than 20% in forced expiratory volume at 1 second (FEV1) occurring within 24 h of challenge.

Only forty chemicals met these criteria. Because of this limited number, additional chemicals were sought from animal tests. However, all chemicals that tested positive in animal studies had also been described in clinical reports. Therefore, the sensitizing chemicals (i.e. the positives) in this model are all exclusively derived from human responses.

As it was not possible to locate any clinical reports of non-sensitizing respiratory chemicals in the literature, except lactose which is frequently used as a negative control in inhalation challenges, it was assumed that dermal non-sensitizers are also respiratory non-sensitizers. This assumption is supported by a later study by Serafimova and Worth (2012). Accordingly, chemicals were randomly selected from a database of human contact non-sensitizers made by Graham *et al.* (1996).

3.7 Endpoint data quality and variability

Some degree of variability in the training set data is expected as different protocols were used for identifying positives (sensitizers) and negatives (non-sensitizers).

4. Defining the algorithm

4.1 Type of model

A categorical (Q)SAR model based on structural fragments and calculated molecular descriptors.

4.2 Explicit algorithm

This is a categorical (Q)SAR model composed of multiple local (Q)SARs made by use of stepwise regression. The specific implementation is proprietary within the MultiCASE CASE Ultra software.

4.3 Descriptors in the model

Fragment descriptors,

Distance descriptors,

Physical descriptors,

Electronic descriptors,

Quantum mechanical descriptors

4.4 Descriptor selection

Automated hierarchical selection (see 4.5).

4.5 Algorithm and descriptor generation

MultiCASE CASE Ultra is an artificial intelligence (AI) based computer program with the ability to learn from existing data and is the successor to the program MultiCASE MC4PC. The system can handle large and diverse sets of chemical structures to produce so-called global (Q)SAR models, which are in reality series of local (Q)SAR models. Upon prediction of a query structure by a given model one or more of these local models, as well as global relationships if these are identified, can be involved if relevant for the query structure. The CASE Ultra algorithm is mainly built on the MCASE methodology (Klopman 1992) and was released in a first version in 2011 (Chakravarti *et al.* 2012, Saiakhov *et al.* 2013).

CASE Ultra is a fragment-based statistical model system. The methodology involves breaking down the structures of the training set into all possible fragments from 2 to 10 heavy (non-hydrogen) atoms in length. The fragment generation procedure produces simple linear chains of varying lengths and branched fragments as well as complex substructures generated by combining the simple fragments.

A structural fragment is considered as a positive alert if it has a statistically significant association with chemicals in the active category. It is considered a deactivating alert if it has a statistically significant relation with the inactive category.

Once final lists of positive and deactivating alerts are identified, CASE Ultra attempts to build local (Q)SARs for each alert in order to explain the variation in activity within the training set chemicals covered by that alert. The program calculates multiple molecular descriptors from the chemical structure such as molecular orbital energies and two-dimensional distance descriptors. A stepwise regression method is used to build the local (Q)SARs based on these molecular descriptors. For each step a new descriptor (modulator) is added if the addition is statistically significant and increases the cross-validated R² (the internal performance) of the model. The number of descriptors in each local model is never allowed to exceed one fifth of the number of training set chemicals covered by that alert. If the final regression model for the alert does not satisfy certain criteria (R² ≥ 0.6 and Q² ≥ 0.5) it is rejected. Therefore, not all alerts will necessarily have a local (Q)SAR.

The collection of positive and deactivating alerts with or without a local (Q)SAR constitutes a global (Q)SAR model for a particular endpoint and can be used for predicting the activity of a test chemical.

More detailed information about the algorithm can be found in Chakravarti *et al.* (2012), Saiakhov *et al.* (2013).

4.6 Software name and version for descriptor generation

MultiCASE CASE Ultra 1.4.6.6 64-bit.

4.7 Descriptors/chemicals ratio

The program primarily uses fragment descriptors specific to a group of structurally related chemicals from the training set. Therefore estimation of the number of descriptors used in a specific model, which is a collection of local models as explained under 4.5, may be difficult. In general, we estimate that the model uses an order of magnitude less descriptors than there are observations. The number of descriptors in each local (Q)SAR model is never allowed to exceed one fifth of the number of training set chemicals covered by that alert (Saiakhov *et al.* 2013).

