

Exploring the Biomaterial Potential of a Naphthalene-based Schiff Base through Protein Binding, Molecular Docking, MD Simulation, and Swiss-ADME analysis

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ABSTRACT

Phenolic-based Schiff bases are highly interesting in biological applications due to their enhanced stability, strong metal-chelating ability, and capacity to form hydrogen bonds and electrostatic interactions with bio-molecules, which enhance their notable pharmacological and bioactive effects. A Schiff base ligand, (E)-1-(((2-aminophenyl)imino)methyl)naphthalen-2-ol (OPN) was derived from 2-hydroxy-1-naphthaldehyde and o-phenylenediamine. OPN was thoroughly characterized using standard spectroscopic and microscopic techniques, such as FT-IR, NMR and HR-MS analysis. OPN was further investigated using density functional theory (DFT) calculations to determine the HOMO–LUMO energy levels, and the derived global reactivity parameters provided valuable insights into its chemical reactivity, kinetic stability, and electronic properties. Fluorescence quenching analysis was used to check the binding interaction between bovine serum albumin (BSA) and OPN. The strong binding interaction was confirmed by the obtained quenching rate constant ($2.79 \times 10^{13} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) and a moderate binding constant ($7.14 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1}$). Further, we performed the fluorescence quenching analysis at different temperatures and confirmed that the quenching is due to static quenching. The experimental results related to molecular docking analysis indicate that OPN binds strongly within the active sites of BSA. Moreover, molecular dynamics simulations revealed that the BSA-OPN complex remained structurally stable for up to 50 ns, indicating a stable, energetically favourable binding interaction. Swiss-ADME analysis was performed to assess the pharmacokinetic and drug-likeness characteristics of OPN. Overall, this work highlights the significant binding ability of the synthesized OPN with protein, suggesting its potential applicability towards biological applications.

1. Introduction

Schiff bases are a widely studied, simple and significant class of organic ligands. Generally, Schiff bases are synthesized by a simple condensation technique by using aromatic aldehydes/ketones with amines to produce the azomethine ($-\text{C}=\text{N}$) group. Their popularity as ligands stems from their simple synthesis, high selectivity for the central metal ion [1], versatile synthetic methods [2], structural diversity [3], and extensive biological applications [4]. In addition, compounds derived from Schiff base have garnered considerable interest from

researchers due to their strong chelating ability towards metal ions [5–7]. These Schiff bases and their complexes play a crucial role in antitumor activity [8], antioxidative activities [9,10], and photo-physical properties [9,11] and are used as vital components in drugs [12–14]. Additionally, Schiff bases containing phenol in their ligand structure are of significant medicinal value. Drug compounds developed with a phenolic moiety show an excellent biological efficacy, such as antioxidative [15], antimutagenic, and anticarcinogenic properties [16]. Introducing a hydroxyl group into the molecule increases its water solubility and enhances its interface with bio-active molecules [17]. The

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phenoxy radicals are effectively produced from metal-coordinated phenol moieties, and are important in enzymes (galactose oxidase and glyoxal oxidase) [18]. Literature clearly reports that Schiff bases and phenolato-containing compounds interacting with serum proteins have been documented [16,19–22]. Moreover, Al-Harrasi and co-workers reported that hydrazone-based Schiff base derivatives exhibit strong interactions with enzymes, highlighting their potential as promising candidates for drug development in medicinal chemistry [23–25].

Fluorescence spectral analysis of proteins plays a crucial role in their bio-chemical applications in cells [26,27]. The basic fluorescence of a protein originates from the following amino acids like tyrosine, phenylalanine and tryptophan. Tryptophan exhibits a strong fluorescence and is highly sensitive to changes in the local environment [28]. Generally, serum albumin plays a crucial role in the blood plasma and helps to maintain osmotic pressure [29]. While numerous transport proteins are present in blood plasma, albumin uniquely and reversibly binds and transports various ligands [30]. During intravenous administration, serum proteins and DNA are primary targets for drugs [31]. Albumins can bind drugs and other bioactive molecules [29,30], creating important attention in the study of their interactions. Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA) is structurally similar to human serum albumin (HSA), and is a well-characterized, plentiful, as well as cost-effective serum albumin [32,33]. The properties mentioned above make BSA a valuable tool for studying drug-protein interactions, as its strong, specific binding to drug/small molecules/dyes can facilitate drug delivery. BSA also acts as a distributor and carrier for various exogenous and endogenous ligands [34,35]. The interaction studies comprise multi-spectroscopic and molecular simulation approaches with theoretical calculations [36–38].

The purpose of this study is to describe the molecular structure of a naphthalene-based Schiff base using both experimental and theoretical methods and to investigate its biological characteristics. From that, we have synthesized the naphthalene-based Schiff base using a simple stirring technique and thoroughly characterized. Further, DFT calculation was used to optimize the OPN structure and calculate the global reactivity parameters. The binding interaction analysis with BSA was performed using OPN, which showed strong binding affinity between OPN and BSA. Further, the exact binding sites were identified via molecular docking study, and the stability of the binding interaction was confirmed by MD simulation. Additionally, Swiss-ADME was used to assess the drug-likeness and pharmacokinetics of the OPN compound, confirming satisfactory absorption and bioavailability.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Materials and methods

Ortho-phenylenediamine ($\geq 98.0\%$) and 2-hydroxy-1-naphthaldehyde ($\geq 99.9\%$) were obtained from BLD Pharma and Sigma Chemicals, India. All the spectral measurements were performed using double-distilled water. Reagents and chemicals are used without any additional purification. BSA ($\geq 98\%$) was purchased from Sigma Chemicals, India.

Infrared spectra were obtained on an Apodization: Happ-Genzel FT-IR spectrophotometer ($4000\text{--}650\text{ cm}^{-1}$). High-resolution mass spectra (EI-HRMS) were recorded on a XEVO-G2-XS-QTOF mass spectrometer. ^1H NMR and ^{13}C NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker AV III 500 MHz NMR. The solvent used for the NMR analysis was DMSO- d_6 , and tetramethylsilane (TMS) was used as the internal standard. An Agilent 8453 diode-array spectrophotometer and a Hitachi F-4500 spectrofluorometer were used to conduct photophysical analyzes. Elemental analysis of the compound was measured by using ORGANIC: LECO Truspec Micro CHNS/O analyzer.

