VIROLOGY

Research, Development and Applications of Antiviral Agents

EPIDEMIOLOGY OF VIRAL DISEASES Prevention and control



Vaccines have been very successful in preventing some viral diseases; however, they provide modest to no therapeutic effect in individuals that are already infected

EPIDEMIOLOGY OF VIRAL DISEASES Prevention and control

Consequently, the second arm of antiviral defense has been the development and use of molecules capable of preventing an infection or stopping it once started.

> Antiviral drugs: small molecules that block virus replication

EPIDEMIOLOGY OF VIRAL DISEASES
Prevention and control

Antiviral drugs: small molecules that block virus replication

However, despite 50 years of research, our arsenal of antiviral drugs remains dangerously small.

Only less than 100 antiviral drugs are available on the market

Most against HIV, HCV, Herpesviruses (Persistent infections)

THE CONUNDRUM OF ANTIVIRAL CHEMOTHERAPY: So Much Knowledge, So Few Antivirals

• Safety is the overriding concern in anviral drug discovery! Compounds interfering with virus growth often have adverse severe effects on the host:

- Side effects are common (unacceptable)
- Every step in viral replicative cycle engages host functions

• Many medically important viruses are difficult or impossible to grow in laboratory (eg. HBV, HPV), or are dangerous (Ebola).

• Some viruses have no available animal model of human disease (eg. Measle, HCV).

THE CONUNDRUM OF ANTIVIRAL CHEMOTHERAPY: So Much Knowledge, So Few Antivirals

An unappreciated third reason may be the most important

- Antiviral compounds must be virtually 100% efficient in blocking virus growth.
- A compound must block virus replication completely!
- So, it must be extremely potent!!!
- Partially inhibition is not acceptable for an antivirals: even a modest viral replication in the presence of a drug provides the opportunity that drug–resistant mutants arise.
- Makes drug discovery expensive.

The problem of viral resistances **REPLICATION=MUTATION**



If the administered drug dose does not completely suppresses viral replication, mutant viruses will be selected

THE CONUNDRUM OF ANTIVIRAL CHEMOTHERAPY: So Much Knowledge, So Few Antivirals

- Another serious problem for antiviral discovery:
 - Many acute infections are of short duration and by the time the indiduals feel ill the virus is no longer replicating and indeed may have already been cleared from the host. Thus, too late to impact clinical disease.
 - Antivirals drugs for these viruses must be given early in infection or prophylactically to populations at risk.
 - Safety issues: giving drugs to healthy people not wise
- The lack of rapid diagnostic tests has hampered development of antiviral drugs
- No broad-spectrum of antiviral agents are currently available

ANTIVIRAL HISTORY

- The first modest search for antiviral drugs occurred in 1950s.
 - Chemists looked at derivatives of the sulfonamide antibiotics.
 - Synthesis of thiosemicarbazones actve against poxviruses.
 - Smallpox was still a major threat after WWII.
- 1960s and 1970s: "blind screening" programs to find chemicals with antiviral activity spurred on by successes in the treatment of bacterial infections with antibiotics.
- No attempt to focus discovery on a virus or a virus-specific mechanism
- Random chemicals and natural product mixtures tested for ability to block replication of a variety of viruses in cell culture systems.
- Considerable effort, very little success: one exception!
- Symmetrel (Amantadine) approved late 1960s for Influenza A virus infections. Mechanism of action discovered only in 1990s.

Antiviral discovery today

Modern antiviral discovery

The advent of modern molecular virology, recombinant DNA technology and sophisticated chemistry make targeted discovery possible

- Essential viral genes cloned, expressed in genetically tractable organisms, purified, and analyzed in atomic detail.
- Life cycles of most viruses known, targets for intervention can be generalized.
- Modern technology allows inhibitors to be found even for viruses that cannot be propagated in cell culture

Antiviral discovery today

Blind screening III III Is no longer attractive

Modern antiviral discovery

- Mechanism-based screens
- Cell-based assays
- Combinatorial chemistry
- High-throughput screens
- Computational Approaches:
 - Structure-assisted drug design
 - Genome sequencing, proteomic analyses
 - In silico discovery via Virtual Screening

Search and development of antiviral drugs



The path of antiviral drug discovery

R&D of antiviral discovery: antiviral drugs are expensive to discovery, develop, and bring to market



Staircase of drug discovery: it can takes 5 to years after the initial lead is found to get a drug to the market and it may cost 100M\$ to 500M\$

R&D of antiviral discovery: antiviral drugs are expensive to discovery, develop, and bring to market



Search and development of antiviral drugs

Table 19.8Key points for drug hunters seeking commercially viable antiviral drugs

Virology issues

Must obtain proof of principle as soon as possible.

• What is the molecular mechanism? Does the drug work in tissue culture and in animal models as predicted?

Compound should block viral spread early to limit cytopathology and host cytokine/inflammatory response.

• Drug must block replication completely and must not make an infection "persistent" by slow replication and spread.

Resistance to the antiviral drug must be manageable.

- Resistance mutations arise when any virus is permitted to replicate.
- Viruses with resistance to other drugs must not be resistant to the new drug.
- The virulence of resistant mutants must be understood.
- Noncompliance by patient may select for drug resistance or may encourage persistent infection; multiple dosing, stringent dietary requirements, or unpleasant taste or side effects affect compliance.

Business issues

- Compound should be safe with no side effects.
- Compound should be inexpensive to manufacture.
- Compound should be easy to formulate and deliver.
- A pill to be swallowed is much preferred over injection. Compound must satisfy an unmet medical need.
- That is, it must be better than any competitive drug or, better yet, have no competition.

Ultimately, a profit should be possible.

• The market should be large enough to allow a profit to be made.

Search and development of antiviral drugs

Blind screening III III Is no longer attractive

Modern antiviral discovery

- Mechanism-based screens
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Mechanism-based assay to select inhibitors of a viral protease



Assay:

- I) Mix a constant amount of substrate with a "high" and "low" concentration of protease.
- 2) Controls: protease and substrate alone.
- 3) Incubate for set periods under appropriate conditions with and without inhibitor.
- 4) Sample; separate proteins by electrophoretic mobility.



