



RESEARCH ARTICLE

Molecular docking and dynamic simulation studies against the ER α of breast cancer using biomolecules from *Asparagus aethiopicus* L.

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Abstract

Globally, breast cancer is the major cause of mortality among women, with a significant proportion of cases associated with estrogen receptor alpha (ER α)-positive subtypes. Targeting ER α has emerged as a promising therapeutic strategy for effective management of breast cancer. This study explores the anticancer potential of bioactive secondary metabolites from the root tubers of *Asparagus aethiopicus* L. against ER α using a comprehensive *in silico* approach. Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) has been utilized to analyze the methanolic extracts of the root tubers. A total of 25 different phytochemicals were screened initially for drug likeness property using Lipinski's rule of five. Out of eight phytomolecules were selected based on their pharmacokinetic and absorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion and toxicity (ADMET) profiles. Further, six molecules were subjected for molecular docking analysis to assess binding affinity against ER α followed by Molecular Dynamics (MD) simulations, binding free energy (ΔG) calculations, Molecular Mechanics Poisson-Boltzmann Surface Area (MMPBSA) and PCA analysis. Drug-likeness assessments based on Lipinski's rule identified Pent-3-ene-2-one, 3-phenyl-oxime, Hydroperoxide1-methylbutyl and 4-Hydroxy-2-butanone as promising drug candidates. Molecular docking studies revealed strong interactions with the active site of ER α , whose binding energies vary from -3.8 to -7.3 kcal/mol. These 3 phytomolecules form stable hydrogen bonds with the critical residues of active sides of ER α viz. Glu353, Leu387, Arg394 and Lys449. The structural stability and minimal conformational alterations of ER α with ligand binding was confirmed by MD simulations. The stability of the protein-ligand complexes was supported by Root Mean Square Deviation (RMSD) with minimal deviation in RMSD (<0.6 nm), Root Mean Square Fluctuation (RMSF), Radius of Gyration (Rg) and with Solvent Accessible Surface Area (SASA) which indicates stable protein compactness. Moreover, PCA revealed dominant motions with minimal fluctuation in PC3, suggesting highly stabilized complexes. Hydrogen bond analysis highlighted stable and optimal interaction throughout the simulation. Among the tested compounds, Pent-3-ene-2-one, 3-phenyl-oxime exhibited the lowest binding free energy. This is primarily driven by Vander Waals interactions and polar solvation energy, indicating superior binding affinity. Thus, these finding explains the potential of *A. aethiopicus* phytochemicals as potent ER α inhibitors and provide a base for future *in vitro* and *in vivo* investigation into their application in breast cancer therapy.

Keywords: *A. aethiopicus*; breast cancer (Bc_a); ER α ; molecular docking; MD simulation; MMPBSA; PCA

Introduction

Cancer is an unorganized and uncontrolled growth, in which controlling and regulating power have disappeared, leading to cell immortality and aggressive proliferation. These cancerous cells can invade surrounding tissues, exhibit metastatic behavior and spread to various organs. It is a major global health burden. It causes major economic losses and premature deaths across the world (1). Among women worldwide, breast cancer ranks as one of the most prevalent cancer, significantly contributing to global disease burden (2-4). In India, breast cancer accounts for over 27 % of all cancer cases, often resulting in disruption of normal mammary epithelial cell function (5). More than 60-70 % of breast

cancer cases are identified as estrogen receptor alpha (ER α) positive subtypes (6-8). ER α is a hormone receptor which consists of 595 amino acids. It plays a vital role in gene transcription through of its two domains viz ligand-independent AF-1 and ligand-dependent AF-2. The receptor is also characterized by a DNA-binding domain (DBD) and a ligand-binding domain, connected by a hinge region (9-11). Within the nucleus, ligand bounded ER α undergoes conformational changes, recruits co-activators and directly interacts with specific DNA sequences called estrogen response elements (EREs). The latter is present in the promoter regions of target genes (12, 13).

Estrogen receptor (ER) exists in two isoforms, ER α and

ER β , which differ in activity, energy requirements, gene regulation and tissue distribution. Elevated estrogen levels can increase breast cancer risk by binding to ER, regulating apoptosis and promoting malignant cell growth (14). ER α is critical in breast cancer prevention and treatment, as it regulates differentiation and cell proliferation through paracrine signaling mechanism (15).

Asparagus aethiopicus L. (Asparagaceae) is a perennial monocot herb. It is grown both as indoor as well as outdoor plant. It has green aerial scrambling, twining, or arching stems with flattened cladophyll. The flowers are bisexual and pedicels are 5-8 mm. The inflorescence is axillary raceme. The fruit is berry which is red in color. Despite its broad horticultural presence, its potential therapeutic applications, particularly in breast cancer, remain unexplored.

Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) serves as a robust analytical tool for deciphering the complex chemical profiles of plant extracts, allowing for the identification of a diverse array of bioactive compounds. The secondary metabolites play an important role in conferring therapeutic properties (16-18). People are using plants for therapeutic purposes to reduce pain and discomfort and to expand their overall well-being since long back (19). The present study aims to identify bioactive compounds in the methanolic root tuber extract of *A. aethiopicus* through GC-MS analysis and assess their potential as inhibitors of ER α . A comprehensive literature review reveals a substantial body of work on molecular docking studies involving *Asparagus racemosus* and *Asparagus officinalis* (20-23), but no similar studies have been conducted on *A. aethiopicus*. This evaluation includes drug-likeness characteristics, molecular docking, MD simulations, PCA and analysis of MMPBSA free energy. Moreover, it highlights a significant research gap, making this study the first to investigate the molecular docking and therapeutic potential of *A. aethiopicus* phytochemicals in the reference to breast cancer. *A. aethiopicus* act as a novel candidate for therapy of breast cancer. This research also helps in fulfilling an urgent need for safer, cost-effective treatments, for breast cancer management.

Methodology

Collection of plant material

The root tubers of *A. aethiopicus* were procured in October, 2024 from the Botanical Garden of CCS University, Meerut, Uttar Pradesh, India. Identification of the plant material was conducted through detailed morphological studies using relevant literature (24, 25). Voucher specimens were prepared and deposited in the herbarium and museum of the Botany department of CCS University, Meerut.

Preparation of plant extracts

Fifty grams fresh materials of root tubers were air-dried under room temperature for two weeks. The air-dried tubers were then ground into a fine powder using a mortar and pestle which weighed approximately 7 g. This fine ground powder was found in the ratio of 7.1:1 fresh-to-powder respectively. For extraction, around 1 g of the powdered sample was subjected to Soxhlet extraction using methanol as the solvent. The crude methanolic extract, enriched with bioactive compounds, was obtained through this process.

Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) analysis

The methanolic root tuber extract was analyzed using Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) to identify and quantify their chemical constituents. The analysis was performed on a high-resolution GC-MS system equipped with a SH-Rxi-5Sil MS column (30 m \times 0.25 mm i.d., 0.25 μ m film thickness), composed of 5 % biphenyl and 95 % dimethyl polysiloxane. The GC-MS conditions were as follows: column temperature (initially set as 50 $^{\circ}$ C and increased to 300 $^{\circ}$ C at a rate of 5 $^{\circ}$ C/min); Carrier Gas [Helium (He), at a constant flow rate of 1.0 mL/min]; Injection Volume (1 μ L); Temperature Range (320-350 $^{\circ}$ C for the analysis) and Mass Detection Range [mass-to-charge ratio (m/z) 50-650]. The chemical constituents were identified based on their retention times and mass spectra (Fig. 1). An integrated chemical library search program was utilized for compound identification. Quantification of the relative abundance of each compound was

