

QM/MM Docking Strategy and Prime/MM-GBSA Calculation of Celecoxib Analogues as N-myristoyltransferase Inhibitors

Nisha Chandna^{1,2}, Kotni Meena Kumari³, Chetan Sharma⁴, Manga Vijjulatha³, Jitander K. Kapoor² and Pawan K. Sharma¹

¹Department of Chemistry, Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra-136119, India

²Department of Chemistry, National Institute of Technology, Kurukshetra-136119, India

³Department of Chemistry, Nizam College, Osmania University, Basheerbagh, Hyderabad-500001, India

⁴Department of Microbiology, Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra-136119, India

*Corresponding Author: Pawan K. Sharma, Department of Chemistry, Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra-136119, India, Tel: +91 94164 57355; Fax: +91 1744 238277; E-mail: pks Sharma@kuk.ac.in

Received date: January 9, 2015, Accepted date: February 23, 2015, Published date: February 28, 2015

Copyright: © 2015 Chandna N et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Abstract

Developing chemicals that inhibit N-myristoyltransferase (Nmt) is a promising adjuvant therapeutic to improve the efficacy and selectivity of antifungal agents. Reliable prediction of binding-free energy and binding affinity of Nmt inhibitors can provide a guide for rational drug design. In this study, Quantum Polarised Ligand Docking (QPLD) strategy and Prime/Molecular Mechanics Generalized Born Surface Area (Prime/MM-GBSA) calculations were applied to predict the binding mode and free energy for a series of celecoxib analogues as Nmt inhibitors which were also found to have good anti-inflammatory activity. *In vitro* antifungal assay indicated that these derivatives were also acting as potent antifungal agents. Reliable docking results showed superior performance on both ligand binding pose and docking score accuracy. Then, the Prime/MM-GBSA method based on the docking complex was used to predict the binding-free energy. The combined use of QM/MM docking and Prime/MM-GBSA method gave a good correlation between the predicted binding-free energy and experimentally determined zone of inhibition and Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) values. The molecular docking combined with Prime/MM-GBSA simulation can not only be used to rapidly and accurately predict the binding-free energy of novel Nmt inhibitors but also provide a novel strategy for lead discovery and optimization targeting Nmt.

Keywords: N-myristoyltransferase inhibitors; Anti-inflammatory; QM/MM docking; Binding-free energy; Prime/MM-GBSA

Introduction

Fungi are responsible for various forms of diseases, ranging from superficial infections of the mucosal surfaces or skin to systemic infections, which in most cases are life threatening [1]. The incidence and mortality of invasive fungal infections are rising dramatically due to the increase in the number of immune compromised or immune suppressed individuals. The majority of these infections are caused by *Candida* species, with over 50% due to *Candida albicans* [2-5]. The difficulties in treating fungal infections are multifaceted including aspects such as the difficulty in correct diagnosis, leading to late diagnosis, and the lack of clinically established breakpoints for commonly used drugs [6].

Myristoyl-CoA: protein N-myristoyltransferase (Nmt) is a cytosolic monomeric enzyme that catalyzes the transfer of the myristoyl group from myristoyl-CoA to the N-terminal glycine of a number of eukaryotic cellular and viral proteins [7,8]. Myristoylation relates to diverse biological processes including signal transduction cascades and apoptosis. Genetic experiments have shown that Nmt is an essential enzyme for the viability of some important pathogenic fungi including *Candida albicans* and *Cryptococcus neoformans* [9,10]. Thus, Nmt has been a promising target enzyme for the development of novel fungicidal drugs having a broad antifungal spectrum [11]. Although Nmt also exists in humans, the differences in the protein substrate specificities of fungal and human Nmts have been utilized to develop

species-selective inhibitors that are fungicidal and safe [11]. Till now, peptidomimetic molecules [12-15], myristic acid analogues [16,17], p-toluenesulfonamide derivatives [18], benzofuran analogues [19-22] and benzothiazole analogues [23] have been reported to be Nmt inhibitors. Among them, the benzofuran and benzothiazole inhibitors showed high selectivity over human Nmt and exhibited good antifungal activity.

The common antifungal agents currently used in clinic suffer from limited efficiency, narrow antifungal spectrum, drug related toxicity, severe drug resistance, nonoptimal pharmacokinetics and serious drug interactions. Therefore, there is an emergent need to develop novel fungicidal drugs with a new mode of action.

Co-administration of multiple drugs for treatment of inflammatory conditions associated with fungal infection is a major risk especially in the case of patients with impaired liver or kidney functions. A mono therapy of a drug with dual anti-inflammatory antifungal activity would be preferred from the pharmaco economic and patient compliance point of view. Non-Steroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drugs (NSAIDs) have been recognized as important therapeutic agents for the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis and its variants. 1,5-Diarylpyrazole class of drugs (celecoxib (1) Figure 1) has been explored to discover novel heterocyclic analogues as anti-inflammatory agents and selective cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) inhibitors. Two novel series of compounds 2 and 3 (Figure 1) analogous to the celecoxib class of vicinal diarylpyrazoles with bioisosteric replacement of the sulfonamide group with a cyano and carbothioamide moiety has been reported recently by our group as

selective COX-2 inhibitors and anti-inflammatory drugs [24]. With the idea/concept of monotherapy of a drug, it was considered worthwhile to explore or evaluate the synthesized compounds for *in vitro* antifungal activity and their mode of action.