Mechanism-based assay to select inhibitors of a viral protease





Analytical Biochemistry 293, 239–245 (2001) doi:10.1006/abio.2001.5144, available online at http://www.idealibrary.com on IDEAL®

An example of a mechanism-based assay to select inhibitors of a viral nuclease



A Colorimetric Assay for High-Throughput Screening of Inhibitors of Herpes Simplex Virus Type 1 Alkaline Nuclease

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Nuclease assays. The DNA-methyl green degradation assay utilized a DNA substrate complexed with the intercalating dye methyl green and was obtained commercially (Sigma Chemical Co.). Degradation of the DNA substrate resulted in release of the dye and a corresponding loss of solution color. Assays were carried out as 150-µl reactions in 96-well plates and included 75 μ l water, 15 μ l 10× assay buffer (0.5 M Tris–HCl, pH 7.5, 30 mM MgSO₄), 5 µl compound stock prepared in methanol, 30 μ l AN (2 μ g) or bovine pancreatic DNaseI (0.15 units) diluted in DE buffer just prior to use, and 25 μ l DNA-methyl green substrate (25 μg from a 1 mg/ml stock). Typically all of the components of the reaction were added with the exception of the substrate, and the plate was mixed and incubated at 37°C for 5 min. The DNA-methyl green substrate was then added to start the reaction, and the plate was then mixed again and incubated at 37°C for 3 h. The reaction was terminated by the addition of 50 μ L sodium citrate (0.2 M, pH 7.5), and the plate was then mixed, sealed, and stored in the dark at room temperature for at least 12 h to allow color equilibration before reading on a spectrophotometer to determine $A_{\rm sm}$. AN inhibitor screens typically included the

Search and development of antiviral drugs

Blind screening III III Is no longer attractive

Modern antiviral discovery

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 - In silico discovery via Virtual Screening

A cell-based assay to select inhibitors of HIV protease

Grafsrom et al., Adv. Exp. Med. Biol. 312:25-40, 1992

Active tetracycline efflux protein



A cell-based assay to select inhibitors of viral transcription factor



A small molecule that directly blocks DNA binding of the protein or blocks a proteinprotein interaction required for the cooperative binding can be identified



New cell-based indicator assays for the detection of human cytomegalovirus infection and screening of inhibitors of viral immediate-early 2 protein activity

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CellPress

Drug Repurposing Approach Identifies Inhibitors of the Prototypic Viral Transcription Factor IE2 that Block Human Cytomegalovirus Replication

Beatrice Mercorelli,^{1,4} Anna Luganini,^{2,4} Giulio Nannetti,¹ Oriana Tabarrini,³ Giorgio Palù,¹ Giorgio Gribaudo,^{2,5} and Arianna Loregian^{1,5,*} ¹Department of Molecular Medicine, University of Padua, 35121 Padua, Italy ²Department of Life Sciences and Systems Biology, University of Turin, 10123 Turin, Italy ³Department of Pharmaceutical Sciences, University of Perugia, 06123 Perugia, Italy ⁴Co-first author ⁵Co-senior author



The FASEB Journal express article 10.1096/fj.05-3904fje. Published online October 27, 2005.

A cell-based high-throughput assay for screening inhibitors of human papillomavirus-16 long control region activity



Effect of cytokines on HPV-16 LCR activity

International system IL-4 56.6 ± 7.2 III IL-10 0 1 L-13 64.3 ± 5.8 III TGF-β1 61.4 ± 8.4 III TGF-β2 60.1 ± 6.5 III TGF-β3 58.9 ± 5.9 III Activin 32.4 ± 4.3 II GDF-15 16.3 ± 2.1 1 Osteonectin 0.2 ± 0.03 I Pro-inflammatory III 1 L-18 33.3 ± 4.6 II L-15 12.6 ± 1.8 I IL-16 34.0.5 I L-17 29.6 ± 3.6 I L-18 3 ± 0.5 I L-20 10.2 ± 0.8 I L-22 10.3 ± 1.7 I TNF- α 53.7 ± 4.3 III GM-CSF I2 ± 0.7 I L-7 2.5 ± 0.5 I L-21 2.4 ± 0.4 I Chemotactic factors I I	Cytokines	% of LCR inhibition	Group ^a
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IL-8 0 I IP-10 5.2 ± 0.9 I LEC 16.1 ± 2.3 I MIP-1α 0 I MIP-1β 27.3 ± 3.8 I NAP-2 0 I I-309 0.9 ± 0.2 I Interferons IFN-α 58.2 ± 7.6 III IFN-β 63.1 ± 4.8 III	Chemotactic factors		
IP-10 5.2 ± 0.9 I LEC 16.1 ± 2.3 I MIP-1α 0 I MIP-1β 27.3 ± 3.8 I NAP-2 0 I I-309 0.9 ± 0.2 I Interferons IFN-α 58.2 ± 7.6 III IFN-β 63.1 ± 4.8 III	IL-8	0	Ι
$\begin{array}{cccccccc} LEC & 16.1 \pm 2.3 & I \\ MIP-1\alpha & 0 & I \\ MIP-1\beta & 27.3 \pm 3.8 & I \\ NAP-2 & 0 & I \\ I-309 & 0.9 \pm 0.2 & I \\ \hline \\ \mbox{Interferons} \\ IFN-\alpha & 58.2 \pm 7.6 & III \\ IFN-\beta & 63.1 \pm 4.8 & III \\ \end{array}$	IP-10	5.2 ± 0.9	Ι
$\begin{array}{cccccccc} MIP-1\alpha & & 0 & & I \\ MIP-1\beta & & 27.3 \pm 3.8 & I \\ NAP-2 & & 0 & & I \\ I-309 & & 0.9 \pm 0.2 & & I \\ \hline \mbox{Interferons} & & & \\ IFN-\alpha & & 58.2 \pm 7.6 & & III \\ IFN-\beta & & 63.1 \pm 4.8 & & III \\ \end{array}$	LEC	16.1 ± 2.3	Ι
$\begin{array}{ccccc} \text{MIP-1}\beta & 27.3 \pm 3.8 & \text{I} \\ \text{NAP-2} & 0 & \text{I} \\ \text{I-309} & 0.9 \pm 0.2 & \text{I} \\ \end{array}$ Interferons IFN- $lpha$ $58.2 \pm 7.6 & \text{III} \\ \text{IFN-}\beta & 63.1 \pm 4.8 & \text{III} \\ \end{array}$	MIP-1a	0	Ι
NAP-2 0 I 1-309 0.9 ± 0.2 I Interferons I III IFN-α 58.2 ± 7.6 III IFN-β 63.1 ± 4.8 III	MIP-1B	27.3 ± 3.8	Ι
I-309 0.9 ± 0.2 I Interferons III IFN-α 58.2 ± 7.6 III IFN-β 63.1 ± 4.8 III	NAP-2	0	I
Interferons 58.2 ± 7.6 III IFN-α 58.2 ± 4.8 III	I-309	0.9 ± 0.2	I
IFN-α 58.2 ± 7.6 III IFN-β 63.1 ± 4.8 III	Interferons		
IFN-β 63.1 ± 4.8 III	IFN-α	58.2 + 7.6	III
111p 001110 11	IFN-B	63.1 ± 4.8	Ш
IFN-v 355+4.3 II	IFN-v	35.5 + 4.3	п

"Groups are formed according to the % of LCR inhibition: I, 0-29%; II, 30-49%; III, 50-70%.

Search and development of antiviral drugs

Blind screening III III Is no longer attractive

Modern antiviral discovery

- Mechanism-based screens
- Cell-based assays
- Combinatorial chemistry
- High-throughput screens
- Computational Approaches:
 - Structure-assisted drug design
 - Genome sequencing, proteomic analyses
 - In silico discovery via Virtual Screening

Automated high-throughput screens



Combinatorial chemistry



Eg. If assembled pairwise with 10 linkers, a collection of 10,000 small molecules yields a library of 10⁹ new combinations.



