

Molecular Dynamic Simulations and Molecular Docking as a Potential Way for Designed New Inhibitor Drug without Resistance

Jafar Aghajani ¹, Poopak Farnia ², Parissa Farnia ¹, Jalaleddin Ghanavi ¹, and Ali Akbar Velayati ¹

¹ Mycobacteriology Research Center (MRC), National Research Institute of Tuberculosis and Lung Disease (NRITLD), Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran, ² Department of Biotechnology, School of Advanced Technology in Medicine, Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran.

Received: 5 October 2021

Accepted: 30 December 2021

Correspondence to: Aghajani J

Address: Mycobacteriology Research Center (MRC), NRITLD, Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran

Email address: j.aghajani@theaasm.org

Mycobacterium tuberculosis is the cause of tuberculosis in humans and is responsible for more than 2 million deaths per year. Despite the development of anti-tuberculosis drugs (Isoniazid, Rifampicin, Ethambutol, pyrazinamide, streptomycin, etc.) and the TB vaccine, this disease has claimed the lives of many people around the world. Drug resistance in this disease is increasing day by day. Conventional methods for discovering and developing drugs are usually time-consuming and expensive. Therefore, a better method is needed to identify, design, and manufacture TB drugs without drug resistance. Bioinformatics applications in obtaining new drugs at the structural level include studies of the mechanism of drug resistance, detection of drug interactions, and prediction of mutant protein structure. In the present study, computer-based approaches including molecular dynamics simulation and molecular docking as a novel and efficient method for the identification and investigation of new cases as well as the investigation of mutated proteins and compounds will be examined.

Key words: Molecular dynamic simulation; Molecular docking; Drug resistance; *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*; Drug design

INTRODUCTION

Tuberculosis (TB) is an infectious disease that is a major threat to public health (1-3). Responsible for 2 million deaths per year (one every 15 seconds) around the world, especially true in areas with high poverty, unfavorable living conditions, lack of adequate medical and primary care (4, 5). *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (MTB) is the oldest known human pathogen affecting more than a quarter of the world's population. It is also more common in countries with poor resources (6, 7).

Despite the development of numerous anti-tuberculosis drugs (Isoniazid, Rifampicin, Ethambutol, streptomycin, pyrazinamide, etc.) and the TB vaccine, the disease has still claimed the lives of many people worldwide because

effective treatments are either too long or expensive. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), resistance to at least two drugs, isoniazid (INH) and rifampin (RIF), causes multidrug-resistant tuberculosis (MDR-TB) (6, 8-11).

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is one of the most important human health concerns as well as a major challenge for global drug discovery programs, which is the inefficiency of antibiotic drugs against specific bacteria (12, 13). Antimicrobial resistance has been reported in three rising levels, multidrug resistance (MDR), extensive drug resistance (XDR) and pan-drug resistance (PDR) (12). AMR threatens millions of people around the world and has

rightly been declared a global threat by the World Economic Forum (13, 14).

The susceptibility of anti-tuberculosis treatments in MDR-TB has decreased due to various mutations in the target drug-gene. This has worsened despite the combination of TB-HIV and appearance of the emergence of multidrug-resistant (MDR-TB), totally drug-resistant (TDR) and extensively drug-resistant (XDR) TB (15-17).

The methods commonly used to detect drugs are laborious, costly, and time-consuming, requiring at least 10 years and about \$ 800 million to produce a new drug. These processes are often not successful due to the low hit rate, failure to fulfill the required absorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion, and toxicity (ADMET). Therefore, a better method is needed to produce TB drugs (4).

Computer-aided drug design through modeling and docking an alternative method useful for drug discovery and development in this field (18, 19). Also due to the availability of the complete MTB genome as well as the initial and third structures of the unique proteins required for the survival of this organism, this method means virtual screening using computational modeling due to cost reduction and time required to identify active drug cases it can be helpful (20).

As a result, bioinformatics approaches can be used to predict the structure of mutant proteins along with studies investigating the mechanism of drug resistance and revealing drug-target interactions at the structural level to obtain new drugs in the field.

In the present study, we intend to review computer-based approaches including molecular dynamics simulation and molecular docking to identify and investigate new cases for the design of drugs that affect mutant proteins and the metabolic pathways involved in these pathogens, together with some practical details in few examples.

MOLECULAR DYNAMICS (MD)

It can be stated that one of the most efficient and best methods of studying biological macromolecules is the

Molecular dynamics (MD) simulation method (21-23). MD simulations of protein structure can be performed in an aqueous medium to provide predicted adaptations of proteins under physiological conditions (24-26).

They are also important for understanding the dynamic behavior of proteins based on different times (from fast internal movements to slow structural changes or even protein folding processes) (27). In fact, this system shows (predictions based on a general physics model governing interactions) how each atom in different molecular and protein systems moves over time (22). An important ability of this method is to record a wide range of simulations of important molecular biomass processes. These include ligand binding, deformation, and folding protein, representing the positions of all atoms in femtosecond resolution (28). On the other hand can examine the influence of explicit solvent molecules on protein structure and stability to obtain the average properties of the biomolecular system including density, conductivity, and dipole moment, as well as various thermodynamic parameters including interaction energy and entropy (29).

X-ray crystallography, cryo-EM (cryo-EM), nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR), Förster or fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET) are structural biology techniques often used in combination with MD simulations (28).

The groundbreaking studies have shown a fundamental role in classical MD simulations in the study of biological systems. They used MD simulations to obtain various combinations of proteins and nucleic acids, including early attempts to spontaneously simulate complex phenomena such as protein folding.

Late in the 1950s, the first simulation was made of simple gases (30). The first simulations of a protein were made in the late 1970s (31), the factors that made these simulations possible were the achievements that received the Nobel Prize in Chemistry in 2013 (32, 33). The enormous increase in computing power permits simulation

of systems 104-106 atomic (34, 35) and simulation time from micro sec to nano sec, respectively (36).

However, MD simulations have become increasingly popular in recent years by the scientific community, especially experimental molecular biologists. With the recent advances in crystallography, tens of structures of different molecules have been identified (which were recognized by the Nobel Prize in 2003, 2012), whereas the crystallographic structure of membrane proteins has been difficult in the past. Cryo-EM (recognized by a 2017 Nobel Prize) was one of the solutions that accelerated the identification of such structures (37).

