Predicting ADME and Molecular Docking Analysis of *Andrographis paniculata* and *Strobilanthes crispus* Chemical Constituens Against Antidiabetic Molecular Targets

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Abstract

*Andrographis paniculata* and *Strobilanthes crispus* are two medicinal plants from Acanthaceae family, known to have antidiabetic activity. This study aimed to investigate the molecular interaction of *A. paniculata* and *S. crispus* phytochemical constituents with various macromolecular targets of antidiabetic agent through molecular docking. Nineteen *A. paniculata* and twenty *S. crispus* chemical constituents were docked to four macromolecular targets of antidiabetic agent by using AutoDock Vina in PyRx. The results revealed that compounds from *A. paniculata* that have the best binding affinity protein targets was 19-tripenyl isoandrographolide to glucokinase (-10.4 kcal/mol), Dipeptidyl peptidase 4 (DPP4) (9.3 kcal/mol) and α-glucosidase (-8.8 kcal/mol), and andrographolactone to Protein Tyrosin Phosphatase1B (PTP1B) (-9.5 kcal/mol). Whereas compounds in the *S. crispus* derivatives that have the best binding affinity were stigmasterol to glucokinase (-9.9 kcal/mol), rutin to DPP4 (-9.7 kcal/mol), lupeol to α-glucosidase (-8.8 kcal/mol) and luteolin to PTP1B (-8.8 kcal/mol). The differences between the two plants were due to the differences in compounds in each of the plants as well as differences in target proteins. Other than that, profile of absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion (ADME) predictions are very important because they play a critical role in assessing the quality of potential clinical candidates for a new drug. Compounds with best binding energy that showed good ADME properties were andrographolactone, stigmasterol, lupeol and luteolin. Deoxyandrographolide was predicted to have the best ADME properties, however its affinity to target proteins was lower than native ligands.

Compounds from *A. paniculata* and *S. crispus* derive gave showed the best binding affinity protein targets based on molecular docking. Compounds with best binding energy from good ADME properties were andrographolactone, stigmasterol, lupeol and luteolin. Compound deoxyandrographolide was predicted to have the best ADME properties. However, its affinity to target proteins was lower than native ligands.

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Keywords: Antidiabetic, *Andrographis paniculata*, Molecular docking, *Strobilanthes crispus*, Swiss ADME

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Introduction

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a chronic disease that arises when the pancreas is unable to produce enough insulin or when the body cannot use the insulin being produced effectively. DM is classified into four types: type I DM, type II DM, gestational DM and other types of DM with the most common being type-II DM. This type of DM generally occurs from either reduced body cell response to insulin causing high blood glucose level or β-pancreatic cell is no longer able to produce enough insulin in order to maintain normal glucose level [1].

The prevalence of DM patients from year to year continues to increase, especially in developing countries such as Southeast Asia, for example Indonesia. The International Diabetes Federation states that around 415 million people in the world suffer from DM in 2015 and are expected to increase to 642 million cases by 2040 [2]. Increased prevalence of DM can be reduced by simple methods such as diet and regular exercise. In patients who have been exposed to type II DM, they still require conventional therapy, such as oral antidiabetic drugs and insulin injection. Based on its mechanism of action oral antidiabetic drugs are classified into several groups, namely sulfonylurea, biguanide, thiazolidinedione, α-glucosidase inhibitors and inhibitors of glucagon-like peptide 1. However, long-term use of conventional medicines can cause serious side effects for users, such as hypoglycemia, liver toxicity, weight gain, physconia (abdominal enlargement) and lactic acidosis. So, to overcome these problems, herbal medicine is also an option for patients, due to the lack of side effects obtained in herbal medicine and relatively low cost [3]. Some medicinal plants that have been used empirically as efficacious as antidiabetic are Andrographis paniculata and Strobilanthes crispus (Acanthaceae family).

