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Predicting Skin Permeability by means of Computational Approaches: Reliability and Caveats in Pharmaceutical Studies

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Abstract: The skin is the main barrier between the internal body environment and the external one. The characteristics of this barrier and its properties are able to modify and affect drug delivery and chemical toxicity parameters. Therefore, it is not surprising that permeability of many different compounds has been measured through several *in vitro* and *in vivo* techniques. Moreover, many different *in silico* approaches have been used to identify the correlation between the structure of the permeants and their permeability, to reproduce the skin behavior, and to predict the ability of specific chemicals to permeate this barrier. A significant number of issues, like interlaboratory variability, experimental conditions, dataset building rationales, and skin site of origin and hydration, still prevent us from obtaining a definitive predictive skin permeability model. This review wants to show the main advances and the principal approaches in computational methods used to predict this property, to enlighten the main issues arised and to address the challenges to develop in future research.

1. INTRODUCTION

The skin is the largest organ of the body and provides the main barrier between the internal and external environment. It consists of three separate and diverse layers, each one with a distinct cellular composition, characteristic, and function: epidermis, dermis and hypodermis. The outermost layer, epidermis, is formed of the viable epidermis and non-viable stratum corneum, which provides the main barrier to permeation and is considered as the “rate-limiting step of permeation”¹. The stratum corneum is a specialized tissue type, whose main function is to control the absorption of substances into the skin and to maintain the fluid homeostasis. The structure of this layer has been often compared to a wall built from bricks and mortar, in which the nonpermeable protein-rich corneocytes represent the building blocks, glued with space-filling mortar (intercorneocyte cholesterol, triglycerides, and ceramides). According to Nemes, the barrier function of normal epidermis depends on the quality of its bricks and mortar²⁻⁴.

1.1 Skin permeation

A compound can permeate the stratum corneum by the intercellular, transcellular or appendageal routes, according to its size and its chemico-physical properties^{5,6}.

Skin permeability is widely recognized as an essential parameter to be considered for the delivery of active substances¹, but it is also considered important for risk assessment purposes⁷. Guidelines for *in vitro* and *in vivo* skin permeation tests have been drafted by the OECD^{8,9}, but no universal protocol has been developed. Measuring skin permeability is generally time consuming due to experimental conditions which need to be optimized for each compound, alongside with a proper analytical method development or adaptation. Moreover, it is impossible to evaluate compounds not yet synthesized. Hence, it is crucial to use an efficient and accurate *in silico* model of human skin permeability in order to reduce product development costs in early stage screening¹⁰, resolve ethical issues, understand the

mechanisms of absorption¹, and reduce measurements variability. In fact, it has been shown that the skin permeability can variate inter- and intra-subject¹¹. While inter-variability fits to a normal distribution, intra-variability is non-normally distributed¹¹. Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that skin barrier variability is chemical dependent¹² and that it is not correlated with trans epidermal water loss rates (TEWL), especially following physical damage (stripping), commonly performed on skin prior permeability experiments¹³.

1.2 Skin Permeability parameters

The passive diffusion process of a chemical from a region of high concentration to low concentration in the skin is described by Fick's first Law of diffusion at steady state:

$$Q = \frac{D\Delta C}{h} \text{ (eq.1)}$$

The steady state flux (J_{ss}) through the skin can be described as:

$$J_{ss} = \frac{Q}{AT} = \frac{D\Delta C}{h} \text{ (eq.2)}$$

where Q is the amount of solute, D is the penetrant diffusivity in the membrane, A is the area of the membrane considered, T is time, ΔC is the penetrant concentration gradient across the membrane, and h is the membrane thickness (path length).

The most commonly used parameter to describe and measure permeability is the constant of permeability (or permeability coefficient, K_p), defined as:

$$K_p = \frac{J_{ss}}{\Delta C_v} \text{ (eq.3)}$$

where ΔC_v is the concentration gradient^{14,15}.

Moreover, it is possible to use J_{max} , the maximum flux of penetrant through the skin when in contact with a saturated solution¹⁶.

1.3 Skin Permeability measurement conditions

The conditions in which permeability experiments can be performed may significantly vary. According to the amount of substance applied to the membrane we can distinguish between finite and infinite dosing. The application of a limited amount of substance, called finite dosing, is closer to the *in vivo* status, but depletion of the donor concentration will occur. In infinite dosing, the compound is applied in large volumes, allowing to consider the donor compartment concentration as constant, but this is unrepresentative of many real-life exposures and may potentially result in changes to the experimental conditions, for example through causing an occlusive effect¹⁷.

Even though human skin is considered the gold standard, other animal models have been used to conduct permeability measurements because of the greater ease in obtaining them and the ability to more tightly control variable parameters such as age, race and donor site. For this reason and because of its structural similarity to human skin¹⁸⁻²⁰, porcine skin is often used as a surrogate for human skin. Furthermore, many models of skin diseases exist in mice²¹⁻²⁶ and thus mouse skin is another common substitute for human skin. Other kinds of skin, obtained *in vitro*, can be used to conduct permeability experiments. In fact, *in vitro* models of reconstructed human epidermis (RHE) and reconstructed human skin (RHS) are widely used to assess various types of toxicity, such as photo toxicity, corrosion, irritation and sensitization²⁷. In the absence of penetration enhancers and controlling the level of skin hydration, it is possible to establish an overall good relationship between values obtained during experiments using RHS models with those using skin from hairless rats or mice, even if for both these models the permeability values are higher compared to human skin²⁸.

