

# QSAR studies of indoyl aryl sulfides and sulfones as reverse transcriptase inhibitors

Pablo R. Duchowicz<sup>1</sup> · Daniel E. Bacelo<sup>2</sup> · Silvina E. Fioressi<sup>2</sup> · Valeria Palermo<sup>3</sup> · Nnenna E. Ibezim<sup>4</sup> · Gustavo P. Romanelli<sup>3,5</sup>

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**Abstract** The inhibitory HIV reverse transcriptase activity of 172 non-nucleoside indoyl aryl sulfones and sulfides is studied with a QSAR analysis, in order to identify the molecular characteristics influencing the interaction with the reverse transcriptase enzyme. This work increases the available QSAR studies of indoyl aryl sulfones and sulfides using the reported experimental EC<sub>50</sub> values against HIV-1 wild type (IIIB) in human T-lymphocyte (CEM) cells. Different approaches are proposed, involving 0D, 1D and 2D molecular descriptors from PaDEL freeware, and also

based on flexible descriptors from CORAL freeware. Three models are finally presented, which correlate the inhibitory HIV reverse transcriptase activity with good accuracy. It is demonstrated that the established models are predictive in the validation process. The novelty of the present work relies on the development of structure-inhibitory HIV activity relationships, through a computational technique that does not require the knowledge of the molecular conformation during the structural representation. The obtained results would contribute to guide the design of more effective compounds for HIV treatment.

**Electronic supplementary material** The online version of this article (<https://doi.org/10.1007/s00044-017-2069-5>) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

**Keywords** Indoyl aryl sulfides and sulfones · HIV reverse transcriptase inhibitors · QSAR · PaDEL · CORAL

✉ Pablo R. Duchowicz  
pablotucho@gmail.com

✉ Daniel E. Bacelo  
dbacelo@aol.com

<sup>1</sup> Instituto de Investigaciones Físicoquímicas Teóricas y Aplicadas (INIFTA), CONICET, UNLP, Diag. 113y 64, Sucursal 4, C.C. 16, 1900 La Plata, Argentina

<sup>2</sup> Departamento de Química, Facultad de Ciencias Exactas y Naturales, Universidad de Belgrano, Villanueva 1324, CP 1426 Buenos Aires, Argentina

<sup>3</sup> Centro de Investigación y Desarrollo en Ciencias Aplicadas “Dr. J. J. Ronco” (CINDECA), Departamento de Química, Facultad de Ciencias Exactas, CONICET, UNLP, Calle 47 No. 257, B1900AJK La Plata, Argentina

<sup>4</sup> Department of Computer Education, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria

<sup>5</sup> Cátedra de Química Orgánica, Centro de Investigación en Sanidad Vegetal (CISaV), Facultad de Ciencias Agrarias y Forestales, Universidad Nacional de La Plata, Calles 60y 119s/n, B1904AAN La Plata, Argentina

## Introduction

Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) is a pathogenic lentivirus of the Retroviridae family, a causative factor for the acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS). Since this virus has been identified in the early 1980s, more than 25 million people have died due to this disease (Defant et al. 2015; Ashok et al. 2015a). The antiretroviral therapy (ART) for people with HIV has caused an important decrease in mortality in the last decade (UNAIDS gap report 2015). However, AIDS-related diseases are still one of the leading causes of death and are expected to cause a significant premature mortality in the coming decades (La Regina et al. 2011; Piscitelli et al. 2009; WHO 2014).

The therapeutic strategies against the HIV involve enzymes that act in the viral replication cycle: virus adsorption, virus–cell fusion, virus uncoating, and enzyme

inhibition (Nguyen Van Nhien et al. 2005). The main implicated enzymes are: HIV reverse transcriptase (RT), which is essential for the replication of the virus; HIV integrase (IN), which catalyzes the integration of viral DNA into the host DNA before replication (Pannecouque et al. 2010); and HIV protease, which is required in the final maturation of newly formed viruses to make up an infectious virion (Roy and Leonard 2004; Broder and Fauci 1988). The RT inhibitors have been the first agents approved for the treatment of HIV-1, and, together with protease inhibitors, are the most attractive targets for the anti-HIV drug development process, meanwhile IN inhibitors are still in clinical trials. Other widely used anti-HIV agents are: fusion inhibitors (FIs), co-receptor inhibitors (CRIs), and the viral entry inhibitor Enfuvirtide (Piscitelli et al. 2009; Roy and Leonard 2004; Oversteegen et al. 2007; De Clercq 2009; De Martino et al. 2006; Bonini et al. 2014; Williams 2003).