A. paniculata extract and its isolated compound andrographolide decrease the blood glucose, triglyceride and LDL (Low Density Lipoprotein) level in high fat fructose fed induced diabetic in rats [4,5]. The ethanolic and hot water extract of A. paniculata also successfully reduces the blood sugar level in alloxan-induced diabetic [6]. Aqueous extract of A. paniculata leaves stimulates glucose uptake in L-6 skeletal muscle cells also show α-amylase and α-glucosidase inhibitory effect [7,8]. The possible mechanism of this hypoglycemic effect may be through controlling glucose uptake and oxidation, restoration of insulin signaling molecules in the liver and decreasing the serum lipid profile [9].

S. crispus leaves extract has been known to have antihyperglycemic and antilipidemic effects. Aqueous extract of S. crispus tea displayed antihyperglycemic activities in hyperglycemic animal models by reduced blood glucose levels and improved lipid profile [10,11]. S. crispus juice showed great potential in healing wounds especially for diabetic patients [12]. However, the chemical constituents which reduce the blood glucose levels in both plants are still not well understood.

DM is influenced by several target proteins one of which is Protein Tyrosine Phosphatase1B (PTP1B) as a negative regulator of the insulin signaling pathway considered a potential therapeutic target, especially for type II DM. This is due to the high expression in PTP1B which can induce insulin resistance [13]. Glucagon increases blood sugar levels and Dipeptidyl peptidase 4 (DPP4) inhibitors can reduce glucagon and blood glucose levels by increasing insulin secretion [14]. The conditions of glucokinase deficiency can cause type II DM at an early age. The role of glucokinase as an activator increases liver glucose uptake and pancreatic insulin secretion, so this enzyme is an ideal target for DM therapy [15]. α-glucosidase is a member of the glycoside hydrolase enzyme that breaks the glycosidic bond from the substrate. This enzyme induces glycothen and increases carbohydrate absorption. The inhibition of this enzyme is quite efficient for the treatment of type II DM [13].

However, there is no introduction of targets and mechanisms of active compounds of A. paniculata and S. crispus that can facilitate optimization of activities. If the work target of a compound in providing a pharmacological effect is known, further optimization of targeted drug activity can be carried out based on the drug-target interaction pattern [16]. The challenge in determining the target of an active compound is a lengthy testing process and costly because it is required to test one compound into many target proteins. One of the approaches to solving the problem is through the silico studies with molecular docking.

With molecular docking, the strongest bonds between compounds and target proteins through various scoring functions can be calculated. Scoring results have a correlation with the ligand affinity for the target protein, which can provide clues about the mechanism of action of the compounds under tests. This is a way to explore molecular interactions such as drug candidates with a target protein that binds to each other. The interaction of ligand complexes with
proteins was identified using the computational method of the docking program and bond affinity evaluated using binding energy simulations [17]. Successful disclosure of antidiabetic agent has been contributed by computer-based drug design approach. Molecular docking and ADME analysis continue as being an extraordinary guarantee in the field of computer-based drug design. This method has advantages such as in terms of shorter time and cheaper cost compared to the in vitro test [18].

**Experimental Section**

**Materials**

Hardware that we used in this study was ViewSonic computer with Processor Intel® Core™ i7 3770 CPU @ 3.40GHz, RAM 8.00 Giga Byte Dual-Channel DDR3 @ 665MHz. Installed software that we used were Marvin Sketch (ChemAxon), PyRx 0.8 (Sargis Dallakyan, The Scripps Research Institute, Amerika), VegaZZ, Discovery Studio Visualizer v16.1.0.15350 (Dassault Systems Biovia Corp 2015), PyMOL Educational (Schrodinger) and AutoDock 4.0 (The Scripps Research Institute, Amerika).

**Preparation of protein**

Protein structure preparation was done using AutoDock Tools. Water molecules and all non-standard residues were removed from initial structure. Then, all missing hydrogens and kollman charges were added to the system, the prepared protein receptor was then saved as pdbqt format and directly placed into PyRx’s workspace folders.