Over the past decade, due to the rapid development of faster architectures and better algorithms for performing high-level calculations on time (2 molecular dynamic base), we have seen an increase in the effectiveness of computational structure-based drug design (SBDD) in drug discovery. The introduction of new computer hardware, especially graphics processing units (GPUs), allowed powerful simulations to be run at an average cost locally (38, 39).

HOW MD SIMULATION WORKS

It can be said that the basic idea of this technique (MD simulation) is simple. Depending on the position of all atoms in a biomolecular system (Proteins that are surrounded by lipid bilayer or water can be an example), the force applied to each atom can be calculated by all other atoms (28).

Classical MD can be considered a physical method based on Newtonian physics to study the motion of atoms and molecules and the interaction between them. In this way, a force field is used to estimate the forces between the intersecting atoms and to calculate the total energy of the system (40). Then during MD simulation, Newton's laws of motion integration, sequential configurations, create a transformation system, providing paths that determine the positions and velocities of the particles over time (40). The general steps in an MD simulation are illustrated in Figure 1.

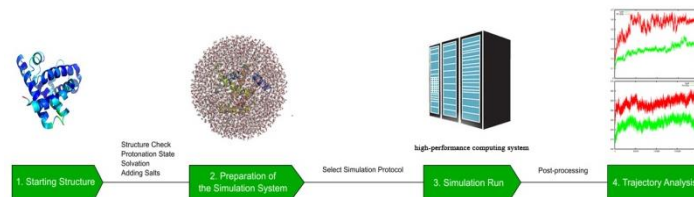


Figure 1. General steps in Molecular dynamics simulations that can be imagined.

The result of this path describes the configuration of the atomic level of the system at any point in time simulated as a 3D film. These simulations can be described as a powerful method for the following reasons: First, they record the location, mode, and rate of movement of each atom at any point in time, which is very difficult with any other laboratory method (28). Second, the simulation processes are very precise and can be controlled with high accuracy, including the primary composition of a protein to which the ligases are attached including a variety of post-translational and mutant changes, voltage, protonation, the temperature in a membrane that are present in the environment by other molecules, and so on. The impact of a wide range of molecular perturbations can be studied and compared by using the results of simulations performed under different conditions. The forces in the MD simulation are often calculated by molecular mechanical field modeling, which usually according to the experimental measurements and the results of quantum mechanical calculations. To ensure numerical and statistical accuracy of the numbers in an MD simulation, the time steps must be short, typically these are only a few cases of femtoseconds (10-15 seconds) (Figure 2). Most important biochemical processes (such as structural and functional changes of proteins) occur at nanoseconds, microseconds or longer. In any case, a typical simulation involves millions or billions of time steps. Alongside this, millions of interatomic interactions that are simultaneously evaluated in a single time step make the simulation processes highly computational. Recent improvements have been remarkable. Over the past few decades, longer and cheaper simulations have become available with advances in computational hardware,

software, and algorithms used for MD. Highly specialized hardware (41, 42) led to a significant increase in computing speed and made specific simulations possible in milliseconds (Figure 2).

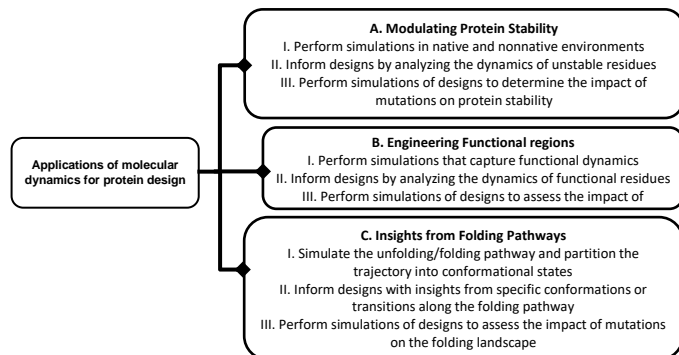


Figure 2. Applications of molecular dynamics for protein design. (A) Molecular dynamics simulations can be used to design stable protein variants, (B) engineer functional regions, or (C) provide insights from protein unfolding/folding pathways.

Perhaps most importantly, GPUs allowed simulations performed on one or two inexpensive PC chips to perform better than they had previously done on supercomputers (38). These GPUs have made simulations at significant biological intervals much more accessible to researchers than ever before. Simulations are now relatively straightforward, and computational resources for performing useful simulation values are increasingly available. Due to the large amounts of data on the different paths of atoms, obtaining accurate biological insights and interpreting simulation results can be challenging.

Evaluating the mobility and flexibility of different regions of a biomolecule is one of the most fundamental applications of these types of simulations. By simply simulating such a structure, one can determine how many different molecules move in equilibrium and what kinds of structural oscillations it undergoes. Other features of this method include simulating some of the functional behaviors of protein and ligand binding, which are often very important (dynamic behavior of water molecules and salt ions) (43-45).

They are also commonly used to refine as well as constructor refine structural models based on empirical structural biology data. (Often using MD protocols, the X-

ray crystal structures fit the experimental data, preserving the model structure) (46).

In specific applications such as ligand and protein design, these types of simulations are mostly used as a relatively inexpensive filter to filter (binding or stability energy) large numbers of candidates in a small sample that can be tested (47-49).

On the other hand, more importantly, it can be pointed out that simulations lead to new laboratory work by presenting new hypotheses. The development of new drugs is an exciting new area where MD simulations can perform different experiments (50, 51).

They are also valuable in optimizing lead, whereby the performance or properties of lead in a ligand is improved or modified. These simulations can be used to predict the return of a ligand-binding pocket, to identify the key interactions of a ligand with the binding pocket site, as well as to identify possible ligand potentials (52, 53).

MD may also be useful for virtual screening, predicting where a selected primary ligand binds to the target. Virtual screening is usually traditionally performed using a single structure of a target protein by docking software (54).

Simulations may also help design drugs with the desired binding and dissociation kinetics of features that have recently been identified for efficacy and safety. For example, the effectiveness of ligands on specific targets is associated with residence time rather than binding affinity. In various studies, MD-based methods in ligand ranking have been studied according to their dissociation rate (55).

PRACTICAL TIPS ON USING MD SIMULATION

The most common computing hardware used is GPUs, which are a good option because of their fast simulation and average cost, but simulations are also performed on supercomputers using central processing units (cup) that can provide more speed. The most common types of forces used can include various versions of AMBER, CHARMM, and OPLS (56-59).

