

High throughput *in silico* identification of novel phytochemical inhibitors for the master regulator of inflammation (TNF α)

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Abstract

The over expression of Tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF α) has been implicated in a variety of disease and is classified as a therapeutic target for inflammatory diseases (Crohn disease, psoriasis, psoriatic arthritis, rheumatoid arthritis). Commercially available therapeutics are biologics which are associated with several risks and limitations. Small molecule inhibitors and natural compounds (saponins) were identified by researchers as lead molecules against TNF α , however, they were often associated with high IC₅₀ values which can lead to their failure in clinical trials. This warrants research related to identification of better small molecule inhibitors by screening of large compound libraries. Recent developments have demonstrated power of natural compounds as safe therapeutics, hence, in this work, we have identified TNF α phytochemical inhibitors using high throughput *in silico* screening approaches of 6000 phytochemicals followed by 200 ns molecular dynamics simulations and relative binding free energy calculations. The work yielded potent hits that bind to TNF α at its dimer interface. The mechanism targeted was inhibition of oligomerization of TNF α upon phytochemical binding to restrict its interaction with TNF-R1 receptor. MD simulation analysis resulted in identification of two phytochemicals that showed stable protein-ligand conformations over time. The two compounds were triterpenoids: Momordicilin and Nimbolin A with relative binding energy- calculated by MM/PBSA to be -190.5 kJ/Mol and -188.03 kJ/Mol respectively. Therefore, through this work it is being suggested that these phytochemicals can be used for further *in vitro* analysis

to confirm their inhibitory action against TNF α or can be used as scaffolds to arrive at better drug candidates.

Key Words: Virtual screening, Docking, MD simulations, TNF α , Anti-inflammatory, Phytochemicals.

Introduction

Tumor necrosis factor α (TNF α), also known as cachectin, is a well-established therapeutic target for various inflammatory and autoimmune related diseases (Saddala et al., 2019). TNF α is a 25 kDa transmembrane protein and 17 kDa when secreted. The autoimmune diseases related to unregulated TNF α activity include inflammatory bowel disease, diabetes, rheumatoid arthritis, systemic sclerosis, systemic lupus erythematosus, multiple sclerosis, diabetes, asthma, ankylosing spondylitis, cancer and AIDS (Idriss et al., 2000; Brightling et al., 2008). The pleiotropic cytokine TNF α is produced by macrophages and by several other proinflammatory cells, including monocytes, dendritic cells, B cells, CD4⁺ cells, neutrophils, mast cells and eosinophils, and the structural cells (Loetscher et al., 1990). The signalling pathway TNF α involves activation of the nuclear factor κ B, which interacts with the DNA to increase transcription of *IL1B*, *IL6*, *IL8*, and TNF α itself (Brightling et al., 2008). It is thus clear that inhibition of TNF α activity will benefit TNF α mediated diseases.

The binding of TNF α trimer to its receptors effects the activation of transcription factors related to cell proliferation, differentiation, cell survival or apoptosis (Cabal-Hierro et al., 2012). A series of synthetic antibodies (infliximab, etanercept, adalimumab, certolizumab and golimumab) have been developed for the treatment of cancer and autoimmunity (Tracey et al., 2008; Caminero et al., 2011). These biologics are often associated with high cost, poor clinical response, and requirement for intravenous administration. Small molecule inhibitors are relatively cheaper and can be taken orally. Small molecule therapies for TNF α have not led to approved products (O'Connell et al., 2019). Therefore, the identification of small molecules that can inhibit TNF α -regulated pathways is a promising research area that has lately received much attention. However, to this point, there have been no publications of small-molecule inhibitors past the proof-of-concept stage of targeting TNF α (Davis et al., 2013). Disruption of TNF α binding to TNFR1, has been the goal in the development of therapeutics (Douni & Kollias, 1998; Kontoyiannis et al., 2002).

Majority of the small molecules target TNF by down regulating its expression. TNF α binds to its receptor in a trimeric form, its potential inhibitors can be selected for preventing the formation of trimer by stabilizing the inactive dimeric form (Choi et al., 2010). A limited number of compounds is reported to directly disrupt this interaction (Melagraki et al., 2018). Suramin and its analogues were reported to inhibit TNF α interaction with its receptor by causing inhibition of oligomerization of the TNF α trimer with an IC₅₀ of 0.65 mM (Grazioli et al., 1992; Alzani et al., 1993). Compounds similar in structure with suramin: Trypan blue and Evans blue were reported with IC₅₀ of 0.75 and 1 mM, respectively. All the three compounds were reported to make contact of Arg103, Tyr119 and Lys98 in TNF α structure (Mancini et al., 1999). These residues have been reported to be important for trimer association (Mukai et al., 2010). Further development of small molecule inhibitor was by He et al. (2005) who synthesized SPD305 which inhibits TNF α interaction with its receptor with an IC₅₀ of 22 μ M measured by ELISA. SPD305 also led to deoligomerization of TNF α making 16 contacts with the interface residues including Tyr59 and Tyr119. These residues were reported to be important for trimer contact (He et al., 2005). However, this molecule is still a proof of concept and has not been perused further for *in vivo* testing and is related with high toxicity (Alexiou et al., 2014). This may be related to its high IC₅₀ value by ELISA (Davis et al. 2013). Progressive research led Buller et al. (2009) to identify compounds that inhibited TNF α by using DNA-encoded library. They identified analogues with dichlorobenzophenone moiety to inhibit TNF α at concentrations higher than 300 μ M (Buller et al., 2009). Natural compound inhibitors for TNF α were reported by Shah et al. (2009) from the methanolic extract of *Parthenium hysterophorus*. The compounds were saponins (terpenoid class of natural compounds). These class of compounds have been reported to have including anti-inflammatory activity (Recio et al., 1995). It was proposed that these compounds led to inhibition of TNF α by deoligomerization like the compound SPD305 (Shah et al., 2009). Choi and co-authors (2010) virtually screened a library of 240,000 compounds. The three top compounds all shared a pyrimidine-2,4,6-trione moiety and involved all involved hydrophobic interactions with Tyr59, Tyr119 and Tyr159. Further research led to the identification of hydrophobic natural products that could mimic the binding of SPD305 (Chan et al., 2010). Quinuclidine with an IC₅₀ ~50 μ M and indoloquinolizidine with an IC₅₀ ~ 10 μ M were reported as TNF inhibitors. Their binding was like SPD305 (Chan et al., 2010). Wua et al. (2010) reported that curcumin can bind to TNF α by molecular docking studies. Melagraki et al. (2018) identified two molecules T23 and T8 to be direct inhibitors of TNF α .