It is also possible to perform permeation experiments using specific skin sections or thicknesses²⁹. Full thickness human skin (FT) can be used in *in vitro* permeation experiments and is prepared by mechanically removing the hypodermal connective tissue. In order to further reduce variability between samples, FT skin can be dermatomed to a pre-set thickness^{30,31}. Variation can be further reduced by the use of only stratum corneum or epidermal sheets. These can be prepared by either mechanical or

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3 heat separation^{32, 33}. This type of skin section retains the principle barrier function of the stratum
4 corneum, and its use reduces variation due to skin thickness and diffusional pathway length.
5 Data on the stratum corneum thickness is limited³⁴. Even from a given region, the number of cell layers
6 and their thickness can vary³⁵, and this affects skin permeation measurements³⁶⁻³⁹. The total lipid
7 content and its composition may vary as well, depending on region^{40, 41} and species⁴². It has been
8 shown that a change in the lipid composition and organization is characteristic of skin inflammatory
9 diseases, where the skin barrier is compromised⁴³, and may cause irregular lipid matrix and defective
10 skin permeability function^{22, 44-48}.
11

12 **2. COMPUTATIONAL MODELS TO PREDICT PERMEABILITY**

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14
15 The experience of standardizing the conditions of permeation generated challenging and generally
16 unsuccessful experiments^{49, 50}. This leads to the need for other approaches that are able to coherently
17 predict permeability values and rank accordingly old and new chemical entities. In this review, the
18 authors have chosen to identify, comment and summarize the main advances and approaches on
19 computational methods used to predict skin permeability.
20

21 In order to give a complete and detailed insight over the permeability predictive models, papers covering
22 the period from 1992 to date have been selected and included in this review.
23

24 **2.1 Linear and nonlinear QSPR models**

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26
27 The fundamental principle of a QSPR (quantitative structure-property relationship) is that the structural
28 and physicochemical characteristics of a compound, codified as descriptors, are correlated to the
29 property of interest (e.g. permeability coefficient) through a mathematical equation.
30 QSPRs have traditionally been generated for molecules associated with a measurable property⁵¹⁻⁵³, in
31 this case mainly the Log K_p . But more generically, even binary or categorical responses (e.g. not-
32 permeable or permeable) have been used, applying discriminant analysis, logistic regression and
33 classification methods such as random forest (RF), support vector machine (SVM), and bayesian
34 classifiers⁵⁴⁻⁵⁸.
35

36 **2.1.1. Potts and Guy approach and linear QSPR models**

37
38 In the early 1990s, Potts and Guy⁵⁹ developed the first QSPR model, successfully linking the
39 permeability of a compound with its partition coefficient between water and octanol (LogP) and
40 molecular size (in the form of molecular volume or molecular weight), and subsequently adding the
41 Hydrogen Bond Activity⁶⁰. Another similar model was developed by Cronin et al. It showed the
42 diversity between permeation mechanisms with excised human skin compared to polydimethylsiloxane
43 membranes⁶¹. The compounds melting point was later added by Barratt et al.⁶², since this parameter is
44 strongly related to solubility, and their model used molecular volume instead of molecular mass. Using
45 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) techniques, they divided the dataset as either steroids,
46 pharmacologically active compounds, or small molecules. Since the initial QSPR on the
47 pharmacologically active dataset revealed a poor regression correlation, the ultimate QSPR was built
48 with a dataset obtained by means of combining small molecules and steroids, removing from this latter
49 the hydrocortisone subset. It has been shown later that melting point has no statistical significance in
50 this model⁶³. Further analysis on a similar basis confirmed that hydrophobicity and molecular size
51 (quantified by molecular weight or volume) provided a good model, when these well-known
52 hydrocortisone derivative outliers were removed⁶⁴.
53

54 These Potts and Guy and Cronin QSPR models^{59, 61} have been further revised, updating the steroid
55 permeability data. The newly generated model showed a high degree of similarity to the previous ones,
56 but it was not statistically necessary to consider the steroids as outliers. This led to the conclusion that
57 the transdermal penetration process of steroids is not significantly different from that for the other
58 molecules considered in the database⁶⁵. Another approach following the Potts and Guy direction was
59 performed by Buchwald and Bodor⁶⁶. Their aim was to decouple two interrelated variables involved
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2
3 that are used to generate the model: molecular size and acceptor hydrogen bonds formed. Even if these
4 two variables are not correlated from a theoretical point of view, the “drug-like” database used to build
5 the model shows an intercorrelation between them, altering the reliability of the correlation
6 measurements.

7 Molecular weight (MW) has been found as strictly correlated to J_{\max} from a given vehicle⁶⁷. Magnusson
8 et al. analyzed data from aqueous vehicles only, showing that other physicochemical parameters found
9 with stepwise regression, like the solubility in octanol, the number of hydrogen bond acceptor sites, and
10 the melting point, were able to only marginally improve the results. A separate analysis of full and split
11 thickness skin data was then performed, showing that J_{\max} is not significantly influenced by the dermal
12 resistance.

13 Despite the wide use of MW as a descriptor in permeability predictive models, Tayar et al.⁶⁸ excluded
14 their correlation. The intracellular route model was then built using $\text{Log } P_{\text{oct}}$ and $\Delta\text{Log } P_{\text{oct-hep}}$ (i.e. $\text{Log } P_{\text{octanol}} - \text{Log } P_{\text{heptanol}}$), that measures the H-bond donor acidity. $\text{Log } P_{\text{oct}}$ only was used instead of $\Delta\text{Log } P_{\text{oct-hep}}$ in the case of transcellular route.

