In silico prediction of SARS-CoV-2 main protease and polymerase inhibitors: 3D-Pharmacophore modelling

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ABSTRACT

The outbreak of the second severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus (SARS-CoV-2) known as COVID-19 has caused global concern. No effective vaccine or treatment to control the virus has been approved yet. Social distancing and precautionary protocols are still the only way to prevent personto-person transmission. We hope to identify anti-COVID-19 activity of the existing drugs to overcome this pandemic as soon as possible. The present study used HEX and AutoDock Vina softwares to predict the affinity of about 100 medicinal structures toward the active site of 3-chymotrypsin-like protease (3Clpro) and RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp), separately. Afterwards, MOE software and the pharmacophore-derived query methodology were employed to determine the pharmacophore model of their inhibitors. Tegobuvir (19) and compound 45 showed the best binding affinity toward RdRp and 3Clpro of SARS-CoV-2 in silico, respectively. Tegobuvir -previously applied for hepatitis C virus- formed highly stable complex with uncommon binding pocket of RdRp (E total: -707.91 Kcal/ mol) in silico. In addition to compound 45, tipranavir (28) and atazanavir (26) as FDA-approved HIV protease inhibitors were tightly interacted with the active site of SARS-CoV-2 main protease as well. Based on pharmacophore modelling, a good structural pattern for potent candidates against SARS-CoV-2 main enzymes is suggested. Re-tasking or taking inspiration from the structures of tegobuvir and tipranavir can be a proper approach toward coping with the COVID-19 in the shortest possible time and at the lowest cost.



Abbreviations: AIDS: Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome; AR: Aromatic ring; 3Clpro: 3-Chymotrypsin-like protease; CoVs: Coronaviruses; COVID-19: Coronavirus Disease 2019; FDA: Food and drug administration; HBA: Hydrogen bond acceptors; HBD: Hydrogen bond donors; HCV: Hepatitis C virus; HIV: Human immunodeficiency virus; HY: Hydrophobic centers; MERS-CoV: Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus; Mpro: Main protease; NSPs: Non-structural proteins; PDQ: Pharmacophorederived query; PI group: Positive ionizable group; RdRp: RNA-dependent RNA polymerase; SARS-CoV-2: Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus-2; ssRNA viruses: Single-stranded RNA viruses; ZIKV: Zika virus

1. Introduction

Coronaviruses (CoVs) are life-threatening infective agents of respiratory system which have erupted since 1960 (Chen et al., 2020). The highest mortality rate associated with CoVs

has been reported to be 34.4% (Petrosillo et al., 2020). They belong to enveloped, positive-sense, single-stranded RNA viruses (+ssRNA) which were named corona-virus owing to their surface glycoproteins with crown-like appearance. Generally, the CoVs are classified into four categories: alpha,

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beta, gamma, delta (Chan et al., 2013; Perlman & Netland, 2009). The severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus (SARS-CoV) and the Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (MERS-CoV) from beta group are two main causes of severe pneumonia transmitted from animals to humans (Hoffmann et al., 2020). The SARS-coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) is the 7th of the new CoVs called as "COVID-19" emerged from Chinese sea-food market in late 2019 (Huang et al., 2020; Zhu et al., 2020). Despite the high genetic similarity (>80%) between COVID-19 and SARS-CoV, COVID-19 is more contagious via aerosol particles and fecal-oral route (Chan et al., 2020; Jia et al., 2005). This is probably due to its higher binding affinity (10-20 times) toward host cell receptors (Wrapp et al., 2020), long latent period of disease (\sim 10 days) (Li et al., 2020) and mild symptoms of patients in the earlystages of infection (Chen et al., 2020; Tang et al., 2020). Currently, minimizing the exposure to the virus is the only available approach to control the spread of COVID-19. It is estimated that each infected individual can transmit the infection to > 2 healthy persons (Fauci et al., 2020). Economic losses and lack of an approved vaccine and an effective drug have encouraged the researchers to eradicate this virus as soon as possible (Enjuanes et al., 2006; Perlman & Netland, 2009).