It is to be noted here that the potency of TNF for TNF receptor 1 (TNFR1) is picomolar range (O'Connell et al., 2019). The reported small molecules showed potential inhibitory activity with TNF α but they have high IC₅₀ values *in vitro*. This may lead to their failure in clinical trials. This warrants research related to identification of better small molecule inhibitors. Recent developments have demonstrated power of natural compounds as drugs (Reutlinger et al., 2014; Rodrigues et al., 2016; Basith et al., 2018; Lima et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2018). Inspired by this, in this work the disassembly of TNF α similar to that proposed by He et al. 2005 by phytochemicals were analysed by performing virtual screening of 6000 natural compounds from medicinal plants reported to have anti-inflammatory activities. This was followed by calculation of relative binding free energies of the top hits to identify the best phytochemical inhibitors.

Methodology

Virtual Screening of phytochemicals from medicinal plants

The crystal structure of TNF α (2az5) with resolution 2.1 Å was downloaded from RCSB PDB. The structure is with a small molecule inhibitor (SPD-305) which was reported to inhibit TNF α activity in biochemical and cell-based assays with median inhibitory concentrations of 22 and 4.6 micromolar, respectively (He et al., 2005). The ligand binding site of TNF α were predicted using the PDBsum server (Laskowski et al., 2008). The ligand binding site lies between chain A (Val91, Asn92, Leu93, Phe124) and chain B (His15, Val17, Ala18, Pro20, Arg32, Ala33, Asn34, Ala35, Tyr119, Phe144, Glu146, Ser147, Gly148, Gln149 and Val150). MGLTools-1.5.6 was used for the generation of grid file and the docking file parameters. Virtual screening of 6000 phytochemicals from medicinal plants, reported to be effective against inflammatory diseases, was performed using the Raccoon plug-in of Autodock 4.2.6. The configurations files generated from MGLTools-1.5.6 are incorporated in the Raccoon plug-in package. The virtual screening was run with 10 Lamarckian Genetic Algorithm (LGA) runs with the default parameters of Autodock 4.2.6. Phytochemicals with lowest binding energies (kcal/mol) were identified and subjected for re-docking for 100 LGA runs. The inhibitor obtained from the crystal structure (SPD305) was also docked as a control for 100 LGA runs. The docked complexes were visualized using BIOVIA Discovery Studio Visualiser (Dssault systems, 2020).

Toxicity analysis of top scoring phytochemicals by *in silico* approaches

Absorption, Distribution, Metabolism, Excretion (ADME) properties were calculated using SwissADME (Dianna et al., 2014, Dianna et al., 2016, Dianna et al., 2017). Toxicity profiles (T) were annotated using the vNN web server (Schyman et al., 2017). ADME/T associated properties of Gastro Intestinal absorption (GI), Blood Brain Barrier permeation (BBB), CYP inhibition, pharmacokinetic properties like Lipinski rule of 5 (Lipinski et al., 1997), PAINS (Baell et al., 2010) and Brenk (Brenk et al., 2008) and Lead likeness were calculated (Teague et al., 1999).

Molecular dynamics simulations and trajectory analysis

The top scoring phytochemicals obtained by virtual screening and the control inhibitor were analysed by all atom molecular dynamics (MD) simulations for 1 μ s (Table 1). All the simulations were carried out with Gromacs 2020.2 software package (Lindahl et al., 2020) with all atom AMBER99SB-ILDN force field. The force field parameters for the phytochemicals and the repurposed drugs were generated by ACPYPE (AnteChamber PYthon Parser interface) (Silva et al., 2012). Complex charges were neutralized with sodium and chloride ions. Simulation was conducted at 300 K under a pressure of 1 bar. Each system was minimized with 5,000 steps by steepest descent algorithm. Particle-Mesh-Ewald summation (PME) was used to calculate electrostatic interactions (Darden et al., 1993). In NVT and NPT ensembles the systems were equilibrated for 1 ns using position restraint simulations of 1000 kJ mol⁻¹ nm⁻². This was followed by a no restraint production run for 200 ns. Post-MD analyses included root mean square deviation (RMSD), root mean square fluctuations (RMSF), the radius of gyration (Rg) and hydrogen bond occupancy. PCA on C α atomic coordinates was performed using R Studio and Bio3d (Grant et al., 2006). The eigenvectors and eigenvalues and their projection along with the first two principal components were analysed (Al-Khafaji & Taskin Tok, 2020). It was assumed that a stable drug bound complex will undergo fewer dynamic fluctuations due to enhancement of rigidity of the drug bound site. Further, DCCM C α atomic coordinates was performed using the Bio3D package. Molecular Mechanics - Poisson Boltzmann Surface Area (MM-PBSA) was applied on snapshots obtained from MD trajectory to estimate the relative binding free energy ΔG_b using the GROMACS tool g_mmpbsa (Baker et al. 2001; Kumari et al. 2014).

Results

Virtual screening of phytochemicals for TNF α

KEGG pathway analysis shows that TNF α binds to two different receptors, TNFR1 and TNFR2, and activate caspase-mediated apoptosis, NF- κ B, activator protein-1, MAPK and ERK signalling and p13k-Akt signalling (Figure 1). Crystal structures TNF α have a high degree of anti-parallel β -sheet (Davis et al., 2013). The core consists of 4 β -strands and the quaternary structure is a homo-trimer (Davis et al., 2013). The inter-chain contact is formed by hydrophobic residues (Tyr119, Leu57 and Leu157). Hydrophobic residue interactions also exist between Tyr59, Tyr119 and Gly153 of one subunit and Phe124 of a neighbouring subunit. A salt bridge also exists between Lys11 of one subunit and Leu156 of another subunit (Eck et al., 1989). Therefore, these residues were considered as the binding site of TNF α . Docking grid was generated considering residues to be present in the binding pocket.

