

# Supplementary Note 2:

## Molecular Mechanism of Action (module II)

In this note we briefly summarize the utilized molecular mechanism of action (MMOA) model from<sup>1</sup> and explain its parameterizations. We will use this model to estimate inhibition of reverse transcription by NRTIs (denoted  $\varepsilon$ ) and inhibition of cell infection (denoted by  $\eta$ ), taking intracellularly active NRTI-TP concentrations as input (module I, Supplementary Note 1). Parameter  $\eta$  will be used to assess inhibition of systemic infection after virus exposure, as outlined in **Supplementary Note 3** (module III). Furthermore, we explain how to infer the effect of NRTI combinations and the fitness of mutant viruses.

### SN2 Molecular Mechanism of Action (MMOA) for NRTIs

Activated NRTIs-triphosphates inhibit the crucial step of converting viral genomic RNA into double stranded DNA, before the latter is integrated into the host cellular DNA. Briefly, NRTI-TPs are analogs of endogenous deoxynucleotide triphosphates (dNTPs), which compete with the latter for incorporation into nascent DNA during reverse transcriptase mediated viral DNA polymerization. Because they lack a hydroxyl group, they act as ‘chain terminators’ after becoming incorporated into the primer, preventing its elongation by the next incoming nucleotide. Thus, NRTI-TP incorporation brings reverse transcription to a halt, unless the inhibitor becomes excised from the terminated primer. The MMOA model<sup>1</sup> regards the direct effect of NRTI-TPs in terms of a prolongation of the time required to form a reverse transcript. This ‘time’ can then be used to compute the  $IC_{50}$  value for inhibition of host cell infection. This is because the propensity that essential components of the virus become degraded intracellularly increases with the time that the virus resides in its fragile state before proviral integration.

#### SN2.1 Single NRTIs

The residual reverse transcription in the presence of activated (tri-phosphorylated) nucleoside analogs ( $1 - \varepsilon(I)$ ) is expressed as<sup>1</sup>:

$$1 - \varepsilon(I) = \frac{T_{0 \rightarrow N}(\emptyset)}{T_{0 \rightarrow N}(I)} \quad (\text{inhibition by NRTI-TP}), \quad (\text{SN2.1})$$

where  $T_{0 \rightarrow N}(\emptyset)$  and  $T_{0 \rightarrow N}(I)$  denote the expected time to finalize reverse transcription in the absence of drugs ‘ $\emptyset$ ’ and in the presence of active nucleoside analogs triphosphates ‘ $I$ ’ respectively. It has been shown in<sup>2</sup> that the time required for DNA synthesis/polymerization exceeds the other processes involved in reverse transcription (e.g. strand transfer and initiation). Furthermore, there is an excess of RT enzymes ( $\approx 250^{3,4}$ ) in comparison to RNA template (typically a single dimeric RNA), such that dissociation and association of RT to the template:primer complex can be neglected. All in all this means that  $T_{0 \rightarrow N}$  approximates the time required for the DNA polymerization process (i.e. the time required for going from the ‘empty’ primer to the full polymerization product  $0 \rightarrow N$ ). In order to assess RT inhibition by NRTI-TPs, we will therefore focus on RT-induced polymerization in the presence and absence of inhibitors.

Note, that one can also assess the inhibition of a mutant virus ‘mut’ by the drug  $I$ , and the fitness  $f$  of a mutant (in the absence of drugs), relative to the wild type ‘wt’.

$$1 - \varepsilon(I, \text{mut}) = \frac{T_{0 \rightarrow N}(\emptyset, \text{mut})}{T_{0 \rightarrow N}(I, \text{mut})} \quad (\text{inhibition of mutant}), \quad (\text{SN2.2})$$

$$v(\text{mut}) = \frac{T_{0 \rightarrow N}(\emptyset, \text{wt})}{T_{0 \rightarrow N}(\emptyset, \text{mut})} \quad (\text{fitness of mutant}). \quad (\text{SN2.3})$$

In order to compute  $T_{0 \rightarrow N}$ , we interpret the polymerization process as a Markov Jump Process, where we would like to compute the *mean first hitting times*,  $T_{0 \rightarrow N}$ , i.e. the time from initialization of the polymerization process ‘0’ to full length viral DNA ‘ $N$ ’. We can write (linearity of the expectation value)

$$T_{0 \rightarrow N} = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} T_{i \rightarrow i+1}. \quad (\text{SN2.4})$$