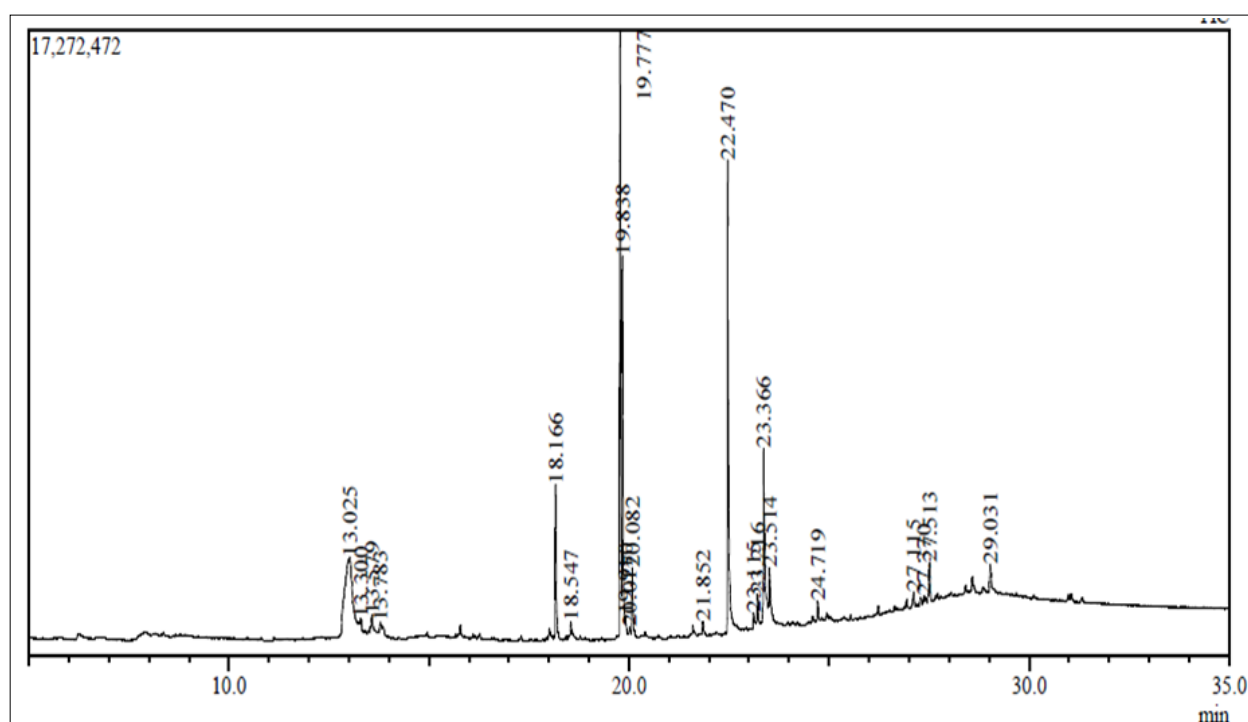


Fig. 1. GC-MS chromatogram showing the phytochemical profile of the methanolic root extract of *A. aethiopicus*.

performed through peak integration and area normalization. Thus, the result provides a comprehensive chemical profile of the plant extracts (Table 1) for identification of key bioactive compounds for further studies.

Molecular docking

Library generation and protein retrieval

Preparation of ligands: A total of 25 metabolites were identified through GC-MS analysis of the methanolic extract of *A. aethiopicus* root tubers. A library of eight structurally distinct phytochemicals were selected for molecular docking studies based on their bioactive potential. The 3D structures in SDF format of these compounds were retrieved from the Pub-Chem database (26). The SDF format was converted to PDBQT format (27).

Preparation of the target protein: The crystal structure of the target protein known as ER α , was retrieved from the RCSB Protein Data Bank (PDB ID: 3ERT) in PDB format (28). Protein preparation involved conversion to PDBQT format using AutoDock 4.2 (29). Energy minimization and structural optimization were performed using Swiss-PdbViewer (SPDBV) to ensure stability and suitability for docking simulations.

Procedure for molecular docking: Molecular docking was conducted using AutoDock Vina (29). The prepared protein and ligand library were evaluated for the binding affinities and interactions between the selected phytochemicals and the target enzyme.

Prediction of ADMET and physicochemical property: The ADMET, physicochemical, pharmacokinetic and toxicological properties of the selected compounds were evaluated using the Swiss-ADME online web server. Key parameters such as Blood-Brain Barrier (BBB) permeability; Human Intestinal Absorption (HIA); CaCO₂ permeability and drug clearance (9CL), were evaluated. Additionally, physicochemical properties including molecular weight, hydrogen bond donors/acceptors, lipophilicity, molar refractivity, rotatable bonds and overall drug-likeness were examined (30).

Molecular docking studies: AutoDock Vina was utilized for molecular docking to identify potential anticancerous compounds (31). The grid center coordinates were set to X =

24.447, Y = -1.464 and Z = 27.009, with a grid box size of 40 Å × 40 Å × 40 Å. Binding energy values ranged from -3.8 to -7.3 kcal/mol, indicating strong interactions between the phytochemicals and ER α .

Molecular dynamics simulations for assessing phytochemical-protein complexes

MD simulations were carried out to assess the dynamic behavior of the protein-ligand complexes. Simulations utilized the AMBER force field (32) inbuilt in the GROMACS 2020.1-1 (33). The AcPype server (34) was utilized to generate topology file of the ligand. A cubic simulation box was used to solvate the protein-ligand complexes, followed by the addition of sufficient ions for neutralization of the system. Energy minimization was performed by employing the steepest descent algorithm, with a convergence threshold of less than 1000 kJ/mol/nm to eliminate any steric clashes within the system. Following energy minimization, equilibration was conducted in two phases:

- NVT equilibration:** A constant number, volume and temperature (NVT) simulation was carried out for 100 ns at 300 K, during which the system's coordinates were saved.
- NPT equilibration:** After achieving temperature stability, a constant number, pressure and temperature (NPT) simulation was conducted for an additional 100 ns. During this phase, the temperature and pressure were maintained at 300 K and 1 bar respectively, using coupling constants of 0.1 ps for both parameters.

In the NVT ensemble, the solvent and ions were kept unrestrained during the 100 ns equilibration. In the NPT ensemble, restraints on the protein and protein-ligand complexes were gradually reduced over the simulation duration to achieve a relaxed state. Hydrogen bonds were constrained using the LINCS algorithm (35). To ensure system stability at 300 K and 1 atm, temperature and pressure regulation were performed using Berendsen's thermostat and Parrinello-Rahman barostat respectively (36). The MD simulation trajectories were analyzed using tools available in the GROMACS package and custom Python 3.8 scripts. This computational framework

Table 1. Secondary metabolites identified in the root tubers of *A. aethiopicus* by GC-MS

Peak#	R.Time	Area	Area%	Height	Height %	Name	Base m/z
1	2.53	8651148	4.6	1194780	1.72	Hydroperoxide, 1-methylbutyl	43.05
2	2.661	10666393	5.68	1500412	2.16	Trimethylsilyl ethaneperoxoate	91
3	2.987	25553863	13.6	4790157	6.91	4-Hydroxy-2-Butanone	43.05
4	13.025	28214428	15.01	2087313	3.01	2-(Isobutoxymethyl)oxirane	57.05
5	13.3	1614671	0.86	366782	0.53	Dodecane, 4,6-dimethyl-	71.1
6	13.579	804328	0.43	411438	0.59	2,4-Di-tert-butylphenol	191.1
7	13.783	1416629	0.75	292891	0.42	Dodecanoic acid, methyl ester	74.05
8	18.166	7037594	3.74	4230739	6.1	Hexadecanoic acid, methyl ester	74.05
9	18.547	1000567	0.53	406298	0.59	n-Hexadecanoic acid	73
10	19.777	26928038	14.33	16737458	24.14	9,12-Octadecadienoic acid (Z,Z)-, methyl ester	67.05
11	19.838	18039174	9.6	10494403	15.13	9-Octadecenoic acid, methyl ester	55.05
12	19.91	1499275	0.8	580564	0.84	11-Octadecenoic acid, methyl ester	55.05
13	20.017	662012	0.35	258758	0.37	Eicosane	71.05
14	20.082	3358278	1.79	1881506	2.71	Methyl stearate	74.05
15	21.852	777928	0.41	339876	0.49	Tridecanoic acid, 4,8,12-trimethyl-, methyl ester	178.95
16	22.47	23763858	12.64	13025353	18.78	Phenol, 4,4'-(3-ethenyl-1-propene-1,3-diyl)bis	107.05
17	23.115	1196565	0.64	439589	0.63	Trans-4,4'-Dimethoxy-beta-methylchalcone	282.05
18	23.216	2094036	1.11	907951	1.31	Heneicosane	57.05
19	23.366	12971277	6.9	4883235	7.04	Phenol, 4,4'-(3-ethenyl-1-propene-1,3-diyl)bis	252.05
20	23.514	4813810	2.56	1528317	2.2	Pent-3-ene-2-one, 3-phenyl-, oxime	282.05
21	24.719	870830	0.46	517000	0.75	Tetracontane	57.05
22	27.115	1158749	0.62	434781	0.63	Stigmasta-5,22-dien-3-ol, acetate, (3- β)	81.1
23	27.37	701722	0.37	208073	0.3	Cholesta-4,6-dien-3-ol, (3- β)	135.05
24	27.513	2343931	1.25	1085479	1.57	β -Sitosterol acetate	147.1
25	29.031	1795999	0.96	738337	1.06	γ -Sitosterol	43.05

enabled the thorough investigation of the structural and dynamic behavior of the protein-ligand complexes under simulated physiological conditions.