HIV is a single stranded (ss) RNA virus, which produces a double stranded (ds) DNA provirus, the RT enzyme catalyzes this process in the cytoplasm. The generated ds DNA is then integrated into the host cell genome (Ashok et al. 2015b; Musah 2004). There are three classes of RT inhibitors: nucleoside RT inhibitors (NRTIs), nucleotide RT inhibitors (NtRTIs), and non-nucleoside RT inhibitors (NNRTIs). NNRTIs do not require preliminary phosphorylation and are less toxic than nucleoside analogs, because they do not affect the activity of cellular polymerases. They lock themselves into inactive conformations by fitting into an allosteric site (a flexible hydrophobic pocket), ~10 Å from the polymerase active site (the NNRTI binding site (NNBS)). This causes several conformational changes and induces restrictions in the dynamics of the enzyme and its inactivity (Defant et al. 2015; Ashok et al. 2015b; Hunter et al. 2008; Ribone et al. 2012; Tantillo et al. 1994). Despite the potent antiviral activity of NNRTIs, they produce the rapid emergence of drug resistance caused by mutations of some amino acids in the NNBS (Silvestri et al. 2003; Samuele et al. 2011).

There are NNRTIs of diverse scaffolds: multicyclic, benzo-fused heterocycles, six-membered and five-membered heterocycles, amide or thioamide linker, and diphenyl among others. X-ray crystallographic studies of NNRTIs in complex with RT have shown that most of them contain a common pharmacophore model, with a “butterflylike” shape with one “body” and two hydrophobic “wings”. More than 50 structurally diverse NNRTIs have been identified (Nguyen Van Nhien et al. 2005; Ashok et al. 2015b; Silvestri et al. 2003; Witvrouw et al. 2000). They can be classified into first and second generation classes. The first generation NNRTIs are inflexible hydrophobic compounds, such as efavirenz (Sustiva<sup>®</sup>), nevirapine (Viramune<sup>®</sup>), and delavirdine (Rescriptor<sup>®</sup>), that could

effectively inhibit proliferation of the wild-type (WT) HIV. The rapid emergence of resistance forced the development of new NNRTI, the second generation NNRTIs, as a result of strategies involving computational chemistry (molecular modeling), structure-based rational drug design and synthesis, along with biological and pharmacokinetic assays. Generally, second generation NNRTIs tend to be more active against WT and mutant viruses, have minimal side effects, are more flexible, and can inhibit HIV strains resistant to first generation NNRTIs (Piscitelli et al. 2009; De Martino et al. 2006; Zhan et al. 2013; Samuele et al. 2009; Singh et al. 2012; Ragno et al. 2005). There are many second-generation NNRTIs reported in the literature, with many different scaffolds such as diarylpyrimidines (Ribone et al. 2012), heteroaryl esters (Cesarini et al. 2010), amides and thioamides (Hunter et al. 2008), multicyclics (Pannecouque et al. 2010; Witvrouw et al. 2000), benzophenones, and benzimidazoles (Pan et al. 2015; Di Santo and Costi 2005; Artico et al. 2000; Guendel et al. 2014). Among the diarylsulfones, the 2-nitrophenyl phenyl sulfone (NPPS) presents the best antiviral activity of this family (McMahon et al. 1993). Another important kind of compounds with activity against RT are the 3-pyrrolyl aryl sulfones (PASs), first described in 1995. They are more potent and selective than NNPS due to the presence of a *p*-chloroanilino moiety (Silvestri et al. 2003; Di Santo and Costi 2005; Artico et al. 1995).

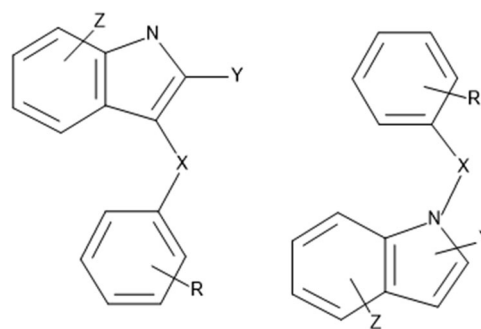
The first indoyl aryl sulfone (IAS) NNRTI has been reported by Williams et al. in 1993, the L-737,126 (5-chloro-3-(phenylsulfonyl)indole-2-carboxamide) (Williams et al. 1993). Despite its potent activity, it has not been suitable for clinical trials because of its poor water solubility (Williams et al. 1994). The Silvestri group has explored chemical modifications to L-737,126 IAS at the indole-2-carboxamide function in order to improve the activity against mutants and solubility. Changing the position of benzenesulfonyl moiety from position 3 to 1 (De Martino et al. 2006; Silvestri et al. 2003), modification of the carboxamide side chain and shift from position 2 to 3 (Samuele et al. 2009), and replacement of carboxamide by a carboxyhydrazide chain (Ragno et al. 2005) did not result in more potent inhibitors (Artico et al. 2000; La Regina et al. 2007; Ragno et al. 2006; Silvestri et al. 2004). The replacement of the 3-phenylsulfonyl with a pyrrolidin-1-ylsulfonyl moiety or the introduction of an additional heterocycle at position 2 of the indole has also been studied (Zhao et al. 2008). The introduction of an amino acid to the carboxamide chain produced more active derivatives than L-737,126 against the mutant strains HIV-1 WT (Piscitelli et al. 2009; Silvestri et al. 2004; Young et al. 1995). Related esters and hydrazides were always less potent, whereas the carboxylic acids were completely inactive (Silvestri et al. 2003). Cancio et al. (2005) have studied the mechanism of