Search and development of antiviral drugs

Blind screening III III Is no longer attractive

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Stucture-assisted drug design as an example of computational approach to drug discovery





Structure of HIV protease with the inhibitors saquinavir (A) e indinavir (B)

Druggable Human Viruses

Herpes simplex virus (HSV) Varicella-zoster virus (VZV) Human Citomegalovirus (CMV) Human Immunodeficiency virus (HIV) Influenza virus Respiratory Syncitial virus (RSV) Hepatitis viruses A, B, C (HAV, HBV, HBC) Human Papillomavirus (HPV) Picornavirus

Knowledge of viral cycles identifies general targets for antiviral drug discovery

Function	THE FEBRUAR STREET	Lead compound or example	Virus
Attachment		Peptide analogs of attachment protein	HIV
Penetration and uncoating		Dextran sulfate, heparin	HIV, herpes simplex virus
mRNA synthesis		Interferon	Hepatitis A, B, and C viruses; papillomavirus
	5'	Antisense oligonucleotides	Papillomavirus, human cytomegalovirus
Protein synthesis/ Initiation		Interferon	Hepatitis A, B, and C viruses; papillomavirus
DNA/RNA replication		Nucleoside, nonnucleoside analogs	Herpesviruses, HIV, hepatitis B and C virus
Assembly		Peptidomimetics	HIV, herpes simplex virus

Some viral targets for antiviral drug discovery



The prototypic compounds (pharmacophores) of important classes of antiviral agents



Examples of viral targets for antiviral drugs

✓ Attachment ✓Entry and unco⊾ **Attachment** ✓Viral gene expressio. Agent Virus Replication of viral geno. HIV **Receptor antagonists** ✓Assembly - soluble receptors - peptidomimetics Maturation and release - shRNAs Many **Neutralizing antibodies** Herpesvirus, HPV Destran sulphate, heparin, peptides
BMC Biotechnology



Research article



10

10

Generation of potent neutralizing human monoclonal antibodies against cytomegalovirus infection from immune **B** cells

Ada Funaro*1,2, Giorgio Gribaudo3, Anna Luganini3, Erika Ortolan1,2, Nicola Lo Buono¹, Elisa Vicenzi⁴, Luca Cassetta⁴, Santo Landolfo³, Richard Buick⁵, Luca Falciola⁶, Marianne Murphy⁶, Gianni Garotta⁶ and Fabio Malavasi^{1,2}



Inhibition of Herpes Simplex Virus Type 1 and Type 2 Infections by Peptide-Derivatized Dendrimers^v[†]

Anna Luganini,¹ Silvia Fabiole Nicoletto,² Lorena Pizzuto,² Giovanna Pirri,² Andrea Giuliani,² Santo Landolfo,¹ and Giorgio Gribaudo¹*

Department of Public Health and Microbiology, University of Turin, Turin,¹ and Spider Biotech S.r.l., Colleretto Giacosa, Turin,² Italy



Examples of viral targets for antiviral drugs

✓Attachment		
 Entry and uncoating 	Entry and uncoating	
✓Viral gene expression		
✓ Replication of viral genome	Agent	Virus
✓Assembly	Amantadine, rimantadine	Influenza A virus
 Maturation and release 	Pleconaril	Picornavirus
	Enfuvirtide	HIV



They are ion channel blockers that inhibit viral RNA uncoating by blocking the function of the envelope M2 protein

✓ Useful in therapy and prevention of influenza A infections

✓They must be given within 24-48 hrs from symptoms onset

✓ High frequency of resistant virus due to M2 or HA mutations

Amantadine and Rimantadine: mechanism of action

Role of M2 protein in Influenza A virus uncoating



Model for uncoating Influenza A virus and effect of amantadine and rimantadine



Pleconaril : mechanism of action



Examples of viral targets for antiviral drugs

✓Attachment		
 Entry and uncoating 		
✓Viral gene expression	Viral gene expression	
✓Replication of viral genon		
✓Assembly	Agent	Virus
 Maturation and release 	Interferons	HAV, HBV, HCV, HPV
	Antisense oligos	HCMV

An example of an antiviral antisense oligodeoxynucleotide: Fomivirsen

 It is an antisense phosphorothioate oligodeoxynucleotide complementary to a segment of HCMV IE2 mRNA



It inhibits viral E and L gene expression, viral DNA synthesis, and viral replication by blocking translation of IE2 mRNA





Fomivirsen (Vitravene) was used for intravitreal treatment of HCMV retinitis in AIDS patients resistant to other anti-HCMV drugs. No longer marketed.

✓ Fomivirsen was the first antisense oligo approved for use in humans (FDA, 1998)

Examples of viral targets for antiviral drugs



Antiviral nucleoside and nucleotide analogs

- The most widely used antiviral drugs
- ✓ They target viral DNA polymerases and viral reverse transcriptases
- ✓ They bear a base and/or a sugar modification
- Their activation to dNTPs requires phoshorylation mediated by cellular and/or viral kinases
- ✓ Viral polymerases are selectively inhibited because they bind the modified dNTP with higher affinity (100-fold) than cellular enzymes.

Nucleoside and nucleotide analogs:mechanism of action

Lack of the di un 3' -OH group of the sugar



Growing DNA chain terminates and further DNA replication is blocked



Base modification



Alteration of base pairing



Native nucleosides

Structures of antiviral nucleoside analogs





Many well-known antiviral compounds are nucleoside and nucleotide analogs

Chain termination by acyclic nucleoside analogs ACV and AZT, and by acyclic nucleotide analogs Cidofovir and Adefovir



Acyclovir (Zovirax)

 Acyclovir is a nucleoside analog similar to guanosine, but contain an acyclic sugar group (hydroxyetossimethyl) in place of the deoxyribose. It is a prodrug – a precursor of the active antiviral compound

✓Acyclovir is active against HSV and VZV (to some extent)

✓ Useful for acute primary diseases and to prevent reactivations

✓ It does not eliminate latent infections

 Resistance stems from mutations of the viral thymidine kinase (TK) and/or DNA polimerase



Acyclovir: mechanism of action



Chain termination



ACV derivatives: Famciclovir and Valaciclovir

Famciclovir:

9-(4-acetoxy-3-acetoxymethylbut-1-yl)guanine (Famvir)



✓They are proprodrugs that require two activation events in a row:

- cleavage of the side chain
- phoshorylation

 Fivefold-higher oral bioavailability than ACV

Valacyclovir: L-valyl ester of acyclovir (Valtrex)



✓Active against HSV and VZV

Ganciclovir (Cytovene)

 GCV is a guanosine analog with an acyclic sugar group (dihydroxyipropoximethyl) in place of deoxyribose

✓ It is selectively active agaisnt HCMV

✓ Useful for over HCMV diseases, prophylaxis and preemptive therapy

 Intially given intravenously, quite toxic, used only for life-threatening HCMV infections

 Valgancicovir, a valyl ester prodrug of GCV can be taken orally and is less toxic

 Resistance stems from mutations of the viral kinase (pUL97) and/or DNA polimerase

Foscarnet (Foscavir)

 Foscarnet it is the only nonnucleoside DNA replication inhibitor of herpesviruses. It is a pyrophosphate analog (phoshonoformic acid)



- Foscarnet it is a noncompetitive inhibitor of the pyrophoshate-binding site of herpesvirus DNA polymerases
- ✓ It is active against HCMV (HSV, HBV, HIV)
- ✓ Useful for therapy of HCMV GCV-resistant strain infections
- ✓ It accumulates in bone and causes kidney toxicity, recommended only for life-threatening infections for which other anti-HCMV drugs are no longer effective
- ✓ Resistance stems from mutations of the viral DNA polimerase

Examples of viral targets for antiviral drugs



Neuroaminidase inhibitors: an example of <u>structure-based</u> design in antiviral drug discovery

Neuraminidase: structure and function



In light blue and yellow, NA active site invariant amino acids In red, neuraminic acid ✓NA is a tetrameric envelope glycoprotein

✓NA cuts the the a-chetosidic bond between terminal neuraminic (sialic) acid and the oligosaccharide chain

✓NA destroys HA cell surface receptors

 ✓ NA promotes virus penetration through sialic acid-rich secretions

✓NA mediates release of viral progenies by cutting sialic acid residues of the surface of infected cells and viral envelope

Function of Influenza virus neuraminidase

P. Palese, M. Ueda, K. Tobita, R.W. Compans. Characterization of temperature sensitive influenza virus mutants defective in neuraminidase. Virology 61:397–410 (1974).