Vaccination is a certain way to save people but it takes a long time to prepare and distribute vaccines around the world (Ahmed et al., 2020). So, many attempts are currently focused on drug repurposing against COVID-19. Drug repurposing is a strategy to identify new uses for pre-existing drugs which can be prescribed for rapid coping with the emerging disease at the lowest cost. There are different targets encoded by viral genome including structural and nonstructural proteins for designing effective drugs. Structural proteins like the capsid spike glycoprotein (S), Nucleocapsid (N) Matrix (M) and Envelope (E) have been usually considered for designing targeted monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) and vaccines (Ahmed et al., 2020; Elfiky, 2020). The COVID-19 takes advantage of non-structural proteins (NSPs) to maintain its survival. The 3-chymotrypsin-like protease (3Clpro or Mpro), papain-like protease (Plpro) and RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp) are three crucial NSPs with enzymatic functions in the COVID-19 life cycle (Morse et al., 2020). The 3Clpro is a cysteine proteases which produces functional units for the virus transcription and replication process in the host cells (Sheahan et al., 2020). The RdRp (NSP₁₂) is an indispensable enzyme in maturation cycle of RNA viruses like hepatitis C virus (HCV), zika viruses (ZIKV) and CoVs (Elfiky, 2020). It has a large deep groove for replication of RNA from an RNA template (Morse et al., 2020). So, these NSPs have provided an opportunity for rational design of the structurebased inhibitors. Preliminary studies have introduced the numbers of protease and RdRp inhibitors presumably applied in COVID-19 treatment. For instance, The kaletra® is a combination medication of two HIV protease inhibitors (lopinavir+ritonavir) examined as an option to treat coronavirus disease (Cao et al., 2020; Chandwani & Shuter, 2008). Ribavirin and Sofosbuvir are also other examples of COVID-19 RdRp inhibitors previously approved by FDA for HCV

treatment (Elfiky, 2020; Elfiky & Ismail, 2019; Yang et al., 2011). The protease "3Clpro or Mpro" and polymerase "RdRp" are two pivotal enzymes required for COVID-19 replication which are 96% similar to the SARS-CoV. That is why the drugs targeting SARS-Cov RdRp and 3Clpro can be considered as presumable compounds with anti-COVID-19 activity (Morse et al., 2020). The aim of this study is to compare large numbers of existing inhibitors of RdRp (Table 1) and 3Clpro (Table 2) obtained by literature mining in silico to identify the best pharmacophores and drug candidates against SARS-CoV-2. We hope that our contribution can offer a suitable pharmacophore or agent for further studies. The flowchart of the present study is described in Figure 1.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Creation of compound databases

Based on literature review, a compound database including existing drugs with different mechanisms (antiviral, anthelmintic agents and etc.) was firstly provided for molecular docking studies. In the present study, the main protease (3Clpro/Mpro) and RNA polymerase (RdRp) of COVID-19 were considered as targets of these drugs. Different types of RdRp inhibitors including nucleoside, nucleotide and non-Nucleoside compounds were evaluated in silico. The peptidomimetics and small molecules were docked on the binding pocket of 3Clpro as well. Out of the existing drugs, the drugs targeting protease and RNA polymerase in other RNA viruses with one of the following features were certainly selected for further experiments: 1) FDA-approved agents; 2) The drugs under investigation with better antiviral activity and less cytotoxicity. The half maximal effective concentration (EC_{50}) and half maximal inhibitory concentration (IC₅₀) values were considered as useful parameters to judge the effectiveness of these viral replication inhibitors. The protease and RNA polymerase inhibitors with the lowest EC₅₀ or IC₅₀ were chosen accordingly. To generate ligands, the two-dimensional (2D) chemical structures of the inhibitors were drawn and saved in mol. format at first. Our compound database was then constructed in 3D structure of molecules using Hyperchem Software. Energy of ligands was minimized by using MM + force field and the Polak-Ribiere algorithm until the root mean square (RMS) gradient was 0.01 kcal/mol. Then all structures were saved as pdb. files and utilized in docking studies.

2.2. Preparation of target proteins

The protein structures of SARS-CoV-2 RdRp (PDB ID: 6M71) and 3Clpro (PDB ID: 6LU7) were obtained from protein data bank (https://www.rcsb.org) in pdb. format with good resolutions. In the case of the 6LU7 and 6M71 proteins, chain A was chosen as a receptor for docking analysis. The protein preparation protocol was executed using AutoDockTools in several steps: 1) Removing the native ligand and water molecules from pdb. file, 2) Adding polar hydrogen atoms and Kollman charges, 3) Merging nonpolar hydrogen atoms, and

Table 1. Chemical structures and classifications of some existing inhibitors of RdRp.