These forces each have their strengths and weaknesses, but they all rely on similar functional forms. For example, CHARMM36m and the CHARMM General Force Field (CGEFF) complement field have optimized many valid parameters for drug-like ligands, lipids, and proteins (58, 60, 61).

Also mentioned is the A99SB force field, which has been recently introduced for disrupted or disordered proteins (59) and OPLS3 is a force field that optimizes ligand parameters at best, although their specific nature generally precludes third-party evaluation (57). Common software used includes GROMACS, NAMD, AMBER, CHARMM, DESMOND, and OPENMM (62-65).

AMBER and CHARMM software should not be confused with the AMBER and CHARMM force fields. All modern software available for simulation supports different force fields. The packages mentioned are the same in terms of computation but they differ to support features and how to use different hardware (e.g., coarse-grained simulation support, temperature and pressure control schemes, and sampling methods).

One of the most important sources for MD simulations is the scientific research collaboration with structural bioinformatics (RCSB, WWW.rcsb.org), which makes available 3D macro logical biological structural data (66). The RCSB Protein Database (PDB) is a global repository for the processing and distribution of three-dimensional structure data of macromolecules, such as proteins and nucleic acids, and is an essential resource for biomolecular modeling (66).

It should be noted that the three-dimensional structure of various drug molecules is available in several large databases such as NIH (67), ZINC (68, 69), and Drug Bank (69).

It should be noted that the structures obtained from the experiments require some processing to prepare them for simulation (Including hydrogen atoms that are not generally soluble in crystalline structures) Also add some "solvents" such as lipids, water, ions, salt and determine the force parameters. Many common simulation software

has been improved, and available to make system preparation easier (28, 70, 71). One of the challenges facing decision-makers in choosing the right type of simulation for each project as well as analyzing the results (including advanced sampling techniques for use where applicable). Analyzing MD simulation results for a variety of reasons can be challenging.

These simulations generate a lot of data. Typically a simulation can track the positions and velocity of 100,000 atoms over a billion-time step. Identifying the data and biological aspects of these data are very important and challenging. Several common "pre-packaged" analytics are readily available in the software, but most simulation projects benefit from writing custom analytics programs or scripts dramatically through multiple frameworks (56, 72-74).

Both MD simulation design and interpretation of the results have limitations: First, the force fields used in MD are inherently approximate, although they have improved greatly in recent years (75). Second, covalent bonds do not break and form during conventional MD simulations, meaning that the residual rotational states of the amino acids are titratable constant and must be carefully adjusted at the start of a simulation unless the approaches applying the pH simulation (76) constant is typically the case with a significant increase in computational cost for disulfide bands. Third, the availability of an accurate protein structure or a good matching model as a prerequisite can be considered an influential factor in the accuracy and efficiency of the simulation. Finally, it can be concluded that the design of simulation studies is strongly influenced by the availability of laboratory structures. As mentioned, MD simulations have become relatively simple in recent years, but MD simulations are still used indirectly to achieve high-impact conclusions. To perform quality and reliable work by MD, it is important to identify the research process by MD with appropriate empirical and computational studies and carefully tailor these simulations for them.

MOLECULAR DOCKING

Molecular docking is an essential part of the computer-aided drug design tool (77). It first appeared in the 1980s and early 1990s to predict the binding state of active compounds and the screening of large digital library complexes. This method was used to reduce costs and speed up the process of drug discovery, which is part of the "structure-based drug design" approach (78, 79).

Since the early 1980s, molecular docking has been the most common method of structure-based drug design (80). Programs based on various algorithms have been developed for molecular docking studies that have made docking increasingly important in pharmaceutical research.

Molecular docking is a method of analyzing the composition and orientation of molecules into the binding site of a macromolecular target. The search algorithm generates potential poses, which are ranked by scoring functions (81). There have been many good reviews of docking in the past (82-85), and many studies have been done to compare the relative performance of programs (86-89).

In this method (molecular docking), the behavior of small molecules at the junction of the target protein can be investigated and also used in interaction modeling between a small molecule and a protein at the atomic level and also identify the underlying biochemical processes (90, 91).

Over the past few decades several software applications have been developed, some of which are very popular, such as Autodock (92), Autodock Vina (93), DockThor (94, 95), GOLD (96, 97), Flexx (98) and Molegro Virtual Docker (99).

The docking process involves two basic steps: The composition of the ligand, its orientation, as well as its position is predicted in different sites (usually referred to as pose) (100, 101).

In most cases, the structures of macromolecules can be obtained from the Protein Data Bank (PDB) (102), which provides our access to the three-dimensional atomic

coordinates obtained by experimental methods. It is also possible that the experimental 3d structure of the target is not available, but is not common. To overcome this problem, computational forecasting methods such as comparative and ab initio modeling can be used to obtain the three-dimensional structure of proteins (81).

Knowing the binding site before docking processes significantly increases docking efficiency (100). In many cases, the binding site is identified before ligand binding (100). One can also obtain site-related information by comparing the target protein with a family of proteins that function similarly or with crystallized proteins with other ligands (100).

If you do not know the connectivity sites, cavity detection programs or online servers for example: pass (103), SURFnet (104, 105), Pocket (106), GRID (107, 108) and MMC (109) can be used to identify putative active sites in proteins. Blind docking is a form of docking that is performed without any assumption about the junction (100). The site of the junction is usually specified to focus on docking calculations. However, when area information is missing, there are two common approaches: either the most probable algorithmically predicted sites or "docking blind" simulations (110).

Several existing software can be used to identify binding sites. For example, moldock (99) uses an integrated cavity detection algorithm to identify potential binding sites. DoGsiteScore is an algorithm that determines possible pockets and their druggability scores, which describes the potential of a binding site to interact with a small Drug-like molecule (111).

During docking calculations, one strategy is to use a network that includes predefined potential energies for interaction at the target junction (83). This method speeds up the execution of docking and essentially involves discretization of the junction (112).

Ligand structure is also required and small molecule databases such as ZINC (69) and PubChem (67) can be used. However, better evaluation of rotations, free torsions,

protonation states, and charge assignments is crucial for successful docking.

Two things are important in system docking: Ranking scoring functions and search algorithms. The analysis of the search algorithm and generates ligand pose at the junction is a goal, With regard to roto-translational and internal degrees of freedom of the ligand (101).