15 The first attempt of using several kinds of descriptors can be found in the work of Gute et al.⁶⁹ using a
16 database of Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons (PAH). In this hierarchical QSPR, four classes of
17 parameters were used (topostructural, topochemical, geometric, and quantum chemical), alongside with
18 well-established physicochemical properties (e.g. MW and $\text{Log } P$). It has been found that, for the
19 chemicals in the database, the quantum chemical class was not able to make any improvement in the
20 QSPR predictivity.

21 The multilinear regression model developed by Chang et al.⁷⁰, using K_p data derived by *in vitro* human
22 skin experiments, identified, with the octanol-water partitioning coefficient, four other properties.
23 Among the 3,224 descriptors calculated by the Dragon software⁷¹, the electrostatic interactions between
24 electric quadrupoles of van der Waals forces, the frequency of carbon-nitrogen bonding at a constant
25 topological distance, and the similarity to antineoplastic compounds in molecular property were
26 selected to predict K_p for dermal hazard assessment. The antineoplastic property similarity (Neoplastic-
27 80⁷²) has been identified in other models as a crucial descriptor, along with molecular cyclicality,
28 topological distances between oxygen and chlorine atoms, and lipophilicity⁷³.

29 In an interesting analysis on benzoxazinones regioisomers⁷⁴, the descriptors classically used ($\text{log } P$,
30 molecular weight and volume (MV), hydrogen bond donor (H_d) and acceptor (H_a)) were considered
31 along with the molecular refractivity and the solvation enthalpy ($\Delta\Delta H_{\text{solv}}$) defined as the difference
32 between formation enthalpies in water and in octanol and represents the energy acquired or transferred
33 during the change of phase from a solvent to another one. It was used as a “correction” of $\text{Log } P$,
34 resulting in an improvement of the correlation coefficient from the Potts and Guy equation.

35 Surprisingly, lipophilicity and size are not always claimed as the most important properties to build a
36 permeability predictive model. Even though they were present in the pool of descriptors used in the
37 model built using stepwise forward multilinear regression by Lee et al.⁷⁵, they were not retrieved as
38 important contributors to the correlation coefficient. The properties involved were indeed the hydrogen
39 bond acceptor and donor activities, followed by the globularity parameter, the PISA (PI carbon-
40 hydrogen component of the solvent-accessible Surface Area), and electron affinity. The absence in the
41 model selected of common descriptors, such as lipophilicity and solute size, could be explained with
42 the vehicle composition, an aqueous solution of PEG 400. This polymer can act like a surfactant,
43 contributing to reducing the difference of surface tension between the vehicle and the stratum corneum
44⁷⁶. Therefore, in the presence of a vehicle containing a surfactant, lipophilicity may not be considered
45 as an important factor to predict the permeability⁷⁵, but it is important to consider that this parameter
46 can be affected by hydrogen bond donor and acceptor activities. The partitioning between water and the
47 barrier phase is expected to show a correlation with lipophilicity values, but these latter could in some
48 cases not be trustworthy⁷⁷. Finally, the solute size is not completely outcast from the model. Even if not
49 considered a major factor, this property can, in some extent, be correlated to the globularity parameter,
50 of significant importance in the model.

51 Biological parameters can easily be included as QSPR descriptors. Liou et al.⁷⁸ developed a multilinear
52 regression on non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) using, alongside molecular weight,
53 polarity factor ($\text{cLog } P$, $\text{Log } K_{\text{o/w}}$) and the solubility parameter (δ), other parameters as indicators of the
54 biological state of the skin as a barrier. TEWL, hydration content, lipid content, resonance running time,
55

and elasticity were successfully used as atypical descriptors, revealing their ability to improve the correlation of the model.

Different approaches were tested by Roberts et al.⁷⁹, who compared a model obtained with the use of solvatochromic parameters to six other models: the classical lipophilicity/molecular size approach⁵⁹, the molecular group contribution⁸⁰, the H-bond donor ability⁶⁸ with and without the use of molecular size, a two-phase model and a solubility-based model. This comparison revealed that the group contribution model, the two-phase model and the solvatochromic approach were more predictive compared to the other methods. The solvatochromic approach uses three different parameters (intrinsic volume, polarizability, and a descriptor of H-bond donor and acceptor activity) to describe the transfer of a molecule from an aqueous to an organic solution⁸¹. This method has been compared to theoretical chemistry-derived structural parameters, molecular connectivity and molecular shape⁸². The hydrogen bonding acceptor activity was recognized as the main limiting factor in skin penetration.

The additive group contribution mentioned previously⁸⁰ was based on two sets, an 11-predictor and a 17-predictor, based respectively on empirically determined functional group and on the SMILES method of molecular description. The results shown with this approach were comparable to those retrieved by Potts and Guy⁵⁹. Another fragment based approach, the TOPS-MODE⁸³, is based on the computation of the spectral moments of the bond matrix⁸⁴, and was used to build a QSPR⁸⁵, resulting in conclusions similar to other studies previously mentioned^{59, 61}.

A more statistically rigorous approach was used by Chauhan and Shakya⁸⁶, who used a broad variety of descriptors (Dragon descriptors and Abraham descriptors). They divided the training and the test set by the Kennard-Stone algorithm^{87, 88}, developed a model combining regression methods and Partial Least Square (PLS), and determined an applicability domain for the model obtained. The descriptors retrieved were the octanol-water partition coefficient, the hydrogen bond number, and the Narumi simple topological index (a descriptor related to molecular branching⁸⁹).

A plethora of studies build their models on LFER method of Abraham (or Abraham descriptors). Firstly developed for neutral compounds⁹⁰, and later on for ionic species⁹¹⁻⁹⁴, this model is based on the calculation of an equilibrium coefficient for a series of solutes in a given system (e.g. in this case, Log K_p) as a multilinear regression of some specific molecular properties (the excess molar refraction, the dipolarity/polarizability coefficient, the hydrogen bond acidity and basicity, the McGowan's characteristic molecular volume, and additional descriptors for ionic species). Models built with this predefined set of descriptors have been widely used⁹⁵⁻⁹⁹ and show a good prediction for both ionic and non-ionic compounds¹⁰⁰.

