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1 A fluorinated phenylbenzothiazole arrest the *Trypanosoma cruzi* cell cycle and

- 2 diminishes the mammalian host-cell infection
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- 23 Running title: BT10 triggers cell cycle arrest in *T. cruzi*
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27

28 Abstract

29 Chagas disease (CD) is a human infection caused by Trypanosoma cruzi. CD was 30 traditionally endemic to the Americas, however, due to migration it has spread to non-31 endemic countries. The current chemotherapy to treat CD induce several side effects 32 and its effectiveness in the chronic phase of the disease is controversial. In this 33 contribution, substituted phenylbenzothiazole derivatives were synthesized and 34 biologically evaluated as trypanocidal agents against Trypanosoma cruzi. The 35 trypanocidal activities of the most promising compounds were determined through 36 systematic in vitro screening and their mode of action as well. The physicochemical-37 structural characteristics responsible for the trypanocidal effects were identified, and 38 their possible therapeutic application in Chagas disease is discussed. Our results show that the fluorinated compound, 2-methoxy-4-[5-(trifluoromethyl)-1,3-benzothiazol-2-yl] 39 40 phenol (BT10) has the ability to inhibit the proliferation of epimastigotes ($IC_{50(Epi)} =$ 41 23.1 \pm 1.75 $\mu M)$ and intracellular forms trypomastigote (IC_{50(Tryp)} = 8.5 \pm 2.9 $\mu M)$ and 42 diminishes the infection index by more than 80%. In addition, BT10 has the ability to 43 selectively fragment 68% of the kinetoplastid DNA compared with 5% of nucleus 44 DNA. The mode of action for BT10 on T. cruzi suggests that the development of 45 fluorinated phenylbenzothiazole with electron-withdrawing substituent could be a 46 promising strategy for the design of trypanocidal drugs.

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50 Introduction

51 American trypanosomiasis or Chagas disease (CD) is a zoonosis caused by the 52 flagellated intracellular protist Trypanosoma cruzi. According to the World Health 53 Organization (WHO), CD is endemic in the Americas; however, due to migration, it has 54 spread to non-endemic countries such as Canada and several European and Western 55 Pacific countries (1, 2). This disease, with approximately 7 million affected people, 56 causes approximately 14 thousand deaths annually, and there are 70 million at risk of 57 becoming infected (3). T. cruzi, which is naturally transmitted by hematophagous 58 insects of the Reduviidae family, can also be transmitted by other routes, such as 59 congenitally (from an infected pregnant woman to the foetus), orally (through 60 contaminated foods and liquids), and through organ transplantations and blood 61 transfusions (4).

62 T. cruzi has a complex life cycle, which occurs within invertebrate and vertebrate hosts 63 (5–7). Replicative, non-infective epimastigotes present in the insect vector give rise to 64 non-replicative infective metacyclic trypomastigotes. These forms invade the host cell, 65 establish the infection and differentiate into replicative amastigotes. Amastigote forms 66 give rise to a transient stage named intracellular epimastigotes, which subsequently 67 differentiate into trypomastigotes that can disseminate in the mammalian host through 68 the bloodstream after causing lysis of host cells and are capable of infecting other cells. 69 The insect vector can acquire these forms during its bloodmeal, becoming infected and 70 able to infect a new mammalian host (8, 9).

Human infection is characterized by two sequential clinical phases: acute and chronic.
The acute phase is often asymptomatic and usually remains undiagnosed. Most infected
individuals proceed to the chronic phase, which lasts for the rest of the patient's life.
The chronic phase presents several clinical forms: 70% of patients are asymptomatic,

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while the remaining 30% present clinical manifestations, with the most frequent being 75 76 chagasic chronic cardiomyopathy and, more rarely, megavisceras (mainly megacolon 77 and megaoesophagus). Over years, the cardiac form of the infection can cause sudden 78 death or heart failure due to the progressive destruction of the cardiac muscle (9).

79 A century after the discovery of the disease by Carlos Chagas in 1909, only two 80 nitroheterocyclic drugs, nifurtimox, and benznidazole, are used to treat T. cruzi 81 infection. These drugs are effective during acute infection. However, their effectiveness 82 during the chronic phase of CD is controversial due to their toxicity (10). Therefore, 83 more secure, effective and accessible alternatives are currently being sought to treat CD. 84 T. cruzi, along with other trypanosomatids, possesses unique morphological and 85 metabolic features, offering opportunities for looking for selective inhibitors. Among 86 them, it is worth mentioning the kinetoplast, a complex structure bearing the 87 mitochondrial genome referred to as kinetoplast DNA or kDNA. The kDNA consists of 88 a large number of relaxed circular DNA molecules interlocked with each other to form a catenated DNA network, and this feature is among those that have frequently been 89 90 considered promising therapeutic targets because they are exclusive to trypanosomatids 91 (11).

92 In the last two decades, large libraries of compounds of diverse chemical nature have 93 been screened for trypanocidal agents (12). Among the selected chemical structures, 94 benzothiazoles (BZTs) have been studied in detail and have been suggested as 95 trypanocides (13–15). BZTs are a class of bicyclic compounds with a broad spectrum of 96 biological applications, such as neuroprotectors (16), anticonvulsants (17), antioxidants 97 (18), kinase inhibitors (19), anticancer agents (20, 21), antimicrobials (22) and 98 leishmanicidal (23). In particular, it has been suggested that the trypanocidal effects of 99 benzothiazoles are related to the inhibition of triosephosphate isomerase (TIM) (24, 25).

100 In previous work, we reported the development of 4-[5-(trifluoromethyl)-1,3-101 benzothiazol-2-yl] benzoic acid, named BT3, which showed excellent trypanocidal 102 activity on bloodstream trypomastigotes of T. cruzi (14); thus, it was proposed as a new 103 nucleus for the development of trypanocidal agents. The aim of this contribution was to 104 determine the trypanocidal activity of a collection of 14 benzothiazoles structurally 105 related to BT3. We evaluated their anti-T. cruzi activity and we analyse their 106 physicochemical-structural characteristics responsible for its biological activity. BT10, 107 the most promising molecule due to its higher selectivity index than the other 108 derivatives, was selected for further analysing its effects on different aspects of T. cruzi 109 biology. We propose BT10 as a promising pharmacological hit compound for 110 developing a treatment against CD.