inhibition of HIV-1 RT by IAS. It was found that IAS could be made selective for different enzyme–substrate complexes, depending on the substitutions on the IAS (Silvestri et al. 2003, 2004; Samuele et al. 2009). Halo and nitro IASs have also been studied, and it was found that derivatives bearing two halogen atoms at positions 4 and 5 of the indole were an optimal substitution pattern for the antiviral activity of IASs (La Regina et al. 2007, 2011; Samuele et al. 2009). In general, derivatives bearing an amide terminus were more cytotoxic than hydrazide. On the other hand, amides were more potent than hydrazides against the HIV-1 WT and the NNRTI-resistant strains (Young et al. 1995). With respect to indoyl aryl sulfides, sulfone derivatives were less cytotoxic and more potent (Silvestri et al. 2003).

Quantitative structure–activity relationships (QSARs) have proven to be a useful tool in compound design, since they represent a cheaper and faster alternative to in vivo and in vitro assays (Consonni et al. 2009; Duchowicz et al. 2009; Weaver and Gleeson 2008). For example, an extensive 3D-QSAR study and Docking simulation has been conducted on IASs, comprising NNRTIs involving 83 molecules, 75 of them taking part as the training set and eight of them as the test set (Ragno et al. 2005). The models found present correlation coefficients in the range (0.79, 0.93), and cross-validated standard deviations of prediction falling in the range (0.69, 1.07). Based on such models, 24 new IAS derivatives were proposed.

The aim of the present study is to perform a QSAR analysis for the RT inhibitory activity of reported indoyl aryl sulfones and sulfides, in order to identify the molecular characteristics influencing the interaction with NNRT. In this way, we expect to contribute to the design of more effective compounds for HIV treatment.

Models involving quantum-chemical descriptors imply difficult calculations of the optimum molecular geometries, high computational costs, and long times. In contrast, conformation independent 0D-2D-QSAR methods emerge as an alternative approach for developing simple models based on constitutional and topological molecular features (Aranda et al. 2016). The exclusion of 3D-structural aspects also avoids problems associated with ambiguities resulting from the existence of various conformational molecular states. For this reason, we use three different QSAR approaches for establishing predictive models. In the first one, the freely available descriptor generator PaDEL program (PaDEL 2016) is used to generate 1444 0D-2D molecular descriptors and 16,092 fingerprints. In the second approach, the CORALSEA freeware (CORALSEA 2016) is used to generate conformation independent flexible descriptors. Finally, we also explore models combining both descriptor types.



**Fig. 1** Base structures of the indoyl aryl sulfones and sulfides used in this study

## Methodology

### Experimental dataset

The QSAR analysis is performed on 172 indoyl aryl sulfones and sulfides (see Fig. 1), which are found to be active against HIV-1 wild type (IIB). IAS have been evaluated against the HIV-WT in human T-lymphocyte cells, and the inhibitory activity is quantified through the  $EC_{50}$  (concentration required to protect CEM cells against the cytopathogenicity of HIV by 50%). For the QSAR analysis, the  $-\log_{10} EC_{50}$  ( $pEC_{50}$ ) is used as a measure for the inhibitory activity. The experimental data are collected from the literature (La Regina et al. 2011; Piscitelli et al. 2009; Silvestri et al. 2003, 2004; Ragno et al. 2005; Young et al. 1995; Prajapati and Doshi 2011) and presented in Table 1S of Supplementary Materials, along with the molecular structural details.