Search strategies are often classified as systematic, random, or definitive (83).

The systematic search algorithm gradually evaluates the release rate of each ligand (83, 113).

For example, component-based methods with systematic algorithms used in Flexx and eHits (114) can be noted. Various algorithms have also been developed to use pharmacophore information related to proteins and ligands. These algorithms attempt to coordinate the distance between the pharmacophoric points of the ligand and the protein from the pharmacopoeial match (115).

For example, FIEXX-PHARM software is an extensive version of FLEXX and uses pharmaceutical features as a limitation in docking calculation (111).

Random search algorithms make changes in the degree of ligand release.

Some software, such as AutoDock, GOLD, DockThor, and MolDock, use random algorithms for search methods (79).

Although the challenges and limitations of the docking method have been identified in the last two decades (87), this research topic is still very active.

COMBINED DOCKING AND MD SIMULATION

For more reliable results of protein-ligand complexes, a combination of cheap and fast docking methods with accurate but expensive MD techniques can be used. The strength of this compound lies in its complementary strengths and weaknesses.

On the one hand, docking techniques are used to discover the vast conformational space of ligands over a short period and allow for the careful examination of large

libraries of compounds such as drugs at a reasonable cost. The major disadvantages are the lack or poor flexibility of the protein that does not allow for the regulation of its composition on ligand binding and the absence of a unique and widely applicable function necessary to establish a valid ranking of the final complexes. On the other hand, MD simulations can flexibly treat both ligands and proteins, allowing for the suitability of the receptor-binding site around the newly introduced ligand. Therefore, a combination of the two protocols in which docking is used for rapid screening of large libraries and MD simulations are used to detect protein receptor structures, optimize the structure of end complexes, and calculate precision energy, an approach It is reasonable to improve the drug design process.

CASE STUDY

Here we are going to show you how to do structural analysis by reviewing some studies in this field. Isa et al., 2018 conducted a study to investigate the 3-dehydroquinase synthase (DHQS) pathway using in Silico docking and molecular dynamic simulation. This pathway is important because it is present in bacteria, algae, fungi, and plants but does not occur in mammals. The shikimate pathway is an important and integral pathway for the metabolism of MTB (naphthoquinones, menaquinones, and mycobactin biosynthesis). In this study, novel inhibitors of 3-dehydroquinase synthase (DHQS) were identified, an enzyme that catalyzes the second stage of the sheik pathway in MTB. A total of 18 compounds with the best binding energies were selected from 12,168 compounds from two public databases through virtual screening and molecular docking analysis using PyRx 8.0 and Autoduck 4.2. These 18 compounds were analyzed and screened for absorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion, and toxicity (ADMET) and found 9 compounds that satisfied all ADMET criteria. Among the various compounds, three compounds with the best binding energy were selected to molecular dynamics simulation. Finally, the two compounds ZINC633887 and

PubChem73393 formed stable complexes with DHQS and the structure of the two ligands remained largely unchanged during the simulations at the ligand-binding site. The two compounds identified by these methods (docking and MD simulation) are potential candidates for the treatment of tuberculosis that must be approved in vivo and in-vitro (4).

In another study, Kumar et al., in 2017 investigated computer simulations of susceptible L, D Transpeptidase by Carbapenems and Cephalosporins in *Mycobacterium abscessus*. The importance of L, D Transpeptidase is because most of the linkages in the cell wall peptidoglycan of *M. abscessus* are synthesized by non-classical transpeptidases. In this study, the interaction of β -lactams with two L, D transpeptidases in *M. abscessus*, LdtMab1 and LdtMab2 was investigated and found that both Carbapenems and Cephalosporins, not Penicillins, inhibited these enzymes (116).

Halder et al. (2019) used in Silico absorption and multiple docking analysis to investigate the ADMET of anti-leprosy and Dapsone compounds against the synthesis of Dihydropteroate synthase from *mycobacterium leprea* (117). Because Dapsone is an expensive antibacterial drug that has many side effects, a natural and cheaper alternative is needed. The three-dimensional protein structure of the dihydropteroata synthase was modeled from *M. leprea*. All analytical docking analyzes were performed using AutoDock Vina, AutoDock 4.2.6, and SwissDock. The result showed that neobavaisoflavone tends to bind better than Dapsone and forms a stable protein-ligand complex (117).

Another use of the molecular docking system by Tuhin Ali et al. (2018) on the anti-TB potential of propolis selective elements can be mentioned (118). propolis, a substance naturally produced by bees after collecting herbal resins, is used in folk medicine for its beneficial anti-tuberculosis activities. In this study, investigated the interaction between selected propolis compounds and four "druggable" proteins that are critical for the function of TB physiology, namely MtPank, MtDprE1, MtPknB and

MtKasA using molecular docking (118). As a result, both the combination of MtDprE1 and MtKasA showed superior docking scores than control inhibitors and provided interesting potential scaffolds for in vitro biological evaluation and anti-TB drug design (118).

CONCLUSION

As mentioned earlier, with the development of anti-TB drugs (Isoniazid, Rifampicin, Ethambutol, Pyrazinamide, Streptomycin, etc.) and the TB vaccine, the disease continues to threaten the lives of many people around the world. Drug resistance in this type of disease is increasing day by day. Appropriate, fast, and efficient methods are needed to identify and design new drugs without drug resistance. Bioinformatics approaches can be used to predict the structure of mutant proteins, along with studies of the mechanism of drug resistance and the identification of drug-mediated interactions with a structural target, to obtain novel drugs in the field. These approaches include molecular docking techniques and molecular dynamics simulations. The rigorous use of MD simulations in conjunction with complementary empirical methods now shows an area of great opportunity in the various sciences. Effective use of simulations in molecular biology and drug discovery requires careful thinking about existing experimental and computational data, and thus benefits from both extensive expertise and interdisciplinary collaboration. It is also important to note that each of these techniques has its drawbacks and weaknesses but new approaches that use a combination of the two will improve prediction performance and allow for better utilization of information in the future. It is hoped that using these new approaches will be able to design and manufacture effective drugs without resistance.