Growth inhibition assays targeting specific biochemical pathways provide additional information but still lack the resolution required to identify the molecular target [25]. Accurate and reliable prediction of protein–ligand interaction and binding-free energy (or binding affinity) is of vital importance in many fields such as structure-based drug design and lead optimization [26-30]. In drug design and discovery process, one is often interested in fast ranking of ligands of potential pharmaceutical interest according to their binding-free energies (or affinity) toward a given protein. Reliable prediction of binding-free energy (or affinity) can provide a guide for rational drug design but continues to be a daunting challenge. Computational approaches at different levels of complexity and sophistication have been used to calculate binding-free energies in complex biomolecular systems. Scoring functions of molecular docking were often used to predict the protein–ligand interaction and binding-free energy in screening of large molecular databases of compounds to identify potential lead compounds [31]. Despite their rapidity, there are still some drawbacks that need to be improved to achieve high scoring accuracy, such as lack of treatment of the protein flexibility, improper accounting for solvation, entropy, and polarizability [32-36]. More rigorous methods have been successfully proposed for binding-free energy calculation, such as free energy perturbation [27] and thermodynamic integration [37]. Unfortunately, these approaches are computationally expensive, thus are not realistically available to rapidly rank the ligands. There are also some other approaches, such as linear interaction energy [38] and molecular mechanics Poisson-Boltzmann surface area [39]. Among them, the Prime/MM-GBSA method using a single minimized protein–ligand structure instead of ensembles of snapshots derived from MD trajectories, thus becomes an efficient method to rapidly refine and rescore docking screening results [40-42].

Initially, molecular docking study is performed to take insight the binding interaction between the inhibitors and Nmt. Considering the protein flexibility, and the effect of polarization, we aim to obtain reliable docking results by QM/MM docking method [43]. Finally, Prime/MM-GBSA [40] simulation based on the docked complex from QM/MM docking method is used to predict the binding-free energy of these Nmt inhibitors.

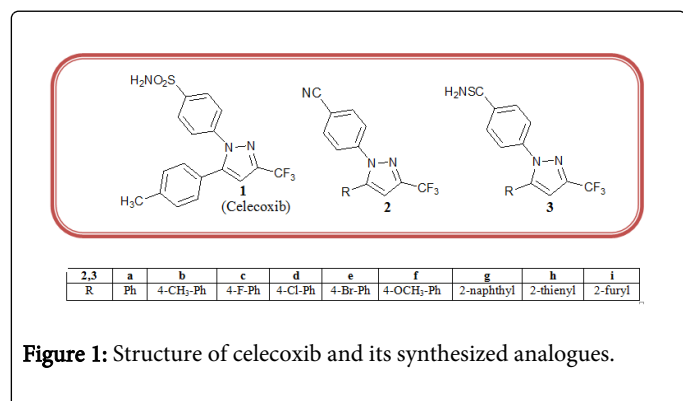


Figure 1: Structure of celecoxib and its synthesized analogues.

Results and Discussion

QM/MM docking analysis

It is now well recognized that the accuracy of electronic charges plays a critical role in protein–ligand docking. The QPLD aims to achieve the docking accuracy through improving the description of partial charges on the ligand atoms. The polarization of the charges on the ligand by receptor is taken into account by replacing them with charges derived from quantum mechanical calculations in the field of the receptor, and redocking of the ligands with QM/MM modified charges can result in improved docking accuracy. The docking performance was also validated using the known X-ray structure of Nmt of *Candida albicans* (PDB ID: 1IYL) and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (PDB ID: 2P6G) in complex with the co-crystal ligand R64 and 3LP, respectively. Figure 2 shows the binding mode of the docked R64 and 3LP to Nmt of *Candida albicans* and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, respectively. It can be seen that there are hydrogen bonds between R64 and residues (Tyr 119, Asn 392) of CaNmt and between 3LP and residue (Tyr 349) of SaNmt active sites, respectively. The pose obtained from QPLD superimposes well with the crystal structure of ligands. The Root-Mean-Square Deviation (RMSD) between them is 0.21Å and 0.75Å for CaNmt and SaNmt, respectively. Figure 3 highlights the electrostatic potential surface obtained using ESP QM charges. The binding mode of the whole dataset was then explored by the QPLD protocol. The obtained Gscore values are listed in Table 1. The QPLD protocol gives a more accurate treatment of the electrostatic interactions, which results in an improvement of the docking accuracy.