38 where  $i$  refers to the length of the primer and  $T_{i \rightarrow i+1}$  denotes the expected time to extend the primer by one nu-  
 39 cleotide. We consider four basic reactions: (i) The primer may be shortened by one nucleotide during the py-  
 40 rophosphorolysis reaction  $\text{RT/T:P}^i \rightarrow \text{RT/T:P}^{i-1}$ . (ii) The primer may be extended by one base during the poly-  
 41 merase reaction  $\text{RT/T:P}^i \rightarrow \text{RT/T:P}^{i+1}$ , (iii) the NRTI-TP may be incorporated and the primer blocked  $\text{RT/T:P}^i \rightarrow$   
 42  $\text{RT/T:P}^{i+1}$  and (iv) the NRTI may be excised from the blocked primer  $\text{RT/T:P}^{i+1} \rightarrow \text{RT/T:P}^i$ . Therefore (see<sup>1</sup> for  
 43 derivation) we have

$$T_{i \rightarrow i+1} = \left( \tau_{i+1} \cdot \rho_{i \rightarrow i+1} + \tau_i + \rho_{i \rightarrow i-1} T_{i-1 \rightarrow i} \right) \frac{1}{\rho_{i \rightarrow i+1}}. \quad (\text{SN2.5})$$

44 where  $\tau_i, \tau_{i+1}$  are the waiting times in states  $i$  and  $i+1$  (the NRTI-blocked state) respectively and  $\rho_{i \rightarrow i+1}, \rho_{i \rightarrow i-1}$  are  
 45 the probabilities to jump from state  $i$  to state  $i+1$  and to state  $i-1$  respectively. The parameter  $\rho_{i \rightarrow i+1}$  denotes  
 46 the probability that the chain of length  $i$  gets terminated by incorporation of a nucleoside analog (state  $i+1$ ). The  
 47 waiting times  $\tau$  and jump-probabilities  $\rho$  are defined as follows:

$$\tau_i = \frac{1}{r_{\text{pol}}(i+1) + r_{\text{pyro}}(i) + r_{\text{term}}(i+1)}, \quad \tau_{i+1} = \frac{1}{r_{\text{exc}}(i+1)}, \quad (\text{SN2.6})$$

$$\rho_{i \rightarrow i+1} = r_{\text{pol}}(i+1) \cdot \tau_i, \quad \rho_{i \rightarrow i-1} = r_{\text{pyro}}(i) \cdot \tau_i, \quad \rho_{i \rightarrow i+1} = r_{\text{term}}(i+1) \cdot \tau_i,$$

48 where  $r_{\text{pol}}(i+1)$  and  $r_{\text{term}}(i+1)$  denote the polymerase- and chain terminating reactions (attachment of the next  
 49 incoming nucleoside or its analog), which depend on the efficacy of incorporation of the respective types of nu-  
 50 cleotides (deoxyadenosine, -thymidine, -guanine or -cytosine triphosphate) or their respective analogs at position  
 51  $i+1$  in the primer. The parameter  $r_{\text{exc}}(i+1)$  denotes the rate of release (excision reaction) of a primer that has been  
 52 terminated at position  $i+1$  by an NRTI-TP. The parameter  $r_{\text{pyro}}(i)$  denotes the pyrophosphorolysis reaction, i.e. the  
 53 rate at which a nucleoside is removed from the end of the primer. Note, that  $\tau$  and  $\rho$  depend on the sequence context  
 54 because the rates of nucleoside attachment and -removal depend on the types of nucleotides (and -analogs) to be  
 55 incorporated and -removed respectively. Using eq. (SN2.4), one can compute  $T_{0 \rightarrow N}$  recursively given recursion  
 56 start

$$T_{0 \rightarrow 1} = \left( \tau_{\bar{1}} \cdot \rho_{0 \rightarrow \bar{1}} + \tau_0 \right) \frac{1}{\rho_{0 \rightarrow 1}}, \quad (\text{SN2.7})$$