**Preparation of ligand**

Nineteen *A. paniculata* and twenty *S. crispus* chemical constituents were reprocessed from Pubchem databases. Ligand preparation for molecular docking was done using Vega ZZ. In this study, we used pdb coordinate with all hydrogens output format. Then the charge is repaired by adding partial gasteiger charges and then force autodock. The compound is minimized by 10,000 steps to obtain the lowest molecular energy with the most stable conformation and saved as pdb format. Then the structures of the compounds were opened on PyRx, by clicking Load Molecule and make ligand.

**Docking Validation**

Docking validation was performed for all proteins target docking simulation. Native ligand was then ‘redocked’ to its receptor. Grid center was placed approximate to center of the ligand, covering all the binding site residues. Validation conformed to be valid if the superimposed RMSD of redocked and crystallography ligand was less than 2 Å.

**Molecular docking simulation**

Nineteen *A. paniculata* and twenty *S. crispus* chemical constituents were docked to four proteins target using autodock vina in PyRx to study their binding energy and intermolecular interaction. This reverse docking simulation used same grid size, grid center, and exhaustiveness number as was done in validation procedure.

**Visualization**

PyMOL, Discovery Studio Visualizer were used to visualize the docking result. PyMOL was used for RMSD calculation. Discovery Studio Visualizer was used to analyze intermolecular interaction in two-dimensional space in three-dimensional space.

**Predicting ADME**

Predict ADME was used to Swiss ADME (www.swissadme.ch) by enter a list SMILES of chemical constituents and click run. Parameters used include Lipinski Rules, bioavailability, Blood Brain Barrier (BBB) permeant, gastrointestinal absorption, lipophilicity parameter (Log-P), P-gp substrate and inhibitor metabolism enzyme.

**Results and Discussion**

**Docking validation result**

Figure 1 presents the structures of macromolecular targets obtained from protein data bank, i.e. DPP4 (pdb ID 2QOE), glucokinase (pdb ID 4RCH), α-glucosidase (pdb ID 5NN8) and PTP1B (pdb ID 5T19). Validation method used was done by PyRx. Gridbox settings to determine which ligand bonded space to be docked is shown in Table 1. Docking method validation was done by calculating the deviation of redocking result, which was subsequently compared to 3D crystallographic ligand conformation to the receptor, expressed by the value of Root Mean Square Deviation (RMSD). The
values of RMSD from α-glucosidase, PTP1B, glucokinase, and DPP4 proteins were 1.594 Å, 1.365 Å, 1.317 Å, and 1.626 Å, respectively. Thus, the docking method setting was valid (RMSD < 2 Å). Figure 2 shows the overlay of redocked and X-ray crystallographic conformations of the native ligand for each target protein.

Docking result analysis

The aim of molecular docking is to predict the structure of a ligand within the constraints of a receptor binding site and to correctly estimate the strength of binding. The result of docking analysis of 16 best compounds in two plants is described in Table 2.

The binding free energy (ΔG binding) represents the affinity between ligand-receptors. ΔG binding is the result of the sum of the total intermolecular

### Table 1. Gridbox settings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macromolecule</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Grid Center (Å)</th>
<th>Grid Size (Å)</th>
<th>Exhaustiviness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PTP1B</td>
<td>Inhibitor</td>
<td>-1.9483</td>
<td>63.0579</td>
<td>1.4067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>α-glucosidase</td>
<td>Inhibitor</td>
<td>-13.9247</td>
<td>-38.0933</td>
<td>95.4026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glucokinase</td>
<td>Activator</td>
<td>40.3355</td>
<td>16.1209</td>
<td>64.2028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4(DPP4)</td>
<td>Inhibitor</td>
<td>41.2666</td>
<td>50.0085</td>
<td>36.6134</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2. ΔGbinding values.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test ligand</th>
<th>DPP4 2QOE</th>
<th>PTP1B ST19</th>
<th>Glucokinase 4RCH</th>
<th>α-glucosidase 5NN8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Native ligand</td>
<td>-8.28 ± 0.23</td>
<td>-9.60 ± 1.00</td>
<td>-8.30 ± 0.08</td>
<td>-8.43 ± 0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive control</td>
<td>-8.88 ± 0.38</td>
<td>-8.60 ± 0.00</td>
<td>-8.10 ± 0.00</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Andrographis paniculata Nees