Table 1 Linear QSPR models. Multilinear regression (MLR), principal component regression (PCR), linear free-energy regression (LFER), and partial least square (PLS) are the most used methods to develop a linear QSPR.

Computational method	N comp.	Fitness parameters	Robustness and validation parameters	Reference
MLR	93, 42, 23, 19	None	None	59
MLR	37	None	Fischer test	60
Stepwise regression MLR	114	R ²	T-value, least squares regression to identify outliers, Fischer test, σ	61
MLR	91	R ²	q ² (leave-one-out), t-value, Fischer test, σ	62
Stepwise regression MLR	158	R ²	Fischer test, t-value, σ	64
MLR	119	R ²	q ² (leave-one-out), t-value, Fischer test, σ	65
MLR	98	R ²	Fischer test, σ	66
Stepwise regression MLR	278	R ²	P-value	67
MLR	22, 8, 11, 18	R ²	σ	68
Hierarchical approach	60	R ²	Fischer test	69
Stepwise regression MLR	158	R ²	None	70

MLR	106	R^2	P-value, Fischer test, σ , sum of squares, mean square, mean square error, absolute maximum error, average absolute error, q^2	73
MLR	14	R^2	P-value, Fischer test	74
Stepwise regression MLR	61	R^2	Mean absolute error, q^2	75
MLR	13	R^2	q^2	78
MLR	24	R^2	P-value, Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC)	79
MLR	91	R^2	Studentized residual value (t-value), σ , 95% confidence interval, p-value, H leverage	80
Stepwise regression MLR	21, 11, 6	R^2	σ , Fischer test	82
Stepwise regression MLR	114	R^2	σ , σ_{CV} , q^2 (leave-one-out), p-value, Fischer test	85
MLR, PCR, PLS (RMSE _{CV} minimization)	211	R^2	q^2 (leave-one-out), RMSE _{CV}	86
MLR (LFER)	71	R^2	σ , Fischer test	95
MLR (LFER)	112	R^2	σ , t-test	96
MLR (LFER)	119	R^2	σ , Fischer test	97
MLR (LFER)	47	R^2	σ , Fischer test	98
MLR (LFER)	118	R^2	σ , Fischer test, Predictive Standard Deviation leave-one-out (PSD)	99
MLR (LFER)	247	R^2	σ , Fischer test, Predictive Standard Deviation leave-one-out (PSD), q^2	100

To be described as predictive, a model should have an appropriate measurement of goodness of fit, robustness and predictivity. Among all the model previously described and shown in Table 1, R^2 is unanimously used to represent the goodness of fit measurement. Predictivity and robustness have been measured mostly with Q^2_{LOO} (Leave-One-Out), a Cross Validation parameter. It has been shown that this parameter alone is inadequate and incomplete¹⁰¹⁻¹⁰⁷, therefore Q^2_{LMO} (Leave-Many-Out) or bootstrap methods should be used instead, and Y-randomization should be calculated in parallel to highlight casual correlations^{101, 102, 108}. The Root Mean Square Error and its cross validate counterpart (RMSE and RMSE_{CV}) can be useful in case of unevenly distributed data; RMSE_{CV} should be as low as possible and similar to RMSE to show a good standardization¹⁰⁹. Although, cross validation techniques provide a reasonable measure of the internal predictive power; furthermore, in order to consider the model truly predictive, the internal validation should be supported by external validation¹¹⁰. In fact, during the cross validation process runs, the same data are “repeatedly used to build and assess the model”^{102, 104}. The external validation should be performed splitting *a priori* the dataset into a training and a test set. The most common external validation, suggested by the OECD¹¹¹, is performed through q^2 form parameters¹¹², R^2_{ext} measurements¹⁰⁶, and other types of metrics¹¹³⁻¹¹⁵.

2.1.2. Non-linear QSPR models

In the past 30 years QSPR models evolved from simple Multi Linear Regressions with a few thermodynamic variables to non-linear models developed with a wide variety of descriptors^{116, 117}.

Many different approaches have been used to develop QSPRs models, including artificial neural networks, random forest, gaussian regressions and processes.

The artificial neural network (ANN) is a pattern of computational algorithms that reproduces the functionality of the connection in biological neural clusters¹¹⁸, simulating in every way a “digital brain” that processes the information¹¹⁹.

The ANN is compared to MLR by Fatemi and Malekzadeh¹²⁰, who built models with descriptors calculated with the software Codessa¹²¹. A similar comparison has been made by Atobe et al.¹²², who use the classical Potts and Guy descriptors, alongside other parameters that take into account the effect of different delivery vehicles. Additionally, Katritzky et al.¹²³ included fragment-based ISIDA modeling^{124, 125} in the comparison. Lim et al.¹²⁶ used a feed-forward back-propagation neural network

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3 to correlate skin permeability to descriptors calculated with Molecular Orbital (MO), such as dipole
4 moment, polarizability, sum of charges of nitrogen and oxygen atoms, and sum of charges of hydrogen
5 atoms bonding to nitrogen or oxygen atoms. Artificial Neural Network has also been used with
6 Abraham Descriptors¹²⁷⁻¹²⁹. ANN is often considered as superior because it generally performs better
7 for a broad range of chemicals¹²². Although this technique has been applied in building several models
8^{120, 122, 123, 126-129}, Chen et al.⁷³ observed that models with not sufficient number of compounds show a
9 trend of overfitted results¹³⁰. Moreover, it has been shown that ANNs can be trapped in local minima¹⁰
10 and that the structure of their network is difficult to determine properly⁷³.

