Antiproliferative potential of Physalis peruviana-derived magnolin against pancreatic cancer: A comprehensive in vitro and in silico study

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Abstract
Physalis peruviana L., is a common edible fruit in Egypt and other regional countries. In the present study, we investigated its crude extract as a potential source of antiproliferative secondary metabolites. Upon bioactivity guided-solvent fractionation, ethyl acetate extract showed preferential activity toward the human pancreatic cancer cell line (PANC-1) with an IC$_{50}$ value of 5.23 ± 0.2 µg/mL. The subsequent HR-LCMS-guided and biological activity-guided isolation revealed magnolin as a potent preferential antiproliferative agent against PANC-1 with an IC$_{50}$ of 0.51 ± 0.46 µM that was comparable to that of the positive control Doxorubocin (IC$_{50}$ of 0.17 ± 0.15 µM). Moreover, magnolin showed much less cytotoxicity in comparison with the positive control Doxorubicin (6.96% and 30.48% growth inhibition, respectively at 5 µg/mL) towards normal human cells (i.e. dermal fibroblasts; HDFa). Furthermore, magnolin was able to induce a concentration-dependent suppression of the formation of PANC-1 colonies, where the treatment of the tumor cells with 25 nM, 50 nM, and 100 nM of the compound resulted in a 36%, 57, and 78% reduction, respectively in the PANC-1 colony formation. Additionally, magnolin was observed to limit PANC-1 tumor cell migration in tumor cells wound healing assay indicating a substantial anti-migratory effect against PANC-1 cell lines. A subsequent, in silico-based study of this compound structure putatively suggested matrix metalloproteinase-3 (MMP3) as the molecular target that mediate these observed effects on PANC-1 cells. Absolute binding free energy estimation ($\Delta G_{binding}$) and 100 ns long molecular dynamics simulation (MDS) experiments indicated that magnolin structure has a good affinity towards the MMP3’s active site and can achieve significantly stable binding inside it. Accordingly, upon experimental validation, magnolin was found to inhibit the catalytic activity of MMP3 in a dose-dependent manner with a nanomolar IC$_{50}$ value of 185 nm ± 4.86 and $K_i$ of 112 nm ± 6.31. In conclusion, our results clearly revealed that magnolin derived from P. peruviana is an interesting antiproliferative and antimetastatic agent against PANC-1 cells with potent inhibitory activity against MMP3. Further in vivo evaluation will be of great interest in the future.

Keywords: Physalis peruviana, magnolin, PANC-1, antimigratory, in silico, MMP3 inhibitor.
Fig. S1 LC-HRESIMS chromatogram of the dereplicated metabolites of *P. peruviana* (positive mode).
Fig. S2 LC-HRESIMS chromatogram of the dereplicated metabolites of *P. peruviana* (negative mode).
Fig. S3 $^1$H-NMR spectrum of magnolin in DMSO-$d_6$, 400 MHz.
Fig. S4 $^{13}$C-NMR spectrum of magnolin in DMSO-$d_6$, 100 MHz.
Fig. S5 $^1$H-$^1$C-HSQC spectrum of magnolin in DMSO-$d_6$. 
Fig. S6 $^1$H-NMR spectrum of apigenin in DMSO-$d_6$, 400 MHz.
Fig. S7 $^{13}$C-NMR spectrum of apigenin in DMSO-$d_6$, 100 MHz.
Fig. S8 $^{1}\text{H}$-$^{13}\text{C}$-HSQC spectrum of apigenin in DMSO-$d_6$. 
Fig. S9 $^1$H-NMR spectrum of kaempferol in DMSO-$d_6$, 400 MHz.
Fig. S10 $^{13}$C-NMR spectrum of kaempferol in DMSO-$d_6$, 100 MHz.
Fig. S11 $^1$H-$^1$C-HSQC spectrum of kaempferol in DMSO-$d_6$. 
Fig. S12 $^1$H-NMR spectrum of quercetin in DMSO-$d_6$, 400 MHz.
Fig. S13 $^{13}$C-NMR spectrum of quercetin in DMSO-$d_6$, 100 MHz.
Fig. S14 $^1$H-$^{13}$C-HSQC spectrum of quercetin in DMSO-$d_6$. 
Fig. S15 ¹H-NMR spectrum of myricetin in CD₃COD, 400 MHz.
Fig. S16 $^{13}$C-NMR spectrum of myricetin in CD$_3$COD, 100 MHz.
Fig. S17 $^1$H-$^{13}$C-HSQC spectrum of myricetin in CD$_3$COD.
**Fig. S18.** UPLC chromatogram of the PEE showing the 5 isolated compounds. 1= myrecetin; 2= quercetin; 3= kaempferol; 4= apigenin; 5= magnolin.

