

Computer-assisted Assessment of Bioactive Compounds from Endophytic Fungi Against Type III Transcription Regulator (HrpR) of *Pseudomonas syringae* pv

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ABSTRACT

Pseudomonas syringae pv. *tomato* (Pst) is a well-studied bacterial pathogen affecting tomato crops globally, causing significant yield and economic losses. Typical control measures include copper-based bactericides. Due to the emergence of resistant strains, it is unsustainable. However, biological control has proven to be particularly effective and offers sustainable alternatives. To address these challenges, *in silico* analysis was employed to evaluate secondary metabolites from endophytic fungi as potential inhibitors of the HrpR protein, a key regulator of the Type III secretion system in Pst. A total of 100 fungal-derived compounds were screened using molecular docking, ADMET profiling, and molecular dynamics (MD) simulations. Six major hits with strong binding affinities were identified, with Asperthrins A emerging as the most promising lead. Asperthrins A exhibited the best pharmacokinetic properties, including low toxicity (LD₅₀ = 3.04), low cardiotoxicity, and drug-induced liver injury. MD simulations confirmed its stable binding and structural compactness within the HrpR active site over a 200 ns trajectory. Compared to other candidates such as Kadhenrischinins F and Diaporthichalasin E, Asperthrins A consistently outperformed in key pharmacological metrics. These findings underscore the value of endophytic fungi as sources of bioactive compounds and demonstrate the power of structure-based drug discovery in identifying environmentally safe, plant-compatible antimicrobial agents. This study provides a foundational step toward developing bio-rational alternatives to synthetic bactericides, supporting sustainable plant health management.

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1. Introduction

Pseudomonas syringae is a well-studied plant pathogen known for its distinct host-specificity, causing infections in numerous plant species worldwide and leading to significant economic losses (Chen et al., 2022). It affects various economically important crops, including tomato, rice, beans, and tobacco (Davide et al., 2025). *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *Tomato* (Pst) causes bacterial speck disease, significantly reducing yield (Chen et al., 2025; Skliros et al., 2023). *Pseudomonas syringae* is a gamma proteobacterium and a notable plant pathogen responsible for various diseases affecting monocots, herbaceous plants, and woody dicots worldwide. Over 60 pathovars have been identified, each typically infecting specific host plants. Most pathovars exhibit narrow host ranges, except for pathovar *syringae*, which infects over 80 plant species, including stone fruits, pome fruits, woody hosts, crops, and grasses (Buttimer et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2024). Individual

P. syringae strains often exhibit high host specificity toward a few plant species or only a few cultivars within a plant species. Individual strains often display high specificity for a limited number of plant species or cultivars, and the host range serves as a basis for grouping strains into pathovars (pv.) (Lonjon et al., 2024). Initially, *P. syringae* exists as an epiphyte on plant surfaces but transitions to a pathogenic endophyte within the intercellular spaces (apoplast) of infected plants. In susceptible hosts, virulent strains multiply rapidly in the apoplast for several days before causing symptoms, such as tissue necrosis. Conversely, in non-host species or resistant cultivars, these strains either fail to multiply or do so at minimal levels, rendering them avirulent. When high concentrations of an avirulent strain are artificially introduced into the apoplast of non-hosts or resistant cultivars in laboratory conditions, rapid programmed cell death, termed the hypersensitive reaction (HR), often occurs (Yang et al., 2024). The type III secretion system is an essential virulence system used by many Gram-negative bacterial pathogens to deliver effector

proteins into host cells (Lonjon *et al.*, 2024). The type III secretion system (TTSS) plays a crucial role in the virulence of *P. syringae*. It enables Gram-negative bacterial pathogens to inject effector proteins into host cells. The ability of *P. syringae* strains to proliferate within the apoplast and cause disease relies on the TTSS and its associated effector proteins (Yang *et al.*, 2024; Davide *et al.*, 2025).

Managing *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tomato* (Pst) requires an integrated approach to minimize disease severity and incidence. These methods include chemical, cultural, and biological controls. Although copper-based bactericides, such as copper hydroxide and copper sulfate, have historically been effective due to their broad-spectrum antimicrobial activity, the emergence of copper-resistant strains has reduced their efficacy in some regions (García-Latorre *et al.*, 2024; Davide *et al.*, 2025). Among the available strategies, biological control has proven to be particularly effective and offers sustainable alternatives. Beneficial microorganisms, such as endophytic fungi, have demonstrated the ability to suppress *P. syringae* through various mechanisms, including competition, antibiosis, and the induction of systemic resistance in plants (García-Latorre *et al.*, 2024; Hassan *et al.*, 2024). Additionally, Strobel *et al.* introduced mycofumigation as a biocontrol technique for managing postharvest diseases in fruits and tubers (Gao *et al.*, 2025).

Endophytes are microorganisms that reside within the internal tissues of plants without causing any visible symptoms (García-Latorre *et al.*, 2024; Alghanmi *et al.*, 2025). Initially, the term referred to any organism living entirely within plant tissues and causing asymptomatic infections (Muhorakeye *et al.*, 2024). To qualify as an endophyte, a fungus must demonstrate the presence of its hyphae within living plant tissues (Chebotar *et al.*, 2024). Endophytic fungi exist in a mycelial form and maintain a biological association with living plants for a certain period. Although the first discovery of endophytes dates back to 1904, they received little attention until the detection of paclitaxel (taxol) in the endophytic fungus *Taxomyces andreanae*, isolated from *Taxus brevifolia*, the latter being the source of this anti-cancer drug (Rakhalaru *et al.*, 2025).

Endophytes associated with plants represent a largely untapped reservoir of natural and bioactive compounds. Over 20,000 substances have been identified from endophytes, with 51% having novel structures and 80% demonstrating biological activity (García-Latorre *et al.*, 2024; Rakhalaru *et al.*, 2025). Moreover, endophytic fungi can be genetically modified to introduce desirable traits into host plants (Chebotar *et al.*, 2024).

Endophytic fungi play significant roles in plant health and development, including nutrient acquisition, plant hormone production, activation of systemic resistance, and synthesis of antibiotics and secondary metabolites (Alghanmi *et al.*, 2025; Fontana *et al.*, 2021). They enhance plant access to essential macronutrients such as nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium, as well as micronutrients like zinc, iron, and copper, derived from the soil and organic matter (Rana *et al.*, 2020). These fungi also contribute to the production of plant hormones such as auxins, gibberellins, and cytokinins, which regulate various physiological processes (Khan *et al.*, 2015; Sarma *et al.*, 2025). Additionally, endophytic fungi synthesize bioactive compounds that protect plants from pathogens and herbivores. These include alkaloids, steroids, terpenoids, peptides, polyketones, phenols, chlorinated compounds, and volatile organic compounds (VOCs). Furthermore, they produce secondary metabolites, which serve as reservoirs of beneficial molecules for their host plants (Sarma *et al.*, 2025; Mesaroš *et al.*, 2025).