11 The Random Forest technique is a particular Decision Ensembles of Trees algorithm¹³¹. After bootstrap
12 sampling, for each sample a certain number of decision trees are grown to the maximum possible size,
13 using the Classification And Regression Trees (CART) algorithm¹³². The boosted CART can be used
14 to obtain permeability classes with an extended set of descriptors. Baert et al. compared this CART
15 model with a MLR model built with the descriptors from the first model¹³³.

16 Other ensemble methods used are the Decision Forest¹³⁴ and the Random Forest¹³⁵. Among all the
17 non-linear techniques, the tree-based ones show a good set of characteristics. They are able to identify
18 relevant descriptors and to handle high dimensional-data, but they are not able to give a high prediction
19 accuracy⁵⁶. In contrast to the other ensemble algorithms, RF is able to estimate prediction accuracy,
20 descriptor importance in the model and similarity between chemical compounds analyzed⁵⁶. A Random
21 forest approach with these characteristics has been used by Alves et al.^{136, 137}, to compare human and
22 rodent permeabilities, showing a good predictive performance but a restricted applicability domain
23 compared to other software¹³⁸.

24 A similar model was generated by Baba et al.¹⁰, that, after the calculation of 4803 descriptors with
25 Dragon⁷¹, developed and compared several QSPRs. The models were built through random forest and
26 support vector machine (SVM). The support vector machine uses a kernel transformation, a
27 mathematical function that projects the descriptor matrix in a space with high-dimensionality^{139, 140}.
28 The SVM was used to find regression with both a linear or gaussian basis. The models were obtained
29 by stepwise forward selection, using the Potts and Guy model⁵⁹ as a baseline. The number of descriptors
30 selected in the RF were 9, in the SVM-Gaussian 11 and 17 in the SVM-Linear, showing that the random
31 forest performed better than all the other models. Furthermore, the support vector regression and the
32 random forest methods were used with greedy stepwise descriptor algorithm selection to predict the
33 solvent effect on human skin permeability¹⁴¹. In subsequent work, the SVM-Gaussian and the SVM-
34 Nonlinear were compared to the Potts and Guy model to investigate the permeability of ionic
35 compounds¹⁴². The results showed the superiority of the nonlinear SVR model and the effectiveness of
36 a new descriptor, Log D, that represents the octanol-water distribution coefficient measured at a specific
37 pH and allows to predict the effects of ionization on the skin permeation process.

38 Machine learning methods can include the gaussian process regression with automatic resonance
39 detection (GPRARD). This method was compared in different studies^{143, 144} to gaussian process
40 regression (GPR), and single linear networks (SLN). The use of GPR, in particular GPRARD, is able
41 to quantify the covariance and the length scale of each descriptor in the model, giving a deeper
42 comprehension of the significance of each feature¹⁴⁴. GPR methods have been applied to the
43 exploration of skin membranes datasets other than human skin, and to investigate how the nature of the
44 dataset may influence its analysis¹⁴⁵. Descriptors used to build this latter model are LogP, MW, the
45 number of hydrogen bond donor and acceptor groups and solubility parameter defined by Fedors¹⁴⁶.

46 An iterative non-linear Gauss-Newton least-squares fit¹⁴⁷ was used by ten Berge¹⁴⁸ to estimate the
47 regression coefficient for aqueous skin permeation, using the logarithm of the water-octanol partition
48 coefficient, molecular weight and water solubility. The model can calculate various parameters, such
49 as the aqueous permeation coefficient, the maximum dermal absorption, the lag time and, finally, the
50 diffusivity in the stratum corneum. The maximum dermal absorption and lag time showed the same
51 order of magnitude of the respective experimental measured properties.

52 Gaussian processes, along with SLN and k-nearest-neighbour regression (k-NN), were applied to
53 predict the skin permeability coefficient, based on five molecular descriptors (MW, solubility parameter,
54 lipophilicity, the number of Hydrogen acceptor and donor bonds). The results obtained were better than
55 the classical LogP-MW model¹⁴⁹. k-NN has also been used with ridge regression¹⁵⁰, to predict skin
56 permeability using molecular weight, octanol-water partition coefficient and solvation free energy¹³⁰.

As shown in this review, the k-NN algorithm has been widely used in skin permeability predictions. This non-parametric method represents one of the simplest machine learning algorithms¹⁵¹. The regression process estimates the value to predict according to a weighted average of the nearest neighbour, weighted by the inverse of their distance¹⁵². The same method can be used to estimate outliers¹⁵³. A good example of this use of the k-NN methods is delivered by Lindh et al.¹⁵⁴. After using the RF and SVM regression approaches together with Conformal Prediction (CP), k-NN has been used to estimate the error for each compound.

Conformal Prediction is able to estimate prediction ranges and significance levels for single compounds^{155, 156}. Estimating the prediction range¹⁵⁷ and defining the error limits are procedures that quantify the maximum number of errors expected^{155, 156} leading to increased confidence in the model.

Ridge regression (RR), also known as Tikhonov regularization or weight decay¹⁵⁰, is used in other models in order to take into account multicollinearity. After reducing the number of descriptors with a modified Gram-Schmidt variable reduction algorithm, Basak et al.¹⁵⁸ compared the RR to principal component regression (PCR) and partial least squares regression (PLS), showing that Ridge Regression outperforms the other approaches.

