



Original article

Structure-based virtual screening of plant-derived natural compounds as potential PPAR α agonists for the treatment of dyslipidemia

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Abstract: Background: Nowadays, metabolic disorders such as dyslipidemia have become serious health problems in the modern world. PPARs are regulators of numerous metabolic pathways, hence there has been a huge increase in the development and use of the PPARs agonists, especially PPAR α agonists as main therapeutic of dyslipidemia. **Objectives:** The study aimed to explore potential plant-derived natural compounds as PPAR α agonist agent for drug discovery of dyslipidemia. **Methods:** Structure-based virtual screening through molecular docking was conducted for 142 bioactive compounds from 29 medicinal plants on the main binding site of PPAR α (PDB ID: 5HYK). Binding affinities and binding interactions between the ligands and PPAR α were investigated. **Results:** Screening results showed that 34 compounds had strong binding affinities into the PPAR α (binding affinities of less than $-8.0 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$), including 20 flavonoid, 4 terpenoid and 10 alkaloid compounds. Flavonoid was found as the best group which fitted well in the binding site of the PPAR α . Top compounds were identified, including formononetin from *Thermopsis alterniflora* ($-10.2 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$), diosmetin from *Musa spp.* ($-10.1 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$), luteolin from *Elsholtzia ciliate* ($-9.9 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$); steviol from *Stevia rebaudiana* ($-9.4 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$); and tuberocrooline from *Stemona tuberosa* ($-10.5 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$), respectively. These compounds showed the potential agonistic activities due to forming the hydrogen bonds as well as hydrophobic interactions with four key residues of the receptor such as Ser280, Tyr314, His440 and Tyr464. **Conclusions:** These potential natural compounds may provide useful information in the drug design and discovery for anti-dyslipidemia agents.

Keywords: structure-based virtual screening; molecular docking; PPAR α ; natural compounds; dyslipidemia.

1. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, with the change of living standards and lifestyle, metabolic disorders such as dyslipidemia (or often hyperlipidemia) and obesity have become serious health problems in the modern world [1]. These diseases can lead to high incidence of morbidity and mortality in both men and women as well as cause an economic burden to the society [1]. Dyslipidemia is characterized by a high levels of total or low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol, elevated triglycerides

and/ or a low levels of high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol [2]. Dyslipidemia is considered as the biggest contributing factor to the development of atherosclerosis and cardiovascular diseases which is the first cause of death in both developed and developing countries [2]. According to the World Health Organisation, there are about 50% of patients of ischemic heart disease associated with dyslipidemia and more than 4 million deaths every year [3].

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Peroxisome Proliferator-Activated Receptors (PPARs) are the nuclear hormone receptors superfamily (class II) [4] including three subtypes, PPAR α , PPAR β or δ , and PPAR γ , respectively [5]. The PPARs are ligand-activated transcription factors which play a crucial role in the regulation of metabolic processes, energy homeostasis by inducing or repressing target genes [6]. Each subtype displays distinct functions in different cell types [5]. The PPAR α was known for controlling and regulating lipid metabolism and inflammation [7]. This receptor is expressed in tissues which have high rate of fatty acid catabolism and in tissues involved in lipid oxidation such as cardiac muscle, liver, kidney, skeletal and adrenal glands [8]. The PPAR δ appears in skeletal muscle and adipose tissues which is best known for skin homeostasis [8] and for regulation of cholesterol, adipogenesis metabolism, and colon cancer [9]. The PPAR γ is present in adipose tissue, vascular smooth muscles and immune cells responsible for energy storage [5] by inducing lipogenesis and fat storage in the tissue as well as improving insulin sensitivity in skeletal muscle [10].

All three PPARs are regulators of numerous metabolic pathways, hence there is a huge increase in the development and use of the PPARs agonists, especially PPAR α agonists as main therapeutics of dyslipidemia during the last decade [8]. Number of current marketed drugs for dyslipidemia treatment targets the PPARs. For example, fibrates drugs are activators of PPAR α to reduce triacylglycerols used for the treatment of dyslipidemia and thiazolidinediones as activators of PPAR γ for treating hyperglycemia in the type-2 diabetes. Besides, there are other molecular targets for anti-dyslipidemia such as inhibitions of cholesteryl ester transfer protein, cholesterol absorption by binding to cholesterol transporter NPC1L1 (Niemann-pick C1-like1) protein, cholesterol O-acyltransferase enzymes involved in re-esterification of absorbed cholesterol, cholesterol-metabolizing cytochrome P450 or activation of AMP-activated protein kinase and omega-3 fatty acids, etc [8]. However, there is still rarely drug compounds for those targets [8]. Thus, the PPARs, in particular PPAR α has been the main target for anti-dyslipidemia.

The three-dimensional structures of human PPAR α in complex with several agonists were solved (PDB codes: 5HYK, 4BCR, 3SP6, 3KDT, 3G8I, 3FEI, 3ET1, 2REW, 2GTK, 1I7G). The structure of human PPAR α is very similar to both of the PPAR γ and PPAR δ [5]. The structure includes four functional domains (A/B, C, D, E/F) [5], in which there are the ligand-independent activation function 1 (AF1) in the A/B domain; the conserved central DNA binding domain in the C domain; docking site for cofactors in the D domain and the ligand binding domain in the E region [5]. The PPARs have multiple binding sites depending on various binding ligands [11]. There are two known binding sites, the main binding pocket for full agonistic and the second one for partial agonistic activities on the PPAR α [12].