33° CWT phenotypeRelease of infectious free virions

39.5°C NA- phenotype Non-infectious virions aggregates



Development of neuroaminidase inhibitors





Crystallization



Structural analysis

Structure of influenza A virus neuroaminidase

Α





The binding site of the enzyme does not vary from strain to strain

- It consists of 18 amino acid residues of which 12 are in direct contact with the bound sialic acid analogue (and presumably with sialic acid in catalytically active situations).
- Four of these 12 are positively-charged arginines, while another 4 are **negative-charged glutamic** and **aspartic acid** residues. The remainder are neutral (tyrosine, asparagine, isoleucine and tryptophan).

Structure of the influenza A neuraminidase N9 bound to an analogue of sialic acid has been determined by X-ray crystallography





Sialic acid (*N*-acetyl neuraminic acid)



Zanamivir

Strucure-based design of inhibitors of IV A and B neuraminidase



Model of part of the active site of influenza neuraminidase bound to zanamivir



Crystallographic structure of the influenza A neuraminidase with an inhibitor (Zanamivir) bound to the active site

Rational drug design

Development of neuroaminidase inhibitors



Tamiflu

(Gilead/Hoffmann La Roche) FDA approved Oral

Development of neuroaminidase inhibitors: in vitro activity



Untreated cells: the virus is normally assembled and released from infected cells



Cells treated with a NA inhibitor: the virus forms large non-infectious aggregates on the surface of infected cells

Zanamivir (Relenza) and Oseltamivir (Tamiflu)

- Neuraminic (sialic) acid analogs
- They specifically inhibit NA of influenza and B viruses
- Useful in therapy and prophylaxis of influenza infections. If given within 48, they will reduce disease's symptoms and duration.

Zanamivir: inhalation by Diskhaler





Oseltamivir: oral



Resistance stems from NA mutations

Two Success Stories



Nature Reviews | Drug Discovery



HIV



Hepatitis C Virus

Flaviviruses (Hepatitis C)




New HCV drugs



Examples of drugs targeted against HCV

	Conoria nomo	Brand name	Developer	Date approved/ Trial phase
larget			Cilord Sciences	2013
Polymerase (NS5B)	Sofosbuvir	Sovaldi	Gliead Sciences	2015
Nucleoside	Mericitabine	۰.	Roche	
Nonnucleoside	Deleobuvir		Boehringer Ingelheim	111
	ABT-333		Abbott	III
RNA binding (NS5A)	Ledipasvir		Gilead Scienes	III (filed)
I NO MARKANING D	Daclatasvir		Bristol-Myers Squibb	III
	ABT-267		Abbott	III
Protease (NS3/4A)	Telaprevir	Incivek	Vertex/Johnson & Johnson	2011
a an ann a chuir ann a'	Boceprevir	Victrelis	Merck	2011
	Simeprevir	Olysio	Janssen/Tibotec/Medivir	2013
	Faldaprevir		Boehringer Ingelheim	III
	Vaniprevir		Merck	III
	Samatasvir		Idenix	II
Combinations	Sofosbuvir + ledipasvir		Gilead Sciences	III
	Faldaprevir + deleobuvir		Boehringer Ingelheim	III
	Simeprevir + samatasvir + TMC647055/r		Janssen	II
	ABT-450/r + ABT-267 and ABT-333		Abbott	II
	MK-8742 + MK-5172		Merck	II

New HCV drugs: the prodrug sofosbuvir, its structure and activation



New HCV drugs: protease inhibitors



New HCV drugs: boceprevir bound to NS3/4A protease





New HCV drugs: telaprevir bound to NS3-4A protease





HIV and **AIDS**

luman	immunod	leficiency	virus	types	I and	2	2
-------	---------	------------	-------	-------	-------	---	---

Disease

Deltaretrovirus Human T-lymphotropic virus type l

Virus

- Human T-lymphotropic virus type 2
- Human T-lymphotropic virus type 5
- Lentivirus Human immunodeficiency
- virus types I and 2

Tropical spastic paraparesis

Hairy-cell leukemia

Adult T-cell leukemia

- Malignant cutaneous lymphoma
- Acquired immune deficiency syndrome

Epidemiology

- Transmission
- Virus in blood Transfusions, needle sharing among drug users, needle sticks in health care workers, tattoo needles
- · Virus in semen and vaginal secretions
- Perinatal transmission Intrauterine and peripartum transmission; breast milk

At risk

- Intravenous drug users
- · Homosexuals and heterosexuals with many partners
- Prostitutes
- Newborns of virus-positive mothers

Distribution of virus Ubiguitous

- No seasonal incidence

- Anal and vaginal intercourse

Vaccines or antiviral drugs

- No vaccines
- Antiviral drugs Nucleoside analog reverse transcriptase inhibitors (e.g., azidothymidine, dideoxycytidine) Nonnucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors (e.g., nevirapine, delavirdine) Protease inhibitors (e.g.,

saguinavir, ritonavir)

Disease mechanisms

Infects mainly CD4⁺ T cells and macrophages

Lyses CD4⁺ T cells, persistently infects macrophages

Infection alters T-cell and macrophage function; immunosuppression leads to secondary infection and death

Infects long-lived cells, establishing reservoir for persistent infection

Infected monocytes spread to brain, causing dementia





Stages of HIV blocked by different classes of antiviral drugs



вох 9.6

DISCUSSION A heroic effort: 19 new drugs, 3 targets, 9 companies, and 15 years

We must never forget the daunting task that faced the scientific and medical community in the 1980s when HIV was first identified and every infection was a death sentence. There was no experience with such infections in the clinics, and the drug hunters had nothing in the pipeline that was proven to be effective against retroviruses. In fact, there were few scientists with any experience at all with lentiviruses. Yet as the data in this table demonstrate, a truly heroic effort was mounted over the first 15 years of the pandemic, but it took time, money, and unprecedented cooperation.