2.2. Synthesis of (E)-1-(((2-aminophenyl) imino) methyl) naphthalen-2-ol (OPN)

To a solution of ortho-phenylenediamine (1 mmol) in ethanol (20 mL), 2-hydroxy-1-naphthaldehyde (1 mmol) was added, and the mixture was stirred at room temperature for 6 h (Scheme 1, Table 1). After the reaction was complete (monitored by TLC), the solvent was removed under vacuum, affording the naphthalene-based Schiff base as an orange solid. Product Yield: 85%, m.p $148\text{--}150\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. IR (ν in cm^{-1}): 1602 (imine C = N), 3360 (–NH), 3466 (–OH). ^1H NMR(500 MHz, DMSO- d_6): δ 6.83–6.85 (m, 2 H), 7.08–7.10 (m, 3 H), 7.37 (t, $J = 7.5$ Hz, 1 H), 7.47 (t, $J = 7.7$ Hz, 1 H), 7.56 (d, $J = 7.9$ Hz 1 H), 7.83 (d, $J = 9.0$ Hz, 1 H), 8.51(d, $J = 8.5$ Hz, 1 H) 9.60 (s, 1 H), 15.66 (s, 1 H). ^{13}C NMR (500 MHz, DMSO- d_6): δ 167.6, 156.1, 142.2, 136.1, 133.3, 132.1, 129.4, 128.1, 127.3, 123.8, 121.6, 120.9, 119.3, 119.6, 117.7, 116.3, 109.7. ESI-MS TOF m/z calcd for $\text{C}_{17}\text{H}_{14}\text{N}_2\text{O}$: 262.1106. Found: 263.1028 $[\text{M} + \text{H}]^+$. Elemental analysis Calcd ($\text{C}_{17}\text{H}_{14}\text{N}_2$): C (77.84%), H (5.38%), N (10.68%), O (6.10%), Found: C (77.81%), H (5.41%), N (10.63%).

2.3. Theoretical analysis

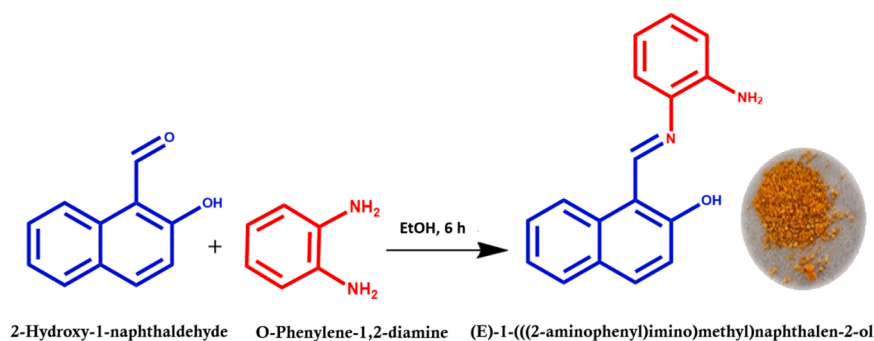
The electronic and molecular properties of the synthesized OPN was investigated using Density Functional Theory (DFT) calculations performed with Gaussian 09 software. Geometry optimization of the conformers was carried out employing the B3LYP functional in combination with the 6–31G(d,p) basis set [39]. Geometry optimization was performed in the gas phase without explicit solvent correction. The optimized structure of the OPN was visualized using the GaussView 6.0 molecular visualization software. Furthermore, the pharmacokinetic properties, including Absorption, Distribution, Metabolism and Excretion (ADME), were evaluated using the SwissADME web tool, a freely accessible online <http://www.swissadme.ch/>.

2.4. Protein binding and molecular docking analysis

Herein, we chose BSA as a model protein for binding interaction studies. So, we prepared the BSA stock solution (1%) in phosphate buffer (pH 7.2) and calculated the BSA concentration by spectrophotometry ($\epsilon_{280} = 44,000\text{ M}^{-1}\text{ cm}^{-1}$) [40]. 1 mM concentration of OPN was prepared by DMSO, and further, the stock solutions were used for the spectral measurements. The absorption and fluorescence analysis were conducted, and quenching experiments were performed between 290–560 nm (excitation 285 nm). Furthermore, molecular docking analysis was performed to identify specific binding sites and simulate interactions. Herein, the docking results were obtained using CB-Dock software and visualized with Biovia Discovery Studio. The 3D structure of BSA was obtained from the Protein Data Bank (PDB ID: 4F5S). The selected docking cavity was defined with grid center coordinates of (49.2, 21.9, 93.4) and box dimensions of $35\text{ \AA} \times 21\text{ \AA} \times 21\text{ \AA}$.

2.5. MD simulation studies

Combining GROMACS and the CHARMM36 force field, all-atom molecular dynamics (MD) simulations of the synthesized ligand molecule with BSA were carried out. Employing visualization programs like Pymol or VMD, the structure was processed to exclude redundant molecules like ligands, crystallographic water, or multiple conformations. The topology files were generated by choosing a suitable force field using GROMACS's pdb2gmh module. A cubic box with an adequate buffer distance from the solute has subsequently used to establish the simulation box. In order to neutralize the system and replicate physiological ionic strength, ions were added by genion after the system had been solvated using solvate. Energy minimization is used to remove steric conflicts and to enhance geometry. There are two stages to achieving equilibrium. NVT Equilibration: The temperature, volume, and particle count of the system are all kept constant. Thermal



Scheme 1. Synthesis procedure of OPN.

Table 1

SMILES String of starting materials and compound (OPN).

Compound name	Structure	SMILES String
2-hydroxy-1-naphthaldehyde		<chem>Oc1ccc2ccccc2c1C=O</chem>
O-phenylene-1,2-diamine		<chem>Nc1ccccc1N</chem>
(E)-1-(((2-aminophenyl) imino) methyl) naphthalen-2-ol		<chem>Nc1ccccc1\N=C\c1c(O)ccc2ccccc12</chem>

fluctuations are stabilized by applying temperature coupling. NPT Equilibration: For the purpose of density adjustment and pressure stability, the system was further balanced under constant particle counts, pressures, and temperatures. The final production MD run was executed under continuous pressure (NPT ensemble) for 50 nanoseconds (ns). Long-range electrostatics were addressed utilizing the Particle Mesh Ewald (PME) method, and by constraining all covalent bonds, the LINCS algorithm enabled a 2-fs integration timestep [41]. Non-bonded contacts were terminated at 10 Å using the Verlet cutoff method. Trajectory analyses, including radius of gyration (Rg), root mean square fluctuation (RMSF) and root mean square deviations (RMSD), were computed using the integrated GROMACS tools. Conformational dynamics and binding stability were assessed by tracking significant intermolecular distances between the ligand molecules and BSA residues using the XMGrace and plotting tools [42,43]