The ligand binding domain of PPAR α is a 12-helix which forms a large hydrophobic pocket [5] (T-shaped cavity) with the volume of about 1300 Å³ [13]. The central pocket spans the region located in between the C-terminal helix 12 (forming one side of a second activation function, AF2 helix) and the 3-stranded antiparallel β sheet [13]. After ligation with the agonist such as fibrate drugs, PPAR α undergoes conformation changes [6, 14]. The conserved hydrogen bonds involving the

AF2 helix were formed between the protein and the agonists which was found as the most structural differences between the apo protein and the agonist-bound protein [13]. The full agonists stabilize an active conformation of the AF2 helix and enhance heterodimerization process with the retinoid X receptors, promoting recruitment of nuclear receptor coactivators and gene transcription [12, 13]. In addition, a loss of this stabilizing interactions suggested the partial agonist [14]. Without ligands, the PPAR α binds to promoters of the target genes leading to transcription repression [6].

However, fibrate drugs as PPAR α agonists demonstrated to cause some side effects such as hepatomegaly or liver dysfunction, gastrointestinal disturbance, increase of creatinine levels, etc. [15]. As the results, there is necessary to explore novel compounds for the anti-hyperlipidemic activity with less toxicities. Some medicinal plants with bioactive compounds have been reported for anti-lipid effects as rich source for new effective and safe medicines [16-20] despite of required sufficient evidence for their activities. For example, anthraquinones from *Rheum officinale*; ginsenoside, ginseng, and polysaccharides from *Radix ginseng*; triterpenes from *Rhizoma alismatis*,... reduced triglycerides, LDL-C [19]. Furthermore, some compounds were reported as PPAR α agonists such as picrasidine C (an alkaloid from the root of *Picrasma quassioides*); bixin (a carotenoid from the pericarp of the seeds of *Bixa orellana*); naringenin (flavonones from the dried, immature fruit of *Citrus aurantium*); secoiridoid excelside B and some metabolites from *Fraxinus excelsior* L.etc [20]. Therefore, this study aimed to discover the plant-derived natural compounds against PPAR α as PPAR α agonists to assist in drug design for anti-dyslipidemia. By using molecular docking for screening, 142 investigated compounds from 29 medicinal plants were docked into the PPAR α . The results of ligand binding affinities and their interactions with this receptor were combined to select the potential natural compounds as potential lipid lowering agents.

2. MATERIALS AND METHOD

Molecular docking was applied in *in silico* screening to select natural compound with high binding affinity into the PPAR α . Initially, the diverse bioactive compounds belonging to four main groups, flavonoid, terpenoid, alkaloid and saponin, respectively with their lower-lipid effects were selected for this study. To assist for drug discovery in the next step, the medicinal plants were then searched for containing the compounds. In total, there were 142 natural compounds from 29 medicinal plants including alkaloid (51 compounds), flavonoid (36 compounds), terpenoid (33 compounds) and saponin (22 compounds) were chosen [20-27]. Molecular docking was conducted to investigate binding interactions and to reveal potential natural compounds for treatment of lipid disorders using AutoDock Vina software version 1.1.2 (an open-source program) [28].

Preparation of protein: The 3D crystal structure of the complex PPAR α was retrieved from the Protein Data Bank (PDB ID: 5HYK – resolution: 1.83 Å, <https://www.rcsb.org>) [6]. The structure of PPAR α has a co-crystallized ligand-2-methyl-2-[4-(naphthalen-1-yl)phenoxy]propanoic acid (or AL26-29) as the full agonist [6]. The residues making up the main binding pocket are Cys276, Thr279, Ser280, Tyr314, Ile317, Met330, His440 and Tyr464 [6] which covered the co-crystallized-ligand. Using AutoDock Tools 1.5.7rc1, this

receptor was prepared for docking; with removing all water molecules and heteroatoms and adding polar hydrogen atoms and Kollman charges into the protein structure. Redocking was carried out by extracting the co-crystallized ligand from the experimental structure and docking the ligand into the binding pocket of PPAR α encompassing the native ligand.

Preparation of ligand: Ligands (142 compounds) were prepared in 2D by Chem3D Ultra program (CDX file). Open Babel was employed to convert all 2D structures to 3D structures whose energies were subsequently minimized with the YASARA Energy Minimization server (<https://www.yasara.org>).

Docking parameters: The docking parameters included the coordinate parameters of the center x, y, z of 7.57 Å; 32.34 Å; 23.882 Å. The grid box was centered on the native ligand with the dimension of 24 x 24 x 24 (Å)³; spacing distance = 1 Å; with default exhaustiveness = 8.

Evaluation of docking results: The docking results were evaluated by the ligand binding affinities (kcal.mol⁻¹), binding pose and the possible interactions between the key residues for biological activities in the target such as Tyr314 for maintaining protein active conformation of protein and for selectivity ligands. In addition, the fibrates drugs as the PPAR α agonists including fenofibrate, gemfibrozil, clofibrate, bezafibrate, ciprofibrate were used for docking into the active site of the receptor as reference drugs. The lower binding

affinity, the better ligand. BIOVIA Discovery Studio Visualizer 2020 (a free version, downloaded from the website <https://discover.3ds.com/>) was used for visualisation, assisting in analysis and creating images of 3D models of the protein and the binding mode of protein-ligand.

3. RESULTS

To evaluate the docking protocol, redocking of the co-crystallized ligand into the main binding site of PPAR α was conducted. The results showed that this native ligand (the naphthalenic derivatives) bound well into the PPAR α with good binding affinity (-11.3 kcal.mol⁻¹) and the root mean square deviation (RMSD) between the docked structure and the native one, using only movable heavy atoms (i.e., only ligand atoms, not hydrogen), was 1.46 Å (less than 2.00 Å). The binding mode and interactions of this ligand with the PPAR α were mostly similar to the experimental structure. For example, the polar head of the ligand could form the hydrogen bonds with the side chains of key residues of the active site of the PPAR α such as Tyr464 on the H12 helix responsible for agonistic activities towards PPAR α and Tyr314, and with the OH of Ser280 [6]. The ligand also interacted with the PPAR α through hydrophobic interactions with Phe273 and Phe351. These results demonstrated the reliability of the docking program, so the docking protocol could be then used for screening process.