Target or mechanism	Generic name	Brand name	Manufacturer	Yr approved
Nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors	Zidovudine (AZT, ZDV)	Retrovir	GlaxoSmithKline	1987
	Didanosine (ddI)	Videx	Bristol-Myers Squibb	1991
	Zalcitabine (ddC)	Hivid	Roche	1992
	Stavudine (d4T)	Zerit	Bristol-Myers Squibb	1994
	Lamivudine (3TC)	Epivir	GlaxoSmithKline	1995
	AZT/3TC	Combivir	GlaxoSmithKline	1997
	Abacavir (ABC)	Ziagen	GlaxoSmithKline	1998
	AZT/3TC/ABC	Trizivir	GlaxoSmithKline	2000
	Tenofovir (TDF)	Viread	Gilead	2001
Nonnucleoside reverse	Nevirapine	Viramune	Roxane	1996
transcriptase inhibitors	Delavirdine	Rescriptor	Agouron	1997
	Efavirenz	Sustiva	Dupont	1998
	Saquinavir (hard gel)	Invirase	Roche	1995
Protease inhibitors	Saquinavir (soft gel)	Fortovase	Roche	1997
	Ritonavir	Norvir	Abbott	1996
	Indinavir	Crixivan	Merck	1996
	Nelfinavir	Viracept	Agouron	1997
	Amprenavir	Agenerase	GlaxoSmithKline	1999
	Lopinavir/ritonavir	Kaletra	Abbott	2000
Summary				a se an in
Three enzyme targets	16 unique compounds	19 approved drugs	9 companies	15 years

Approved drugs targeted against HIV enzymes

Target	Generic name	Brandname	Manufacturer	Year
Reverse transcriptase	Zidovudine (AZT)	Retrovir	GlaxoSmithKline	1987
Nucleos(t)ide inhibitors	Didanosine (ddI)	Videx	Bristol-Myers Squibb	1991
	Zalcitabine (ddC)	Hivid	Hoffmann-La Roche	1992
	Stavudine (d4T)	Zerit	Bristol-Myers Squibb	1994
	Lamivudine (3TC)	Epivir	GlaxoSmithKline	1995
	Abacavir (ABC)	Ziagen	GlaxoSmithKline	1998
	Tenofovir (TDF)	Viread	Gilead Sciences	2001
	Emtricitabine (FTC)	Emtriva	Bristol-Myers Squibb	2003
Nonnucleoside inhibitors	Nevirapine (NVP)	Viramune	Roxane	1996
	Delavirdine (DLV)	Rescriptor	Pfizer	1997
*	Efavirenz (EFV)	Sustiva	DuPont	1998
	Etravirine (ETR)	Intelence	Tibotec	2008
	Rilpivirine	Edurant	Tibotec	2011
Protease	Saquinavir (hard gel)	Invirase	Hoffmann-La Roche	1995
	Ritonavir	Norvir	Abbott	1996
	Indinavir	Crixivan	Merck	1996
	Nelfinavir	Viracept	Agouron	1997
	Amprenavir	Agenerase	GlaxoSmithKline	1999
	Lopinavir/ritonavir	Kaletra	Abbott	2000
	Atazanavir	Revataz	Bristol-Myers Squibb	2003
	Tipranavir	Aptivus	Boehringer Ingelheim	2005
	Darunavir	Prezista	Tibotec	2006
Integrase	Raltegravir	Isentress	Merck	2007
	Elvitegravir	Vitekta	Gilead Sciences	2012
	Dolutegravir	Tivicay	GlaxoSmithKline	2013
Combinations	TDF/FTC/EFV	Atripla	Bristol-Myers Squibb/ Gilead Sciences	2006
	TDF/FTC/rilpivirine	Complera	Gilead Sciences	2011
	TDF/FTC/elvitegravir + cobicistat	Stribild	Gilead Sciences	2012

Druggable targets in HIV replication cycle



HIV adsorption and virus-cell fusion



HIV adsorption and virus-cell fusion

✓ The viral receptor is constituted by a trimer of the **gp41/gp120** heterodimer



HIV adsorption: binding inhibitors



CD4

It is the high affinity cell receptor on:

T helper lymphocytes, macrophages, dendritic cells

Anionic polymers

✓ sCD4-lgG

Tetravalent fusion protein that binds and neutralizes HIV virions before their binding to cellular CD4



HIV binding to co-receptors



- ✓ HIV coreceptors are chemokine cell receptors
- They belong to the G-coupled 7TMDs receptor superfamily

 The CD4-gp120 interaction promotes gp120 binding to coreceptors

CXCR4

Coreceptors for T-tropic strains of HIV (X4)

CCR5

Coreceptor for M-tropic strains of HIV (R5) di HIV

Inhibitors of binding to co-receptors: maraviroc





- Maraviroc (brand-named Selzentry, or Celsentri) is a antiretroviral drug in the CCR5 receptor antagonist class and it is also classed as an entry inhibitor
- Maraviroc is a negative allosteric modulator of the CCR5 coreceptor. It binds to CCR5, thereby blocking the gp120 from associating with the coreceptor. Thus, HIV is then unable to enter human macrophages.
- ✓ FDA approved in 2007
- However, CCR5 inhibitors may drive evolution of R5 strains towards more virulent X4 strains that use CXCR4

The co-receptor story

✓ In the early 90s it became clear that some individuals were resistant to the infection despite repeated exposure and that some HIV-positive survived for a lot of time □□ long term survivors

(Cao et al., New England J. Of Medicine, 332:201-208, 1995)

In 1996 HIV co-receptors CCR5 and CXCR4 were identified

(Alkhatib et al., Science 272:1952-1955, 1996; Feng et al., Science 272:872-877, 1996)



 Shortly after emerged the idea that resistant individuals had mutated co-receptors

(Liu et al., Cell 86:367-377, 1996; Samson et al., Nature 272:722-725, 1998)

The co-receptor story: the \triangle 32 mutation

- ✓ To verify this hypothesis, Samson et al., sequenced CCR5 genes of three long term survivors and in one, they found a deletion defined to as $\Delta 32$
- ✓ This mutation has not a negative effect on the functions of T cells, but appears to play a protective role against HIV. Despite the large genetic variability of CCR5, the ∆32 is associated to a CCR5 protein that does not sustain entry of R5-tropic HIV strains. Thus, those individuals who are homozygous for this CCR5 mutation are resistant to HIV and rarely progress to AIDS.
- In fact, the presence of this mutation decreases the number of CCR5 proteins present on the membrane of target cells, thus affecting the rates of progression of HIV infection.
- ✓ Numerous studies of people infected by HIV have shown that the presence of one copy of CCR5-∆32 delays the onset of AIDS for at least two years. It is also possible that a person with this mutation can not be infected with R5tropic strains.

The co-receptor story: the $\triangle 32$ mutation



- This mutation is found at relatively high frequencies in Northern Europeans (4-16%). However, it absent in Asians and Africans.
- Two hypotheses: genetic drift and natural selection

During the plague of the 14th century in Europe, the CCR5 Δ 32 allele would be selected because it conferred resistance to this infection. However, more recent studies have ruled out that possibility, revealing the absence of a protective role in this context. It is believed now that Δ 32 mutation may have given some kind of protection from smallpox during epidemics in Europe.

The co-receptor story: the Berlin patient

- The most famous Berlin patient is Timothy Ray Brown.
- He was diagnosed with HIV in 1995 and began antiretroviral therapy.