Calculation of free energy using molecular mechanics Poisson-Boltzmann surface area (MMPBSA)

The binding free energy and residue-specific contributions were computed employing the MMPBSA method. In this approach, the solvation energy (ΔG_{psolv}) was calculated as the sum of the non-polar component based on SASA and the polar component (ΔG_{psolv}), derived from the Poisson-Boltzmann equation. The binding energy analysis was conducted over a 100 ns trajectory using the *gmxmmpbsa* module of GROMACS (37).

Principal component analysis (PCA)

The PCA was performed using the Galaxy server (38). Protein conformation is essential for its function, especially in preserving the structural stability necessary for binding sites. The covariance matrix helps in analyzing large-scale motions of enzyme-ligand complexes during simulations. PCA is widely used to assess key conformational variations and flexibility in these complexes. Thus, this computational workflow provides a detailed evaluation of the structural and energetic features of the protein-ligand complexes for investigating into the therapeutic potential of *A. aethiopicus* phytochemicals.

Results

Drug-likeness properties

From a pool of 25 selected secondary metabolites, only eight molecules were identified to follow the Lipinski's rule of five (Supplementary Table S1) (39). These eight compounds were selected for further molecular docking studies. The secondary

metabolites, along with their PubChem compound ID, molecular weight, molecular formula and canonical SMILES, are given in Table 2.

Analysis of molecular docking

Among the eight docked compounds, only six compounds showed significant binding interactions with ER α (Table 3). The binding energy of these six phytochemicals with ER α ranges from -3.8 to -7.3 kcal/mol (Fig. 2). The binding energies of the compounds were as follows: 4-Hydroxy-2-butanone (-3.8 kcal/mol); Hydroperoxide,1-methylbutyl and 2-(isobutoxymethyl)oxirane (-4.5 kcal/mol); Pent-3-ene-2-one,3-phenyl-,oxime (-6.6 kcal/mol); 2,4-Di-tert-butylphenol (-7.2 kcal/mol) and Trans-4,4'-Dimethoxy-beta-methylchalcone (-7.3 kcal/mol) (Fig. 2). These molecules established interactions with the active site residues of ER α via hydrogen bonds (H-bonds), Vander Waals forces, π - π stacking, π - σ and interaction of π -alkyl. Interaction analysis highlighted that the molecules consistently interacted with Leu387, a critical residue in the active site of ER α .

Molecular docking visualization of ER α complex

The docking results were analyzed and visualized using a combination of PyMOL and Ligplot+ software. PyMOL enables the three-dimensional (3D) visualization of protein-ligand interactions (40), while Ligplot+ provides two-dimensional (2D) schematic molecular interactions (41). The LigPlot+ software automatically generates interaction between profiles showing hydrogen bonds and hydrophobic interactions between the ligand and ER α residues. A comprehensive analysis of 3D molecular interactions, as estimated from docking revealed critical bonding patterns contributing to the stability of these complexes (Fig. 3).

Table 2. Secondary metabolites library of *A. aethiopicus* and drug-likeness based on Lipinski's rule of five

PubChem CID	Secondary metabolite name	Molecular weight (in g/mol)	Molecular formula	Canonical SMILES
139664	Hydroperoxide,1-methylbutyl (L2)	104.15	C ₅ H ₁₂ O ₂	CCCC(C)OO
12571375	Trimethylsilyl ethaneperoxoate	148.23	C ₅ H ₁₂ O ₃ Si	CC(=O)OO[Si](C)(C)C
111509	4-Hydroxy-2-butanone (L3)	88.11	C ₄ H ₈ O ₂	CC(=O)CCO
98155	2-(Isobutoxymethyl)oxirane	130.18	C ₇ H ₁₄ O ₂	CC(C)COCC1CO1
7311	2,4-Di-tert-butylphenol	206.32	C ₁₄ H ₂₂ O	CC(C)(C)C1=CC(=C(C=C1)O)C(C)(C)C
6915833	Nyasol	252.31	C ₁₇ H ₁₆ O ₂	C=C[C@H](/C=C\C1=CC=C(C=C1)O)C2=CC=C(C=C2)O
5337676	trans-4,4'-Dimethoxy-beta-methylchalcone	282.30	C ₁₈ H ₁₈ O ₃	C/C(=C\C(=O)C1=CC=C(C=C1)OC)/C2=CC=C(C=C2)OC
9602655	Pent-3-ene-2-one, 3-phenyl-, oxime (L1)	175.23	C ₁₁ H ₁₃ NO	C/C=C(\C1=CC=CC=C1)/C(=N/O)/C

Note: L1 = Pent-3-ene-2-one, 3-phenyl-, oxime; L2 = Hydroperoxide,1-methylbutyl; L3 = 4-Hydroxy-2-butanone.

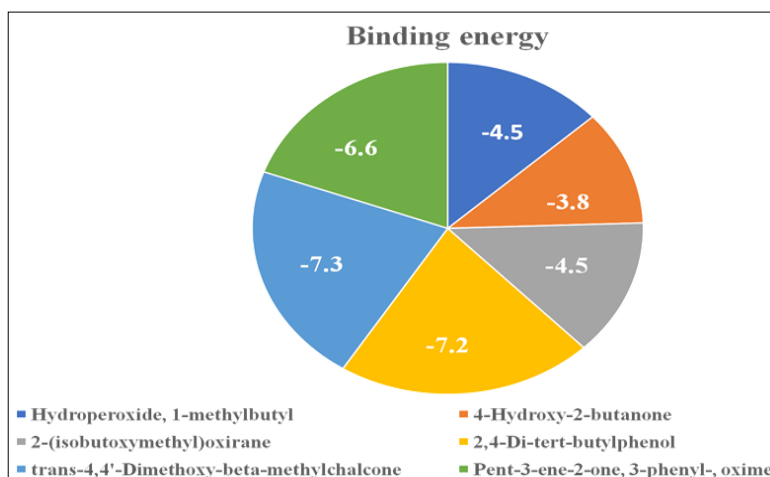


Fig. 2. Binding energies of selected secondary metabolites of *A. aethiopicus* against ER α as determined by molecular docking.

Table 3. Top-docked secondary metabolites of *A. aethiopicus* against ER α

Sr. No.	Compounds name	Type of bond interaction	Number of Bonds	Bond formation (amino acids and ligands)
1	Hydroperoxide,1methylbutyl	π -alkyl	5	Leu391, Leu387, Met388, Phe404, Leu346
2	4-Hydroxy-2-butanone	Hydrogen bond	2	Arg394, Leu387
		Hydrogen bond	2	Lys449, Glu353
3	2-(Isobutoxymethyl)oxirane	Hydrogen bond	1	Lys449
		Carbon-Hydrogen bond	1	Glu355
		Alkyl bond	3	Met357, Pro324, Ile386
4	2,4-Di-tert-butylphenol	π -sulfur	1	Met421
		π -alkyl	3	Leu346, Leu525, Leu384
5	trans-4,4'-Dimethoxy-beta-methylchalcone	π -alkyl	7	Ala350, Leu525, Met343, Leu346, Leu387, Leu391, Phe404
		Hydrogen Bond	3	Glu353, Leu387, Arg394
6	Pent-3-ene-2-one, 3-phenyl-oxime	π -sulfur	2	Met421, Met388
		π -alkyl	6	Leu391, Leu387, Leu346, Ala350, Leu349, Phe404

Molecular dynamics simulations

Additionally, MD simulations of certain phytomolecules were carried out. Proteins can experience a wide variety of conformational changes as a result of ligand interaction. Therefore, we have calculated several metrics such as RMSD, RMSF and Rg for free and all protein-ligand complexes in order to analyse the structural changes induced by ligand in protein and the stability of protein-ligand complexes (Table 4).