3. Results and discussions

3.1. Synthesis and characterization

Schiff-base ligands play a significant role in photophysical and biological applications. As a result, we envisioned to synthesize a novel Schiff base (E)-1-(((2-aminophenyl)imino)methyl)naphthalen-2-ol (OPN) using a one-pot synthesis process followed by ortho-phenylenediamine and 2-hydroxy-1-naphthaldehyde in ethanol in the presence of a few drops of anhydrous acetic acid. The final compound was thoroughly characterized by FT-IR, ^1H & ^{13}C NMR, mass spectral and elemental analysis and displayed in **Figures S1-S3**. The FT-IR

spectrum of OPN (**Figure S1**) exhibited a characteristic band at 1520 cm^{-1} , attributed to the C = N stretching vibration, confirming imine formation. A broad absorption band observed in the region 3466 cm^{-1} corresponds to the phenolic -OH group, while the N-H stretching vibration appeared at 3360 cm^{-1} . The mass spectrum (**Figure S4**) of the synthesized OPN exhibited a prominent molecular ion peak at $m/z = 263.1028$ $[\text{M} + \text{H}]^+$, which is in good agreement with the calculated exact mass within acceptable mass accuracy limits for TOF-MS analysis. Further, we performed the elemental analysis, which also supported the molecular composition of the synthesized naphthalene derivative. The synthesized OPN is structurally distinguished from previously reported Schiff base analogues by the presence of a naphthalene framework coupled with a phenylene diamine moiety. This combination of the structure introduces extended conjugation and a hydroxyl group present in the ortho position, facilitating intramolecular hydrogen bonding. It leads to an increase in the stabilization molecular planarity of the imine structure. These kinds of intramolecular interactions are known to significantly influence the electronic properties and binding behaviour of Schiff bases. The above-discussed results clearly revealed that the presence of significant functional groups is expected to significantly affect the interaction of OPN and BSA, which is further examined through fluorescence quenching analysis via theoretical and experimental approaches.

3.2. Density functional theory (DFT)

The interaction between a ligand and a protein is largely governed by their electronic properties, which determine their ability to engage in

hydrogen bonding, electrostatic interactions, and charge-transfer processes. In this context, DFT calculations were executed to estimate the electronic structure and global reactivity parameters of **OPN**, with the aim of connecting these properties with its binding behavior towards BSA. The **OPN** molecule structure was fully optimized with the help of the B3LYP/6–31G(d,p) method and presented in Fig. 1. Herein, the B3LYP density functional is used to describe the ground and excited state properties and 6–31G(d,p) basis set is used to calculate the electronic structure of the **OPN** molecule. The frontier molecular orbitals (FMO), including HOMO and LUMO energies, play a significant role in electronic properties and how they interact with various species. A molecule that contains a small energy gap is highly polarized and is said to be a soft molecule, when the energy gap is higher, the molecule is considered to be hard. Fig. 1 shows the HOMO-LUMO energies and energy gaps of the **OPN** molecule. In the visual representation, the red region corresponds to the negative phase, whereas the green regions indicate the positive phase [44].

Moreover, FMO energies are utilized to compute the global reactivity parameters by following the equations [45].

$$\chi = -1/2(E_{\text{HOMO}} + E_{\text{LUMO}}) \quad (1)$$

$$\mu = -\chi = 1/2(E_{\text{HOMO}} + E_{\text{LUMO}}) \quad (2)$$

$$\eta = 1/2(E_{\text{HOMO}} - E_{\text{LUMO}}) \quad (3)$$

$$S = 1/2\eta \quad (4)$$

$$\omega = \mu^2/2\eta \quad (5)$$

The global and local reactivity parameters are presented in Table 2. These parameters help to understand the chemical reactivity, stability and charge transfer ability of the synthesized molecule. The calculated E_{HOMO} (–5.577 eV) and E_{LUMO} (–2.293 eV) values represent the electron-donating and accepting nature of **OPN**. Moreover, the energy gap ($\Delta E = 3.284$ eV) provides the molecule kinetic stability and chemical reactivity [46,47]. The chemical reactivity of an **OPN** compound is strongly governed by its HOMO-LUMO energy gap [48]. A smaller energy gap corresponds to lower excitation energy requirements, thereby facilitating electronic transitions and enhancing reactivity and also associated with improved biological activity [49,50]. The HOMO is mainly localized on

Table 2

Global reactive parameters for **OPN** calculated using DFT.

Global reactive parameters	OPN
E_{HOMO} (eV)	–5.577
E_{LUMO} (eV)	–2.293
Energy gap (eV)	3.284
Ionization energy (IE)	5.577
Electron affinity (EA)	2.293
Electronegativity (χ)	3.935
Chemical potential (μ)	–3.935
Global hardness (η)	1.642
Global softness (s)	0.305
Electrophilicity index (ω)	4.715

the imine nitrogen (C = N) and aromatic π -system, indicating nucleophilic region, whereas the LUMO is distributed over the electron-deficient naphthyl and conjugated backbone, highlighting electrophilic sites [51]. Thus, orbital asymmetry enables dual reactivity and promotes efficient intramolecular charge transfer thereby enhancing overall reactivity and biomolecular potential. For instance, Geetha thamarichelvan et al., reported a Schiff base (NDBDP) and performed DFT studies using B3LYP/6–31G(d,p) method. Their result showed a HOMO-LUMO energy gap of 3.508 eV, indicating moderate stability and reactivity [52]. On the other hand Muhammad Nawaz Tahir et al., reported naphthaldehyde based Schiff base (3,4-DMN and 2,3-DMN) along with detailed structural analysis, where the calculated energy gaps of 3.328 and 3.354 eV indicate that the compounds possess relatively high electronic stability [53]. The ionization energy (IE = 5.577 eV), which represents the energy required to remove an electron from a compound and is related to the corresponding electronic energy level, indicates that **OPN** needs a moderate energy input for electron removal, while the electron affinity (EA = 2.293 eV) confirms its capacity to accept electrons [25].

The comparatively high electronegativity ($\chi = 3.935$ eV) specifies a strong tendency for the molecule to attract electrons, which aligns with the presence of heteroatoms (O and N) in the **OPN** scaffold. The molecule thermodynamic stability largely relies on its chemical potential, suggesting that **OPN** tends to achieve electronic stabilization by accepting electron density from suitable donors. The resistance of the electron cloud to polarization or deformation under slight chemical perturbation is referred to as global hardness. It directly proportional to the energy gap (ΔE), while global softness is inversely related to the energy band gap. The calculated global hardness and softness values indicate that the **OPN** exhibits reasonable resistance to charge transfer, along with improved polarizability, suggesting a favourable interaction with biological targets. Moreover, the **OPN** molecule is effectively involved in nucleophilic-electrophilic interaction, which is confirmed by a strong electrophilic index value. The above-discussed parameters support the potential applicability towards biological applications. Based on these parameter values, **OPN** exhibits increased chemical reactivity, stability, and enhanced polarizability, suggesting a more delocalized electron cloud that can facilitate charge transfer and contribute to increased molecular softness. These electronic properties suggest that **OPN** possesses the necessary reactivity and charge distribution to effectively interact with protein residues. Moreover, the limitation of the present computational analysis is the structural comparison between theoretical and experimental results.