Table 1. Screening results of 142 natural compounds based on molecular docking from 29 medicinal plants into the PPAR α (PDB id: 5HYK) with the binding affinities (kcal.mol⁻¹).

No	Medicinal plant	Natural compound	Binding affinity (kcal.mol ⁻¹)	No	Medicinal plant	Natural compound	Binding affinity (kcal.mol ⁻¹)
1	<i>Momordica charantia</i> Cucurbitaceae	Momordicine 28	-1.8	7	<i>Cynachium stauntonii</i> Apocynaceae	Hancolupenone	-1.4
		Gypsogenin	-3.7			Hancolupenol	-2.1
		Goyaglicoside A	-6.9	8	<i>Folium nelumbinis</i> Nuciferae	Nuciferin	-5.3
		Goyaglicoside C	-7.2			Pronuciferine	-4.0
		Goyaglicoside E	-8.2			Roemerine	-7.4
		Goyaglicoside F	-7.2			2-hydroxy-1-methoxyaporphine	-6.9
		Vicine	-6.9			Dehydronuciferine	-2.6
Goyaglicoside H	-6.0	N-nornuciferine	-3.5				
2	<i>Stevia rebaudiana</i> Asteraceae	Steviol	-9.4			Astragalinal	-3.8
3	<i>Ganoderma lucidum</i> Ganodermataceae	Ganoderic acid A	-1.2	9	<i>Erythrina orientalis</i> Fabaceae	Soyasapogenol B	-3.2
		Ganoderic acid B	-1.1	10	<i>Codonopsis pilosula</i> Campanulaceae	Radicamine A	-8.2
		Ganoderic acid D	-1.5			Codonopyrrolidiums A	-5.9
		Ganoderic acid E	-3.8			Codonopyrrolidiums B	-7.1
		Ganoderic acid F	4.0			Codonopsinols A	-7.9
		Ganoderic acid G	-0.3			Codonopsinols B	-7.6
		Ganoderic acid H	-5.3			Codonopsinols C	-7.4
		Ganoderic acid I	-3.9			Codonopiloside A	-7.5
		Ganoderic acid J	-2.7			Tryptophan	-7.7
		Ganoderic acid K	5.9			Perlolyrine	-9.1
		Ganoderic acid L	-0.8			Nicotinic acid	-5.5
		Ganoderic acid M	-0.2			Isostenine (neostenine)	-5.4
		Ganoderic acid N	-5.0			Tuberostemonine H	-2.3
		Acid ganodermic S	-0.5			Tuberostemonine N	-2.6
		Acid ganodermic P2	-0.2			Tuberostemonine K	-6.1
4	<i>Cynara scolymus</i> Asteraceae	Cynaropicrin	-8.9	11	<i>Stemona tuberosa</i> Stemonaceae	Neotuberostemonol	-4.2
		Dehydrocynaropicrin	-8.3			Epi-Bisdehydroneotuberostemonine J (aka epibisdehydrotuberostemonine J)	-8.5
		Grossheimin	-7.0			9a-Bisdehydrotuberostemonine	-1.0
5	<i>Sesamum indicum</i> Pedaliaceae	3-epibartogenic acid	-2.3			9a-Bisdehydrotuberostemonine A	-7.0
		Celasdin A	-2.1			Tridehydrotuberostemonine	-2.0
6	<i>Celastrus hindsii</i> Celastraceae	Celasdin B	-0.9			Bisdehydroneostenonine	-9.1
		Celasdin C	-6.0			Bisdehydrostemoninine A	-8.5
		Maytenfolone A	-0.6			Bisdehydrostemoninine B	-8.5

Table 1. (continue)