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Table 1. Continued.





^{a)}PA: 5'-PhosphorAmidate.

4) Assigning AutoDock 4 atom type to the protein structure. Finally, the prepared files were saved in PDBQT format. The characteristics of 3CLpro and RdRp crystallographic structures are summarized in Table 3.

2.3. Molecular docking

Docking screening is a valuable method for drug design which predicts the affinity of generated ligands to the essential residues in the active site of receptor or enzyme (Carlesso et al., 2019). After preparation of the ligands and target proteins, all presumable molecules were subjected to the HEX docking software. The Parameters for docking was set as follows: Correlation type: Shape + Electro + Dars Grid dimension: 0.6, Receptor range: 180, Ligand range: 180, Distance range: 40, Box size: 10. Afterwards, the best docking results obtained by HEX software, were docked using AutoDock Vina software to recheck their binding affinity toward main enzymes of COVID-19 as well. Flexible ligand docking analyses were used.

2.4. Pharmacophore model extraction using MOE

To provide a pharmacophore profile of 3Clpro and RdRp inhibitors and lead compounds, pharmacophore query methodology was used. For this purpose, an MOE database was created and up to 2500 different conformations of molecules were prepared. Using pharmacophore query tool, a pharmacophoric map of enzymes inhibition is obtained separately. This method is based on searching 3 D distances between overlapped binding centers like hydrogen bond donors (HBD)/acceptors (HBA), positive ionizable (PI) group, aromatic ring (AR) and hydrophobic centers (HY) in the structure of ligand-receptor complexes (Pickett et al., 1996). Accordingly, some new platforms were designed and suggested as potential candidates for inhibition of 3Clpro/Mpro and RdRp of COVID-19.

3. Results

3.1. Molecular docking

As there is no available therapeutic agent to efficiently treat COVID-19 so far; docking studies can be a favorable

TABLE 2. Chemical structures and indications of some existing protease inhibitors.





TABLE 2. Continued.



^{a)}HIV: Human Immunodeficiency Viruses/^{b)} HCV: Hepatitis C Virus.

approach to find potential candidates. Over 100 structures either available in the market or under development have been screened in this survey. Their interactions with binding pocket of SARS-CoV-2 main enzymes (3Clpro PDB: 6LU7 and RdRp PDB: 6M71) were assessed. Presumable agents including many FDA-approved and under-construction antiviral or anthelmintic agents specifically anti-RNA-virus drugs were docked and the most stable inhibitor-enzyme complexes were selected based on the range of E total (free energy of binding) values.

All docked molecules on the active sites of RdRp and 3Clpro showed negative binding energies ranging from -161.28 to -707.91 kcal/mol and -216.9 to -415.27 kcal/mol, respectively. The top 25 agents including 15 RdRp inhibitors and 10 protease inhibitors with the best E total value are shown in Table 3. The binding affinity of all 25 top molecules were analyzed using AutoDock Vina software and represented as well (Table 4).

The docking results exhibited that the order of E total in RdRp inhibitors follows: was as non-nucleoside < nucleotide < nucleoside compounds which were properly correlated with the energy of binding obtained by AutoDock Vina. The binding pocket for non-nucleoside inhibitors were notably different from nucleoside and nucleotide inhibitors in the enzyme structure (Figure. 2). All nucleoside and nucleotide inhibitors were accommodated in the common polymerase active site depicted in a yellow circle in Figure 2. In 1999, the presence of various subdomains of "palm", "fingers", and "thumb" has been reported in the crystallographic structure of different polymerases, too (Sofia et al., 2012).

Out of the non-nucleoside inhibitors, tegobuvir (**19**) was tightly interacted with uncommon RdRp binding pocket (E total: -707.91 kcal/mol). This imidazolopyridine-based agent

has been docked on the NS5B polymerase of HCV and introduced as its thumb site inhibitor. Tegobuvir also inhibited hepatitis C virus nonstructural protein 5B (NS5B) polymerase at a low concentration (EC₅₀ = $0.0007 \,\mu$ M toward genotype 1 b, $EC_{50} = 0.0025 \,\mu M$ toward genotype 1a HCV polymerase) in vitro (Sofia et al., 2012). As expected, tegobuvir was accommodated somewhere out of common binding pocket of RdRp enzyme structure illustrated in Figure 3A. The fluorine atoms in tegobuvir formed an extensive network of Hbonds with the acceptor residues of hydrogen bonds including Thr123 (2.80 Å), Tyr217 (3.16 Å), Thr120 (4.30, 4.93 Å), Thr206 (4.92 Å), and Arg33 (5.03 Å). The hydrophobic bound with Tyr217 (3.06 Å) and Phe35 (3.91 Å) residues result in stabilizing the ligand-receptor complex as well (Figure. 3B). Tegobuvir (GS-9190) by itself and in combination with other anti-HCV drugs were assessed in some clinical trials and showed high potency in viral load reduction with no significant cytotoxicity (Wyles et al., 2014). It is under active investigation though.