57 with  $\tau_0 = \frac{1}{r_{\text{pol}}(1) + r_{\text{term}}(1)}$ ,  $\tau_{\bar{1}} = \frac{1}{r_{\text{exc}}(1)}$  and  $\rho_{0 \rightarrow 1} = r_{\text{pol}}(1) \cdot \tau_0$ ,  $\rho_{0 \rightarrow \bar{1}} = r_{\text{term}}(1) \cdot \tau_0$ . The polymerization rates  $r_{\text{pol}}, r_{\text{term}}$   
 58 are defined in terms of mass-action kinetics. I.e. in the presence (left) and absence (right) of inhibitors we have

$$r_{\text{term}}(I) = \frac{k_{\text{term}} \cdot [I]}{K_{D,I} \left( 1 + \frac{[\text{dNTP}]}{K_{D,\text{dNTP}}} \right) + [I]}, \quad r_{\text{term}}(\emptyset) = 0, \quad (\text{SN2.8})$$

$$r_{\text{pol}}(I) = \frac{k_{\text{pol}} \cdot [\text{dNTP}]}{K_{D,\text{dNTP}} \left( 1 + \frac{[I]}{K_{D,I}} \right) + [\text{dNTP}]}, \quad r_{\text{pol}}(\emptyset) = \frac{k_{\text{pol}} \cdot [\text{dNTP}]}{K_{D,\text{dNTP}} + [\text{dNTP}]}. \quad (\text{SN2.9})$$

59 Where  $k_{\text{term}}, k_{\text{pol}}, K_{D,I}$  and  $K_{D,\text{dNTP}}$  denote the catalytic rate constants for incorporation of the NRTI-TP vs. the  
 60 dNTP and the respective dissociation constants of the NRTI-TP and dNTP to the reverse transcriptase respectively,  
 61 which are compiled in Table SN2.1. Concentrations of endogenous dNTPs in HIV-1 target cells (here we modelled  
 62 resting CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cells, which make up the majority of HIV-1 target cells) are stated in the caption of Table SN2.1.  
 63 The rate of NRTI excision was set to  $r_{\text{exc}} = 0.0016 \text{ (s}^{-1}\text{)}$  for thymidine and adenosine analogs (AZT, D4T, TDF) and  
 64 to  $r_{\text{exc}} = 0.00053 \text{ (s}^{-1}\text{)}$  for guanine and cytosine analogs (ABC, 3TC & FTC-TP) respectively and  $r_{\text{pyro}} = 0.000898$   
 65  $\text{(s}^{-1}\text{)}$  for all incorporated endogenous dNTPs<sup>1</sup>.

66 The dose response curve for eq. (SN2.1) has the shape of the standard Emax-model with slope coefficient 1 (see  
 67 von Kleist et al.<sup>1</sup>), which is in line with observations by Shen et al.<sup>5</sup> for this inhibitor class.

### 68 SN2.1.1 Residual cell infection

69 If the virus does not succeed to reverse-transcribe its genome in time, the virus will eventually be cleared intracel-  
 70 lularly. In the following, we want to assess the relative probability that reverse transcription finishes in the presence

of NRTIs, before the virus is cleared. The derivations and scaling is outlined in von Kleist et al.<sup>1</sup>, Supplementary Text S1. We get

$$1 - \eta(I) = \frac{1}{\rho_{0,RT} + \frac{1 - \rho_{0,RT}}{1 - \varepsilon(I)}}, \quad (\text{SN2.10})$$

with  $1 - \eta(I) = \rho_{I,RT} / \rho_{0,RT}$  denotes the relative probability to succeed with reverse transcription before the virus is cleared in the presence of inhibitors  $I$  and  $\rho_{0,RT} = 0.5^6$  is the probability to succeed with reverse transcription in the absence of inhibitors.

The fitness of the mutant with regard to target cell infection in the absence of treatment can be computed accordingly:

$$f(\text{mut}) = \frac{1}{\rho_{0,RT} + \frac{1 - \rho_{0,RT}}{v(\text{mut})}}, \quad (\text{SN2.11})$$

### SN2.1.2 MMOA parameterization

The MMOA model requires kinetic parameters for the incorporation and removal of NRTI-TP and dNTP respectively, as well as typical concentrations of dNTPs in HIV-1 target cells. The kinetic parameters can be derived from pre-steady state kinetic *in vitro* experiments and are compiled below. For all simulations we used parameters for DNA-dependent polymerization of a heteromeric random template of length 10000nt. For all simulations we used dNTP concentrations in resting CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cells, since they represent the most relevant HIV-1 target cell compartment. Concentrations of endogenous dNTPs in other HIV-1 target cells can be measured *ex vivo* and are compiled in e.g. Smith et al<sup>7</sup>.