### Structural representation and molecular descriptors calculation

The structures of the compounds are generated in SMILES notation and verified for their correctness, and afterwards 2D structures are drawn with ACDLabs ChemSketch freeware (ChemSketch 2015). The descriptors are calculated using two different methodologies:

- Theoretical conformation-independent molecular descriptors and fingerprints are calculated using the freely available PaDEL software (version 2.20) (PaDEL 2016). Before calculating the descriptors, a conversion to MDL-mol format (the recommended format in PaDEL) is performed using Open-Babel version 2.3.2 (The Open Babel Package 2015). Constant values and descriptors found to be pairwise correlated are excluded from the original matrix of variables to minimize redundant information. In total, 1444 1D and 2D descriptors and 12 fingerprint types (16092) are obtained. These are calculated using The

Chemistry Development Kit, and additional descriptors are added, such as atom type electrotopological state descriptors, Crippen's logP and MR, extended topochemical atom (ETA) descriptors, McGowan volume, molecular linear free energy relation descriptors, ring counts, count of chemical substructures identified by Laggner, and binary fingerprints and count of chemical substructures identified by Klekota and Roth (Yap 2011) resulting in a total of 17,536 non-conformational descriptors explored.

- b. Flexible molecular descriptors are calculated with the CORAL freeware (CORALSEA 2016). At first, the SMILES notations of the compounds are provided as input to the CORAL program, together with the studied experimental activity values ( $pEC_{50}$ ). Three different structural representation (SR) approaches are available in CORAL: i. a chemical graph, like hydrogen-suppressed graph (HSG), hydrogen-filled graph (HFG), and graph of atomic orbitals (GAO); ii. SMILES; and iii. a hybrid representation which includes both graph and SMILES (CORALSEA 2016). The most appropriate combination of structural attributes (local descriptors, SA) are chosen for the modeling process. The selected SR, i.e. graph-based or SMILES-based, defines the number and types of local descriptors that participate in the QSAR analysis.

In the graph approach of the HSG, HFG, or GAO type, the structural attributes that can be used are the Morgan's extended connectivity indices of  $k$ th order for vertex (atom)  $Z$  ( ${}^kEC_Z$ ,  $k = 0-3$ ). The index of zero-th order  ${}^0EC_Z$  represents the vertex degree for atom  $Z$  (number of neighbor atoms to  $Z$  in HSG), while the higher order indices  ${}^kEC_Z$  are obtained through a recursive formula based on  ${}^0EC_Z$  (see in Table 2S). In the SMILES approach, the one-element, two-element, and three-element SMILES attributes  ${}^1s_k$ ,  ${}^2s_k$ ,  ${}^3s_k$ , respectively, can be calculated.

In order to achieve the best statistical quality of the final model, the most relevant structural attributes for a specific structural representation are found in a stepwise manner. First, the single best attribute is searched; after that, a second attribute that best combines with the first is searched, and then the following attributes are continuously added in the same way.

In the CORAL framework, the QSAR model is obtained through a one-variable linear correlation between  $pEC_{50}$  and a properly defined flexible descriptor (DCW, descriptor of correlation weights). The DCW descriptor is a linear combination of special coefficients called correlation weights (CW). A CW value is calculated for each SA type of the training set. The CW values for all the structural attributes are calculated through the Monte Carlo (MC) simulation method, by searching for the highest correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) between  $pEC_{50}$  and the DCW descriptor (Table 2S).

The DCW flexible descriptor depends upon the threshold value ( $T$ ) and the number of epochs or iterations ( $N_{\text{epochs}}$ ) used. These parameters are positive integers from the MC method that should be correctly specified in order to calculate the DCW values. The  $T$  defines rare (noise) SMILES attributes that do not contribute to the predicted inhibitory activity, so that all SMILES attributes that take place in less than  $T$  SMILES notations of the training set are classified as rare instead of as active.  $N_{\text{epochs}}$  is the number of iterations used during the numerical optimization procedure. In current study,  $T$  ranges from 0 to 5 and the maximum number of iterations used is 50.

## Model development

### *Molecular descriptors selection in MLR*

We employ the replacement method (RM) technique (Duchowicz et al. 2006) in order to generate MLR models on the training set, by searching in a pool having  $D = 17,538$  descriptors for optimal subsets having  $d \ll D$  ones with smallest values for the standard deviation ( $S_{\text{train}}$ ) or the root mean square deviation ( $RMS_{\text{train}}$ ). Table 2S includes a list of mathematical equations involved in the present study. All the Matlab (Matlab 2016) programmed algorithms used in our calculations are available upon request.