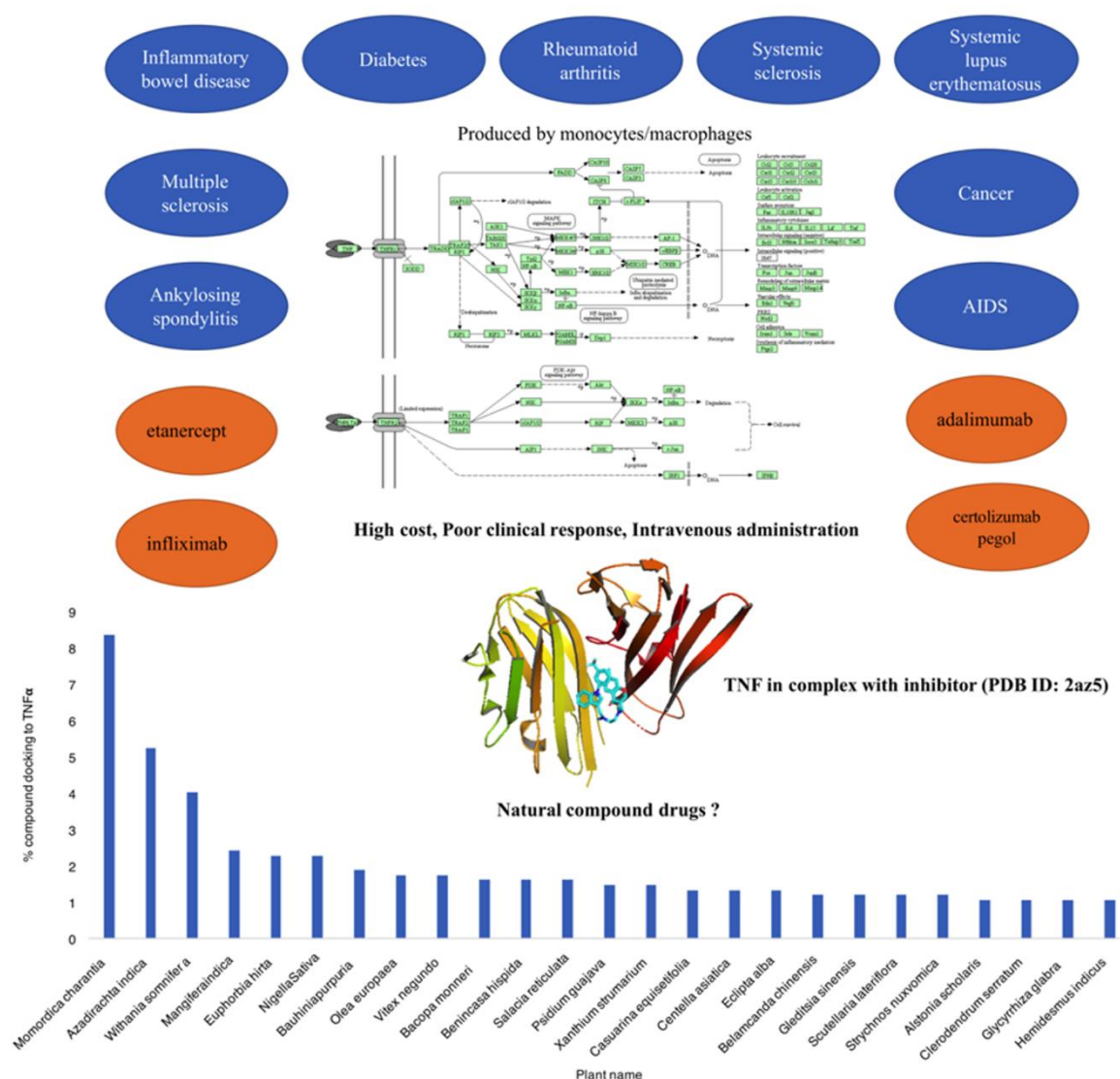
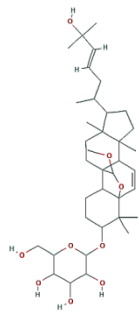


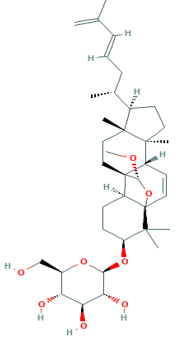
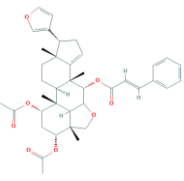
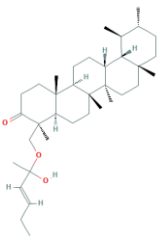
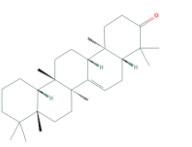
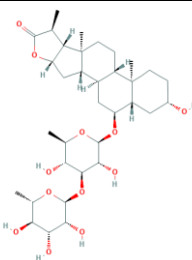
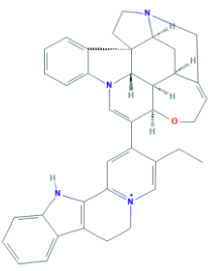
Figure 1: TNF α in inflammation related diseases. The signalling pathway was adapted from KEGG. The diseases associated have been illustrated in blue circles. The biologics available

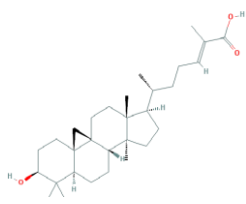
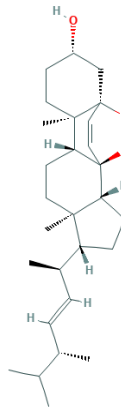
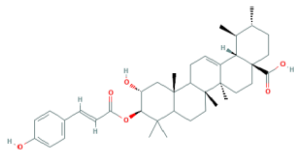
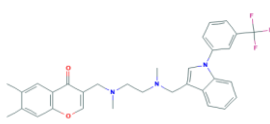
for TNF are illustrated in orange circle. The cartoon representation of the structure of TNF α in complex with a small molecule inhibitor (represented in cyan ball and stick) was obtained using PyMol molecular graphics tool. The bar graph depicts the % of compounds from the medicinal plants that docked to TNF α with docking score lesser than the bound control ligand obtained from RCSB PDB (PDB ID: 2az5).