	WT			M184V		K65R		K65R+M184V		ref
	$K_D$ [ $\mu\text{M}$ ]	$k_{\text{pol}}$ [ $\text{s}^{-1}$ ]	ref.	fold change w.r.t wild type						
				$K_D$	$k_{\text{pol}}$	$K_D$	$k_{\text{pol}}$	$K_D$	$k_{\text{pol}}$	
dATP	7.8	44.8	8,9,10	2.4	0.66	0.93	0.23	4.9	0.4	11,9,12,13
dTTP	15.3	15.6	9,10,14,15	3.5	1.08	0.57	0.33	1.76	0.77	11,9,13,15
dCTP	18.25	10.2	10,16,17,18	2.66	1.3	1.5	0.62	2.4	0.78	11,9,12,13,18
dGTP	10.5	20	19,20	1.75	1.5	1.65	0.37	4.7	1.1	11,19,21,22,23
3TC-TP	26.83	0.038	16,18,11	35	0.55	0.77	0.081	17.9	0.035	11,18
FTC-TP	19	0.0563	18,24	35*	0.55*	1.59	0.128	1	0.016	18
TFV-DP	40.5	28	8,11	1.3	0.98	0.78	0.046	2.87	0.14	11,12
ABC-TP	21	1	21	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
AZT-TP	7.15	1.9	10,14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
D4T-TP	34.5	13.4	15,25	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table SN2.1: **Micro-kinetic parameters.** Parameters related to the wild type virus are stated in absolute units, whereas parameters related to mutant viruses are stated in terms of a fold change with respect to the wild type parameter. The reported values are for DNA-dependent polymerization.  $r_{\text{exc}}$  in resting CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cells for adenosine and thymidine analogs was set to 0.0016 [1/s], whereas the value for guanine and cytosine analogs was fixed to 0.00053 [1/s]. The intracellular concentration for dATP, dTTP, dCTP and dGTP in the resting CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cells are 1.7-, 1.5-, 1.9- and 1.7-  $\mu\text{M}$  respectively<sup>7</sup>. \* For FTC, we assumed that the fold effect was identical to that of 3TC.

### SN2.2 Multiple NRTIs

NRTIs, which are analogs of same nucleotide (e.g. 3TC + FTC) are not recommended for medication, since they may compete for incorporation and intracellular activation (by phosphorylation). We will focus on NRTIs, which are analogs of different nucleotides, specifically tenofovir-diphosphate (a deoxyadenosine triphosphate dATP analog) combined with either emtricitabine-triphosphate, or lamivudine-triphosphate (both deoxycytosine triphosphate dCTP analogs). We will assume that the micro-kinetic parameters of the MMOA model (catalytic rate, binding affinity, excision rate) are not affected by the presence of the respective other NRTI, and nor are the concentrations of endogenous dNTPs.

94 Under these assumptions, the combined efficacy of two inhibitors  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  on viral DNA polymerization can  
 95 readily be computed

$$1 - \varepsilon(I_1, I_2) = \frac{T_{0 \rightarrow N}(\emptyset)}{T_{0 \rightarrow N}(I_1, I_2)} \quad (\text{SN2.12})$$

96 where the term  $T_{0 \rightarrow N}(I_1, I_2)$  is the time required to complete viral DNA polymerization in presence of both in-  
 97 hibitors, which can be computed by integrating eqs. (SN2.4)–(SN2.9).

### 98 **SN2.2.1 Residual cell infection**

99 Finally, the residual cell infection in the presence of inhibitors  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  ( $1 - \eta(I_1, I_2)$ ) can be computed:

$$1 - \eta(I_1, I_2) = \frac{1}{\rho_{\phi, \text{RT}} + \frac{1 - \rho_{\phi, \text{RT}}}{1 - \varepsilon(I_1, I_2)}} = \frac{1 - \varepsilon(I_1, I_2)}{1 - \rho_{\phi, \text{RT}} \cdot \varepsilon(I_1, I_2)}, \quad (\text{SN2.13})$$

100 where the term  $\rho_{\phi, \text{RT}} = 0.5^6$  is the probability to successfully complete reverse transcription before viral destruction  
 101 in the absence of NRTIs.