No	Medicinal plant	Natural compound	Binding affinity (kcal.mol ⁻¹)	No	Medicinal plant	Natural compound	Binding affinity (kcal.mol ⁻¹)		
11	<i>Stemona tuberosa</i> Stemonaceae	Bisdehydrostemoninine	-8.1	19	<i>Lysimachia foenum-graecum</i> Primulaceae	Foenumoside B	-1.3		
		Isobisdehydrostemoninine	-7.3	20	<i>Dioscorea nipponica Makino</i> Dioscoreaceae	Trillin	-2.9		
		Oxystemoninine	-3.7	21	<i>Panax ginseng</i> Araliaceae	Ginsenoside Rb1	-5.5		
		Stemoenone	-5.0	22	<i>Scutellaria baicalensis</i> Lamiaceae	Formononetin	-10.2		
		9a-O-Methylstemoenone	-4.3			Daidzein	-9.7		
		Oxystemoenone	-4.0			Chrysin	-9.6		
		Tuberostemospironine	-7.5			Isoscitellarein	-9.4		
		10-Hydroxycroomine	-7.5			Daidzin	-9.1		
		6-Hydroxycroomine (aka 6hydroxycroomine)	-7.6			Apigenin-7-glucoside	-8.9		
		Dehydrocroomine	-5.8			Luteolin-7-rutinoside	-7.2		
		Tuberospironine	-7.6			Puerarin	-5.9		
		Neotuberostemoninol	-6.7			Luteolin	-9.9		
		Sessilifoliamide F	-2.5			Apigenin	-9.4		
		Tuberostemoline	-0.7	23	<i>Elsholtzia ciliate</i> Lamiaceae	Kumatakenin	-8.1		
		Tuberocrooline	-10.5			Linarin	-6.5		
		1,9a-seco-Stemoenone	-6.2			Epicatechin	-8.9		
		Tuberostemoenone	0.9			Gallocatechin	-8.9		
		Croomine	-8.9			Dimer procyanidin	-7.7		
		12	<i>Platycodon grandiflorum</i> Campanulaceae	Stemoninoamide	-9.8	24	<i>Musa spp.</i> Musaceae	Semilicoisoflavone	-7.7
				Stemotinine	-6.1			Chalcone	-8.9
Tuberostemonone	2.9			Isoliquiritigenin	-8.6				
Neotuberostemonine (aka tuberostemonine LG)	-1.0			Ononin	-8.6				
Platycodin A	-4.5			Licoflavonol	-8.4				
13	<i>Kochia scoparia</i> Chenopodiaceae	Platycodin C	-4.8	25	<i>Glycyrrhiza uralensis</i> Fabaceae	Isoangustone	-8.2		
		Platycodin D	-3.9			Licochalcone	-7.7		
		Deapioplatycodin D	-4.1			Glyasperin C	-7.6		
		Momoridin Ic	-0.9			7-O-methyluteone	-7.1		
14	<i>Aesculus turbinata</i> Aesculaceae	Escin Ia	-2.5	26	<i>Cynanchum Apocynaceae</i>	Quercetin	-9.2		
		Escin IIa	-2.2			27	<i>Thermopsis altemilora</i> Fabaceae	Thermopsoside	-8.8
		Escin Ib	-3.4					Saponarin 4-O-glucoside	-8.7
15	<i>Fructus Momordicae grosvenorii</i> Cucurbitaceae	Escin IIb	-3.9	28	<i>Cucumis sativus</i> Cucurbitaceae	Isovitexin	-7.2		
		Mogroside IV	-1.2			Isoorientin	-6.8		
16	<i>Schefflera heptaphylla</i> Araliaceae	Mogroside V	-0.7	29	<i>Senna alata</i> Fabaceae	Saponarin	1.5		
		Silphioside F	-2.1			Vicenin-2	2.5		
		Copteroside B	-3.7			Diosmetin	-10.1		
17	<i>Schefflera octophylla</i> Araliaceae	Gypsogenin 3-O-D-glucuronide	-0.5	18	<i>Gynostemma pentaphyllum</i> Cucurbitaceae	Rutin	-3.4		
		Sessilioside	-6.2			Damulin A	-7.4		
18	<i>Gynostemma pentaphyllum</i> Cucurbitaceae	Chiisanoside	-7.1	19	<i>Lysimachia foenum-graecum</i> Primulaceae	Damulin B	-6.7		
		Rutin	-3.4			Foenumoside B	-1.3		

Molecular docking

All of 142 natural compounds of the medicinal plants were located into the main binding pocket of PPAR α (PDB id: 5HYK) in docking which showed their potential activities against PPAR α . These compounds were classified into the subgroups: alkaloid (51 compounds), terpenoid (33 compounds), flavonoid (36 compounds) and saponin (22 compounds) for binding analysis. The results were also compared with those results obtained with the agonist ligands such as fibrates as reference compounds of PPAR α . It showed that flavonoid was the best group of binding well into the PPAR α compared to the other groups. Notably, total of 34/142 natural compounds had high affinity for binding into the PPAR α (binding affinities of less than -8.0 kcal.mol⁻¹),

including 20 flavonoid compounds, 4 terpenoid compounds and 10 alkaloid compounds (Table 1). Of which, the top compounds for each group included: flavonoid group: formononetin from *Thermopsis alterniflora* (-10.2 kcal.mol⁻¹), diosmetin from *Musa spp.* (-10.1 kcal.mol⁻¹), luteolin from *Elsholtzia ciliate* (-9.9 kcal.mol⁻¹); one terpenoid compound: steviol from *Stevia rebaudiana* (-9.4 kcal.mol⁻¹); and one alkaloid compound: tuberocrooline from *Stemona tuberosa* (-10.5 kcal.mol⁻¹) (Figure 1 and 2). These compounds strongly accommodated and formed good interactions with the

residues of the PPAR α binding site as the reference drugs did. Structure and binding affinity relationships of the ligands were also taken for analysis. However, there were four

compounds, namely saponarin, vincenin-2, stemonone and tuberostemoenone did not show negative binding affinities as the ligands did not accommodate fully in the binding pocket.