A total of 6000 compounds were screened for TNF α . A total of 742 compounds showed lower docking score as compared to the control compound (-8.64 kJ/Mol). The medicinal plants to which these 742 compounds belong were quantified according to the percentage of hits obtained for their compounds (Figure 1A). It was interesting to observe that majority of the phytochemicals that were able to dock to TNF α binding site (8.35%) were from *Momordica charantia*. The other important medicinal plants whose >2% compounds docked to TNF were observed to be from *Azadirachta indica*, *Withania somnifera*, *Mangifera indica*, *Euphorbia hirta* and *Nigella sativa*. The top 10 scoring compounds with docking score < -10 kJ/Mol were from *Momordica charantia*, *Azadirachta indica*, *Strychnos nux-vomica*, *Bauhinia purpurea*, *Swertia chirayita*, *Solanum torvum* and *Mangifera indica* (Table 1).

Table 1: Top 10 phytochemicals docked to TNF α

Sl. No.	Compound Name	Score (kJ/Mol)	Source	2D structure	MRTD dose mg/day
1	Goyaglycoside-a	-11.7	<i>Momordica charantia</i>		99

2	Charantoside I	-11.55	<i>Momordica charantia</i>		94
3	Nimbolin A	-11.12	<i>Azadirachta indica</i>		195
4	Momordicilin	-11.06	<i>Momordica charantia</i>		109
5	Swertanone	-10.79	<i>Swertia chirayita</i>		183
6	Solanolactoside A	-10.66	<i>Solanum torvum</i>		79
7	Strychnoflavine	-10.65	<i>Strychnos nux-vomica</i>		71

8	Mangiferolic acid	-10.6	<i>Mangifera indica</i>		821
9	Ergosterol peroxide	-10.57	<i>Bauhinia purpurea</i>		29
10	Jacoumaric acid	-10.55	<i>Psidium guajava</i>		203
11	6,7-Dimethyl-3-[[methyl-[2-[methyl-[[1-[3-(trifluoromethyl)phenyl]indol-3-yl]methyl]amino]ethyl]amino]methyl]chromen-4-one	-8.64	Control from PDB		202

The docked complexes and the residues in TNF α interacting with the top four compounds and the control drug have been illustrated in Figure 2. The toxicity profiles calculated by vNN-ADMET have been presented in Appendix I. The top three compounds with good docking scores and following standard toxicity profile along with the control were submitted for MD simulation analysis production run of 200 ns. The significant

pharmacokinetic parameters for ADME/T associated properties of Gastro Intestinal absorption (GI), Blood Brain Barrier permeation (BBB), CYP inhibition, pharmacokinetic properties like Lipinski rule of 5, PAINS, Brenk and Lead likeness showed that these compounds were not toxic (Appendix I).

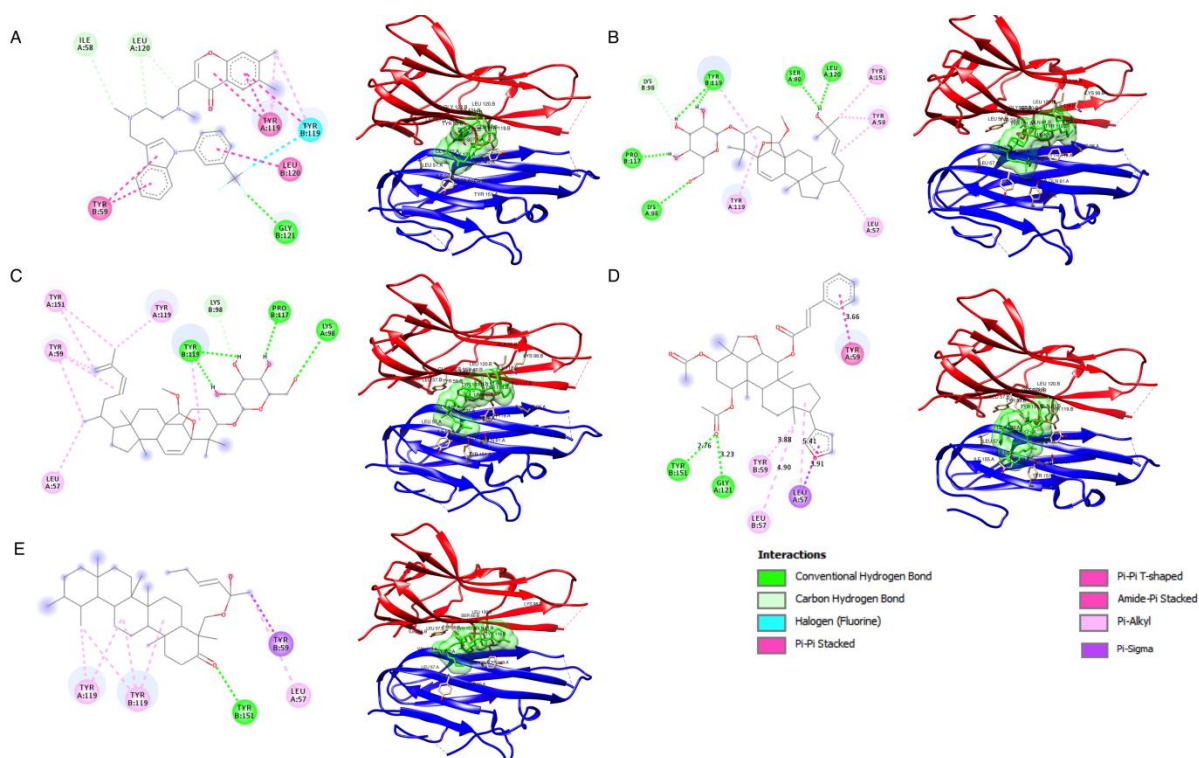


Figure 2: Docked complexes and residue interaction 2D image of phytochemicals and control drug with TNF α having lead likeness 3. A) Control, B) Goyaglycoside-a, C) Charantocside I, D) Nimbolin A, E) Momordicilin.