In the case of nucleotide inhibitors, INX-08189 (**7**) interacted with RdRp active site stronger than sofosbuvir and remdesivir in a row (E total~ -396 kcal/mol)) (Figure. 4A). Although sofosbuvir (**8**) formed three hydrogen bonds with Tyr129 (3.16 Å), Asn781 (3.22 Å) and Lys780 (3.46 Å) residues of enzyme, INX-08189 (**7**) showed better binding properties probably owing to a strong H-bond with the Tyr129 residue at a closer distance (2.20 *Vs.* 3.16 Å) (Figure. 4B). It should be noted that INX-08189, sofosbuvir and remdesivir are overlaid in the active site (Figure. 4B). Remdesivir (**5**) was also accommodated into the active site via a hydrogen and cation – π bonding with Gln773 (3.33 Å) and Lys47 (3.40 Å), respectively. Meanwhile, INX-08189 and sofosbuvir have been examined in HCV-positive patients during clinical trials (Han et al., 2019; Sofia, 2011). Nucleoside inhibitors were not as good as nucleotide inhibitors in terms of binding energies. Out of them, RG7128 (4) manifested the lowest E total value (Figure. 5).

The ranking of E total for protease inhibitors revealed that the best docking score (E total of ~ -400 kcal/mol or lower) belongs to compound 45, tipranavir (28), 44 and atazanavir (26) in a row (Figure 6). Their interaction profiles of the bestdocked poses are also illustrated in Figure 7. The carbonyl groups of compound 45 interacted by forming hydrogen bonds with amino acid Ser46 (2.04 Å) and Cys145 (3.75 Å). A pi-pi bonding was also visible between His41 and aromatic ring at a distance of 3.95 Å. Tipranavir was bound to the 3Clpro active site via amino acid His41 (1.53 Å) and His163 (2.32 Å) as well. As shown in Figure. 7C, compound (44) formed three hydrogen bonds with the side chain of Asn142 (2.23, 3.19 Å) and Ser46 (3.22 Å). Atazanavir (26) showed same hydrogen bonding with Asn142 (3.57 Å) as that of compound (44). Additionally, Met49 and Cys145 were interacted with atazanavir via weak H-bonding. It is noteworthy that



Figure 1. The flowchart of the present in-silico study.

 TABLE 3. The characteristics of 3CLpro and RdRp crystallographic structures.

tipranavir and atazanavir have shown potent activity in the HIV replication assay and in improving quality of life of patients with HIV/AIDS (Lv et al., 2015). The agents **45** and **44** have already reported as peptidomimetics reversibly inhibited SARS-CoV (Pillaiyar et al., 2016).

3.2. Pharmacophore model extraction

Using MOE software, a pharmacophoric map of the RdRpand 3Clpro-inhibitors was generated. The key common contributing features with inter-features distances of these inhibitors are shown in Figure 8. As shown in the Figure. 8A, a 2D pharmacophore model for the RdRp inhibitors consists of a HY center connected to another HY via an HBA. The distance between two hydrophobic regions is 3.91 Ű. Two RA centers aligned to each other, leading to a HY center, is the rest of the pharmacophoric map of RdRp inhibitors. The length of this section is 4.12 Ű. It seems that the inhibitors had better have a planar structure without any harsh angles.

In the case of 3Clpro inhibitors, HY centers which are connected to aromatic regions play an important role in binding to the enzyme. Having HBA/HBD group help the inhibitor to bind tightly to enzyme. 90° angles in the structures show that the inhibitors do not have linear structures (Figure. 8B).