Root Mean Square Deviation (RMSD) analysis

The RMSD is an important parameter to quantify the extent of conformational changes in proteins during MD simulations. In this study, the RMSD of the C α atoms from their initial structures were calculated to evaluate the stability of the protein-ligand complexes. The time-dependent RMSD of the backbone atoms of ER α in both free and ligand-bounded state was observed to range between 0.20 and 0.60 nm, stabilizing to a plateau within 20 ns of the simulation. These low RMSD values suggest a high degree of stability for ER α in both its free and ligand-bound conformations. Notably, the RMSD values for all systems remained below 0.6 nm throughout the simulation period (Fig. 4A). This indicates minimum deviation of the enzyme from its starting conformation. Furthermore, the binding of phytomolecules did not induce significant conformational changes in the protein backbone. This affirms the structural stability of ER α in the presence of ligands.

Flexibility and dynamics analysis using RMSF

The flexibility and dynamics of the system were evaluated through RMSF analysis. Most of the enzyme residues exhibited RMSF values that vary from 0.15 to 0.19 nm (Fig. 4B). This observation with minimum fluctuations suggests that the positional stability of the amino acid residues remains largely unaffected by the binding of phytochemicals to the active site of ER α . Consequently, it can be concluded that the ligand-protein interactions does not significantly alter the overall dynamics of protein.

Radius of gyration analysis

The Rg serves as a measure of protein compactness, with lower Rg values indicating greater stability. Since, ligand binding can potentially induce protein unfolding and the variation in Rg was

analyzed throughout the simulation for all cases. For the unbound ER α the Rg values were centered around ~1.85 nm. Similarly, Rg values varying from ~1.85 to 1.92 nm were observed for ER α bound to the proposed phytomolecules (Fig. 4C). These results indicate that the binding of the phytomolecules does not affect the structural integrity or compactness of ER α .

Solvent Accessible Surface Area (SASA) analysis

Hydrophobic interactions displayed between non-polar amino acids play an important role in stabilizing globular proteins by shielding these residues within hydrophobic cores from the aqueous environment. The SASA provides a theoretical measure of changes in protein accessibility to solvent that reflects the role of free energy of solvation for each atom in the system, including water and the polar and non-polar amino acids of the protein. In the case of independent ER α , the SASA profile peaked at approximately ~130 nm². Upon binding with ligands, SASA values shifted to a range of ~132-138 nm² (Fig. 4D). Since the observed SASA values show minimal deviation compared to the control, it can be inferred that the binding of these compounds does not disrupt protein folding or alter the structural integrity of ER α .

Hydrogen bond analysis

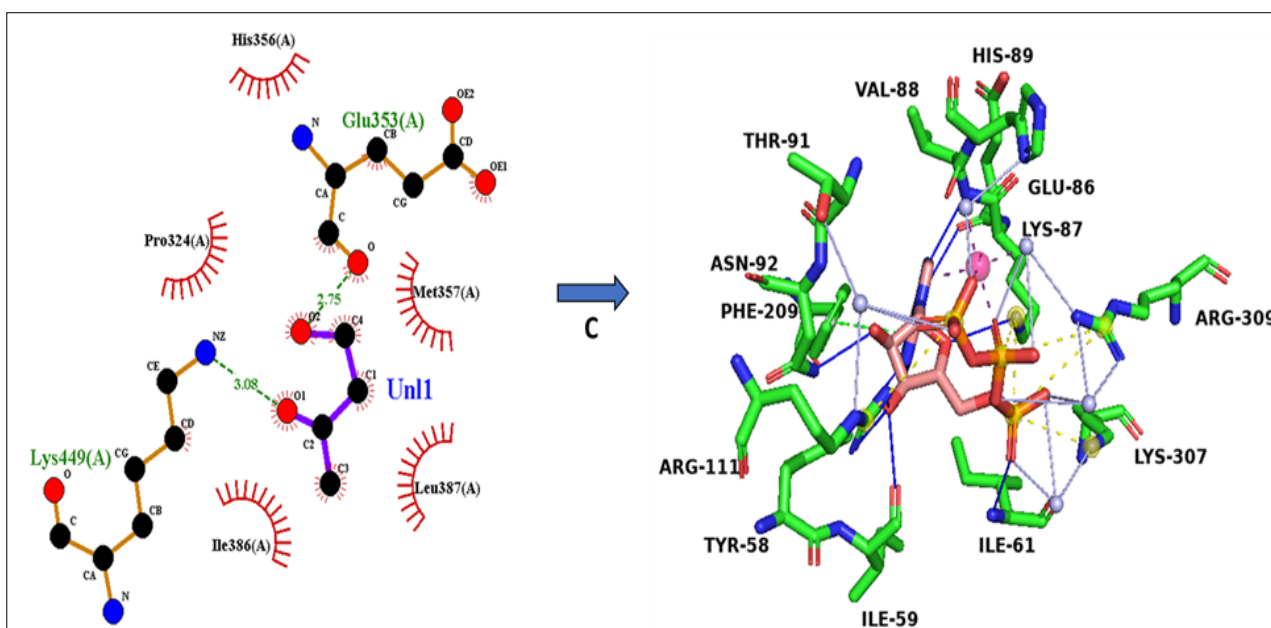
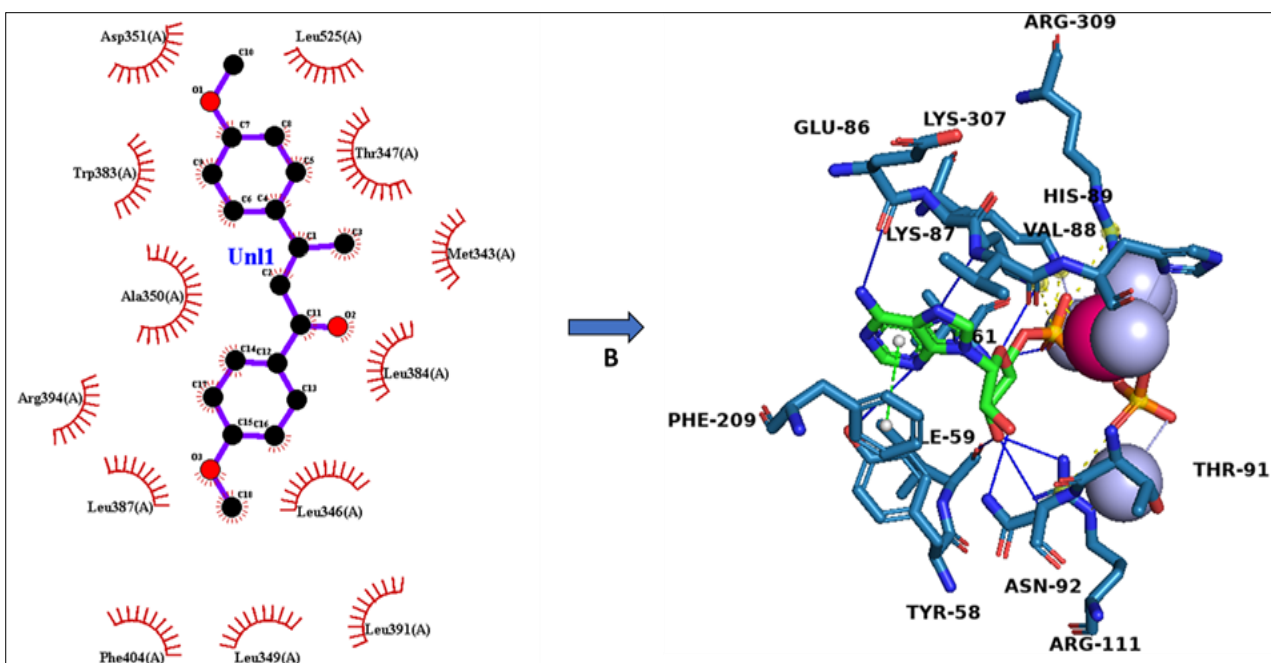
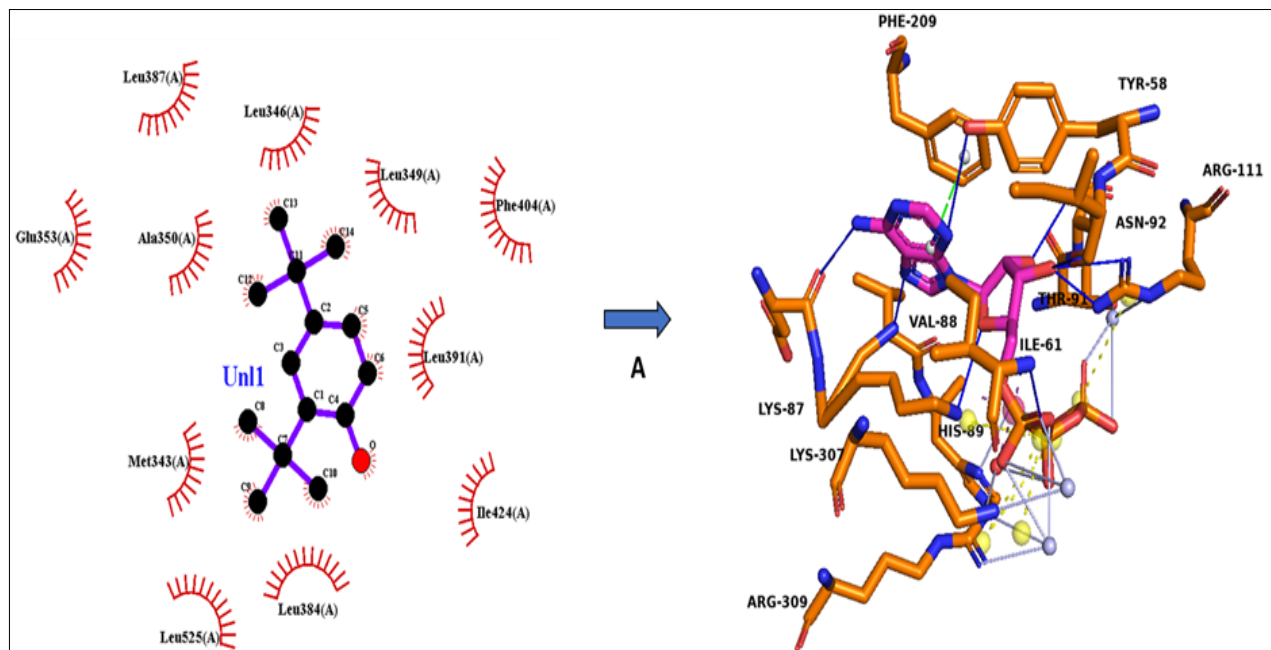
The H-bond interactions between ER α and the bioactive metabolites were evaluated using the hydrogen bond module of GROMACS. The distribution of H-bonds was monitored throughout the 100 ns simulation, with the maximum H-bond distances ranging from 0.25 to 0.35 nm. The H-bond distribution graph (Fig. 4F) indicates that H-bond formation initiated at a distance of 0.25 nm between the H-bond donor and acceptor, with the maximum distribution observed at a distance of 0.30 nm. Thus, these findings highlight the stability and optimal geometry of hydrogen bond interactions (Fig. 4E) in the ligand-receptor complexes.