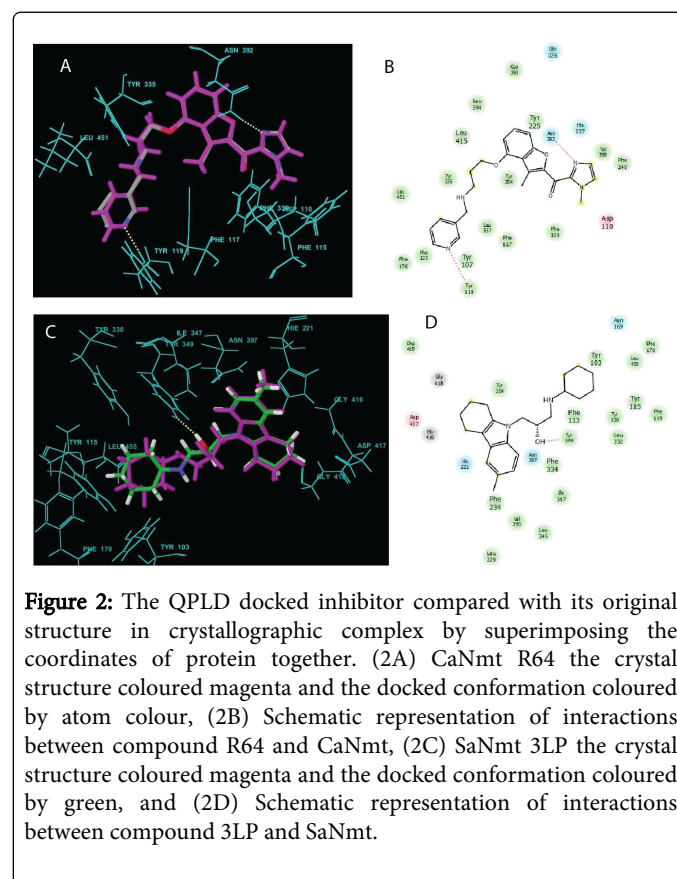


Figure 2: The QPLD docked inhibitor compared with its original structure in crystallographic complex by superimposing the coordinates of protein together. (2A) CaNmt R64 the crystal structure coloured magenta and the docked conformation coloured by atom colour, (2B) Schematic representation of interactions between compound R64 and CaNmt, (2C) SaNmt 3LP the crystal structure coloured magenta and the docked conformation coloured by green, and (2D) Schematic representation of interactions between compound 3LP and SaNmt.

S.No.	Compound	Zone of inhibition	MIC	Gscore	Δ Gbind	Zone of inhibition		Gscore	Δ Gbind
						<i>Candida albicans</i>	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>		
1	2a	14.6	128	-8.234	-43.387	-	-	-	-
2	2b	14.6	128	-8.725	-48.456	-	-	-	-
3	2c	15.6	128	-8.536	-44.895	-	-	-	-
4	2d	14.3	128	-7	-41.021	-	-	-	-
5	2e	15.3	128	-7.978	-37.578	-	-	-	-
6	2f	14.3	128	-8.107	-39.456	-	-	-	-
7	2g	16.6	64	-7.75	-46.197	-	-	-	-
8	2h	18.6	32	-9.29	-49.558	-	-	-	-
9	2i	17.3	64	-8.049	-50.471	-	-	-	-
10	3a	18.3	64	-8.965	-48.667	15.6	64	-5.932	-29.366
11	3b	15.3	128	-7.209	-34.949	14.3	128	-5.442	-29.98
12	3c	20.6	32	-10.021	-56.531	18.3	32	-6.544	-35.63
13	3d	14.6	64	-7.538	-40.343	14.6	128	-5.267	-27.625
14	3e	17.6	64	-8.839	-47.524	16	64	-5.278	-32.326
15	3f	16	128	-7.695	-44.346	15.3	128	-5.438	-31.15
16	3g	16.6	64	-7.633	-45.567	15.3	128	-5.073	-24.919
17	3h	19	32	-9.117	-43.91	17.3	64	-7.531	-48.861
18	3i	19.6	32	-9.125	-49.962	18.6	32	-7.036	-44.328
19	Celecoxib	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Std	Fluconazole	16.5	140	-	-	24.0	140	-	-

Table 1: Zone of inhibition (mm), MIC (μ g/ml), docking scores and predicted binding-free energies (kcal/mol) obtained by Prime/MM-GBSA. - no activity, Std-standard drug.

For the correlation between the docking score/binding-free energy with the experimental zone of inhibition/MIC values to predict the relative binding affinities of these compounds, we performed correlation coefficients between QPLD Gscore values, and binding-free energy Δ Gbind values calculated using Prime/MM-GBSA protocol with the experimental zone of inhibition and MIC values. The results of the correlations are summarized in Table 2. The

correlation coefficient of QPLD Gscore or QPLD based MM-GBSA Δ Gbind vs zone of inhibition or MIC values for CaNmt and SaNmt inhibitors are 0.77, 0.74, 0.60, 0.64 and 0.81, 0.76, 0.73, 0.66, depicted from the scatter plots, respectively (Figure 4). The QPLD protocol shows that the celecoxib analogues are having similar hydrogen bond interactions with the same active site residues as that of the co-crystal ligands in both CaNmt and SaNmt (Figure 5), respectively.