Considering the agricultural damage caused by these pathogens, traditional control methods have focused on the usage of chemical

fungicides. However, the long-term reliance on chemicals has raised serious concerns regarding their environmental impact, the development of fungicide-resistant pathogen strains, and the health risks they pose to humans and animals (Islam *et al.*, 2024). For example, chemical fungicides can accumulate in the soil, contaminating water sources and non-target organisms, leading to biodiversity loss and ecosystem disruption (Fenta & Mekonnen, 2024). These challenges necessitate the development of more sustainable, environmentally friendly alternatives to chemical pest control. Traditional fungicides face several challenges, such as toxicity to human cells, a narrow spectrum of cellular targets, the emergence of antifungal resistance, and limited effectiveness in controlling pathogenic infections (Edouarzin *et al.*, 2020). To address these limitations, there is a need to develop new antifungal agents based on more targeted and advanced approaches. Computational studies are critical in this process because they allow for the design and optimization of antifungal compounds that are not only more effective but also less harmful to human cells (Shaili *et al.*, 2025). By simulating and predicting molecular interactions, these studies help identify compounds that specifically target pathogens with minimal impact on human tissues, leading to the development of safer and more targeted antifungal therapies.

This study emphasizes exploring the computational potential of bioactive compounds from endophytic fungi to target the Type III transcriptional regulator (HrpR) protein of *Pseudomonas syringae*. By leveraging ligand data sourced from existing literature, this research aims to uncover how these compounds interact with the HrpR protein, potentially leading to new and effective antibacterial strategies. Our findings are expected to deepen our understanding of bacterial pathogenesis and provide insights into emerging targeted, environmentally friendly solutions for managing bacterial specks of tomatoes. Ultimately, this study seeks to contribute to more sustainable agricultural practices, reducing the necessity of chemical fungicides and enhancing crop health and yield. Therefore, this study is intended to investigate the binding interactions of bioactive compounds from selected endophytic fungi with the HrpR protein of *Pseudomonas syringae* through molecular docking, molecular dynamics simulation, and ADMET profiling, with the ultimate goal of identifying potential inhibitors of the virulence regulator protein.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Compound Data Sets

A total of 100 endophytic fungi were sourced from the literature, and these are presented in Table S1. The table includes the names of the selected endophytic fungi, compounds extracted from them, and their PubChem IDs.

2.2. Preparation of Protein Target

The 3D structure of the target protein, Type III transcription regulator HrpR of *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *Tomato* (UniprotID: Q887C8) was obtained through the Uniprot website (<https://www.uniprot.org/uniprotkb/Q887C8/entry>). The binding pockets were predicted using Dogsite in Protein Plus, where the downloaded alpha fold structure of the target protein was used to calculate the binding pocket. Four pockets with the highest drug score were selected, P1, P_0, P_3, and P_2, with P_1 having the highest drug score of 0.87. The binding sites are presented in Figure 1. The protein structure was then cleaned and optimized through the dock prep module of UCSF-Chimera software. Here, the protein was freed from all heteroatoms. Hydrogenation and Gasteiger charges were applied. Finally, the nascent protein molecule was optimized for molecular docking under the Amber force field 94 fs (Amberff94fs) influence (Pettersen *et al.*, 2004).

2.3. Ligand Preparation and Computer-Assisted Docking

Before molecular docking, the obtained compounds' structures that passed the drug-likeness screening were changed into their most stable energetic conformations through the Merck molecular force field (MMFF94) (Halgren, 1996) in the program Open Babel within Python Prescription (PyRx) (Ver. 0.8), as previously done by (Chukwuemeka *et al.*, 2022; Umar *et al.*, 2022). The prepared drugs were individually docked into the designated active site of HrpR with the help of Vina and AutoDock 4.2 as docking tools in PyRx software (Trott & Olson, 2010). The specific target site for HrpR corresponding to the binding region was adjusted using the grid box with dimensions (27.9308 x 25.3054 x 24.9823) Å, and the center was attuned based on the area on the protein consisting of Arg185, Ser212, Gly213, Val215, Gln216, Leu219, Ser220, Leu252, Thr256, Thr260, Gln261, Ile264, Ile265, Met268, Leu269, Gln271, Asp272, Leu274, Lys275, Arg276, His279, Met299, Val304, Ala305, Ala306, and Pro307 (Weisberg *et al.*, 2005). Before the molecular interaction analysis, protein-ligand complexes of compounds with docking scores of -7.5 and above were generated using PyMOL Molecular Graphics (version 2.4, 2016, Schrödinger LLC). The 2D and non-covalent interactions of the protein-ligand complexes were generated using the Receptor-Ligand interaction module of BIOVIA's Discovery Studio 2016.

2.4. ADMET Prediction

Absorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion, and toxicity (ADMET) of compounds were predicted using the AI Drug servers (AI Drug Lab (smu.edu)) (Tian *et al.*, 2022). This is essential in the early stages of the drug discovery and design pipeline for analyzing the pharmacokinetics of potential drug candidates. The server was fed with the SMILE Strings of the compounds from PubChem (<https://pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/compound/>) through its search bar.

2.5. Molecular dynamics and simulation

The docking results were validated by Molecular dynamics and simulation (MD) (Ajala *et al.*, 2024). MD simulations were conducted using GROMACS software (version 2024) for a duration of 200 nanoseconds (ns) to evaluate the stability and conformational dynamics of the top-scoring HrpR protein-ligand complexes, as well as the unbound HrpR protein, to gain insights into structural alterations induced by ligand binding. K and Venugopal (2024) reported the use of the CHARMM27 force field in GROMACS (version 2024) for generating topology files for both the HrpR protein and its ligand complexes (Bjelkmar *et al.*, 2010; Bugnon *et al.*, 2023). The systems were subsequently solvated in a cubic water box and neutralized with Na⁺/Cl⁻ ions. Following solvation and neutralization, energy minimization was performed using the steepest descent algorithm to resolve any steric clashes. This was followed by equilibration steps under constant volume and temperature (NVT) and constant pressure and temperature (NPT) ensembles to stabilize the systems at 300 K and 1 atm, respectively (Bugnon *et al.*, 2023).