111

112 **RESULTS**

113 **BT10** affects the proliferation of *T. cruzi* epimastigotes

114 A collection of 14 structurally related molecules, named BT1 to BT14 was synthesized 115 (Figure 1A). The identification of the synthesized molecules and their chemical 116 characterization were performed by melting point (mp), nuclear magnetic resonance 117 (NMR) and electrospray ionization – mass spectrometry spectra determination (ESI– 118 MS). These compounds were initially evaluated for their ability to inhibit epimastigote 119 proliferation in the presence of 25 μ M BT1-14. We attributed a positive inhibition 120 activity to those compounds that, at the concentration used, were able to diminish the cell density at the mid-exponential growth phase (which was measured on the 5th day 121 122 from the beginning of incubation) by 50% or more. Epimastigotes cultured in the 123 absence of drugs in the presence or absence of DMSO (which did not show significant 124 differences) were used as negative controls for inhibition, and their cell density was 125 considered as 100% proliferation. For a positive control for the inhibition of cell

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126 proliferation, the parasites were incubated in the presence of a combination of 60 μ M 127 rotenone + 0.5 μ M antimycin (RA). The compound BT10 was identified as having 128 trypanocidal or trypanostatic activity. BT10 produced a diminution of cell density of 129 50% when compared to that of control (untreated) cultures. Despite not reaching the 130 criterion for selecting them as trypanocidal/trypanostatic, it is worth mentioning that 131 compounds BT3, BT9, and BT11 showed a modest but statistically significant decrease 132 in the cell density concentration when compared to that of controls (Figure 1B and 133 Figure S1). Because BT3 was used as lead (14) for choosing and synthesizing BT1-14, 134 it was selected for further experiments to use this information to unveil the 135 structure/activity relationship of these compounds.

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137 To further evaluate the potency of BT3 and BT10 as anti-T. cruzi agents, we initially 138 determined their IC₅₀ on epimastigote proliferation through dose-response experiments. 139 Cells were cultured in liver infusion tryptose (LIT) in the presence of different 140 concentrations of BT3 and BT10. As previously described, epimastigotes cultured in the 141 absence of drugs were used as negative controls for inhibition, and their cell density was 142 considered as 100% proliferation; parasites treated with RA were used as positive 143 controls for the inhibition of cell proliferation. As expected, BT3 and BT10 showed a 144 dose-dependent inhibition of epimastigote proliferation with IC₅₀ values of 48.8 ± 5.77 145 μ M and 23.1 ± 1.75 μ M, respectively (**Figure 2A, 2B**).

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147 BT10 does not induce programmed cell death (PCD)

148 To characterize the mechanism of action of BT10, we initially investigated its ability to 149 trigger programmed cell death (PCD) in *T. cruzi* epimastigotes. For this analysis, we 150 investigated the typical PCD morphological, cellular and biochemical hallmarks in

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151	trypanosomatids, such as ROS production, as well as Ca^{2+} and $\Delta\Psi_m$ imbalance (26, 27).			
152	We initially looked for exposure of phosphatidylserine in the external leaflet of the			
153	plasma membrane. Parasites were treated with 25 μM and 50 μM BT10 (approximately			
154	1x and 2x the IC ₅₀). After washing, they were incubated with Annexin V-FITC to assess			
155	external exposure of phosphatidylserine and propidium iodide to assess plasma			
156	membrane permeabilization. The cells were then subjected to analysis by flow			
157	cytometry. The results showed that BT10 did not induce alterations in the plasma			
158	membrane; no exposure of phosphatidylserine or signs of membrane permeabilization			
159	were evidenced at both concentrations used in the assay when compared with that of the			
160	controls (Figure 3A, 3B, 3C). We also investigated whether BT10 triggered other PCD			
161	hallmarks, such as the dissipation of the mitochondrial inner membrane potential ($\Delta \Psi_m$),			
162	production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), and changes in the cytosolic Ca ²⁺ levels			
163	(28). To analyse membrane depolarization ($\Delta \Psi_m$), parasites treated with 25 or 50 μM			
164	BT10 (or not, control) during five days were stained with Rh123 for 20 min at 28 °C			
165	and further analysed by flow cytometry. Treated parasites showed a shift in the obtained			
166	fluorescence values, showing an alteration of $\Delta \Psi_m$ (Figure 3D). To determine the			
167	possible variations of the intracellular Ca^{2+} concentrations, epimastigotes were			
168	incubated with 25 μM BT10 (or not, control) for five days. After treatment, the parasites			
169	were incubated with Fluo-4 and analysed by flow cytometry. The results showed that			
170	treated parasites exhibited increased intracellular Ca2+ concentrations compared with			
171	those of untreated parasites (control) (Figure 3E). Finally, to evaluate possible changes			
172	in the production of H_2O_2 due to treatment with BT10, epimastigotes treated with 25			
173	μM BT10 for 24 hours (or not, control) were labelled with carboxy-DCFDA. The			
174	results showed that the treated parasites did not produce a greater amount of $\mathrm{H_2O_2}$ than			
175	untreated parasites (Figure 3F). Taken together, these results indicate that BT10 does			

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176 not trigger any of the types of classic cell death as a primary effect, even at high 177 concentrations. However, mitochondrial inner membrane depolarization and alterations 178 in Ca²⁺ concentrations could be critical factors affecting the proliferation or long-term 179 survival of parasites. 180

> 181 As the previous results suggest that BT10 did not trigger cell death, we hypothesized 182 that the drug interferes with the T. cruzi cell cycle. To confirm this possibility, we 183 evaluated the reversibility of the effect of BT10 on epimastigote proliferation. 184 Epimastigotes were treated or not (control) with 25 µM and 100 µM BT10. The treated 185 parasites showed diminished proliferation during the treatment with respect to that of 186 the controls. This alteration was reversed by washing out BT10, indicating that BT10 187 reversibly inhibited epimastigote proliferation (Figure S2). On this basis, we further 188 analysed possible alterations in the cell cycle. Parasites treated with 25 μ M and 100 μ M 189 BT10 or left untreated (control) for five days were labelled with propidium iodide and submitted to cell cycle analysis by flow cytometry (Figure 4A). The data collected 190 191 showed a significant decrease in cells in the G_0/G_1 phases and an accumulation in the 192 G_2/M phase with significant alterations in the S phase at 100 μ M BT10 compared to 193 those in the control cells (Figure 4B).

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Importantly, an accumulation of cells in the G2/M phases is usually due to an arrest of the cell cycle at G_2 checkpoint, in which DNA integrity is sensed and checked (29). Because cell cycle arrest can be induced at G_2 checkpoint by DNA damage (30, 31), we investigated whether BT10 causes DNA damage to treated parasites. We analysed the effect of BT10 on both genomic DNA (gDNA) and kDNA integrity using a TUNEL assay. Epimastigotes treated for 5 days with 25 μ M BT10 (or left untreated as a control)

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201 were submitted to the TUNEL assay. The parasites were initially analysed by flow 202 cytometry, showing differences in fluorescence intensity in the treated population with respect to that of the control (Figure 5B). When the parasites were analysed by 203 204 microscopy, we found that the kDNA was intensively labelled when compared to the 205 gDNA in the parasites treated with BT10. Untreated parasites and treated parasites 206 exhibited 35.2 ± 6.2 % and 67.6 ± 8.6 % of cells with labelled kDNA, respectively. On 207 the other hand, the percentage of treated parasited with labelled gDNA was $5.4 \pm 1.2\%$ 208 while the untreated parasites remain unlabelled. These data indicate that BT10 209 selectively triggers kDNA damage (Figure 5A). Taken together, these data indicate that 210 BT10 induces DNA double-strand breaks preferentially on kDNA.