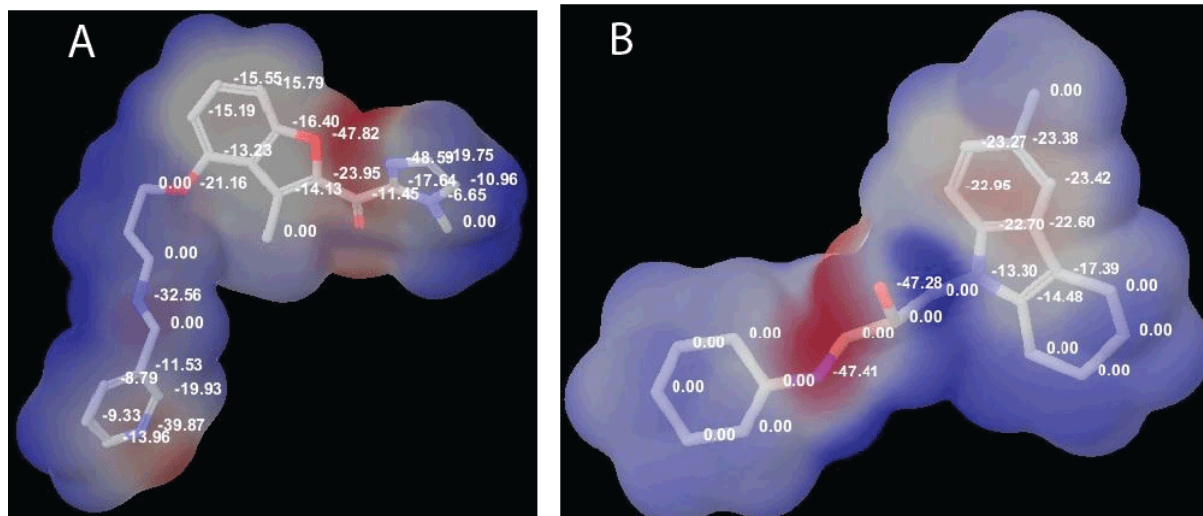


Figure 3: Electrostatic potential value plotted on the connolly surface using electrostatic potential fitting charge (ESP) atomic charges derived from a B3LYP/6-31G* for the crystal structure ligands, OPLS2005 (for the protein), QM/MM docking (electropositive charge blue, electronegative charge red and neutral white): (3A) CaNmt R64 and (3B) SaNmt 3LP.

Scoring Method	Correlation Coefficient	
	<i>Candida albicans</i>	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>
QPLD Gscore vs Zone of inhibition	0.77	0.81
QPLD based MM-GBSA ΔG vs Zone of inhibition	0.74	0.76
QPLD Gscore vs MIC	0.60	0.73
QPLD based MM-GBSA ΔG vs MIC	0.64	0.66

Table 2: Comparison of the performance of four scoring functions in this study.

Considering the influence of different docking methods on the performance of Prime/MM-GBSA simulation for the binding-free energy calculation, we calculated the binding-free energy from the complexes obtained by QPLD docking strategy. This protocol calculates energy components including the minimized energy, solvation energy, and surface area energy of the complex, Nmt and free ligands. Corrections for entropic changes were not applied. Prime adopts a surface-generalized Born model using a Gaussian surface instead of a van der Waals surface for better representation of the solvent-accessible surface area [44]. The results of binding-free energy prediction using MM-GBSA are listed in Table 1. Table 2 shows the results from the correlation coefficient based on MM-GBSA binding-free energy from QPLD docking protocol. Analysis of the above study correlates well between experimental and in silico results.

In vitro Antifungal Activity

All the eighteen compounds were evaluated for their *in vitro* antifungal activity against two fungal strains, *C. albicans* (MTCC 227) and *S. cerevisiae* (MTCC 170) by agar well diffusion method [45].

Fluconazole was used as the reference drug and the data of antifungal tests are depicted in Table 1 and Figure 6. MIC of only those compounds was determined which were showing activity in primary screening.

From the activity results it has been revealed that most of the compounds possessed remarkable antifungal activity against *C. albicans* fungal strains. From the QPLD docking and the Prime MM-GBSA studies it is seen that most of the synthesised celecoxib analogues are showing hydrogen bond interactions with the active site residues and good binding energy (ΔG_{bind}) for *Candida albicans*. Interestingly, nine compounds were found to be potent members showing greater activity against *C. albicans* than standard drug fluconazole (Figure 6). On the basis of zone of inhibition against *C. albicans*, three compounds 3c, 3h and 3i were found to be most potent showing the maximum zone of inhibition ≥ 19.0 mm as compared with standard drug fluconazole which showed the zone of inhibition 16.5 mm against *C. albicans*.

Similarly, on the basis of zone of inhibition studies, three compounds, 3c, 3h and 3i were found to be most effective against *S. cerevisiae* showing the maximum zone of inhibition ≥ 17.0 mm as compared with standard drug fluconazole (Figures 5 and 6) which showed the zone of inhibition 24.0 mm against *S. cerevisiae*. However, out of the eighteen compounds tested nine compounds belonging to cyanopyrazoles series (2a-2i) did not show activity against *S. cerevisiae* (Table 1). In the whole series, MIC ranged between 32 and 128 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. In case of *C. albicans*, three compounds 3c, 3h and 3i are the most potent members having MIC 32 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ in comparison to standard drug having MIC of 140 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. Other compounds were showing good to moderate activity having MIC ranged between 64 and 128 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. However, two compounds 3c and 3i were found to be best against *S. cerevisiae* showing lowest MIC 32 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ (Table 1) compared to standard drug having MIC of 140 $\mu\text{g/ml}$.

In general, carbothioamides 3a–3i showed better *in vitro* activity which is proved from the hydrogen bonding interactions and the

higher binding energy for most of them than the corresponding cyanopyrazoles 2a-2i for *Candida albicans* whereas for *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* cyanopyrazoles did not show any activity. The compound in each series (2c, 3c) in terms of zone of inhibition against *C. albicans* contains a fluoro (F) substituent at position-4 of the phenyl ring that is attached to the C-5 of the pyrazole moiety. Interestingly, these compounds also showed excellent anti-inflammatory activity and good COX-2 selectivity [24]. However, among all the tested chemical compounds, compound 3c was found to be the best in inhibiting growth of both fungal pathogens. From the *in silico* and *in vitro* results of the anti-inflammatory and antifungal activity of the celecoxib analogues it is attributed that the presence of the fluoro and the $-CSNH_2$ moiety are responsible for the activity. Thus this compound can be further used as an anti-inflammatory antifungal agent in pharmaceutical industry, after testing its toxicity on human beings.