A 200-nanosecond molecular dynamics (MD) simulation was then carried out to evaluate the dynamic behavior and stability of both the

Table 1: Binding Energy of compounds from selected Endophytic fungi against HrpR in *P. syringae*

S/No.	Compound	Binding Energy (kcal/mol)
	Asperthrins A	-7.6
	Kadhenrischinins F	-7.6
	Diaporthichalasin E	-7.5
	Diaporthichalasin D	-7.5
	Kadhenrischinins C	-7.5
	Kadhenrischinins B	-7.5

protein-ligand complexes and the unbound HrpR protein. Key structural and dynamic properties, including root mean square deviation (RMSD), root mean square fluctuation (RMSF), radius of gyration (Rg), and solvent-accessible surface area (SASA), were analyzed. The results for all parameters were visualized using Xmgrace software (Nambiar *et al.*, 2023).

3. Results

3.1. Binding Pocket Identification

The structure of the HrpR protein was predicted using AlphaFold and subsequently analyzed using the DoGSite Scorer algorithm to identify druggable binding pockets. As shown in Table S2, out of the four top-ranked cavities (P₀-P₃), pocket P₁ exhibited the highest druggability score of 0.87, followed by P₂ (0.82), P₃ (0.81), and P₀ (0.79), indicating P₁ as the most suitable site for small-molecule binding (Damilare *et al.*, 2025; Volkamer *et al.*, 2012). This pocket encompasses residues such as Arg185, Ser212, Leu250, Ala263, and Val266, which were included in the docking grid, as shown in Figure 1.

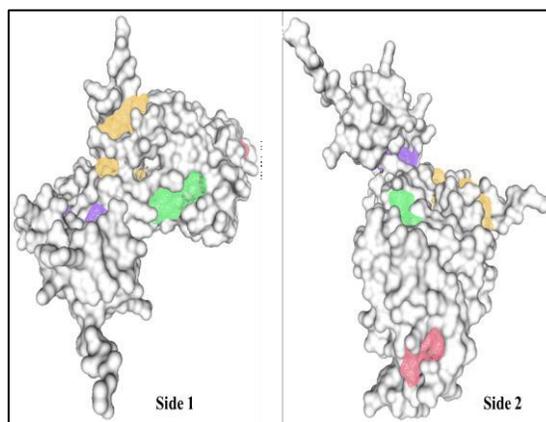


Figure 1: Binding sites of HrpR of *P. syringae* predicted using DogSite in Protein-plus server. Each color represent different pocket predicted. Pocket 1 (Purple), Pocket 0 (Yellow), Pocket 3 (Pink), and Pocket 2 (Green).

3.2. Molecular Docking Results

Out of 100 fungal secondary metabolites screened, Asperthrins A and Kadhenrischinin F demonstrated the most favorable binding affinities, each with a docking score of -7.6 kcal/mol. These were closely followed by Diaporthichalasin D (-7.5 kcal/mol), Kadhenrischinins B and C (-7.5 kcal/mol), and Diaporthichalasin E (-7.5 kcal/mol) (Table 1). All top hits docked into pocket P₁, supporting its role as the active ligand-binding site (Volkamer *et al.*, 2012).

6-Epi-Ophiobolin K	-7.4
Kadhenrischinins A	-7.3
Kadhenrischinins D	-7.2
Diaporthichalasin G	-7.1
Diaporthichalasin F	-7.1
Diaporthichalasin H	-7
Kadhenrischinins H	-6.9
Kadhenrischinins G	-6.9
Kadhenrischinins E	-6.9
Diaporisoindoles A	-6.9
Diaporisoindoles B	-6.8
Spirobrocazines B	-6.8
Scalarane	-6.7
Phomopsisin A	-6.6
Spirobrocazines C	-6.6
Spirobrocazines A	-6.6
Phomopsisin B	-6.5
Penicibrocazines B	-6.5
Phomosterols B	-6.4
(10S)-12,16-Epoxy-17(15→16)-Abeo- 3,5,8,12,15-Abietapentaene-2,7,11,14- Tetraone	-6.4
Pseurotins G	-6.4
Fusidic Acid	-6.4
Camptothecin	-6.4
Cytochrysin A	-6.3
Terrusnolides C	-6.3
Terrusnolides B	-6.3
Libertellenone M	-6.3
Ophiobolin K	-6.3
Penicibrocazines A	-6.3
Integracides I	-6.3
Sphaeropsidin A	-6.3
Cytochrysin B	-6.2
Terrusnolides D	-6.2
Integracides F	-6.2
Varioloids B	-6.2
Cytochrysin C	-6.1
Peyronetides C	-6.1
Integracides J	-6.1
Varioloids A	-6.1
Aspergiamides C	-6
Phomosterols A	-6
Citridones F	-6

Peyronetides A	-6
Penicibrocazines E	-6
Nigerapyrones B	-6
Sterigmatocystin	-6
Integracides G	-5.9
Phomopsisin C	-5.9
Citridones G	-5.9
Citridones E	-5.9
Botryosphaerins G	-5.9
Penicibrocazines D	-5.9
Integracides H	-5.9
Botryosphaerins H	-5.9
Aspergiamides A	-5.8
Peyronetides B	-5.8
Podophyllotoxin	-5.8
Pseurotins A3	-5.7
Penicibrocazines C	-5.7
Asperolides B	-5.7
Asperolides A	-5.7
Aspergiamides D	-5.6
Phomaketides A	-5.6
Nigerapyrones A	-5.6
Huperzine A	-5.6
Phaeosphaones D	-5.5
Terrusnolides A	-5.5
Peyronetides D	-5.5
Phomaketides C	-5.5
Diaporpenoid A	-5.4
Trichoderic Acid	-5.4
Phomaketides E	-5.4
Anhydrofusarubin	-5.4
Aspergiamides E	-5.3
Phomaketides D	-5.3
1-Methoxypestabacillin B	-5.2
Scorpinone	-5.2
Terezine E	-5.1
Asperolides C	-5.1
5-Hydroxy-3-Acetoxyethyl-2-Methyl-7-Methoxychromone	-5
Cyclonerotriol B	-5
Dihydrojavanicin	-5
Polonicin A	-4.9
Ficipyrones B	-4.9

Ficipyrones A	-4.9
Phomaketides B	-4.9
Palitantin	-4.9
5,7-Dihydroxy-3-Hydroxymethyl-2-Methylchromone	-4.7
Ent-Cladospolide F	-4.6
5S-Hydroxyrecifeioldide	-4.6
Punctaporonin H	-4.6
Helicascolide F	-4.5
5R-Hydroxyrecifeioldide	-4.5
Polonicin B	-4.2

3.3. Protein-Ligand Interaction Analysis

Three-dimensional visualization using PyMOL confirmed that all six top-scoring compounds fit well within the P_i cavity (Figure 2). Notably, Kadhenrischinin C assumed a slightly shifted orientation compared to other ligands. Two-dimensional interaction plots generated via Discovery Studio revealed that key residues such as

Arg185, Ser212, and Leu250 participated in hydrogen bonding, hydrophobic interactions, and π - π stacking with the ligands (Figure 3), suggesting robust ligand-receptor engagement (Xiang et al., 2025; Xu et al., 2025; Laskowski and Swindells, 2011).