4. Discussion

Considering the mortality rate and the socio-economic complications associated with the outbreak of new CoVs, there is an urgent need to finding a quick solution for this global threat. As of December 2019, some antiviral and anti-parasitic drugs have been applied to relieve COVID-19 symptoms. It is assumed that the existing drugs can be used as off-label treatment of the virus. The 3Clpro and RdRp are critical enzymes in the life cycle of COVID-19 which are 96% similar to the SARS-CoV (Morse et al., 2020). In the present study, we used the crystal structure of 3Clpro/Mpro and RdRp of COVID-19 as receptors for docking analysis on the existing drugs. Many FDA-approved and under-construction antiviral or anthelmintic agents specifically anti-RNA-virus drugs were assessed in silico to find potential candidates to hamper replication of SARS-CoV-2. Actually, our goal was to re-task the existing drugs against COVID-19.

| Target | PDB code | Resolution (A°) | Native Ligand | Main residues of chain A | Ref. |
|--------|----------|--------------------------|--|--|--------------------|
| 3ClPro | 6LU7 | 2.16 | N-[(5-methylisoxazol-3- yl)carbonyl]alanyl-l- valyl-N~1~-((1R,2Z)- 4-(benzyloxy)-4-oxo- 1-{[(3R)-2- oxopyrrolidin-3- yl]methyl}but-2- enyl)-L-leucinamide | Thr24, Thr26, Phe140, Asn142, Gly143, Cys145, His163, His164, Glu166, His172 | (Jin et al., 2020) |
| RdRp | 6M71 | 2.90 | - | Tyr32, Lys47, Tyr122, Tyr129, His133, Asn138, Asp140, Thr141, Ser709, Asn781 | (Gao et al., 2020) |

Table 4. The top 25 agents inhibiting a RdRp and b 3Clpro of SARS-CoV-2 with the best docking scores.

| a) RdRp inhibitors | | | | | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------|-------------|--|-----------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Compound number ^a | Name | Mw g/mol | Reported EC ₅₀ (IC ₅₀) μM | E total (Kcal/mol) | Binding affinity (Kcal/mol) | Ref. |
| 2 | _ | 353.33 | 0.6 | -274.53 | -7.9 | (Sofia et al., 2012) |
| 3 | _ | 286.08 | 0.024 | -291.85 | -6.6 | (Sofia et al., 2012) |
| 4 | RG7128 | 399.41 | 2.5 | -340.66 | -7.8 | (Sofia et al., 2012) |
| 5 | Remdesivir | 602.58 | 0.003-0.79 | -388.48 | -9.8 | (Lo et al., 2017) |
| 8 | Sofosbuvir | 529.16 | 0.014-0.11 | -396.81 | -9.3 | (Han et al., 2019) |
| 7 | INX-08189 | 658.64 | 0.01 | -396.61 | -10.6 | ((Sofia, 2011) |
| 10 | _ | 578.13 | 0.016 | -400.00 | -8.8 | (Sofia et al., 2012) |
| 17 | _ | 531.62 | 0.015 | -421.92 | -9.7 | (Sofia et al., 2012) |
| | | | (IC ₅₀ =0.003) | | | |
| 11 | SB-750330 | 500.12 | 0.002 | -430.55 | -9.6 | (Sofia et al., 2012) |
| | | | (IC ₅₀ <0.005) | | | |
| 15 | _ | 635.75 | 0.0076 | -431.67 | -10.6 | (Sofia et al., 2012) |
| | | | (IC ₅₀ =0.0072) | | | |
| 16 | _ | 817.01 | 0.004 | -448.59 | -9.5 | (Sofia et al., 2012) |
| | | | (IC ₅₀ =0.0043) | | | |
| 13 | _ | 628.73 | 0.27 | -480.95 | -11.1 | (Sofia et al., 2012) |
| | | | (IC ₅₀ =0.042) | | | |
| 12 | JTK-109 | 638.13 | 0.32 | -542.26 | -10.5 | (Hirashima et al., 2006) |
| | | | (IC ₅₀ =0.017) | | | |
| 18 | _ | 529.48 | 0.23 | -549.25 | -10.3 | (Sofia et al., 2012) |
| | | | $(IC_{50} = 0.008)$ | | | |
| 19 | Tegobuvir (GS-9190) | 517.40 | 0.0007 | -707.91 | -10.2 | (Sofia et al., 2012) |
| b) 3Clpro inhibitors | | | | | | |
| 32 | Simeprevir | 735.91 | 0.008-0.028 | -383.69 | -7.9 | (Izquierdo et al., 2014) |
| 23 | Indinavir | 611.82 | 0.0055 | -386.65 | -6.7 | (Lv et al., 2015) |
| 41 | - | 616.81 | (IC ₅₀ = 0.00006) | -386.66 | -6.3 | (Morse et al., 2020) |
| 39 | - | 618.79 | (IC ₅₀ =0.00007) | -387.53 | -6.4 | (Morse et al., 2020) |
| 22 | Lopinavir | 628.80 | ~0.017 | -390.02 | -6.3 | (Lv et al., 2015) |
| 34 | Asunaprevir | 748.29 | 0.001-0.004 | -395.87 | -6 | (McPhee et al., 2012) |
| 26 | Atazanavir | 689.84 | 0.0026-0.0053 | -402.33 | -7.2 | (Lv et al., 2015) |
| 44 | - | 806.36 | 0.6 | -414.17 | -6.7 | (Pillaiyar et al., 2016) |
| 28 | Tipranavir | 601.68 | 0.03-0.07 | -415.27 | -6.8 | (Lv et al., 2015) |
| 45 | - | 646.28 | 0.34 | -430.77 | -6.8 | (Pillaiyar et al., 2016) |