Analysis of Figure 2 has been presented in Table 2. The phytochemicals formed more hydrogen bonded interactions with residues of chain A and chain B in the TNF α structure in comparison to the control. Pi-alkyl and pi-pi stacking interactions were also observed to dominate the binding of the phytochemicals and the control drug to TNF α . The residues interacting with the phytochemicals and the control drug were Tyr119 B, Lys98 B, Pro117 B, Lys98 A, Ser60 A, Leu120 A, Tyr151 A, Tyr59 A, Leu57 A, Tyr 119 A, Tyr151 B, Gly121 A, Tyr59 B, Leu57 B, Gly121 B, Ile58 A, Leu 120 A, Tyr119 B, Tyr119 A and Leu120 B.

Table 2: Molecular interactions obtained after docking of phytochemicals and control drug with the homodimer of TNF α

H-bonds	Pi-Alkyl	Pi-Pi	Halogen
Goyaglycoside-a			
Tyr119 B	Tyr151 A	-	-
Lys98 B	Tyr59 A	-	-
Pro117 B	Leu57 A	-	-
Lys98 A	Tyr119 A	-	-
Ser60 A	-	-	-
Leu120 A	-	-	-
Charantoside I			
Tyr119 B	Tyr151 A	-	-
Pro117 B	Tyr59 A	-	-
Lys98 A	Leu57 A	-	-
Lys98 B	Tyr119 A	-	-
Nimbolin A			
Tyr151 B	Tyr59 B	Leu57 A	-
Gly121 A	Leu57 B	Tyr59 A	-
Momordicilin			
Tyr151 B	Tyr59 B	-	-
-	Tyr119 A	-	-
-	Tyr119 B	-	-
-	Leu57 A	-	-
Control			
Gly121 B	Tyr119 B	Tyr119 A	Tyr119B
Ile 58 A	-	Tyr119 B	-
Leu 120 A	-	Leu120 B	-
-	-	Tyr59 B	-

- Not found

Molecular Dynamics Simulation trajectory analysis

The 200 ns trajectory analysis of the top four docked complexes and the control. Figure 3A illustrates stable RMSD over 200 ns for all the trajectories (average: 0.30 nm). The

average RMSD values for the phytochemicals were Goyaglycoside-a: 0.26 nm, Nimbolin A: 0.24 nm, Charantoside I: 0.28 nm, Momordicilin: 0.29 nm and the control: 0.27. This shows a stable binding profile of the phytochemicals and the control compound with TNF α .

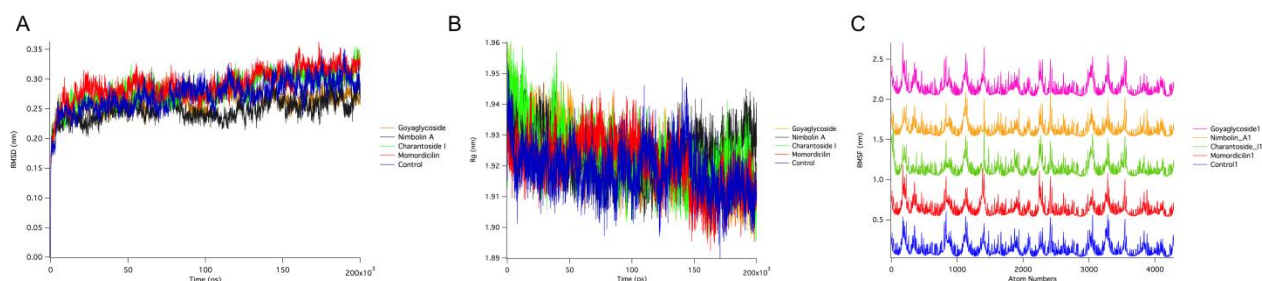


Figure 3: 200 ns trajectory analysis of phytochemicals and control drug. A) RMSD, B) Rg, C) RMSF.

Figure 3B is a plot of radius of gyration for the trajectories over 200 ns. It revealed similar structural compactness of all the phytochemicals and the control (average- 1.92 nm). Interesting observations were made from the RMSF plot (Figure 3C). The average RMSF of the phytochemical complexes were like that of the control TNF complex (average: 0.14 nm). Only the complex with Nimbolin A showed a slightly lower RMSF (average: 0.12 nm). Analysis of the RMSF of the interface residues of chain A and chain B observed to interact with the phytochemicals and the control drug post docking has been presented in Table 3 and as bar chart in Figure 4.