3.3. Interaction between BSA and **OPN**

Serum albumin is the most abundant protein in the blood and plays critical roles in the body, including drug delivery and transport. Moreover, interaction studies between active drugs, such as ligands, and proteins provide significant insight into their biodistribution, toxicity, and mechanism of action. In this work, we selected BSA as a model protein, because it has a similar structure to HSA [54]. Also, this protein

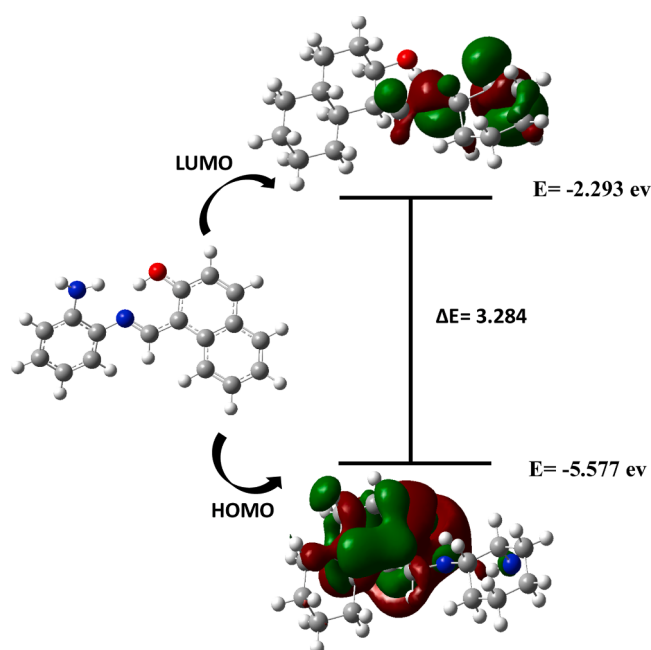


Fig. 1. Optimized structure and HOMO-LUMO energies of **OPN**.

contains the fluorescent amino acids such as tyrosine, tryptophan, and phenylalanine. Among them, tryptophan exhibits strong fluorescence at 345 nm. Fluorescence spectroscopy is a key method for analyzing structural changes in biomolecules such as membrane components, proteins, and nucleic acids during drug interactions. Due to the strong affinity between proteins and drugs, emission intensities can either increase or decrease. Binding typically reduces emission intensity by altering the fluorophore's environment. In this study, we synthesized a OPN and investigated its binding to BSA using absorption and fluorescence techniques. As shown in **Figure S5**, the absorption spectra of BSA remain largely unchanged upon the addition of OPN, indicating the absence of significant ground-state complex formation. **Fig. 2a** illustrates the fluorescence quenching behavior, where BSA exhibits a characteristic emission maximum at 343 nm upon excitation at 285 nm. The concentration of OPN was varied from 0–5 μM , while the BSA concentration was maintained at approximately 15 μM . A progressive decrease in fluorescence intensity was observed with increasing OPN concentration. This quenching effect suggests that OPN interacts with BSA, altering the microenvironment of aromatic amino acid residues, likely through hydrophobic interactions and potential conformational changes in the protein structure.

The mechanism of fluorescence quenching was analyzed, and the quenching parameters were calculated using the Stern–Volmer (S–V) **Eqs. (1a and 2a)** [55].

$$I_0/I = 1 + K_{SV}[Q] \quad (1a)$$

$$K_{SV} = k_q \times \tau_0 \quad (2a)$$

Here, I_0 and I denote the fluorescence intensities of the protein in the absence and presence of the analyte, respectively. Additionally, $[Q]$, K_{SV} , and k_q represent the quencher concentration, the Stern–Volmer constant, and the quenching rate constant, respectively. The lifetime (τ_0) of BSA alone is 6 ns. **Fig. 2b** shows the linear S–V plot, which suggests a dynamic nature of quenching. But sometimes, the static quenching mechanism can also yield a linear plot. The calculated K_{SV} , and k_q are $1.64 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1}$ and $2.79 \times 10^{13} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, respectively. The obtained k_q value is greater compared to the earlier literature value of dynamic quenching ($2.0 \times 10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) [56]. These results support that the quenching process between BSA and OPN is static quenching. The results discussed above are insufficient to confirm the quenching mechanism. So, we have performed the fluorescence quenching spectra at various temperatures. **Figure S6** and **2c** show the fluorescence quenching spectra and S–V plot of BSA with OPN at different temperatures. The calculated K_{SV} and k_q values are presented in **Table 3**. This data clearly revealed that the quenching mechanism between BSA and OPN is static, as the calculated K_{SV} decreased with the increasing temperature [57–59].

Double logarithmic **Eq. (3a)** was used to calculate the binding

Table 3
Fluorescence quenching parameters of BSA with OPN at various temperatures.

Compound	$K_{SV} (\times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1})$			$k_q (\times 10^{13} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1})$		
	298 K	303 K	313 K	298 K	303 K	313 K
OPN	1.72	1.56	1.45	2.86	2.60	2.42