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212 Cytotoxicity of BT3 and BT10 to mammalian cells

213 To further evaluate the effect of BT10 on the stages corresponding to mammalian host 214 cell infection, it is necessary first to determine the range in which the compounds are 215 non-toxic for the host cells. Therefore, CHO-K₁ cells were incubated in the presence of 216 different concentrations of BT3 (ranging from 16 to 800 µM) or BT10 (ranging from 8 to 288 μ M), and cytotoxicity was evaluated by MTT assay after 48 h of treatment. The 217 218 concentrations corresponding to a measurement of 50% cytotoxicity (CC_{50}) were 219 obtained from the typical sigmoidal concentration-response curves, resulting in 95.3 \pm 220 3.3 μ M for BT10 and 127.6 \pm 0.9 μ M for BT3 (Figures 6A, 6B).

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222 BT10 selectively inhibits the intracellular cycle of T. cruzi

223 According to the results obtained from the cytotoxicity experiments, a range of BT10 224 concentrations from 0.1 to 32 µM was selected to evaluate the IC₅₀ for trypomastigote 225 release after an entire infection cycle on CHO-K₁ cells. To measure the effect of BT10

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227 trypomastigotes for 4 h. The cells were washed to eliminate the non-internalized 228 parasites and then incubated with culture medium at different concentrations of BT10 or not (control). On the 5th day post-infection, the trypomastigotes released into the culture 229 230 media were counted. We observed a dose-dependent decrease in trypomastigote release, 231 which allowed us to measure the IC₅₀ for trypomastigote bursting (8.5 \pm 2.9 μ M) 232 (Figure 7A, 7B). Based on this value and the CC₅₀ obtained for the cytotoxicity of 233 BT10 on CHO-K₁ cells, we obtained a selectivity index (SI; CC₅₀/IC_{50(Tryp)}) of 11.21. It 234 is expected that the diminished number of burst trypomastigotes in the BT10-treated 235 cells is a reflection of the diminished proliferation of intracellular forms. To verify this 236 hypothesis, CHO- K_1 cells were incubated with trypomastigotes for 4 h. The cells were 237 washed to eliminate the non-internalized parasites, and then they were incubated with 238 culture medium supplemented or not (control) with 8.5 µM BT10 (the concentration 239 corresponding to the IC₅₀ obtained for trypomastigote bursting). On the second day 240 post-infection, the cultures were fixed and stained, and the nuclei corresponding to the 241 total number of cells, the number of infected cells, and the number of amastigotes per 242 infected cell were counted. The percentage of infected cells and the number of 243 intracellular amastigotes per cell were 8.6 \pm 0.88 and 0.16 \pm 0.05 for infected cells 244 treated with 8.5 μ M of BT10 and 13.1 \pm 3.7 and 0.6 \pm 0.13 for untreated conditions, 245 respectively (Figure 7C, 7D). BT10 treatment diminished the number of infected cells 246 by 33.8% and the average number of intracellular amastigotes per cell by 70.3%. The 247 resulting infection index was 1.4 ± 0.48 for the treated infected cells and 8.9 ± 1.34 for 248 the controls, indicating that the treatment reduced the infection index by 81.3 ± 6.94 % 249 (Figure 7E, 7F). Taken together, these results indicate that treatment with 8.5 µM BT10 250 interferes with proliferation and/or differentiation of intracellular stages (Figure 7).

on trypomastigote production by infected host cells, $CHO-K_1$ cells were incubated with

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254 **DISCUSSION**

255 In the present work, we obtained and evaluated a collection of 14 benzothiazoles (BT1-256 14) related to previously studied 4-[5-(trifluoromethyl)-1,3-benzothiazol-2-yl] benzoic 257 acid (BT3), which showed relevant anti-T. cruzi trypomastigote activity (14). The anti-258 proliferation activity for all these compounds was initially evaluated in a screening with 259 25 µM each compound. BT10 was the only one that diminish the epimastigote growth 260 by 50%, as previously mentioned. Although BT3 did not pass these criteria, it was the 261 second best in terms of potency. Thus, BT10 and BT3 were used for some experiments 262 that allowed us to infer some structure-activity relationships. Both compounds contain a trifluoromethyl group (-CF₃) in the R^1 position of the benzothiazole moiety. 263 264 Additionally, BT3 has a carboxyl group (-COOH) on R³ of the phenyl moiety, while BT10 contains a methoxy group (-OCH₃) on R^2 and a hydroxyl group (-OH) on R^3 . 265 266 These data suggest that the inclusion of a fluorinated group on 2-phenylbenzothiazole 267 derivatives contributes significantly to the anti-proliferation activity. All these 268 inferences are supported by the fact that benzothiazole derivatives such as (S)-2-(3,4-269 difluorophenyl)-5-(3-fluoro-*N*-pyrrolidylamido) benzothiazole possess anti-270 Trypanosoma brucei activities (15). BT2 and BT6 compounds are closely related to 271 BT3 and BT10, respectively, with the only difference being the absence of the -CF3 272 substituent. The relevance of the fluorinated group in BT2 and BT6 could explain their 273 lack of anti-T. cruzi activity (Figure 1A, 1B, 1C). In fact, this finding is not surprising 274 since it is well known that fluorine atoms confer a set of physicochemical properties to 275 organic compounds. Among them, it is worth mentioning improvement of lipophilicity,

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Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy 276 increased velocity of diffusion through biological membranes (32), an improved affinity 277 for receptors (by favouring electrostatic interactions) and an increased binding affinity 278 to active sites (33). In addition, the presence of fluorinated groups can also modify the 279 acidity or basicity of the molecules, affecting the processes of absorption, metabolism 280 and bioavailability (34). To analyse the correlation of the activity of BT1-14 to in silico 281 drug-likeness analysis (rule of five - RO5) (35), we determined whether the compounds 282 in the collection follow these rules. Regarding the quantitative parameters of the RO5, 283 we calculated the lipophilicity (expressed as the partition coefficient - Log P) and 284 topological polar surface area (TPSA - defined as the integration of the surfaces of polar 285 atoms (in this case oxygen, nitrogen, and attached hydrogen) (36). The computed 286 parameters showed that BT3 and BT10 have Log P values of 3.83 and 3.92 and TPSA 287 values of 78.43 and 70.59, respectively. The presence of the -CF₃ group affected the 288 predicted lipophilicity (comparing BT2 with BT3 and BT6 with BT10), resulting in 289 intermediate Log P values for the most active compounds. However, BT3 and BT10 were among those presenting the highest TPSA values in the collection. The increased 290 291 TPSA values are probably due to the -COOH, -OH and -OCH₃ groups on the phenyl 292 moiety, which trigger electron withdrawal in combination with the -CF3 group in the 293 case of BT10 and BT3. This fact could have a positive effect on anti-proliferation 294 activity. As the drug-likeness depends on both values, we propose herein a parameter 295 consisting of the product between Log P and TPSA (Table S1), which showed for our 296 compounds a good prediction capacity in relation to their *in vitro* activity. 297 Among the drugs analysed in our collection, BT10 was the only one that passed through 298 our criteria for being selected as an anti-T. cruzi drug for further studies, resulting in 2-

300 not detect signals of cell death in BT10-treated parasites, such as exposure of

fold more potent activity than that of BT3. Despite its anti-proliferation effect, we could

phosphatidylserine or loss of cytoplasmic membrane integrity. Thus, we hypothesized 301 302 that BT10 would act as a trypanostatic compound rather than a trypanocide. Despite 303 having a lower activity, we observed the same profile for BT3-treated parasites 304 (Figure S3), indicating that the mode of action of these structurally related 305 compounds in T. cruzi is other than cytotoxicity, as previously reported for other 306 benzothiazoles when evaluated on different cancer cell lines (37, 38). To obtain more 307 clues about the inhibitory activity of BT10, we explored other parameters related to the 308 309

maintenance of cell viability: the status of the mitochondrial inner membrane potential $(\Delta \Psi m)$, intracellular Ca²⁺ levels and endogenous production of ROS (26, 28). Our 310 results show that a fraction of the BT10-treated cells had a diminished $\Delta \Psi m$ with 311 respect to that of the controls. This result indicates that their mitochondria are at least partially depolarized, which is consistent with the observed increase in intracellular Ca²⁺ 312 313 concentration.