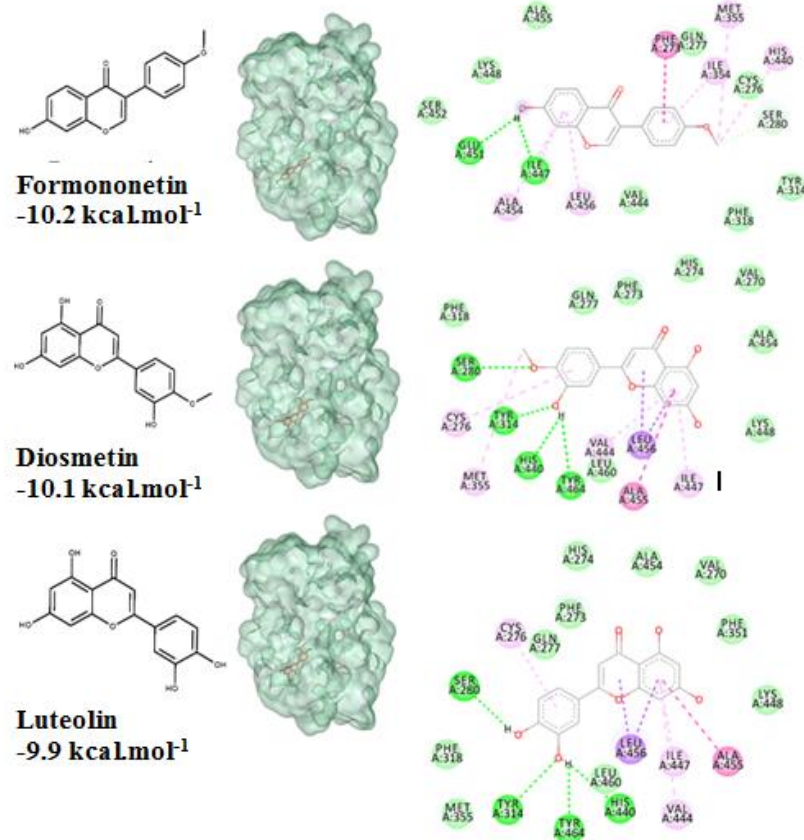


Figure 1. Binding modes of 3 top flavonoid compounds, namely formononetin from *Thermopsis alterniflora* (-10.2 kcal.mol⁻¹), diosmetin from *Musa spp.* (-10.1 kcal.mol⁻¹), luteolin from *Elsholtzia ciliate* (-9.9 kcal.mol⁻¹); respectively into the PPAR α (PDB id: 5HYK) with green line represented for hydrogen bond, pink line for hydrophobic contacts

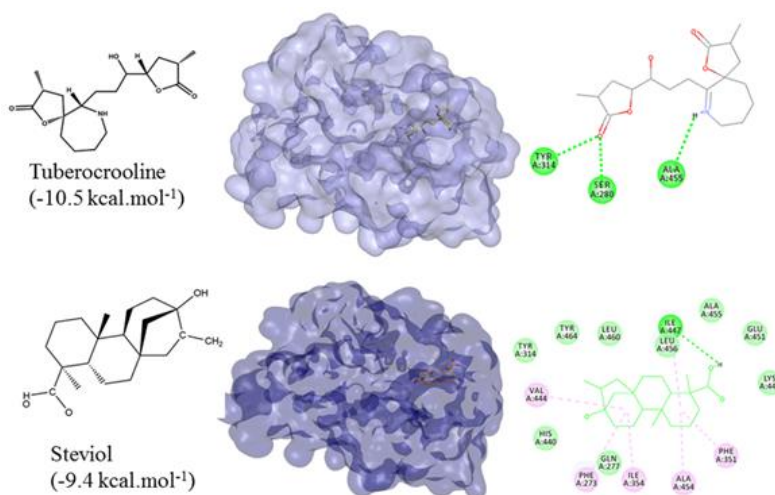


Figure 2. Binding modes of 2 top compounds, one terpenoid compound: steviol from *Stevia rebaudiana* (-9.4 kcal.mol⁻¹); and one alkaloid compound: tubercrooline from *Stemona tuberosa* (-10.5 kcal.mol⁻¹), respectively into the PPAR α (PDB id: 5HYK) with green line represented for hydrogen bond, pink line for hydrophobic contacts

Binding modes and interactions analysis

Flavonoid compounds such as formononetin ($-10.2 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$) and diosmetin ($-10.1 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$) had good binding affinities to the binding pocket of PPAR α which showed the potential agonistic activities. This was explained by the presence of -OH groups in the structure of these flavonoids created the hydrogen bonds with four key residues of the receptor such as Ser280, Tyr314, His440 and Tyr464 [6] as well as the aromatic rings made hydrophobic interactions with the target residues which led to the tightly attachment of the compounds into the binding site of PPAR α . These results were compatible with the experimental results that PPAR agonists interact to form similar interactions with polar residues, especially with Tyr464 localized in AF2 which was important for stabilizing the active conformation of protein [6]. In addition, the three other flavonoids such as luteolin ($-9.9 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$), daidzein ($-9.7 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$), and chrysin ($-9.6 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$) were also good ones towards the binding affinities on

the PPAR α . The ligands with the simple backbone could attach the hydrophobic pocket better than the isoflavon and flavon compounds with the presence of glucosides or alkyl groups, for example: luteolin ($-9.9 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$) > luteolin-7-rutinoside ($-7.2 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$); daidzein ($-9.7 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$) > daidzin ($-9.1 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$); and apigenin ($-9.4 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$) > apigenin-7-glucoside ($-8.9 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$). The results could be related to the experimental results that the aglycone penetrates easily due to the high lipophilicity and low molecular weight [29]. The other isoflavon and flavon compounds with the presence of glucoside or alkyl groups such as daidzin, thermopsoside, ononin, isoangustone, apigenin-7-glucoside, saponarin 4-*O*-glucoside, licoflavonol, kumatakenin did not show strong binding affinities (Table 1). Structures of the eight compounds with the good binding affinities of less than $-8.0 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$ and their binding modes into the PPAR α (PDB id: 5HYK) were presented in Figure 3 and 4.