Table 3: RMSF of C α of residues interacting with the phytochemicals and the control

Residues	Chain	Atom Number	Goyaglycoside-a RMSF (nm)	Nimbolin A RMSF (nm)	Charantoside I RMSF (nm)	Momordicilin RMSF (nm)	Control RMSF (nm)
Leu 57	A	647-665	0.15	0.10	0.13	0.12	0.12
Ile58	A	666-684	0.10	0.12	0.11	0.10	0.13
Tyr 59	A	685-703	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.11	0.11
Lys98	A	1299-1320	0.14	0.11	0.11	0.11	0.11
Tyr119	A	1463-1483	0.14	0.10	0.19	0.08	0.17

Tyr151	A	1955-1975	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.08	0.08
Gly153	A	1996-2002	0.06	0.05	0.05	0.06	0.06
Leu157	A	2056-2070	0.18	0.18	0.15	0.15	0.14
Leu57	B	2799-2817	0.13	0.11	0.13	0.09	0.12
Tyr59	B	2840-2957	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07
Lys98	B	3451-3472	0.12	0.11	0.12	0.11	0.11
Pro117	B	3645-3658	0.07	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06
Tyr119	B	3678-3698	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.06
Leu120	B	3699-3717	0.07	0.08	0.07	0.08	0.08
Gly121	B	3718-3724	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.05	0.06
Tyr151	B	4170-4188	0.05	0.04	0.05	0.05	0.05

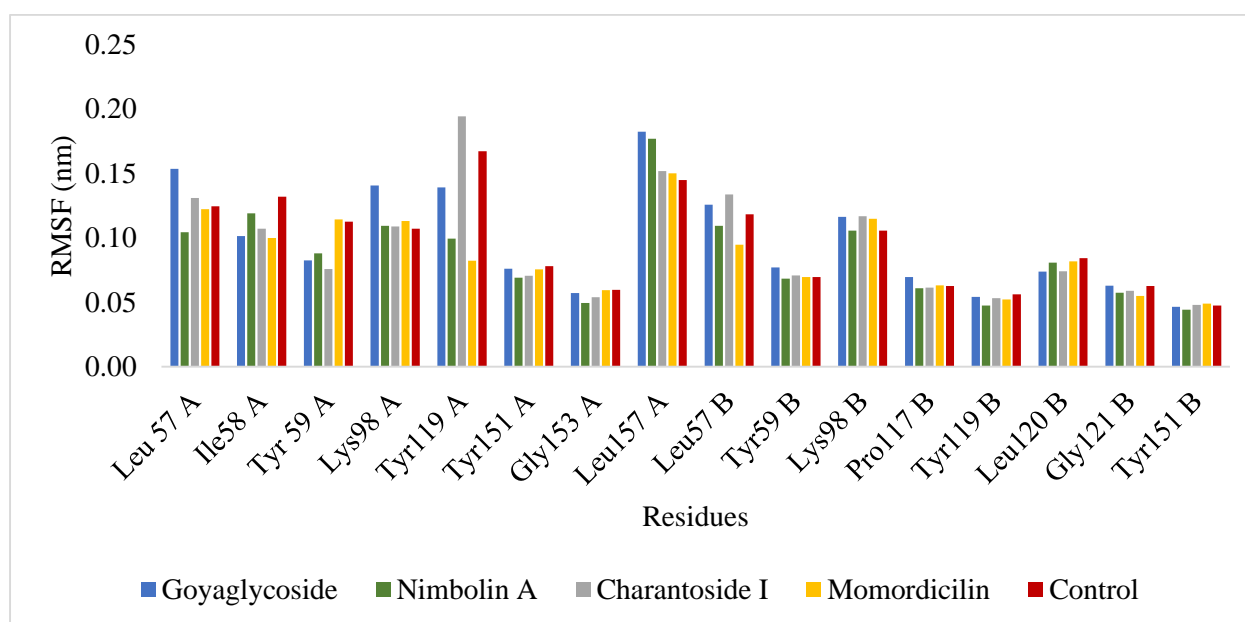


Figure 4: RMSF of residues interacting with the phytochemicals and the control.

From Table 3 and Figure 4 it can be observed that binding of Goyaglycoside-a leads to reduction in fluctuation of residue Tyr 59 A compared to the other phytochemicals and the control. Nimbolin A results in reduction of fluctuation of most of the interface residues. Reduction in fluctuation in Tyr119 A was significant. Binding of Charantoside I do not show any significant reduction in fluctuation of any residues. Momordicilin fares well in overall reduction in fluctuation of Tyr119. It can be said here that as these residues are important for

oligomerization, the binding of these phytochemicals that reduces its fluctuation, lower than the control inhibitor, may interfere with TNF α oligomerization.

Further, hydrogen bond analysis over 200 ns trajectories revealed the residues with highest hydrogen bond occupancies were Tyr151 for the control inhibitor (24% occupancy), Gly121 for Goyaglycoside-a (36%) and Charantoside I (13%), Tyr59 for Nimbolin A (24.4%) and Momordicilin (24.4%). Tyr59, Tyr119 hydrogen bond occupancy was calculated to be 8-23%. Tyr119, Gly121 were observed to be the residues involved in hydrogen bonds with the phytochemicals and the control inhibitor. Among the phytochemicals, Momordicilin was observed to possess higher hydrogen bond occupancies over the simulation time frame. Therefore, it can be expected that Momordicilin and TNF α complex will be more stable compared to the control and the other phytochemicals.

PCA and DCCM analysis of the trajectories

To extract the structural variations in detail upon the binding of the phytochemicals and the repurposed drug, principal component analysis (PCA) on the C α atom was performed (Figure 5). The first five eigen vectors captured around ~50% of the motions. The residue fluctuations were comparable to the control complex. Interestingly Nimbolin A showed lowering of fluctuations in comparison to the control and the other phytochemical complexes. This corroborates with the RMSF values observed for the residues in the interface of chain A and B (Figure 4). Furthermore, to understand the effect of phytochemicals binding on the internal dynamics of TNF α , the dynamic cross-correlation matrix was calculated by using the coordinates of C α atoms from the trajectories. DCCM analysis (Figure 6) showed that overall correlation increased, and anti- correlation decreased on binding of Nimbolin A and Momordicilin to TNF α in comparison to the control and the other two phytochemicals. Thus, it can be said that Nimbolin A and Momordicilin creates a more stable environment compared to the binding of the other phytochemicals and the control inhibitor.