It should be noted that due to CASE Ultra's complex decision making scheme overfitting is rare compared to simpler linear models. Warnings are issued in case of statistically insufficient overall number of observations to produce a model, which is not the case in the present model.

5. Defining Applicability Domain

5.1 Description of the applicability domain of the model

The definition of the applicability domain consists of two components; the definition in CASE Ultra and the in-house further refinement algorithm on the output from CASE Ultra to reach the final applicability domain call.

1. CASE Ultra

CASE Ultra recognizes unknown structural fragments in test chemicals that are not found in the training data and lists these in the output for a prediction. Fragments this way impose a type of global applicability domain for the overall model. The presence of more than three unknown structural fragments in the test chemical results in an 'out of domain' call in the program. (Chakravarti *et al.* 2012, Saiakhov *et al.* 2013).

For each structural alert, CASE Ultra uses the concept of so-called domain adherences and statistical significance.

The domain adherence for an alert in a query chemical depends on the similarity of the chemical space around the alert in the query chemical compared to the chemical space (in terms of frequencies of occurrences of statistically relevant fragments) of the training set chemicals used to derive the alert. The domain adherence value (between zero and one) is the ratio of the sum of the squared frequency of occurrence values of the subset of the fragments that are present in the test chemical and sum of the squared frequency of occurrence of all the fragments that constitute the domain of the alert in question. The more fragments of the domain of the alert in the test chemical the closer the domain adherence value is to 1. The value will never be zero as the alert itself is part of the alerts domain.

Furthermore, all alerts come with a measure of its statistical significance, and this depends on the number of chemicals in the training set which contained the alert and the prevalence within these of actives and inactives. (Chakravarti *et al.* 2012).

2. In-house refinement algorithm to reach the final applicability domain call

The Danish QSAR group has applied a stricter definition of applicability domain for its MultiCASE CASE Ultra models.

An optimization procedure based on preliminary cross-validation is applied to further restrict the applicability domain for the whole model based on non-linear requirements for domain adherence and statistical significance, giving the following primary thresholds:

Domain adherence = 0.76 and significance = 70%

Any positive prediction is required to contain at least one valid positive alert, namely an alert with statistical significance and domain adherence exceeding thresholds defined for the specific model.

The positive predictions for chemicals which only contain invalid positive alerts are considered 'out of domain' (in CASE Ultra these chemicals are predicted to be inactive).

Furthermore, only query chemicals with no unknown structural fragments are considered within the applicability domain, except for chemicals predicted 'positive', where one unknown fragment is accepted. Also no significant positive alerts are accepted for an inactive prediction.

5.2 Method used to assess the applicability domain

The applicability domain is assessed in terms of the output from CASE Ultra with the Danish QSAR group's further refinement algorithm on top as described in 5.1.

Because of the complexity of the system (see 5.1), the assessment of whether a test chemical is within the applicability domain of the model requires predicting the chemical with the specific model, and the application of the Danish QSAR group model-specific thresholds for domain adherence and significance.

This applicability domain was also applied when determining the results from the cross-validations (6.9).

5.3 Software name and version for applicability domain assessment

MultiCASE CASE Ultra 1.4.6.6 64-bit.

5.4 Limits of applicability

All structures are run through the DataKurator feature within CASE Ultra to check for compatibility with the program. Furthermore, the Danish QSAR group applies an overall definition of structures acceptable for QSAR processing which is applicable for all the in-house QSAR software, i.e. not only CASE Ultra. According to this definition accepted structures are organic substances with an unambiguous structure, i.e. so-called discrete organics defined as: organic compounds with a defined two dimensional (2D) structure containing at least two carbon atoms, only certain atoms (H, Li, B, C, N, O, F, Na, Mg, Si, P, S, Cl, K, Ca, Br, and I), and not mixtures with two or more 'big components' when analyzed for ionic bonds (for a number of small known organic ions assumed not to affect toxicity the 'parent molecule' is accepted). Structures with less than two carbon atoms or containing atoms not in the list above (e.g. heavy metals) are rendered out as not acceptable for further QSAR processing. Calculation 2D structures (SMILES and/or SDF) are generated by stripping off accepted organic and inorganic ions. Thus, all the training set and prediction set chemicals are used in their non-ionized form. See 5.1 for further applicability domain definition.

6. Internal validation

6.1 Availability of the training set

Yes

6.2 Available information for the training set

CAS

SMILES

6.3 Data for each descriptor variable for the training set

No

6.4 Data for the dependent variable for the training set

All

6.5 Other information about the training set

80 compounds are in the training set: 40 positives and 40 negatives.