### *Model validation*

In order to verify the predictive capability of the proposed QSAR models, the dataset is splitted into a training set (58 compounds) used for model development, a validation set (57 compounds) used for partial model validation, and a test set (57 compounds) used for model external validation. The split of the dataset is performed with the balanced subsets method (BSM), which is based on  $k$ -means cluster analysis ( $k$ -MCA) (Rojas et al. 2015a, 2015b). The BSM ensures that the training set is representative of both the validation and test sets, and thus similar structure–property relationships are found in the three molecular subsets.

## Results and discussion

The 172 selected indoyl aryl sulfones and sulfides are potent inhibitors of HIV-1 WT replication in CEM cells, and show inhibitory concentrations in the low nanomolar range. Statistical parameters for the three explored models are provided in Table 3S–11S.

### QSAR models based on PaDEL descriptors

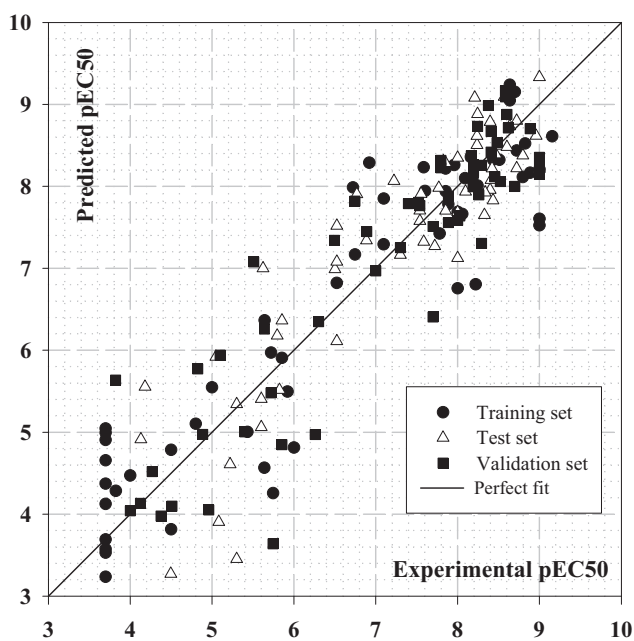
The initial pool of 1444 PaDEL descriptors is first reduced to 1016 descriptors due to its linear dependency. Table 1



**Table 1** Descriptors identified for modeling the inhibitory HIV reverse transcriptase activity along with the squared correlation coefficient and the standard deviation for training, validation, and test sets

<i>d</i>	Descriptor symbols	$R^2_{\text{train}}$	$S_{\text{train}}$	$R^2_{\text{val}}$	$S_{\text{val}}$	$R^2_{\text{test}}$	$S_{\text{test}}$
1	<i>NaasC</i>	0.51	1.37	0.58	1.04	0.48	1.02
2	<i>naasC, maxHBint5</i>	0.71	1.06	0.67	0.94	0.67	0.85
3	<i>AATSC7v, MATS4e, maxHBint5</i>	0.79	0.91	0.69	0.90	0.67	0.84
4	<i>GATS8m, SpMin6_Bhv, maxHBint4, MDEO-12</i>	0.81	0.87	0.74	0.85	0.62	0.89
5	<i>ATSC8v, BCUTc-1h, ndsN, minHaaNH, JGI4</i>	0.83	0.82	0.83	0.72	0.76	0.72
6	<b><i>AATS7i, MATS7p, GATS4s, maxHBint5, maxHaaNH, SRW9</i></b>	<b>0.86</b>	<b>0.77</b>	<b>0.82</b>	<b>0.73</b>	<b>0.81</b>	<b>0.68</b>
7	<i>ALogp2, nAromBond, MATS7p, GATS8v, GATS4s, maxHBint5, maxaaNH</i>	0.87	0.75	0.79	0.82	0.72	0.87

The best model appears in bold



**Fig. 2** Predicted and experimental  $pEC_{50}$  values for the training, validation and test sets (Eq. 1)

includes the QSAR models obtained, revealing that the best predictive performance is achieved for six molecular descriptors. Figure 2 plots the calculated  $pEC_{50}$  as a function of the experimental values for the equation:

$$pEC_{50} = -0.26 AATS7i + 7.27 MATS7p - 2.81 GATS4s + 0.25 maxHBint5 + 3.91 maxHaaNH + 1.34 SRW9 + 40.79 \quad (1)$$

$$N_{\text{train}} = 58, R^2_{\text{train}} = 0.86, S_{\text{train}} = 0.77, F = 51, o_{2.5} = 0$$

$$N_{\text{val}} = 57, R^2_{\text{val}} = 0.82, S_{\text{val}} = 0.73$$

$$N_{\text{test}} = 57, R^2_{\text{test}} = 0.81, S_{\text{test}} = 0.68$$

Here,  $F$  is the Fisher parameter and  $o_{2.5}$  indicates the number of outlier compounds in the training set having a residual (difference between experimental and calculated  $pEC_{50}$ ) greater than 2.5-times  $S_{\text{train}}$  and lower than 3-times  $S_{\text{train}}$ .