314 Altogether, our results agree in part with the effects reported for benzothiazoles with 315 antimicrobial activity in both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria, although the 316 effects are observed with 4-fold the minimum inhibitory concentration (between 3.91 -317 15.6 μ g / mL) (39). Notably, these effects by themselves point to a trypanostatic rather 318 than trypanocidal activity. This possibility was confirmed by the fact that the effect of 319 BT10 was reversible and produced alterations in the epimastigote cell cycle. Indeed, 320 BT10 triggered a decrease of parasites in G_0/G_1 phases and an accumulation in the G/M 321 phase at a concentration of 100 µM.

322 An alteration of the cell cycle consisting of the accumulation of parasites in the G/M 323 phase could be a hallmark for DNA damage (31, 40). Our results revealed that BT10-324 and BT3-treated cells (Figure S4) had selectively damaged kDNA, raising three 325 possibilities: i. kDNA has a higher sensitivity to damage than gDNA; ii. the

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326 mitochondrial DNA repair machinery (in the presence of the drug) is less efficient than 327 that of the nuclear DNA; or iii. the drug accumulates at higher concentrations in the 328 mitochondria, submitting kDNA to higher concentrations of the drug than those for 329 gDNA. Of course, a combination of the three possibilities cannot be ruled out. In any 330 case, the mechanism by which damage occurs to kDNA remains elusive; it is possible 331 that BT10 and BT3 will inhibit some DNA-dependent enzyme or inhibitor directly by 332 inhibition of transcription and replication enzymes through direct interaction with DNA, 333 as suggested by the helically arranged relationship of BT6 in crystal formation (41). 334 This work support the fact that the kDNA seems to be the main target to explain the 335 anti-T. cruzi effect of BT3 and BT10. Indeed, the concentrations required to inhibit the 336 triosephosphate isomerase are higher than those required to kill trypanosomatids (14, 337 15, 23). These data break the paradigm that the trypanocidal effect of benzothiazoles is 338 due to the inhibition of triosephosphate isomerase as traditionally proposed (13, 25, 42). 339 Regardless of the mechanism of action, the anti-T. cruzi activity on the parasite stages 340 that are relevant for mammalian infection is a sine qua non condition for any compound 341 to be proposed as a possible drug to develop a treatment against Chagas disease. 342 Remarkably, the treatment of infected cells with 8.5 µM BT10 caused a significant 343 reduction in the number of intracellular amastigotes, in the trypomastigote burst and in 344 the infection index. These results, together with the drug selectivity (SI of 11.21) (Table 345 1), are particularly promising for the development of chemotherapy against the chronic 346 phase of the disease. 347

To conclude, BT10 is a remarkable fluorinated hit compound for the development of new and better anti-*T. cruzi* compounds, which would be in accordance with the initiative proposed by the Drugs for Neglected Diseases initiative (DNDi) (43). Because the kinetoplast is the preferred target for BT10, other compounds based on its structure

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351 could have potential therapeutic applications for other diseases caused by kinetoplastid

352 parasites, such as *Leishmania spp.* and *T. brucei*.

353

354 Materials and methods

Reagents. All chemicals, reagents, and solvents for synthesis and MTT
(methylthiazolyldiphenyl-tetrazolium bromide) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich
(St. Louis, MO, USA); Fluo-4 AM and Annexin V-FITC were purchased from
Invitrogen (Eugene, Oregon, USA); and culture media and foetal calf serum (FCS) were
purchased from Cultilab (Campinas, SP, Brazil).

360

361 Synthesis of drugs and chemical characterization. The 2-phenylbenzothiazole 362 derivatives were synthesized by the following reaction conditions previously described 363 (14). Briefly, the appropriate 2-aminothiophenol (1.98 mmol) and substituted 364 benzaldehyde (2.1 mmol) were reacted with an equimolar amount of $Na_2S_2O_5$ (2.1 mmol). The mixture, was stirred refluxing in DMSO at ~120 °C for 40 - 60 min. The 365 366 product was precipitate by adding cool water and collected by vacuum filtration. The 367 filtrate was then washed with an excess of water and left to dry. The remaining traces of 368 sodium metabisulfite were extracted with brine and CH₂Cl₂, and the solvent was 369 removed under vacuum. Finally, the resulting product was purified and recrystallized in 370 ethanol/water (1:3). The progress of the reaction was monitored by TLC analysis using 371 a mix of ethyl acetate/hexane (1:1) as the eluent. All synthesized products were chemically characterized by ¹H, ¹³C NMR spectra on a Jeol GSX-300 spectrometer (¹H 372 300 MHz, ¹³C 75 MHz) or Bruker-400 (¹H 400 MHz, ¹³C 101 MHz) or Bruker-750 373 biospin Rheinstetten, Germany (¹H 750 MHz, ¹³C 189 MHz) using DMSO-d₆ and 374 375 CDCl₃ as the solvent and TMS as the internal reference. Chemical shift values (δ_{ax}) are

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376 presented in parts per million (ppm), and coupling constants (J values) are presented in 377 Hertz (Hz). ESI - MS spectra were recorded on a Bruker micrOTOF-Q II. The 378 uncorrected melting points were obtained in open-ended capillary tubes in 379 Electrothermal 9300 digital equipment.

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BT1 (2-phenyl-1,3-benzothiazole): white needles, 77 % yield. mp 95-96 °C. ¹H NMR 381 (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 8.08 (m, 3H), 7.89 (dd, 1H, ³J= 8 Hz, ⁴J= 0.8 Hz), 7.5 (t, 1H, 382 J=1.2 Hz), 7.48 (m, 3H), 7.37 (td, 1H, ${}^{3}J=1.2$ Hz); ${}^{13}C$ NMR (101 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 383 384 168.0, 154.1, 135.1, 133.6, 130.9, 129.0 (2C), 127.5 (2C), 126.3, 125.1, 123.2, 121.6; 385 MS(ESI) $C_{13}H_9NS$, $[M + H]^+$, m/z calcd 212.0528, found 212.0520.