- ✓ In 2007, he was diagnosed with acute myeloid leukemia (AML). At the Charité Hospital in Berlin, he received a hematopoietic stem cell transplant from a donor with the "∆32" mutation on the CCR5.
- ✓ He received two stem cell transplants from a donor homozygous for the "∆32" mutation: one in 2007 and one in 2008. Then, he stopped taking antiretrovirals and three months after his first stem cell transplant, levels of HIV rapidly plummeted to undetectable levels, while his CD4 T cell count increased.
- ✓ Today, he still remains off antiretroviral therapy and is considered cured. He is the first, and as yet sole, individual to be cured of HIV.
- He received what is called a sterilizing cure (complete eradication) as opposed to a functional cure (to control infection with drugs).
- \checkmark Limited chance of finding a matching donor homozygous for the " $\Delta 32$ " mutation.

HIV entry: structure of gp 41





Nature Reviews | Immunology

HIV entry: the gp41 role





They interact with the intermediate form of gp41

Enfuvirtide (T20)



Nature Reviews | Drug Discovery

A synthetic peptide homologs to a conserved 36 aa sequence within the HR2 of gp41.

It hampers the formation of HR1/HR2 complex, thus preventing membranes fusion.

FDA Approved in 2003.

It should not develop cross-resistance with other available drugs.



Druggable targets in HIV replication cycle



Structure of HIV reverse transcriptase (RT)

Heterodimer of **p51** and **p66** subunits



Nucleoside analogs (NRTI):



 Competitive inhibitors acting as chain terminators in the synthesis of proviral DNA

✓ Their selectivity of action stems from their affinity for RT that is 100-folds higher than that for human DNA polymerases

Nucleoside analogs (NRTI):



✓ **RANGE OF ACTION:** HIV-1 HIV-2, HTLV-1

Inhibit viral replication in peripheral blood lymphocytes and macrophages of the central nervous system, but are less active on monocyte-macrophages and resting cells.

RESISTANCES: Frequent and sometimes crossresistance for RT mutations

Non-nucleoside inhibitors (NNRTI):



 Non-competitive RT inhibitors that are not incorporated in the growing proviral DNA chain

Non-nucleoside inhibitors (NNRTI):



They bind to a hydrophobic pocket close to the active site of RT (NNRTI pocket), thus blocking proviral DNA synthesis

Nonnucleoside inhibitors of HIV RT (NNRTI)



The mechanism of action is unclear, however it is thought they alter the structure of the enzyme at the catalytic site, the binding site of template nucleic acid and of the binding site for dNTP

Nonnucleoside inhibitors of HIV RT (NNRTI)



- RANGE OF ACTION: Active against HIV-1 only.
 Always used in combination therapies.
- **RESISTANCES:** Resistances and cross-resistances are frequent for point mutations in the RT. No reported cross-resistances with nucleoside analogues and protease inhibitors.

Druggable targets in HIV replication cycle



Development of HIV Integrase Inhibitors



The HIV integrase is an excellent drug target because it is a unique recombinase that mediates the insertion of retroviral DNA into host genome, where it is called a provirus

✓ HIV integrase is a tetrameric enzyme (crystal structure solved)

✓ These drugs act as strand transfer inhibitors that block the joining step

Druggable targets in HIV replication cycle


HIV egress by budding at the plasma membrane





- The HIV-1 protease is a 99 aa protein encoded by pol
- Dimeric
- Belongs to the aspartyl-proteases family (as rennin and pepsin)
- ✓ Asp 25 is crucial for enzyme activity
- ✓ HIV protease is essential for release of mature virions

Role of HIV protease

gag-pol polyprotein (9 cutting sites)



Role of HIV protease



Activity of HIV protease



✓ HIV protease cuts between phenilalanine, or tyrosine, and a proline

✓ No human protease shows this specificity:

Thus, it possible to develop specific inhibitors!

Development of HIV PR inhibitors

A Natural substrate of the HIV-1 protease



B Saquinavir



C Darunavir



Development of HIV PR inhibitors

Α



HIV PR structure bound to saquinavir (A) and indinavir (B) inhibitors

Vondrasek J. et al., Nat. Struct. Biol. 4:8, 1997

Effect of inhibition of HIV PR activity



Immature virion



Mature virion



Inhibitors of HIV protease



Inhibitors of HIV protease: summary

✓ Peptidomimetics

They act as competitive inhibitors

✓ Active against HIV-1 and HIV-2

 Viral resistance frequent in monotherapy, sometimes cross-resistance

Human immunodeficiency virus types 1 and 2



Summary of HIV pathogenesis

Lymph node



Summary of HIV pathogenesis

The course of infection

- Infection
- The Acute Phase
- The Asymptomatic Phase
- The Symptomatic phase and AIDS





Monitoring the efficacy of anti-HIV therapy

Two indicators of disease state are used:

T lymphocytes CD4+ number

>500/ml normal value <200/ml AIDS

Cytofluorimetry

HIV RNA copies number

50 copie/ml of plasma is the detection limit

Real Time PCR

Monitoring the efficacy of anti-HIV therapy

When anti-HIV therapy works.....

The n° of T CD4+ lymphocytes: INCREASES



Immunoreconstitution

The n° of HIV RNA copies: DECREASES



Viral replication is blocked

The problem of viral resistances **REPLICATION=MUTATION**

Mechanims of drug resistance

- RNA viruses: error prone RNA polymerase, no correction mechanism
- One misincorporation in 10⁴-10⁵ nucleotides polymerized (10³-10⁴ greater than host DNA genome)
- In a viral RNA genome of 10 kb, a mutation frequency of 1 in 104 per template copied corresponds to an average of 1 mutatio in every replicated genome.

Math of HIV drug resistance

- Assume that one mutation is needed for drug resistance
- Mutation rate of 1 every 10⁴ bases polymerized
- Each base is substituted in every 10⁴ viruses
- Each HIV-infected individual makes 10¹⁰ new viruses/day
- 10¹⁰/10⁴= 10⁶ viruses will be produced each day with resistance to one drug

The problem of viral resistances **REPLICATION=MUTATION**

- ✓ 10¹⁰ virons are produced every day...
- ✓ Assuming a mutation rate of about **10**⁻⁴...
- ✓ Without proofreading activity of RT...

Each new viral genome (9200 nt) bears a mutation



The problem of viral resistances **REPLICATION=MUTATION**



Mutations associated with resistance to the indicated drugs

MUTATIONS EMERGE SPONTANEOUSLY WITHOUT SELECTION

The problem of viral resistances **REPLICATION=MUTATION**



If the administered drug dose does not completely suppresses viral replication, mutant viruses will be selected

HAART: highly active antiretroviral therapy

- ✓ It combines the use of of RT and protease inhibitors
- ✓ It allows to obtain a greater antiretroviral potency

✓ It reduces the occurrence of resistant strains.