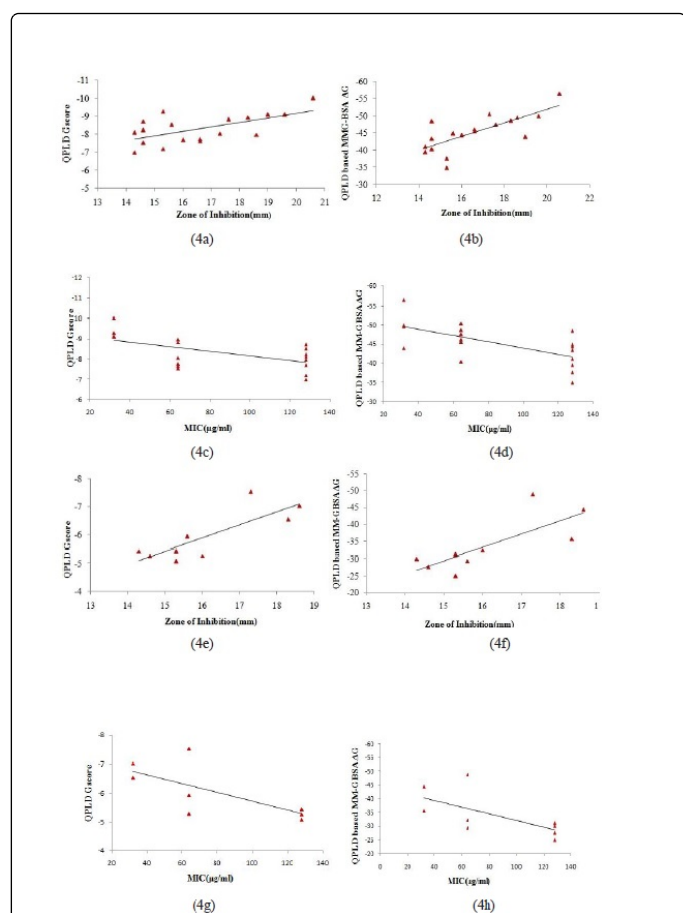


Figure 4: Correlation between experimental zone of inhibition or MIC against Nmt docking scores or estimated free energies of binding (kcal/mol) obtained by CaNmt (4a) QPLD Gscore vs Zone of inhibition, (4b) CaNmt QPLD based MM-GBSA ΔG vs Zone of inhibition, (4c) QPLD Gscore vs MIC, (4d) CaNmt QPLD based MM-GBSA ΔG vs MIC. SaNmt (4e) QPLD Gscore vs Zone of inhibition, (4f) CaNmt QPLD based MM-GBSA ΔG vs Zone of inhibition, (4g) QPLD Gscore vs MIC, (4h) CaNmt QPLD based MM-GBSA ΔG vs MIC.

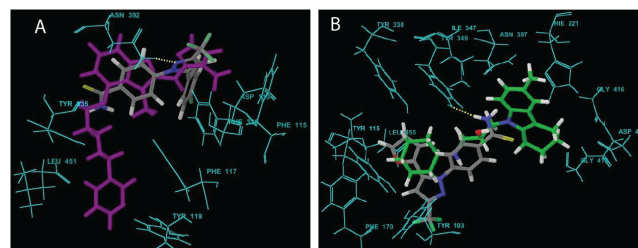


Figure 5: (5A) QPLD model of CaNmt inhibitor (3c) coloured by atom colour along with the crystal structure of ligand R64 coloured by magenta and (5B) QPLD model of SaNmt inhibitor (3i) coloured by atom colour along with the crystal structure of ligand 3LP coloured by green.

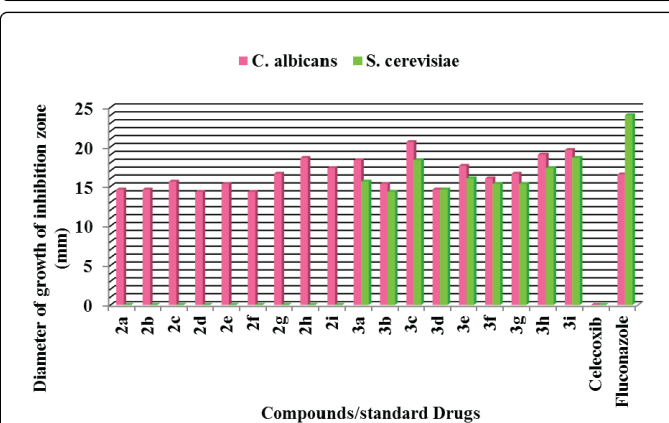


Figure 6: Comparison of diameter of growth of inhibition zone (mm) of synthesized compounds with celecoxib and standard drug fluconazole

Conclusions

In this work, synthesized celecoxib analogues which were found to be good anti-inflammatory agents [24] were tested for antifungal activity to explain the dual property of the compounds. QPLD docking method was used to study the binding mode of series of celecoxib analogues as Nmt inhibitors. *In vitro* antifungal assay results of celecoxib analogues were displaying more potent antifungal activity than celecoxib and fluconazole. The QPLD with the improved charge calculation model makes an improvement of the docking performance. To fully consider the influence of docking method on the performance of Prime/MM-GBSA simulation for the binding affinity calculation, the simulation was carried out based on the QPLD complex. The QPLD based MM-GBSA simulation showed a good correlation between the predicted energy and experimental zone of inhibition or MIC. The good performance of the combined strategy to predict the binding-free energy suggests that it can be used to lead discovery and optimization of Nmt. From the studies it reveals that the synthesized celecoxib analogues can be used as the dual anti-inflammatory and antifungal agents which can serve as a good starting point for further studies of structural diversity of the NMT inhibitors.