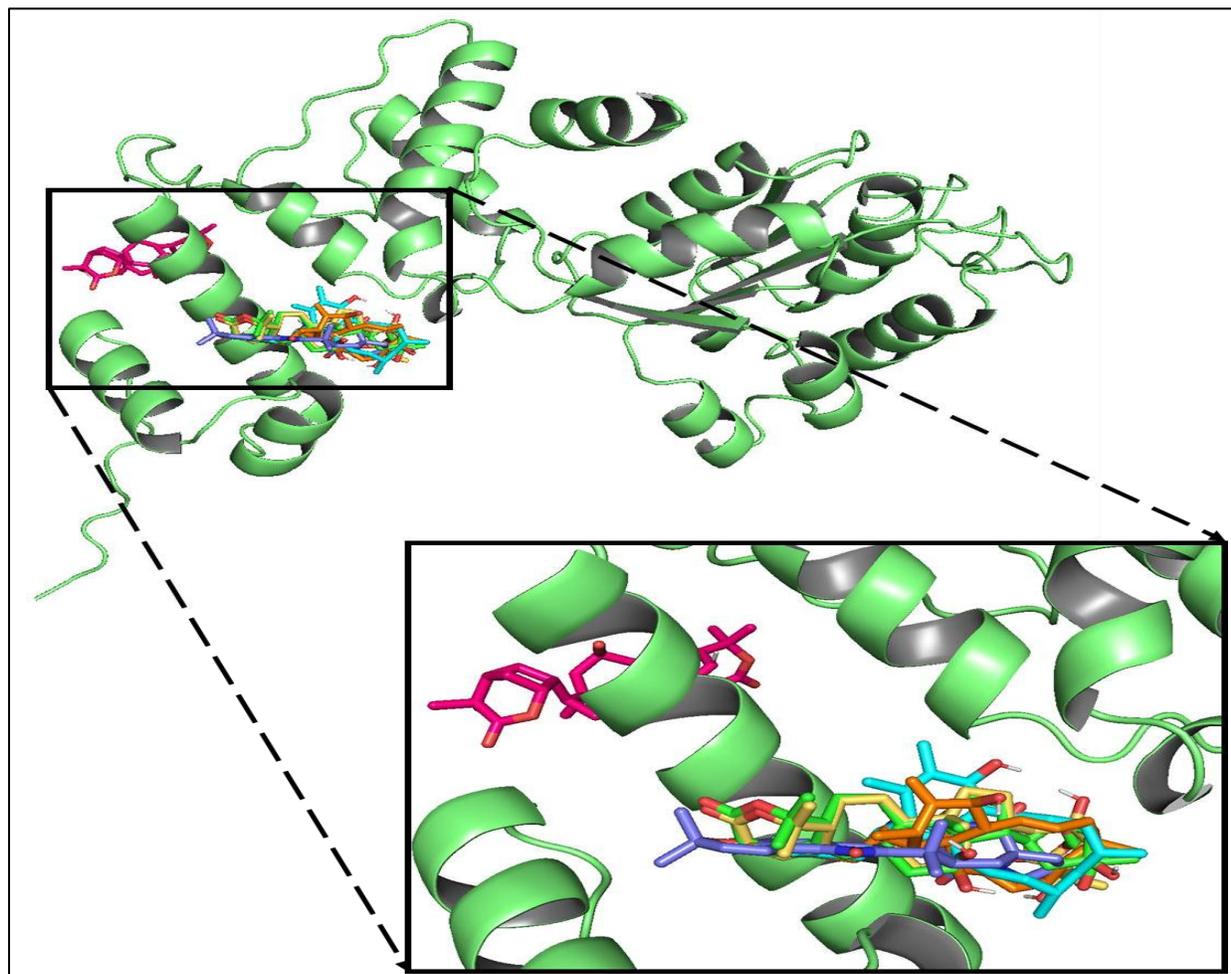


Figure 2: 3D binding configuration of hit compounds from endophytic fungi docked against HrpR of *P. syringae*. Diaporthichalasin D (cyan), Kadhenrischinins B (green), Kadhenrischinins F (yellow), Diaporthichalasin E (orange), and Asperthrins A (lilac) occupy similar spots on the binding site of the target protein, while Kadhenrischinin C (pink) takes a different spot on the binding site. This was rendered in PyMOL 3.0.