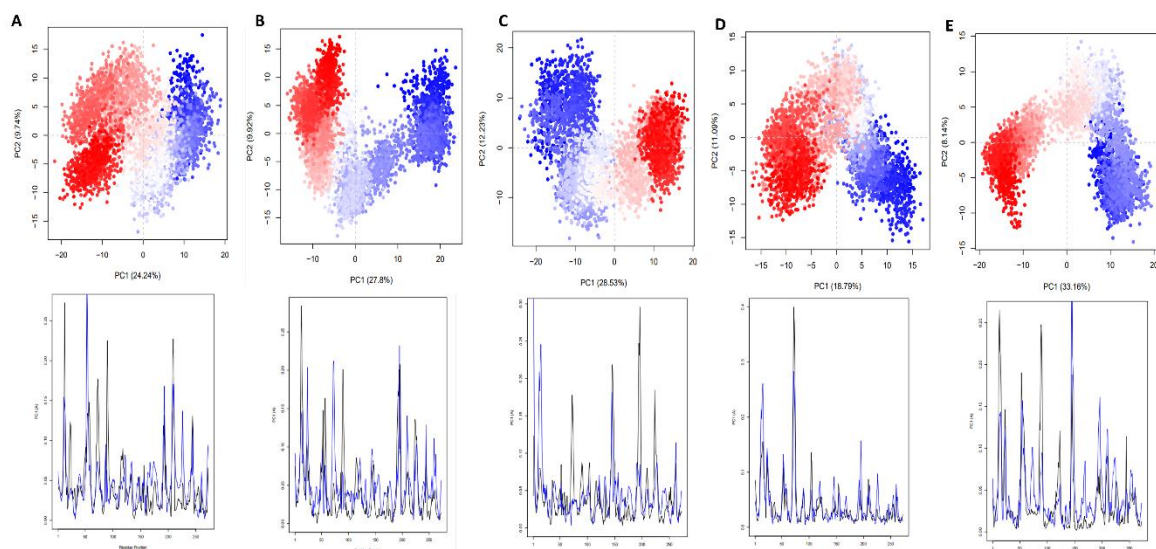


Figure 5: PCA and residue fluctuation in PCA analysis of TNF α in complex with top scoring four phytochemicals. A) Control, B) Goyaglycoside-a, C) Charantoside I, D) Nimbolin A, E) Momordicilin

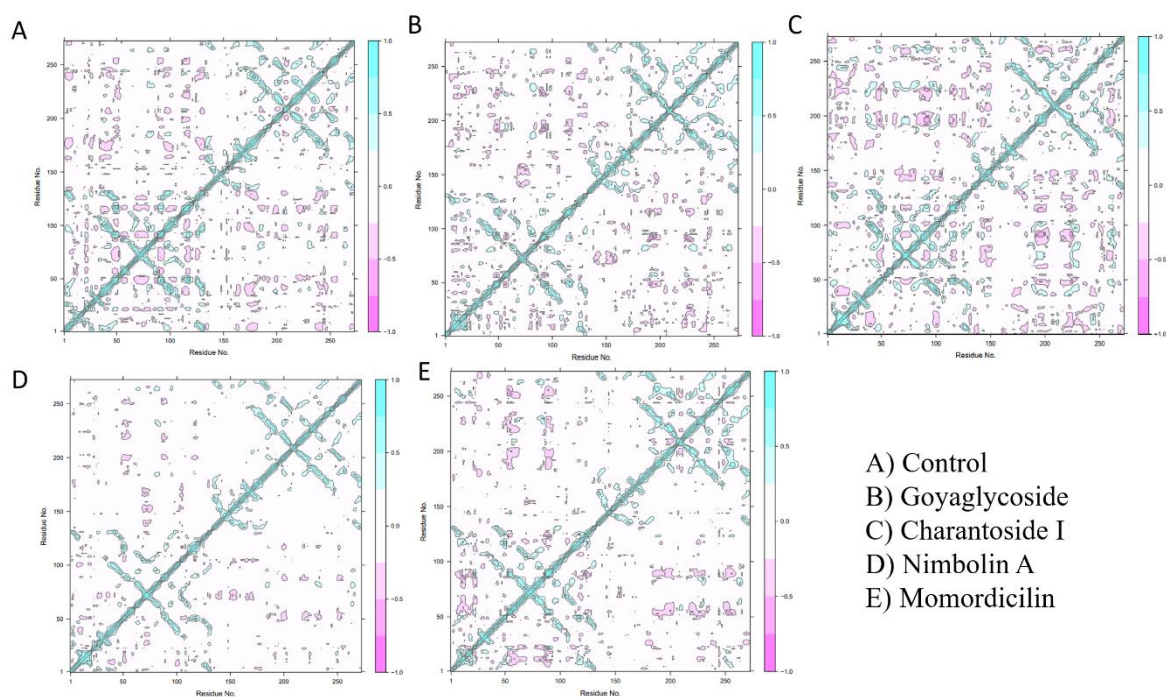


Figure 6: DCCM analysis of TNF α in complex with top scoring four phytochemicals. A) Control, B) Goyaglycoside-a, C) Charantoside I, D) Nimbolin A, E) Momordicilin

Relative Binding free energy of phytochemicals and control inhibitor from 200 ns trajectories

The relative binding free energy were calculated for each complex of protease and spike protein using MM-PBSA (Table 4). The standard errors were calculated by 500 steps of bootstrap analysis. It was observed that the relative binding free energies obtained for the complexes agreed with the RMSD, RMSF, PCA and DCCM calculations. Lowest relative binding energy was obtained for Momordicilin and TNF α complex (-190.5 kJ/Mol). Nimbolin A and the control inhibitor had comparable relative binding free energies, -188.03 and -187.67 kJ/Mol respectively.