Experimental Protocols

Protein preparation

The three-dimensional complex structure of *Candida albicans* (PDB ID: 1IYL) and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (PDB ID: 2P6G) were downloaded from the Protein Data Bank [46,47]. The structure was prepared with the Protein Preparation Wizard [48] workflow as follows: adding hydrogens, assigning partial charges using the OPLS-2005 force field, and assigning protonation states. Following this step, the structure underwent restrained minimization in vacuum. The co-crystal ligand was used to determine the location of a docking grid box and was then removed prior to grid generation in next step.

Ligand preparation

The 3D molecular structures of all compounds (18 celecoxib analogues, anti-inflammatory drug celecoxib, and antifungal drug fluconazole) were built with the Schrödinger software. The energy minimization was performed using the OPLS-2005 force field. Then, all the compounds were prepared by Ligprep module [49].

QM/MM docking study

The Quantum Mechanics/Molecular Mechanics (QM/MM) docking were performed by the Schrödinger QM-Polarized Ligand Docking Protocol (QPLD) [43]. The protocol was carried out as follows: (1) Rigid Receptor Docking (RRD) was performed using Glide [50]. In this step, the top five poses of each ligand in the initial RRD were used, (2) the polarizable ligand charges induced by the protein were calculated with QSite [51] at the B3LYP/6-31G* level, and (3) the ligands with QM/MM modified charges were redocked and five poses of each ligand were saved. The Gscore value was selected for scoring the poses.

Prime/MM-GBSA simulation

The Prime/MM-GBSA [52] method based on the docking complex was used to calculate the binding-free energy (ΔG_{bind}) of each ligand, using the following equation [40]

$$\Delta G_{\text{bind}} = \Delta E_{\text{MM}} + \Delta G_{\text{SOL}} + \Delta G_{\text{SA}}$$

where ΔE_{MM} is the difference in the minimized energies between the Nmt-inhibitor complex and the sum of the energies of the unliganded Nmt and inhibitor. ΔG_{SOL} is the difference in the GBSA solvation energy of the protein-inhibitor complex and the sum of the solvation energies for the unliganded Nmt and inhibitor. ΔG_{SA} is the difference in surface area energies for the complex and the sum of the surface area energies for the unliganded Nmt and inhibitor. The simulation was performed based on the receptor-ligand complex structure obtained from molecular docking. The obtained ligand poses were minimized using the local optimization feature in Prime, whereas the energies of complex were calculated with the OPLS-2005 force field and Generalized-Born/Surface Area continuum solvent model. During the simulation process, the ligand strain energy was also considered.

Based on the docking score and MM/GBSA binding-free energy, we developed the correlation coefficient between the docking score or calculated binding-free energy and the experimental zone of inhibition values or MIC values.

Antimicrobial assay

Test microorganisms

Two yeasts, *Candida albicans* (MTCC 227), and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (MTCC 170) were screened for evaluation of antifungal activity of the chemical compounds. All the microbial cultures were procured from Microbial Type Culture Collection (MTCC), IMTECH, Chandigarh.

Antifungal activity (yeasts)

The antifungal activity of 18 chemical compounds was evaluated by the agar well diffusion method. All the microbial cultures were adjusted to 0.5 McFarland standards, which is visually comparable to a microbial suspension of approximately 1.5×10^8 cfu/ml. 20 ml of agar medium was poured into each petri plate and plates were swabbed with 100 μ L inocula of the test microorganisms and kept for 15 min for adsorption. Using sterile cork borer of 8 mm diameter, wells were bored into the seeded agar plates and these were loaded with a 100 μ L volume with concentration of 4.0 mg/ml of each compound reconstituted in dimethylsulphoxide (DMSO). All the plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 h. Antimicrobial activity of each compound was evaluated by measuring the zone of growth of inhibition against the test organisms with zone reader (Hi Antibiotic zone scale). DMSO was used as a negative control whereas fluconazole was used as positive control for yeast. This procedure was performed in three replicate plates for each organism [53,54].

Determination of Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) of chemical compounds

MIC is the lowest concentration of an antimicrobial compound that will inhibit the visible growth of a microorganism after overnight incubation. MIC of the various compounds against yeast strains was tested through a modified agar well diffusion method [45]. In this method, two fold serial dilution of each chemically synthesized compound was prepared by first reconstituting the compound in DMSO followed by dilution in sterile distilled water to achieve a decreasing concentration range of 140 to 0.5 μ g/ml. A 100 μ L volume of each dilution was introduced into wells (in triplicate) in the agar plates already seeded with 100 μ L of standardized inoculum (106 cfu/ml) of the test microbial strain. All test plates were incubated aerobically at 37°C for 24 h and observed for the inhibition zones. MIC, taken as the lowest concentration of the chemical compound that completely inhibited the growth of the microbe, showed by a clear zone of inhibition, was recorded for each test organism. Fluconazole was used as positive control while DMSO as negative control.

Acknowledgements

We are thankful to Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) New Delhi, for the award of Senior Research Fellowship to Nisha Chandna and Kotni Meena Kumari to carry out this work.