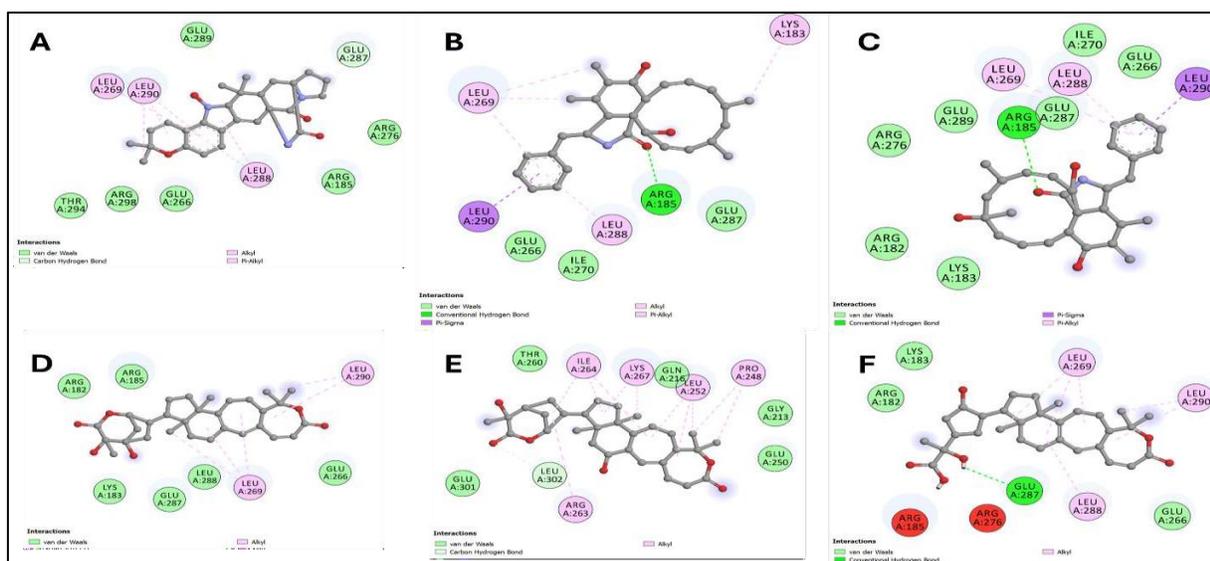


Figure 3: 2D interaction of amino acid residues in the binding pocket of HrpR and the atoms of some endophytic fungal compounds. a) Asperthrins A b) Kadhenrischinins B c) Kadhenrischinins C d) Diaporthichalasin D e) Diaporthichalasin E f) Kadhenrischinins F.

3.4. ADMET Predictions

Pharmacokinetic and toxicity predictions were performed using the AI drug Lab server (Tian *et al.*, 2022). As shown in Table S3, all lead compounds had molecular weights between 445–498 Da, which is within Lipinski's recommended range. Other properties, including topological polar surface area (TPSA), hydrogen bond donors/acceptors, and logP values, were favorable and did not violate drug-likeness rules. Among the screened hit compounds, Asperthrins A demonstrated the most balanced and favorable ADMET characteristics when compared to Kadhenrischinins B, C, F, Diaporthichalasin D, E, and the control drug Streptomycin. First, in terms of absorption, Asperthrins A had a human intestinal absorption (HIA) of 71.93%, which is higher than that of Kadhenrischinins F (64.71%) and Diaporthichalasin E (66.46%). Although Kadhenrischinins B (72.03%) had a slightly higher HIA, it had poorer oral bioavailability (33.29%) compared to Asperthrins A (43.31%), which is the highest among all compounds. Additionally, Asperthrins A's logD_{7.4} (1.67) fell within the ideal lipophilicity range (1–3), similar to others, but its aqueous solubility (-4.03) was less negative than Diaporthichalasin E (-4.44), indicating relatively better solubility (Hou *et al.*, 2004). In terms of distribution, Asperthrins A showed the lowest blood-brain barrier (BBB) permeability at 20.14%, compared to Diaporthichalasin D (32.6%) and Kadhenrischinins F (28.52%), suggesting limited CNS exposure, which is favorable for an antimicrobial drug. Regarding metabolism, although all compounds showed similar CYP enzyme inhibition and substrate profiles, Asperthrins A had lower CYP3A4 inhibition (43.44%) compared to Kadhenrischinins B (39.16%) and Diaporthichalasin E (34.22%), indicating moderate interaction risk. For excretion, Asperthrins A showed a reasonable half-life (63.55 h) and acceptable hepatic clearance (47.05 $\mu\text{L}/\text{min}/10^6$ cells), which was close to the top performer Diaporthichalasin E (114.6 h half-life) but less excessive in balancing drug persistence and clearance.

When evaluating toxicity, Asperthrins A again proved superior. It had the lowest predicted hERG inhibition (39.01%) and lowest DILI risk (41.16%) among all hits, indicating better cardiac safety and

hepatotoxicity profiles. Although Kadhenrischinins B had a comparable LD₅₀ (2.88), Asperthrins A had the highest LD₅₀ (3.04), suggesting it is the least acutely toxic (Lagorce *et al.*, 2017). Streptomycin, though widely used, had the poorest ADMET profile overall, with the lowest HIA (41.39%), high heteroatom count (19), and high toxicity scores (Ames 47.42%, DILI 55.52%).

3.5. Molecular Dynamics Simulation Analysis of HrpR-Hit Compound Complexes

MD simulation analyses of hit compounds docked against HrpR of *Pseudomonas syringae* over a 200 ns trajectory, presented in Figures 4 to 8, revealed that Asperthrins A (purple) and Kadhenrischinins F (yellow) demonstrated the most stable and compact interactions with the target protein. In the RMSD plot, Asperthrins A maintained a consistent deviation within 0.25–0.35 nm, while Kadhenrischinins F remained stable between 0.30–0.40 nm throughout the simulation, both indicating minimal backbone shifts and stable ligand-protein complexes. Similarly, RMSF results showed that residues interacting with Asperthrins A and Kadhenrischinins F fluctuated less than 0.20 nm, suggesting fewer local structural changes compared to the control drug, streptomycin, which exhibited higher RMSD (~0.45–0.60 nm) (Figure 4) and RMSF (up to 0.35 nm) (Figure 5), indicating reduced stability. In the Radius of Gyration (Rg) analysis (Figure 6), Asperthrins A and Kadhenrischinins F induced lower and more consistent Rg values (~2.10–2.25 nm), reflecting enhanced protein compactness, while streptomycin's complex showed more fluctuation (~2.30–2.50 nm). The SASA plots further confirmed this trend (Figure 7), as complexes with Asperthrins A and Kadhenrischinins F maintained lower solvent exposure (~160–180 nm²) compared to streptomycin (~200–220 nm²), indicating tighter ligand binding and better structural integrity. Overall, Asperthrins A and Kadhenrischinin F demonstrated superior dynamic stability, binding persistence, and structural compactness, making them promising inhibitors of HrpR in *P. syringae*, in line with the importance of RMSD, RMSF, Rg, SASA, and hydrogen bonding analyses (Figure 8) for validating molecular interaction stability (Hollingsworth and Dror, 2018; Danazumi & Umar, 2024; Hospital *et al.*, 2015).