REFERENCES

1. Mirsaeidi M, Sadikot RT. Patients at high risk of tuberculosis recurrence. *Int J Mycobacteriol* 2018;7(1):1-6.
2. Mungmunpantipantip R, Wiwanitkit V. Tuberculosis and liver fluke infection: An expressional analysis for common

- antioxidative pathway. *Biomedical and Biotechnology Research Journal (BBRJ)* 2020;4(1):31.
3. Coban AY. Validation of a novel medium for drug susceptibility testing of *Mycobacterium Tuberculosis* against First- and Second-Line drugs: AYC.2.2 Agar and AYC.2.1 Broth. *Int J Mycobacteriol* 2021;10(1):19-25.
 4. Isa MA, Majumdar RS, Haider S. In silico docking and molecular dynamics simulation of 3-dehydroquinate synthase (DHQS) from *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *J Mol Model* 2018;24(6):132.
 5. Mungmunpantipantip R, Wiwanitkit V. Incidence of tuberculosis among malnourished patients: A summary on epidemiological data from a rural province in indochina. *Biomedical and Biotechnology Research Journal (BBRJ)* 2020;4(2):141.
 6. Mustyala KK, Malkhed V, Chittireddy VR, Vuruputuri U. Virtual screening studies to identify novel inhibitors for Sigma F protein of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *Int J Mycobacteriol* 2015;4(4):330-6.
 7. Das PK, Ganguly SB, Mandal B. Cartridge-based nucleic acid amplification test (Xpert *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*/Rifampicin Assay): An essential molecular diagnostic test for early diagnosis and initiation of treatment in childhood tuberculous meningitis and primary multidrug-resistant cases. *Biomedical and Biotechnology Research Journal (BBRJ)* 2020;4(1):21.
 8. Sidiq Z, Hanif M, Chopra KK, Khanna A, Jadhav I, Dwivedi KK. Second-line drug susceptibilities of multidrug-and rifampicin-resistant *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* isolates in Delhi. *Biomedical and Biotechnology Research Journal (BBRJ)* 2019;3(2):87.
 9. Das PK, Ganguly SB. Effectiveness of the shorter MDR regimen in the management of tuberculosis: Shortfall in the outcome of disease a multidimensional approach and evaluation for a better alternative. *Biomedical and Biotechnology Research Journal (BBRJ)* 2020;4(2):143.
 10. Soedarsono S, Amin M, Tokunaga K, Yuliwulandari R, Suameitria Dewi DNS, Mertaniasih NM. Association of disease severity with toll-like receptor polymorphisms in multidrug-resistant tuberculosis patients. *Int J Mycobacteriol* 2020;9(4):380-390.
 11. Itaki M, Endo M, Ikedo K, Kayebeta A, Takahashi I, Ota M, et al. A multidrug-resistant tuberculosis outbreak in a language school: Tokyo, Japan, 2019-2020. *Int J Mycobacteriol* 2021;10(1):37-42.
 12. Shriram V, Khare T, Bhagwat R, Shukla R, Kumar V. Inhibiting Bacterial Drug Efflux Pumps via Phyto-Therapeutics to Combat Threatening Antimicrobial Resistance. *Front Microbiol* 2018;9:2990.
 13. Millar BC, Moore JE. Antimycobacterial strategies to evade antimicrobial resistance in the nontuberculous mycobacteria. *Int J Mycobacteriol* 2019;8(1):7-21.
 14. Forum WE. Global Risks, Eighth Edition Ed. 2013 2013 [Available from: http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GlobalRisksReport_2013.pdf.
 15. Somvanshi P, Singh V, Seth PK. In silico prediction of epitopes in virulence proteins of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* H37Rv for diagnostic and subunit vaccine design. *J Proteomics Bioinform* 2008;1(3):143-53.
 16. Mbelele PM, Mohamed SY, Sauli E, Mpolya EA, Mfinanga SG, Addo KK, et al. Meta-narrative review of molecular methods for diagnosis and monitoring of multidrug-resistant tuberculosis treatment in adults. *Int J Mycobacteriol* 2018;7(4):299-309.
 17. Charlie L, Saidi B, Getachew E, Wanjiru CL, Abebe M, Tesfahuney HA, et al. Programmatic challenges in managing multidrug-resistant tuberculosis in Malawi. *Int J Mycobacteriol* 2021 Jul;10(3):255-259.
 18. Billones JB, Carrillo MC, Organo VG, Sy JB, Clavio NA, Macalino SJ, et al. In silico discovery and in vitro activity of inhibitors against *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* 7,8-diaminopelargonic acid synthase (*Mtb* BioA). *Drug Des Devel Ther* 2017;11:563-574.
 19. Muddukrishnaiah K, Vijayakumar V, Thavamani BS, Shilpa VP, Radhakrishnan N, Abbas HS. Synthesis, characterization, and In vitro antibacterial activity and molecular docking studies of N4, N4'-dibutyl-3, 3'-dinitro-[1, 1'-Biphenyl]-4, 4'-