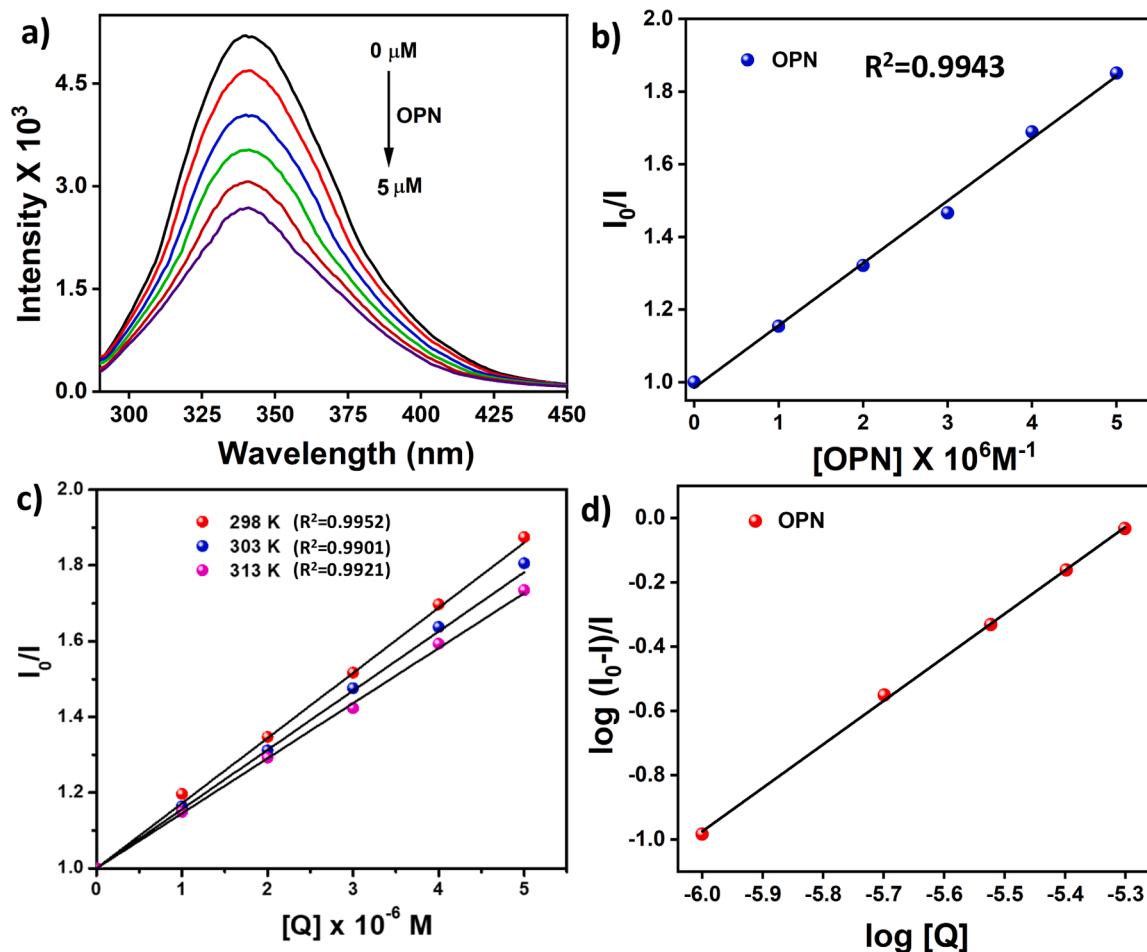


Fig. 2. Fluorescence quenching between BSA and OPN (a) Fluorescence quenching spectra, (b) Stern–Volmer plot against $[Q]$ vs I_0/I , (c) S–V plot at different temperatures, and d) double-logarithmic plot of quenching analysis.

constant (K_b) and number of binding sites (n),

$$\log(I_0 - I)/I = \log K_b + n \log(Q) \quad (3a)$$

From the logarithmic plot, K_b and n are calculated using the slope and intercept (Fig. 2d). The calculated values are $7.14 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1}$ for K_b and 1 for n , indicating strong binding interactions. This suggests that the binding site is close to 1, indicating that **OPN** binds to BSA in a 1:1 ratio.

The standard Gibbs free energy (ΔG°) helps to check the spontaneity of the binding process,

$$\Delta G^\circ = -RT \ln K_b \quad (4a)$$

Here, R and T represent the gas constant and room temperature, respectively. From Eq. (4), the obtained ΔG° value is more negative (-39.05 kJ/mol), suggesting the binding interaction is more spontaneous and favourable. To gain molecular level understanding into this interactions, molecular docking studies were performed.

Molecular docking is a useful computational method employed in drug design, commonly used to classify potential drug candidates by analysing their theoretical interactions [60]. Therefore, docking analysis was performed to reveal the binding interactions between **OPN** and BSA. Fig. 3a and b shows the docking results, including interaction data along with the corresponding 2D and 3D images. Docking simulations were carried out for the ligand across 10 conformations, with the best docking chosen based on the lowest binding energy. The moderate binding energy recorded for the **OPN** and BSA complex was -7.7 kcal/mol , showing a stable and robust interaction. The binding site analysis showed that **OPN** interacts with crucial amino acid residues, including LYS-524 via conventional hydrogen bonding and with LEU-574, THR-578, MET-547, LEU-528, VAL-546, LEU-543, and ALA-527 through pi-alkyl and hydrophobic interactions, confirming the formation of a ligand-protein complex.

The interactions of **OPN** with BSA is strongly governed by structural characteristics such as π -conjugation, molecular planarity, and functional group donor. The comparative analysis of previously reported Schiff base analogues with **OPN** highlights how the Schiff base structure modulates binding affinity and docking behaviour. Compared to other naphthalene-based Schiff bases, **OPN** exhibits enhanced protein-binding affinity due to the presence of electron-rich phenolic ($-\text{OH}$) and electron-accepting imine ($-\text{C}=\text{N}-$) groups within a conjugated framework, which collectively facilitate strong hydrogen bonding, charge-transfer, and hydrophobic interactions with BSA [57,58,61]. The salicylaldehyde Schiff base, holding a single phenyl ring, shows comparatively lower binding affinity (10^4 – 10^5 M^{-1}) and lower binding energy (-5.5 to -6.5 kcal/mol). This is due to its inadequate π -surface, which limits π - π stacking interactions within the hydrophobic cavity of BSA

[62]. In contrast, compounds incorporating extended aromatic frameworks exhibit enhanced interaction. This trend is supported by binding of a Chromen-4-one Schiff base with BSA, where increase conjugation improves protein affinity [63]. Furthermore, the docking energy of **OPN** is comparable to values reported for Schiff base systems interacting with serum albumin, yet remains slightly less favourable than those observed for metal coordinated complexes. For example, the interaction of Schiff base metal complexes with BSA [64], demonstrated stronger binding (10^4 – 10^5 M^{-1} ; -8 to -9 kcal/mol) due to metal induced rigidity and charge transfer effects. In this context, the relatively moderate binding affinity of **OPN** can be rationalized by its combined structural features, including the presence of naphthalene moiety (enhancing π - π stacking), an imine linkage (facilitating hydrogen bonding), and intramolecular $-\text{OH} \cdots \text{N}$ interaction (promoting planarity and electronic delocalization). These characteristics enabled **OPN** to attain binding performance superior to simple Schiff bases and comparable to more complex systems, without the need for metal coordination. Overall, the obtained binding energy was $-7.7 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ specifies a moderate but favorable interaction and is reliable with reported values for small organic Schiff base ligands interacting with BSA.