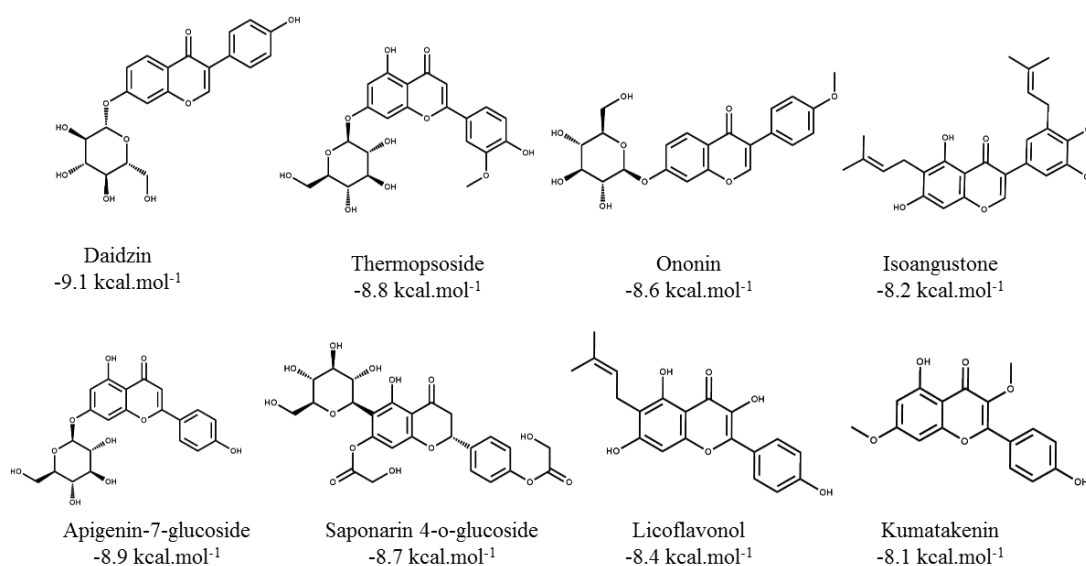


Figure 3. Structures of 8 flavonoid compounds belonging to isoflavon and flavon with the good binding affinities of less than $-8.0 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$ into the PPAR α (PDB id: 5HYK)

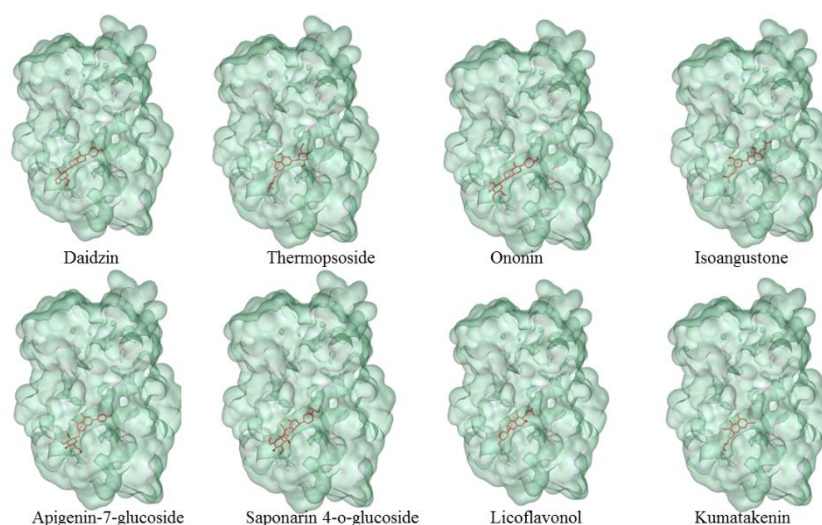


Figure 4. Binding modes of 8 flavonoid compounds belonging to isoflavon and falvon with the good binding affinities of less than $-8.0 \text{ kcal.mol}^{-1}$ into the PPAR α (PDB id: 5HYK)

Alkaloid compounds bound to the PPAR α with binding affinities ranging from -1.0 to -10.5 kcal.mol⁻¹. Ten alkaloid compounds including tubercrooline (-10.5 kcal.mol⁻¹ had good affinities on the PPAR α due to forming the hydrophobic interactions between the aromatic rings containing nitrogen and some important amino acids of binding site such as His440 (for example, perlolyrine: -9.1 kcal.mol⁻¹). The compounds also generated the hydrogen bonds through their side chains having some functional groups (OH or COOH groups) with residues Ser280, Tyr314 and His440 of PPAR α (for example, radicamine A: -8.2 kcal.mol⁻¹). These interactions were shared by all PPAR α agonist like fibrates and the other ligands reported in the PDB [6, 12], with data showed in Table 2. The alkaloid possess the simple aromatic ring like radicamine A and perlolysine could attach further in the binding pocket than the ligands having bulky aromatic groups. However, replacing pyrrole ring into pyrrolidine ring made the compound not going deeper into the cavity or extending the length of side chain of pyrrole which led

to reduce the binding affinities, such as the case of compound 9a-bisdehydrotuberostemonie with the pyrrole ring (-7.0 kcal.mol⁻¹) > neotuberostemonol with the pyrrolidine ring (-4.2 kcal.mol⁻¹), and stemoninoamide (-9.8 kcal.mol⁻¹) > bisdehydrostemonine A and B (-8.5 kcal.mol⁻¹). When pyrrolidine opens, for example tubercrooline (-10.5 kcal.mol⁻¹), the compound made the C=O group of tetrahydrofuran interacted with Tyr314 and also formed more hydrogen bond with the residue Ala455 of target, so this compound showed strongly affinity than, croomine (-8.9 kcal.mol⁻¹). All of Figure 5, 6 and 7 illustrated 10 top alkaloid compounds, namely radicamine A, perlolyrine, epibisdehydroneotuberostemonine J, bisdehydroneostemoninine, stemoninoamide, bisdehydrostemoninine A, bisdehydrostemoninine B, bisdehydrostemoninine, tubercrooline, croomine, respectively with their good binding affinities of less than -8.0 kcal.mol⁻¹ and their binding modes into the PPAR α .