6.6 Pre-processing of data before modelling

Only structures acceptable for CASE Ultra were used in the final training set. That is, only discrete organic chemicals as described in 5.4 were used. In case of replicate structures, one of the replicates was kept if all the compounds had the same activity and all were removed if they had different activity. No further structures accepted by the software were eliminated (i.e. outliers).

6.7 Statistics for goodness-of-fit

Not performed.

6.8 Robustness – Statistics obtained by leave-one-out cross-validation

Not performed. (It is not a preferred measurement for evaluating large models).

6.9 Robustness – Statistics obtained by leave-many-out cross-validation

A five times two-fold 50 % cross-validation was performed. This was done by randomly removing 50% of the full training set used to make the “mother model”, thereby splitting the full training set into two subsets A and B, each containing the same ratio of positives to negatives as the full training set. A new model (validation sub-model) was created on subset A without using any information from the “mother model” (regarding e.g. descriptor selection etc.). The validation sub-model was applied to predict subset B (within the CASE Ultra applicability domain for the validation sub-model and the in-house further refinement algorithm for the full model). Likewise, a validation sub-model was made on subset B and this model was used to predict subset A (within the CASE Ultra applicability domain for the validation sub-model and the in-house further refinement algorithm for the full model). This procedure was repeated five times.

Predictions within the defined applicability domain for the ten validation sub-models were pooled and Cooper’s statistics calculated. This gave the following results for the 31.3% (125/(5*80)) of the predictions which were within the applicability domain:

- Sensitivity (true positives / (true positives + false negatives)): 76.7%
- Specificity (true negatives / (true negatives + false positives)): 93.9%
- Concordance ((true positives + true negatives) / (true positives + true negatives + false positives + false negatives)): 89.3%

6.10 Robustness - Statistics obtained by Y-scrambling

Not performed.

6.11 Robustness - Statistics obtained by bootstrap

Not performed.

6.12 Robustness - Statistics obtained by other methods

Not performed.

7. External validation

7.1 Availability of the external validation set

7.2 Available information for the external validation set

7.3 Data for each descriptor variable for the external validation set

7.4 Data for the dependent variable for the external validation set

7.5 Other information about the training set

7.6 Experimental design of test set

7.7 Predictivity – Statistics obtained by external validation

7.8 Predictivity – Assessment of the external validation set

7.9 Comments on the external validation of the model

External validation has not been performed for this model.

8. Mechanistic interpretation

8.1 Mechanistic basis of the model

The model identifies statistically relevant substructures (i.e. alerts) and for each set of molecules containing a specific alert it further identifies additional parameters found to modulate the alert (e.g. logP and molecular orbital energies, etc.). Many predictions may indicate modes of action that are obvious for persons with expert knowledge about the endpoint.

8.2 A priori or posteriori mechanistic interpretation

A posteriori mechanistic interpretation. The identified structural features and molecular descriptors may provide basis for mechanistic interpretation.

8.3 Other information about the mechanistic interpretation

9. Miscellaneous information

9.1 Comments

The model can be used to predict if a chemical can cause respiratory sensitisation in humans.

9.2 Bibliography

Enoch S.J., Roberts, D.W., and Cronin, M.T.D. (2009) Electrophilic Reaction Chemistry of Low Molecular Weight Respiratory Sensitizers. *Chem. Res. Toxicol.*, 22, 1447–1453.

Graham, C., Rosenkranz, H.S., and Karol, M.H. (1997) Structure-Activity Model of Chemicals That Cause Human Respiratory Sensitization. *Regulatory Toxicology and Pharmacology*, 26, 296-306.

Graham, C., Gealy, R., Macina, O.T., Karol, M.H., and Rosenkranz, H.S. (1996) QSAR for allergic contact dermatitis. *Quant. Struct.-Act. Relat.*, 15, 224–229.

NIH (1991) Expert Panel Report 1: Guidelines for the Diagnosis and Management of Asthma. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Institutes of Health, National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute. A third version of this report (ERP3) available online at <http://www.nhlbi.nih.gov/health-pro/guidelines/current/asthma-guidelines/full-report.htm>

Serafinova, R., and Worth, A. (2012) *In silico* profiling approaches for respiratory sensitisation assessment under REACH. *JRC scientific and policy report*.

9.3 Supporting information