a)The chemical structure of these compounds are drawn in the introduction section.



Figure 2. The other binding sites for non-nucleoside RdRp inhibitors removed from the common RdRp binding pocket (shown by yellow circle).



Figure 3. Docked pose of tegobuvir on the crystallographic structure of SARS-CoV-2 RdRp. (A) Tegobuvir (yellow, stick model) are accommodated at the uncommon catalytic site of RdRp. The common main residues are indicated with a blank surface. (B) Docked pose of tegobuvir (yellow, stick model) in interaction with main residues (gray, line model) in the uncommon binding pocket of SARS-CoV-2 RdRp.

Some notable characteristics of approved agents targeting protease and RdRp are summarized in Table 5 and Table 6, respectively. In the case of both groups, there is a relative correlation between reported EC_{50} and calculated E total value for these approved agents. For instance, ribavirin did neither show favorable biding energy against RdRP nor can potently inhibit RNA viruses in vitro and in vivo (Table 5) or anthelmintics drugs with EC_{50} value in the micromolar range didn't show as much inhibition potency as the other protease inhibitors in silico (Table 6) (Wyles et al., 2014).

As illustrated in Table 5, ribavirin did neither show favorable biding energy against RdRP nor can potently inhibit RNA viruses in vitro and in vivo (Sidwell et al., 2005). The best compounds in terms of binding energies proved to be sofosbuvir (8) (E total = -396.81 kcal/mol) and then remdesivir (5) (E total = -388.48 kcal/mol) which have also shown considerable capability to block hepatitis C and Ebola viruses, respectively. The compound INX-08189 (7) had also binding energies of less than -395 kcal/mol which have not been approved by FDA due to its serious cardiomyopathy (Sinokrot et al., 2017).



Figure 4. Docked pose of INX-08189 on crystallographic structure of SARS-CoV-2 RdRp. (A) INX-08189 with RdRp of SARS-CoV-2. (B) Overlaid complexes of sofosbuvir (red line), INX-08189 (green line) and remdesivir (blue line) in interaction with main residues in the common active site of RdRp.

It should be noted that in-vitro activity of such drugs as ribavirin, favipiravir, chloroquine, hydroxyquinoline, nitazoxanide, penciclovir and remdesivir against COVID-19 have already been evaluated (Korba et al., 2008; Zhou et al., 2019). Among them, the remdesivir (**5**) exhibited excellent anti-COVID19 activity ($EC_{50} = 0.77 \mu$ M, $CC_{50} > 100 \mu$ M) with the highest selectivity index (SI > 129.87) (Korba et al., 2008). Our study revealed that inhibitory potency of INX-08189, sofosbuvir and then remdesivir in silico was also closely correlated with their reported in-vitro and in-vivo antiviral activity. As compared to INX-08189, sofosbuvir and remdesivir are drugs of choice because of their less cytotox-icity. Some clinical studies are underway around the world to assess the safety and efficacy of sofosbuvir and remdesivir in COVID-19 treatment (Eynde, 2020; Sayad et al., 2020). Favipiravir (9) has also been studied in some clinical trials as a potential candidate in decreasing the duration of fever and cough of afflicted patients (Malcolm et al., 2006). However, it cannot occupy the active site of RdRp as well as expected owing to its small size or the presence of the other interaction sites. The exact interaction mechanism of favipiravir to RdRp of SARS-Cov-2 can be identified in the future studies.