- diamine. *Biomedical and Biotechnology Research Journal (BBRJ)* 2020;4(4):318.
20. Billones JB, Carrillo MC, Organo VG, Macalino SJ, Sy JB, Emnacen IA, et al. Toward antituberculosis drugs: in silico screening of synthetic compounds against Mycobacterium tuberculosis, d-transpeptidase 2. *Drug Des Devel Ther* 2016;10:1147-57.
 21. Hansson T, Oostenbrink C, van Gunsteren W. Molecular dynamics simulations. *Curr Opin Struct Biol* 2002;12(2):190-6.
 22. Karplus M, McCammon JA. Molecular dynamics simulations of biomolecules. *Nat Struct Biol* 2002;9(9):646-52.
 23. Norberg J, Nilsson L. Advances in biomolecular simulations: methodology and recent applications. *Q Rev Biophys* 2003;36(3):257-306.
 24. Totrov M, Abagyan R. Flexible ligand docking to multiple receptor conformations: a practical alternative. *Curr Opin Struct Biol* 2008;18(2):178-84.
 25. Campbell AJ, Lamb ML, Joseph-McCarthy D. Ensemble-based docking using biased molecular dynamics. *J Chem Inf Model* 2014;54(7):2127-38.
 26. Rajamani KD. Variability in linear polypeptide stabilizes proteoglycan than zinc finger protein in vascular smooth muscle cells: An In Silico approach. *Biomedical and Biotechnology Research Journal (BBRJ)* 2021;5(1):7.
 27. Snow CD, Sorin EJ, Rhee YM, Pande VS. How well can simulation predict protein folding kinetics and thermodynamics? *Annu Rev Biophys Biomol Struct* 2005;34:43-69.
 28. Hollingsworth SA, Dror RO. Molecular Dynamics Simulation for All. *Neuron* 2018;99(6):1129-1143.
 29. Alonso H, Bliznyuk AA, Gready JE. Combining docking and molecular dynamic simulations in drug design. *Med Res Rev* 2006;26(5):531-68.
 30. Alder BJ, Wainwright TE. Phase transition for a hard sphere system. *The Journal of chemical physics* 1957;27(5):1208-9.
 31. McCammon JA, Gelin BR, Karplus M. Dynamics of folded proteins. *Nature* 1977;267(5612):585-90.
 32. Levitt M, Lifson S. Refinement of protein conformations using a macromolecular energy minimization procedure. *J Mol Biol* 1969;46(2):269-79.
 33. Lifson S, Warshel A. Consistent force field for calculations of conformations, vibrational spectra, and enthalpies of cycloalkane and n-alkane molecules. *The Journal of Chemical Physics* 1968;49(11):5116-29.
 34. de Groot BL, Grubmüller H. Water permeation across biological membranes: mechanism and dynamics of aquaporin-1 and GlpF. *Science* 2001;294(5550):2353-7.
 35. Marelus J, Kolmodin K, Feierberg I, Aqvist J. Q: a molecular dynamics program for free energy calculations and empirical valence bond simulations in biomolecular systems. *J Mol Graph Model* 1998;16(4-6):213-25, 261.
 36. Duan Y, Kollman PA. Pathways to a protein folding intermediate observed in a 1-microsecond simulation in aqueous solution. *Science* 1998;282(5389):740-4.
 37. Fernandez-Leiro R, Scheres SH. Unravelling biological macromolecules with cryo-electron microscopy. *Nature* 2016;537(7620):339-46.
 38. Salomon-Ferrer R, Götz AW, Poole D, Le Grand S, Walker RC. Routine Microsecond Molecular Dynamics Simulations with AMBER on GPUs. 2. Explicit Solvent Particle Mesh Ewald. *J Chem Theory Comput* 2013;9(9):3878-88.
 39. Stone JE, Hallock MJ, Phillips JC, Peterson JR, Luthey-Schulten Z, Schulten K. Evaluation of Emerging Energy-Efficient Heterogeneous Computing Platforms for Biomolecular and Cellular Simulation Workloads. *IEEE Int Symp Parallel Distrib Process Workshops Phd Forum* 2016;2016:89-100.
 40. De Vivo M, Masetti M, Bottegoni G, Cavalli A. Role of Molecular Dynamics and Related Methods in Drug Discovery. *J Med Chem* 2016;59(9):4035-61.
 41. Shaw DE, Deneroff MM, Dror RO, Kuskin JS, Larson RH, Salmon JK, et al. Anton, a special-purpose machine for molecular dynamics simulation. *ACM SIGARCH Computer Architecture News* 2007;35(2):1-2.
 42. Shaw DE, Grossman JP, Bank JA, Batson B, Butts JA, Chao JC, et al. Anton 2: raising the bar for performance and programmability in a special-purpose molecular dynamics supercomputer. In SC'14: Proceedings of the International Conference for High Performance Computing, Networking, Storage and Analysis 2014; 41-53)

43. Bernèche S, Roux B. Energetics of ion conduction through the K⁺ channel. *Nature* 2001;414(6859):73-7.
44. Khafizov K, Perez C, Koshy C, Quick M, Fendler K, Ziegler C, et al. Investigation of the sodium-binding sites in the sodium-coupled betaine transporter BetP. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2012;109(44):E3035-44.
45. Li J, Shaikh SA, Enkavi G, Wen PC, Huang Z, Tajkhorshid E. Transient formation of water-conducting states in membrane transporters. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2013;110(19):7696-701.
46. Afonine PV, Grosse-Kunstleve RW, Echols N, Headd JJ, Moriarty NW, Mustyakimov M, et al. Towards automated crystallographic structure refinement with phenix.refine. *Acta Crystallogr D Biol Crystallogr* 2012;68(Pt 4):352-67.
47. Chevalier A, Silva DA, Rocklin GJ, Hicks DR, Vergara R, Murapa P, et al. Massively parallel de novo protein design for targeted therapeutics. *Nature* 2017;550(7674):74-79.
48. Hou T, Wang J, Li Y, Wang W. Assessing the performance of the molecular mechanics/Poisson Boltzmann surface area and molecular mechanics/generalized Born surface area methods. II. The accuracy of ranking poses generated from docking. *J Comput Chem* 2011;32(5):866-77.
49. Wang L, Wu Y, Deng Y, Kim B, Pierce L, Krilov G, et al. Accurate and reliable prediction of relative ligand binding potency in prospective drug discovery by way of a modern free-energy calculation protocol and force field. *J Am Chem Soc* 2015;137(7):2695-703.
50. Borhani DW, Shaw DE. The future of molecular dynamics simulations in drug discovery. *J Comput Aided Mol Des* 2012;26(1):15-26.
51. Durrant JD, McCammon JA. Molecular dynamics simulations and drug discovery. *BMC Biol* 2011;9:71.
52. Spahn V, Del Vecchio G, Labuz D, Rodriguez-Gaztelumendi A, Massaly N, Temp J, et al. A nontoxic pain killer designed by modeling of pathological receptor conformations. *Science* 2017;355(6328):966-969.
53. Udier-Blagović M, Tirado-Rives J, Jorgensen WL. Validation of a model for the complex of HIV-1 reverse transcriptase with nonnucleoside inhibitor TMC125. *J Am Chem Soc* 2003;125(20):6016-7.
54. Shoichet BK. Virtual screening of chemical libraries. *Nature* 2004;432(7019):862-5.
55. Dickson A, Tiwary P, Vashisth H. Kinetics of Ligand Binding Through Advanced Computational Approaches: A Review. *Curr Top Med Chem* 2017;17(23):2626-2641.
56. Abraham MJ, Murtola T, Schulz R, Páll S, Smith JC, Hess B, et al. GROMACS: High performance molecular simulations through multi-level parallelism from laptops to supercomputers. *SoftwareX* 2015;1:19-25.
57. Harder E, Damm W, Maple J, Wu C, Reboul M, Xiang JY, et al. OPLS3: A Force Field Providing Broad Coverage of Drug-like Small Molecules and Proteins. *J Chem Theory Comput* 2016;12(1):281-96.
58. Huang J, Rauscher S, Nawrocki G, Ran T, Feig M, de Groot BL, et al. CHARMM36m: an improved force field for folded and intrinsically disordered proteins. *Nat Methods* 2017;14(1):71-73.
59. Robustelli P, Piana S, Shaw DE. Developing a molecular dynamics force field for both folded and disordered protein states. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2018;115(21):E4758-E4766.
60. Klauda JB, Venable RM, Freites JA, O'Connor JW, Tobias DJ, Mondragon-Ramirez C, et al. Update of the CHARMM all-atom additive force field for lipids: validation on six lipid types. *J Phys Chem B* 2010;114(23):7830-43.
61. Vanommeslaeghe K, MacKerell AD Jr. Automation of the CHARMM General Force Field (CGenFF) I: bond perception and atom typing. *J Chem Inf Model* 2012;52(12):3144-54.
62. Brooks BR, Brooks CL 3rd, Mackerell AD Jr, Nilsson L, Petrella RJ, Roux B, et al. CHARMM: the biomolecular simulation program. *J Comput Chem* 2009;30(10):1545-614.
63. Case DA, Darden TA, Cheatham TE, Simmerling CL, Wang J, Duke RE, et al. AMBER 9. San Francisco: University of California. 2006; 328.
64. Eastman P, Swails J, Chodera JD, McGibbon RT, Zhao Y, Beauchamp KA, et al. OpenMM 7: Rapid development of high performance algorithms for molecular dynamics. *PLoS Comput Biol* 2017;13(7):e1005659.
65. Phillips JC, Braun R, Wang W, Gumbart J, Tajkhorshid E, Villa E, et al. Scalable molecular dynamics with NAMD. *J Comput Chem* 2005;26(16):1781-802.