The descriptors *MATS7p*, *AATS7i*, and *GATS4s* are 2D-autocorrelation descriptors of the topological structure of Broto–Moreau (ATS), Moran (MATS), and Geary (GATS). As a result, these descriptors consider the topology of the structure or parts of it associated with a selected physicochemical atomic property. The two indices following the descriptor symbol represent the topological distance between pairs of atoms or lag, and the physicochemical property considered in the weighting component for its computation. For example, the *MATS7p* descriptor represents a Moran autocorrelation with lag 7 weighted by polarizability. In the above model the *MATS7p* descriptor correlates positively to the inhibitory activity, whereas the *AATS7i* (average Broto–Moreau autocorrelation, lag 7, weighted by first ionization potential) and *GATS4s* (Geary autocorrelation, lag 4, weighted by I-state) contribute negatively to the activity. The electrotopological state atom type descriptors *maxHBint5* (maximum E-state descriptors of strength for potential hydrogen bonds of path length 5) and *maxHaaNH* (maximum atom-type H E-state::NH:) correlate positively to the inhibitory activity, as well as the topological path descriptor *SRW9* (self-returning walk count of order 9). Equation 1 also satisfies the external validation conditions (Golbraikh and Tropsha 2002):

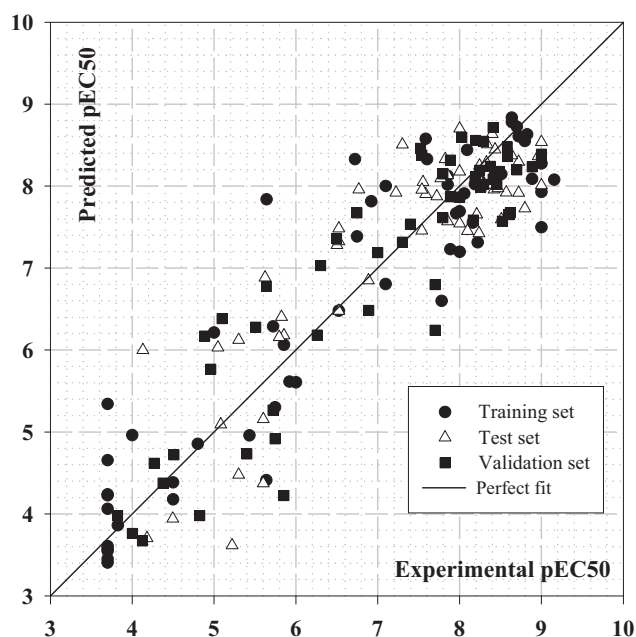
- $1 - R^2_0/R^2_{\text{test}} < 0.1$  (0.03) and  $1 - R'^2_0/R^2_{\text{test}} < 0.1$  (0.00) and,
- $0.85 \leq k \leq 1.15$  (0.99) and  $0.85 \leq k' \leq 1.15$  (1.00)
- $R^2_m > 0.5$  (0.69)

The addition of molecular fingerprints provides 1568 independent descriptors and fingerprints to the calculations. For this case, the best results are achieved with five descriptors (see Table 2). Figure 3 plots the predicted and experimental values for the training, validation, and test sets using three descriptors and fingerprints. The resultant

**Table 2** Descriptors and fingerprints identified for modeling the inhibitory H IV reverse transcriptase activity along with the squared correlation coefficient and the standard deviation for training, validation, and test sets

<i>d</i>	Descriptor symbols	$R^2_{\text{train}}$	$S_{\text{train}}$	$R^2_{\text{val}}$	$S_{\text{val}}$	$R^2_{\text{test}}$	$S_{\text{test}}$
1	<i>SubFP200</i>	0.63	1.19	0.71	0.90	0.66	0.84
2	<i>MACCSFP54, SubFP200</i>	0.78	0.92	0.77	0.80	0.75	0.73
3	<i>ATSC8v, maxHBint4, MACCSFP79</i>	0.80	0.88	0.78	0.79	0.69	0.81
4	<i>GATS7m, SpMax2_Bhi, PubchemFP643, SubFP28</i>	0.86	0.75	0.78	0.76	0.73	0.77
5	<i>AATS7e, ASP.7, MACCSFP54, PubchemFP533, APC2D4CS</i>	<b>0.85</b>	<b>0.77</b>	<b>0.83</b>	<b>0.69</b>	<b>0.74</b>	<b>0.74</b>
6	<i>GATS7m, ASP.7, ETABetaPnsd, MACCSFP79, PubchemFP643, KRF820</i>	0.88	0.70	0.84	0.68	0.69	0.86