Skin permeability has also been predicted with other kinds of machine learning algorithms, such as neural fuzzy algorithms. Khajeh and Modarress¹⁵⁹ used Modified Particle Swarm Organization (MPSO) to select the descriptors and Adaptive Neuro-Fuzzy Inference System (ANFIS)¹⁶⁰ to correlate them with skin permeability experimental data. Fuzzy models have been compared to Flynn¹⁶¹, Potts and Guy^{59, 60}, and Abraham¹⁶² databases with promising results¹⁶³, even if the number of compounds should be increased. Furthermore, a Takagi-Sugeno fuzzy model, able to predict permeability from MW, octanol/water partition coefficient, and temperature, has been compared with a MLR model that used the same descriptors¹⁶⁴, showing the superiority of the first model over the second one.

After measuring the stratum corneum binding property and the extracted lipid partition coefficient of a number of compounds, Wang et al.¹⁶⁵ developed two QSPRs to predict the partition and binding coefficients. The two models built were combined in a two-phase compartmental nonlinear model able to predict the partition coefficient of solutes to the stratum corneum ($K_{sc/w}$).

Given that the greatest part of the QSPR mentioned have been developed using mixtures of different datasets prone to interspecies and interlaboratory variabilities, a novel statistical approach has been used to minimize this error¹⁶⁶. Fujiwara et al. assumed that each dataset has a relationship between the permeability and the descriptors, considering the different regression coefficients for each dataset as proportional (not identical) to the others. This approach, called “latent membrane permeability”, is a possible explanation of the reason why an absolute permeation rate cannot be predicted, and it is an effective way to compare different databases of skin permeability measurements.

2.1.3. QSPR models for mixtures and enhancers

All of the approaches to predicting skin permeation described above consider only the permeation of single compounds from aqueous solution. It is extremely rare that any chemical actually comes into contact with the skin as a simple aqueous solution, whether medicinal formulations, cosmetic products or accidental exposure to chemicals are being considered. Much more common is that the chemical comes into contact with the skin as a complex mixture of chemicals in a delivery vehicle that often contains aqueous and non-aqueous co-solvents. Therefore, in order to better reflect these real-world scenarios, numerous approaches have been used to describe behavior in situations closer to the actual skin delivery systems, where mixtures and permeability enhancers are commonly present. In fact, the use of permeability enhancers, chemicals that interact with skin constituents to promote drug flux¹⁶⁷, is one of the most commonly used approaches within the pharmaceutical industry to broaden the range of chemicals that can be delivered into or across the skin.

To predict skin enhancement for hydrocortisone and hydrocortisone acetate, a Membrane-Interaction Quantitative Structure-Activity Relationship (MI-QSAR) was developed¹⁶⁸, using two enhancer data sets of 61 and 42 molecules. The MI-QSAR technique uses a model membrane, on which a Molecular Dynamics (MD) simulation is conducted, analyzing the permeability enhancer¹⁶⁹⁻¹⁷². General intramolecular solute descriptors, solute aqueous dissolution and solvation descriptors and solute-membrane intermolecular descriptors were calculated. This latter category is extracted from the

trajectories of the MD simulations, making it possible to build a QSPR model considering the membrane properties.

MLR methods have been adapted for topical preparation mixtures¹⁷³ in order to predict ingredient modulation of dermal absorption of caffeine and salicylic acid. Physicochemical descriptors (such as density, vapor pressure, enthalpy of vaporization, flash point, index of refraction, molar refraction, hydrogen bond acceptors and donors, number of freely rotatable bonds, log P, log D, polar surface area, polarizability, surface tension, molar volume, boiling point, melting point, boiling point minus melting point, Henry's Law constant, MW, and water solubility) were calculated and the models were obtained by stepwise forward regression. During a finite-dose diffusion experiment, using porcine skin, Ghafourian et al.¹⁷⁴ tested 12 different penetrants in 34 different solvent mixtures. From the data collected, through a stepwise regression analysis, it was possible to build a QSAR, employing two penetrant descriptors (octanol/water partition coefficient and the ninth order path molecular connectivity index) and one solvent property (the difference between the melting and boiling points). The extremely unusual negative relationship between skin permeability coefficient and Log P was correlated to the high lipophilicity of the compounds of this particular dataset. Then, combining this data with a previous dataset, a new QSAR was obtained, having as descriptors two penetrant properties (Wiener topological index and total dipole moment), the boiling point of the solvent, and the difference between the melting point of the penetrant and the melting point of the solvent¹⁷⁵.

Mixture-related effects were considered by Guth et al.¹⁷⁶, who developed a MLR QSPR to measure the dermal absorption of agrochemical formulations. Along with the five Abraham descriptors, physicochemical and structural properties were used to calculate the mixture factor (MF). The Abraham descriptors, enriched by a mixture factor (MF), were used by Riviere and Brooks¹⁷⁷, who compared a large number of models, showing the positive impact of a mixture factor on the predictivity of each of them. Adding a sixth term to the Abraham Descriptors, the MF, allowed the same authors, to take into account the physicochemical properties and quantify the effect of the formulation on the dermal absorption¹⁷⁸ in the further study.

The LFER model of Abraham has been expanded and adapted in different ways to predict the permeability of mixtures. Xu et al. considered an equation for each Metal Working Fluid formulation, and then produced a condensed model¹⁷⁹. The validation is performed with the "leave-one-solute-out" method (a modified leave-one-out cross-validation) that correlates replicates from the same solute.

The permeability enhancers (PE) analysis still represents a challenge, mainly because of their possible multiple mechanisms of action^{180,181}. Drakulić et al.¹⁸² used four drugs (5-Fluorouracil, Hydrocortisone, Estradiol and Diclofenac Sodium) to evaluate the role of 34 terpenes as permeation enhancers. Molecular modelling showed that the complexation between the PE and the drug could be responsible of the enhancement.