Binding free energy analysis

The binding free energy (ΔG) of the ligand-ER α complexes were calculated using MMPBSA analysis. This provides insights into the binding potential of ligands. The MMPBSA results confirmed that all tested molecules successfully bind to the active site of ER α to

Table 4. Average values of different parameters of MD simulations for L1, L2 and L3 against ER- α

Sr. no.	Parameters	Control	L1	L2	L3
1	Backbone RMSD	0.328 \pm 0.0313	0.267 \pm 0.036	0.239 \pm 0.021	0.272 \pm 0.030
2	Complex RMSD	-	0.620 \pm 0.0661	0.273 \pm 0.035	0.340 \pm 0.030
3	Ligand RMSD	-	0.079 \pm 0.018	0.082 \pm 0.017	0.070 \pm 0.015
4	Radius of gyration	1.586 \pm 0.180	1.592 \pm 0.177	1.581 \pm 0.173	1.584 \pm 0.172
5	SASA	133.438 \pm 4.394	134.850 \pm 3.887	133.236 \pm 2.737	135.263 \pm 3.025
6	RMSF	0.125 \pm 0.101	0.128 \pm 0.098	0.119 \pm 0.072	0.125 \pm 0.092



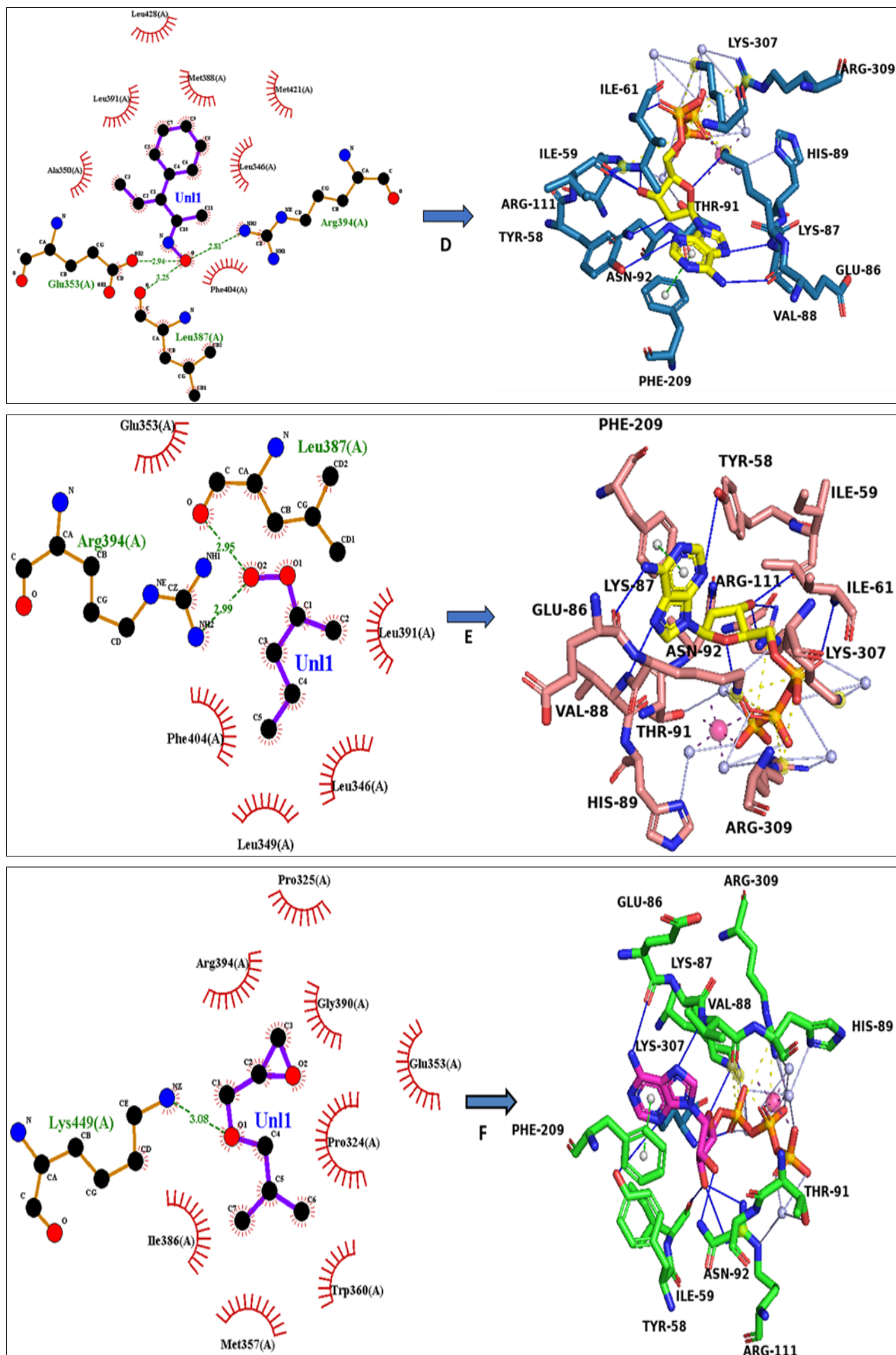


Fig. 3. Visualization of 2D & 3D complexes: (A). 2,4-Di-tert-butylphenol; (B). 4-Hydroxy-2-butanone; (C). trans-4,4'-Dimethoxy-beta-methylchalcone; (D). Pent-3-ene-2-one, 3-phenyl-, oxime; (E). Hydroperoxide, 1-methylbutyl, genistein; (F). 2-(isobutoxymethyl) oxirane.