## References

- [1] Max von Kleist, Philipp Metzner, Roland Marquet, and Christof Schütte. HIV-1 polymerase inhibition by nucleoside analogs: cellular- and kinetic parameters of efficacy, susceptibility and resistance selection. *PLoS Comput Biol*, 8(1):e1002359, Jan 2012.
- [2] David C. Thomas, Yegor A. Voronin, Galina N. Nikolenko, Jianbo Chen, Wei-Shau Hu, and Vinay K. Pathak. Determination of the ex vivo rates of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 reverse transcription by using novel strand-specific amplification analysis. *J Virol*, 81(9):4798–4807, May 2007.
- [3] John A G. Briggs, Martha N. Simon, Ingolf Gross, Hans-Georg Kräusslich, Stephen D. Fuller, Volker M. Vogt, and Marc C. Johnson. The stoichiometry of Gag protein in HIV-1. *Nat Struct Mol Biol*, 11(7):672–675, Jul 2004.
- [4] Melissa Hill, Gilda Tachedjian, and Johnson Mak. The packaging and maturation of the HIV-1 Pol proteins. *Curr HIV Res*, 3(1):73–85, Jan 2005.
- [5] Lin Shen, Susan Peterson, Ahmad R. Sedaghat, Moira A. McMahon, Marc Callender, Haili Zhang, Yan Zhou, Eleanor Pitt, Karen S. Anderson, Edward P. Acosta, and Robert F. Siliciano. Dose-response curve slope sets class-specific limits on inhibitory potential of anti-HIV drugs. *Nat Med*, 14(7):762–766, Jul 2008.
- [6] Yan Zhou, Haili Zhang, Janet D. Siliciano, and Robert F. Siliciano. Kinetics of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 decay following entry into resting CD4+ T cells. *J Virol*, 79(4):2199–2210, Feb 2005.
- [7] Anthony James Smith and Walter Alvin Scott. The influence of natural substrates and inhibitors on the nucleotide-dependent excision activity of HIV-1 reverse transcriptase in the infected cell. *Curr Pharm Des*, 12(15):1827–1841, 2006.
- [8] Z. Suo and K. A. Johnson. Selective inhibition of HIV-1 reverse transcriptase by an antiviral inhibitor, (R)-9-(2-Phosphonylmethoxypropyl)adenine. *J Biol Chem*, 273(42):27250–27258, Oct 1998.
- [9] B. Selmi, J. Boretto, S. R. Sarfati, C. Guerreiro, and B. Canard. Mechanism-based suppression of dideoxynucleotide resistance by K65R human immunodeficiency virus reverse transcriptase using an alpha-boranophosphate nucleoside analogue. *J Biol Chem*, 276(51):48466–48472, Dec 2001.
- [10] R. Krebs, U. Immendorfer, S. H. Thrall, B. M. Wöhr, and R. S. Goody. Single-step kinetics of HIV-1 reverse transcriptase mutants responsible for virus resistance to nucleoside inhibitors zidovudine and 3-TC. *Biochemistry*, 36(33):10292–10300, Aug 1997.
- [11] Jérôme Deval, Kirsten L. White, Michael D. Miller, Neil T. Parkin, Jérôme Courcambeck, Philippe Halfon, Boulbaba Selmi, Joëlle Boretto, and Bruno Canard. Mechanistic basis for reduced viral and enzymatic fitness of HIV-1 reverse transcriptase containing both K65R and M184V mutations. *J Biol Chem*, 279(1):509–516, Jan 2004.
- [12] Antoine Frangeul, Cécile Bussetta, Jérôme Deval, Karine Barral, Karine Alvarez, and Bruno Canard. Gln151 of HIV-1 reverse transcriptase acts as a steric gate towards clinically relevant acyclic phosphonate nucleotide analogues. *Antivir Ther*, 13(1):115–124, 2008.
- [13] Jerome Deval, Boulbaba Selmi, Joelle Boretto, Marie Pierre Egloff, Catherine Guerreiro, Simon Sarfati, and Bruno Canard. The molecular mechanism of multidrug resistance by the Q151M human immunodeficiency virus type 1 reverse transcriptase and its suppression using alpha-boranophosphate nucleotide analogues. *J Biol Chem*, 277(44):42097–42104, Nov 2002.
- [14] S. G. Kerr and K. S. Anderson. Pre-steady-state kinetic characterization of wild type and 3'-azido-3'-deoxythymidine (AZT) resistant human immunodeficiency virus type 1 reverse transcriptase: implication of RNA directed DNA polymerization in the mechanism of AZT resistance. *Biochemistry*, 36(46):14064–14070, Nov 1997.