Eg. If the resistance to a drug occurs once every 10⁴ virion and that of another drug occurs every 10⁴ virions, the probability to generate a genome bearing the two mutations is given by the product of the two probabilities, so: 1 of 10⁸ virions

 $10^{10}/10^8$ = 100 viruses resistant to the two drugs per day

Resistance to thre drugs: $10^4 \times 10^4 \times 10^4 = 10^{12}$ virus needed

Remember that replication is suppressed by drugs

HAART: highly active antiretroviral therapy

Key points about HAART for HIV infection

- Uses three drugs simultaneously; these bind different parts of the viral reverse transcriptase or protease molecules or sometimes now other HIV molecular targets
- In use since 1994
- Reduces virus load in plasma
- Restores lost immune functions
- Halts progression to AIDS
- Does not clear latently infected CD4+ memory cells
- Lapses in therapy result in virus rebound to normal levels
- Is not tolerated by all people
- Has to be taken indefinitely
- Not known if therapy can be tolerated for a lifetime
- Uncertain if resistant virus will eventually break through

Guidelines for the Use of Antiretroviral Agents in HIV-1-Infected Adults and Adolescents



http://aidsinfo.nih.gov/

Initiating Antiretroviral Therapy in Treatment-Naive Patients

(Last updated:3/29/2012; last reviewed:3/27/2012)

Printer-Friendly Files

Section Only PDF (213 KB) Entire Guideline PDF (3.1 MB) All Tables PDF (496 KB) All Recommendations PDF (131 KB)

Panel's Recommendations

- Antiretroviral therapy (ART) is recommended for all HIV-infected individuals. The strength of this recommendation varies on the basis of pretreatment CD4 cell count:
 - CD4 count <350 cells/mm³ (AI)
 - CD4 count 350 to 500 cells/mm³ (AII)
 - CD4 count >500 cells/mm³ (BIII)
- Regardless of CD4 count, initiation of ART is strongly recommended for individuals with the following conditions:
 - Pregnancy (AI) (see perinatal guidelines for more detailed discussion)
 - History of an AIDS-defining illness (AI)
 - HIV-associated nephropathy (HIVAN) (AII)
 - HIV/hepatitis B virus (HBV) coinfection (AII)
- Effective ART also has been shown to prevent transmission of HIV from an infected individual to a sexual partner; therefore, ART should be offered to patients who are at risk of transmitting HIV to sexual partners (**AI** [heterosexuals] or **AIII** [other transmission risk groups]; see text for discussion).
- Patients starting ART should be willing and able to commit to treatment and should understand the benefits and risks of therapy and the importance of adherence (AIII). Patients may choose to postpone therapy, and providers, on a case-by-case basis, may elect to defer therapy on the basis of clinical and/or psychosocial factors.

Rating of Recommendations: A = Strong; B = Moderate; C = Optional

Rating of Evidence: I = data from randomized controlled trials; II = data from well-designed nonrandomized trials or observational cohort studies with long-term clinical outcomes; III = expert opinion



FDA-Approved Anti-HIV Medications

Antiretroviral therapy (ART) is the recommended treatment for HIV infection. ART involves taking a combination of anti-HIV medications (a regimen) daily. A regimen contains three or more anti-HIV medications from at least two different drug classes. Anti-HIV medications prevent HIV from multiplying in the body, which helps people infected with HIV live longer, healthier lives. ART may reduce the risk of transmission of HIV but anti-HIV medications can't cure HIV/AIDS.

The following table lists anti-HIV medications approved by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for treatment of HIV in the United States. The medications are presented by drug class and identified by generic name/acronym and brand name.

Drug Class	Generic Name (Acronym)	Brand Name	Manufacturer	FDA Approval Date				
Non-nucleoside Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors (NNRTIs)								
NNRTIs bind to and alter reverse transcriptase, an enzyme HIV needs to make copies of itself.	Delavirdine (DLV)	Rescriptor	Pfizer	April 4, 1997				
	Efavirenz (EFV)	Sustiva	Bristol-Myers Squibb	Sept. 17, 1998				
	Etravirine (ETR)	Intelence	Tibotec	Jan. 18, 2008				
	Nevirapine (NVP)	Viramune	Boehringer Ingelheim	June 21, 1996				
	Rilpivirine (RPV)	Edurant	Janssen Pharmaceuticals, Inc.	May 20, 2011				
Nucleoside Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors (NRTIs)								
NRTIs block reverse transcriptase, an enzyme HIV needs to make copies of itself.	Abacavir (ABC)	Ziagen	GlaxoSmithKline	Dec. 17, 1998				
	Didanosine (ddl)	Videx Videx EC (enteric-coated)	Bristol-Myers Squibb Bristol-Myers Squibb	Oct. 9, 1991 Oct. 31, 2000				
	Emtricitabine (FTC)	Emtriva	Gilead Sciences	July 2, 2003				
	Lamivudine (3TC)	Epivir	GlaxoSmithKline	Nov. 17, 1995				
	Stavudine (d4T)	Zerit	Bristol-Myers Squibb	June 24, 1994				
	Tenofovir DF (TDF)	Viread	Gilead Sciences	Oct. 26, 2001				
	Zidovudine (ZDV, AZT)	Retrovir	GlaxoSmithKline	March 19, 1987				
Protease Inhibitors (PIs)								
PIs block HIV protease, an enzyme HIV needs to make copies of itself.	Atazanavir (ATV)	Reyataz	Bristol-Myers Squibb	June 20, 2003				
	Darunavir (DRV)	Prezista	Janssen Pharmaceuticals, Inc.	June 23, 2006				
	Fosamprenavir (FPV)	Lexiva	GlaxoSmithKline	Oct. 20, 2003				
	Indinavir (IDV)	Crixivan	Merck	March 13, 1996				
	Nelfinavir (NFV)	Viracept	Agouron Pharmaceuticals	March 14, 1997				

Drug Class	Generic Name (Acronym)	Brand Name	Manufacturer	FDA Approval Date		
Protease Inhibitors (PIs), continued						
Pls block HIV protease,	Ritonavir (RTV)	Norvir	Abbott Laboratories	March 1, 1996		
an enzyme HIV needs to make copies of itself.	Saquinavir (SQV)	Invirase	Hoffmann-La Roche	Dec. 6, 1995		
	Tipranavir (TPV)	Aptivus	Boehringer Ingelheim	June 20, 2005		
Fusion Inhibitors						
Fusion inhibitors block HIV from entering the CD4 cells of the immune system.	Enfuvirtide (T-20)	Fuzeon	Hoffmann-La Roche, Trimeris	March 13, 2003		
CCR5 Antagonists						
CCR5 entry inhibitors block CCR5, a protein on the CD4 cells that HN needs to enter the cells.	Maraviroc (MVC)	Selzentry	Pfizer	Aug. 6, 2007		
Integrase Inhibitors						
Integrase inhibitors block HIV integrase, an enzyme HIV needs to make copies of itself.	Raltegravir (RAL)	Isentress	Merck	Oct. 12, 2007		
Fixed-Dose Combination						
Fixed-dose combination tablets contain two or more anti-HN medications from one or more drug classes.	Abacavir, Lamivudine	Epzicom	GlaxoSmith Kline	Aug. 2, 2004		
	Abacavir, Lamivudine, Zidovudine	Trizivir	GlaxoSmith Kline	Nov. 14, 2000		
	Efavirenz, Emtricitabine, Tenofovir DF	Atripla	Bristol-Myers Squibb, Gilead Sciences	July 12, 2006		
	Elvitegravir*, Cobicistat [†] , Emtricitabine, Tenofovir DF	Stribild	Gilead Sciences	Aug. 27, 2012		
	Emtricitabine, Rilpivirine, Tenofovir DF	Complera	Gilead Sciences	Aug. 10, 2011		
	Emtricitabine, Tenofovir DF	Truvada	Gilead Sciences	Aug. 2, 2004		
	Lamivudine, Zidovudine	Combivir	GlaxoSmith Kline	Sept. 27, 1997		
	Lopinavir, Ritonavir	Kaletra	Abbott Laboratories	Sept. 15, 2000		

* Elvitegravir is currently approved only for use as a component of Stribild.