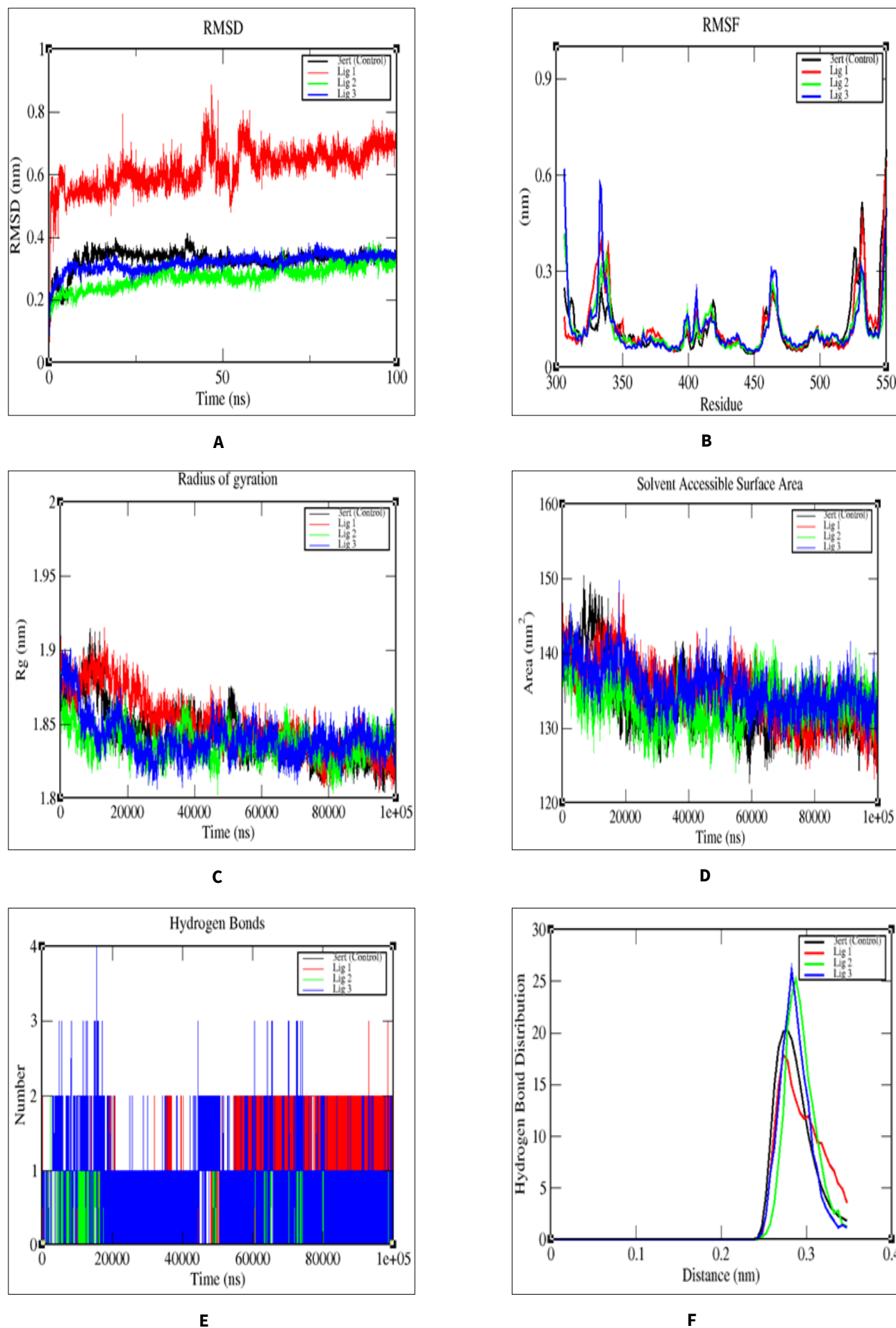


Fig. 4. Plot of MD simulation between L1, L2, L3 & ERα: (A) RMSD; (B) RMSF; (C) Radius of gyration; (D) SASA; (E) H-bond; (F) H-bond distribu-

form stable complexes. Among the three tested ligands, L1 exhibited the lowest binding free energy, indicating the highest binding affinity with ER α . The variation in ΔG values was primarily influenced by the Vander Waals interaction component (ΔE_{vdw}) and the polar solvation free energy component (ΔG_{psolv}), which plays significant role in lowering the binding free energy (Fig. 5). Moreover, other additional energy components including, ΔE_{EL} , ΔG_{psolv} and ΔG_{npsolv} . These energies also contributed to the overall binding free energy of the enzyme-ligand complexes (Table 5).

Principal component analysis (PCA)

PCA was utilized to determine the conformational changes in the protein due to binding of ligands (L1, L2 and L3) with protein. PCA reveals the collective motions of MD trajectories. The PC1, PC2 and PC3 are represented in Fig. 6(A-C). The eigenvalues of receptor for the first 20 modes of motion have been plotted against the respective eigenvector index. The conformational changes in all clusters are indicated by PCA. The blue region shows the most significant movements, while the white region shows intermediate movements and the red region shows the least flexible movement.

Table 5. Free energy depiction of protein ligand-complex (KJ/mol) through MMPBSA analysis

Sr. No.	Compound	$\Delta E_{VDWAALS}$	ΔE_{EL}	ΔE_{PB}	ΔE_{NPOLAR}	ΔG_{GAS}	ΔG_{SOLV}	$\Delta Total$
1	L1	-28.95 ± 1.68	-10.51 ± 3.15	21.26 ± 1.89	-2.72 ± 0.02	-39.47 ± 3.12	18.78 ± 1.87	-20.69 ± 1.77
2	L2	-15.24 ± 1.16	-15.90 ± 1.64	17.62 ± 1.07	-2.02 ± 0.035	-30.90 ± 1.24	15.60 ± 1.10	-15.30 ± 1.42
3	L3	-14 ± 1.63	-8.89 ± 6.14	22.23 ± 4.15	-1.70 ± 0.04	-22.89 ± 5.88	20.54 ± 4.19	-2.36 ± 1.91