1. 19-Triphenyl isoandrographolide -9.33 ± 0.05 -8.20 ± 0.00 -10.38 ± 0.05 -8.75 ± 0.06
2. Andrographiside -9.00 ± 0.00 -9.10 ± 0.00 -7.83 ± 0.10
3. 8.17-Epoxy-14- Deoxyandrographolide -8.78 ± 0.05 -8.03 ± 0.05
4. Neoandrographolide -8.60 ± 0.00 -8.30 ± 0.00 -8.53 ± 0.15
5. Deoxyandrographolide -8.75 ± 0.06 -7.65 ± 0.06
6. Andrographolactone -9.45 ± 0.06 -9.30 ± 0.00 -7.65 ± 0.08
7. Isoandrographolide -8.88 ± 0.05
8. Apigenin -8.60 ± 0.00 -8.50 ± 0.00 -8.90 ± 0.00

### Strobilanthes crispus L.

1. Rutin -9.70 ± 0.00 -8.00 ± 0.00
2. Myricetin -9.20 ± 0.00 -8.60 ± 0.80
3. Luteolin -8.70 ± 0.00 -8.83 ± 0.05 -8.90 ± 0.00
4. Kaempferol -9.03 ± 0.05
5. Stigmastanol -8.28 ± 0.05 -8.30 ± 0.14 -9.88 ± 0.05 -8.40 ± 0.12
6. Beta-sitosterol -8.25 ± 0.10 -9.50 ± 0.00 -8.13 ± 0.05
7. Verbascoside -8.43 ± 0.15 -8.38 ± 0.32 -9.80 ± 0.00 -8.60 ± 0.27
8. Lupeol -8.78 ± 0.05

Note: Bolded fonts indicated the values were lowerer than native ligand or positive control.

Figure 1. (a) Structures of DPP4, (b) glucokinase, (c) α-glucosidase, and (d) PTP1B.
energy, total internal energy and torsional free energy minus the energy of the unbound system [23]. The conformation with the lowest binding energy value indicates the best interaction pose. Table 2 shows the binding energy values of chemical constituents in A. paniculata and S. crispus. 19-Triphenyl isoandrographolide (from A. paniculata) showed best affinity to glucokinase, DPP4 and α-glukosidase. Whereas rutin (from S. crispus) exhibited best affinity to DPP4.

Docking result visualization

The conformation suitability of the test ligand was compared to the native ligand to confirm the binding free energy value since an active ligand must bind to the particular amino acid residue on the binding site to produce inhibition or induction activities. The amino acid residues that were involved are shown in Table 2. 19-Triphenyl isoandrographolide interacted with 6 amino acid residues of α-glucosidase that were the same as native ligands, i.e. Trp376, Met519, Ala217, Met481, Asp616, and Arg600 (Table 3 and Figure 3).

Figure 3. Model interaction of 19-Triphenyl isoandrographolide to α-glucosidase.