Table 4: Relative binding energy calculated by MM/PBSA

	van der Waal energy (kJ/Mol)	Electrostatic energy (kJ/Mol)	Polar solvation energy (kJ/Mol)	SASA energy (kJ/Mol)	Binding energy (kJ/Mol)
Goyaglycoside-a	-235.81	-6.55	86.535	-22.576	-178.402
*Std Error	+/- 16.755	+/- 3.348	+/- 12.245	+/- 1.432	+/- 15.092
Charantoside I	-219.158	-7.102	96.189	-22.004	-152.074
Std Error	+/- 15.823	+/- 3.644	+/- 15.026	+/- 1.426	+/- 17.398
Nimbolin A	-237.253	-2.548	72.794	-21.024	-188.032
Std Error	+/- 12.418	+/- 1.391	+/- 7.032	+/- 1.016	+/- 11.950
Momordicilin	-239.086	-1.491	71.683	-21.597	-190.492
Std Error	+/- 13.092	+/- 1.219	+/- 6.636	+/- 1.028	+/- 12.481
Control	-224.41	-0.902	58.664	-21.023	-187.672
Std Error	+/- 18.589	+/- 1.404	+/- 8.950	+/- 1.684	+/- 17.961

*The standard error (Std Error) was calculated after 500 step bootstrap analysis.

Residue decomposition for their contribution towards the relative binding energy showed that Leu57, Tyr59 and Tyr119 were the lowest relative free energy contributors (~7-10 kJ/Mol). These residues were also observed to have lower fluctuations as analysed by the RMSF, PCA and DCCM calculations.

Discussions

The aim of this project was to identify phytochemicals as inhibitors of TNF α . TNF α was chosen as a drug target as it is the therapeutic target for various inflammatory and autoimmune related diseases (Saddala et al., 2019). More specifically phytochemicals that can lead to de-oligomerisation of TNF α similar to the inhibitors reported by He et al. (2005) from Sunesis Pharmaceuticals, USA (He et al., 2005; Davis and Colangelo, 2012). A total of 6000 compounds were screened for TNF α . It was interesting to observe that phytochemicals from *Momordica charantia*, *Azadirachta indica*, *Withania somnifera*, *Mangifera indica*, *Euphorbia hirta* and *Nigella sativa* were screened to have potential binding affinity-comparable to the control for TNF α dimer binding site. In traditional medicine *Momordica charantia* has been used as antiviral, anti-malarial, and anti-bacterial agent. It is also reported to be anti-diabetic (Grover et al., 2004).

Further analysis revealed that the top 10 scoring compounds with docking score < -10 kJ/Mol were from *Momordica charantia*, *Azadirachta indica*, *Strychnos nux-vomica*, *Bauhinia purpurea*, *Swertia chirayita*, *Solanum torvum* and *Mangifera indica*. The results corroborate with the report where *Momordica charantia* was reported to have anti-inflammatory effect in sepsis mice and reduced the levels of cytokines IL-1, IL-6, and TNF- α (Chao et al., 2014). Interestingly *Momordica charantia* fruit extract was reported to have protective effect on TNF α -induced NF- κ B activation and cardiomyocyte apoptosis (Hu et al., 2016). After identifying the top 10 docked complexes having docking score to be more negative than the control was subjected to toxicity analysis. The control inhibitor (ligand PDB ID: 307) was extracted from the crystal structure of TNF α (2az5). Four phytochemicals having low toxicity profile, docking score < -10 kJ/Mol and the control inhibitor were subjected to all atom molecular dynamics simulation of 200 ns to establish the binding stability of the phytochemicals in comparison to the control. The selected four phytochemicals were Goyaglycoside a, Charantoside I, Nimbolin A and Momordicilin. The stability analysis by RMSD, RMSF and Rg revealed that the phytochemicals formed stable interaction with the binding site of TNF α . PCA and DCCM analysis showed that a more stable environment was created by binding of Nimbolin A and Momordicilin in comparison to the control and the other two phytochemicals. This was evident by decreased fluctuation of the binding site residues and increased correlation in the residues of TNF α . Interestingly calculation of relative binding free energy over the 200 ns simulation trajectories revealed that Nimbolin A and Momordicilin were with more negative relative binding free energy

compared to the control and the other two phytochemicals. Therefore, it can be said that these phytochemicals can be potential inhibitors for causing TNF α de-oligomerization. Analysis of residue interaction with these phytochemicals showed that Tyr59 and Tyr119 hydrogen bond occupancy was calculated to be 8-23%. Tyr119, Gly121 were observed to be the residues involved in hydrogen bonds with the phytochemicals and the control inhibitor. Residue decomposition analysis for contributing towards the relative free binding energy showed that Leu57, Tyr59 and Tyr119 were the lowest relative free energy contributors (~7-10 kJ/Mol). This corroborates with earlier report where small molecule was reported to interact with Tyr119 resulting in disruption of TNF trimer (He et al., 2005). These residues were also reported to interact with capsazepine derivatives (Shukla et al., 2014). Therefore, these phytochemicals can be potential inhibitors of TNF preventing its oligomerization and interaction with TNF-R1.

Conclusions

In conclusion the master regulator for inflammatory pathways in human, TNF α , was used as a drug target to screen phytochemical inhibitors *in machino*. The aim was to identify potent phytochemicals that can bind to TNF α dimer at a site that causes inhibition of oligomerization and prevention of its binding to TNF-R1 receptor. Two potential triterpenoid phytochemicals from *Momordica charantia* and *Azadirachta indica*; namely Momordicilin and Nimbolin A respectively were identified from 6000 phytochemicals to be potential inhibitors. The stability of the inhibitors was established by performing 200 ns molecular dynamics simulations. The relative binding free energies were calculated to be -190.5 kJ/Mol for Momordicilin and -188.03 kJ/Mol for Nimbolin A. Conclusively these phytochemicals can be used for further *in vitro* analysis to confirm their inhibitory efficacy against TNF α . Conclusively, this work paves the way for a class of phytochemicals capable of modulating TNF α function probably by trimer destabilization.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS STATEMENT

Pratap Kumar Parida: Methodology, Software, Formal Analysis. Dipak Paul: Data curation, Writing-Original draft preparation. Debamitra Chakravorty: Conceptualization, Visualization, Investigation, Supervision, Validation, Writing- Reviewing and Editing. All data were generated in-house, and no paper mill was used. All authors agree to be accountable for all aspects of work ensuring integrity and accuracy.

SUPPLEMENTAL ONLINE MATERIAL

Supplemental data for this article is available online.

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