66. Aminpour M, Montemagno C, Tuszynski JA. An Overview of Molecular Modeling for Drug Discovery with Specific Illustrative Examples of Applications. *Molecules* 2019;24(9):1693.
67. Kim S, Thiessen PA, Bolton EE, Chen J, Fu G, Gindulyte A, et al. PubChem Substance and Compound databases. *Nucleic Acids Res* 2016;44(D1):D1202-13.
68. Irwin JJ, Sterling T, Mysinger MM, Bolstad ES, Coleman RG. ZINC: a free tool to discover chemistry for biology. *J Chem Inf Model* 2012;52(7):1757-68.
69. Irwin JJ, Shoichet BK. ZINC--a free database of commercially available compounds for virtual screening. *J Chem Inf Model* 2005;45(1):177-82.
70. Jo S, Kim T, Iyer VG, Im W. CHARMM-GUI: a web-based graphical user interface for CHARMM. *J Comput Chem* 2008;29(11):1859-65.
71. Sastry GM, Adzhigirey M, Day T, Annabhimoju R, Sherman W. Protein and ligand preparation: parameters, protocols, and influence on virtual screening enrichments. *J Comput Aided Mol Des* 2013;27(3):221-34.
72. McGibbon RT, Beauchamp KA, Harrigan MP, Klein C, Swails JM, Hernández CX, et al. MDTraj: A Modern Open Library for the Analysis of Molecular Dynamics Trajectories. *Biophys J* 2015;109(8):1528-32.
73. Roe DR, Cheatham TE 3rd. PTRAJ and CPPTRAJ: Software for Processing and Analysis of Molecular Dynamics Trajectory Data. *J Chem Theory Comput* 2013;9(7):3084-95.
74. Skjærven L, Yao XQ, Scarabelli G, Grant BJ. Integrating protein structural dynamics and evolutionary analysis with Bio3D. *BMC Bioinformatics* 2014;15(1):399.
75. Lindorff-Larsen K, Maragakis P, Piana S, Eastwood MP, Dror RO, Shaw DE. Systematic validation of protein force fields against experimental data. *PLoS One* 2012;7(2):e32131.
76. Goh GB, Hulbert BS, Zhou H, Brooks CL 3rd. Constant pH molecular dynamics of proteins in explicit solvent with proton tautomerism. *Proteins* 2014;82(7):1319-31.
77. Dhorajiwala TM, Halder ST, Samant LR. Computer-aided docking studies of phytochemicals from plants *Salix subserata* and *Onion* as inhibitors of glycoprotein G of rabies virus. *Biomedical and Biotechnology Research Journal (BBRJ)* 2019;3(4):269.
78. Bohacek RS, McMartin C, Guida WC. The art and practice of structure-based drug design: a molecular modeling perspective. *Med Res Rev* 1996;16(1):3-50.
79. Torres PHM, Sodero ACR, Jofily P, Silva-Jr FP. Key Topics in Molecular Docking for Drug Design. *Int J Mol Sci* 2019;20(18):4574.
80. Kuntz ID, Blaney JM, Oatley SJ, Langridge R, Ferrin TE. A geometric approach to macromolecule-ligand interactions. *J Mol Biol* 1982;161(2):269-88.
81. Liu Z, Liu Y, Zeng G, Shao B, Chen M, Li Z, et al. Application of molecular docking for the degradation of organic pollutants in the environmental remediation: A review. *Chemosphere* 2018;203:139-150.
82. Kitchen DB, Decornez H, Furr JR, Bajorath J. Docking and scoring in virtual screening for drug discovery: methods and applications. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 2004;3(11):935-49.
83. Brooijmans N, Kuntz ID. Molecular recognition and docking algorithms. *Annu Rev Biophys Biomol Struct* 2003;32:335-73.
84. Halperin I, Ma B, Wolfson H, Nussinov R. Principles of docking: An overview of search algorithms and a guide to scoring functions. *Proteins* 2002;47(4):409-43.
85. Saikia A, Palherkar DA, Hiremath L. In silico analysis and structural prediction of a hypothetical protein from *Leishmania major*. *Biomedical and Biotechnology Research Journal (BBRJ)* 2021;5(3):320.
86. ten Brink T, Exner TE. Influence of protonation, tautomeric, and stereoisomeric states on protein-ligand docking results. *J Chem Inf Model* 2009;49(6):1535-46.
87. Cross JB, Thompson DC, Rai BK, Baber JC, Fan KY, Hu Y, et al. Comparison of several molecular docking programs: pose prediction and virtual screening accuracy. *J Chem Inf Model* 2009;49(6):1455-74.
88. Kumar S, Sahu P, Jena L. An *In silico* approach to identify potential inhibitors against multiple drug targets of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *Int J Mycobacteriol* 2019;8(3):252-261.
89. Li X, Li Y, Cheng T, Liu Z, Wang R. Evaluation of the performance of four molecular docking programs on a diverse