Discriminant analysis (DA) and classical machine learning methods, such as gaussian process regression, K-nearest-neighbour regression, single layer networks, radial basis function networks and SVM classifier algorithms have been successfully applied on permeation enhancers by Moss et al.¹⁸³, showing better predictions of GP compared to DA.

Another non-linear QSPR model has been developed by Yerramsetty et al.¹⁸⁴, where the ANN algorithm was used to predict permeability enhancement for insulin when combined with different permeability enhancers.

2.2 Other computational approaches

2.2.1. Molecular Dynamics

Molecular Dynamics is a useful technique to calculate, record, and analyze motions of a many particles-system¹⁸⁵. In one of the earliest studies in this field, a statistical mechanical theory is used to establish the molecular distribution of a solute on a lipid bilayer, obtained as a function of lateral pressure and solute size and shape¹⁸⁶. Similarly, Das *et al.*¹⁸⁷ have calculated the diffusivity of water in several lipid bilayers, obtaining permeability values much smaller compared to the experimental ones. On the contrary, measuring the permeation of small molecules through a lipidic matrix, Gupta et al.¹⁸⁸ obtained values a few orders of magnitude higher than the experimental for the hydrophilic molecules.

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3 Molecular dynamics simulations have been used to support results obtained from other kind of *in silico*,
4 or *in vitro* models, confirming the high selectivity of lipid membranes permeation to compound size
5 and shape. In Marrink et al., a molecular dynamics simulation¹⁸⁹⁻¹⁹¹ was employed to study the transport
6 of small molecules (water, oxygen, ammonia) through a phospholipidic bilayer¹⁹², with the objective
7 of determining if the size, hydrophobicity and asphericity of the permeants were related to their
8 permeability coefficient. They concluded that the shape of the permeation resistance profile was mainly
9 determined by the free energy of solvation.

10 To add a multi-component diffusion factor, Rim *et al.* proposed a multiscale framework model,
11 considering the microscopic, mesoscopic and macroscopic aspect of transdermal diffusion. Molecular
12 Dynamics in this case is used to find the diffusion coefficient in the lipid bilayers of the stratum corneum
13¹⁹³ for drugs coupled with permeability enhancers.

14 Another multi-scale approach used multiple constrained molecular dynamics simulations (molecular
15 scale simulation) to calculate the diffusivity coefficient. This was then used to run Finite Model Element
16 (FEM) simulations to calculate the release profile of the compounds in the macroscopic model, the
17 concentration gradient and the amount permeated through the stratum corneum¹⁹⁴. The study shows a
18 good qualitative match with experimental data, but suffers from some limitations, such as skin lipids
19 composition variability and experimental log K_p values variability.

20 The barrier properties of human skin have been analyzed *in silico*, simulating electron microscopy
21 patterns on molecular dynamics simulations of a bilayer model. These results have been validated
22 against cryo-electron microscopy data from near native skin^{195, 196}, showing a thermodynamically stable
23 model and results compatible with values from human skin.

24 Rocco et al.¹⁹⁷ applied Steered Molecular Dynamics (SMD) of 80 compounds from Flynn's refined
25 database¹⁹⁸ on a SC model, to obtain lipophilicity and diffusion parameters. Further improvements have
26 been obtained considering temperature-related parameters. The variables extracted from the SMD
27 analysis have been correlated with the permeability coefficient measured experimentally. Even if still
28 not enough accurate to represent a valid tool to predict permeability, this model can give useful insight.
29 In fact, the assessment of the behavior of each compound in the different zones of the SC model can
30 lead to the identification of the region that represents the "limiting step during the permeation process"
31 of that compound.
32
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34 2.2.2. Equation-based models

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36 Other *in silico* methods have been developed with a theoretical approach, producing equations able to
37 predict permeability and dermal absorption¹⁹⁹, mainly from compartmental models.

38 The multicompartmental spreadsheet-based model developed by Dancik et al.²⁰⁰ considers the
39 characteristics of skin layers and attaches to each one a corresponding equation, obtained as
40 combination of diffusion principles and experimental coefficients, evaluating several exposure
41 scenarios. Unfortunately, the model shows a great number of discrepancies with the experimental data
42 but attempts to take into account situations not commonly addressed by QSPRs, like finite dose
43 absorption.
44

45 Another two-dimensional mathematical multi-scale model was developed by Kattou et al.²⁰¹. Caffeine
46 permeation via the intrafollicular route was predicted using partition properties in sebum collected from
47 literature. The study confirmed the importance of this route for the permeation mechanism of caffeine,
48 providing information difficult to obtain with *in vivo* or *ex vivo* experiments. Even if not exhaustively
49 validated, the model is promising, offering quantitative prediction of intercellular, intracellular and
50 follicular permeation pathways.

51 More recently, Wen et al.²⁰² developed a microscopic FEM in order to test different geometries,
52 pathways and hydration levels. Not being derived purely from a theoretical approach, this study argued
53 the unavoidable correlation between parameters experimentally derived and computed SC structures,
54 therefore attributed the significant differences in lag-times and permeabilities predicted in multiple
55 conditions to the lack of verified and standardized experimental transport parameters.

56 As previously mentioned, it is possible to compare different "skin geometries". What all of these models
57 have in common is a prototype in which the discrete corneocytes cells are embedded in a continuous
58 lipidic matrix. This kind of model is well-known as the brick and mortar-based model^{203, 204}. Cuboid
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3 models in two or three dimensions and tetrakaidekahedron in three dimensions are the most commonly
4 investigated methods²⁰⁵. Naegel et al. showed that the selected cell shape has a numerical influence on
5 the barrier properties of the SC and that the tetrakaidekahedral shape had a “favorable barrier-to-volume
6 ratio”²⁰⁵.