Based on docking analysis of RdRp inhibitors, Tegobuvir (GS-9190, **19**) can block RdRp of SARS-CoV-2 more efficiently than sofosbuvir and remdesivir. So, tegobuvir may be considered as an appealing clinical candidate to combat COVID-19 since its toxicity profile has been determined during several clinical trials before (Wyles et al., 2014). Definitely, more invitro and in-vivo studies are required to confirm its



Figure 5. Docked pose of RG7128 (green, stick model) as the best nucleoside inhibitor in the common RdRp catalytic site.



Figure 6. Docked figures of top 4 molecule candidates with 3Clpro active site of SARS-CoV-2. Here, compound 45, tipranavir (28), 44 and atazanavir (26) are shown in pink, light blue, yellow and navy blue stick model, respectively.

application against COVID-19. It is noteworthy that oral administration of tegobuvir make it more superior than remdesivir in treatment.

As a result of protease inhibitors, tipranavir (28) and atazanavir (26) as anti-HIV approved agents and simeprevir (32) and asunaprevir (34) applied for HCV treatment, manifested hopeful features of binding to the structure of the most important COVID-19 protease. Recently, atazanavir is one of the drug choices in COVID-19 treatment. Finally, we concluded that compound **(45)** and tipranavir **(28)** can form a stable complex with binding pocket of 3Clpro in silico. However, tipranavir with the well-known safety profile may have a bright future in treatment of the present COVID-19 disease (Table 6).

Pharmacophoric mapping is a good approach toward development of drugs in the shortest possible time and with limited resources compared to the conventional



Figure 7. Interaction profile of the best-docked poses of 3Clpro inhibitors. (A) Compound (45), (B) Tipranavir (28), (C) Compound (44) and (D) Atazanavir (26).

methods. Utilizing pharmacophore queries in large datasets to find new structures was of critical importance in the last decade (Haji Agha Bozorgi & Zarghi, 2014). By using pharmacophoric features of inhibitors against special targets, one can recognize the importance of each group and interactions between them and the active site in an enzyme structure.

Pharmacophoric map of RdRp inhibitors showed that HY groups (they can be aromatic rings or other ones) play a vital role in their binding properties to this enzyme. Having HBA groups, improve the interaction between inhibitors and active site of the enzyme (Yao et al., 2018; Yin et al., 2020).

Study of the pharmacophoric map of 3Clpro inhibitors revealed that hydrophobic/aromatic regions also have noticeable effect on these class of compounds. Surprisingly, like RdRp inhibitors, HBA/HBD groups can ameliorate their interactions and should be considered as crucial features in the enzyme inhibition (Macchiagodena et al., 2020).

5. Conclusion

In this study, docking procedure was successfully applied to recognize the potential inhibitors of two key enzymes in the life cycle of the SARS-CoV-2, RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp) and corona virus protease (3Clpro). Docking results showed that tegobuvir (compound number **19**) and sofosbuvir (compound number **8**) as well as remdesivir (compound number **5**) can be potential inhibitors for RdRp enzyme, as a non-nucleoside and nucleotide inhibitors, respectively. Oral administration of tegobuvir make it more superior than remdesivir in treatment though. For inhibition of protease an under-construction molecule with compound



Figure 8. Pharmacophoric maps of the SARS-CoV-2 inhibitors. (A) RdRp inhibitors (B) 3Clpro/Mpro inhibitors with their inter-feature distances. Orange: ring aromatic (RA), Green: Hydrophobic centroid (HY), Blue: H-bond acceptor (HBA), Violet: H-bond donor (HBD), Gray: H-bond donor/acceptor. (HBD/HBA).