The best model appears in bold



**Fig. 3** Predicted and experimental  $pEC_{50}$  values for the training, validation and test sets (Eq. 2)

equation for this model is

$$pEC_{50} = -2.09 AATS7e - 362.10 ASP.7 + 2.02 MACCSFP54 + 1.50 PubchemFP533 + 0.31 APC2D4CS + 28.89 \quad (2)$$

$$N_{\text{train}} = 58, R^2_{\text{train}} = 0.85, S_{\text{train}} = 0.77, F = 61, o_{2.5} = 1$$

$$N_{\text{val}} = 57, R^2_{\text{val}} = 0.83, S_{\text{val}} = 0.69$$

$$N_{\text{test}} = 57, R^2_{\text{test}} = 0.74, S_{\text{test}} = 0.74$$

The descriptors *AATS7e* (average Broto–Moreau autocorrelation - lag 7/weighted by Sanderson electronegativities) and *ASP.7* (average simple path, order 7) are 2D descriptors originated as autocorrelations of the topological structure of Broto–Moreau (ATS), and PaDEL Chi Paths, respectively. Equation 2 also includes three fingerprints, the MACCS key QHAAQH *MACCSFP54*, the

Simple SMARTS patterns S-C:C-N *PubchemFP533*, and the Count of C-S at topological distance 4 *APC2D4CS*.

Equation 2 (see Fig. 3) has one outlier compound with a residual higher than 2.5 standard deviations, **138**. Young et al. (1995) have pointed out that this particular compound has a difference of three orders of magnitude in the  $EC_{50}$  with compounds of similar structures. They justify this difference with the fact that **138** is not capable of coplanarity with the receptor. We assume that since we are only using 1D and 2D descriptors, the three-dimensional arrangement of the molecule is not fully represented, resulting in a poor prediction for **138**. Equation 2 also satisfies the external validation criteria (Golbraikh and Tropsha 2002):

- $1 - R_0^2/R_{\text{test}}^2 < 0.1$  (0.01) and  $1 - R_0'^2/R_{\text{test}}^2 < 0.1$  (0.02) and,
- $0.85 \leq k \leq 1.15$  (1.00) and  $0.85 \leq k' \leq 1.15$  (0.99)
- $R_m^2 > 0.5$  (0.73)

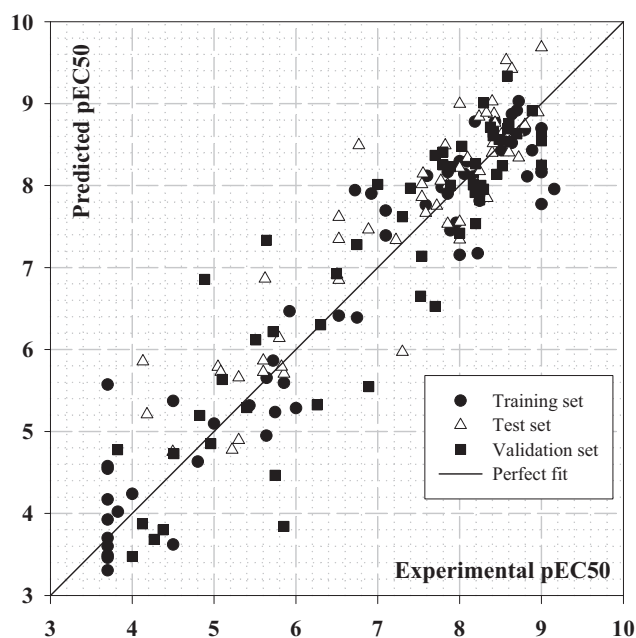
### QSAR models based on flexible molecular descriptors

In order to decide which structural attributes are the most efficient for each SR during the flexible descriptor design, the DCW flexible descriptor is optimized by increasing  $R^2_{\text{train}}$ , until the model starts to lose predictive capability in the validation set. The classical scheme is adopted: the test set is not involved during the model development. Table 3 contains a summary for the statistical quality of the best QSAR models found by trying different possible CORAL methods. It reveals that the best choice is a hybrid approach that includes both graph and SMILES representations. We follow the common practice of keeping the model's size as small as possible (Ockham's razor), in order to avoid any fortuitous correlation. Therefore, no more than three attributes are considered in the DCW calculation, because no further improvement can be obtained beyond that value (Tropov et al. 2015). The model with two attributes is chosen due to its good performance and simplicity. Figure 4 shows the predicted and experimental values for the training, validation, and test sets using DCW and the following