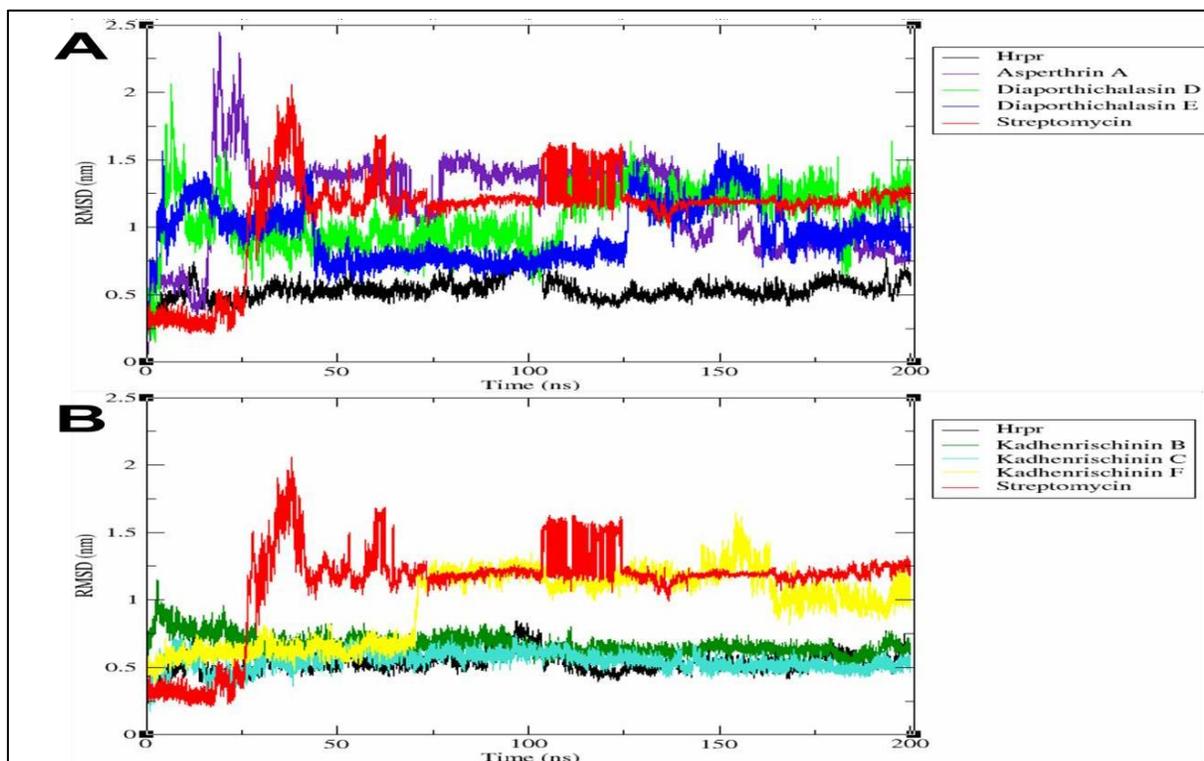


Figure 4: Root-mean square deviation (RMSD) of Hit compounds docked against Hrpr of *P. syringae* after 200 ns simulation.

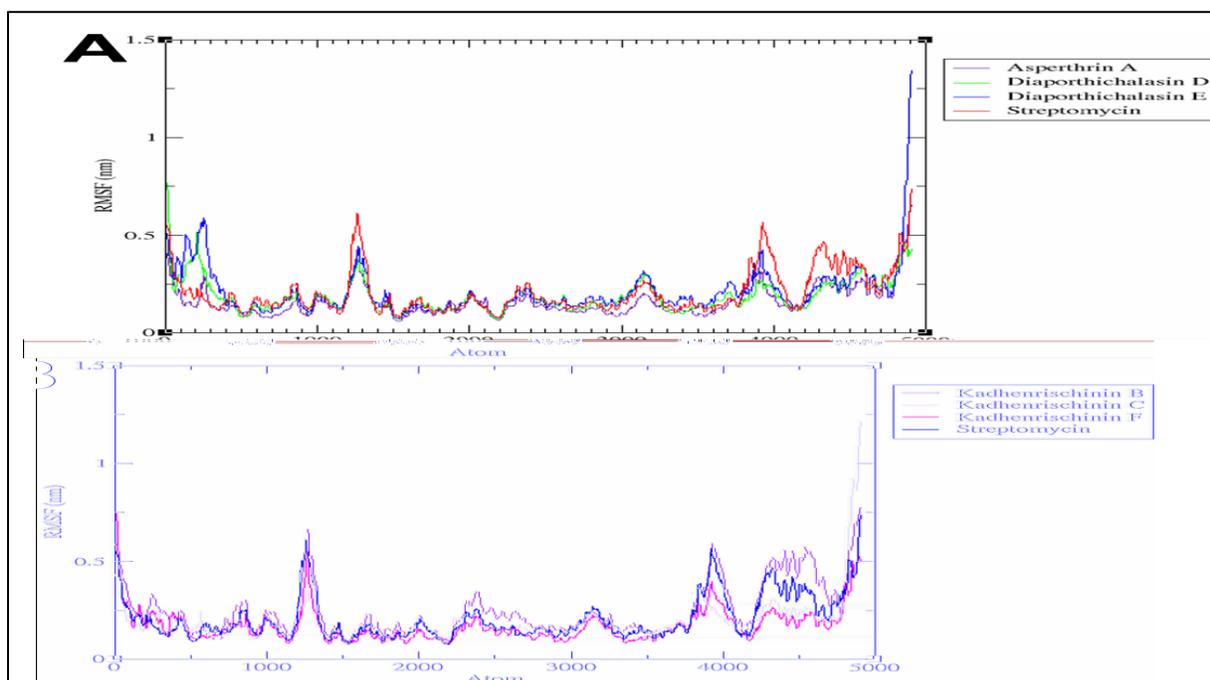


Figure 5: Root-mean square fluctuation (RMSF) of Hit compounds docked against Hrpr of *P. syringae* after 200 ns simulation