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387 **BT2** (4-(1,3-benzothiazol-2-yl)benzoic acid): white powder, 63 % yield. mp 332 °C. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 8.20 (d, 2H, ³J = 8.4 Hz), 8.17 (s, 1H), 8.12 (d, 3H, ³J = 388 8.0 Hz), 7.58 (t, 1H, ${}^{3}J = 7.6$ Hz), 7.50 (t, 1H, ${}^{3}J = 7.6$ Hz); ${}^{13}C$ NMR (101 MHz, 389 DMSO-d₆) § 167.1, 166.6, 154.0, 136.8, 135.2, 133.7, 130.7 (2C), 127.7 (2C), 127.3, 390 391 126.4, 123.6, 122.9; MS(ESI) C₁₄H₉NO₂S, [M + H]⁺, m/z calcd 256.0426, found 392 256.0394.

393

394 BT3 (4-[5-(trifluoromethyl)-1,3-benzothiazol-2-yl]benzoic acid): white needles, 82 % yield. mp 257 °C ¹H NMR (300 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 13.2 (s, 1H), 8.36 (d, 1H, ³J= 6.6 395 Hz), 8.15 (d, 2H, ${}^{3}J$ = 8.4 Hz), 8.06 (d, 2H, ${}^{3}J$ = 8.7 Hz), 7.73 (dd, 1H, ${}^{3}J$ = 8.7, ${}^{4}J$ = 1.5 396 Hz); ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 169.2, 166.9, 153.4, 139.2, 136.1, 133.8, 130.7 397 398 (2C), 128.3, 127.9 (2), 124.4, 122.2, 120.3; MS(ESI) C₁₅H₈F₃NO₂S, [M + H]⁻, m/z calcd 399 322.0144, found 322.0226.

401 BT4 (2-phenyl-5-(trifluoromethyl)-1,3-benzothiazole): yellow scaly crystals, 53 %
402 yield. mp 127-129 °C. ¹NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 8.33 (t, 1H, *J*= 0.8 Hz), 8.09 (m,
403 2H), 8.0 (dt, 1H, ³J= 8.6 Hz, ⁴J= 0.4 Hz), 7.52 (m, 3H); ¹³C NMR (101 MHz, CDCl₃) δ
404 170.1, 153.7, 138.4, 133.0, 131.5, 129.1 (2C), 127.7 (2C), 125.5, 122.2, 121.5, 120.4;
405 MS(ESI) C₁₄H₈F₃NS, [M + H]⁺, m/z calcd 280.0402, found 280.0379.

406

407 **BT5** (methyl 4-[5-(trifluoromethyl)-1,3-benzothiazol-2-yl]-benzoate): white needles, 408 41 % yield. mp 242 °C. ¹H NMR (300 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 8.43 (s, 1H), 8.41 (s, 1H), 409 8.21 (d, 2H, ³J= 11.2 Hz), 8.09 (d, 2H, ³J= 11.2 Hz), 7.78 (d, 1H, ³J= 11.2 Hz), 3.87 (s, 410 3H); ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 169.1, 165.9, 153.6, 139.3, 136.7, 132.8, 130.5 411 (2C), 128.6, 128.1 (2C), 124.3, 122.3, 120.4, 52.7; MS(ESI) C₁₆H₁₀F₃NO₂S, [M + H]⁺, 412 m/z calcd 338.0457, found 338.0452.

413

414 **BT6** (2-(4-hydroxy-3-methoxyphenyl)-benzothiazole): grey powder, 87 % yield. mp 415 162-163 °C. ¹H NMR (300 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 9.85 (s, 1H), 8.03 (d, 1H, ³*J*=8.25 Hz), 416 7.97 (d, 1H, ³*J*= 8.4 ppm), 7.61 (d, 1H, ⁴*J*= 2.1 Hz), 7.47 (dd, 1H, ³*J*= 8.1 Hz, ⁴*J*= 2.1 417 Hz), 7.47 (m, 1H), 7.37 (td, 1H, *J*= 7.6 Hz), 6.91 (d, 1H, J= 8.1 Hz), 3.87 (s, 3H); ¹³C 418 NMR (75 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 167.9, 154.0, 150.4, 148.5, 134.6, 126.8, 125.3, 124.7, 419 122.7, 122.5, 121.7, 116.3, 110.4, 56.1; MS(ESI) C₁₄H₁₁NO₂S, [M + H]⁺, m/z calcd 420 258.0583, found 258.0583.

421

422 **BT7** (3-(1,3-benzothiazol-2-yl)-benzoic acid): grey crystals, 77 % yield. mp 257 °C. ¹H 423 NMR (750 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 13.40 (s, 1H), 8.63 (s, 1H), 8.31 (d, 1H, ³*J*= 4.4 Hz), 424 8.18 (d, 1H, ³*J*= 4 Hz), 8.12 (d, 1H, ³*J*= 4.4 Hz), 8.1 (d, 1H, ³*J*= 4.4 Hz), 7.72 (t, 1H, 425 ³*J*= 4), 7.57 (t, 1H, ³*J*= 4), 7.49 (t, 1H, ³*J*= 3.8 Hz); ¹³C NMR (189 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ

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427 MS(ESI) $C_{14}H_9NO_2S$, $[M + H]^+$, m/z calcd 256.0426, found 256.0407.

428

429 **BT8** (methyl 4-(1,3-benzothiazol-2-yl)-benzoate): solid brown, 67 % yield. mp 158 °C 430 ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 8.25 (d, 2H, ³*J*= 8.8 Hz), 8.21 (dd, 1H, *J*=1), 8.14 (d, 431 2H, ³*J*= 8.8 Hz), 7.6 (td, 1H, ³*J*= 7.6 Hz, ⁴*J*= 1.2 Hz), 7.52 (td, 1H, ³*J*= 7.7 Hz, ⁴*J*= 1.2 432 Hz), 3.91 (s, 3H); ¹³C NMR (101 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 166.4, 166.0, 153.9, 137.2, 135.2, 433 132.1, 130.6 (2C), 127.9 (2C), 127.4, 126.5, 123.7, 123.0, 52.8; MS(ESI) C₁₅H₁₁NO₂S, 434 [M + H]⁺, m/z calcd 270.0583, found 270.0563.

435

436 **BT9** (methyl 3-(1,3-benzothiazol-2-yl)-benzoate): white powder, 87 % yield. mp 248 437 °C. ¹H NMR (750 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 8.62 (s, 1H), 8.32 (d,1H ³*J*= 8.25 Hz,), 8.17 438 (d,1H, ³*J*= 7.5 Hz,), 8.11 (t, 2H, ³*J*= 8.25 Hz), 7.73 (t, 1H, ³*J*= 7.5 Hz,), 7.57 (t, 1H, ³*J*= 439 7.87 Hz), 7.49 (t, 1H, ³*J*= 7.87 Hz), 3.92 (s, 3H); ¹³C NMR (189 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 440 166.5, 166, 153.9, 134.9, 133.7, 132.2, 132.0, 131.1, 130.6, 127.6, 127.3, 126.3, 123.5, 441 122.9, 52.9; MS(ESI) C₁₅H₁₁NO₂S, [M + H]⁺, m/z calcd 270.0583, found 270.0575.