Table 2. Binding interactions of 15 compounds including 10 top alkaloid compounds, namely radicamine A, perlolyrine, epibisdehydroneotuberostemonine J, bisdehydroneostemoninine, stemoninoamide, bisdehydrostemoninine A, bisdehydrostemoninine B, bisdehydrostemoninine, tubercrooline, croomine, and 5 reference compounds (fenofibrate, gemfibrozil, clofibrate, bezafibrate and ciprofibrate), respectively and the PPAR α (PDB id: 5HYK)

No	Compound name	Binding affinity (kcal.mol ⁻¹)	Hydrogen bonds	Hydrophobic interactions
1	Radicamine A	-8.2	Ser280, His440, Tyr464	Ile354, Ile447, Ala454
2	Perlolyrine	-9.1	Phe273, Cys276,	Ile354, His440, Val444, Ile447, Ala454
3	Epi-Bisdehydroneotuberostemonine J	-8.5	Ser280, Tyr314	Ile354, Val444, Ile447, Lys448, Leu456
4	Bisdehydroneostemoninine	-9.1		Ala455
5	Bisdehydrostemoninine A	-8.5	Ser280, His440	Ile354, Val444, Ile447, Leu456
6	Bisdehydrostemoninine B	-8.5	Cys276	Ile354, Val444, Ile447, Leu456
7	Bisdehydrostemoninine	-8.1	His440, Leu456	Phe273, Ile354, Val444, Ile447, Leu456
8	Tubercrooline	-10.5	Ser280, Tyr314, Ala455	
9	Croomine	-8.9	Ser280, His440	Ile354, Val444, Ile447
10	Stemoninoamide	-9.8		Ile354, His440, Val444, Ile447, Leu456
11	Fenofibrate	-10.2	Ser280, His440	Phe273, Ile354, Val444, Ile447, Ala454, Leu456
12	Gemfibrozil	-8.2	His440	Val444, Ile447, Lys448, Ala454, Ala455, Leu456
13	Clofibrate	-7.3		Phe273, Cys276, Ile354, Met355
14	Bezafibrate	-9.1	Ser280, Tyr314, His440, Val444	Ile354, Val444, Ala454
15	Ciprofibrate	-8.6	Ser280, Tyr314, His440	Val270, Phe273, Phe351, Val444, Ile447, Ala454

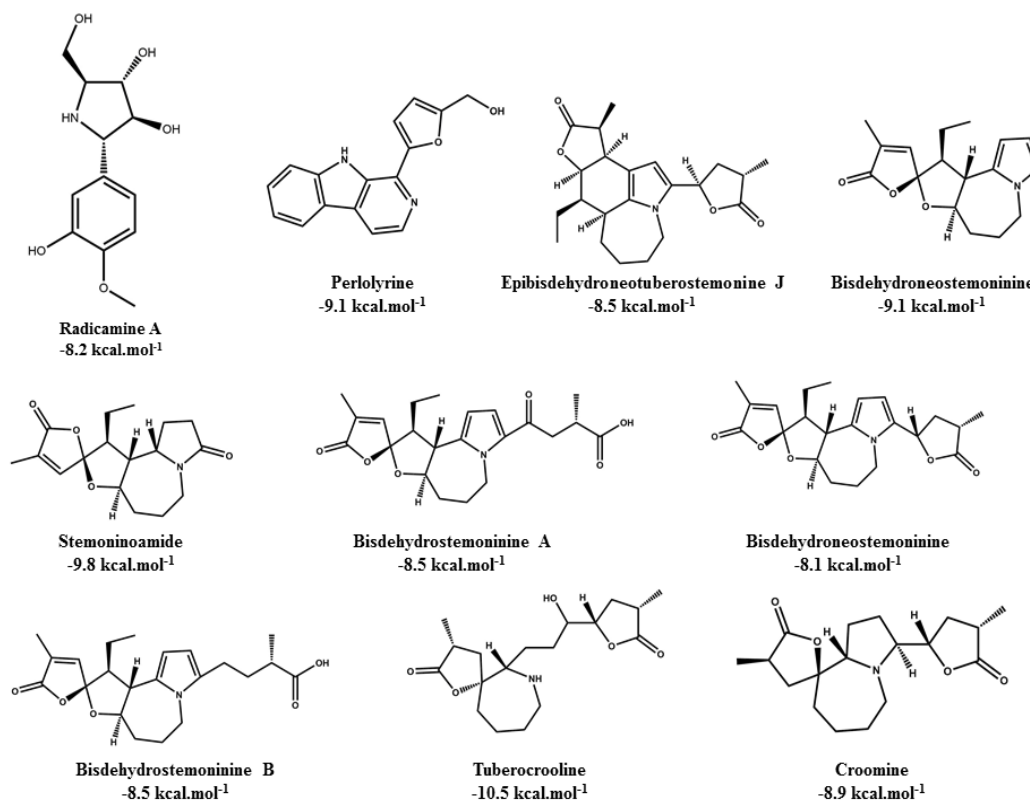


Figure 5. The molecular structures of 10 top alkaloid compounds, namely radicamine A, perlolyrine, epibisdehydroneotuberostemonine J, bisdehydroneostemoninine, stemoninoamide, bisdehydrostemoninine A, bisdehydrostemoninine B, bisdehydrostemoninine, tubercrooline, croomine, respectively with their binding affinities into the PPAR α (PDB id: 5HYK)