Moreover, the comparison with structurally related naphthalene Schiff bases (Table S1) demonstrates that alterations in donor functional groups, expansion of aromaticity and coordination environments substantially affect BSA binding properties. As compared with other hydroxyl-containing methoxy, nitro and metal ligand derivatives described in literature, **OPN** possesses the novel feature of incorporating a free amine group along with an aromatic hydroxyl group in a mononaphthalene azomethine group, enabling simultaneous hydrogen-bonding and hydrophobic interactions with BSA.

Further validation was done using docking studies of the binding domains of **OPN** to the BSA in comparison with the already identified site-specific binding markers, warfarin (WF) and ibuprofen (IP). Based on literature data, the binding domains of WF and IP to Site I (subdomain IIA) and Site II (subdomain IIIA) on albumin [65], respectively. In this case, we checked the IP and WF binding sites with BSA through the CB-Dock method (Fig. 4a&b); the docked positions and sites are matched with those previously reported in the literature [66,67]. Moreover, **OPN** docked poses showed at subdomain IIA, this result is similar to warfarin. This agreement confirms the consistency of the docking protocol and supports the accuracy of the predicted binding mode of the inspected ligand with BSA. To further evaluate the molecular stability and reliability of the docked complex, molecular dynamics were performed.

Molecular dynamics simulations are essential for assessing molecular stability during association and conformational changes over time, as

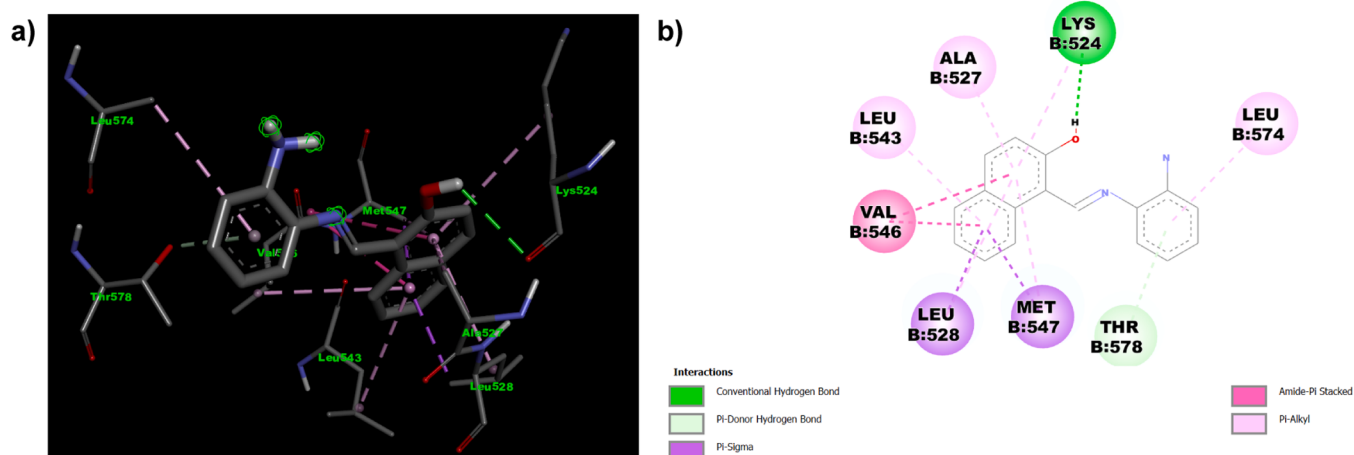


Fig. 3. Molecular docking studies between BSA and **OPN** a) 3D structure and b) 2D structure.

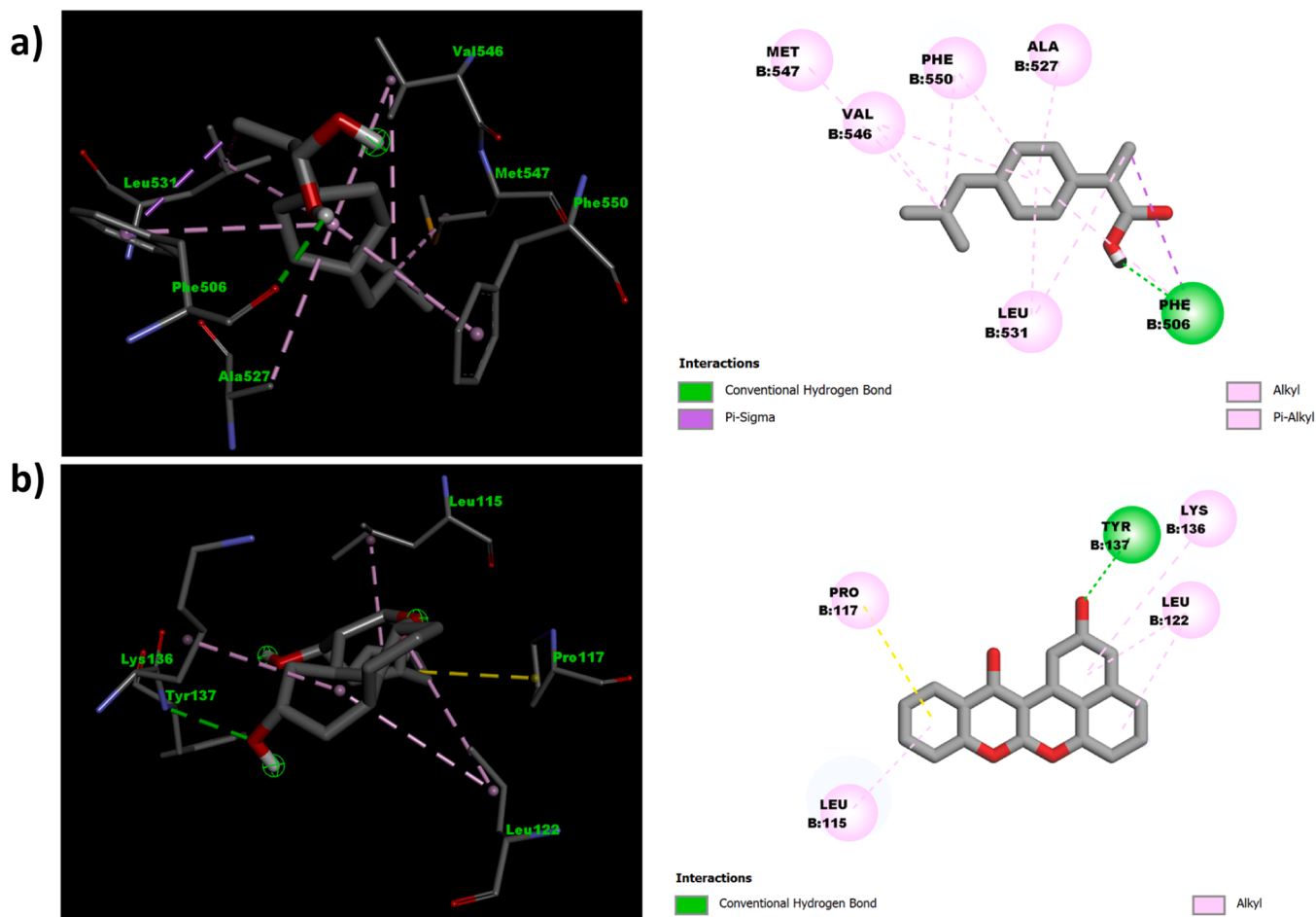


Fig. 4. Docking validation between BSA with a) Ibuprofen and b) Warfarin.