References

1. Lass-Flörl C (2009) The changing face of epidemiology of invasive fungal disease in Europe. *Mycoses* 52: 197-205.
2. Borg-von Zepelin M, Kunz L, Rüchel R, Reichard U, Weig M, et al. (2007) Epidemiology and antifungal susceptibilities of *Candida* spp. to six antifungal agents: results from a surveillance study on fungaemia in

- Germany from July 2004 to August 2005. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 60: 424-428.
3. Panizo MM, Reviakina V, Dolande M, Selgrad S (2008) *Candida* spp. in vitro susceptibility profile to four antifungal agents. Resistance surveillance study in Venezuelan strains. *Med Mycol* 47:137-143.
 4. Richardson M, Lass-Flörl C (2008) Changing epidemiology of systemic fungal infections. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 14 Suppl 4: 5-24.
 5. Pappas PG, Kauffman CA, Andes D, Benjamin DK Jr, Calandra TF, et al. (2009) Clinical practice guidelines for the management of candidiasis: 2009 update by the Infectious Diseases Society of America. *Clin Infect Dis* 48: 503-535.
 6. Denning DW, Hope WW (2010) Therapy for fungal diseases: opportunities and priorities. *Trends Microbiol* 18: 195-204.
 7. Boutin JA (1997) Myristoylation. *Cell Signal* 9: 15-35.
 8. Farazi TA, Waksman G, Gordon JI (2001) The biology and enzymology of protein N-myristoylation. *J Biol Chem* 276: 39501-39504.
 9. Lodge JK, Jackson-Machelski E, Toffaletti DL, Perfect JR, Gordon JI (1994) Targeted gene replacement demonstrates that myristoyl-CoA: protein N-myristoyltransferase is essential for viability of *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 91: 12008-12012.
 10. Nakayama H, Mio T, Nagahashi S, Kokado M, Arisawa M, et al. (2000) Tetracycline-regulatable system to tightly control gene expression in the pathogenic fungus *Candida albicans*. *Infect Immun* 68: 6712-6719.
 11. Georgopadakou NH (2002) Antifungals targeted to protein modification: focus on protein N-myristoyltransferase. *Expert Opin Investig Drugs* 11: 1117-1125.
 12. Devadas B, Zupec ME, Freeman SK, Brown DL, Nagarajan S, et al. (1995) Design and syntheses of potent and selective dipeptide inhibitors of *Candida albicans* myristoyl-CoA:protein N-myristoyltransferase. *J Med Chem* 38: 1837-1840.
 13. Devadas B, Freeman SK, Zupec ME, Lu H-F, Nagarajan SR, et al. (1997) Design and synthesis of novel imidazole-substituted dipeptide amides as potent and selective inhibitors of *Candida albicans* myristoylCoA: protein N-myristoyltransferase and identification of related tripeptide inhibitors with mechanism-based antifungal activity. *J Med Chem* 40: 2609-2625.
 14. Devadas B, Freeman SK, McWherter CA, Kishore NS, Lodge JK, et al. (1998) Novel biologically active nonpeptidic inhibitors of myristoylCoA:protein N-myristoyltransferase. *J Med Chem* 41: 996-1000.
 15. Nagarajan SR, Devadas B, Zupec ME, Freeman SK, Brown DL, et al. (1997) Conformationally Constrained [p-(?-Aminoalkyl) phenacetyl]-l-seryl-l-lysyl Dipeptide Amides as Potent Peptidomimetic Inhibitors of *Candida albicans* and Human Myristoyl-CoA: Protein N-Myristoyl Transferase. *J Med Chem* 40:1422-1438.
 16. Parang K, Knaus EE, Wiebe LI, Sardari S, Daneshmand M, et al. (1996) Synthesis and antifungal activities of myristic acid analogs. *Arch Pharm (Weinheim)* 329: 475-482.
 17. Paige LA, Zheng GQ, DeFrees SA, Cassady JM, Geahlen RL (1990) Metabolic activation of 2-substituted derivatives of myristic acid to form potent inhibitors of myristoyl CoA: protein N-myristoyltransferase. *Biochemistry* 29:10566-10573.
 18. Karki RG and Kulkarni VM (2001) Computer-aided design and synthesis of *Candida albicans* N-myristoyltransferase inhibitors as antifungal agents. *Indian Drugs* 38:406-413.
 19. Masubuchi M, Ebiike H, Kawasaki K, Sogabe S, Morikami K, et al. (2003) Synthesis and biological activities of benzofuran antifungal agents targeting fungal N-myristoyltransferase. *Bioorg Med Chem* 11: 4463-4478.
 20. Ebiike H, Masubuchi M, Liu P, Kawasaki K-i, Morikami K, et al. (2002) Design and synthesis of novel benzofurans as a new class of antifungal agents targeting fungal N-myristoyltransferase. Part 2. *Bioorg Med Chem Lett* 12:607-610.
 21. Kawasaki K, Masubuchi M, Morikami K, Sogabe S, Aoyama T, et al. (2003) Design and synthesis of novel benzofurans as a new class of antifungal agents targeting fungal N-myristoyltransferase. Part 3. *Bioorg Med Chem Lett* 13: 87-91.
 22. Masubuchi M, Kawasaki K, Ebiike H, Ikeda Y, Tsujii S, et al. (2001) Design and synthesis of novel benzofurans as a new class of antifungal agents targeting fungal N-myristoyltransferase. Part 1. *Bioorg Med Chem Lett* 11: 1833-1837.
 23. Yamazaki K, Kaneko Y, Suwa K, Ebara S, Nakazawa K, et al. (2005) Synthesis of potent and selective inhibitors of *Candida albicans* N-myristoyltransferase based on the benzothiazole structure. *Bioorg Med Chem* 13: 2509-2522.
 24. Chandna N, Kumar S, Kaushik P, Kaushik D, Roy SK, et al. (2013) Synthesis of novel celecoxib analogues by bioisosteric replacement of sulfonamide as potent anti-inflammatory agents and cyclooxygenase inhibitors. *Bioorg Med Chem* 21: 4581-4590.
 25. Barbosa MD, Yang G, Fang J, Kurilla MG, Pompliano DL (2002) Development of a whole-cell assay for peptidoglycan biosynthesis inhibitors. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 46: 943-946.
 26. Simonson T, Archontis G, Karplus M (2002) Free energy simulations come of age: protein-ligand recognition. *Acc Chem Res* 35: 430-437.
 27. Gohlke H, Klebe G (2002) Approaches to the description and prediction of the binding affinity of small-molecule ligands to macromolecular receptors. *Angew Chem Int Ed Engl* 41: 2644-2676.
 28. Deng Y, Roux B (2009) Computations of standard binding free energies with molecular dynamics simulations. *J Phys Chem B* 113: 2234-2246.
 29. Steinbrecher T, Labahn A (2010) Towards accurate free energy calculations in ligand protein-binding studies. *Curr Med Chem* 17: 767-785.
 30. Singh N, Warshel A (2010) Absolute binding free energy calculations: on the accuracy of computational scoring of protein-ligand interactions. *Proteins* 78: 1705-1723.
 31. Schneider G, Böhm HJ (2002) Virtual screening and fast automated docking methods. *Drug Discov Today* 7: 64-70.
 32. Sousa SF, Fernandes PA, Ramos MJ (2006) Protein-ligand docking: current status and future challenges. *Proteins* 65: 15-26.
 33. Waszkowycz B (2008) Towards improving compound selection in structure-based virtual screening. *Drug Discov Today* 13: 219-226.
 34. Moitessier N, Englebienne P, Lee D, Lawandi J, Corbeil CR (2008) Towards the development of universal, fast and highly accurate docking/scoring methods: a long way to go. *Br J Pharmacol* 153 Suppl 1: S7-26.
 35. Seifert MH (2009) Targeted scoring functions for virtual screening. *Drug Discov Today* 14: 562-569.
 36. Clark DE (2008) What has virtual screening ever done for drug discovery? *Expert Opin Drug Discov* 3: 841-851.
 37. Marco E, Negri A, Luque FJ, Gago F (2005) Role of stacking interactions in the binding sequence preferences of DNA bis-intercalators: insight from thermodynamic integration free energy simulations. *Nucleic Acids Res* 33:6214-6224.
 38. Åqvist J, Medina C, Samuelsson J-E (1994) A new method for predicting binding affinity in computer-aided drug design. *Protein Eng* 7:385-391.
 39. Chong LT, Pitera JW, Swope WC, Pande VS (2009) Comparison of computational approaches for predicting the effects of missense mutations on p53 function. *J Mol Graph Model* 27: 978-982.
 40. Lyne PD, Lamb ML, Saeh JC (2006) Accurate prediction of the relative potencies of members of a series of kinase inhibitors using molecular docking and MM-GBSA scoring. *J Med Chem* 49: 4805-4808.
 41. Das D, Koh Y, Tojo Y, Ghosh AK, Mitsuya H (2009) Prediction of potency of protease inhibitors using free energy simulations with polarizable quantum mechanics-based ligand charges and a hybrid water model. *J Chem Inf Model* 49:2851-2862.
 42. Brooijmans N, Humblet C (2010) Chemical space sampling by different scoring functions and crystal structures. *J Comput Aided Mol Des* 24: 433-447.
 43. Cho AE, Guallar V, Berne BJ, Friesner R (2005) Importance of accurate charges in molecular docking: quantum mechanical/molecular mechanical (QM/MM) approach. *J Comput Chem* 26: 915-931.