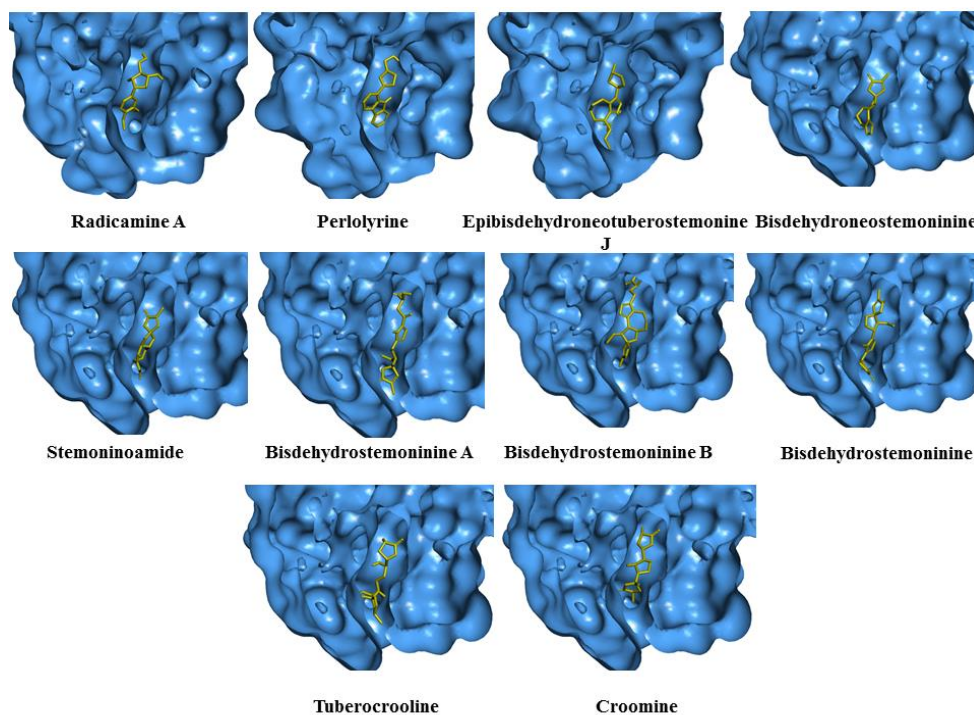


Figure 6. Binding modes of 10 top alkaloid compounds, namely radicamine A, perlolyrine, epibisdehydroneotuberostemonine J, bisdehydroneostemoninine, stemoninoamide, bisdehydrostemoninine A, bisdehydrostemoninine B, bisdehydrostemoninine, tubercrooline, croomine, respectively with the good binding affinities of less than -8 kcal.mol^{-1} into the PPAR α (PDB id: 5HYK)

cholesterol, triglyceride and LDL-cholesterol levels [35]. Therefore, the findings in this study suggested the mechanism of these compounds toward to PPAR α .

Moreover, two other compounds, one terpenoid compound: steviol from *Stevia rebaudiana* (-9.4 kcal.mol⁻¹); and one alkaloid compound: tuberocrooline from *Stemona tuberosa* (-10.5 kcal.mol⁻¹) were also identified as the hit natural compounds for PPAR α agonists. Steviol, the terpene aglycone, the final metabolite of all steviol glycosides was reported with some bioactivities such as antidiabetic effects on streptozotocin-induced diabetic mice [36], antihyperglycemic, antihypertensive, antioxidant and anti-inflammatory effects, etc [37]. Steviol causes a decrease in glucose accumulation in intestinal ring tissue, liver and kidney and also enhances insulin secretion [36]. Tuberocrooline has not been demonstrated for anti-dyslipidemia, but this compound was known for the antitussive activity [38]. Furthermore, the formononetin has been proved for anticancer activity [39], diosmetin for the biological activity on alloxan diabetic rats [40], steviol for antioxidant capacity [41] and tuberocrooline for the acetylcholinesterase inhibitory activity [42].

Therefore, the good compounds were selected, namely formononetin from *Thermopsis alterniflora*, diosmetin from *Musa spp.*, luteolin from *Elsholtzia ciliate*; steviol from *Stevia rebaudiana*; and tuberocrooline from *Stemona tuberosa*, respectively for further steps in drug discovery and design of PPAR α agonists for anti-hyperlipidemia activities. Combination of the experimental results of these compounds for dyslipidemia effects and the results obtained in this study, the current research also suggested the mechanism of these compounds towards to the PPAR α for agonistic activities. However, there were still some limits in this study. It is required more number of investigated compounds and partial agonistic on the PPAR α or dual agonist/ pan-agonistic activities combining on PPAR α could be investigated in the screening process of better anti-dyslipidemia and also for PPAR α agonists compounds.

Conclusion

Metabolic disorders such as dyslipidemia have been in the list of serious health problems in the modern world. This disease is considered as the major contributing factor to the mortality of men and women in both developed and developing countries. With the aims of identifying the potential plant-derived natural compounds as PPAR α agonists for assisting in drug discovery of anti-hyperlipidemia, 142 compounds were docked into the structure of PPAR α (PDB ID: 5HYK). The screening results discovered 34 compounds including 20 flavonoid, 4 terpenoid and 10 alkaloid compounds strongly accommodated and formed good interactions with the residues of the PPAR γ binding site as the reference drugs did. Flavonoid was the best compounds attaching into the binding site of the PPAR α . Top compounds for anti-dyslipidemia were identified, namely formononetin from *Thermopsis alterniflora*, diosmetin from *Musa spp.*, luteolin from *Elsholtzia ciliate*; steviol from *Stevia rebaudiana*; and tuberocrooline from *Stemona tuberosa*. These compounds formed favorable interactions with the binding site of PPAR α through hydrogen bonds and hydrophobic interactions with key residues of the target, Ser280, Tyr314 and Tyr464, leading to agonistic activities. Combination of these results and the experimental results of these compounds for dyslipidemia

effects, the current study also suggested the mechanism of the compounds as the PPAR α agonists. Therefore, this study provided useful information for further drug discovery and design of potential lipid-lowering agents as the replacement for the current PPAR α agonists like fibrates drugs.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

LDL: low-density lipoprotein; HDL: high-density lipoprotein; PPARs: Peroxisome Proliferator-Activated Receptors; NPC1L1: Niemann-pick C1-like1; AF1: activation function 1; AF2: activation function 2; RMSD: root mean square deviation.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS


Not available.


AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

The authors have participated in completing the work including TLQV for docking of terpenoids; TAN for docking of saponins; PNKH for docking of alkaloids; BHGN for docking of fibrates and flavonoid compounds; and PTVN for conducting the project, supervising the process and drafting, editing and proofreading manuscript.


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