| Table 5. | The | characteristics | of | approved | agents | inhibiting | RdRp. |
|----------|-----|-----------------|----|----------|--------|------------|-------|
| | | | | | | | |

| RdRp inhibitors | Brand name | Year of approval | Indication | EC ₅₀ | E total (kcal/mol) | Ref. |
|-----------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------|---|------------------------------------|-----------------------|--|
| Ribavirin | Copegus, Rebetol, Ribasphere | 1998 (first FDA-approved) | Hepatitis C | ~ 0.6 -5.5 μM | -207.35 | (Sidwell et al., 2005) |
| Sofosbuvir | Sovaldi | 2013 | Chronic Hepatitis C | 14-110 nM | -396.81 | (Han et al., 2019) |
| Favipiravir | Avigan | approved in Japan in 2014 | Influenza A/B/C | 0.01-3.53 μM | -197.46 | (Furuta et al., 2017) |
| Remdesivir | GS-5734 | - | Ebola virus Marburg, Yellow Fever and Zika viruse infections | 0.003-0.79 μM (12 nM for Ebola) | -388.48 | (Lo et al., 2017; McMullan et al., 2019) |

number **45** and FDA-approved agent tipranavir (compound number **28**) are good enough to be investigated more precisely in COVID-19 treatment. In the next step of present

study, pharmacophoric maps of two vital COVD-19 enzymes were achieved using a large compound database obtained through literature mining. Thanks to virtual drug design

| Table 6. The characterist | ics of FDA-approved agents inhib. | iting proteases of RNA-viruses. | | | | |
|---------------------------------|--|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------------|-----------------------|------------|--------------------------|
| | | | | | E total | |
| Protease inhibitors | Brand name | Year of FDA approval | Indication | EC ₅₀ | (kcal/mol) | Ref. |
| Niclosamide | Niclocide | 1982 | Tapeworm infestations | 0.1-2 µM | -216.29 | (Wei et al., 2018; |
| | | | | | | Xu et al., 2020) |
| Saquinavir | Invirase Fortovase | 1995 | HIV infection | 37.7 nM | -378.3 | (Lv et al., 2015) |
| Ritonavir | Norvir | 1996 | HIV infection | \sim 25 nM | -370.98 | (Lv et al., 2015) |
| Indinavir | Crixivan | 1996 | HIV infection | 5.5 nM | -386.65 | (Lv et al., 2015) |
| Nelfinavir | Viracept | 1997 | HIV infection | 30–60 nM | -344.54 | (Lv et al., 2015) |
| Amprenavir | Agenerase | 1999 | HIV infection | 12–80 nM | -359.88 | (Lv et al., 2015) |
| Lopinavir | Lopinavir + ritonavir = kaletra a | 2000 | HIV infection | \sim 17 nM | -390.02 | (Lv et al., 2015) |
| Nitazoxanide | Alinia | 2002 | Giardia lamblia and | $\sim $ 0.1-3 μM | -246.48 | (Jasenosky et al., 2019; |
| | | | Ebola virus infection | | | Korba et al., 2008; |
| | | | | | | Zhou et al., 2019) |
| Fosamprenavir | Lexiva Telzir | 2003 | HIV infection | Prodrug of amprenavir | -331.99 | (Lv et al., 2015) |
| Atazanavir | Reyataz | 2003 | HIV infection | 2.6–5.3 nM | -402.33 | (Lv et al., 2015) |
| Tipranavir | Aptivus | 2005 | HIV infection | 30–70 nM | -415.27 | (Lv et al., 2015) |
| Darunavir | Prezista | 2006 | HIV infection | 1–2 nM | -336.10 | (Lv et al., 2015) |
| Boceprevir | Victrelis | 2011 | HCV infection | $\sim 200\mathrm{nM}$ | -356.67 | (Malcolm et al., 2006) |
| Simeprevir | Olysio | 2013 | HCV infection | 8-28 nM | -383.69 | (Izquierdo et al., 2014) |
| Asunaprevir | Sunvepra (Japan) | 2014 | HCV infection | 1-4 nM | -395.87 | (McPhee et al., 2012) |
| a)Lopinavir $+$ ritonavir $=$ k | caletra $^{\circledast}$ with EC $_{50}$ value of 17.1 μ l | M and 8 µM against SARS-CoV and I | MERS-CoV, respectively (Eynde, 2020) | | | |

utilities like the above procedures, potential candidates for treatment of COVID-19 disease are reported. However, future clinical studies in this area would be beneficial to validate these findings.

Disclosure statement

The authors declare no conflict of interest, financial or otherwise.

Authors' contributions

The concept and experimental research plan was designed by Hajiagha Bozorgi A and Mosayebnia M. The valuable collaboration of Prof. Farzad Kobarfard helped us to elaborate on our research ideas. The project administration and data analysis were done by Rezaeianpour R and Hajiagha Bozorgi A. The corresponding author is Dr. Mona Mosayebnia who has written, reviewed and edited this manuscript. All the authors approve the final manuscript for publication.

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