well as for determining the duration of these processes [68]. This method is specifically developed to forecast atomic movements and free binding energy by utilizing different force fields and energy minimization techniques. The predicted values for the protein-ligand complex throughout the simulation indicate overall stability and deviation, based on conformations within the protein's binding site. The time-series line graph shows deviations in nanometres, with the y-axis ranging from 0 to 0.6 nm, and the x-axis shows simulation time (0–50 ns) in nanoseconds. The RMSD profile indicates relative structural accommodation of the protein–ligand complex during the simulation period, although

continued fluctuations toward the end of the trajectory suggest ongoing conformational adjustments. Therefore, the present 50 ns simulation provides preliminary evidence of interaction behavior rather than definitive confirmation of full equilibrium stabilization (Fig. 5a). Root-mean-square fluctuation (RMSF) calculations in protein-ligand complexes have been widely used to assess the average positional fluctuations of core atoms around the binding site over the course of a simulation [43,69]. In the scatter line graph, the y-axis shows the magnitude of atomic movements in nanometres (nm), and the x-axis shows the index number of each atom in a protein molecule, ranging

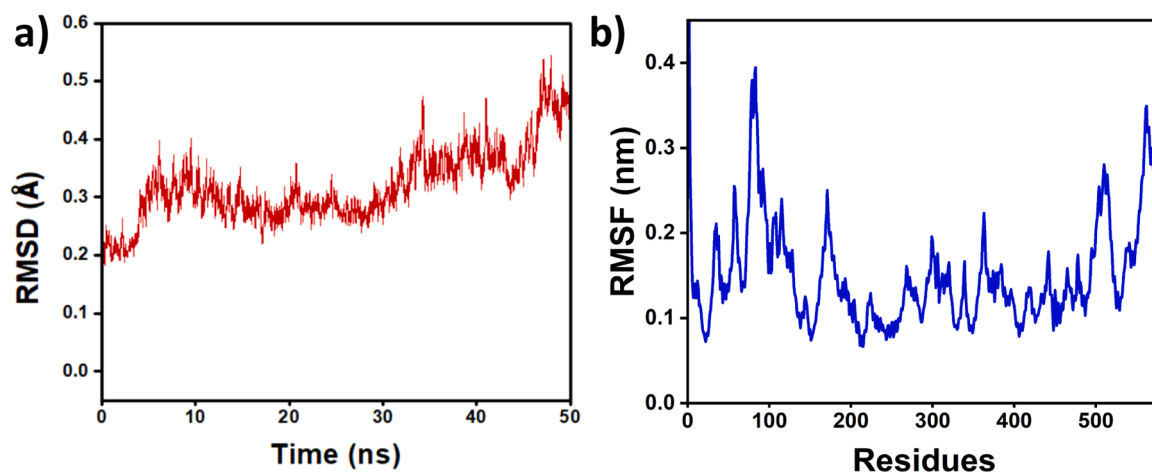


Fig. 5. a) Trajectory analyses of RMSD and b) RMSF were computed using the integrated GROMACS tools.

from 0 to 600. The degree of flexibility is observed through relatively rigid and flexible regions in the system, scaled between 0.1 and 0.4 nm (Fig. 5b). MD simulation analysis showed that the **OPN**-BSA complex is structurally stable and revealed ligand-induced conformational changes in BSA. Overall, the above results provide a primary understanding of protein-ligand interactions, which may be useful for drug design and development. Moreover, we have to perform the following significant analyses in the future, such as longer simulation times, replicate simulations, and additional energetic analyses (MM-PBSA/MM-GBSA), which would provide stronger validation of binding stability.

3.4. Swiss-ADME study

The physicochemical and pharmacological properties of the synthesized ligand will be assessed to anticipate its behaviour in the human body. ADME properties like absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion offer understanding of how a ligand may be biologically processed, while physicochemical properties like partition coefficient (Log P), molecular weight (MW), and the number of hydrogen donors and acceptors are also vital. These factors help predict a ligand's permeability, potential bioavailability, and overall drug efficacy. Moreover, Lipinski's rule of five provides a helpful guideline for estimating drug-likeness, emphasising the properties mentioned earlier. These rules show that a ligand is more likely to be orally active if it satisfies certain conditions, such as having a Log (<5), MW (<500 Da), fewer than 5 hydrogen bond donors, and ten hydrogen bond acceptors. These characteristics indicate how effectively the **OPN** can cross the cell membrane and maintain pharmacological effects within the body. Fig. 6a and b display the boiled-egg graph and bioavailability radar chart, with the results summarized in Table 4. The bioavailability radar evaluates drug-likeness based on six key physicochemical parameters influencing oral absorption (Fig. 6b). The pink region represents the optimal ranges for each axis and the molecular radar plot must lie entirely within this area to be considered drug-like. The **OPN** compound mostly falls within this zone, with a slight deviation in the saturation, indicating generally favourable drug-like properties.

The obtained Swiss-ADME values are compared with Lipinski's rule of five (Ro5), these values are under acceptable limits, which suggests the molecule shows bioavailability of conventional drugs. Moreover, the molecular weight of the **OPN** is within the range, indicating that it would be readily transported across biological membranes [70]. Similarly, LogP and LogS values are within Lipinski's rule thresholds, indicating that the **OPN** is more lipophilic and soluble in water.

Table 4

Physicochemical and pharmacokinetic properties of the **OPN** compound.