442

443 **BT10** (2-methoxy-4-[5-(trifluoromethyl)-1,3-benzothiazol-2-yl]phenol): Brownish crystalline powder, 22 % yield. mp 137 °C. ¹H NMR (300 MHz, DMSO-d₆) 8.3 (d, 1H, 444 3 J= 6 Hz), 8.28 (s, 1H), 7.68 (dd, 1H, 3 J= 9 Hz, 4 J= 3 Hz), 7.6 (d, 1H, 3 J= 3 Hz), 7.51 445 (dd, 1H, ${}^{3}J= 8.4$ Hz, ${}^{4}J= 2.1$ Hz), 6.94 (d, 1H, ${}^{3}J= 8.1$ Hz), 3.87 (s, 3H); ${}^{13}C$ NMR (75) 446 MHz, DMSO- d₆) δ 170.6, 153.7, 151.0, 148.5, 138.8, 128, 124.1, 123.9, 122.1, 121.3, 447 448 119.3, 116.4, 110.6, 56.1; MS(ESI) $C_{15}H_{10}F_3NO_2S$, $[M + H]^+$, m/z calcd 326.0457, 449 found 326.0429.

450

451 **BT11** (4-(1,3-benzothiazol-2-yl)-2,6-dimethoxyphenol): grey crystals, 85 % yield. mp 452 135 °C ¹H NMR (750 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 8.03 (d, 1H, ³*J*= 8.25 Hz), 7.87 (d, 1H, ³*J*= 7.5 453 Hz), 7.47 (m, 1H), 7.35 (td, 1H, ³*J*= 7.5 Hz), 7.34 (s, 2H), 3.99 (s, 6H); ¹³C NMR (189 454 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 168.1, 154.0, 147.3 (2C), 137.7, 134.8, 126.3, 125.1, 124.9, 122.8, 455 121.5, 104.5 (2C), 56.5 (2C); MS(ESI) C₁₅H₁₃NO₃S, [M + H]⁺, m/z calcd 288.0689, 456 found 288.0695.

457

458 **BT12** (4-(1,3-benzothiazol-2-yl)benzonitrile): white crystalline powder, 88 % yield. mp 459 158 °C. ¹H NMR (300 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 8.21 (d, 2H, J = 8.4 Hz), 8.16 (d, 1H, J = 8.1460 Hz), 8.08 (d, 1H, J = 8.07 Hz), 7.98 (d, 2H, J = 8.4 Hz), 7.56 (m, 1H), 7.49 (t, 1H, J= 461 7.5 Hz); ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, DMSO-d₆) δ 165.7, 153.8, 137.0, 135.3, 133.7 (2C), 128.2 462 (2C), 127.4, 126.6, 123.8, 123.0, 118.7, 113.7; MS(ESI) C₁₄H₈N₂S, [M + H]⁺, m/z calcd 463 237.0481, found 237.0482.

464

BT13 (2-(4-chlorophenyl)-1,3-benzothiazole): grey crystals, 72 % yield. mp 105 °C. ¹H
NMR (750 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 8.06 (d, 1H, ³*J*= 8.2 Hz), 8.02 (d, 2H, ³*J*= 9 Hz, ⁴*J*= 2.25
Hz), 7.9 (d, 1H, ³*J*= 8.2 Hz), 7.5 (t, 1H, ³*J*= 7.5 Hz), 7.46 (d, 2H, ³*J*= 9 Hz, ⁴*J*= 2.25 Hz),
7.39 (td, 1H, *J*= 7.12 Hz); ¹³C NMR (189 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 166.6, 154.0, 137.0, 135.0,
132.1, 129.2 (2C), 128.7 (2C), 126.4, 125.4, 123.2, 121.6; MS(ESI) C₁₃H₈NSCl, [M +
H]⁺, m/z calcd 246.0139, found 246.0134.

471

472 **BT14** (2-(4-bromophenyl)-1,3-benzothiazole): yellow crystals, 38 % yield. mp 124 °C. 473 ¹H NMR (750 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 8.06 (d, 1H, ${}^{3}J = 8.2$ Hz), 7.95 (d, 2H, ${}^{3}J = 8$ Hz), 7.89 (d, 474 1H, ${}^{3}J = 8.2$ Hz), 7.62 (d, 2H, ${}^{3}J = 8.2$ Hz), 7.49 (t, 1H, ${}^{3}J = 7.5$ Hz), 7.39 (td, 1H, ${}^{3}J = 7.5$ 475 Hz); ${}^{13}C$ NMR (189 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 166.6, 154.0, 135.0, 132.5, 132.2 (2C), 128.9 (2C),

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476 126.5, 125.4, 123.3, 121.6; MS(ESI) C₁₃H₈NSBr, [M + H]⁺, m/z calcd 289.9634, found
477 289.9613.

478

479

480 Cells and parasite cultures. T. cruzi epimastigotes (CL strain clone 14) were 481 maintained in the exponential growth phase by subculturing every 48 h in LIT medium 482 at 28 °C (44). The Chinese Hamster Ovary cell line (CHO-K₁) was cultivated in RPMI-1640 medium supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FCS, 0.15% (w/v) NaHCO₃, 483 484 100 units/mL penicillin and 100 mg/mL streptomycin at 37 °C in a humidified 485 atmosphere containing 5% CO₂. Trypomastigotes were obtained by infection in CHO-486 K_1 cells with trypomastigotes at 37 °C in the presence of 10% FCS. After 24 h, the cells 487 were maintained at 33 °C and 2% FCS (45). Trypomastigotes were collected from the 488 extracellular medium five days after infection.

489

490 In vitro inhibition of proliferation assays. The cell density of exponentially proliferating epimastigotes (approximately 50×10^6 parasites/mL) was adjusted to 491 492 2.5×10^6 cells/mL and transferred (200 µL/well) into 96-well plates (46). Epimastigote 493 proliferation was measured by reading the optical density (OD) at 620 nm every 24 h 494 through the exponential and stationary phases (9 days). The OD values were converted 495 to cell density values (cells per millilitre by using a calibration curve obtained by 496 measuring the OD values at 620 nm of parasite suspensions at different known 497 densities. The concentrations of the compound that inhibited 50% of epimastigote proliferation (IC₅₀) were determined in the exponential growth phase (5th day) by fitting 498 499 the cell density data to a sigmoidal concentration-response curve using GraphPad Prism 500 v.6. A combination of 60 µM rotenone and 0.5 µM antimycin A (RA) was used as a

501 positive control for proliferation inhibition. Untreated parasites supplemented with 502 DMSO (the vehicle for the drugs) and unsupplemented parasites were used as negative 503 controls. The compounds were evaluated in quadruplicate in each experiment, and the 504 results correspond to three independent experiments. 505

> 506 The effect of BT3 and BT10 compounds on mammalian cell viability. CHO-K1 cells (1 x 10^5 cells/well) in 100 µL of RPMI medium supplemented with FCS (10%) were 507 508 seeded in 96-well plates with or without (control) different concentrations of the most 509 active compounds, BT3 (16 to 800 µM) and BT10 (8 to 288 µM). Cell viability was 510 determined by the MTT assay as previously described (47). The produced formazan was 511 solubilized in 50 µL of DMSO, and the optical density (OD) was measured at 540 nm 512 using 690 nm as a reference. The IC_{50} was determined by fitting the data to a sigmoidal 513 dose-response curve using GraphPad Prism v.6. Each assay was developed in 514 quadruplicate, and the results correspond to the mean of three independent experiments. 515