**Fig. S19.** Growth inhibition of PEE’s fractions and sub-fractions (A and B, respectively) at concentration of 5 µg/mL against a set of human pancreatic cancer (PANC-1) cell lines using MTT assay.
Table S1. Concentration of the isolated compounds in PEE extract expressed as % w/w.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Concentration (%, w/w)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Myrecetin</td>
<td>0.38 ± 0.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quercetin</td>
<td>1.03 ± 0.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaempferol</td>
<td>0.68 ± 0.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apigenin</td>
<td>0.53 ± 0.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magnolin</td>
<td>1.14 ± 0.062</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Methods

LC-HRMS Chemical Profiling

The crude ethanolic extract was prepared at 1 mg/mL for mass spectrometry analysis. The recovered ethanolic extract was subjected to metabolic analysis using LC-HRESIMS according to previously reported protocol. An Acquity Ultra Performance Liquid Chromatography system connected to a Synapt G2 HDMS quadrupole time-of-flight hybrid mass spectrometer (Waters, Milford, USA) was used. Positive and negative ESI ionization modes were utilized to carry out the high-resolution mass spectrometry coupled with a spray voltage at 4.5 kV, the capillary temperature at 320 °C, and mass range from \( m/z \) 150-1500. The MS dataset was processed, and data were extracted using MZmine 2.20 based on the established parameters (Elmaidomy et al., 2020). Mass ion peaks were detected and accompanied by chromatogram builder and chromatogram deconvolution. The local minimum search algorithm was addressed, and isotopes were also distinguished via the isotopic peaks of grouper. Missing peaks were displayed using the gap-filling peak finder. An adduct search along with a complex search was carried out. The processed data set was next subjected to molecular formula prediction and peak identification. The positive and negative ionization mode data sets from the respective extract were dereplicated against the DNP (Dictionary of Natural Products) databases.

UPLC- assisted quantification of the isolated compounds

For flavonoids’ quantification in the extracts, the corresponding authentic standards (compounds 1-5) were dissolved in 50% aqueous acetonitrile to prepare stock solutions (1 mg mL\(^{-1}\)). Thereafter, they were diluted to obtain a series of working solutions that were kept at \(-4 \, ^\circ\text{C}\) and
were then brought to room temperature just before use. Subsequently, each dried extract was dissolved in 50% aqueous acetonitrile in a 10 mL volumetric flask. After that, 1 mL was filtered through 0.22 μm membrane filter before introduction to the LC system. The same mobile phase system was used (i.e. the mobile phase used for LC-HRMS analysis) over 10 min at a flow rate of 1 mL min\(^{-1}\) (Figure S18). A calibration curve was then obtained for each authentic flavonoid by plotting its peak areas vs. its different concentrations, and then these calibration curves were used to calculate the quantity of each compound in the plant extracts. The experiments were performed in triplicate.

**Molecular dynamics Simulation**

Desmond v. 2.2 software was used for performing MDS experiments.\(^2\)-\(^4\) This software applies the OPLS-2005 force field. Protein systems were built using the System Builder option, where the protein structure was checked for any missing hydrogen’s, the protonation states of the amino acid residues were set (pH = 7.4), and the co-crystalized water molecules were removed. Thereafter, the whole structure was embedded in an orthorhombic box of TIP3P water together with 0.15 M Na\(^+\) and Cl\(^-\) ions in 20 Å solvent buffer. Afterward, the prepared systems were energy minimized and equilibrated for 10 ns. For protein-ligand complexes, the top-scoring poses were used as starting points for simulation. Desmond software automatically parameterizes inputted ligands during the system building step according to the OPLS force field. For simulations performed by NAMD,\(^5\),\(^6\) the protein structures were built and optimized by using the QwikMD toolkit of the VMD software. The parameters and topologies of the compounds were calculated using the Charmm27 force field with the online software Ligand Reader and Modeler (http://www.charmm-gui.org/?doc=input/ligandrm, accessed on 3 May 2022).\(^7\) Afterward, the generated parameters and topology files were loaded to VMD to readily read the protein–ligand complexes without errors and then conduct the simulation step.

**Absolute Binding Free Energy Calculation**

Binding free energy calculations (\(\Delta G\)) were performed using the free energy perturbation (FEP) method [5]. This method was described in detail in the recent article by Kim and coworkers [6]. Briefly, this method calculates the binding free energy \(\Delta G_{\text{binding}}\) according to the following equation: \(\Delta G_{\text{binding}} = \Delta G_{\text{Complex}} - \Delta G_{\text{Ligand}}\). The value of each \(\Delta G\) is estimated from a separate simulation using NAMD software. All input files required for simulation by NAMD can be
prepared by using the online website Charmm-GUI (https://charmm-gui.org/?doc=input/afes.abinding). Subsequently, we can use these files in NAMD to produce the required simulations using the FEP calculation function in NAMD. The equilibration (5 ns long) was achieved in the NPT ensemble at 300 K and 1 atm (1.01325 bar) with Langevin piston pressure (for “Complex” and “Ligand”) in the presence of the TIP3P water model. Then, 10 ns FEP simulations were performed for each compound, and the last 5 ns of the free energy values was measured for the final free energy values. Finally, the generated trajectories were visualized and analyzed using VMD software. It worth noting that Ngo and co-workers in their recent benchmarking study found that the FEP method of determination of $\Delta G$ was the most accurate method in predicting MPro inhibitors.

References