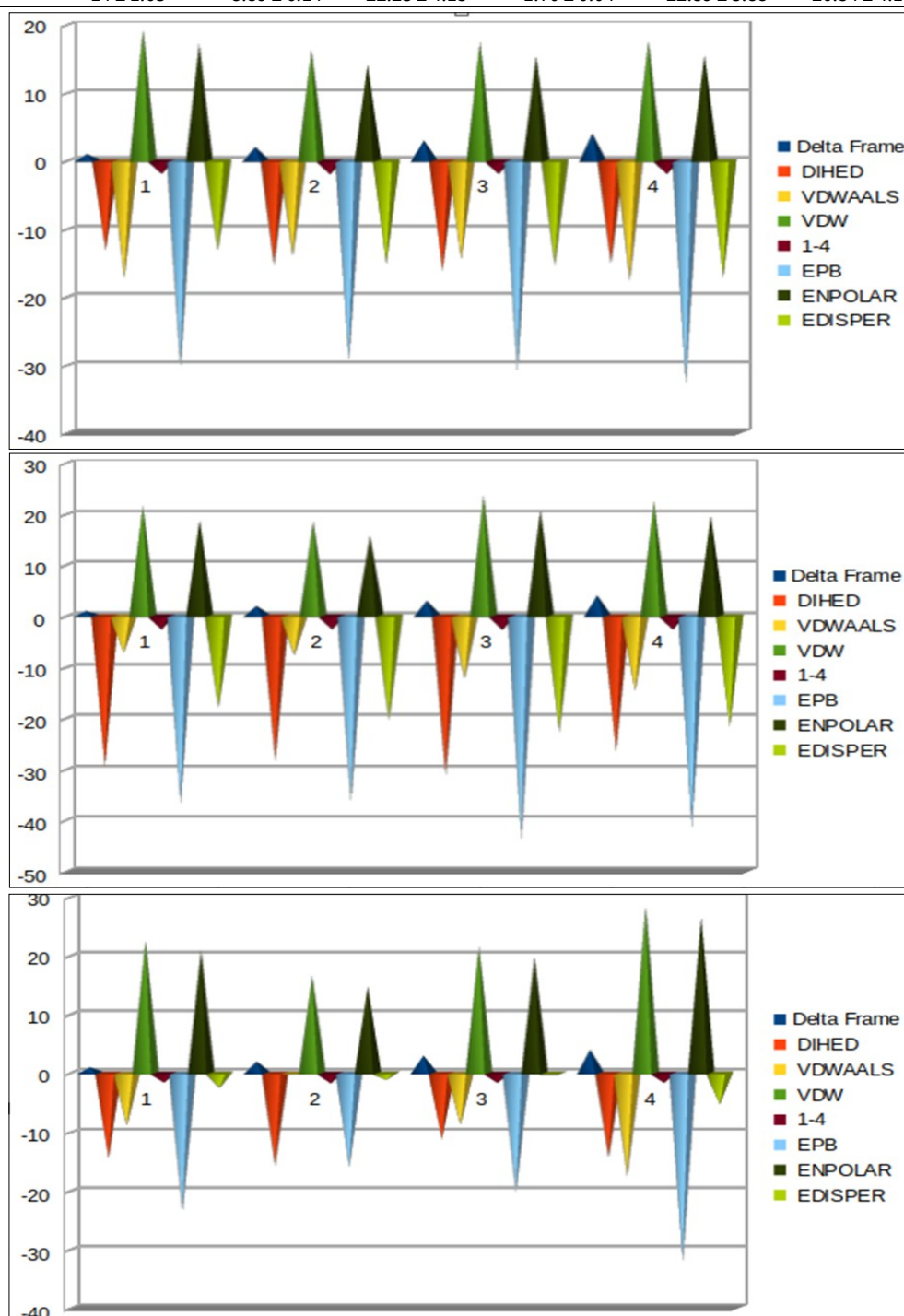
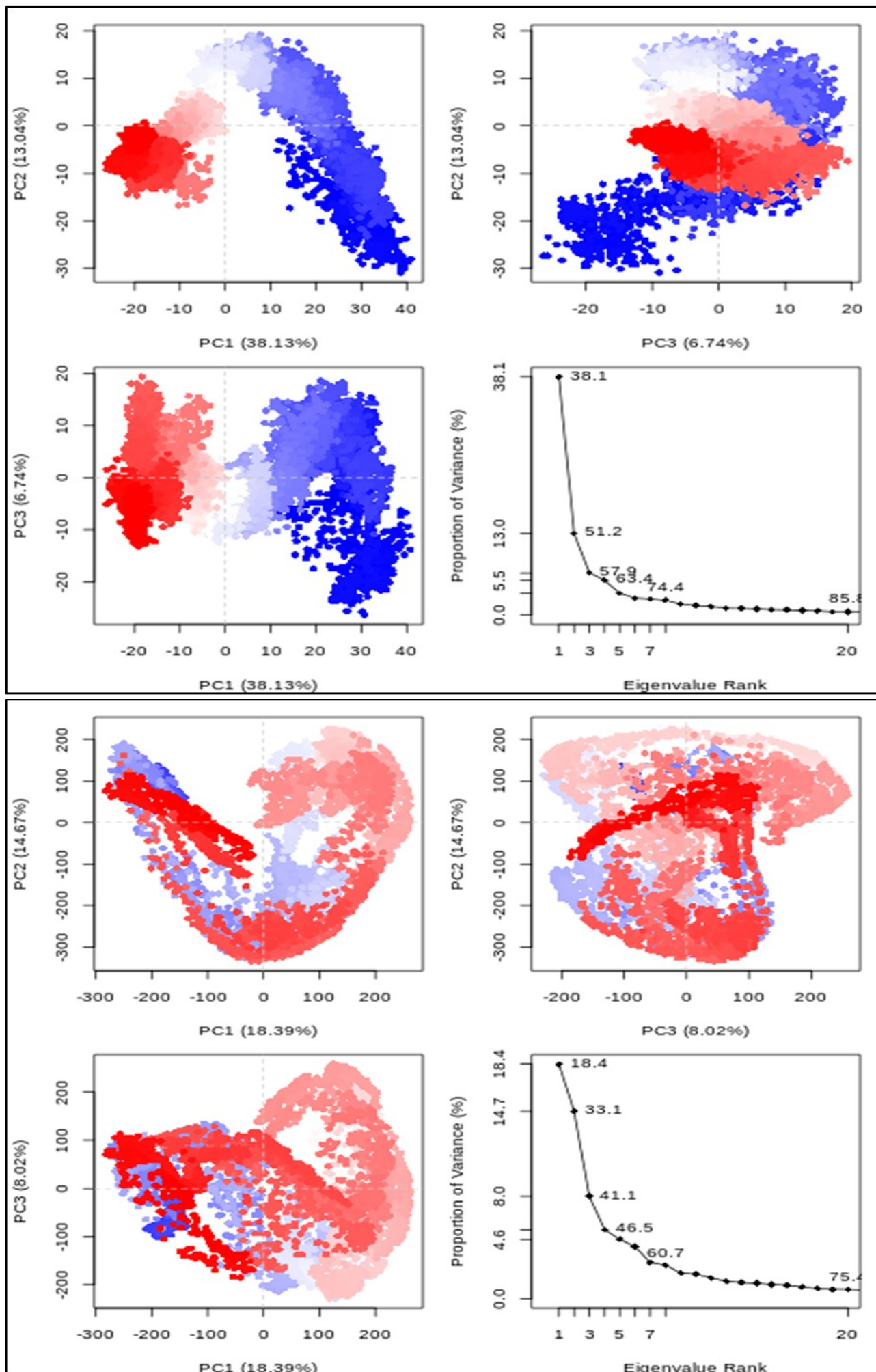


Fig. 5. Diagrammatic representation of protein-ligand complexes through MM-PBSA: (A) L1 & ER α ; (B) L2 & ER α ; (C) L3 & ER α .