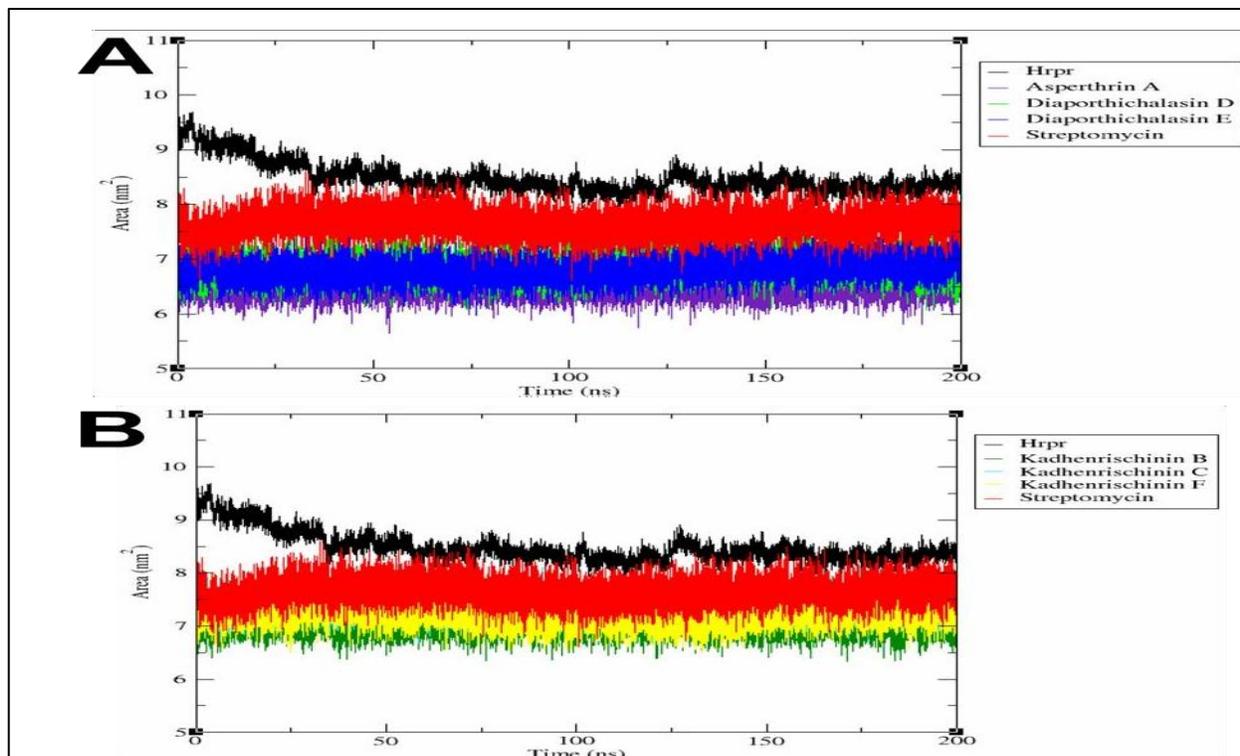


Figure 6: Compactness analysis of apo-hrpr and hrpr-ligand complexes using the Radius of gyration (Rg) of Hit compounds docked against Hrpr of *P. syringae* after 200 ns simulation.

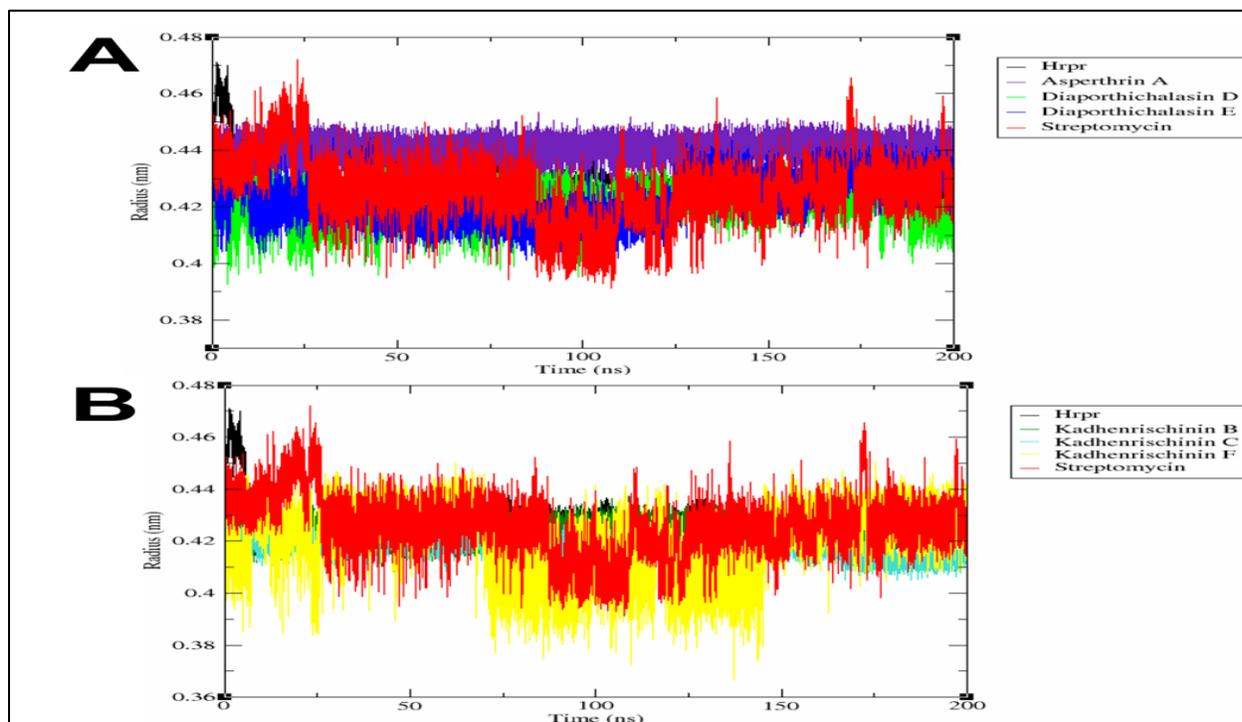


Figure 7: Solvent accessible surface area (SASA) analysis of Hit compounds docked against Hrpr of *P. syringae* after 200 ns simulation