[†] Cobicistat, a pharmacokinetic enhancer, inhibits an enzyme that metabolizes certain HIV drugs and is used to prolong the effect of elvitegravir.



Recommended HIV Treatment Regimens

What is the treatment for HIV?

Antiretroviral therapy (ART) is the recommended treatment for HIV. ART involves taking a combination of anti-HIV medications (a regimen) every day. Anti-HIV medications (also called antiretrovirals) are grouped into six drug classes according to how they fight HIV. The six classes are non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NNRTIs), nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NRTIs), protease inhibitors (PIs), fusion inhibitors, CCR5 antagonists, and integrase inhibitors.

Recommended HIV treatment regimens include three or more anti-HIV medications from at least two different drug classes. Taking a combination of anti-HIV medications from different classes is the most effective way to control the virus. Some anti-HIV medications are available in combination (two or more medications in one pill).

Anti-HIV medications are approved by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA). See the <u>FDA-Approved Anti-HIV Medications</u> fact sheet for a complete list of medications used in HIV treatment regimens in the United States.

How will I know which anti-HIV medications to take?

The best combination of anti-HIV medications for you depends on your individual needs. Factors that you and your health care provider will consider when selecting your HIV regimen include:

- · Other diseases or conditions you may have
- Possible side effects of anti-HIV medications
- The risk of interactions between anti-HIV medications and other medications you take
- Results of drug-resistance testing and other tests
- Convenience of the regimen. (For example, a regimen that involves taking only one pill a day is convenient to follow.)
- Any personal issues that can make following a regimen difficult (such as depression or alcohol or drug abuse)

What are the recommended regimens for people taking anti-HIV medications for the first time?

After considering your individual needs, you and your health care provider may select one of the following regimens recommended for people taking anti-HIV medications for the first time:

- Atripla (a combination of three anti-HIV medications in one pill)
- Reyataz + Norvir + Truvada (Truvada is a combination of two anti-HIV medications in one pill.)
- Prezista + Norvir + Truvada
- Isentress + Truvada

Terms Used in This Fact Sheet:

Antiretroviral: A medication that prevents a retrovirus, such as HIV, from making copies of itself. Anti-HIV medications are also called antiretrovirals.

Antiretroviral therapy (ART): The recommended treatment for HIV. ART involves taking a combination of three or more anti-HIV medications from at least two different drug classes every day to control the virus.

Atripla: A combination of three anti-HIV medications in one pill–Sustiva (also called efavirenz or EFV), Emtriva (also called emtricitabine or FTC), and Viread (also called tenofovir or TDF).

Drug class: A group of medications that work in the same way.

Drug-resistance testing: Testing to identify which anti-HIV medications will or will not be effective against a person's specific strain of HIV. Drug-resistance testing is done using a sample of blood.

Isentress: An anti-HIV medication in the integrase inhibitor class. Isentress is also called raltegravir or RAL.

Norvir: An anti-HIV medication in the protease inhibitor (PI) class. Norvir is also called ritonavir or RTV.

Prezista: An anti-HIV medication in the protease inhibitor (PI) class. Prezista is also called darunavir or DRV.

Regimen: A combination of three or more anti-HIV medications from at least two different drug classes.

Reyataz: An anti-HIV medication in the protease inhibitor (PI) class. Reyataz is also called atazanavir or ATV.

Sustiva: An anti-HIV medication in the non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor (NNRTI) class. Sustiva is also called efavirenz or EFV.

Truvada: Two anti-HIV medications from the nucleoside reverse transcriptase (NRTI) class—Emtriva and Viread combined in a single pill. Emtriva is also called emtricitabine or FTC. Viread is also called tenofovir or TDF Reyatax = Atazanavir (PI) Norvir = Ritonavir (PI) Truvada = Emtricitabine+Tenofovir (NRTI)

This information is based on the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services' Guidelines for the Use of Antiretroviral Agents in HIV-1-Infected Adults and Adolescents (available at http://aidsinfo.nih.gov/guidelines).

AIDSinfo

Table 16. Monthly Average Wholesale Price^b of Commonly Used^c Antiretroviral Drugs (Last updated July 14, 2016; last reviewed July 14, 2016) (page 2 of 4)

ARV Drug (Generic and Brand Names)	Strength Formulation	Dosing	Tablets, Capsules, or mLs per Month ^a	AWP⊧ (Monthly)				
Co-Formulated Combination Products as Single Tablet Regimens								
Dolutegravir/Abacavir/Lamivudine • Triumeq	50/600/300 mg tablet	1 tablet daily	30 tablets	\$2,889.22				
Efavirenz/Tenofovir Disoproxil Fumarate/Emtricitabine • Atripla	600/300/200 mg tablet	1 tablet daily	30 tablets	\$2,869.86				
Elvitegravir/Cobicistat/Tenofovir Alafenamide/Emtricitabine • Genvoya	150/150/10/200 mg tablet	1 tablet daily	30 tablets	\$3,093.19				
Elvitegravir/Cobicistat/Tenofovir Disoproxil Fumarate/ Emtricitabine • Stribild	150/150/300/200 mg tablet	1 tablet daily	30 tablets	\$3,244.76				
Rilpivirine/Tenofovir Alafenamide/Emtricitabine • Odefsey	25/25/200 mg tablet	1 tablet daily	30 tablets	\$2,815.04				
Rilpivirine/Tenofovir Disoproxil Fumarate/Emtricitabine • Complera	25/300/200 mg tablet	1 tablet daily	30 tablets	\$2,815.04				
Pharmacokinetic Enhancers (Boosters)								
Cobicistat • Tybost	150 mg tablet	1 tablet daily	30 tablets	\$230.90				
Ritonavir: Total daily dose depends on the dose of the concomitant PI (100 mg once or twice daily, or 200 mg twice daily) • Norvir	100 mg tablet 80 mg/mL solution	1 tablet once daily 100 mg daily	30 tablets 37.5 mL (of a 240 mL bottle)	\$308.60 \$270.04				

Guidelines for the Use of Antiretroviral Agents in HIV-1-Infected Adults and Adolescents

Guidelines for the Use of Antiretroviral Agents in HIV-1-Infected Adults and Adolescents

HAART: highly active antiretroviral therapy

There are 10¹⁶ HIV genomes on the Earth today

With this number of genomes, it is highly probable that HIV genomes exist that are resistant top every one of the antiviral drugs that we have now, or EVER WILL HAVE



Anti-HIV therapy saves million of lives

Genetic variability of RNA viruses (HIV, HCV), optimal rate of mutation and virus evolution



The quasispecies concept: The genome of virus population exists as a weigthed average of a large number of different individual sequences as a dynamic distributions of nonidentical but related replicons, called **quasispecies**.