7 Mitragotri developed several theoretical mathematical models considering structural properties of lipid
8 bilayers and molecular properties of the compounds^{206,207}. The Scaled Particle Theory²⁰⁸ has been used
9 to calculate the diffusion and partition coefficients in bilayers, considering statistical mechanics of lipid
10 chains²⁰⁶. It showed that the solute partition coefficients calculated are comparable with the octanol-
11 water partition coefficient, and that the diffusion coefficients of the compounds analyzed decreased
12 with solute cross-sectional area. Other skin permeability analytical expressions based on solute radius
13 and octanol-water partition coefficient have been subsequently developed, considering the importance
14 of lateral lipid diffusion, aqueous pores diffusion, diffusion through shunts and lipid bilayers free-
15 volume diffusion²⁰⁷.

16 Other mathematical mechanistic models have been developed in order to understand the microscopic
17 principles of skin penetration. Among these a promising mathematical model validated through
18 published clinical studies on nicotine skin patches, is able to predict solute concentration in the blood,
19 integrating the skin penetration mechanism with the circulation kinetic one²⁰⁹; unfortunately, as in other
20 cases, the model still needs a proper validation with an appropriate sized database.

21 Mathematical models can be used not only to predict permeability, but also disposition of compounds
22 in the skin layers²¹⁰; this latter study confirmed that the disposition and the absorption across the skin
23 are related to the octanol-water partition coefficient, showing a non-linear correlation between these
24 parameters.
25

26 27 28 3. CONCLUSION

29
30 *In silico* methods have a fundamental role in predicting skin permeability, to minimize product
31 development costs, to address ethical issues, to reduce experimental skin variability, and to gain useful
32 insights on the mechanisms of absorption and distribution on the skin layers. The aim of this review
33 was to highlight the advances of *in silico* predictions of skin permeability. Many different approaches
34 have been used in the past years, such as QSPRs (linear and non-linear), Molecular Dynamics
35 simulations, and various theoretical methods.

36 Above all these, QPRSSs still represent the most widely used technique to predict skin permeability
37 because of its ability to evaluate larger datasets and give faster results. Linear and non-linear models
38 have been developed and validated with different extent of success. The poor correlation obtained in
39 some cases can be attributed to the quality of databases. Many of the studies cited above were developed
40 with databases obtained through experiments performed with mixed animal and human data, different
41 measurement conditions, vehicles, and skin samples regions. As previously mentioned, skin
42 permeability can hugely vary, and even measurements obtained with the same conditions, but in
43 different studies can be affected by this atavist ensemble of errors, that make the data themselves not
44 useful for prediction purposes.

45 While the QSPRs developers are still struggling with the quality of data, other kind of approaches are
46 trying to become independent from non-standardized parameters. Equation-based models describe the
47 skin layers and the absorption mechanisms not only to give insights into the permeation and the skin
48 barrier properties, but also to measure them. Unfortunately, the only validation of these models is still
49 the experimental data that appears to be particularly lacking for some of the routes of permeation.

50 Even though MD approaches tend to take many variables into account, rising therefore the chances of
51 errors, they seem to be the next step towards experimentally-independent permeability prediction
52 because of their ability to recreate a model of the skin environment. Furthermore, the improving
53 calculation potency of computing machines is contributing to broaden the limits of this kind of
54 approach.
55

56 Despite more than 25 years of computational models' development to predict human skin permeation,
57 this field appears to be continuously expanding. Therefore, the entire spectrum of approaches analyzed
58 in this review has to be considered a necessary and useful step in order to further build a validated
59 satisfactory model of prediction and description of skin permeation pathways.
60

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- ANFIS, Adaptive Neural Fuzzy Inference System
- ANN, Artificial Neural Network
- CART, Classification And Regression Trees
- CV, Cross Validation
- DA, Discriminant Analysis
- FEM, Finite Element Method
- FT, Full-Thickness
- GA, Genetic Algorithm
- GPR, Gaussian Process Regression
- GPRARD, Gaussian Process Regression with Automatic Resonance Detection
- ISIDA
- k-NN, k-Nearest-Neighbour
- LFER, Linear Free-Energy Relationship
- LMO, Leave Many out
- LOO, Leave One Out
- MD, Molecular Dynamics
- MF, Mixture Factor
- MI-QSAR, Membrane-Interaction Quantitative Structure-Activity Relationship
- MLR, Multi Linear Regression
- MO, Molecular Orbitals
- MPSO, Modified Particle Swarm Organization
- MV, Molecular Volume
- MW, Molecular Weight
- NSAID, Non-Steroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drug
- OECD, Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
- PAH, Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons
- PCA, Principal Component Analysis
- PCR, Principal Component Regression
- PE, Permeability Enhancer
- PISA, PI carbon-hydrogen component of the solvent-accessible Surface Area
- PLS, Partial Least Square
- QSAR, Quantitative Structure-Activity Relationship
- QSPR, Quantitative Structure-Property Relationship
- RF, Random Forest
- RHE, Reconstructed Human Epidermis
- RHS, Reconstructed Human Skin
- RMSE, Root Mean Square Error
- RR, Ridge Regression
- SC, Stratum Corneum
- SMD, Steered Molecular Dynamic
- SLN, Single Linear Network
- SMILES, Simplified Molecular Input Line Entry System
- SVM, Support Vector Machine
- SVR, Support Vector Regression
- TEWL, Trans Epidermal Water Loss
- TOPS-MODE, TOPological Sub-Structural MOlecular DEsign

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