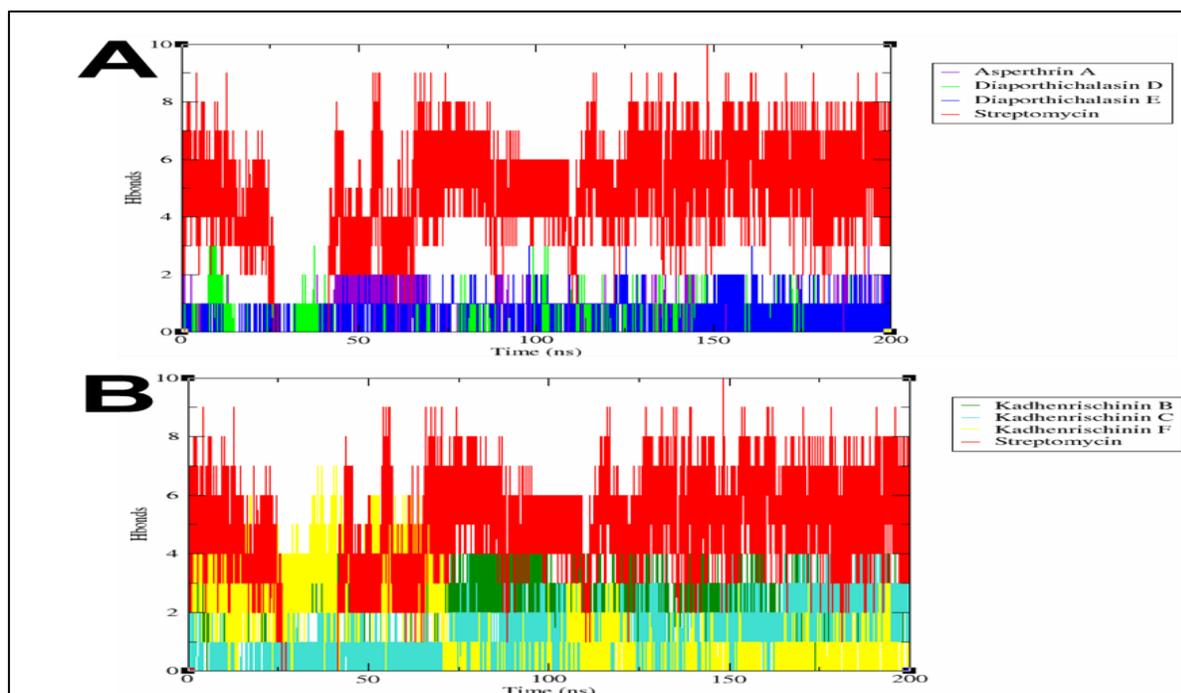


Figure 8: Number of hydrogen bonds established during the 200 ns simulation between the Hit compounds and HrpR of *P. syringae*

4. Discussion

The control of *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. tomato (Pst), a devastating phytopathogen responsible for bacterial speck in tomato (Skliros *et al.*, 2023), remains a global agricultural challenge, especially with rising resistance to copper-based bactericides (Bartoli *et al.*, 2014). Consequently, new sustainable control strategies targeting the virulence mechanisms of *P. syringae*, such as the Type III secretion system (TTSS), are crucial. The transcriptional regulator HrpR is a vital component of the TTSS that facilitates effector protein secretion, thus representing a promising drug target (Yang *et al.*, 2024; Davide *et al.*, 2025).

In this study, secondary metabolites from endophytic fungi were computationally screened against the HrpR protein using a structure-based drug design approach (Ferreira *et al.*, 2015). Out of the 100 screened secondary metabolites, six major hit compounds were identified through molecular docking based on their strong binding affinities (≥ -7.5 kcal/mol), among which Asperthrins A and Kadhenrischinins F demonstrated the highest docking scores (-7.6 kcal/mol). However, molecular docking alone does not guarantee therapeutic viability. Thus, absorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion, and toxicity (ADMET) profiling and molecular dynamics (MD) simulations were employed to validate the lead candidates. Among all the hit compounds, Asperthrins A emerged as the most promising lead based on its superior ADMET characteristics. It displayed a favorable human intestinal absorption (71.93%) and the highest oral bioavailability (43.31%), compared to Kadhenrischinins F (64.71%, 33.83%) and Diaporthichalasin E (66.46%, 37.54%). Its predicted blood-brain barrier permeability (20.14%) was the lowest among the top hits, reducing the risk of central nervous system side effects, an essential consideration for plant-targeted antimicrobials (Hou *et al.*, 2004). Moreover, Asperthrins A exhibited the least toxicity risks, including the lowest predicted hERG channel inhibition

(39.01%) and drug-induced liver injury (DILI) score (41.16%), as well as the highest LD₅₀ (3.04), indicating low acute toxicity (Lagorce *et al.*, 2017).

Furthermore, molecular dynamics simulations over 200 ns demonstrated that Asperthrins A maintained a highly stable and compact interaction with the HrpR protein. Its root mean square deviation (RMSD) remained consistently low (0.25-0.35 nm), suggesting strong binding affinity with minimal conformational disruptions. The compound also produced fewer atomic fluctuations (RMSF < 0.20 nm) and exhibited a lower radius of gyration (Rg), reflecting a more compact and stable protein-ligand complex compared to the control drug, streptomycin. Solvent-accessible surface area (SASA) analyses further confirmed that Asperthrins A formed a tightly bound complex, with reduced exposure to the aqueous environment, supporting its binding robustness (Hollingsworth and Dror, 2018; Danazumi & Umar, 2024).

Though other compounds, such as Kadhenrischinins F and Diaporthichalasin D, also showed good docking scores and moderate ADMET profiles, they were outperformed by Asperthrins A in critical pharmacokinetic and safety metrics. For instance, while Kadhenrischinins F displayed a longer half-life (115.6 hours), its higher DILI score (48.93%) and lower oral bioavailability limit its drug-likeness. Streptomycin, despite being widely used, performed poorly across all parameters, with a notably low human intestinal absorption (41.39%), high toxicity (DILI: 55.52%), and erratic simulation stability.

Collectively, the computational assessments presented in this study establish Asperthrins A as the most viable hit compound for further development. Its strong and stable binding to HrpR, combined with optimal pharmacokinetic and toxicity profiles, positions it as a potential natural bioagent for managing *P. syringae* infections in

crops. These findings affirm the value of fungal endophyte-derived metabolites as rich sources of antimicrobial scaffolds and support the continued integration of *in silico* tools in modern phytopathogen drug discovery.

5. Conclusion

Asperthrins A, a secondary metabolite derived from endophytic fungi, emerged as the most promising candidate for managing *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tomato*, a key pathogen responsible for bacterial speck in tomatoes. Its superior binding affinity to the HrpR virulence regulator, coupled with favorable ADMET and molecular dynamics profiles, positions it as a strong lead for developing targeted, biologically based plant protection strategies. Compared to other hits such as Kadhenrischinins F and Diaporthichalasin D, Asperthrins A demonstrated higher bioavailability, lower toxicity, and greater interaction stability key features for field-safe, plant-compatible bioagents. This study reinforces the potential of endophytic fungi as a reservoir of bioactive molecules and highlights how computational tools can accelerate the identification of plant-friendly alternatives to chemical pesticides, thereby supporting more sustainable and resilient agricultural systems.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate
Not applicable.

Ethical consideration

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Data Availability

The data used in this study are included in the article

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