> Analysis of phosphatidylserine exposure, mitochondrial inner membrane $(\Delta \Psi_m)$ 516 depolarization, intracellular Ca^{2+} levels, and hydrogen peroxide production. 517 Epimastigotes (2.5 x 10^6 cell/mL) were incubated for five days, unless otherwise stated, 518 519 in the presence or absence (control) of 25 µM and 50 µM BT10 (approximately 1x and 2x the IC₅₀, respectively). To determine phosphatidylserine exposure, the cells were 520 521 labelled with propidium iodide (PI) and Annexin-V FITC (Molecular Probes) according 522 to the manufacturer's instructions. As positive controls for cytoplasmic membrane 523 permeabilisation and extracellular exposure of phosphatidylserine, the parasites were 524 treated with 150 µM digitonin or 1µM staurosporine for 30 min, respectively (48). For determining variations in $\Delta \Psi_m$, cells were aliquoted in fractions at densities of 1.0 x 10⁶ 525

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526 cells/mL. One half of the aliquot was incubated for 15 min with 1 µM FCCP in PBS, 527 while the other half was left untreated. Then, all samples were centrifuged for 10 min at 528 2,700 x g and resuspended in HEPES-glucose buffer (50 mM HEPES (pH 7.4), 116 mM 529 NaCl, 5.4 mM KCl, 0.8 mM MgSO₄, 5.5 mM glucose, and 2 mM CaCl₂). The cells 530 were labelled by the addition of 256 nM Rhodamine 123 (Rh123) for 20 min at 28 °C (49). To analyse variations in the intracellular Ca^{2+} levels, the parasites were incubated 531 532 with 5 mM Fluo-4 AM (Invitrogen) for one hour at 28 °C. After this period, the cells 533 534

were washed twice with HEPES-glucose and resuspended in the same buffer (50). To evaluate the production of hydrogen peroxide, the parasites treated with 1xIC₅₀ or 535 2xIC₅₀ of BT10 during 24 h were incubated for 30 min at 28 °C in HEPES-glucose 536 buffer in the presence of 10 µM of carboxy-DCFDA. In all cases, the cells were 537 analysed by flow cytometry on a Guava cytometer (General Electric), with 10,000 538 events collected, and analysed using FlowJo software (v10.1r7).

539

DNA content and cell cycle analysis. Parasites (2.5 x 10⁶ cells/mL) treated with 25 and 540 541 100 µM BT10 (or not, negative control) for five days were collected by centrifugation 542 (2,700 x g for 5 min), washed in PBS, fixed in 70% ethanol for 12 h, and incubated with 543 10 µg/mL RNase A (Thermo Scientific) for 30 min at 37 °C. To measure the DNA 544 content, parasite cells were stained with 40 µg/mL propidium iodide (Molecular 545 Probes/Invitrogen) and analysed by flow cytometry on an acoustic focusing cytometer 546 (Attune; Applied Biosystems), with 50,000 events collected (31). Histograms (number 547 of counts by BL2 area) scatter plots (side scatter [SSC] area by forward scatter [FSC] 548 area) and gates for each cell cycle phase were analysed using FlowJo software 549 (v10.1r7). Cell cycle data were fitted using Dean-Jett Fox (DJF) model included in the 550 FlowJo software.

551

552	Analysis of DNA damage by TUNEL assay. Epimastigotes treated with 25 μM BT10
553	(or not, control) in the exponential growth phase were collected by centrifugation,
554	washed with PBS and fixed by incubation with 4% paraformaldehyde for 10 min at
555	room temperature. After washing and resuspension in PBS, the cells were permeabilized
556	by treatment with 0.1% Triton X-100 for 10 min at 26 °C and were treated with 0.1 M
557	glycine for 5 min to neutralize the remaining aldehyde groups. The TUNEL assay was
558	performed by using the DeadEnd TM Fluorometric TUNEL System Promega kit (G3250)
559	according to the manufacturer's protocol. VECTASHIELD® Mounting Medium with
560	DAPI (Vector Labs) was added to be used as an anti-fade mounting solution and to stain
561	nuclear and kinetoplast DNA. For each group analysed, we analysed at least 100 cells in
562	at least three different image fields. This assay was carried out in triplicate. To confirm
563	these results, we analysed an aliquot of the cells in each condition by cytometry.
564	Histograms (counts x BL1 area), scatter plots (SSC-area x FSC-area) and gates to
565	exclude cell debris/doublets were performed using Attune Cytometric Software (v.1.2.5)
566	and FlowJo software (v10.1r7). In total, 10,000 events were analysed for each sample.
567	

568 Effect of BT10 on amastigote replication and trypomastigote release. CHO-K1 cells $(5.0 \times 10^4 \text{ per well})$ were maintained in 24-well plates in RPMI medium supplemented 569 with 10% FCS at 37 °C. To perform the infections, the cells were incubated with 570 trypomastigote forms (2.5 x 10^6 per well) for 4 h. After this period, parasites in the 571 572 supernatant were removed by washing the plates twice with PBS, and the cells were 573 incubated overnight in RPMI medium supplemented with 10% FCS at 37 °C in the 574 presence of different concentrations of BT10 or left untreated (control). The plates were 575 then incubated at 33 °C to allow the parasite to complete the infection cycle, as

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576 previously reported (46). To measure the effect on amastigote replication, after 48 h, the 577 CHO- K_1 cells and parasites were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde, and nuclei were 578 stained with Hoechst 33342 (Invitrogen) for counting. We acquired fluorescence 579 microscopy images corresponding to 30 fields per biological sample at a magnification 580 of 200x (EVOS FL Cell Imaging System, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Cells, parasites, 581 and infected cells were counted using ImageJ software. The infection index was 582 calculated as the arithmetical product of the percentage of infected cells and the number 583 of parasites per cell. The effect of BT10 on trypomastigote production was determined 584 by collecting samples of the extracellular medium on the fifth day post-infection and 585 counting the number of trypomastigotes in a Neubauer chamber (40). The results 586 correspond to the mean of three independent experiments, each performed in triplicate.

587

Data treatment and statistical analysis. Curve adjustments, regressions, and statistical analyses were performed with the GraphPad Prism 7 analysis tools. All assays were performed at least in biological triplicates. The specific details of the statistical analysis for each experiment are described in the corresponding figure legend. In general, The Student's *t*-test was used to analyse differences between the two groups. P values of less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

594

595 Author contributions

596 Synthesised and characterized compounds: RICH, JGTF, SMC. Conceived and 597 designed the biological experiments: RG, RICH, AMS. Performed the experiments: 598 RICH, RG, MC, AMS, MSS. Analysed the data: RICH, RG, AMS, MCE. Contributed 599 reagents/materials/analysis tools: JGTF, AMS. Wrote the paper: RICH, AMS, RG. All 600 authors have given approval to the final version of the paper.