Parameters	OPN	Acceptable threshold (Ro5)
Physicochemical Properties		
Molecular weight (Da)	262.31 g/mol	<500Da
LogP	2.50	<5
LogS(mol/L)	-5.75	(0 to -6)
TPSA	58.61Å	≤140
HBA	2	≤10
HBD	2	≤5
RotBs	2	<10
Consensus LogP _{o/w}	3.43	
Pharmacokinetics Properties		
GI absorption	High	
BBB permeant	Yes	
Lipinski	Yes	
Pg-Substrate	No	
LogK _p (skin permeation)	-4.86 cm/s	

Additionally, the topological polar surface area (TPSA) serves an important molecular parameter for predicting drug bioavailability and membrane permeability. The molecule exhibits a TPSA value of 58.61 Å within the acceptable range, suggesting that **OPN** can easily penetrate cells [71]. Other important parameters, such as HBAs, HBDs, and RotBs, help evaluate the suitability of chemical compounds as potential drug candidates. The calculated values remain within Lipinski's rule limits, representing potential bioavailability. Furthermore, the bioavailability score of 0.55 suggests adequate potential for entry into the systemic circulation. For the development of an orally administered drug molecule, efficient intestinal absorption is a crucial criterion for a potential drug candidate. According to the table, **OPN** exhibits high gastrointestinal (GI) absorption, suggesting efficient intestinal uptake, and effective blood-brain barrier (BBB) penetration. This property is a critical factor, particularly for drugs targeting the central nervous system (CNS), as effective therapeutic action requires the ability to cross this barrier [72]. In general, an ideal drug candidate should not bind with P-glycoprotein (P-gp), **OPN** is not a P-gp substrate, suggesting its potential for good bioavailability. Collectively, these findings indicate the strong potential as an orally active drug candidate with favourable absorbability and bioavailability [73]. These pharmacokinetic properties were evaluated using the BOILED-EGG model depicted in Fig. 6a. The skin permeability (Log K_p) value of -4.86 cm/s indicates low transdermal diffusion of **OPN**, as more negative values correspond to reduced permeability. This suggests that it is not favourable for transdermal delivery but is more

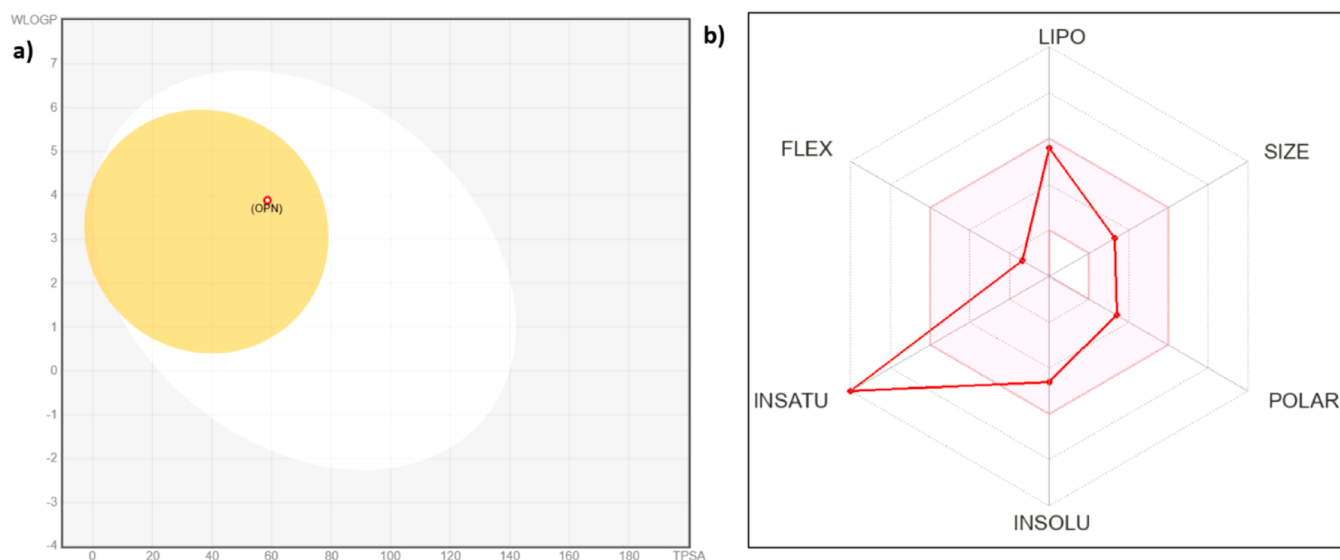


Fig. 6. a) Boiled egg graph representation of **OPN** b) Bioavailability radar chart of physicochemical properties for **OPN**.

suitable for an orally active drug candidate [74]. Overall, the Swiss-ADME analysis supports the conclusion that the OPN molecule is a potential drug candidate for further drug development.

4. Conclusion

In this work, we have successfully synthesized the phenolic-based Schiff base ligand, (E)-1-(((2-aminophenyl)imino)methyl)naphthalen-2-ol (OPN) from 2-hydroxy-1-naphthaldehyde and o-phenylenediamine. The OPN was thoroughly characterized through pivotal spectroscopic techniques like FT-IR, NMR and mass analysis. From DFT calculations of the HOMO-LUMO energy levels and global reactivity parameters, the OPN was found to be kinetically stable and highly reactive. Fluorescence quenching analysis showed a strong binding interaction between BSA and OPN via static quenching, as evidenced by high values of the quenching rate constant ($2.79 \times 10^{13} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) and a moderate binding constant ($7.14 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1}$). Molecular docking analysis showed a strong affinity occurred between BSA and OPN through hydrogen bonding with LYS 524, and also some electrostatic interactions. The stability of the BSA-OPN complex was examined using MD simulations, which showed that the complex remained structurally stable for up to 50 ns. The drug-likeness and pharmacokinetic properties were assessed using SWISS-ADME analysis, which showed that the prepared OPN molecule had good bioavailability and a strong tendency to cross the BBB. The drug-likeness and pharmacokinetic properties were assessed using SWISS-ADME analysis, which showed that the prepared OPN molecule had good bioavailability and a strong tendency to cross the BBB. Additionally, its interaction with P-gp suggests its potential as a promising drug candidate. Also, the BOILED-Egg model revealed the passive absorption in the gastrointestinal tract and brain penetration (BBB) based on molecular positioning. Furthermore, the calculated bioavailability score (0.55) indicates good drug-likeness. Overall, the synthesized OPN provide demonstrated potential as a drug candidate for further pharmaceutical drug development.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Kathiravan Poornima: Writing – original draft, Software, Data curation. **Venkatesan Srinivasan:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Supervision, Software, Resources, Methodology, Investigation, Conceptualization. **Renganathan Senthil:** Software. **Mohandass Yeshwanth Sree:** Software, Data curation. **Pushparaj Sandhyadevi:** Software, Formal analysis. **Kannan Ramamurthy:** Software, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Supplementary materials

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at [doi:10.1016/j.molstruc.2026.146670](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molstruc.2026.146670).

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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