44. Yu Z, Jacobson MP, Friesner RA (2006) What role do surfaces play in GB models? A new-generation of surface-generalized born model based on a novel gaussian surface for biomolecules. *J Comput Chem* 27: 72-89.
45. Okeke MI, Iroegbu CU, Eze EN, Okoli AS, Esimone CO (2001) Evaluation of extracts of the root of *Landolphia owerrience* for antibacterial activity. *J Ethnopharmacol* 78: 119-127.
46. Sogabe S, Masubuchi M, Sakata K, Fukami TA, Morikami K, et al. (2002) Crystal structures of *Candida albicans* N-myristoyltransferase with two distinct inhibitors. *Chem Biol* 9: 1119-1128.
47. Wu J, Tao Y, Zhang M, Howard MH, Gutteridge S, et al. (2007) Crystal structures of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* N-myristoyltransferase with bound myristoyl-CoA and inhibitors reveal the functional roles of the N-terminal region. *J Biol Chem* 282: 22185-22194.
48. Schrödinger Suite 2011 Schrödinger Suite; Epik version 2.2 S, LLC, New York, NY, 2011; Impact version 5.7, Schrödinger, LLC, New York, NY, 2011; Prime version 2.3, Schrödinger, LLC, New York, NY, 2011.
49. LigPrep v, Schrodinger, LLC: New York, NY, 2009.
50. Glide v, Schrödinger, LLC, New York, NY, 2011.
51. QSite v, Schrödinger, LLC, New York, NY, 2011.
52. Prime v, Schrödinger, LLC, New York, NY, 2011.
53. Andrews JM (2001) Determination of minimum inhibitory concentrations. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 48 Suppl 1: 5-16.
54. Ahmad I, Beg AZ (2001) Antimicrobial and phytochemical studies on 45 Indian medicinal plants against multi-drug resistant human pathogens. *J Ethnopharmacol* 74: 113-123.