### Table 3. Interaction between ligands and protein.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ligand Description</th>
<th>Amino Acid Residues Involved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Native ligand of α-glucosidase (5NN8)</td>
<td>Asp282, Met519, Trp481, Arg600, Phe649, Asp616, Trp613, Trp376, Asp518, His674, Asp404, Ile441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19-Triphenyl isoandrographolide</td>
<td>Gly651, Trp376, Leu650, Met519, Ala284, Trp481, Leu283, Ala555, Arg281, Asp616, Phe525, Phe649, Ser676, Leu678, Leu677, Arg600, Asp82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTP1B (5T19)</td>
<td>Asp48, Val49, Tyr46, Gln262, Phe182, Gly220, Arg221, Ser216, Ala217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andrographolactone</td>
<td>Lys120, Gln262, Asp181, Gln266, Gly220, Cys215, Phe182, Gly218, lle219, Try46, Val49, Ala217, Ser216, Arg221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glucokinase (4RCH)</td>
<td>Try214, Met235, Gln98, Met210, Leu451, Ile211, Val455, Arg63, Val452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19-Triphenyl isoandrographolide</td>
<td>Met210, Met235, Tyr214, Leu451, Tyr215, Ile211, Arg63, Val452, Val62, Val455, Pro66, Ser69, Gly68, Gly97, Glu67, His218, Glu96, Ser64, Gln98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DPP4 (2QOE)</td>
<td>Try585, Tyr547, His740, Tyr662, Tyr666, Gln205, Arg125, Glu206, Phe357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rutin</td>
<td>Glu205, Phe357, Tyr666, Tyr662, Gln206, Ser209, Tyr547, Ser552, Tyr631, Ser630, Val711, Gln553, Lys554, Arg125, Asn710, His740</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Bolded fonts indicated the amino acid residues involved in interaction same as those of native ligand.
Rutin interacted with 7 amino acid residues of DPP4 that were the same as native ligands, i.e. Glu205, Tyr666, Tyr662, Glu206, Arg125, Asn710, His740 (Figure 4).

Andrographolactone interacted with 5 amino acid residues of PTP1B that were the same as native ligands, i.e. Gln266, Gly220, Phe182, Gly218, Ile219, Try46, Val49, Ala217, Ser216, Arg221. 19-Triphenyl isoandrographolide also interacted with 4 amino acid residues of glucokinase that were the same as native ligands, i.e. Met235, Leu451, Arg63, Gln98. This interaction were similar to the model of interaction of native ligands, so andrographolactone and 19-Triphenyl isoandrographolide were predicted to have similar effect to the protein target.

**ADME Prediction**

The result of SwissADME prediction results are shown in Table 4 (Lipinski’s rule) and Table 5 (Pharmacokinetic value). The Lipinski result showed that 19-Triphenyl isoandrographolide violate lipinski’s rule by having Log P more than 5 and molecular weight (MW) exceeded 500. Rutin and verbascoside have MW more than 500. This could result in poor water solubility which can hindrance...
oral bioavailability. Based on the results presented in Table 5, these compounds were predicted to having low gastrointestinal absorption and low bioavailability. This indicated that the high doses of this compounds are needed to achieve suitable concentration in plasma and give potential pharmacological effect.

Furthermore, rutin and verbascoside were predicted to be PGP substrate and undergo efflux by PGP which reduced its absorption thus lower bioavailability. However, for drug that intended to be α-glucosidase inhibitor, oral bioavailability must be avoided since it can reduce its effectiveness and give rise to unwanted side effects Boiled egg visualization result showed that several compounds exhibited potential to pass through blood brain barrier (located in yellow part) (Figure 5). For the treatment of diabetes mellitus blood brain barrier penetration is undesirable because it can cause side effects related to the central nervous system, so compounds that are able to penetrate the BBB are not preferred.

![Figure 5. Boiled egg visualization.](image)

**Conclusions**

Compounds from *A. paniculata* that have the best binding affinity protein targets was 19-triphenyl isoandrographolide to glucokinase (-10.4 kcal/mol), Dipeptidyl peptidase 4 (DPP4) (9.3 kcal/mol) and α-glucosidase (-8.8 kcal/mol), and andrographolactone to Protein Tyrosin Phosphatase1B (PTP1B) (-9.5 kcal/mol). Whereas compounds in the *S. crispus* derivate that have the best binding affinity were stigmasterol to glucokinase (-9.9 kcal/mol), rutin to DPP4 (-9.7 kcal/mol), lupeol to α-glucosidase (-8.8 kcal/mol) and luteolin to PTP1B (-8.8 kcal/mol). This difference was due to differences in the compounds contained in each plant and differences in target proteins. Compounds with best binding energy that showed good ADME properties were andrographolactone, stigmasterol, lupeol and luteolin, Compound deoxyandrographolide was predicted to have the best ADME properties, however its affinity to target proteins was lower than native ligands.

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