602

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Benzothiazole in Crystal Formation and Biological Evaluation on HeLa Cells. Crystals

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Figure 1. Synthesis of 2-phenylbenzothiazole derivatives and screening assay for
selection of the best active compounds on the proliferation growth curves of
epimastigote forms of *T. cruzi*. A) Schematic synthesis strategy and structure of 2phenylbenzothiazole derivatives; B) Growth curves in the presence of 25 μM each

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Figure 2. Effects of BT3 and BT10 on the proliferation of the epimastigote form of *Trypanosoma cruzi.* A) Growth inhibition curves in the presence of different concentrations of BT10 at 28°C, which is the optimum temperature of proliferation, IC₅₀ $= 23.1 \pm 1.75 \mu$ M. B) Growth inhibition curves in the presence of different concentrations of BT3 at 28°C, IC₅₀ = 48.8 ± 5.77 μ M. A combination of 60 μ M

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Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy rotenone + 0.5 μ M antimycin was used as a positive control (C+). The IC₅₀ values were obtained by adjusting the data to nonlinear regression. Figures show a representative proliferation curve of three independent experiments for each condition.







779 Figure 3. Analysis of cell death type and viability in epimastigotes treated with 780 BT10. Analysis of extracellular exposure of phosphatidylserine by annexin 781 V/propidium iodide labelling by flow cytometry on epimastigotes treated with 782 BT10 during five days: (A) Non-treated parasites, B) parasites treated with 1xIC₅₀ (25 $\mu M)$ BT10 and C) parasites treated with $2xIC_{50}$ (50 $\mu M)$ BT10. Analysis of cell 783 784 viability of epimastigotes treated with BT10 during five days: D) membrane depolarization test ($\Delta \Psi m$), E) quantification of intracellular Ca²⁺ and F) analysis of the 785 786 generation of ROS after 24 h of treatment with BT10. Figures are representative of three



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791 Figure 4. Effect of BT10 on the epimastigote cell cycle using FACS. Cells were 792 treated or not (control) with 25 µM or 100 µM BT10 for five days in the exponential 793 growth. After that time, parasites were washed, treated with RNase A, and stained with 794 propidium iodide, and their DNA content was analysed by fluorescence-activated cell 795 sorting. In total, 50,000 events were analysed for each sample. Histograms are shown in 796 A, and quantification of the percentage number of cells labelled in each stage of the cell 797 cycle is presented in **B**. The figure shows representative histograms of three 798 independent experiments. The values are plotted as the mean \pm SEM and compared to 799 the control using a *t*-test. *, P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01 to establish significant differences. 800 The data correspond to three independent biological experiments.

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803 Figure 5. BT10 induces increased kDNA fragmentation. A. Control and cells treated 804 with 25 µM BT10 for five days were submitted to TUNEL assay to indicate DNA 805 strand breaks - DSBs (green). DAPI (blue) was used to show organelles that contain 806 DNA (N = nucleus, k = kinetoplast). DIC and merged columns indicate the morphology 807 of the cells and overlay between the DAPI and DSB columns, respectively. DNase I was 808 used as a positive control, and the absence of TdT enzyme was used as a negative 809 control. The percentage of TUNEL-positive organelles is displayed on the right of the 810 panel. Images represent the pattern prevalent in each analysis. B. The same groups were 811 analysed through the flow cytometry, and the histograms (counts x fluorescence 812 intensity - BL1-area) were plotted to show differences in fluorescence intensity 813 between each group (treated and non-treated) and controls (positive and negative). In 814 total, 10,000 events were analysed for each sample. The histograms shown are 815 representative of three independent experiments. The increase in fluorescence intensity 816 shown in the flow cytometer graphs and the percentage of TUNEL-positive organelles 817 indicates that the BT10 compound is highly effective at generating an increased amount 818 of DSBs within a single cell and in a larger number of cells. The values are plotted as the mean \pm SEM and compared to the control using a *t*-test. ** P < 0.01 to establish 819

820 significant differences. The data correspond to three independent biological 821 experiments.





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825 Figure 6. Effect of BT10 and BT3 on mammalian cells. The cell viability of CHO-K₁ 826 cells treated with different concentrations of BT10 or BT3 for 48 h was assessed by 827 MTT assay, and the corresponding concentration-response curve of cytotoxicity was expressed as a percentage of inhibition of proliferation. A) Dose response for cell 828 viability in the presence of different concentrations of BT10 (range: 8 to 288 μ M), CC₅₀ 829 = 95.3 \pm 3.3 μ M. B) Dose-response for cell viability in the presence of different 830 831 concentrations of BT3 (range: 16 to 800 μ M), CC₅₀ = 127.6 \pm 0.9 μ M. Figures show a 832 representative curve of three independent experiments.

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cruzi. The effect of BT10 after infection on CHO-k1 cells with trypomastigotes forms

was evaluated by counting the released parasites in a Neubauer chamber at the fifth day

post-infection A) and the corresponding concentration-response curve was plotted,

 $IC_{50(Tryp)} = 8.5 \pm 2.9 \ \mu M$ B). The percentage of the number of infected cells C) and the

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Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy 840 number of intracellular amastigotes per cell D) were counted as described in material 841 and methods. The effect on amastigote replication was measured using the infection 842 index (% of infected cells x parasites per cells) of treated parasites with IC50 compared 843 to control E) and the percentage of the infected index of treated parasites with IC₅₀ 844 compared to control F). The values were plotted as the mean \pm SEM and compared to the control using a t-test. *, P < 0.05; **** P < 0.0001 to establish significant 845 differences. Figures A and B show a representative curve of three independent 846 847 experiments. Figures C, D, E and F correspond to three independent biological 848 experiments.

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Table 1. The activity of BT3 and BT10 on different aspects of *T. cruzi*

 biology

	BT10	BT3
Epi IC ₅₀ (µM) 28 °C	23.1 ± 1.75	48.8 ± 5.77
$CC_{50}(\mu M)$	95.3 ± 3.3	127.6 ± 0.9
Tryp IC ₅₀ (μM)	8.5 ± 2.9	ND^{a}
Selectivity Index (SI)		
SI: CC ₅₀ /IC _{50(Epi) 28 °C}	4.13	2.61
SI: CC ₅₀ /IC _{50(Tryp)}	11.21	ND
% infection index inhibition	81.3	ND
Loss of cytoplasmic membrane	NO	NO
integrity		
Induces ROS	NO	ND
Alters intracellular Ca ²⁺	NO	ND
Affect parasite cell cycle	Yes	ND
The reversible effect in Epi	Yes	ND
kDNA damage	Yes	Yes
Affects amastigote replication	Yes	ND
Affects host cell infection	Yes	ND

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AAC

^aND, not determined.



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Parasites x 10⁶ mL⁻¹

Α

 NH_2

0

 R^2

Na2S2O5 / DMSO

R





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Annexin V - FITC









fluocescence intensity

C (+) C (-)

C (+) C (-)

C (+) C (-) BT10

control



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В Α 100-100-80-80 %Cytotoxicity %Cytotoxicity **60** 60 40-40 20-20 0+ 0 0+ 0 2 Log [BT10] μM 3 2 1 1 **Log [BT3]** μΜ

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В

2.0