- set of protein-ligand complexes. *J Comput Chem* 2010;31(11):2109-25.
90. McConkey BJ, Sobolev V, Edelman M. The performance of current methods in ligand-protein docking. *Current Science* 2002;845-56.
 91. Halder ST, Dhorajiwala TM, Samant LR. Molecular docking studies of filarial β -tubulin protein models with antifilarial phytochemicals. *Biomedical and Biotechnology Research Journal (BBRJ)* 2019;3(3):162.
 92. Morris GM, Goodsell DS, Halliday RS, Huey R, Hart WE, Belew RK, et al. Automated docking using a Lamarckian genetic algorithm and an empirical binding free energy function. *Journal of Computational Chemistry* 1998;19(14):1639-62.
 93. Trott O, Olson AJ. AutoDock Vina: improving the speed and accuracy of docking with a new scoring function, efficient optimization, and multithreading. *J Comput Chem* 2010;31(2):455-61.
 94. de Magalhães CS, Almeida DM, Barbosa HJ, Dardenne LE. A dynamic niching genetic algorithm strategy for docking highly flexible ligands. *Information Sciences* 2014;289:206-24.
 95. Magalhães CS, Barbosa HJ, Dardenne LE. Selection-insertion schemes in genetic algorithms for the flexible ligand docking problem. In Genetic and Evolutionary Computation Conference. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg. 2004; 368-379.
 96. Jones G, Willett P, Glen RC, Leach AR, Taylor R. Development and validation of a genetic algorithm for flexible docking. *J Mol Biol* 1997;267(3):727-48.
 97. Verdonk ML, Cole JC, Hartshorn MJ, Murray CW, Taylor RD. Improved protein-ligand docking using GOLD. *Proteins* 2003;52(4):609-23.
 98. Rarey M, Kramer B, Lengauer T, Klebe G. A fast flexible docking method using an incremental construction algorithm. *J Mol Biol* 1996;261(3):470-89.
 99. Thomsen R, Christensen MH. MolDock: a new technique for high-accuracy molecular docking. *J Med Chem* 2006;49(11):3315-21.
 100. Meng XY, Zhang HX, Mezei M, Cui M. Molecular docking: a powerful approach for structure-based drug discovery. *Curr Comput Aided Drug Des* 2011;7(2):146-57.
 101. Gioia D, Bertazzo M, Recanatini M, Masetti M, Cavalli A. Dynamic Docking: A Paradigm Shift in Computational Drug Discovery. *Molecules* 2017;22(11):2029.
 102. Berman HM, Battistuz T, Bhat TN, Bluhm WF, Bourne PE, Burkhardt K, et al. The Protein Data Bank. *Acta Crystallogr D Biol Crystallogr* 2002;58(Pt 6 No 1):899-907.
 103. Brady GP Jr, Stouten PF. Fast prediction and visualization of protein binding pockets with PASS. *J Comput Aided Mol Des* 2000;14(4):383-401.
 104. Laskowski RA. SURFNET: a program for visualizing molecular surfaces, cavities, and intermolecular interactions. *J Mol Graph* 1995;13(5):323-30, 307-8.
 105. Glaser F, Morris RJ, Najmanovich RJ, Laskowski RA, Thornton JM. A method for localizing ligand binding pockets in protein structures. *Proteins* 2006;62(2):479-88.
 106. Levitt DG, Banaszak LJ. POCKET: a computer graphics method for identifying and displaying protein cavities and their surrounding amino acids. *J Mol Graph* 1992;10(4):229-34.
 107. Goodford PJ. A computational procedure for determining energetically favorable binding sites on biologically important macromolecules. *J Med Chem* 1985;28(7):849-57.
 108. Kastenholtz MA, Pastor M, Cruciani G, Haaksma EE, Fox T. GRID/CPCA: a new computational tool to design selective ligands. *J Med Chem* 2000;43(16):3033-44.
 109. Mezei M. A new method for mapping macromolecular topography. *J Mol Graph Model* 2003;21(5):463-72.
 110. Hetényi C, van der Spoel D. Blind docking of drug-sized compounds to proteins with up to a thousand residues. *FEBS Lett* 2006;580(5):1447-50.
 111. Volkamer A, Kuhn D, Grombacher T, Rippmann F, Rarey M. Combining global and local measures for structure-based druggability predictions. *J Chem Inf Model* 2012;52(2):360-72.
 112. Meng EC, Shoichet BK, Kuntz ID. Automated docking with grid-based energy evaluation. *Journal of Computational Chemistry* 1992;13(4):505-24.
 113. Guedes IA, de Magalhães CS, Dardenne LE. Receptor-ligand molecular docking. *Biophys Rev* 2014;6(1):75-87.
 114. Zsoldos Z, Reid D, Simon A, Sadjad BS, Johnson AP. eHiTS: an innovative approach to the docking and scoring function problems. *Curr Protein Pept Sci* 2006;7(5):421-35.

115. Moitessier N, Englebienne P, Lee D, Lawandi J, Corbeil CR. Towards the development of universal, fast and highly accurate docking/scoring methods: a long way to go. *Br J Pharmacol* 2008;153 Suppl 1(Suppl 1):S7-26.
116. Kumar P, Chauhan V, Silva JRA, Lameira J, d'Andrea FB, Li SG, et al. Mycobacterium abscessus L,d-Transpeptidases Are Susceptible to Inactivation by Carbapenems and Cephalosporins but Not Penicillins. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2017;61(10):e00866-17.
117. Halder ST, Dhorajiwala TM, Samant LR. Multiple docking analysis and *In silico* absorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion, and toxicity screening of anti-leprosy phytochemicals and dapsonone against dihydropteroate synthase of *Mycobacterium leprae*. *Int J Mycobacteriol* 2019;8(3):229-236.
118. Ali MT, Blicharska N, Shilpi JA, Seidel V. Investigation of the anti-TB potential of selected propolis constituents using a molecular docking approach. *Sci Rep* 2018;8(1):12238.