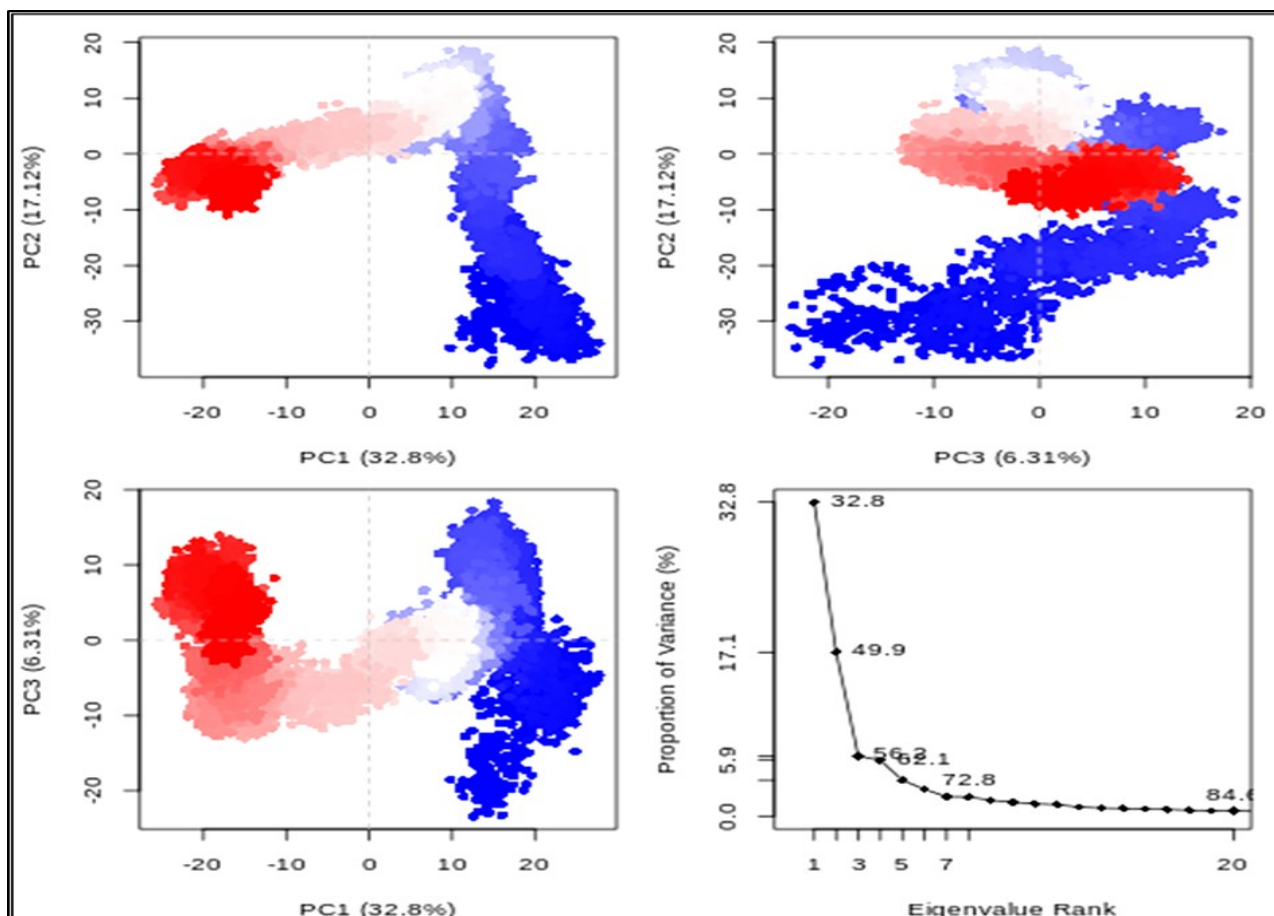


Fig. 6. (A-C) Interpretation of variance (ER α - L1, L2, L3) against eigenvalues calculated by principal component analysis.

Overall protein movement was controlled by higher value of eigenvectors. In our system the values of eigenvector were 0.0 to 38.1, 0.0 to 18.4 and 0.0 to 32.8 for L1, L2 and L3 respectively, whereas eigenvalue ranges from 38.1 % to 74.4 %, 18.4 % to 60.7 % and 32.8 % to 72.8 % for L1, L2 and L3 respectively. These higher values demonstrated the dominant movement of the protein. The PC1 cluster in PCA plot showed the highest variability of 38.13 %, 18.39 % and 32.8 %, PC2 showed variability of 13.04 %, 14.67 % and 17.12 %, while PC3 showed minimum variability of 6.74 %, 8.02 % and 6.31 %. The minimum variability of PC3 indicates highly stabilized protein ligand binding due to minimum fluctuations of values and a compact structure as compared to the PC1 and PC2 clusters.

Discussion

Molecular docking has emerged as a dispensable and high throughput *in silico* tool for identifying potential lead compounds against diverse molecular targets implicated in disease pathophysiology (42). Within the context of hormone-responsive cancers, ER α has long been recognized as a critical therapeutic target, particularly in estrogen-dependent breast cancers. A plethora of studies has evaluated the interaction of natural compounds with ER α and other proteins (49, 50), demonstrating the utility of phytochemicals as potential modulators with lesser side effects and improved biocompatibility. Several published literatures reflects a consistent interest in plant-derived molecules for anti-estrogenic activities. Compounds like Carvacrol from *Ocimum sanctum* (43), Isocorilagin from *Phyllanthus emblica* (44) and Anolignan B from *Terminalia bellerica* (45) have shown

promising ER α inhibitory potential. Other important inhibitors include quercetin-3- α -arabinoside, Guajadial, psidial A, Stigmasterol and Daidzein, derived from various ethnomedicinal plants. This affirms the strategic use of phytoconstituents in hormone-receptor targeting (46-48). A comprehensive *in silico* exploration on *A. racemosus* (20) against ER α and related targets such as ER β , HSP90 and 17 β -HSD1 further supports the therapeutic promise of the genus *Asparagus* in endocrine malignancies. In addition to this, several species of *Asparagus* have been evaluated for pharmacological activities beyond oncology. For instance, *A. racemosus* has been studied for neurodegenerative diseases like Alzheimer's through interactions with AChE, BuChE, BACE1 and MAO-B (53) and *Asparagus africanus* for hormonal receptors like LH and FSH (54). Similarly, *A. officinalis* has been investigated against key cancer-associated targets including AKT1, IL-6, VEGFA, MYC and EGFR (55). This indicates the broad-spectrum bioactivity of genus *Asparagus*. Despite this expansive coverage, the phytoconstituents of *Asparagus aethiopicus* remain largely unexplored, particularly in the context of breast cancer and ER α modulation. Several previous studies have indicated its antiviral (52), antioxidant (56) and anthelmintic (57) properties, but there is a noticeable gap in cancer-related molecular studies involving ER α . Moreover, although modulators such as Lupeol, Genistein and 7-Hydroxy-2-Methylisoflavone have demonstrated ER α affinity (58), no reported evidence exists for similar activity from *A. aethiopicus*. Our study addresses this research void by being the first to utilize molecular docking and molecular dynamics (MD) simulations to evaluate the binding efficacy and conformational stability of *A. aethiopicus*-derived biomolecules with ER α . The findings provide valuable preliminary

insights that could pave the way for novel plant-based therapeutics in estrogen-dependent breast cancer. Additionally, the integration of dynamic simulation studies reinforces the docking outcomes, offering a more realistic appraisal of ligand-receptor interactions under physiological conditions.

Conclusion

In this study, the anticancer potential of bioactive metabolites from *A. aethiopicus* against ER α was investigated using an *in silico* approach. The molecular docking analysis revealed that six metabolite showed the binding affinity against ER α , with binding energies varying from -3.8 to -7.3 kcal/mol. The compounds 4-Hydroxy-2-butanone Hydroperoxide, 1-methylbutyl; 2-(isobutoxymethyl)oxirane; Pent-3-ene-2-one, 3-phenyl-oxime; 2,4-Di-tert-butylphenol and trans-4,4'-Dimethoxy-beta-methylchalcone demonstrates the strongest binding interactions with ER α . The findings suggest that L1, L2 and L3 form hydrogen bond with critical residues of the ER α , such as (L1 - Glu353, Leu387, Arg394), (L2 - Arg394, Leu387) and (L3 - Lys449, Glu353). However, L1, L2 and L3 has not yet been reported as an anticancer compound. The MD simulations, PCA and MMPBSA free energy calculations further validated the stability and binding efficiency of L1, L2, L3 and ER α protein complex. L1, L2 and L3 from *A. aethiopicus* shows high binding scores and stability. This indicates that these molecules (L1, L2 and L3) potentially inhibit ER α which is essential for the treatment of breast cancer. Thus, the present study offers valuable insights for the phytochemicals extracted from roots of *A. aethiopicus* against cancer. Finally, this study not only opens new door for medicinal practitioners for experimental validation but also for pharmacologist for identification of its phytochemical therapeutics.

Limitations of the study

While this study highlights the potential interaction of *A. aethiopicus* phytochemical with ER α through computational approaches, it is primarily based on *in silico* analyses. Therefore, the findings need to be supported by experimental validation through *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies to confirm their biological activity and pharmacokinetic profiles.

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Authors' contributions

AA contributed to writing the original draft and performed the *in silico* analysis. DT, PJ and BA provided resources. VK and AK carried out the *in silico* analysis. YV contributed to writing, reviewing and editing the manuscript. VM supervised the work and was involved in reviewing, writing and editing the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest: Authors do not have any conflict of interest to declare.

Ethical issues: None

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