**Table 3** The stepwise search for the best QSAR model in the hybrid approach as structural representation

Structural attributes	$R^2_{\text{train}}$	$S_{\text{train}}$	$R^2_{\text{val}}$	$S_{\text{val}}$	$R^2_{\text{test}}$	$S_{\text{test}}$
$^3S_k$	0.85	0.51	0.85	0.53	0.68	0.75
$^2S_k, ^3S_k$	0.84	0.53	0.83	0.55	0.71	0.70
$^1S_k, ^2S_k, ^3S_k$	0.85	0.52	0.84	0.54	0.71	0.70
$Pt2_k$	0.82	0.83	0.82	0.70	0.83	0.59
$Pt2_k, ^1EC_j$	0.83	0.79	0.83	0.70	0.80	0.64
$^3S_k, Pt2_k$	<b>0.91</b>	<b>0.60</b>	<b>0.82</b>	<b>0.71</b>	<b>0.83</b>	<b>0.63</b>
$^1S_k, ^3S_k, Pt2_k$	0.90	0.61	0.82	0.71	0.84	0.61

The best model appears in bold

**Fig. 4** Predicted and experimental  $pEC_{50}$  values for the training, validation and test sets (Eq. 3)

linear model:

$$pEC_{50} = 0.12 DCW + 0.27 \quad (3)$$

$$N_{\text{train}} = 58, R^2_{\text{train}} = 0.91, S_{\text{train}} = 0.60, F = 537, o_{2.5} = 1$$

$$N_{\text{val}} = 57, R^2_{\text{val}} = 0.82, S_{\text{val}} = 0.71$$

$$N_{\text{test}} = 57, R^2_{\text{test}} = 0.83, S_{\text{test}} = 0.73$$

The parameters used during model building are  $T=5$  and  $N_{\text{epochs}}=50$ . Table 11S includes an example for calculating the DCW for **1**. Figure 4 shows that the predicted vs. experimental inhibitory activity obtained with Eq. 3 follows a straight line. The flexible descriptor of Eq. 3 considers  $Pt2_k$  as local graph invariant, and the structural attributes that contribute to the DCW calculation are listed in Table 10S. Furthermore, higher positive CW values tend to predict higher activity values.

Equation 3 (see Fig. 4) presents only one outlier compound in the training set that has a residual higher than 2.5 standard deviations, **27**. Such compound has an experimental  $EC_{50}$  value not well-defined ( $>200 \mu\text{M}$ ) (Ragno et al. 2005). Hence, we assume that this irregular behavior may be attributed to the intrinsic ambiguity in the experimental value reported for this molecule.

Equation 3 also satisfies the external validation conditions (Golbraikh and Tropsha 2002):

- $1 - R_0^2/R_{\text{test}}^2 < 0.1$  (0.03) and  $1 - R_0'^2/R_{\text{test}}^2 < 0.1$  (0.00) and,
- $0.85 \leq k \leq 1.15$  (0.99) and  $0.85 \leq k' \leq 1.15$  (1.00)
- $R_m^2 > 0.5$  (0.70)

The QSAR models given by Eqs. 1–3 predict with good accuracy the inhibitory activity of 172 structurally diverse indoyl aryl sulfones and sulfides, and compare favorably to previous published results. For instance, the models presented in this study analyze a greater number of compounds than a previous reported study (Ragno et al. 2005), and only involve simpler 1D and 2D descriptors when compared to the 3D QSAR used in such research. Furthermore, our developed models are properly internally and externally validated.

Finally, calculations combining both PaDEL and CORAL descriptors and fingerprints show no significant improvement in the results. The combinations of various flexible descriptors or flexible descriptors with traditional molecular descriptors do not create models having a better prediction quality, and, moreover, increase significantly the complexity of the models.

## Conclusions

In this work, the inhibitory HIV reverse transcriptase activity is modeled with a good accuracy through a computational technique, that does not require the knowledge of the molecular conformation during the structural representation. We succeeded in proposing molecular structure-based models that correlate well with the experimental  $pEC_{50}$  values, and demonstrate that such models are predictive in the validation process. The QSAR models established by using traditional molecular descriptors are accurate, while similar predictive performance is obtained with CORAL using only one flexible descriptor. The simplicity of the proposed models makes their applicability easy and new results will be published shortly elsewhere.

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### Compliance with ethical standards

**Conflict of interest** The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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