- 145 [15] Guangwei Yang, Jimin Wang, Yao Cheng, Ginger E. Dutschman, Hiromichi Tanaka, Masanori Baba, and  
146 Yung-Chi Cheng. Mechanism of inhibition of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 reverse transcriptase by  
147 a stavudine analogue, 4'-ethynyl stavudine triphosphate. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*, 52(6):2035–2042,  
148 Jun 2008.
- 149 [16] J. Y. Feng and K. S. Anderson. Mechanistic studies comparing the incorporation of (+) and (-) isomers of  
150 3TCTP by HIV-1 reverse transcriptase. *Biochemistry*, 38(1):55–63, Jan 1999.
- 151 [17] J. A. Vaccaro, H. A. Singh, and K. S. Anderson. Initiation of minus-strand DNA synthesis by human immun-  
152 odeficiency virus type 1 reverse transcriptase. *Biochemistry*, 38(48):15978–15985, Nov 1999.
- 153 [18] Joy Y. Feng, Florence T. Myrick, Nicolas A. Margot, Gilbert B. Mulamba, Laurence Rimsky, Katyna Borroto-  
154 Esoda, Boulbaba Selmi, and Bruno Canard. Virologic and enzymatic studies revealing the mechanism of  
155 K65R- and Q151M-associated HIV-1 drug resistance towards emtricitabine and lamivudine. *Nucleosides  
156 Nucleotides Nucleic Acids*, 25(1):89–107, 2006.
- 157 [19] Jerry L. Jeffrey, Joy Y. Feng, C C Richard Qi, Karen S. Anderson, and Phillip A. Furman. Dioxolane guano-  
158 sine 5'-triphosphate, an alternative substrate inhibitor of wild-type and mutant HIV-1 reverse transcriptase.  
159 steady state and pre-steady state kinetic analyses. *J Biol Chem*, 278(21):18971–18979, May 2003.
- 160 [20] Adrian S. Ray, Eisuke Murakami, Aravind Basavapathruni, Joseph A. Vaccaro, Dagny Ulrich, Chung K. Chu,  
161 Raymond F. Schinazi, and Karen S. Anderson. Probing the molecular mechanisms of AZT drug resistance  
162 mediated by HIV-1 reverse transcriptase using a transient kinetic analysis. *Biochemistry*, 42(29):8831–8841,  
163 Jul 2003.
- 164 [21] Adrian S. Ray, Aravind Basavapathruni, and Karen S. Anderson. Mechanistic studies to understand the pro-  
165 gressive development of resistance in human immunodeficiency virus type 1 reverse transcriptase to abacavir.  
166 *J Biol Chem*, 277(43):40479–40490, Oct 2002.
- 167 [22] Adrian S. Ray, Zhenjun Yang, Junxing Shi, Ann Hobbs, Raymond F. Schinazi, Chung K. Chu, and Karen S.  
168 Anderson. Insights into the molecular mechanism of inhibition and drug resistance for HIV-1 RT with car-  
169 bovir triphosphate. *Biochemistry*, 41(16):5150–5162, Apr 2002.
- 170 [23] Joy Y. Feng, Florence Myrick, Boulbaba Selmi, Jérôme Deval, Bruno Canard, and Katyna Borroto-Esoda. Ef-  
171 fects of HIV Q151M-associated multi-drug resistance mutations on the activities of (-)-beta-D-1',3'-dioxolan  
172 guanine. *Antiviral Res*, 66(2-3):153–158, Jun 2005.
- 173 [24] J. Y. Feng, E. Murakami, S. M. Zorca, A. A. Johnson, K. A. Johnson, R. F. Schinazi, P. A. Furman, and K. S.  
174 Anderson. Relationship between antiviral activity and host toxicity: Comparison of the incorporation efficien-  
175 cies of 2',3'-dideoxy-5-fluoro-3'-thiacytidine-triphosphate analogs by human immunodeficiency virus type 1  
176 reverse transcriptase and human mitochondrial DNA polymerase. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*,  
177 48(4):1300–1306, Mar 2004.
- 178 [25] B. Selmi, J. Boretto, J. M. Navarro, J. Sire, S. Longhi, C. Guerreiro, L. Mulard, S. Sarfati, and B. Canard.  
179 The valine-to-threonine 75 substitution in human immunodeficiency virus type 1 reverse transcriptase and its  
180 relation with stavudine resistance. *J Biol Chem*, 276(17):13965–13974, Apr 2001.